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List of Abbreviations

AHS	Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule (middle and high school of general education)
BHS	Berufsbildende Höhere Schule (vocational high school)
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CS	Code-Switching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FL	Foreign Language
FLA	Foreign Language Acquisition
HS	Hauptschule (middle school)
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MFL	Modern Foreign Language
Mol	Medium of Instruction
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TL	Target Language

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1 Introduction

1.1 Relevance and Interest

*“Using L1 in the English classroom has long been considered as an **unforgivable wrongdoing**. Many English teachers who use L1 in the classroom **feel guilty** about it and in many cases **do not admit it**.” (Al Hariri 2015: 220; emphases added)*

In today’s globalized world, speaking more than one language is an indispensable skill to have. Therefore, multilingualism is highly fostered throughout Europe. To fulfill this aim, schools do not only offer foreign language classes for different languages, but an increasing number also provide so-called “CLIL” lessons. CLIL, being the acronym for Content and Language Integrated Learning, describes a bilingual education program in which content subjects are (partly) taught in a foreign language (FL), very often in English.

Both FL classes and CLIL classes should contribute to the foreign language acquisition (FLA) of the students and facilitate their multilingual competence. Less obvious, however, are the exact circumstances and measures that are needed to best assist the students. Should the mother tongue (L1) be used and if so, to what extent and in which situations? Or is it preferable to follow an L2-only policy? These questions have been of interest for a long time and have triggered heated discussions among scholars.

For many years, the role of the mother tongue in EFL lessons has been downplayed or even completely ignored (Cook 2001: 403-404). Some scholars are still convinced of an English-only policy and regard L1 use as an “unforgivable wrongdoing” (see introductory quote; Al Hariri 2015: 220). This attitude can lead to feelings of guilt and self-blame among intimidated teachers, which might not be necessary as other researchers believe that the use of the L1 is even desirable. Of course, there are also countless variations in between these two extremes.

This highly controversial issue about the language use is extremely relevant to the field of language teaching as it is connected to all other classroom practices. However, no consensus has been achieved yet, although – or maybe because – there is such a huge interest in the topic. As an EFL teacher, I believe that the answers to the posed questions

are not self-evident which is also my personal motivation to contribute to the discussion. Although “[t]here are likely few foreign language (FL) instructors who have not developed an individualized approach to classroom target language (TL) and first language (L1) use” (Levine 2003: 343) by personal experience and intuition, having some guidance is helpful if not necessary.

Moreover, another aim of this paper is to fill the research gap by comparing EFL and CLIL lessons, which Lasagabaster (2013: 17) mentions as a missing component:

As for further research, it would be interesting to compare EFL and CLIL teachers’ use of the L1 to analyse whether the type of approach used has an impact on L1 usage in class or whether this is similar irrespective of the approach.

Thus, this paper engages in the question of the use of the L1 in EFL and CLIL lessons and their differences. It does not only look at the quantity but especially at the quality and it foregrounds both the teachers’ and the students’ perspectives. Especially the findings about the latter one are important, as it often plays a minor role in research but a major role in learning. Finally, in addition to providing information, the paper also exemplifies the current situation in Austrian schools. All in all, this thesis serves to extend the research on first language use in EFL and CLIL classrooms.

1.2 Research Questions and Structure

This study aims at answering one main research question and three additional sub-questions, that are all closely interrelated:

- What are common code-switching practices in EFL and CLIL classrooms in lower secondary schools in Austria and why and when do teachers and students use the L1?
 - How does the use of the L1 in CLIL lessons differ from EFL lessons?
 - What are teachers’ and students’ beliefs about using the L1 in EFL and CLIL classrooms?
 - Which advantages and drawbacks exist when using the L1 in EFL and CLIL classrooms?

In order to answer these research questions, this thesis is divided into two parts. The first one presents the general theoretical background and afterwards, the second part deals with the empirical study that was conducted specifically for this paper.

The theoretical part starts with introducing three key concepts that are necessary to understand the matter. The first one is multilingualism, which is an omnipresent concept when learning English and, thus, in EFL. The second concept is CLIL, which is one of the two main concepts in this investigation, together with EFL. In order to understand CLIL, not only a mere definition is given but also information about its development (in Austria) and an insight into its advantages and disadvantages are presented. Thirdly, code-switching is explained, including a delineation of related concepts. After defining these three key concepts, chapter three deals with the first language use in the EFL and CLIL classrooms. This chapter looks at situations and reasons of teachers' and students' switches, while chapter four focuses on EFL classrooms and analyzes its benefits and drawbacks, at teachers' and students' beliefs including a possible discrepancy between beliefs and practices and, finally, it tries to inform about an appropriate quantity and quality of L1 use in language classrooms. Complementarily, chapter five presents information about support for and opposition to L1 use in CLIL classrooms. The issues covered in chapters three, four and five form a very essential basis for the empirical study and, finally, for answering all four research questions.

The literature review is then followed by the presentation of the empirical study consisting of classroom-based research, reflective teacher questionnaires and extensive student questionnaires. It informs about the process of data gathering as well as the findings of the individual research instruments. While these steps are explained in a descriptive manner, the analysis and discussion section, which should provide answers to the research questions, is composed of interpretation, reflection and drawing conclusions. At last, the study's limitations have to be pointed at and suggestions for future research and practice are made.

PART I : THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2 Key Concepts

This introductory chapter is devoted to key concepts which are essential to understand the following investigation. Definitions and explanations for *multilingualism*, *CLIL* and *code-switching* will be provided. Although these terms are frequently used and well-known in second language acquisition (SLA) research, they are quite equivocal and can be interpreted in different ways. Thus, it is important to clarify them here in order to improve the comprehensibility of this paper and to avoid ambiguity which could lead to confusion and misunderstandings.

2.1 Multilingualism: Definition and Development

Although it could evoke the impression of a straight-forward concept at first glance, multilingualism is, in fact, a highly complex term defined in several divergent ways. As this master's thesis investigates code-switching behaviors in classrooms, which is a concept closely connected to multilingualism, it is inevitable to define multilingualism in a precise way. Hence, in this chapter an attempt will be made to formulate a definition for multilingualism before presenting its development.

One central question when defining multilingualism is how it relates to mono- and bilingualism. While some scholars make a distinction between mono-, bi- and multilingualism, some only differentiate between mono- and multilingualism and others between mono- and bilingualism, with the idea of bilingualism also including more than two languages (Kemp 2009: 15). The German scholar Henning Wode (1995: 35) defines bilingualism as knowing two languages, trilingualism as knowing three languages and so on, but according to him, multilingualism simply means knowing more than one language. In Wode's conception, multilingualism is therefore the main category containing the subcategories bi- and trilingualism. Aronin and Singleton (2012: 7) explain that these terms are only used when the exact number of languages involved needs to be emphasized. Likewise, Sándor (2010: 379) agrees with the synonymous use of these terms whereas Stavans and Hoffmann (2015: 1), contrarily, regard bilingualism as

distinct from tri- and multilingualism. Weinreich (2010: 1) agrees with them by stating that the notion bilingualism means two languages, but multilingualism stands for three or more languages and therefore does not include bilingualism. A completely different understanding shows Haugen who thinks that multilingualism is “a kind of multiple bilingualism” (1956: 9) disregarding completely the complexity of the phenomenon. Finally, Mackey is an example of a scholar who regards “bilingualism as the alternate use of *two or more* languages” (1968: 555; my emphasis) instead of differentiating between bi- and multilingualism.

When looking up the term *multilingual* in the dictionary, definitions like “able to use several languages especially with equal fluency” (Merriam-Webster 2020) can be found. Subsequently, the question arises how fluent a speaker has to be in order to be regarded multilingual. In this discussion, different scholars take up partly extreme positions ranging from demanding native-like proficiency to mastering only one single language skill (Aronin & Singleton 2012: 1-2). Other definitions are based on the frequency of the use of the language and again, it is unclear how frequent is frequent enough (Aronin & Singleton 2012: 2).

These variations of the definitions are partly related to changes of scientific perspectives over time. One of the first linguists trying to find a definition for the concept of *multilingualism*, was the German scholar Maximilian Braun (Jessner 2008: 16) who declared in the 1930s that multilingualism means “aktive vollendete Gleichbeherrschung zweier oder mehrerer Sprachen [active and complete mastery of two or more languages at the same level]” (Braun 1937: 115, quoted in Šahbegović 2017: 4). Around the same time, Bloomfield described multilingualism alike as “native-like control of two or more languages” (1933: 56). These definitions relate to the monolingual model since they demand a speaker to have the same knowledge about and skills in the second language (L2), third language (L3), etc. as in the first language (L1) (Aronin & Singleton 2012: 2).

However, in more recent times a trend towards an acceptance of the broader concept is spreading, leading to a more liberal understanding of multilingualism. Already in 1952 Hall (1952: 16-17) showed first indications of a wider definition by declaring a bilingual

person to be someone with “at least *some* knowledge and control of the grammatical structure of the second language” [my emphasis]. Later, Diebold (1961: 111) designated a first stage of bilingualism as “incipient bilingualism”. It meant having just minimal skills in a second language which could, for example, be having only passive knowledge. Finally, at the end of the 20th century, Edwards reached the other extreme. He took up the position that “[i]f, as an English speaker, you can say *c’est la vie* or *gracias* or *guten Tag* or *tovarisch* – or even if you understand them – you clearly have some ‘command’ of a foreign tongue” (Edwards 1994: 55; original emphasis). His understanding implicates that a vast majority of people all over the world should be regarded as multilinguals while the other extreme suggests that only very few people can count as multilingual speakers (Aronin & Singleton 2012: 3).

Of course, also interpretations in between these two extremes exist. For the linguist Titone (1972: 13) bilingualism is speaking a second language which means following its structure instead of translating the L1 verbatim into the L2 and Macnamara (1967: 59) explains that mastering one language skill in another language than the mother tongue is already enough to be considered as bilingual, which can be denoted “receptive bilingualism” if it applies to the receptive skills.

Other related terms are *multilinguality* and *plurilingualism*. Multilinguality is a notion coined by Aronin and Ó Laoire specifying multilingualism as a “personal characteristic” (2004: 17) and the term plurilingualism, which is often used in Francophone literature, is actually a synonym for multilingualism but it can have an additional meaning and then refer to individual multilingualism (what Aronin and Ó Laoire call multilinguality) in contrast to societal multilingualism – what is usually meant by the term multilingualism (Aronin & Singleton 2012: 7; Jessner 2008: 18).

Because of all these different definitions of multilingualism and its similar concepts, it is essential to use these terms very carefully, especially when conducting and analyzing an empirical research. This thesis will distinguish between monolingualism and the generic term multilingualism containing the subcategories bilingualism, trilingualism, etc. (as Wode defines it). Moreover, in terms of proficiency, in this paper the middle position of the two extremes is used to describe a bilingual, signifying that speakers count as

multilingual as soon as they are familiar with and can apply the basic structures of a second or more languages. This implies that simply knowing single bits and phrases is not enough, whereas achieving a native speaker like level is not necessary but indeed possible.

In the last century multilingualism has developed from a minor to a major topic, both from a socio-political and a scientific perspective. For a long time, monolingualism was considered the norm and bi- or trilingualism of individual speakers, in smaller regions or even in whole countries were regarded as an exception. Nowadays, due to phenomena which can be summarized under the term *globalization* (for instance global economic interdependencies, worldwide mobility and migration as well as transnational communication networks), multilingualism is becoming an increasingly important part in everyday life (Busch 2017: 6).

Reaching this status has taken a few decades. In the 1960s Vildomec was the first scholar enunciating and drawing attention to the benefits that multilingualism brings (Šahbegović 2017: 5; see Vildomec 1963: 200). Thenceforward, the perception of multilingualism has developed in a positive way and speaking more than one language has also been supported by the European Union which aims at trilingualism (Franceschini 2011: 345). This implies that all European citizens should have “the ability [...] to engage, on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives.” (European Commission 2007: 6).

Some of the benefits of being multilingual are, for example, having better linguistic competences and applying a broader range of learning strategies. Moreover, multilinguals can make use of their different languages to compensate for gaps in one of the languages (Aronin & Singleton 2012: 5-6). Their skill can be described as “the multilingual art of balancing communicative requirements with language resources” (Herdina & Jessner 2000: 93). Hence, multilinguals are in an advantageous position compared to monolinguals (Aronin & Singleton 2012: 5).

Unfortunately, still not all kinds of multilingualism are seen in such a good light. On the one hand, some languages have a high prestige and are therefore considered as “elite multilingualism” (Cenoz 2012: 1). On the other hand, “folk or nonelite multilingualism”

is rather seen as a drawback and usually disregarded in educational institutions (Cenoz 2012: 1). Migrant and minority languages mostly count as “nonelite languages” and have a low prestige. They are thought to be unhelpful and only serve as ethnic markers in the host country (Cenoz & Gorter 2010: 44). Cenoz goes as far as claiming that those “who speak languages with a low status in a given society are expected to become monolingual in the high-status language” (Cenoz 2012: 1).

One indicator for a high prestige is the status of the language in schools. Usually, only languages with a high status are used and taught in schools (Cenoz & Gorter 2010: 38). A good example is English. It has a high prestige (Cenoz & Jessner 2009: 124) and is therefore often taught as the first foreign language in schools all over Europe (Jessner 2008: 42). This dominance of English in schools is often reflected in the offering of CLIL (content and language integrated learning) classes (Šahbegović 2017: 7) (further explanation and discussion see chapter 2.2).

As mentioned above, multilingualism is becoming a normality and many children start speaking more than one language at an early age. Thus, it is interesting and important to find out more about language acquisition, the role of the mother tongue as well as previously learned languages in order to create classroom situations which simulate a natural language learning process (Sándor 2010: 379). This includes, among others, teaching methodology, learning environment and the design of the respective curriculum – components that should consider the learners’ language situation, i.e. if they are mono-, or multilingual (Neuner 2004: 13-34). Therefore, knowledge about multilingualism clearly is of great importance in fields concerned with SLA.

2.2 CLIL

This chapter is concerned with the bilingual education program of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), which is a European project to support multilingualism among children and teenagers. Since this thesis also includes an analysis of CLIL lessons, it is essential to explore this concept in detail and to fully understand it.

Therefore, the chapter is divided into three subchapters. In the first one, the typical features of CLIL and the meaning behind the acronym are described to make an attempt at defining the approach and at distinguishing it from immersion programs. Moreover, an overview of the emergence of CLIL as well as reasons for its rapid spread are provided. Afterwards, the second subchapter presents insights into the ongoing debate about arguments for and against the implementation of CLIL programs in relation to learners but also to teachers. Finally, the particular situation of CLIL in Austria is discussed as this study is located in Austria and therefore focuses on the Austrian context.

2.2.1 Definition and Development

“Mit dieser Projektklasse wollen wir den Entwicklungen Rechnung tragen, unsere Schüler bestmöglich auf eine erfolgreiche Verwirklichung ihrer Berufswünsche in einer globalisierten Welt vorzubereiten. Exzellente Englischkenntnisse werden in dieser Welt keine besondere Qualifikation mehr darstellen, sondern Grundvoraussetzung sein.”
(Privates Gymnasium Sacre Coeur Wien)

CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning – is an umbrella term for a set of similar approaches describing the teaching and learning of content subjects in a foreign language (Wolff 2003: 214). The term was developed in Europe in the 1990s (Eurydice 2006: 7) and during the last decades, many scholars have investigated that field and formulated different definitions (S. Hahn 2018: 4). Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010: 1) describe CLIL “as an educational approach where subjects such as geography or biology are taught through the medium of a foreign language, typically to students participating in some form of mainstream education at primary, secondary but also tertiary level” and Barwell (2005: 143) explains that “[l]anguage and content integration concerns the teaching and learning of both language and subject areas (e.g. science,

mathematics, etc.) in the same classroom, at the same time”. One of the definitions most referred to is by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 1) which specifies CLIL as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an **additional language** is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language.” [original emphasis]. It is important to emphasize that the “additional language” is not a second language but a foreign language as Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010: 1) state it.

The umbrella term CLIL comprises numerous slightly different, but in their core features coinciding approaches (Papaja 2007: 130). While CLIL can sometimes stand for whole programs, it can also apply to single lessons or activities only, as shown in figure 1. These single units are called “language showers” that last between 30 and 60 minutes and often include playful elements while almost only receiving input in the CLIL language. Apart from the duration, other variables are the school type and level (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 13) as well as the starting age, and the intensity. Hence, Grin asserts that, in total, more than 200 varying CLIL programs exist (Grin 2008: 51).

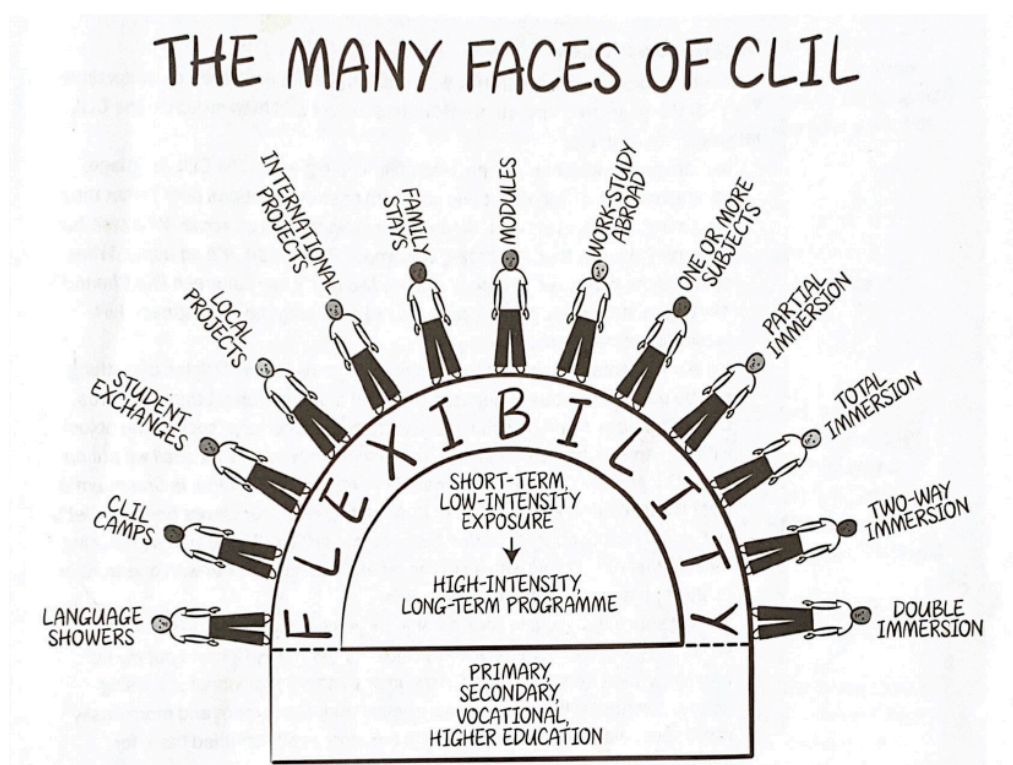


Figure 1. The many faces of CLIL (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 13)

Obviously, “there is a lack of cohesion around CLIL pedagogies. [...] There is neither one CLIL approach nor one theory of CLIL” (Coyle 2008: 101). Therefore, many different

understandings and implementations of CLIL exist (Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter 2014: 244). However, a set of core features can be identified: Wolff (2009: 547) focuses on the facts that content and language are taught simultaneously and in an integrative way and that language is not only part of the content but at the same time the medium of instruction. In contrast to this rather unspecific characterization, Dalton-Puffer (2011: 183-184) explicitly mentions six “prototypical” features of CLIL programs in different parts of the world:

1. The language used as the medium of instruction is a foreign language or a lingua franca.
2. Mostly, this language is English.
3. The teachers are typically neither native speakers of the target language (TL) nor foreign language experts but content teachers.
4. CLIL lessons are scheduled as content lessons and do not replace traditional modern foreign language (MFL) classes.
5. The TL is usually used less than half of the time in the curriculum.
6. Normally, CLIL programs only start at a secondary level when the learners already master basic competences in their L1.

Although these are typical characteristics, not every program regarded as CLIL is based on all of them (S. Hahn 2018: 5). Hence, it becomes clear, that CLIL is indeed a very broad term.

In order to understand the concept better, the different meanings of the single letters of the acronym are looked at: In CLIL programs, the content (C) that is dealt with in the lessons is not necessarily related to the culture of the TL but part of the general curriculum of the content subject, wherefore CLIL is distinct from other content-based teaching approaches (Wolff 2007: 15-16) and wherefore it is scheduled as a content lesson (see point 4).

The first L actually stands for “language” in general but Dalton-Puffer (2011: 183) suggests replacing it – in many contexts – by an E (for English), thus becoming the concept *Content and English Integrated Learning (CEIL)* which applies to a huge number of CLIL programs in non-English speaking countries. The main reason for choosing

English in particular is its outstanding prestige because of its diverse functionality and its indisputable relevance (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 550). Speaking English is regarded as a basic competence and as one of the main literacy capacities (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 9-10; Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183). The importance of English has influenced the acceptance and spread of CLIL – or actually CEIL – programs in a positive way (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 3). Also this present thesis uses the term CLIL but actually means CEIL since the TL of the lessons that will be discussed in the course of this paper is English.

Another characteristic concerning the use of language in CLIL classes which should be mentioned, is the ratio in which the L1 and the TL is used. According to Papaja and Wysocka (2020: 55) a complete monolingual language use should not be aspired in CLIL lessons since the integration of the mother tongue can support the acquisition of the content knowledge. They argue that the TL should never be a burden, so if a switch into the L1 is necessary, it should be made in order to avoid communication problems and further consequences (Papaja & Wysocka 2020: 55). However, the scholars' opinions on the L1 use diverge significantly what is dealt with in chapter 5.

This belief is also reflected in the integration (I) aspect which plays an important part in the program since integration is the crucial feature of CLIL (Coyle 2007: 546; Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 3-4). This indicates that CLIL lessons are not translated content lessons but a combination of (foreign) language and content teaching, hence improving both aspects (Gierlinger 2015: 347). Actually, a 50:50 balance of content and language teaching should be aspired (Ting 2010: 3) but often it is difficult to realize this idea (Mehisto 2008: 98). Thus, unbalanced proportions are common, which, however, is nothing negative, as long as content and language are well integrated. In fact, they should be so closely interwoven that they are no longer seen as separate entities (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 196)

Finally, the second L stands for “learning”. In order to facilitate learning, the teachers have to particularly respect both major foci and design relevant activities (Koller 2014: 21). However, CLIL is not the only program that has a dual focus on language and content. Content-based instruction, English-medium instruction and especially

immersion programs are very similar bilingual programs (Darvin, Lo & Lin 2020: 103), not least because CLIL developed from the Canadian immersion concept (Coyle 2007: 544). Therefore, a number of scholars has been involved in an ongoing debate about resemblance and divergence between CLIL and similar bilingual education programs with a particular interest in immersion (see Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010; Somers & Surmont 2012; Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter 2014; Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014; Nikula & Mård-Miettinen 2014). On the one hand, Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter argue that all features that are said to be typical of CLIL, are also true for immersion (2014: 254). Thus, they suggest considering the terms as lexical variants. On the other hand, Dalton-Puffer et al. are convinced that CLIL programs have different foci than immersion. However, in a response to Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter's article, the scholars do approve that the flexibility of the concept has disadvantages as it is difficult to define and compare (Dalton Puffer et al. 2014: 215).

