Weronika Krzebietke

533219

Own language use in the EFL classroom: Polish teachers' practices and attitudes

Język rodzimy w nauczaniu języka angielskiego jako języka obcego. Praktyka i postawy polskich nauczycieli języka angielskiego.

Poznań, 2023

Acknowledgments

And finally, thank you to my parents, Grażyna and Andrzej Krzebietke. Even when times are difficult, you always make space for my ideas, pursuits and ambitions. As our favourite coach Lasso would say - I appreciate you.

I dedicate this work to my mother, Grażyna Krzebietke, and my late grandfather, Antoni Jaks, who made me a teacher through and through.

OŚWIADCZENIE

Ja, niżej podpisana

Weronika Krzebietke

....

przedkładam rozprawę doktorską

pt. „Język rodzimy w nauczaniu języka angielskiego jako języka obcego.
Praktyka i postawy polskich nauczycieli języka angielskiego."
....

na Uniwersytecie im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu
i oświadczam,
że napisałam ją samodzielnie.

Oznacza to, że przy pisaniu pracy, poza niezbędnymi konsultacjami, nie korzysta-łam z pomocy innych osób, a