One aspect in which CLIL and immersion differ, is the flexible role of the L1 in CLIL. The mother tongue and code-switching strategies are more implemented in CLIL approaches than in immersion programs (Lin 2015: 75). One of the reasons for this difference could be the goal of immersion programs which is a native speaker-like proficiency in the TL, whereas the objectives of CLIL are usually set lower (Muñoz 2002: 36). In addition, teachers of immersion programs are often native speakers of the target language (Walker & Tedick 2000: 10) what is less common in CLIL (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183). Although, these are rather vague and unfixed characteristics, together with the above-mentioned prototypical qualities, CLIL seems to be distinguishable.

Due to this lack of clarity, one might think that bilingual education is a new and still developing concept. This might be partly true for CLIL in particular, but bilingual teaching and learning in general has existed for many centuries (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 3). So, although the acronym CLIL was only developed in the mid 1990s (Eurydice 2006: 7), CLIL cannot be regarded as a new concept but rather as an amalgam of different previously established bilingual programs bringing together the best characteristics of these approaches (Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 496).

The first few years of CLIL were mostly dedicated to finding and agreeing on definitions and the experts tried to formulate guidelines and suggestions for the implementation of CLIL (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 9). As soon as the concept was ready to use, multiple measures were taken and various developments took place simultaneously. This resulted in a tremendous spread at a high speed all across Europe (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 184) and even in Asia and South America (Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 495) and revealed the strong need for a bilingual program like CLIL.

Apart from the parents and teachers' wishes to include English into different subjects, institutions – even supra-national ones, such as the European Commission and the Council of Europe – supported the implementation by funding different initiatives (Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter 2014: 243) and by promoting multilingualism through concepts like “mother tongue plus two other languages” (European Commission 2003: 16-17). The European Commission started a campaign proposing already in 1995 (47) that “secondary school pupils should study certain subjects in the first foreign language learned”. Moreover, the European Commission defined that “[c]ontent and language integrated learning (CLIL) [...] has a major contribution to make to the Union's language learning goals” (European Commission 2003: 19) and informed that “[t]he ability to understand and communicate in more than one language [...] is a desirable life-skill for all European citizens.” (European Commission 2005: 3).

However, there is still a lack of clearly defined goals and objectives and therefore the exact implementation depends on the individual countries (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 547). Hence, in some countries, like in Spain, CLIL is a regional program as part of a top-down policy, but in others local authorities are responsible, which is also the case in Austria (Dalton-Puffer & Nikula 2014: 117) (for more information see chapter 2.2.3). This is one of the reasons for the coexistence of so many diverging approaches – besides factors like educational policies and the sociocultural setting of the different states (De Zarobe 2013: 232).

Nevertheless, in almost every state in the European Union, some kind of CLIL program exists (Eurydice 2006: 13). “Over the last three decades, it has spread across the

continent to the extent that in some areas it is verging on the mainstream, albeit typically as an option rather than an obligation” (Nikula & Moore 2019: 237).

About two and a half decades after its development, the term CLIL “has acquired some characteristics of a brand-name, complete with the symbolic capital of positive ascriptions: innovative, modern, effective, efficient and forward-looking” (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 3). Some even describe it as “THE so-called current solution to FL teaching and learning in the EU” (Bruton 2013: 587; original emphasis) and call its benefit the „2-for-the-price-of-1“ (2013: 588) which means that language and content are taught at the same time.

The following chapter will provide a closer look at the advantages and discuss the common perception of this so far highly beneficial looking concept.

2.2.2 Advantages and Challenges of CLIL

The usefulness of CLIL has been discussed by numerous researchers, of which some have a positive view on the effects of CLIL, like Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010), Dalton-Puffer (2011), and Hüttner and Smit (2014) and some of them see more disadvantages, as Bruton (2013), Paran (2013), and Apsel (2012).

First of all, one of the main arguments in favor of CLIL programs is the teaching of content and language at the same time, the just mentioned “2-for-the-price-of-1” (Bruton 2013: 588) principle. The learners improve their knowledge of the TL while making progress in the content subject without any detriment (De Graaff et al. 2007: 607-608). There are even theories that teaching in a FL favors the learning of the content subject and vice versa, that the FL benefits from the content it transmits since it is given more purpose than in common FL teaching (Bruton 2013: 588). More precisely, it is a communicative purpose as “CLIL is the ultimate dream of Communicative Language Teaching (e.g. Brumfit & Johnson 1979) and Task Based Learning (e.g. Willis 1996) rolled into one.” (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 3).

In opposition to this view, some scholars argue against these advantages, for example, because they consider “the need to balance content and language instruction as

unrealistic or impossible” (Cammarata & Tedick 2012: 259). In this context, Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008: 20) state that “[c]ommon sense seems to say that students studying in a second language cannot possibly learn the same amount of content as students studying in their first language” but directly afterwards they contradict that belief. Moreover, instead of ascribing the content a beneficial role, it is said to hinder the language development if it is new or complex (Bruton 2013: 592). In addition, Apsel (2012: 51) regards the lack of TL knowledge as a problematic impediment to learn the content. This lack of TL knowledge, however, should never be a valid argument against CLIL as the L1 may be used to clarify comprehension problems. The role of the L1 will be further discussed and argued in the following chapters.

Another reason supporting CLIL is the test scores that CLIL students achieve, in comparison to the results of non-CLIL learners. Their vocabulary, writing, morphosyntactic and spontaneous speaking skills were tested with the outcome that “people with special language-learning aptitude may reach high proficiency levels via traditional foreign language classes, but CLIL significantly enhances the language skills of a broad group of students whose foreign language talents or interests are average” (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 188).

However, some scholars do not believe that an average student can participate in CLIL. Netten and Germain (2009: 779) argue that “immersion does not respond well to the needs of all students; approximately 20% of students drop the program before Grade 5, and very few students with learning challenges participate”. CLIL is often linked to selection processes, sometimes before entering and while completing the program. Due to this selection, it is obvious that a group of CLIL students is more likely to achieve better results as this group often consists of the more motivated, the more supported and the high-performance learners (Bruton 2013: 593; Apsel 2012: 50). Also with regard to the selection, Bruton claims that teaching in a FL is more discriminatory than teaching in the mother tongue (2013: 593) to which Hüttner and Smit, however, respond that he apparently does not consider the fact that very often the national language does not conform with the students’ L1 (Hüttner & Smit 2014: 162).

A further argument supporting CLIL is the naturalistic way in which learning takes place: with meaningful language input but without formal instruction. It seems to be a less demanding way of learning, therefore influencing the positive perception of CLIL – in contrast to common FL learning that is often associated with mechanistic grammar drills (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 6). Hence, it is not surprising that CLIL students show more motivation and learn faster (Wolff 2009: 547).

Yet, from another point of view, the use of the TL is ascribed the role of taking up the space and leaving only little room for the L1. This thinking has its roots in the “direct method” that requires the FL use all the time (Cummins 2009: 175), resulting in the use of the L1 only in difficult classroom situations (Gierlinger 2015: 348) but, as discussed above, it might, in fact, be disadvantageous to organize CLIL lessons monolingually because the L1 can be beneficial and, the TL should not be a burden (Papaja & Wysocka 2020: 55).

Finally, working in CLIL programs requires the teachers to have very specific skills as the success mainly depends on them (Koller 2014: 22). The teachers, mostly content professionals without particular English training, have to teach the content in a FL, using partly very specific language (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183-184). In the case of CEIL, their language usage could be referred to as English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Unfortunately, these teachers did not have any professional training in this field (Koller 2014: 22) and they neither have many guidelines that help them (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 547) nor much prefabricated and supportive learning material (Wolff 2009: 562). This can indeed be a drawback if the teachers are not highly motivated and committed.

This insight into the ongoing discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of content and language integrated learning has shown that most counterarguments have a quite pessimistic view and are refutable. Only some points can really be viewed as somehow problematic: first of all, the often quite limited access for students, which could possibly be solved by offering more CLIL programs (eventually in different levels to avoid dropouts), and secondly, the individual responsibility of the teachers. They could be helped by ascribing CLIL more importance and standardizing it, including professional training and the development of useful material.

2.2.3 CLIL in Austria

The implementation of the first CLIL-like programs in Austria started around 1990, shortly before Austria's accession to the European Union, an event that enormously contributed to the need of multilingualism (Dalton Puffer 2007: 46). In the beginning, the Austrian CLIL was labeled "EAA" which stands for "Englisch als Arbeitssprache" [English as a Working Language] (Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann 2010: 66). Just like the generic term CLIL, EAA aims at an integration of language and content in either continuous form or single units and with the additional use of the L1 (Eurydice 2005: 3). Although every language of the Austrian education system (English, French, Spanish, Italian, Russian, Slovenian, Croatian, Hungarian, Czech) could be the TL in an EAA program, it – as the name suggests – was mostly English (cp. *CEIL* in chapter 2.2.1) (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 46).

EAA was practiced in all school types in wide parts of Austria (Eurydice 2005: 3). Other similar, but less known concepts, that are or were used in Austria are FsAA (Fremdsprache als Arbeitssprache – Foreign Language as a Working Language) addressing all languages (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 46), EMI (English as a Medium of Instruction) at universities, EAC (English Across the Curriculum), LAC (Language Across the Curriculum) which is the same as DLP (Dual Language Program), VBS (Vienna Bilingual Schooling) and, of course, the internationally used generic term CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) (Eurydice 2005: 3-4) that is also used in this paper. However, in order to make a school more unique and therefore more attractive, the EAA program is also given other names. A Viennese secondary school, for example, calls their bilingual classes "Europaklassen" [Europe classes] (Privates Gymnasium Sacre Coeur Wien).

Not untypically, especially grass roots initiatives supported the launch of the CLIL project in Austria since numerous motivated teachers, headmasters and parents were committed to CLIL (Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann 2010: 66). The project fulfilled the needs of both groups: on the one hand, the teachers were looking for a new challenge and the headmasters wanted to improve their schools' image (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 47) and on the other hand, the parents wished for an intensified FL training (Abuja 1999: 1).

Additionally, by introducing the “Fremdsprachenoffensive” [foreign language offensive] (Gierlinger 2015: 348) and by assigning the development of an Austrian CLIL program to a project group at the “Zentrum für Schulentwicklung” (ZSE III) in 1991, the Federal Ministry of Austria laid the legislative foundation. (Abuja 1999: 1-4). The publication of the first results in 1993 in combination with the development of suitable teaching material helped the spread of EAA programs (Eurydice 2005: 7). Since they should develop a flexible system with different intensity that could be adapted to diverse schools, various forms of CLIL exist in Austria (Abuja 1999: 4). Hence, neither a special curriculum nor detailed objectives for CLIL classes exist (Abuja 2007: 20) which is also reflected on a Viennese secondary school’s website:

Inhaltlich deckt der Unterricht in den EU-Klassen die Anforderungen des österreichischen Lehrplans ab und mündet in der Ablegung einer österreichischen Matura. [Content-wise, the lessons in the EU classes cover the requirements of the Austrian curriculum and lead to the completion of an Austrian Matura.] (Privates Gymnasium Sacre Coeur Wien)

The School Education Law (Schulunterrichtsgesetz) defines the legal basis for CLIL in § 16 (3):

Darüber hinaus kann die zuständige Schulbehörde auf Antrag des Schulleiters, bei Privatschulen auf Antrag des Schulerhalters, die Verwendung einer lebenden Fremdsprache als Unterrichtssprache (Arbeitssprache) anordnen, wenn dies [...] zur besseren Ausbildung in Fremdsprachen zweckmäßig erscheint und dadurch die allgemeine Zugänglichkeit der einzelnen Formen und Fachrichtungen der Schularten nicht beeinträchtigt wird. Diese Anordnung kann sich auch auf einzelne Klassen oder einzelne Unterrichtsgegenstände beziehen. (Rechtsinformationssystem des Bundes 2013)

Hence, there is no obligation to offer CLIL but it is the schools’ autonomous decision whether or not they want to offer bilingual education. This guideline clearly reflects a laissez-faire style of the Austrian government (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 547). However, this legal requirement was complemented by newer regulations for specific school types, making a certain extent of CLIL compulsory, in 2011 for technical schools (HTL), in 2014 for commercial schools (HAK) and in 2018 for agriculture and forestry schools (HLF) (Lehrplan HTL 2019: 5; Lehrplan HAK 2014: 11; BMBWF 2018: 3). Nevertheless, CLIL teachers often do not receive extra funds for special CLIL teaching

materials, let alone extra financial rewards or reduced working hours (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 47).

One advantage of the Austrian teacher training, in comparison to most other countries, is the dual qualification system that requires teachers to study two subjects at university allowing for more flexibility at the implementation of CLIL if the teachers are competent in a FL and a content subject. This presupposition generally facilitates finding qualified teachers (Wolff 2009: 562), but nevertheless, not every Austrian CLIL teacher is also a trained language teacher. Therefore, the Pedagogic Institutes offer a specific one-year training program for CLIL, called DLP-CLIL, teaching how to combine language and content (E. Hahn 2016: 3, 7). Additionally, the schools often employ native speakers as a support for an authentic language use (Eurydice 2006: 46).

Concerning exams – even school leaving exams – Austrian CLIL students can choose if they want to take them in the CLIL language or in the official language¹ as the language proficiency is not assessed (Eurydice 2005: 8). This flexibility in testing allows that CLIL is practiced until grade 12 in Austria (Hüttner & Smit 2014: 164). Sometimes the students then get a note in their reports informing about the participation in a CLIL program (Eurydice 2005: 8).

Unfortunately, there has not been a lot of research on CLIL in Austria, especially concerning the actual amount to which it is implemented (Šahbegović 2017: 25). However, the large – and rising – number of schools in Austria offering CLIL has led to a growing research interest in the field (Wolff 2009: 566) and especially Christiane Dalton-Puffer has engaged a lot in CLIL research in Austria (see the u:cris Portal of the University of Vienna: <https://ucris.univie.ac.at/portal/en/publications/searchall.html?searchall=clil>)

The first nationwide survey on CLIL was conducted by Abuja in 1996/97 and stunningly revealed that – at that time already – almost 15% of all Austrian schools (with the distribution BHS (vocational high schools): 32.1%, AHS (middle and high schools of

¹ see also: <https://bgklosterneuburg.ac.at/ueber-uns/bildungsweg/bilingual-programme>

general education): 26.8%, the former HS (middle schools): 7.1%) practiced CLIL in some way and another almost 18% was planning to introduce it in the near future (Abuja 1999: 6-7). Unfortunately, no nationwide survey has been conducted lately to update the numbers, probably because of the difficulties caused by the wide range of different formats in addition to the inaccurate collection and forwarding of information by the local authorities in a federal system. As a consequence, there is currently a serious lack of reliable data concerning Austrian CLIL courses (S. Hahn 2018: 10). This, however, does not pose any restriction to the thesis at hand.

2.3 Code-switching

2.3.1 Definition

According to Grosjean (2010: 51-52) CS can be explained 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”. This means that a change of languages within a conversation or even a single utterance occurs. It includes mixing, borrowing, transferring and using two languages simultaneously and interchangeably (Jahan et al. 2020: 5855). Code switching is sometimes also called “code alternation” or “code-mixing” (Sondang & Bonik 2018: 1).

Code-switching can take a variety of forms. On a linguistic level, Poplack (1980: 615) distinguishes three different types: inter-sentential, intra-sentential and extra-sentential/tag switching. On a sociolinguistic level, Gumperz (1982: 60-61) categorizes CS into situational (participant) and metaphorical (topic) switches. In other words, a speaker might code-switch depending on the interlocutor or the topic that is dealt with.

Although CS most notably occurs on the lexical level, this is not necessarily always the case. It can also concern phonology or syntax (Orynbeek et al. 2020: 6282). It is usually a highly common phenomenon among bi- and multilinguals (Sondang & Bonik 2018: 2).

Even though there are numerous forms of CS, it is systematic and not a random linguistic phenomenon (Levine 2011: 50) and reflects “a large degree of linguistic competence in more than one language, rather than a defect arising from insufficient knowledge of one or the other” (Poplack 1980: 615). Nevertheless, it is certainly irrefutable that language

deficits lead to code-switching which less fluent bilinguals and language learners are often involved in – although even more proficient bilinguals may not be familiar with the vocabulary of a specific topic in one of the languages (Wysocka-Narewska 2020: 52).

The following chapters use a different term, namely “first language use” or “L1-use” since the focus is not on the concept of code-switching itself but rather on the implementation of the mother tongue. Nevertheless, I am aware that a partial first language use in an EFL or CLIL classroom always implies codeswitching

2.3.2 Social Factors

The concept of code-switching can be approached from various perspectives, but mainly from a sociolinguistic and a linguistic perspective. While the former focuses on the organization of languages and the grammatical principles of bilingual speech, the latter focuses on in how far social factors influence and trigger CS (Hadei, Kumar & Jie 2016: 123). As classroom settings are characterized by social constellations and different roles, I will first focus on the sociolinguistic aspects.

There are numerous social factors that may cause CS. The researcher Malik (1994) provides an elaborate description and lists the following factors:

the lack of facility, lack of registral competence, semantic significance, addressing different audience [sic], showing identity with a group, amplifying and emphasizing a point, the mood of the speaker, habitual expressions, pragmatic reasons, attracting attention. (referred to in Hadei, Kumar & Jie 2016: 123)

A few of these factors should be singled out and discussed in further detail: first of all, language proficiency plays an important role, as already mentioned in the previous chapter. Secondly, one should also consider the personal preference of a speaker. A bilingual person might be fluent in two languages but simply does not like speaking one of them. This probably goes hand in hand with the social identity which is another crucial factor. Blom and Gumperz’ study from 1972 which focused on this identity factor was ground-breaking in that field. Moreover, another essential criterion is the meaning of single words or phrases. Sometimes, languages do not have fitting

equivalents for certain words or idioms which is why a speaker could see a reason for CS.

Finally, the interlocutor has a huge impact on CS. Changing the language or the style because of and in favor of the audience means accommodating the listeners. It can signal liking and approval but it can also express disapproval if not changed to avoid accommodation. (San Isidro & Lasagabaster 2019: 338).

This section has shown that the social reasons for CS are manifold and it is likely that they also play a social role in EFL and CLIL classrooms. In all likelihood, the roles in a classroom are crucial as the language choice might depend on whether the interlocutor of a student is the teacher or another student. In chapter three reasons for the L1-use will be dealt with in greater detail.

2.3.3 Delineation of Related Concepts

The previous sections have shown that quite clear definitions for code-switching exist. Nevertheless, there are similar concepts that sometimes get confused or simply not distinguished because of their similarities. The terminology discussed in this section reveals the diversity of terms and to what extent they overlap.

A very similar concept is translanguaging. Like code switching, translanguaging also refers to the switching between languages (Park 2015: 50). However, while some scholars treat translanguaging simply as a re-branding of code-switching (Schwartz & Asli 2014: 26-27), others, and among them Garcia and Li (2014: 22), two of the most cited and approved scholars in the field of translanguaging, argue that translanguaging differs from code-switching. García and Li (2014: 22) state that

[t]ranslanguaging differs from the notion of code-switching in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but to the speaker's construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of a language, but that make up the speaker's complete language repertoire.

In order to understand the concept better, its origins should be explained: the term "translanguaging" was coined by Cen Williams in the 1980s. It derives from the Welsh

word “trawsieithu” and was used to describe a pedagogic strategy that focused on intentional switching between languages for input and output in English-Welsh bilingual classrooms (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012: 643). At first, it described the systematic combination of different languages within one task, which should help language learners gain a deeper understanding of the languages but also of the content taught (Park 2015: 50).

However, later many scholars – among them Ofelia García – have extended and expanded the understanding of the concept (Coronel-Molina & Samuelson 2017: 383). One reason for this change was the new perception of bilinguality which was no longer seen as separate monolingual systems (Nikula & Moore 2019: 238). García and Li (2014: 2) base their concept on the key term repertoire and define translanguaging as

an approach to the use of language, bilingualism and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages.

They also suggest that bilinguals strategically select single features from their linguistic repertoire and use them effectively for a successful communication (García 2012: 1).

The extension of the term is related to the change of the understanding of bilingualism and multilingualism. The extended concept pictures translanguaging as spontaneous practices in bilinguals’ everyday lives as a method of making meaning, shaping experiences, and as a way for bilinguals to communicate. Learning is said to happen through both languages as the linguistic systems are seen as one (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012: 641).

After all, translanguaging differs from codeswitching at a conceptual level: while CS is a language-oriented theory since it foregrounds the differentiation between different codes and primarily focuses on the switching between the languages, translanguaging focuses on repertoires and is a language-user oriented theory (Baynham & King Lee 2019: 25). Translanguaging involves “*multiple discursive practices* in which bilinguals engage in order to *make sense of their bilingual worlds*” (Garcia 2009: 112; original emphasis). Moreover, it is associated with freeing oneself from specific social

conventions that require the use of one or another language and is therefore often used in private settings (Coronel-Molina & Samuelson 2017: 382).

Other similar concepts are *polylingual languaging* (Jørgensen 2008), *codemeshing* (Coronel-Molina & Samuelson 2017: 382), *codemixing* and *borrowing* (Baker & Jones 1998: 59-60), *metrolingualism* (Otsuji & Pennycook 2011), and *bilanguaging* (Mignolo 2012 [2000]: 231). García and Li Wei conceive that “heteroglossia” might be a suitable umbrella term for all these models including translanguaging (2014: 36).

3 Situations and Reasons for L1 use in EFL and CLIL Classrooms

While the previous chapter presented several important concepts and definitions that are essential to understand and follow the argumentation of this thesis, chapter three already compiles the underlying principles of the following empirical investigation and it forms the basis for the final discussion. This section solely focuses on the switches in EFL and CLIL classrooms and their possible reasons without valuing their approval or disapproval or analyzing the frequency of CS. Moreover, a separation between teachers and students is aimed at, which, however, is in some way difficult as the functions are partly overlapping. Therefore, some switches might be repeated.

3.1 Teachers' Switches

Most of all, teachers use the L1 to help students and to improve their understanding of the content (Lasagabaster 2013: 8). However, very often teachers use the mother tongue spontaneously and are not aware of the functions and outcomes of their behavior. Disregarding whether planned or not, the L1 serves some functions that can be beneficial in classrooms (Sert 2005: 2). Unfortunately, different researchers often use different terms and phrases to describe the same instances, as they provide a more or less detailed description, which makes comparing studies difficult.

One of the most basic classification consists of only two different categories, namely the main functions which describe switches that are related to the language teaching, and social functions which describe switches concerned with classroom management (Kerr 2019: 5).

Mattsson and Burenhult-Mattsson also prefer a very broad classification of only three categories (Wysocka-Narewska 2020: 53):

1. topic switch: CS because of the topic that is dealt with (e.g. grammar)
2. affective functions: CS to show solidarity and express emotions
3. repetitive functions: CS for clarifying meaning

Hoff's (2013: 46) scheme incorporates these six categories: translating, helping with task instructions, disciplining, showing solidarity and empathy, explaining grammar, and conveying meaning.

Like Kerr (2019) Gierlinger (2015: 350-361) also divides the L1 uses into two categories, namely regulative and instructive purposes which can be compared to the social and the main functions respectively.

1. regulative purposes:
 - a. behavior management: includes rapport building, decreasing language anxiety and maintaining discipline
 - b. classroom and task management: administrative announcements (task instruction; opening and closing the lessons)
2. instructive purposes:
 - a. concept management: concept-focused CS to ensure the understanding of the content (also grammar instruction); word-focused CS to deal with comprehension problems; language-deficit-focused CS arising due to teachers' language deficits; can also have time-saving reasons

In his study, Gierlinger (2015: 351) also refers to Lasagabaster (2013) as he relates Lasagabaster's functions to his classification of instructive and regulative purposes. Lasagabaster (2013: 8-10) mentions improving the understanding (when explaining vocabulary and concepts), L1 and L2 comparisons (to foster the metalinguistic awareness and make use of the students' previous knowledge), making the students feel comfortable (to boost the learners' confidence and prevent anxiety), boosting the debate (when talking about difficult concepts) and disciplinary issues as reasons for using the mother tongue. Gierlinger (2015: 351) regards the first two functions as instructive and the other three as regulative.

Finally, one of the earlier studies by Piasecka (1988: 98-99) is quite extensive and also Paker & Karaagaç's (2015: 112) list is fairly long. By uniting the works of multiple scholars, they bring together various situations of L1-use.

Apparently, the list seems to be endless depending on the detailedness of the description. Even the above enumerated situations are probably not complete, partly because scholars might have a well-structured lesson in mind when determining L1 functions, but often less thought of L1-usages occur like “talking about something not related to the course” and “making jokes”, as in Paker and Karaagaç’s study (2015: 114-116).

3.2 Students’ Switches

Equally important to the teachers’ L1-use is the students’ CS in the classroom, which definitely serves some functions either beneficial or not (Sert 2005: 3). Unfortunately, there is a lack of published literature on this topic as most scholars focus on the teachers’ switches and disregard the students’ switches.

Already in 1996 Eldridge (1996: 305-307) defined several functions of students’ L1 use of which the five most important ones are:

1. equivalence: the students use a term in their L1 because they lack the word in the FL; but by bridging the gap, they can continue the communication.
2. floorholding: in order to hold the floor – possibly in form of a reflex – students use their L1 since they cannot recall the appropriate TL structure.
3. metalanguage: using the mother tongue to talk about a FL task.
4. reiteration: a repetition of the message in the L1 to avoid misunderstandings.
5. conflict control: the students want to avoid misunderstandings and aim at a transfer of the intended meaning.

These functions all follow the principles of successful foreign language learning, but the classification does not necessarily reflect the actual situation in which students also choose the L1 simply because it is easier and they need to put in less effort or because they feel more comfortable using their L1.

Yphantides (2009) included these also relevant L1 usages. The scholar mentioned that the participants of her survey employed their L1 because of a lack of vocabulary, because of social and cultural purposes, when using fillers, for task clarification and

contrastive analysis, for a greater personal comfort and for expressing feelings. This led to less pressure and more relaxed students (Yphantides 2009: 14-15).

In 2017 Galali and Cinkara published another classification describing that the students use the L1 (Galali & Cinkara 2017: 58):

- to talk about personal issues (see also Yphantides 2009),
- to feel more connected to their culture (see also Yphantides 2009),
- because of a lack of vocabulary (see also Yphantides 2009 & Eldrige 1996),
- to talk about the task (see also Eldrige 1996),
- to finish class activities faster,
- to ask for further explanation,
- to check the meaning of a new word or concept, and
- to explain a new point in the lesson to a classmate.

Especially, the function “using the L1 to finish faster” draws attention to it as it is a reason which an observer could not identify without the reflected comments of the students themselves. Thus, this function can only be identified in studies that include student questionnaires or interviews.

Even more recently, Orynbek et al. (2000: 6290-6292) published the results of a study in which they also determined quite similar functions and categorized these subfunctions into four main categories:

1. poetic function (including quoting someone, cracking jokes, making the lesson more enjoyable; although only 28% agree with the last function)
2. directive function (including discussing personal issues, persuading others, attracting attention; but again, only 28% agree with the last one)
3. referential function (including discussing certain topics which are more appropriate to discuss in the L1 and explaining difficult concepts; students code switch because it makes learning easier, it helps them carry out tasks successfully, because finding proper English equivalents is hard and because they share something they are thinking in their L1)

4. expressive function (including CS to avoid misunderstandings and to improve faultless communication, to express themselves easily, to decrease their anxiety and to feel more comfortable when speaking, to express emotions, to express loyalty to their culture, to create a sense of belonging and for habitual expressions)

Although Eldridge's classification appears to be valid, Yphantides' (2009), Galali and Cinkara's (2017) as well as Orynbek et al.'s (2000) divisions are better developed as they also contain less prototypical situations. Thus, they seem to be more appropriate than Eldridge's. Several of their functions will also be used in the questionnaire that was designed for this thesis' study (see chapter 6).

Although these two subchapters concentrated on EFL, it is likely that the findings are also true for CLIL classes, despite the fact that they probably focus less on language aspects and more on explaining difficult concepts.

4 First Language Use in the Language Classroom: The Great Debate

While the last chapter aimed at describing the CS instances, in this chapter which is benefits and drawbacks are analyzed and the students' and the teachers' beliefs are presented. This should serve to find out more about the general attitude towards L1 use. Afterwards, it is necessary to discuss the appropriate quantity and quality of the mother tongue in classrooms.

4.1 Benefits and Drawbacks

After looking at possible L1 uses, it needs to be revealed if the mother tongue is beneficial or rather disadvantageous for language learners. The positions are quite controversial and there has been a heated debate about the teachers' as well as the students' use of their first language in the language classroom.

Probably one of the most mentioned and valuable contra arguments against the teachers' use of the L1 is that it is said to hinder the cognitive process as it fosters laziness among the learners (Sondang & Bonik 2018: 2). It is associated with laziness, as the students might be used to waiting for the teachers' translation from L2 to L1. However, students should be encouraged to think actively and to engage in the language learning process (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri 2015: 324).

In addition, proponents of the Monolingual Approach support Krashen's hypotheses. They believe that the best way to learn a language is by receiving as much L2 input as possible, resembling children's acquisition of the mother tongue (Tsagari & Giannikas 2018: 2). Ellis (2005: 38) agrees with this theory by explaining that "the more exposure they [the learners] receive, the more and the faster they will learn". Apparently, bilingual teaching deprives learners of valuable input while the TL is actually such an important source, especially because it is often not used outside the classroom and is only provided by the language teacher during the lessons (Tsagari & Giannikas 2018: 3).

Despite these contra-arguments, it cannot be disregarded, that L1 use actually has several positive effects. Many scholars consider language systems of bilingual speakers as interwoven rather than separated (see chapter 2). One example is Cummins (1981) who developed the concept of the common underlying proficiency (CUP). It explains the interdependence between different languages of one speaker and suggests awareness raising for an improved transfer of linguistic practices resulting in enhanced language learning (Cummins 2000: 38). L1-use fosters the development of the learners' plurilingual competence as they can be free from constraints like sociolinguistic matters and language separation (San Isidro & Lasagabaster 2019: 338).

As a result, proponents of the Bilingual Approach argue that the learners may use both languages as it is a natural part of being bilingual. Regarding the teachers, Costas Gabrielatos (2001), for example, mentions that only an "*unprincipled* use of L1 can have long-lasting negative effects on the learners' awareness and production of the target language" (Gabrielatos 2001: 33; emphasis added). In other words, the author seems to accept an L1 use by the teacher, if principled and planned. Also Littlewood and Yu (2009: 70) agree that the mother tongue is a powerful source, especially when used in a principled manner and Fallas Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri (2015: 324) add that the L1 should be used for specific purposes and under certain conditions only. In order to establish a controlled practice and avoiding unplanned spontaneous L1 usages Khalid Al Hariri promotes the inclusion of the L1 use in the lesson plan (Al Hariri 2015: 222).

Another claim in favor of L1 use was made by Vygotsky who argued from a sociocultural perspective and suggested that the use of the mother tongue helps the learners to work within their Zone of Proximal Development (Tsagari & Giannikas 2018: 2). Moreover, if teachers use the L1 in a planned way, the mother tongue can serve as a helpful psychological tool (Luo & Gao 2011: 507), as an additional cognitive support helping learners to analyze the L2 (Levine 2014: 338-339), and as a tool that enables a systemized comprehension of L2 structures leading to more meaningful learning (Mukattash 2003: 224).

Scaffolding by using the L1 facilitates learning and brings better understanding in the EFL classroom (Sondang & Bonik 2018: 1; Jahan et al. 2020: 5855) from which especially

lower proficiency students can benefit. In order to overcome that gap in language classrooms the teacher sometimes switches to the first language when the learners' proficiency is incomplete (Wysocka-Narewska 2020: 51). As a consequence, they are likely to feel more comfortable and do not regard the new language and learning environment as frightening (Al Hariri 2015: 220). But also advanced learners can benefit from an L1 use (Al Hariri 2015: 223). It is therefore an effective learning and teaching resource (Sondang & Bonik 2018: 2).

Furthermore, in an EFL classroom, naturally more than one language is present and hence CS happens frequently – on the one hand because of pedagogic and didactic reasons but on the other hand also because of social and communicative reasons (Simon 2001: 315). Thus, L1-use in classrooms can no longer only be regarded as a defect. Instead, it should at least be partly considered a bilingual resource.

To sum up, both parties have good reasons that support their views. On the one hand, those in favor of the Monolingual Approach want as much input of the L1 as possible since this method resembles the natural language learning and prevents laziness. However, on the other hand, those in favor of the Bilingual Approach stress the advantages of including the L1 as a supportive tool – if used in a principled manner. In general, there is a strong tendency among researchers towards accepting the use of the mother tongue in EFL lessons.

4.2 Beliefs

The following section presents the beliefs of different participants of an EFL lesson. First of all, teachers' beliefs are looked at, followed by a short glimpse into past theories and a comparison of what teachers believe in and what they actually practice in the classroom. The aim is to find out if their beliefs represent the classroom reality. Finally, students' beliefs are presented, as they are the second and the largest group of participants in a lesson; and therefore, their view is at least as important as the teachers' opinion.

4.2.1 Teachers' Beliefs

Dina Tsagari and Christina Nicole Giannikas (2018) conducted a quantitative study with 50 teachers and the results show that, in general, EFL teachers approve the use of the L1. They believe that the L1 supports the development of the learners' language awareness. They regard it as useful for a successful preparation for a test and they are convinced that the use of the mother tongue helps especially weaker learners (Tsagari & Giannikas 2018: 8).

Another study by Sondang and Bonik (2018) includes 40 Indonesian EFL teachers and indicates that the full 100% of the respondents believe that CS is an efficient technique which facilitates language learning. Therefore, around 90% of the participating teachers are convinced that the mother tongue should be permanently integrated in EFL lessons. However, somehow contradictorily, also 45% of the respondents agreed that a FL is best taught in an exclusive L2 classroom (Sondang & Bonik 2018: 5).

Fallas Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri (2015) investigated a university in Costa Rica and most often received arguments against the use of the L1, showing that L2 exclusivity dominates in that EFL department (2015: 324). One of the teachers explained:

Because... uhhmmm.... when you teach only in English, you motivate, you stimulate something in the brain, uhhh.... brain processes, to be able to address, to decode English.... When you're speaking in Spanish and in English, what happens is that the students, they will always be waiting for your explanations in Spanish, they don't make the effort to decode what you're saying in English... because they know that the Spanish version will come at some point... and when you're speaking only in Spanish, well then that's not an English class at all... So... uhhhhhmm... if it's an English class, it has to be taught in English, totally... (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri 2015: 312).

This English professor at the Costa Rican university is apparently convinced that using the L1 in a language classroom is a bad habit since learners will rely on their L1 and therefore make less effort to learn and use the L2.

In 1997 Macaro carried out one of the largest studies about (student) teachers' beliefs. Although the results are already outdated, the categorization is still valid. He identified three different positions:

1. The Virtual Position: a new language can solely be learned through this very language.
2. The Maximal Position: a new language can solely be learned through this very language but unfortunately excluding the L1 completely is impossible and it will always be present to some extent.
3. The Optimal Position: the L1 can be valuable as it promotes SLA if used reasonably (Macaro 2009: 36).

His characterization helps to classify the mixed views that teachers hold concerning this topic. Interestingly, a further study by Timor (2012), which included 112 language teachers, revealed that on the one hand, there seems to be a tendency towards a judicious use of the L1. Nevertheless, on the other hand, L2 exclusivity is apparently still overshadowing this discrepancy leading to feelings of guilt for using the L1 (2012: 8). Some teachers also admit that they would adjust their teaching to TL exclusivity when being observed (Song & Andrews 2009: 199). This, however, is not necessary if the L1 use can be justified as helpful (Paker & Karaagaç 2015: 117).

During the past decades many different methods and approaches have emerged, entailing several methodological changes depending on time and place. EFL has gone through many stages, which have positive and negative aspects, but the ultimate way of teaching has not been found (Al Hariri 2015: 220).

The exclusive use of the TL could be motivated by influential theories of SLA, language policies, or even neo-colonial aspects (Fussi 2017: 32). In a response to Prodromou's (2001) article "From mother tongue to other tongue" Gabrielatos (2001: 33) claims that the arguments for and against the use of the L1 appear to have been politically motivated and were not built on relevant frameworks of linguistics and applied linguistics. Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009: 2) mention official policies as from language institutions and universities as grounds for L2 exclusivity. Moreover, target-language immersion programs could be a source for promoting the L2 as a medium of instruction (MoI). This will be looked at in chapter 5. However, the number of scholars in favor of the use of the L1 in SLA is rising because scholars are convinced that

meaningful switches can foster the language learning process (Fussi 2017: 31-32) as long as the implementation is well planned (Al Hariri 2015: 220).

4.2.1.1 Beliefs vs. Practices

Although Pajares (1992: 307) points out that “beliefs are the best indicators of the decisions individuals make throughout their lives” and although it is generally accepted that teachers’ beliefs influence their behavior in the classroom (Skott 2015: 16), it needs to be taken into account that the teachers’ beliefs do not necessarily have to match their in-school practices. For example, they might believe that they never use the L1 – eventually because they connotate something negative with the use of the mother tongue. Therefore, they simply suppress that they actually use the L1 from time to time when filling in a questionnaire or participating in an interview about their teaching habits. Hence, the teachers’ real practices need to be analyzed by classroom observation.

Some researchers like White and Storch (2012) and Manara (2007) already conducted studies focusing on classroom observations. White and Storch’s longitudinal study focused on one native speaker (NS), who produced 10% of the turns in the students’ L1, and a non-native speaker (NNS), who produced over 50% in their L1 (White & Storch 2012: 192). However, both teachers claimed that the language choice is not related to their mother tongue but that it is rather a personal choice (White & Storch 2012: 199). Interestingly, the NS used significantly more L1 towards the end of the study (White & Storch 2012: 192), probably because her controlled language choice became more relaxed (White & Storch 2012: 198). However, both argued that their use of the L1 was a conscious decision (White & Storch 2012: 197). The purposes which were most frequent were vocabulary translation and task management (White & Storch 2012: 195-196).

Manara observed nine NNS teachers at an Indonesian university (Manara 2007: 149) and revealed that the teachers desired the Maximal Position with the majority believing in English only classrooms (Manara 2007: 152). However, the classroom observations proved that eight out of nine teachers used the mother tongue at least partly (Manara 2007: 163). This example demonstrates well how beliefs can differ from practices.

One more aspect that needs to be stressed in this context is the development of beliefs. “Beliefs that teachers have about teaching are socially constructed through their experiences over a lifetime. They are established early on in life through learner experiences. These beliefs can be particularly resistant to change [...]” (Rabbidge 2019: 67). Thus, it is comprehensible why the older the teacher, the less L1 is used to teach grammar (Dina Tsagari and Christina Nicole Giannikas 2018: 11). Interestingly, and eventually even unfortunately, pedagogical knowledge seems to be the factor with the smallest ability to influence the teachers’ beliefs. (Levin 2015: 51).

All in all, there seem to be not enough (big scale) studies on the actual practices of the L1 use of teachers, especially in schools. The scales of the already conducted studies are rather small and their results quite diverging. Despite these difficulties, a tendency towards the partial use of the mother tongue could be identified. Although some teachers are rather in favor of and some rather against the Bilingual Approach, the vast majority uses the L1 in the classroom. Linked to Macaro’s (2009) three positions, it can be identified that those in favor seem to support the Optimal Position while most of those against L1 use still adhere to the Maximal Position as they recognize that completely excluding the L1 is impossible.

4.2.2 Students’ Beliefs

The often disregarded but actually valuable opinion of the learners should also be considered. Even if they are no professionals in the field of teaching, they still have a lot of experience in foreign language acquisition (FLA) which can help in finding out how much L1 should be used and to make learning more efficient.

Unfortunately, there has not been much research done on the beliefs of the learners. Moreover, the studies that exist are mostly concerned with university students or adult learners and very often they are not set in European, not to mention Austrian contexts. One of them is the afore presented study by Manara (2007) who not only observed lessons but who also distributed questionnaires among 216 Indonesian university students (2007: 149).

Her main result is that just like the teachers, the students also represented the Maximal Position (Manara 2007: 152). However, different from the teachers, the students' choice of language depends on the interlocutor. While most of the students agree to talking to the teacher in the L2, half of them disagree to talking to their peers in the L2. They conceive that the teacher is supposed to speak in the L2 all the time in order to provide as much exposure to the FL as possible (Manara 2007: 153), especially because they rarely have the chance to practice the L2 outside of the language classroom (Manara 2007: 171). Moreover, Manara discovered that the three situations in which the L1 is most needed, as expressed by the students, are explaining vocabulary, which has the highest rating, checking comprehension and explaining the differences between L1 and L2 (Manara 2007: 166).

A study by Kimberly Anne Brooks-Lewis (2009) dealt with Mexican university students. Although it is a qualitative study, the perceptions of a total of 256 learners aged between 19 and 72 were analyzed (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 222). In contrast to Manara's outcomes, the results of Brooks-Lewis' investigation present a clearly positive stance towards the use of the L1 in an EFL classroom with only few learners showing skepticism (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 233). The main reasons mentioned in favor of the use of the mother tongue are

- a better understanding,
- more possibility to participate,
- less complicated but more meaningful learning,
- more self-confidence,
- the feeling of achievement,
- increased self-awareness, and
- no feeling of a replacement of the learners' identity or L1 but rather a completion (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 234).

One Spanish speaking participant in an EFL classroom explained that by implementing the learner's L1 the understanding of what is happening is made easier: "Having Spanish in the class is very beneficial because supposedly the reason that I am here is because I want to learn, and if everything was in a language that I do not know, I couldn't

understand anything” (data #95, questionnaire in Brooks-Lewis 2009: 224). In contrast, a participant against the L1 use clarifies: “I would like the teacher to talk more in English because it is the only way that we are going to learn the language” (data #186, essay in Brooks-Lewis 2009: 224).

Dina Tsagari and Christina Nicole Giannikas’ (2018) study of advanced learners at a school in Cyprus mirrors these results as the learners expressed a positive attitude towards the use of the first language in an EFL classroom. Once again, the main benefit seems to be the comprehension of the vocabulary and the lesson in general, while the main drawback could be the students’ automatic reliance on the L1 because they might think that the teachers would use the L1 to repeat what they said in the L2 (Tsagari & Giannikas 2018: 8).

Also Novya Windi Anggrahini (2019: 142), Khalid Al Hariri (2015: 222), Hasrina, Aziz and Fitriani (2018: 417) and Khoshnaw (2014: 97) reported similar results which express the positive attitude of students towards the L1. Nevertheless, while the students apparently support that, teachers do not always believe the same, which raises the doubt that many valuable learning opportunities are missed (Tsagari & Giannikas 2018: 12).

Considering the learners’ beliefs is a matter of showing respect and taking their view into account. Asking for their opinion allows the students to become actively involved in the setting of language learning, it empowers them and it establishes a learner-centered atmosphere (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 234). This is one of the reasons why the present thesis also focuses on the students’ beliefs. Moreover, as mentioned in the beginning of this section, not only has little research been done on the learners’ points of view but the existing research almost exclusively concentrates on advanced learners. This research gap was a motivation for focusing on lower secondary classrooms and involving the students’ beliefs is an essential part of this paper.

4.3 Appropriate Quantity and Quality

So far, it has become clear that the Maximal Position is very debatable and rather deprecated in comparison to the Optimal Position which describes a reasonable use of the L1 in an ELT context. This assumption is based on the outcomes of the studies presented which so far showed the positive attitude of teachers and students towards the use of the mother tongue. Moreover, also researchers share this point of view.

For instance, Philip Kerr (2019) published a document on the use of L1 in English language teaching with the following statement: “Not only is a policy of English only unachievable in many contexts, but it may also be undesirable.” (Kerr 2019: 2). Also Timor (2012) believes that “the sole use of the FL by the teacher is not justified theoretically or practically”. In this context he mentions the lack of criteria defining the appropriate quantity and explains that some teachers opt for not implementing the L1 because they fear that it would contradict the supervisors’ or headmasters’ stance (Timor 2012: 9).

Therefore, some scholars suggested criteria or guidelines supporting a judicious use of the first language. Cook (2001: 413), for example, defined efficiency, naturalness, learning and external relevance as relevant criteria. Philip Haines (2014) introduced his three level guidelines from basic to more advanced use. They are called the functional, the strategic and the discourse level. In the functional level L1 use is highly restricted allowing the teacher to always have complete control over the situation with no chance of the first language taking over the FL class. Situations for L1 use are asking for translations, talking about something in the mother tongue which the students are unable to explain in the FL after asking the teacher for permission to do so and taking a “time out” from the L2 which can be ended any time. Level two builds on level one adding the possibility to draw on L1 knowledge and to develop language learning strategies by making comparisons between the two languages. Finally, the discourse level aims at developing language awareness by discussing register, “false friends” and word choice. These ideas were designed to animate teachers to implement the L1 in a principled way without feeling guilty and avoiding possible pitfalls (Oxford University

Press ELT 2014: n.d.). Nevertheless, these criteria and guidelines are only useful to clarify general teaching situations but

they certainly cannot substitute for formal guidelines that should be defined practically and in terms of specific topics, situations, and frequency. Examples for such guidelines could be “while teaching tenses that exist in the student’s MT, you may use comparisons to facilitate understanding” or “avoid literal translations and try synonyms or pictures instead.” The use of clear instructions may reduce teachers’ feelings of anxiety and guilt and legitimize the use of the MT [mother tongue] to a certain extent. (Timor 2012: 10)

To measure the quantity of the L1 or the TL, different methods can be used. Researchers as Nagy & Robertson (2009) and Hoff (2013) used word counts while White and Storch (2012) adapted Duff and Polio’s scheme (1990) counting turns and categorizing them as wholly, predominantly or partially in the L1 (White & Storch 2012: 188).

In general, the amount of the L1 use varies greatly from basically no implementation to a usage of even 90% of the time. This mostly depends on the cultural and social setting of the language class. An exclusive L2 use usually only happens in classrooms without a shared L1. More commonly, the L1 is used between 20% and 40% of the time (Kerr 2019: 4).

However, there is no specific number for an appropriate quantity telling the teachers how much L1 should be used. Neither have concrete criteria defining the appropriate quality been designed. Nevertheless, the present investigation has shown that L1 use is generally well accepted and even desirable. Furthermore, it could be discovered that an unprincipled use should be avoided but good reasons for using the L1 could be identified. In the end “[t]he question of how much L1 use, and of what kind, is appropriate in any teaching context can only be answered by careful consideration of that context by the teacher” (Kerr 2019: 17). To do so, a good understanding of the respective advantages and disadvantages is required but prescribing a concrete percentage informing about the amount of L1 use might not be as helpful.

5 First Language Use in CLIL Classrooms

Besides examining the L1 use in EFL lessons, it is also essential to investigate the L1 use in CLIL classrooms as these two concepts have rather different starting positions. While the main purpose of EFL classes is language learning, the main focus of CLIL is the learning of the content. The FL can be called an additional factor that should be integrated into the content learning of CLIL classrooms. Thus, the use of the L1 and the beliefs about its use can differ from the EFL context and therefore needs to be reevaluated.

5.1 Opposition to L1 use

Alike the development concerning the role of the L1 in EFL lessons, researchers have ascribed the L1 a positive role in the CLIL context in recent years. The majority agrees on a wise use of the L1 as they believe that the advantages of L1 use definitely outweigh the disadvantages. Apparently the monolingual principle has been challenged, among others because there were only a few arguments against a bilingual approach (Gallagher & Colohan 2017: 485).

The strongest counterargument against making use of the L1 is that it takes away valuable L2 time: “the L1 may interfere in the L2 learning process, and [...] by increasing exposure to the L2, the learners will become more proficient” (Lasagabaster 2013: 3). Even though representatives of this position are worried that the general allowance to use the L1 will lead to an overuse, banning the language completely definitely means more harm to the learners. Hence, this maximum input hypothesis is not always constructive. Some kind of systematic L1 use should be permitted, especially in beginner classrooms, as it can help learners understand difficult content (Lin 2015: 78).

It needs to be borne in mind that the learners in CLIL are not only confronted with new and partly challenging content input but also with a language they might not easily understand. It is thus of great importance not to overburden and pressure the learners but to find a compromise that is best for them. The next section focuses on the

advantages of L1 use and ways to relieve students by making use of the mother tongue without overusing it in unnecessary situations.

5.2 Support for L1 use

As mentioned, the first language can be very beneficial if used wisely. Although teachers are basically willing to make use of the L1, they are unfortunately mostly not trained in using CS as a pedagogic strategy, which results in a practice based on individual knowledge and intuition rather than systematic guidelines (Lasagabaster 2013: 8).

Based on Lasagabaster (2013: 8) five categories informing when the L1 can or even should be used, could be identified:

1. First of all, L1 use can facilitate content learning (Lasagabaster 2013: 8). When it comes to explaining complicated terminology or when introducing new concepts, mother tongue and target language should both be allowed to be used as a scaffolding tool in order to make the learners understand the content (Papaja & Wysocka 2020: 58). Content should not come up short on the costs of the L2 (Zanoni 2018: 311).
2. Secondly, it can be used to make comparisons between the L1 and the L2 in order to improve language awareness and metalinguistic understanding (Lasagabaster 2013: 8).
3. The L1 on the one hand can also serve as an affective tool to strengthen the interpersonal level and to make the learners more comfortable, which again helps the learning process. An English-only policy on the other hand could trigger anxiety and hinder the learning (Lasagabaster 8-10). An example for using the L1 as an affective tool is creating humor in class (Zanoni 2018: 311).
4. In addition, it is beneficial to include the mother tongue when boosting a debate as the learners might have linguistic limitations when talking about complex topics (Lasagabaster 2013: 8-10). Papaja and Wysocka (2020: 55) explain that
[t]he L2 should not become a linguistic burden for the learner. If the situation demands that a switch from the L2 to the L1 is required, then it should be done. If learners are forced to use the L2 only, especially in cases in which they need to use their mother tongue, problems may occur.

5. Finally, teachers may draw on the first language to deal with disciplinary issues and classroom management as the L1 leaves less space for ambiguity or misunderstandings (Lasagabaster 2013: 8-10).

Gierlinger (2015) limits the CS instances to three types: concept focused CS, word focused CS and language deficit focused CS. Interestingly, the latter is not concerned with the students but with the teachers (2015: 358). It describes the teachers' lack of vocabulary which can indeed be legitimate as CLIL teachers are usually no native speakers and often do not even have a degree in the L2.

Finally, using the TL exclusively, although sharing the same mother tongue, seems rather unusual and would only be really natural if the participants had different L1s (Lasagabaster 2013: 13). In addition, greater L2 input alone does not necessarily result in a greater profit (Zanoni 2018: 311).

As a result, the L1 certainly enriches CLIL on multiple levels (Nikula & Moore 2016: 92). There is no doubt 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, can be an effective means for CLIL" (Gallagher & Colohan 2017: 485). Some researchers even suggest that CLIL is about integrating content and *languages* (Moore & Nikula 2016: 222) and draw attention to the fact that the program should be "*bilingual* rather than *L2 monolingual*" (Moore & Nikula 2016: 232; emphasis added) as the students should in the end be able to deal with the new concepts in both languages (Moore & Nikula 2016: 222).

Part II : EMPIRICAL STUDY

6 Methodology and Research Design

This chapter presents the research methodology and research design that was developed and applied in order to answer the research questions this paper deals with:

- RQ 1: What are common code-switching practices in EFL and CLIL classrooms in lower secondary schools in Austria and why and when do teachers and students use the L1?
- RQ 2: How does the use of the L1 in CLIL lessons differ from EFL lessons?
- RQ 3: What are teachers' and students' beliefs about using the L1 in EFL and CLIL classrooms?
- RQ 4: Which advantages and drawbacks exist when using the L1 in EFL and CLIL classrooms?

The study serves to explore and comprehend code-switching practices in EFL and CLIL lessons and their effects with an additional focus on students' beliefs. Since inquiry has shown that there has not been conducted a lot of research in (lower secondary) school context, the empirical study is of high importance to complement the theory mostly based on tertiary education.

6.1 Research Instruments

This study comprises classroom-based research in form of audio-recordings, reflective teacher questionnaires and a student questionnaire as its research instruments. The choice of the instruments was inspired by other studies (e.g. White & Storch 2012, Nagy & Robertson 2009, Timor 2012, Paker & Karaagaç 2015) and together the three components aim at carefully answering the research questions.

6.1.1 Classroom-based research

The classroom-based research contributes to answering the first and the second research questions. It comprises the analysis of three consecutive English lessons and three also consecutive biology lessons. Biology was chosen as a representative CLIL subject as it includes the use and the instruction of special technical terms. Additionally, the whole class is present in the biology class, a good balance between teacher and student talking time was expected and the students mostly adhere to a preassigned seating, in comparison to, for example, physical education. This made recording the lessons easier.

The researcher was only present before and after the lessons to install and remove the recording devices. During the lesson, however, the students and teachers were alone in the classroom. This was done because of COVID-19 regulations but also because the presence of an external person could have affected both teachers' and learners' behavior.

The classroom recordings were planned as a structured observation with a specific focus on language use. The main aim was to gain insights into the teachers' and students' language practices. In comparison to questionnaires and interviews, classroom observations provide direct information and are therefore more reliable than a self-report of a participating person which can differ greatly from the actual practices (Dörnyei 2007: 178).

6.1.2 Reflective Teacher Questionnaires

The second research instrument was reflective teacher questionnaires. Three different questionnaires were designed and adjusted to the individual teachers. In total, three teachers were included in the study: the English teacher, the biology teacher and a native speaker that assists the biology teacher in one out of two lessons per week. While the questionnaires for the English and the biology teacher were provided in German, the one for the native speaker was composed in English. The teachers were only informed about the exact topic of the present study when they were confronted with the questionnaires.

The purpose of these questionnaires was to complement the classroom research and add an explanatory component to the recordings. They also helped to provide background information, for example about the context of the recorded lessons, and asked the teachers for their reasons for certain practices. Moreover, they were used to find out more about the teachers' personal impressions of the teaching situation and the students' attitudes. They can be found in the appendix.

6.1.3 Student Questionnaire

Following the teacher questionnaires, also a student questionnaire was employed. Just as the teachers, the students were also only familiarized with the exact focus of the study when they were asked to fill in the questionnaire. However, the student questionnaire did not focus on the recorded lessons in particular but on the English and CLIL classes in general. This means that it was also not limited to the biology lessons but related to all subjects taught in English.

Another difference to the teacher questionnaires is the length of the student questionnaire as it is a lot more extensive. Since the questionnaire was inserted as an online survey on "Google Forms", it could be created as an interactive questionnaire meaning that depending on the participants' answers they were asked more or fewer questions. In total, the questionnaire contained 57 items. The analog version of the questionnaire can be found in the appendix.

The vast majority of the items are closed-ended such as single or multiple-choice questions or items that demand a rating on a scale from 0% to 100%. Most of the single choice questions were designed as Likert Scales, however, using emojis instead of verbal descriptions to make it more user-friendly. Since open-ended items cannot be as easily captured numerically as closed-ended items and since more effort is needed to reply to them, the student questionnaire only included one open-ended question that every student needed to answer. It seemed important that the questionnaire would not take too long to be answered in order not to lose the students' interest and willingness to participate in the study. This is also the main reason why the questionnaire was written in German. In addition to the fact that some terms would have been difficult to

understand for the students, completing it in German was simply faster and therefore less effortful.

In general, the questionnaire is divided into two parts: the first one focusing on English lessons and the second one on CLIL lessons. Each of these sections is subdivided into “reasonable amount”, “reasonable situation”, “actual amount”, “actual situation” and “extra” questions. This classification should enable a comparison between the actual practices and the students’ wishes and therefore provide information about this topic which has not been investigated on a bigger scale, but which has been rather disregarded and unconsidered.

The questionnaire was composed in direct relation to the research questions and in dependence on the theory with the goal of assessing if it also applies to the examined group and in order to cover possible research gaps. Since the questionnaire was not based on an existing study, the process of development was absolutely important. Hence, it was revised several times, the feedback of colleagues was incorporated and a handful of students from another school served as test persons and gave feedback on the intelligibility and user-friendliness.

6.2 Participants

The study was concerned with two different groups of participants who are all part of an AHS (Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule), an academic secondary school, in Lower Austria. I chose this AHS in particular because I am currently employed at this school and because of COVID-19 it would have been quite difficult if not impossible to conduct the study at a different school. Additionally, the school I am working at offers a CLIL program².

The first of the two groups of participants encompasses three teachers including one native speaker teacher. This female native speaker was present in two out of three

² Therefore, I want to emphasize again how grateful I am that I have such cooperative and supportive colleagues who agreed to participating in this study.

recorded CLIL lessons. She is a fully employed teacher at this school and has taught in Austria for about 15 years of which she has taught biology in English for the past 12 years, although she is not a trained teacher. Nevertheless, due to her long working experience, she is actually more than a native speaker and therefore also called “native co-teacher” (BT-Q 3). Although her mother tongue is English, she speaks German fluently as she has lived in Austria for many years. The native speaker assists the Austrian biology teacher, who is no certified English teacher and does not teach the subject English. In the observed class, the native speaker teaches biology once a week but she also comes to the class for other subjects, resulting in three times a week in total³. The third teacher is the EFL teacher who is a very experienced teacher in her field.

The second group is the group of students. It is represented by one CLIL class consisting of 26 learners of which 19 are female and 7 are male. They are 13-14 years old, in 8th grade and their English level is around A2. They are a fairly homogenous group with regard to their mother tongue German, their foreign language skills, their age, and their social and educational background. While the whole class could be recorded in the biology lessons, only half of the students were recorded in the English lessons as the class is split into two smaller groups to foster the language learning. Nevertheless, the whole questionnaire was completed by all students disregarding the fact that only half of them were recorded in English, mostly because the questionnaire did not focus on the recorded lessons, as explained above.

6.3 Procedure and Administration

First of all, the headmistress of the school needed to be asked for permission. Fortunately, she agreed to the project and helped to pick a class that fulfilled the prerequisites; it should be a lower secondary that is part of a CLIL program. Afterwards, the teachers were initiated into the study. As soon as the key persons had approved their participation and support, a detailed project description and the final version of

³ Besides this native speaker, there is also a second native speaker who comes to the class one lesson per week.

the questionnaire were sent to the school board of Lower Austria for an official approval of the study.

The next step was contacting the students and emphasizing their voluntariness and anonymity. Due to their age, it was essential to ask their parents for their consent. The letter to the parents is attached in the appendix.

As expected, these bureaucratic procedures took several weeks with the longest phase being the collection of the parents' consents. However, the research could unfortunately not be started as soon as the administrative steps were completed due to COVID-19 measures. A lockdown and distance learning impeded the realization of the classroom recordings.

As soon as the students were back in school after three weeks of homeschooling, the research was conducted immediately as the possible time frame was less than two and a half weeks. This short period of face-to-face teaching was followed by another phase of distance learning which ended in shift work meaning that only half of the class was present at once and impeding the research procedure as planned.

Due to these circumstances, the following schedule of classroom recordings came about:

Table 1. Overview of recorded lessons

Subject	Participants	Date	Length
English	English teacher; 12 students	Dec. 11 th	52:01
Biology	Biology teacher; native speaker teacher; 26 students	Dec. 11 th	51:02
English	English teacher; 12 students	Dec. 15 th	50:12
Biology	Biology teacher; 26 students	Dec. 15 th	49:50
English	English teacher; 12 students	Dec. 17 th	54:04
Biology	Biology teacher; native speaker teacher; 26 students	Dec. 18 th	49:58

These exceptional circumstances and the very limited research possibility unfortunately also brought along a few disadvantages like stressed teachers and agitated students, lessons shaped by a lot of administrative work and less focus than usual on the construction of knowledge, which led to less structured lessons and some kind of uneasiness in the classroom. Moreover, the original plan which was recording the first

lessons of a new topic in the two subjects could not be realized. This was the initial plan because it would have been interesting to analyze the language use and vocabulary work at the beginning of a new issue. Instead, the recordings took place in the middle of a topic. In order to compensate for that, the teachers were asked to explain in the questionnaires what had happened before the analyzed lessons. As mentioned, the exact focus of the investigation was not revealed before the audio-recordings were finalized in order to avoid biased behavior and thus biased data. Just like the student questionnaires, the classroom-recordings are anonymous and the transcriptions do not reveal the students' names.

Concerning transcriptions, it needs to be mentioned that various different transcription rules and styles exist, that greatly vary in form. The choice of the style depends on the focus of the analysis, which should already be clear before the transcription process is started as details that are left out can no longer serve in the analysis (Fuß & Karbach 2019: 61).

In this study, the transcription conventions basically follow the VOICE mark-up conventions (2007). In general, it is a detailed and not a smoothed transcription but as Lamnek and Krell (2016: 368) inform, focusing on the most important features that are relevant for the planned analysis is sufficient. Thus, the transcription includes information on, for example, pauses and overlaps but not on features like pronunciation variations, onomatopoetic noises, speaking modes and non-verbal feedback if not necessary. Moreover, as this transcription focuses on language choices and hence a great amount of non-English speech will be analyzed, it is not marked by tags but instead written in italics. The German speech of the classroom-recordings is transcribed in standard German with minor dialectal forms. The applied transcription conventions can be found in the appendix.

In chapter 7 several examples for L1 use, taken from the transcription, will be presented. Their citation consists of three parts: the letter B or E (informing about the subject, namely biology or English) in combination with a number from one to three (standing for the number of the recorded lesson); this is followed by the acronym SM or TM describing if the extract is taken from the transcription of the students' or the teachers'

microphone. Thirdly, also the time is indicated. Such a citation could look like this: B2-SM – 40:11.

For the analysis of the classroom transcriptions, a code book was developed on the basis of the information gathered in chapter 3. During the first analysis of the material, some codes had to be added and some changes were made. Afterwards the analysis was redone and adhered to the modified code book (see appendix). The following codes were applied:

- affective functions
 - humor/jokes
 - socializing
 - personal matters
- language
 - language analysis
 - lack of vocabulary/ translations/ asking for words
- classroom management
 - instruction giving
 - administration
 - disciplining and controlling
 - giving feedback
 - checking understanding
 - comprehension problems
- content
 - explanation and discussion of (difficult) concepts
 - content related communication
 - clarifying
- others
 - expressions of reaction & fillers
 - proper names
 - Denglish

After the lessons had been recorded, the teacher questionnaires were distributed and completed shortly afterwards. Because of COVID-19 measures and the stress the teachers experienced at that time, the questionnaires, which were originally planned as interviews, were adapted and could be answered in written form.

The last step was collecting the answers to the student questionnaires which again took some time since it should happen in school rather than during a distance learning phase. In the end, it had to be conducted on two different dates due to the shift work at school. Analyzing the results was done with the help of tables, graphs and charts that provided a good overview of the collected data.

7 Findings

7.1 Teacher questionnaires

After recording the lessons, the three teachers (English teacher, biology teacher, native speaker) were given one questionnaire⁴ each. These questionnaires were similar but not exactly the same as they were tailored to the teachers' subjects and roles in class. By filling in the survey, the teachers had the chance to add some background information and personal reflection about their teaching in general and the recorded lessons in particular. The results are here presented before the analysis of the lessons in order to provide the reader with some background information in advance.

The first questions focused on the teachers' use of German. The English teacher explained that she would speak as much English as possible and only draw on German to explain grammar, to clarify instructions or the like or when there are conflicts among the students (ET-Q 1-2). The native speaker's answer is even more radical as she stated that she strictly sticks to English and also tries not to answer students that talk in German (NS-Q 4). She explains, "I prefer the pupils to identify me with English although they generally work out that I understand them in German. It's not easy to fake confusion hearing German for years." (NS-Q 4). Their self-evaluation is definitely in accordance with the results of the recordings. The biology teacher indicated that she would especially try to speak English when the native speaker is with her and that she changes to German if necessary (e.g. for disciplinary measures, administrative work and complex topics) (BT-Q 1-2). However, her statement cannot completely be confirmed, at least when it comes to the few analyzed lessons, as the analysis shows that she indeed uses German very frequently including in situations that might not necessarily require the use of the L1 (see chapter 7.2.2).

In terms of the students' use of L1, all three teachers agreed that it is important to them that the students speak in the TL (ET-Q 3; BT-Q 9; NS-Q 6) although the biology teacher

⁴ ET-Q – English teacher questionnaire; BT-Q – biology teacher questionnaire; NS-Q – native speaker questionnaire

seems to leave the encouragement of the students to speak English up to the native speaker (BT-Q 3) who finds getting addressed in German unacceptable. The native speaker argues that it is okay to make mistakes but not helpful if no English is spoken at all (NS-Q 6). All three teachers are sure that the students talk to their classmates mainly in German (ET-Q 4; BT-Q 4; NS-Q 7) and they would all like to hear more English (ET-Q 9; BT-Q 9; NS-Q 9). The biology teacher admits that, “Es ist sehr unterschiedlich in den einzelnen Klassen. In vielen anderen bilingualen Klassen läuft es besser!” [It is very different in the individual classes. Things are going better in many other bilingual classes] (BT-Q 9). This is underlined by the native speaker, “Some classes in the upper school are more comfortable speaking English with classmates during a lesson, but also only when it’s required for a class activity.” (NS-Q 7). However, she also adds, “There is a question of achieving a balance sometimes. German can be useful for a topic [...] to help ensure that a complicated topic is fully understood by the pupils.” (NS-Q 9). After all, the teachers have the impression that the learners understand them or ask for clarification if something is unclear to them (ET-Q 10; BT-Q 10; NS-Q 10).

Moreover, the questionnaire asked the teachers for their impression of the students’ comfort when talking in English. Interestingly, their answers highly vary. While the biology teacher believes that the students have fun talking in English since they have chosen the bilingual program out of their own interest (BT-Q 11), the English teacher has more mixed feelings saying that for most of them it is no problem, but some shier students do not always seem to be very comfortable (ET-Q 11). The native speaker explains that it “really depends on which pupil is speaking. Some pupils are far more relaxed and comfortable answering in English, while others avoid speaking English as much as they can. It surprises me sometimes how a pupil can choose our bilingual class and then fight their hardest against speaking any English!” (NS-Q 11). Comparing these three answers it could be argued that the biology teacher has not noticed that much as she herself also speaks German rather often and therefore – maybe unconsciously – does not expect the students to speak that much English either.

Concerning the question whether they feel “guilty” when using the L1, the answers of these questionnaires coincide with the information found in other literature (see chapter 4). The English teacher admitted that it sometimes holds true for her (ET-Q 12).

The biology teacher explains that “guilty” might not be the correct term but “es ärgert mich manchmal schon sehr, wenn ich zu viel Deutsch spreche!” [I am sometimes annoyed about speaking too much German.] (BT-Q 12). The native speaker’s answer is very elaborated and describes her point of view very well: “I very rarely speak German to the students, but if I did on a regular basis I probably would feel guilty. I feel more guilty when it gets to the stage that I stop insisting that a pupil speaks English to me because they are so persistent in trying German that I am too tired to protest!” (NS-Q 12).

In addition, the biology teacher was asked to explain whether she has access to enough material and biology schoolbooks in English as the literature research has shown that teachers often struggle with finding suitable material (see chapter 2.2.2). This biology teacher, however, mentioned that the school has enough biology schoolbooks in English – even in such big numbers that they used to be given to the students for some time. These years, however, the teacher mostly uses the books for her preparation of the lessons but she sometimes hands them to the class for doing research projects. Nevertheless, these books seem to be originally made for English speaking students and not for CLIL students in particular and buying them was not easy (BT-Q 13-14).

Finally, the teachers should also describe what they did before and after the recorded lessons in order to provide background information, which facilitates the analysis. The English teacher mentioned that the surveyed lessons were rather the beginning of a new topic, which was a Harry Potter movie project, and new words were learned continuously in the course of the lessons (ET-Q 5-6). This vocabulary work is highly present in the analyzed lessons. After these lessons, the film was finished (ET-Q 8). In biology, the teacher revised the contents that had been taught during the previous distance learning phase (BT-Q 5). In this phase the new terms had actually already been explained but she pointed out that the students had to write a test in the last recorded lesson and presented it as a reason for using so much German as she wanted to make sure that everybody really understood the concepts (BT-Q 8).

7.2 Recordings

7.2.1 EFL Lessons

In the EFL lessons some scenes of the first Harry Potter movie were watched and discussed – especially in terms of vocabulary. In the transcriptions only the teacher's and the students' talk were considered. In this section the main findings are presented.

Table 2. Word count EFL transcriptions

	1st lesson	2nd lesson	3rd lesson
total number of words	6,200	3,500	5,650
number of English words	5,750	2,800	4,800
number of German words	450	700	850
percentage of German used	13.8%	20.0%	6.6%
nr. of German words spoken by the teacher	46	30	37

As the overview table shows, the recordings include a generally high percentage of the use of the TL. All in all, approximately a total of 15,350 words were said by the students and the teacher in the three lessons, of which around 13% were German words.

The teacher speaks English almost exclusively. The analysis shows that she only used a total of 113 words in all three lessons. She basically only switches to German when giving translations for new words but very often she even explains these words in English. Moreover, she tries to motivate the students to talk in English again and again, like she also explained in her questionnaire.

Concerning the students, it needs to be clarified that on the one hand, they fairly often talk in English with their teacher, but on the other hand they permanently use German to chat with their classmates. Most of these conversations could not be transcribed as they were not intelligible, so they could not be counted in the calculation, but they definitely make up the biggest percentage of L1 use. The following pie chart provides an overview of the results of the analysis. It includes both teacher's and students' L1 use.

L1 use in EFL lessons

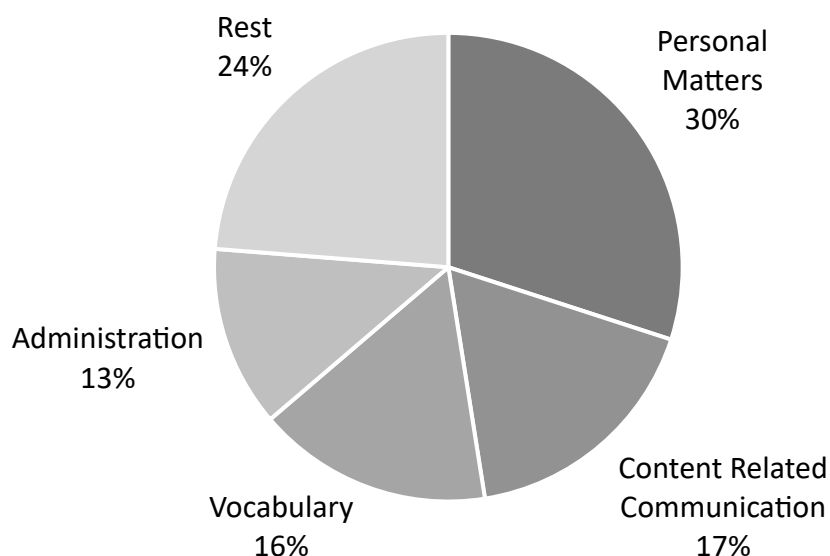


Figure 2. L1 use in EFL lessons

Looking at the statistics, one can identify the section “personal matters” as the largest one. This section includes all the German conversations between students and students but also students and teacher that were not directly related to the course content. The second largest percentage describes “content related communication” which includes all conversations concerned with the lesson. It is directly followed by “vocabulary” which was a major focus of the analyzed classes. Finally, administration is also mentioned as a separate category although it needs to be pointed out that the teacher never used the L1 to talk about administrative matters. The “rest” summarizes seven categories: expressions of reaction/filler, proper names, checking understanding, clarifying, socializing, language analysis and “denglish”. In the following section some examples of L1 use are presented and analyzed in detail.

The first extract (E1-SM – 49:11) is a short example for “personal matters”. Mini-conversations like this one but also longer ones were constantly taking place in the background, during both the teacher-students talk and the movie.

- S1-f: <sneezes>
S2-m: *Gesundheit!* [Bless you!]
S1-f: *Danke!* [Thanks.]
S2-m: *Bist du krank?* [Are you sick?]
S1-f: *Nein (2) ich hab (.) hab nur geniest.* [No, I only sneezed.]

Moreover, the students did not only use the L1 to talk about personal matters but also when exchanging ideas about the content. This example for “content related communication” displays a scene in which the students had to choose a character from the movie and describe it. Before this extract (E1-SM – 22:09) the teacher had just picked a student that is now holding a dialogue with the teacher.

S1-f: I chose Hagrid <1> because </1>
T: <1> yes </1>
S1-f: um, um, I think he's very friendly <2> and </2>
T: <2> yeah </2>, to everybody? @@@@
S1-f: no, äh not to the family of äh=
T: =the Dursleys.
S1-f: Yes, but to Harry Potter.
S2-m: *Hagrid ist einfach cool.* [Hagrid is simply cool.]
S1-f: @@ <@> Yes <@>
T: <3> English! </3>
S1-f: <3> he's </3> very big
T: mhm
S1-f: and strong (.) and yes.

While the teacher and her conversation partner are having a nice conversation, another student decides to simply call out and share his opinion, which he does in German. Thus, the teacher immediately reacts and shouts “English!”.

Another example (E3-SM – 47:48) for “content related communication” was found while the students were watching the movie. They commented on the action in German:

S1-m: *Gott sind die blöd.* [God, they are stupid.]
S2-m: *Ja, stimmt.* [Yes, you're right.]
S1-m: (5) *Bevor ich da reingeh, hau ich mich vom Hogwartsturm.* [Before going in there, I would jump down from the Hogwarts tower.]
S2-m: *Nein, ich nicht.* [No, I wouldn't.]
S1-m: *Ich schon. Ich geh da nicht rein, ich würd da NIEmals reingehn.* [I would. I don't go in there. I'd never go in there.]
S3-m: (2) *Schaut gar nicht so schlimm aus.* [Doesn't look that bad.]
S1-m: *Ja, NOCH nicht.* [Well, not yet.]

This conversation could, of course, also have been held in English but it is a typical example for a chat about the content between the students that frequently occurred. Very often such talks were commented on by the teacher with remarks like “Those who want an A need to talk in English to each other.” (E2-SM – 25:17). She used different

strategies to motivate the student to use the TL. In this case she addressed the students' extrinsic motivation by making use of the grades but in other cases she simply tried to make English more interesting by downgrading German in a funny way: "You are not talking to me in German! In boring German." (E2-SM – 02:48).

The students are so drilled to switching to the TL when hearing the words "in English" that this phrase once even led to confusion and required the usage of German to correct the misunderstanding (E3-SM – 36:22).

- T: Are you not watching [S1]?
S1-f: *Ich hab den Film schon ur oft gsehn.* [I've already watched the movie very often.]
T: Oh okay. In English?
S1-f: I've watched the film=
T: =in English?
S1-f: I've watched the film many times.
S2-m: *Ob du ihn in English geschaut hast.* [If you watched it in English.]
T: In English <1> or in German? </1>
S1-f: <1> Yes, I do, </1> I did. Yes, in German and in English=
T: =okay
S1-f: both

While the teacher actually wanted to know if the student had watched the movie in English, the student did not connect the question "In English?" with the movie and kept repeating her answer in the TL until another student stepped in and cleared up the misunderstanding. His German intervention was put in the category "clarifying". As above, the German statement of the first student is another occurrence of "content related communication".

It also happened very rarely that the teacher spoke German; mostly because she provided the students with translations but using proper names and expressions of reactions could also be reasons. An example for a proper name can be found in this extract (E1-SM – 48:52):

- T: Okay, so, I need to hurry up because there's a test in the 1F and the and we're also a *Wanderklasse* [class that has to change rooms] that means I have to be quick now (.) a::nd you can open the windows again please, open the windows.

As there is no equivalent English term for *Wanderklasse*, it would have been quite complicated to explain the concept in English. Moreover, the teacher also mentioned that she had to hurry, so her language choice had possibly also time-saving reasons.

This is another example for the teacher's L1 use, which occurs when she is discussing the movie and its characters with the students (E1-SM – 49:20). It shows an expression of reaction.

- T: And what do you think about the teachers? Are they like our teachers?
S1-m: <1> no </1>
S2-f: <1> no, </1> they are much cooler.
T: They're cooler? *Echt?* [Really?] (2) So, actually, they are very strict.

In this case, the teacher was probably not planning on using German, but she was apparently so surprised that she – most likely – accidentally ended up reacting in her mother tongue. Interestingly, she actually starts in English, then switches to German and then continues in English again.

However, this is not the norm. Overall, the English teacher sticks to the TL most of the time. She gives instructions in the TL and talks about administrative matters in English. Moreover, she comments on personal matters in the TL and from time to time she analyzes the language or explains (known) grammar in English. Additionally, the teacher deals with uncomplicated disciplinary matters in the TL. Sometimes she also explains vocabulary by describing them like in the following example (E2-SM – 08:32):

- T: Yes, behind schedule, very good. So if you, um, [1], offend somebody, if you say nasty things to the person (.) in English. You do what?
S1-m: Can I say it if he doesn't know?
T: Yes.
S1-m: To insult somebody.

Nevertheless, the vocabulary was not always only dealt with in English. Sometimes translations were provided by the teacher or asked for by the student as this extract (E1-SM – 15:14) shows:

- S1-f: um, I think... *also* Ollivander was was, um, shocked, or was (.)
überrascht halt [well, surprised]
T: surprised=

S1-f: =surprised because, um, because Harry got the same wand as Voldemort.

The student is clearly looking for the right English word and uses repetition and (German) fillers (*also*, um) to gain time to think but in the end she gives up and decides to say the German word which immediately makes the teacher offer the English term. This worked successfully as the students instantly picks up the provided word and continues her sentence.

At last, there is a hilarious example of what can happen when the English and the German language are constantly used together. Since the students are used to addressing the teacher with "*Frau Professor*" (which is interpreted as a proper name in the analysis), she once invented an English verb based on the German title (E3-SM – 03:08).

T: So (.) I haven't got any matches a:nd=

S1-m: =*Frau Professor*?= [Madam?]

T: =that's why we can't light it. So, who is *frau-professoring* me?

S1-m: I.

To conclude, the analysis of the recordings was very insightful and several different occasions of L1 use could be identified and categorized. In the next chapter, the analysis of the CLIL lesson recordings is presented and afterwards comparisons between the English and the biology classes can be drawn.

7.2.2 CLIL Lessons

The recorded CLIL lessons took place between in the two December weeks before the Christmas holidays which were followed by more distance learning weeks. The lessons were therefore used to repeat the content that had been acquired at home. In the third lesson the students had to do a short, written revision on the revised topic. The NS was present in the first and the third of the observed lessons.

This table gives an overview of the number of words and describes the transcribed words. As with the EFL lessons, a lot of chats between students could not be understood, especially because the number of students is double the size in the biology lessons than in the English lessons since the class is not split up.

Table 3. Word count biology transcriptions

	1 st lesson	2 nd lesson	3 rd lesson
total number of words	5,400	6,850	6,000
number of German words	4,250	6,820	4,900
percentage of German used	78.7%	99.6%	81.7%
number of English words	1,150	30	1,100
number of English words spoken by the NS	330	/	350

There are three numbers that draw attention. First of all, in the second lesson a surprisingly small number of only 30 words was spoken in English. In relation to the total number of words, the percentage is roughly zero, which shows that English is basically not present in this lesson. This probably has two reasons: the absence of the native speaker and the written revision in the following lesson. Both of the reasons were also mentioned by the biology teacher in the questionnaire. Nevertheless, it needs to be added that also in the third lesson, after the test, the amount of English is not significantly higher than in the two lessons before the test.

A short extract (B2-TM – 02:59) from the transcription provides some more information about the habits of speaking English and a student's expectations of how the tape recorder might influence language choice:

- S1-m: *Frau Professor, reden wir heute wieder in Englisch, weil die (.) äh die Aufnahmegeräte dastehen?* [Are we going to talk again in English today since the recorders are placed here?]
T: *Ja, was?* [Yes, what?]
S1-m: *Reden wir in Englisch?* [Are we going to talk in English?]
T: *Nein, es ist eine normale Biologie-Stunde. Wir reden in einer normalen Biologie-Stunde ja auch immer wieder ein bisschen Englisch.* [No, it's a normal biology lesson. We usually talk some English in a normal biology lesson.]

The other two fairly interesting numbers of table 3 are the numbers of English words spoken by the NS. In both the first and the third lesson, the NS contributes about only 6% of the words spoken in total. However, if compared to the total number of English words, one notices that these 6% make up about 30% of the English used in these two CLIL lessons. As she explained it in her questionnaire, she exclusively uses English when she teaches in a bilingual class. As the table shows, the amount of German spoken by

the biology teacher and the students is always very high and makes up an average percentage of 86.7%.

The little English that was used, was mostly used by the NS and conversations between the NS and the students, for example, when they compared the home exercise. Moreover, the Austrian teacher as well as the students very often said technical terms like saliva, gall bladder, or esophagus, in English but they rarely produced full English sentences, as these two examples show:

(B1-TM – 22:35)

T : *Das ist das was wir vorher schon gesagt haben [and that's what we've already said before], saliva. (.) Speichel. (2) Und [And] saliva hat jetzt mehrere wichtige Funktionen [has several important functions].*

(B1-TM – 23:24)

T : *Genau. Da sind ma dann schon in der drüberen Spalte. Which kind of enzyme hat man bereits im Mund?*

In contrast to the limited English use, a high amount of German was spoken. The following pie chart illustrates what exactly the German language was used for.

L1 use in CLIL lessons

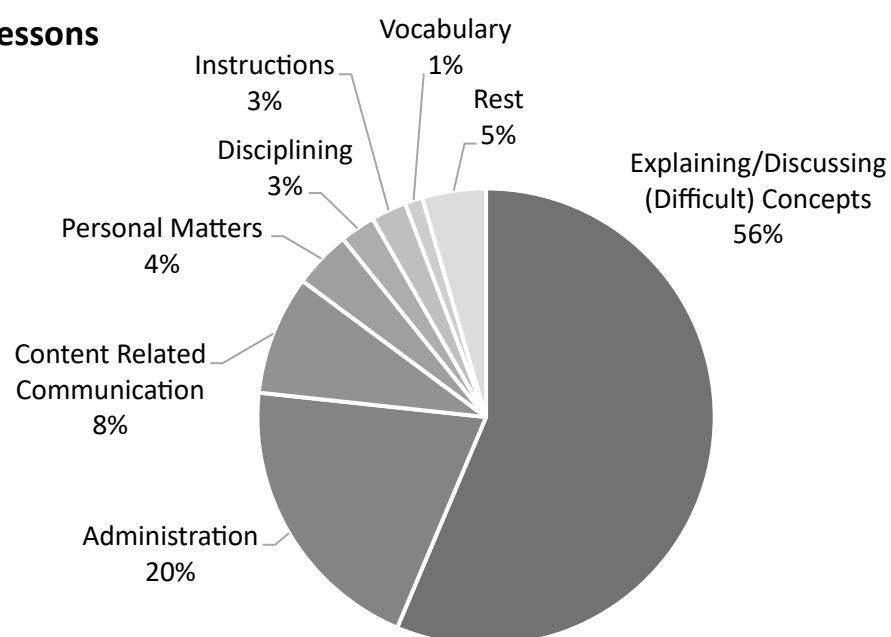


Figure 3. L1 use in CLIL lessons

In the CLIL lessons many different categories could be found in comparison to the EFL lessons and their distribution also significantly differs. By far the biggest category is “explaining/discussing (difficult) concepts”. Obviously, in biology lessons some complex concepts need to be covered that might require more use of German, which is less central in EFL lessons in lower secondary. In the analyzed CLIL lessons they talked about the human body and internal organs and discussed different processes happening there. This category is followed by “administration” which played a major role in these lessons due to the planned revision and the fact that the teacher had not seen the students for a while. Moreover, disciplining happened quite often whereas talking about vocabulary played a minor role. The “rest” consists of: analyzing language, proper names, giving feedback, clarifying, expressions of reactions/fillers, humor/jokes and comprehension problems; (listed from most used to least used).

As mentioned, explaining content was essential and characterized the CLIL lessons. Therefore, two examples for this category are looked at first. Very often, the teacher held longer monologues in German only. In this case she talks about the stomach, the esophagus and enzymes in German before the following happens (B1-SM – 31:15):

- T: Okay, let's continue in English again=
S1-f: = um, I wanted to ask um is the digestion really active process? Does it work? *Also* [I mean], if you eat something at for example äh (.) 22, *also* [I mean], 10pm um does the digestion... *also* [I mean]... go on while you sleep?=
T: =*ja, ja. Ja.* [Yes, yes, yes.] Digestion is working all the time, your stomach doesn't sleep when you are sleeping=
S1-f: =okay=
T: but... uh... *wenn du so spät am Abend so viel isst, dann kann es natürlich schon sein, dass du daher schlechter schläfst, weil natürlich das alles arbeitet und das belastet natürlich deinen Schlaf.* [If you eat a lot late in the evening, it's possible that you don't sleep well because everything is working and that affects your sleep.]

The teacher realizes that she could speak more English and even says so, which also motivates the student to use the TL. However, the teacher only gives one answer in English before she switches back to German and holds another monologue in the L1. Her hesitation in the beginning (“but...uh”) could indicate that she was looking for the right words but then she chose the time-saving and easier way and used German to answer the student's question.

The second example (B1-SM – 38:55) does not show a German-only conversation but an intertwining of English and German. The two languages seem to merge into one although the grammar mostly adheres to the German grammar rules.

- S1-m: u:m, (.) the liver makes the gastric juice called bile that helps digest fat.
- T: digest fat, *genau. U:nd wenns euch erinnert, wir ham, da hamma das gesagt. (3) Fett, diese großen Fettklumpen, die sind nicht wasserlöslich. Und dieser bile, dieser Gallensaft schafft es, <1> dass sich das auflöst. </1>*
- S2-m: <1> <un> das macht dann die Säure </un> </1>
- T: *genau, dafür brauch ma, na die Säure net, den bile, Gallensaft brauch ich. Der schafft es, dass er, oh yeah, you wrote it, that's perfect, yeah. Ja. The pancreatic juice has lots of enzymes, but der bile hat keine Enzyme, der hat keine Enzyme. (4) Der macht nur das löslich. Ja, schauts! Der zerlegt den riesigen Fettbrocken in lauter kleine Fetttropfchen. Also er verteilt nur besser, das Fett, damit mas dann besser verdauen können. Gut, und welche Enzyme hamma jetzt in dem pancreatic juice? Die hat man nur da abschreibn braucht. (.) Amylase, trypsin and lipase. (.) Also nix, war nicht so aufwendig, hat ma nur abschreibn müssn. Das sind die Enzyme. Which kind of enzymes? Das sind die drei Enzyme die in diesem pancreatic juice drinnen sind, ja? Die sind dann auch im Zwölffingerdarm. {writes on the blackboard} (7) Gut. (3) Und the small intestine, ja? Has its own juice. The intestinal juice. (3) Zuerst bevor ma noch sagen, bevor ma die Enzyme aufschreiben zu the small intestines, was geschieht Wichtiges im small intestine? Außer der restlichen Verdauung? Digestion, natürlich, und?*

Again, the student talks in English and the teacher also starts off in English but then she changes to German. However, this time she switches back and forth between the two languages. She mostly uses English to repeat some words that she has just mentioned in German and thus casually includes vocabulary work. However, these words are not new to the students but they are already familiar with these difficult terms.

The next extract (B1-TM – 14:43) is an example for “analyzing language”. This time, there is a real focus on the vocabulary as the conversation is triggered by a student who asks for a German translation of a technical term. The teacher then uses the L1 to explain the difference between this term and a synonym that the students know, which, however, is used in more informal contexts.

- S1-m: what are the salivary glands in German again?
 T: *Speicheldrüsen*. [salivary glands]
 S1-m: *danke*. [Thanks.]
 T: *Speichel*. Saliva, das ist eben ein schönes englisches Wort für Speichel. Was ist das weniger schöne englische Wort für Speichel? [Saliva is a beautiful English word. What is the less beautiful English word for saliva?]
 S2-m: *Spucke*. [Spit.]
 T: *ja, Spucke ist bei uns a des weniger schöne Wort, aber des ist ned Englisch, sondern Deutsch. Was ist das Wort für 'Spucke' im Englischen?* [Yes, that is our word but it's not English but German. What is the English word?]
 S3-m: spit.
 T: spit, *genau*. [Exactly.] *Spucke ist spit und Speichel ist saliva, okay? (2) Es gibt im Englischen und in Deutschen ein schönes Wort und eine weniger schönes Wort.* [There is a more and a less beautiful word in English and in German.]

Apparently, the students are well equipped with both English and German vocabulary and should be able to deal with the content in either of these languages. Nevertheless, the students do not have to show that. In exams they are allowed to use whichever language they prefer (B3-SM – 06:02):

- Sm-1: kann man auf Englisch schreiben? Weil ich hab den Zettel auf Englisch gelernt. [Can I write in English? Because I learned the handout in English.]
 T: ich hab alles gesagt (.) schon letztes Mal. Englische Fragen auf Deutsch beantworten, deutsche Fragen auf Englisch beantworten, aber natürlich auch, [first name1], englische Fragen auf Englisch beantworten, deutsche Fragen auf Deutsch beantworten. Jede Sprache, die ich versteh ist mir recht, aber ich spreche nur Deutsch und Englisch, also insofern [I already told you last time. English questions in German, German questions in English, but of course also English questions in English, German questions in German . Every language that I understand is okay but I only speak German and English.]

This shows that the teacher is very open-minded and that the content is in the foreground. During the test she also answered vocabulary questions and translated English questions into German when the students asked for it. Thus, these CLIL students are not at a disadvantage compared to non-CLIL students in terms of performance evaluation which is also stated by law.

The last category analyzed in more detail is disciplining. Interestingly, the teacher only had to deal with disciplinary issues in the third lesson. It was probably due to the revision and the upcoming Christmas holidays that the students were quite unsettled. Only the biology teacher and not the NS took care of the disruptions and the disciplining happened exclusively in German.

She had to make a few comments like these during the written test:

(B3-SM – 08:14)

T: *ihr braucht's ned umischaun zum Nachbarn. Der hat andere Fragen.*
[You don't need to look to your neighbor. They have different questions.]

(B3-SM – 13:58)

T: *aus jetzt! Es ist keine Gruppenarbeit!* [Stop it! It's not a group project!]

(B3-SM – 14:24)

T: *so (2), wenns weiter so laut ist, sammel ich gleich ab. (5) Wenns leise ist, könnt's noch zwei Minuten haben, ansonsten sammel ich gleich ab*
[If it remains that loud, I will collect your revisions immediately. If it is quiet, you can have two more minutes, if not, I will collect it now.]

But also afterwards, the students repeatedly did not pay attention and preferred chatting with their neighbors which lead to shorter comments by the teacher like “*Es ist wie immer, die Hölft'e hört ned zu.* [It's as always. Half the class doesn't listen.]” (B3-SM – 30:40) but also to longer harangues in which she, for example, addressed the fact that they do not even listen to other students saying something. “*Aber das Problem ist, wenn der [first name1] eine Frage stellt, hörn alle andern nicht zu, wenn die [first name2] eine Frage stellt, hört dort die drübere Hölft'e alle nicht zu. Es ist furchtbar, dass ihr euch gegenseitig gar nicht zuhört.* [But the problem is that when [first name1] asks a question, nobody else listens, when [first name2] asks a question, the half over there doesn't listen. It is horrible that you don't pay attention to the others.]” (B3-SM – 34:28).

At the end of the lesson the biology teacher mentioned to the NS that it was a “terrible lesson today” (B3-TM – 50:14). This could have been a reason for using the L1 more

although the NS was present and although the students had already written the test. By choosing German – for the harangues as well as explaining the content – the biology teacher probably hoped to get the attention of at least a few more students as they possibly do not have to concentrate that much and it is also easier to filter what the teacher says while other students in the classroom are talking and making noise.

To sum up, the percentage of the L1 use in the analyzed CLIL classes is fairly high which seems to have several reasons. Moreover, the mother tongue is used for various purposes that are different than in the EFL classes. Finally, the teacher conveyed the impression not to be satisfied with the use of English in this class. In the next chapter, the students' impressions and opinions will be introduced.

7.3 Student questionnaires

This section will focus on the description of the survey results combined with minor bits of information from the recordings and the teacher questionnaires in order to already establish some connection between the previously presented results and the answers of the student questionnaires. As mentioned above, the questionnaire contained a maximum of 57 items. Due to this high number, unfortunately not every single detail can be discussed but the most important results will be presented.

After welcoming the participants, thanking them and explaining that there is no “right” or “wrong” answer, they had to respond to some general questions concerning their age, their sex, their language background and their last grade in English.

The class consists of 19 female and 9 male students, who were 13 and 14 years old at the time of filling in the questionnaire. Their answers concerning the language background were more varied than expected. Four students mentioned that they each spoke one more language next to German and English, namely Bulgarian, Italian, Serbian or Czech. When asked which languages they speak at home, Bulgarian and Czech were mentioned again, Italian and Serbian were reported in combination with German and two more students answered that they would speak German and some English at home. Finally, they all claimed that their last English grade was no worse than a C, which shows that they indeed have good English skills.

7.3.1 Questions about the EFL lessons

The next questions were concerned with the amount of L1 in the English lessons. Although 23 students (85.1%) want an English teacher to exclusively speak English, 21 students (77.7%) like to sometimes talk in German with their English teacher during class. So, it seems like the students want to get a lot of English input but they themselves prefer not to have the pressure of speaking English only. Later, the actual amount of L1 use in their EFL lessons was addressed and 24 students estimated that their EFL teacher speaks English for at least 70% of the time and also 24 students believed that they talk at least 70% of the time in English with their teacher. These numbers seem very realistic since the analysis of the recorded lessons revealed that only 13% of the time German was spoken in the EFL classroom.

Another result of the questionnaire is that 19 learners (strongly) agree that talking in German with their colleagues can sometimes be good. Seven participants have mixed feelings and one rather disagrees. In the recorded lessons the students almost only spoke German with their classmates. Nevertheless, they are also aware of this situation as 11% admit that they never speak English with their classmates, one third does so very rarely, 41% often and 15% most of the time but nobody claimed to always use the TL when chatting with their colleagues. Their reasons are a better self-expression and understanding. Moreover, it is faster and easier, or they simply do not want to talk English. One of the students explained, “Ich versuche es zu vermeiden, aber manchmal vergesse ich darauf, bin eh nicht stolz drauf.” [I try to avoid it but sometimes I forget about it. I’m not proud of it.] (students’ questionnaire, participant 5). In general, 63% are content with the amount of English spoken in the classroom, 26% would wish for even more English and the small rest for less.

Next, the students had to fill in if both students and teacher should only speak English and, as Figure 4 shows, most of them agreed.

English-only Policy EFL

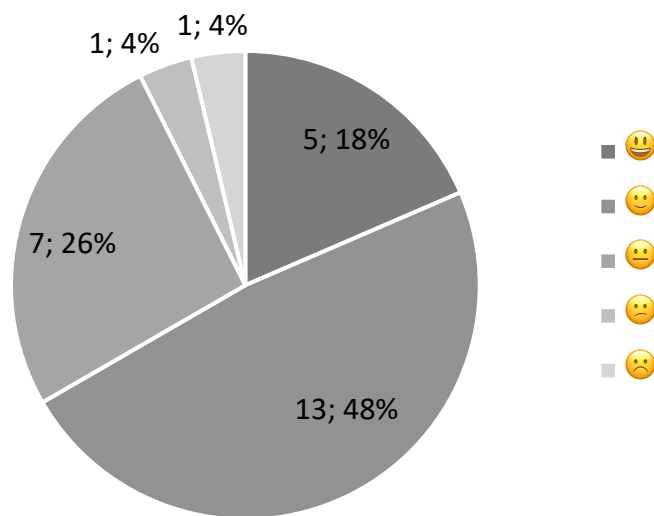


Figure 4. English-only policy EFL

However, in the following item 24 of the students answered that speaking German in EFL lessons can sometimes be useful. They want to speak as much English as possible but they sometimes want to use the L1 to communicate better, which becomes clear when in the next question 22 students agree that they should be allowed to speak German when they cannot express themselves well in English. This is also mostly the case in their language classroom. Around 50% of the students have the feeling that they may use the L1 for such a reason and another third is indecisive. Only five students disagree or strongly disagree.

Another item aimed at finding out more about specific situations in which a certain language is or should be used (see Figure 5). Around two thirds of the students claim that their teacher uses German to introduce complicated concepts, to discuss administrative matters and to clarify problems of understanding. Moreover, slightly more than half of the students mentioned that she also speaks German when explaining grammar. However, the vast majority argued that grammar should be explained in English *and* German instead of just one of the two languages. Analyzing the languages should be done in English or English *and* German whereas most of the students agreed that explaining a new word in English is the best way. Complicated concepts might be discussed in English *and* German, or in German but not only in English. Furthermore,

complex tasks should also be explained in both languages. Eleven students state that discussing administrative matters should be done in German but eight students prefer English and eight a mixture of the languages, so the answers are diverse. However, the answers to the last subitem are clear. 21 participants (75%) believe that disciplining students should happen in English. The rest chose English *and* German but no one thinks that it needs to be done in German only.

What should your English teacher do in English or German?

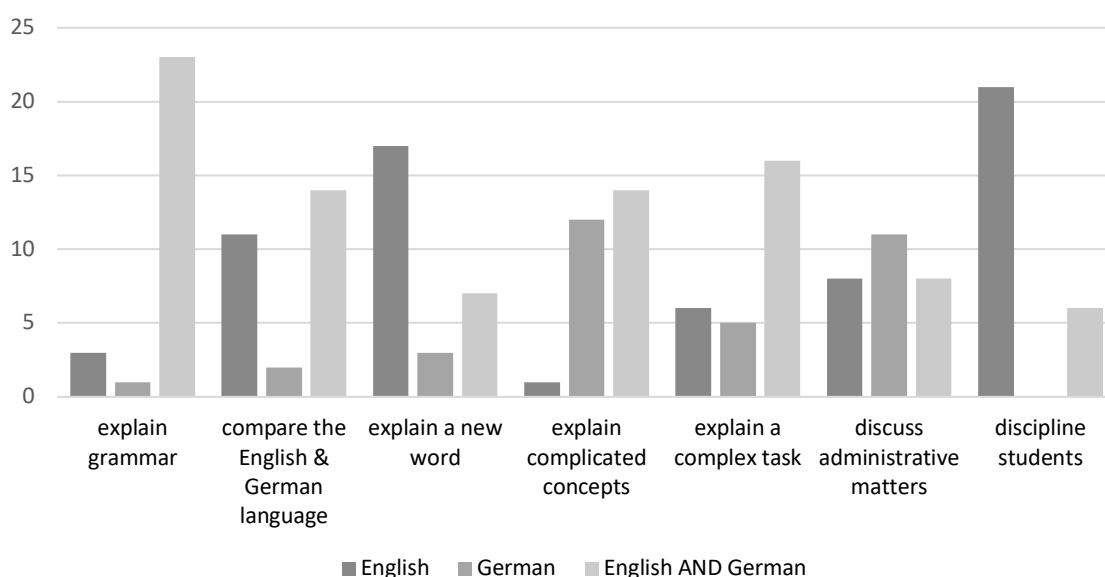


Figure 5. Students' desire for EFL teacher's language choice.

This question was followed by a multiple-choice item about the students' preferred reasons to use English. The most mentioned answers that are true for at least 50% of the students are improving the language skills and language competence, learning to speak more fluently, improving pronunciation, enhancing the vocabulary knowledge and learning vocabulary faster (by decreasing order). The main beneficial reasons for using German are avoiding misunderstandings, saving time and expressing oneself better. Moreover, German helps to check understanding.

Finally, the participants should answer some additional questions about the lessons and it was revealed that all of the students understand everything their teacher says in English – either very well or well. Yet, when they do not understand something, not all of them would really ask for clarification. As Figure 6 depicts, around 30% would not say

anything. Nevertheless, the vast majority, namely 60% would maybe or probably ask their teacher.

I ask for clarification if I do not understand something said in English

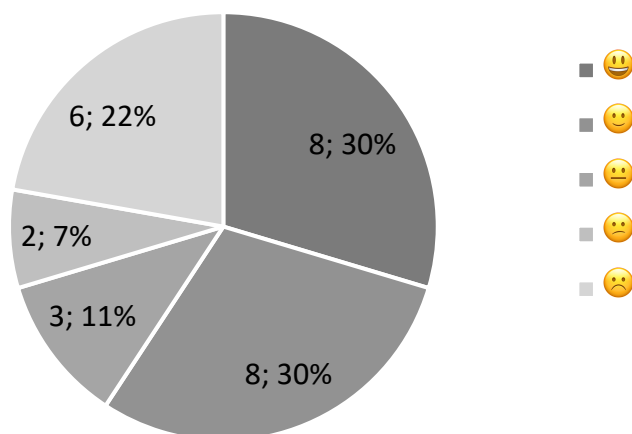


Figure 6. Asking for clarification in EFL

The last few items about the EFL lessons dealt with speaking tasks during the lessons. The students should react to the statement “My teacher includes a lot of speaking activities in the lesson.” Apparently the students do not agree on the amount or have very different perceptions. Four learners agree that their teacher includes a lot of speaking activities, eight rather agree, another eight are indecisive, three rather disagree and four completely disagree. Around 40% claim that they would like more speaking tasks whereas more than half believe that the amount is perfect. Only one student would prefer less speaking. In addition, 80% assert that they (almost) always participate in conversations and discussions and all students except one stated that they do not have any problem with answering in English. Disregarding what the students can do or want to do, almost half of the students generally prefer speaking in German as they simply feel more comfortable. Around a quarter is undecided and only the remaining quarter (strongly) disagrees.

7.3.2 Questions about the CLIL lessons

In the beginning of the CLIL section, the survey participants should indicate whether they would like CLIL teachers and NS to always speak English. Regarding CLIL teachers, their approval was significantly lower than it was in the previous section concerning EFL teachers. In comparison to 23 students that (strongly) agreed on an English only use by an EFL teacher, only 17 pupils (strongly) agreed this time regarding CLIL teachers. Conversely, 24 students (strongly) agreed that native speakers should only speak in English. Moreover, not a single student (strongly) disagreed and thinks that the NS should not speak English all the time. The bar chart visualizes the differences.

Preferred English Use

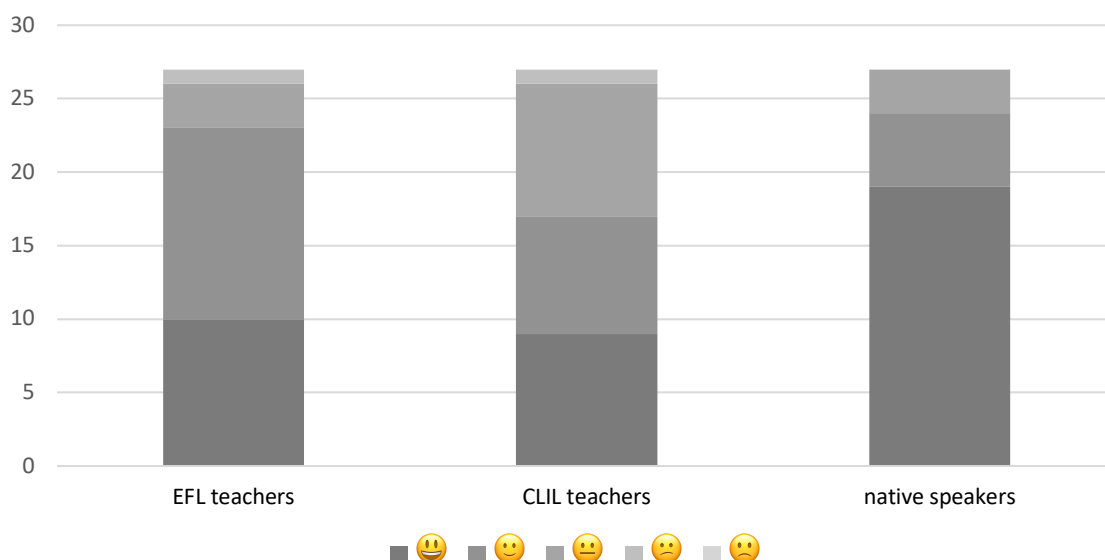


Figure 7. Preferred English use

Later, the students had to estimate the actual amount of their CLIL teachers' TL use. It seems to be slightly lower than their EFL teacher's English use. 21 students think that their CLIL teachers speak English for at least 70% of the time. This estimation differs significantly from the results of the recordings that revealed that the example biology lessons were shaped by an average English use (by all classroom participants) of only 13.3%. However, the three lessons are just a very small sample of lessons and moreover, the questionnaire included all the different CLIL subjects in which the proportion of the TL use could indeed be notably higher.

The estimation about the NS's English use seems already more congruent with the analyzed data from the recordings. All the students reckon that she speaks at least 80% English during the lessons. To compare, the recordings revealed that she did not use a single German word in the three biology lessons.

The next items asked if the students like talking in German with CLIL teachers and native speakers. While ten students strongly agreed and only two strongly disagreed that speaking in German with CLIL teachers is something positive, only five strongly agreed and seven strongly disagreed concerning native speakers. Also, the students' answers to the actual situation mirror the more extensive English use in conversations with the NS than with other CLIL teachers. Thus, a remarkable difference in terms of language use can be identified between the role of the regular CLIL teachers and the role of a NS.

Talking in German with the classmates is also more accepted during CLIL lessons than during EFL lessons. In contrast to 19 students that (strongly) believe that sometimes speaking German in EFL lessons is good, a higher number of 24 students (strongly) agree that they like the use of the L1 in CLIL classes. Likewise, they claim that they rather talk German with them. Apparently, one student never talks English with the colleagues and 11 rarely do so. Only three stated that they would mostly speak English but nobody always uses the TL. The chart below visualized the complete numbers.

English use among classmates

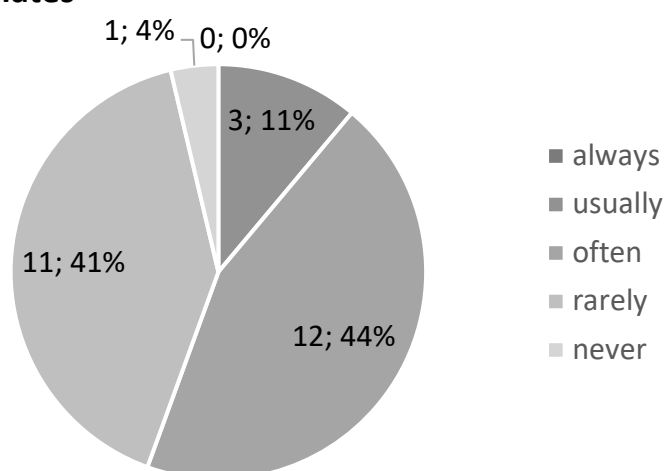


Figure 8. English use among classmates

The reasons for using German are the same as during the English lessons, which means that they mostly use the L1 because it is easier.

All in all, the students' opinion whether teachers and students should only speak English in CLIL lessons is by no means clear. 40.7% (strongly) wish for an English-only CLIL classroom, 37% are undecided and 22.2% are (strongly) against an English-only policy. Calling in mind the EFL results, a difference can be detected. The number of proponents of an English only EFL classroom amounts to 67% and is thus considerably higher.

Due to the fact that almost 93% of the students agree that speaking German in CLIL lessons can sometimes be helpful, it is no surprise that the students want to be allowed to switch to German if they cannot express themselves well in English. The question concerning CLIL obtained almost the same answers as the question about EFL lessons. About two thirds strongly agree and no one strongly disagrees. In contrast, the indications about the actual situation in the CLIL classrooms differ from the EFL lessons. While the students are not always allowed to simply use German in the EFL lessons, the L1 seems to be more accepted in CLIL lessons as shown in the two pie charts below.

It is allowed to use German in EFL lessons if we cannot express ourselves well in English.

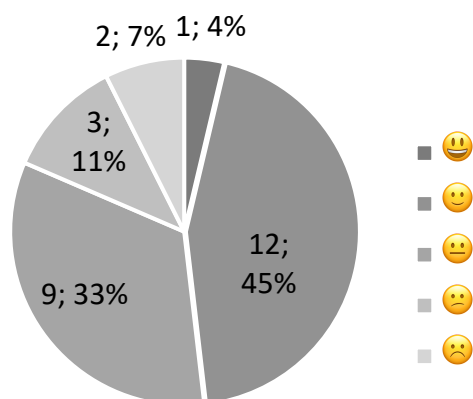


Figure 9. EFL teacher's L1 acceptance

It is allowed to use German in CLIL lessons if we cannot express ourselves well in English.

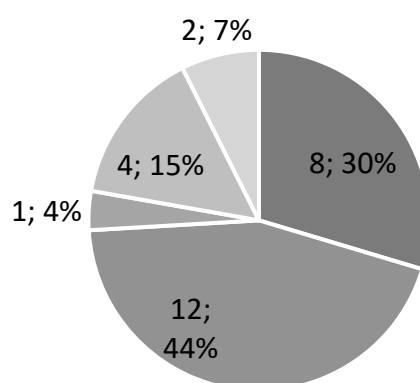


Figure 10. CLIL teachers' L1 acceptance

As the pie charts show, eight participants strongly agree that in CLIL classes German is always an alternative to English if necessary but only one person thinks that about the

EFL classes. These answers coincide with the analysis of the observed lessons. While the English teacher was always requesting the students to talk in English, the biology teacher rather had a *laissez faire* approach.

The following question was about the language choice of CLIL teachers in certain situations and the results are very similar to those about the EFL teachers. Again, the most significant numbers are that disciplining should happen in English, administrative matters in German, and complex tasks and concepts should be explained in both German *and* English. The only real difference is that the students would like CLIL teachers to explain new technical terms in both languages while new vocabulary in EFL lessons should be elucidated in English only. The students applied the same categorization to the NS and the results are very clear: the majority wants the native speaker to exclusively talk in English disregarding the matter.

According to the students, the reality matches their wishes. Three categories about the CLIL teachers' L1 use were each chosen by over 50% of the students, namely clarifying problems of understanding, explaining complicated problems and discussing administrative matters. Disciplining was only selected by 4 students although the recordings showed that the disciplining in case of the biology teacher exclusively happened in German.

When asked when the NS uses English, 10 students simply commented that she never uses German, so the rest of the distributed answers is quite low. No category received more than 30% of approval. The most mentioned reason for the NS to use German is explaining tasks with 29.6% followed by explaining complicated concepts with 25.9% agreement. These answers coincide better with the recordings.

In general, two thirds are content with the amount of English used in the CLIL lessons, 22% would like a higher percentage of the TL and 11% a lower one. These 11% are actually a lot if considering the fact that the students themselves voluntarily chose the bilingual education and therefore deliberately opted for more English. Moreover, they were asked if they believe that more German is spoken at the beginning of a new topic but they seem to be unsure about this question. Ten students (strongly) agreed, eight are undecided and nine (strongly) disagreed. Maybe this question can indeed not be

easily answered as even the biology teacher explained in the teacher questionnaire that there is no universal answer because it depends on the topic: “Das lässt sich allgemein nicht beantworten und hängt stark vom Thema ab.” (BT-Q 7).

Afterwards, the students should explain in how far a native speaker helps them. In general, the students are highly convinced that the NS helps them to improve their English skills. Augmenting their vocabulary knowledge and improving their pronunciation were mentioned very often but also grammar and a more frequent use of English seem to be important. Moreover, the students like native speakers because they are fluent in English and have a natural way of coping with the language (“weil es ein natürlicherer Umgang mit der Sprache ist”; students’ questionnaire, participant 3). Thus, they can listen to “real” English (“Ein echtes Englisch zu hören”; students’ questionnaire, participant 2). Therefore, 70% of the students believe that no second subject teacher could take over the role of the native speakers.

The different English use by the Austrian CLIL teachers and the native speakers also affects the students’ comprehension. While 11 students argue that they always understand their CLIL teachers and 11 state that they usually understand them, the NS quote is slightly lower. Only 6 students always comprehend the NSs but 14 usually grasp what they are saying.

Finally, the numbers concerning participation in discussions, answering in English and preferring German because of feeling more comfortable are almost the same for CLIL as for EFL.

To sum up, these answers do not differ a lot from the responses about the EFL lessons although the results of the recordings vary significantly. This could have two reasons. Either the students’ perception is poor or the three analyzed lessons are anomalies and no representative examples for the biology lessons as well as other CLIL subjects. This discrepancy makes a final judgment fairly difficult.

8 Analysis and Discussion: Answering the Research Questions

In this chapter, all the previously gathered and processed information is brought together with the intention to answer the four research questions. It is no longer a descriptive process but an analytic, interpretative presentation of the results of the empirical study in comparison to the literature review. Each question is dealt with separately in a different sub-chapter.

8.1 Research Question 1

The first and main research question “What are common code-switching practices in EFL and CLIL classrooms in lower secondary schools in Austria and why and when do teachers and students use the L1?” is of great importance as it asks for several specific bits of information. First of all, it does not only look at EFL but also at CLIL, secondly, it includes the students’ uses and finally, it specifically looks at lower secondary schools in Austria.

Originally, the codes used in this study were based on a handful of papers that all use very different approaches and thus very different categorizations (see chapter 3). During the process of analyzing, a few had to be added (especially those which would not occur in an exemplary lesson) while others were taken away. In the end, the functions written in italics were not needed for the analysis of the recorded lessons but still should not be withheld as they could be necessary for other lessons.

- affective functions (Wysocka-Narewska 2020: 53)
 - humor/jokes (Paker & Karaagaç 2015: 114)
 - socializing (Gierlinger 2015: 350)
 - personal matters (Orynbek et al. 2000: 6285)
 - *showing solidarity and empathy* (Hoff 2013: 46)
 - *motivating students* (Paker & Karaagaç 2015: 112)
- language
 - language analysis (Piasecka 1988: 98-99)

- lack of vocabulary/ translations/ asking for words (Hoff 2013: 46)
- *grammar explanation* (Hoff 2013: 46)
- *error explanation* (Piasecka 1988: 98-99)
- classroom management
 - instruction giving (Gierlinger 2015: 350)
 - administration (Gierlinger 2015: 350)
 - disciplining and controlling (Lasagabaster 2013: 8)
 - giving feedback (Paker & Karaagaç 2015: 112)
 - checking understanding (Paker & Karaagaç 2015: 112)
 - comprehension problems (Lasagabaster 2013: 8)
 - *changing topic/classroom procedure* (Wysocka-Narewska 2020: 53)
 - *boosting the debate* (Lasagabaster 2013: 8)
- content
 - explanation and discussion of (difficult) concepts (Orynbeek et al. 2000: 6291)
 - content related communication (added for this study)
 - clarifying (Gierlinger 2015: 350)
- others
 - expressions of reaction & fillers (Yphantides 2009: 14)
 - proper names (added for this study)
 - Denglish (added for this study)

This listing solely presents possible instances of L1 use, disregarding the attitude of the teachers and students towards certain situations of code-switching. It describes the codes for teachers as well as students although some are more likely to be used by teachers (for example, instruction giving or disciplining). As the list shows, the main categories for using the L1 are affective functions, language, classroom management and content. They comprise several sub-categories making the list detailed but still manageable.

The second part of the question about why the L1 is used is more difficult to answer as it is not as easy to observe but needs some reflective information by the participants of an observed lesson.

Information drawn from the teacher and student questionnaires as well as the literature review shows that the primary aim of the teachers is helping the students to understand the content and follow the lesson although there is no doubt that in reality this is not the only reason. Sometimes also saving time can be a decisive reason for a teacher to resort to the mother tongue. In the three recorded EFL lessons of this study the English teacher can be regarded as a good example as she uses English most of the time and only speaks German when she explains difficult words. In the questionnaire she also mentioned explaining grammar, clarifying instructions and solving conflicts as other reasons for using German which still seems fairly comprehensible and therefore these situations can be regarded as helping the students.

The native speaker sticks to English all the time and only regards German as necessary when the students have to fully understand a very complex topic. Concerning the native speakers' use of the students' L1, Kim and Elder (2005: 377) found out that just like their non-native colleagues, NS teachers often use a high proportion of L1. This might not apply to the observed NS as she was not alone in the classroom and thus the other teacher could take on this task and speak German when necessary.

The biology teacher spoke German almost exclusively. When she spoke in English, she frequently used the TL to translate single words but she rarely produced full English sentences. Although this might not be very beneficial, this information is part of the gained knowledge and must not be neglected as such an extensive use of the L1 will most likely also be the case in other situations, with other teachers, in other schools, etc.

The students use the mother tongue even more frequently than the teachers. This is partly reasonable, for example when talking about administrative matters or clarifying, which both happens rather often. However, apart from that, students almost always use the L1 to talk with their classmates about personal but also content relevant matters. The most mentioned reasons are that using the L1 is faster and easier, and they need to put in less effort. However, also better self-expression and better understanding or – in other words – language gaps can be the reason. Nevertheless, Zanoni, who came to the same results, also explained that this reason should not be given too much attention:

[I]f we analyse the certified English level of the people who admitted their language inadequacy, it is interesting to see that there is no correlation between their self-perception and their real level of language proficiency. (Zanoni 2018: 318)

Similar to the students observed by Zanoni, the students of this study have all got good grades in English and both their grades and the analysis of the recordings show that (at least the majority) seems to be proficient enough in the L2 and is capable of talking in English with their EFL teacher. Of course, if real beginners are observed, a lack of language will most likely be a good reason for using the L1.

A certainly more valid reason for the observed students is that they share the same mother tongue which makes chatting in a different language quite unnatural:

This data also suggests that the main reason why students code-switch to Italian is not their lack of language proficiency, but the fact that they all share the same L1 and, consequently, they don't perceive it natural to use another language to perform certain functions, such as joking or helping their classmates [...]. (Zanoni 2018: 319)

So, while colleagues speaking the same language hinder an English-only classroom, an English native speaker extremely motivates the students as they perceive talking in English with the NS as a completely natural situation. Thus, having an Austrian subject teacher who can explain the most important issues in German and a NS who only speaks English with the pupils is seen as the optimal combination for CLIL.

8.2 Research Question 2

In order to answer the second RQ "How does the use of the L1 in CLIL lessons differ from EFL lessons?" it is essential to differentiate between EFL and CLIL as they have two rather different starting positions. While the main purpose of EFL classes is language learning, CLIL covers content and language learning. Thus, its use can differ from the EFL context.

As the literature about this comparison of EFL and CLIL is extremely limited, the conclusions drawn hereafter are mostly based on the conducted study, implying that the assumptions about differences between EFL and CLIL are based on only three recorded lessons each and/or on the students' evaluation. The basis is therefore fairly limited (see also chapter 8.5: Limitations and Outlook).

Generally speaking, the amount of English used in the EFL classroom is strikingly higher than in the CLIL lessons. While in the English lessons 87% of the time English was spoken, in the biology lessons English was used only 13% of the time. There are various factors leading to the high amount of English in EFL. First of all, the English teacher speaks English almost exclusively and only switches to German for a good reason. Moreover, she continuously attempts to motivate the students to talk in English as well. The same results were reported in Fussi's study (2017: 54-55) who stated that EFL teachers often adhere to the Maximal Position and repeatedly remind the students to talk in English. Thus, the students talk more English with the English teacher than with the CLIL teacher. In addition, talking in German with the classmates is also less accepted in the EFL lessons than in the CLIL lessons. Furthermore, the students believe that it is rather permitted to speak German in CLIL lessons than in EFL lessons when they cannot express themselves in English.

Due to these discrepancies, many different categories of L1 use could be found in the CLIL lessons in comparison to the EFL lessons; and their distribution also differs significantly:

1. While in EFL the largest category is "personal matters" with 30%, it only makes up 4% of the German uses in the CLIL lessons. In the CLIL lessons, "explaining/discussing (difficult) concepts" is by far the largest category as 56% could be allocated to it. Obviously, in CLIL lessons more complex concepts need to be discussed than in EFL lessons which requires more use of German.
2. The second largest category in EFL lessons (17%) describes "content related communication" which is only half the percentage in CLIL. The second category in CLIL is "administration" (20%). In the EFL lessons administration makes up 13% and German was only used by the students and not by the teacher.
3. The third category in English is "vocabulary" (16%) whereas using German explicitly for explaining/asking for vocabulary plays a minor role in CLIL (1%).

Finally, in recent years researchers have ascribed the L1 a positive role in both CLIL and EFL context, if used wisely (Lasagabaster 2013: 1-2).

8.3 Research Question 3

The third RQ is “What are teachers’ and students’ beliefs about using the L1 in EFL and CLIL classrooms?”. Investigating the students’ beliefs is extremely important to understand their motivation for learning (Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 269) but without doubt, people’s beliefs are difficult to measure as they cannot simply be observed. In order to gather information about beliefs, the respective persons of interest have to explain their point of views themselves.

Besides beliefs being very subjective, they can easily be biased and thus differ from reality: “[m]any teachers make much greater use of L1 in their classrooms than their attitudes would seem to indicate.” (Kerr 2019: 4). Possibly, some teachers are unaware of their use of the L1, or they suppress their knowledge as they connotate it with something negative. As shown in the teachers’ questionnaires but also the literature review, feelings of guilt for using the L1 are not uncommon (Kerr 2019: 2). The English teacher explained that she feels guilty when using German (ET-Q 12), the NS never uses German but if she did, she would also feel this way. In fact, she already feels bad when she does not insist on the students talking in English to her (NS-Q 12). Similarly, the biology teacher is annoyed when she uses too much German (BT-Q 12).

However, feeling guilty is not necessary. As the literature review shows, there are indeed very mixed views on this issue and the former preference of L2 exclusivity is still partly perceivable. Nevertheless, there seems to be an increasing tendency towards a partial L1 use as the number of scholars in favor of the use of the L1 in SLA (e.g. Timor 2012; Brooks-Lewis 2009; Tsagari & Giannikas 2018) has risen. For example, it appears to be acceptable to use the L1 to explain vocabulary and for clarification purposes (Manara 2007: 166).

This preference also holds true for the students, of who the majority clearly has a positive stance towards an L1 use (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 233). Like Brooks-Lewis (2009) as well as Tsagari and Giannikas’ (2018) observed students, the vast majority of the students investigated in this study believes that using the mother tongue in EFL lessons can sometimes be helpful. In contrast to these scholars’ results, the observed students

argue that the main reason for the EFL teachers to use the L1 is dealing with administrative matters. Nevertheless, both the student questionnaire of this study and the studies of other scholars (e.g. Manara 2007: 152) revealed that students prefer having a high L2 exposure by the EFL teachers.

In contrast to the teachers, the observed students' choice of language depends on their interlocutor. While talking in English with their teacher is preferable, they want to use the L1 for conversations with their classmates (see also Manara 2007: 153).

Moreover, it seems that in CLIL lessons, the L1 is even more accepted than in EFL. According to the students, especially learners but also teachers may make more use of the L1 in CLIL than in EFL lessons. Thus, most students also expect the teachers to allow them to use the mother tongue in CLIL classrooms. The study has shown that alike EFL, CLIL teachers should especially use the L1 when talking about administration.

To sum up, according to teachers and students using the mother tongue in specific situations in EFL and CLIL lessons seems to be broadly approved and very often also practiced. This applies even more to CLIL than to EFL. Only the native speakers should exclusively speak in English.

8.4 Research Question 4

Answering the last RQ "Which advantages and drawbacks exist when using the L1 in EFL and CLIL classrooms?" is closely entangled with the previous question as it informs about the reasons for the teachers' and students' beliefs.

The advantages and drawbacks for using the L1 in EFL and CLIL are almost identical. There is only a small difference due to content-related learning, which is more essential in the CLIL context. Using the L1 under certain circumstances has more benefits than downsides (Lin 2015: 78), which is also the justification for the teachers, students and researchers to accept L1 use.

This is a listing of the most crucial disadvantages of employing the mother tongue in either EFL or CLIL lessons, followed by the most relevant advantages. It is based on the

information presented in chapters 4.1, 5.1 and 5.2, as well as the results of the conducted study.

Drawbacks:

- bilingual teaching deprives learners of valuable input (Tsagari & Giannikas 2018: 3)
- fosters laziness as students rely on the L1 (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri 2015: 324)
- general allowance to use the L1 will lead to an overuse (Lin 2015: 78)
- hinders the cognitive process (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri 2015: 324)

Advantages:

- L1 supports the development of the learners' language awareness and metalinguistic understanding (Lasagabaster 2013: 8)
- enables a systematized comprehension of L2 structures leading to more meaningful learning (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 234)
- makes language learning and becoming bilingual more natural as the language systems are interwoven (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri 2015: 324)
- especially helps weaker learners and beginners (Balabakgil 2016: 21)
- facilitates content learning and improves understanding, which makes following the lesson easier and more fruitful (Lasagabaster 2013: 8)
- better comprehension of the vocabulary (Balabakgil 2016: 26)
- provides more possibility to participate (Lasagabaster 2013: 8)
- useful for checking understanding (Balabakgil 2016: 26)
- helpful psychological tool as it makes the learners feel more comfortable (Al Hariri 2015: 220)
- leaves less space for ambiguity or misunderstandings – especially concerning disciplining and classroom management (Lasagabaster 2013: 8-10)

Due to this long list of benefits, it is certain that the mother tongue enriches EFL and CLIL classes. However, the quality and the conditions of the L1 use are crucial and of

course, it should not be overused. Certainly, listening to English and speaking it as much as possible greatly contributes to the learners' language development.

Thus, it needs to be pointed out that the proportion of English used in the recorded biology lessons seems to be insufficient. While Dalton-Puffer (2007: 184) states that "[i]n CLIL programs typically less than 50% of the curriculum is taught in the target language", the analysis of this study revealed that in the three recorded CLIL lessons the TL was only used for around 13% of the time. This evokes the impression that the L1 use is unprincipled as the lesson is basically held in German and English is mostly only used to provide the translations of new words.

Due to this issue, which is most likely not an exceptional case, a proper teacher training on language choice for CLIL teachers seems to be a necessity. In addition to teacher training, another measure to avoid unplanned spontaneous L1 usages could be a scheduled inclusion of the L1 use in the lesson plan or even in the curriculum. These measures could contribute to a further improvement of the prestige of the L1 in CLIL and EFL classes.

8.5 Limitations and Outlook

Like any empirical investigation, the present study has some limitations that need to be addressed and are hence reflected on in this section.

First and foremost, the study has a limited validity as it is a small-scale study that observed only one class of one school in two subjects during three lessons each. In addition, the circumstances of the recorded lessons were definitely suboptimal (caused by several factors). They might not represent a complete picture of the teachers' teaching practices and thus it is possible that they do not mirror the norm. As a consequence, it has to be borne in mind that other English/ biology lessons by the same teachers could be completely different.

Furthermore, an analysis of other CLIL lessons with other teachers than the biology teacher might lead to a different outcome. This is possible as the answers of the student questionnaire, which referred to all CLIL teachers and lessons and not just biology,

strongly differed from the results drawn from the analyzed biology lessons. This discrepancy could have three reasons; first of all, the gathered information is solely based on the students' estimation but their perception could be incomplete. Secondly, it is possible that the biology lessons are usually totally different or thirdly, the other CLIL subjects have such a contrastive character as compared to the biology lessons. As a matter of course, it could also be a combination of various factors.

Thus, the study bears obvious limitations and conclusions have to be drawn cautiously. Unfortunately, time and resource restrictions of the present investigation, as well as COVID-19 circumstances, prevented the realization of a study of a larger scale. Of course, it would have been interesting to collect more samples over a longer time period and of more teachers.

For future studies it would be interesting to investigate a multicultural class with students that have a variety of mother tongues. This factor possibly influences the use of the official L1. Likewise, looking at different learning levels would be worthwhile. Eventually, there is a difference in the L1 use in real beginner classrooms. The level could once more be divided into teenagers learning a language and adults to find out if age is also relevant.

9 Conclusion

On the basis of an in-depth literature review and a thoughtfully conducted empirical study, this thesis at hand aimed at answering a set of research questions about the use of the L1 in EFL and CLIL classrooms in a lower secondary school in Austria.

This paper and the research in the field of FL and bilingual education in general have illustrated that in most EFL and CLIL classrooms the L1 is present to some extent, which is also very beneficial as it can be a valuable resource. Moreover, the language systems of the learners are interwoven and thus language education should be oriented toward a connected language acquisition.

The classroom recordings revealed that in EFL classrooms the L1 is mostly used to talk about personal matters and content related aspects (i.e. commenting the classroom content) whereas in the CLIL lessons, the explanation and discussion of concepts as well as administrative matters are predominant. This practice matches the students' needs who seem to appreciate the L1 use for complicated concepts and administration with the aim of avoiding problems of understanding. However, they do not consider it a necessity that the teachers resort to the mother tongue when disciplining and partly also when giving instructions, which teachers often regard as appropriate. Concerning the overall language use, students as well as teachers generally opt for a rather high percentage of the TL but at the same time they disapprove a complete ban of the first language. Nevertheless, their wish for L1 use is slightly higher in CLIL classes than in EFL lessons.

Moreover, this paper revealed that scholars and teachers increasingly recognize the enhanced learning opportunities that arise if students may incorporate their whole linguistic repertoire (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 233). Thus, the prestige of appropriate L1 use in EFL and CLIL classrooms has improved and this change of view is likely to affect the way foreign languages are taught.

However, teachers must be aware of the necessity to adhere to a principled L1 use as an unplanned use could easily lead to over-use, which would hinder the second language learning. Therefore, a critical reflection on the use of the L1 is indispensable. In addition,

teacher training courses for student-teachers as well as in-service teachers would be an appropriate measure to inform FL and CLIL teachers about an advantageous implementation with the result that students benefit from that training. Nevertheless, for a good learning environment it is essential to take the preferences and needs of the individual students into account, instead of only sticking to general recommendations. Although this factor is not addressed and investigated in this paper, the language level of the learners might be a factor that needs to be considered and can influence the actual demand of the inclusion of the L1.

In conclusion, this thesis provides evidence that the mother tongue can be a useful instrument and should be highly valued. If no action is taken towards establishing an educational environment that allows teachers and students to correctly make use of their L1, it would deprive the learners of precious learning moments. However, it is imperative that the teachers' decisions are based on sound theoretical knowledge from research into the field, which I hope to have stressed as crucially decisive throughout my argumentation. It is essential that they are conscious and deliberate on their language choice in order to adhere to the specific needs of the individual students and teaching situations.

Finally, I hope that this thesis usefully contributes to the field and that present and future teachers have a more profound understanding regarding the role of L1. It hopefully has an impact on EFL as well as CLIL teachers by stimulating them to question and reflect on their own L1 use in the classroom and making them more sensible about their own teaching.

10 References

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11 Appendix

11.1 Teacher Questionnaires

11.1.1 English Teacher Questionnaire

Diese Fragen beziehen sich konkret auf den Unterricht in der observierten Klasse.

1. Sprichst Du während des Unterrichts nur Englisch oder auch Deutsch? Warum?
2. Wenn Du auch Deutsch verwendest, in welchen Situationen geschieht das meistens?
3. Ist es für Dich in Ordnung, wenn die SchülerInnen Deutsch sprechen? In welchen Situationen eher schon und wann eher nicht?
4. Denkst Du, dass sie mit ihren Sitznachbarn mehr Deutsch oder Englisch sprechen?
5. Wart Ihr zu Beginn der aufgenommenen Sequenz in der Mitte eines Themas oder eher am Anfang/Ende?
6. Was hast Du in den Stunden vor der aufgenommenen Sequenz mit der Klasse gemacht? Wurde schon Vokabelarbeit geleistet (oder war das nicht nötig)?
7. Bist Du der Meinung, dass zu Beginn eines neuen Themas mehr/ weniger/ gleich viel Deutsch gesprochen wird wie/als am Ende?
8. Was ist im Unterricht nach der aufgenommenen Sequenz geschehen?
9. Hättest Du gerne, dass im Unterricht mehr Englisch gesprochen wird?
10. Hast Du das Gefühl, dass die SchülerInnen dich immer verstehen bzw. nachfragen, wenn etwas unklar ist?
11. Wie ist Dein Eindruck? Fühlen sich die SchülerInnen wohl, wenn sie Englisch sprechen, oder würden sie vielleicht lieber auf Deutsch antworten?
12. Fühlst du Dich „schuldig“, wenn Du mit den SchülerInnen Deutsch sprichst?
13. Siehst Du bezüglich des Englischgebrauchs einen Unterschied zwischen bilingualen und nicht bilingualen Klassen? Warum (nicht)?

11.1.2 Biology Teacher Questionnaire

Diese Fragen beziehen sich konkret auf den Unterricht in der observierten Klasse.

1. Sprichst Du während des Unterrichts nur Englisch oder auch Deutsch? Warum?
2. Wenn Du auch Deutsch verwendest, in welchen Situationen geschieht das meistens?
3. Ist es für Dich in Ordnung, wenn die SchülerInnen Deutsch sprechen? In welchen Situationen eher schon und wann eher nicht?
4. Denkst Du, dass sie mit ihren Sitznachbarn mehr Deutsch oder Englisch sprechen?
5. War Ihr zu Beginn der aufgenommenen Sequenz in der Mitte eines Themas oder eher am Anfang/Ende?
6. Was hast Du in den Stunden vor der aufgenommenen Sequenz mit der Klasse gemacht? Wurden schon schwierige (englische) Begriffe besprochen (oder war das nicht nötig)?
7. Bist Du der Meinung, dass zu Beginn eines neuen Themas mehr/ weniger/ gleich viel Deutsch gesprochen wird wie/als am Ende?
8. Was ist im Unterricht nach der aufgenommenen Sequenz geschehen?
9. Hättest Du gerne, dass im Unterricht mehr Englisch gesprochen wird?
10. Hast Du das Gefühl, dass die SchülerInnen Dich bzw. den Native Speaker immer verstehen bzw. nachfragen, wenn etwas unklar ist?
11. Wie ist Dein Eindruck? Fühlen sich die SchülerInnen wohl, wenn sie Englisch sprechen, oder würden sie vielleicht lieber auf Deutsch antworten?
12. Fühlst Du dich „schuldig“, wenn du mit den SchülerInnen Deutsch sprichst?
13. Hast Du Zugriff auf englische Schulbücher? Wenn ja, wie bist Du dazu gekommen? (von der Schule vorgegeben, Eigenanschaffung, etc.)
14. Findest Du es eher problemlos oder schwierig an englische Schulbücher für den Biologieunterricht zu gelangen?

11.1.3 Native Speaker Questionnaire

These questions are specifically related to the lessons in the observed class.

1. Would you describe yourself as an advanced speaker of German?
2. For how long have you been teaching? How many years have you taught in Austria and how many years have you taught biology in English?
3. How often do you teach in the observed class? Do you sometimes teach alone without the subject teacher?
4. Do you only speak English or also German during the lesson? Why?
5. If you use German, in which situations does this happen the most?
6. Is it okay for you if the students talk in German? In which situations is it rather acceptable and when rather not?
7. Do you think that the students talk more German or English with their classmates (during the lesson)?
8. Do you believe that more/ less/ the same amount of German is spoken in the beginning of a new topic as/ than at the end?
9. Would you like that more English is spoken?
10. Would you say that the students always understand you and do they ask, if something is unclear?
11. What's your impression? Do the students feel comfortable when talking in English or would they prefer answering in German?
12. Do you feel "guilty" when you speak German to the students?

11.2 Student questionnaire

Der Gebrauch von Englisch und Deutsch im Englischunterricht und bilingualen Unterricht

Danke, dass du an meiner Umfrage teilnimmst!

Bitte nimm dir ca. 10-15 Minuten Zeit, um sie auszufüllen.

Es ist kein Test und gibt kein „richtig“ oder „falsch“. Antworte daher bitte so ehrlich wie möglich und mach dir keine Sorgen um deine Antworten!

Viel Spaß!

Alter: ☐12 ☐13 ☐14 ☐15 ☐16

Geschlecht: ☐weiblich ☐männlich ☐Sonstiges

Sprichst du noch andere Sprachen als Deutsch und Englisch? Wenn ja, welche? _____

Welche Sprache(n) wird/werden bei dir zu Hause gesprochen? _____

Was war deine letzte Zeugnisnote in Englisch? ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐möchte ich nicht sagen

TEIL A: ENGLISCHUNTERRICHT

Wie würdest du es am besten finden? – Kreuze deine persönliche Meinung an!

SINNVOLLE MENGE

1. Ich finde es gut, wenn meine Lehrerin immer Englisch spricht.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
2. Ich finde es gut während des Unterrichts manchmal mit meiner Lehrerin Deutsch zu sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
3. Ich finde es gut während des Unterrichts manchmal mit meinen KlassenkameradInnen Deutsch zu sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐

SINNVOLLE SITUATIONEN

4. Sowohl Lehrer als auch Schüler sollten nur Englisch sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
5. Es hilft manchmal Deutsch im Unterricht zu verwenden.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
6. Die SchülerInnen sollten Deutsch sprechen dürfen, wenn sie sich auf Englisch nicht ausdrücken können.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐

7. Was sollte deine Lehrerin deiner Meinung nach auf Englisch bzw. auf Deutsch machen?

	Englisch	Deutsch	Englisch UND Deutsch
Grammatik erklären	☐	☐	☐
Unterschiede und Ähnlichkeiten zw. Deutsch & Englisch besprechen	☐	☐	☐
ein neues Vokabel erklären	☐	☐	☐
komplizierte Konzepte erklären	☐	☐	☐
eine komplexe Aufgabe erklären	☐	☐	☐
Organisatorische Dinge besprechen	☐	☐	☐
ermahnen	☐	☐	☐
Sonstiges:	☐	☐	☐

8. Ich bevorzuge den Gebrauch von **Englisch** im Unterricht, weil:

- ☐ wir so Zeit sparen
- ☐ ich so mein Sprachniveau verbessere
- ☐ ich so meine Sprachsicherheit verbessere
- ☐ ich so lerne flüssiger zu sprechen
- ☐ ich so meinen Wortschatz verbessere
- ☐ ich so meine Aussprache verbessere
- ☐ ich so besser lerne
- ☐ ich so mehr verstehe und dem Unterricht besser folgen kann
- ☐ ich mich so besser ausdrücken kann
- ☐ ich so Vokabeln besser verstehe und schneller lerne
- ☐ ich so Verständnisprobleme vermeiden kann
- ☐ Sonstiges: _____

9. Ich bevorzuge den Gebrauch von **Deutsch** im Unterricht, weil:

- ☐ wir so Zeit sparen
- ☐ ich so mein Sprachniveau verbessere
- ☐ ich so meine Sprachsicherheit verbessere
- ☐ ich so lerne flüssiger zu sprechen
- ☐ ich so meinen Wortschatz verbessere
- ☐ ich so meine Aussprache verbessere
- ☐ ich so besser lerne
- ☐ ich so mehr verstehe und dem Unterricht besser folgen kann
- ☐ ich mich so besser ausdrücken kann
- ☐ ich so Vokabeln besser verstehe und schneller lerne
- ☐ ich so Verständnisprobleme vermeiden kann
- ☐ Sonstiges: _____

10. **Deutsch** zu verwenden hilft mir:

- ☐ wenn ich mich auf Englisch nicht richtig ausdrücken kann
- ☐ bei der Kommunikation während Gruppenarbeiten
- ☐ um zu überprüfen, ob ich etwas richtig verstanden habe
- ☐ Sonstiges: _____

TATSÄCHLICHE MENGE

Wie ist es wirklich? – Kreuze der Wahrheit entsprechend an!

11. Wie oft spricht deine Lehrerin durchschnittlich Englisch?
0% ----- 100%
12. Wie oft sprichst du mit deiner Lehrerin im Unterricht Englisch?
0% ----- 100%
13. Wie oft sprichst du mit deinen KlassenkameradInnen im Unterricht Englisch?
☐ immer ☐ meistens ☐ häufig ☐ selten ☐ nie
Bei „immer“, „meistens“, „häufig“ & „selten“: Wieso sprichst du auf Deutsch?
14. Wenn im Unterricht ein neues Thema begonnen wird, wird mehr Deutsch verwendet.
☐ 😄 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ ☹️ ☐ 😞
15. Ich hätte gerne, dass _____ Englisch gesprochen wird.
☐ mehr ☐ weniger ☐ genauso viel

TATSÄCHLICHE SITUATIONEN

16. Ich spreche Deutsch, um
☐ organisatorische Dinge zu besprechen
☐ Verständnisprobleme zu klären (wenn ich etwas nicht ganz verstanden habe)
☐ mich besser ausdrücken zu können
☐ zu überprüfen, ob ich etwas richtig verstanden habe
☐ bei KlassenkameradInnen nach Erklärungshilfen zu fragen
☐ mit KlassenkameradInnen zu plaudern
☐ über persönliche Angelegenheiten (Geschichten, Erzählungen,..) zu sprechen
☐ etwas zu sagen, das ich auf Englisch nicht sagen könnte
☐ Sonstiges: _____
17. Meine Lehrerin spricht Deutsch, um
☐ zu ermahnen
☐ Grammatik zu erklären
☐ ein kompliziertes Konzept zu erklären
☐ Unterschiede und Ähnlichkeiten zw. Deutsch & Englisch zu besprechen
☐ ein Vokabel zu erklären
☐ eine Aufgabe zu erklären
☐ Verständnisprobleme zu klären
☐ organisatorische Dinge zu besprechen
☐ über persönliche Angelegenheiten (Geschichten, Erzählungen,..) zu sprechen
☐ etwas zu sagen, das sie auf Englisch nicht sagen könnte
☐ Sonstiges: _____

EXTRA

18. Ich verstehe alles, was meine Lehrerin auf Englisch sagt.
☐ 😄 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ ☹️ ☐ 😞
19. Ich frage nach, wenn ich etwas auf Englisch nicht verstanden habe.
☐ 😄 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ ☹️ ☐ 😞
20. Meine Lehrerin baut viele Sprechübungen in den Unterricht ein.
☐ 😄 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ ☹️ ☐ 😞
21. Ich würde gerne _____ Sprechübungen machen.
☐ mehr ☐ weniger ☐ genauso viele
22. Ich nehme häufig an Gesprächen und Diskussionen im Englischunterricht teil.
☐ 😄 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ ☹️ ☐ 😞

23. Ich habe kein Problem damit auf Englisch zu antworten.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
24. Ich spreche lieber Deutsch, weil ich mich wohler und sicherer fühle.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
25. Wir dürfen auch Deutsch sprechen, wenn wir uns auf Englisch nicht ausdrücken können.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊

TEIL B: BILINGUALER UNTERRICHT

Wie würdest du es am besten finden? – Kreuze deine persönliche Meinung an!

SINNVOLLE MENGE

1. Ich finde es gut, wenn meine LehrerInnen immer Englisch sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
2. Ich finde es gut, wenn der native speaker immer Englisch spricht.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
3. Ich finde es gut während des Unterrichts manchmal mit meinen LehrerInnen Deutsch zu sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
4. Ich finde es gut während des Unterrichts manchmal mit dem native speaker Deutsch zu sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
5. Ich finde es gut während des Unterrichts manchmal mit meinen KlassenkameradInnen Deutsch zu sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊

SINNVOLLE SITUATIONEN

6. Sowohl LehrerInnen als auch SchülerInnen sollten nur Englisch sprechen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
7. Es hilft manchmal Deutsch im Unterricht zu verwenden.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
8. Die SchülerInnen sollten Deutsch sprechen dürfen, wenn sie sich auf Englisch nicht ausdrücken können.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊 ☐ 😊
9. Was sollten deine LehrerInnen deiner Meinung nach auf Englisch bzw. auf Deutsch machen?

	Englisch	Deutsch	Englisch UND Deutsch
einen neuen Fachbegriff erklären	☐	☐	☐
komplizierte Konzepte erklären	☐	☐	☐
eine komplexe Aufgabe erklären	☐	☐	☐
Organisatorische Dinge besprechen	☐	☐	☐
ermahnen	☐	☐	☐
Sonstiges: _____	☐	☐	☐

10. Was sollte der native speaker deiner Meinung nach auf Englisch bzw. auf Deutsch machen?

	Englisch	Deutsch	Englisch UND Deutsch
einen neuen Fachbegriff erklären	☐	☐	☐
komplizierte Konzepte erklären	☐	☐	☐
eine komplexe Aufgabe erklären	☐	☐	☐
Organisatorische Dinge besprechen	☐	☐	☐
ermahnen	☐	☐	☐
Sonstiges: _____	☐	☐	☐

11. Ich bevorzuge den Gebrauch von Englisch im Unterricht, weil

- ☐ wir so Zeit sparen
- ☐ ich so mein Sprachniveau verbessere
- ☐ ich so meine Sprachsicherheit verbessere
- ☐ ich so lerne flüssiger zu sprechen
- ☐ ich so meinen Wortschatz verbessere
- ☐ ich so meine Aussprache verbessere
- ☐ ich so besser lerne
- ☐ ich so mehr verstehe und dem Unterricht besser folgen kann
- ☐ ich mich so besser ausdrücken kann
- ☐ ich so Vokabeln besser verstehe und schneller lerne
- ☐ ich so Verständnisprobleme vermeiden kann
- ☐ Sonstiges: _____

12. Ich bevorzuge den Gebrauch von Deutsch im Unterricht, weil

- ☐ wir so Zeit sparen
- ☐ ich so die Fachbegriffe auf Deutsch lerne
- ☐ ich so besser lerne
- ☐ ich so mehr verstehe und dem Unterricht besser folgen kann
- ☐ ich mich so besser ausdrücken kann
- ☐ ich so Vokabeln besser verstehe und schneller lerne
- ☐ ich so Verständnisprobleme vermeiden kann
- ☐ Sonstiges: _____

13. Deutsch zu verwenden hilft mir

- ☐ wenn ich mich auf Englisch nicht richtig ausdrücken kann
- ☐ bei der Kommunikation während Gruppenarbeiten
- ☐ um zu überprüfen, ob ich etwas richtig verstanden habe
- ☐ bei mündlichen Prüfungen
- ☐ bei schriftlichen Prüfungen
- ☐ Sonstiges: _____

TATSÄCHLICHE MENGE

Wie ist es wirklich? – Kreuze der Wahrheit entsprechend an!

14. Wie oft sprechen deine LehrerInnen durchschnittlich Englisch?

0% -----100%

15. Wie oft spricht der native speaker Englisch?

0% -----100%

16. Wie oft sprichst du mit deinen LehrerInnen im Unterricht Englisch?

0% -----100%

17. Wie oft sprichst du mit dem native speaker im Unterricht Englisch?

0% -----100%

18. Wie oft sprichst du mit deinen KlassenkameradInnen im Unterricht Englisch?
☐ immer ☐ meistens ☐ häufig ☐ selten ☐ nie
 Bei „immer“, „meistens“, „häufig“ & „selten“: Wieso sprichst du auf Deutsch?
19. Wenn im Unterricht ein neues Thema begonnen wird, wird mehr Deutsch verwendet.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😞 ☐ 😡 ☐ 😢
20. Ich hätte gerne, dass _____ Englisch gesprochen wird.
☐ mehr ☐ weniger ☐ genauso viel

TATSÄCHLICHE SITUATIONEN

21. Ich spreche Deutsch, um
☐ organisatorische Dinge zu besprechen
☐ Verständnisprobleme zu klären (wenn ich etwas nicht ganz verstanden habe)
☐ mich besser ausdrücken zu können
☐ zu überprüfen ob ich etwas richtig verstanden habe
☐ bei KlassenkameradInnen nach Erklärungshilfen zu fragen
☐ mit KlassenkameradInnen zu plaudern
☐ über persönliche Angelegenheiten (Geschichten, Erzählungen,...) zu sprechen
☐ etwas zu sagen, das ich auf Englisch nicht sagen könnte
☐ Sonstiges: _____
22. Meine LehrerInnen sprechen Deutsch, um
☐ zu ermahnen
☐ ein kompliziertes Konzept zu erklären
☐ ein Vokabel zu erklären
☐ eine Aufgabe zu erklären
☐ Verständnisprobleme zu klären
☐ organisatorische Dinge zu besprechen
☐ über persönliche Angelegenheiten (Geschichten, Erzählungen,...) zu sprechen
☐ etwas zu sagen, das sie auf Englisch nicht sagen könnte
☐ Sonstiges: _____
23. Der native speaker spricht Deutsch, um
☐ zu ermahnen
☐ ein kompliziertes Konzept zu erklären
☐ ein Vokabel zu erklären
☐ eine Aufgabe zu erklären
☐ Verständnisprobleme zu klären
☐ organisatorische Dinge zu besprechen
☐ über persönliche Angelegenheiten (Geschichten, Erzählungen,...) zu sprechen
☐ etwas zu sagen, das sie auf Englisch nicht sagen könnte
☐ Sonstiges: _____
24. Inwiefern hilft dir ein native speaker zusätzlich zum Lehrer/ zur Lehrerin im Unterricht?

25. Könnte deiner Meinung nach ein zweiter Fachlehrer die Rolle des native speakers genauso gut übernehmen?
☐ ja ☐ nein

EXTRA

26. Ich verstehe alles, was meine LehrerInnen auf Englisch sagen.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😞 ☐ 😡 ☐ 😢
27. Ich verstehe alles, was der native speaker auf Englisch sagt.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😞 ☐ 😡 ☐ 😢

28. Ich frage nach, wenn ich etwas auf Englisch nicht verstanden habe.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
29. Ich nehme häufig an Gesprächen und Diskussionen im bilingualen Unterricht teil.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
30. Ich habe kein Problem damit auf Englisch zu antworten.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
31. Ich spreche lieber Deutsch, weil ich mich wohler und sicherer fühle.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐
32. Wir dürfen auch Deutsch sprechen, wenn wir uns auf Englisch nicht ausdrücken können.
☐ 😊 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐 ☐ 😐

Danke für deine Teilnahme! 😊

11.3 Letter to the parents

Liebe Eltern der ■■■!

Mein Name ist Patricia Plessl und ich studiere Englisch und Spanisch Lehramt. Für meine Masterarbeit möchte ich gerne eine Studie in der Klasse Ihres Kindes durchführen. Diese Studie setzt sich aus zwei Teilen zusammen: einerseits aus Audioaufnahmen von drei Englisch- und drei Biologiestunden und andererseits aus einem Fragebogen der anschließend an die Aufnahmen digital bzw. in Papierformat ausgehändigt wird.

Frau Prof. [REDACTED], Frau Prof. [REDACTED], Frau Dir. [REDACTED] sowie die Bildungsdirektion für Niederösterreich haben die Erhebung in dieser Klasse genehmigt, weswegen ich nun Sie höflich ersuche, Ihr Einverständnis zu geben, dass Ihr Sohn/Ihre Tochter an meiner Studie teilnehmen darf. Selbstverständlich werden die erhobenen Daten nicht an Dritte weitergegeben und ausschließlich für meine Masterarbeit verwendet.

Die Teilnahme ist freiwillig und die Audioaufnahmen dürfen nur erfolgen, wenn alle SchülerInnen und Erziehungsberechtigten ihre Zustimmung erteilt haben.

Bei etwaigen Rückfragen stehe ich gerne zur Verfügung ([REDACTED]).

Mit Ihrem Einverständnis würden Sie mir sehr helfen!

Ich bedanke mich herzlichst im Voraus!

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Patricia Plessl



Ich, _____, bin damit

- ☐ einverstanden,
- ☐ nicht einverstanden,

dass mein Sohn/meine Tochter _____ an der oben beschriebenen Studie teilnimmt.

Ort, Datum

Unterschrift

11.4 Transcription Conventions

Based on the VOICE mark-up conventions (2007).

Speakers:

T	teacher
S1, S2, ..	student speakers numbered in the order they speak
S-f	female student
S-m	male student
[S1], [first name]	anonymization

Speech:

?	rising intonation
.	falling intonation
CAPITALIZATION	emphasis of a syllable or word
(.)	brief pauses
(2), (3), ..	longer pauses with an indication of the number of seconds
<1> </1>	beginning and end of overlapping speech
=	other-continuation
:	lengthening
@	laughter
<>	speaker noises
{}	contextual events
<i>italics</i>	German speech

11.5 Code book

AFFECTIVE FUNCTIONS	
humor/jokes	cracking jokes
socializing	building rapport with the students; e.g. by doing small-talk
personal matters	talking about something not related to the course; e.g. about feelings
LANGUAGE	
language analysis	analyzing the TL; e.g. explaining the difference between saliva and spit
lack of vocabulary/ translations/ asking for words	asking, explaining, translating words
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	
instruction giving	explaining a task
administration	talking about organizational matters; e.g. about exams and test matter
disciplining and controlling	dealing with the students' behavior; e.g. warning them not to cheat during a written revision
giving feedback	e.g. on homework
checking understanding	asking if information was understood correctly
comprehension problems	telling that something was not understood
CONTENT	
explanation and discussion of (difficult) concepts	e.g. explaining information about internal organs
content related communication	talking about the content of the lesson; usually side-comments; e.g. on the movie
clarifying	explaining the content again
OTHERS	
expressions of reaction & fillers	e.g. <i>Echt?</i> , <i>also</i> , <i>naja</i>
proper names	names of students, teachers, places, etc.; words that do not have English equivalents; e.g. <i>Wanderklasse</i>
Denglish	mixture of German and English; e.g. <i>frau-professoring</i>

11.6 Abstract (English)

Code-switching in FL and CLIL classes is an important field of research, as becoming competent in more than one language, and thus being multilingual, is gaining growing recognition. This paper highlighted the need for elucidation since the use of the L1 in classrooms is sometimes still regarded as a mere drawback and, thus, avoided or, if employed, it might provoke feelings of guilt. This impacts teachers and deprives learners of valuable input.

The thesis was based on an extensive study consisting of teacher and student questionnaires, in addition to classroom recordings, which focus on EFL and biology lessons of an eighth form. Altogether, the results revealed the presence of the mother tongue in both EFL and CLIL lessons, although the amount and the situations of use differ to some extent. Moreover, it was discovered that not only teachers but also students wish for a high percentage of FL. Yet, they disfavor a complete ban of the L1 in the classroom. When comparing the beliefs about EFL and CLIL, the desire for an employment of the L1 is slightly stronger in EFL lessons than in CLIL classes.

All in all, this study emphasized the usefulness of the mother tongue in both EFL and CLIL classes, if integrated in a principled way, and it expressed the concern not to feel guilty about it. Additionally, it underlined the importance of adhering to the needs of the students who believe that a well-considered use of the L1 assists their FL learning.

11.7 Abstract (German)

Code-switching im Fremdsprachen- und CLIL-Unterricht ist ein wichtiger Forschungsbereich, da das Erlernen neuer Sprachen, und folglich Mehrsprachigkeit, zunehmend an Anerkennung gewinnt. Die hier vorliegende Arbeit hatte zum Ziel, über den Einsatz der Muttersprache im Unterricht zu analysieren, zumal diese teilweise noch immer als reines Hindernis betrachtet wird. Daher wird die Muttersprache vermieden oder führt bei LehrerInnen, die diese verwenden, zu Schuldgefühlen. Dies stellt eine Hemmschwelle dar und beraubt die Lernenden kostbarer Inputs.

Diese Arbeit basiert auf einer umfangreichen Studie, die sich aus Lehrer- und Schülerfragebögen sowie Unterrichtsaufnahmen mit dem Fokus auf Englisch- und Biologiestunden einer achten Schulstufe zusammensetzt. Die Ergebnisse verdeutlichen die Gegenwart der Muttersprache sowohl im Englisch-, als auch im CLIL-Unterricht, obwohl sich Häufigkeit und Gebrauchssituationen in gewissem Ausmaß unterscheiden. Außerdem veranschaulichen die Daten, dass sich nicht nur die LehrerInnen, sondern auch die SchülerInnen einen hohen Fremdsprachenanteil wünschen. Dennoch lehnen sie ein komplettes Verbot der Muttersprache im Unterricht ab. Der Wunsch des Gebrauchs der Muttersprache ist in den CLIL-Stunden etwas höher als in den Englischstunden.

Im Allgemeinen betont die Studie die Nützlichkeit der Muttersprache, sowohl im Englisch- als auch im CLIL-Unterricht, sofern diese bedacht eingesetzt wird. Des Weiteren wird argumentiert, sich für dessen Einsatz keinesfalls schuldig zu fühlen und vor allem auf die Bedürfnisse der SchülerInnen einzugehen, die den Miteinbezug der Muttersprache beim Fremdsprachenlernen befürworten.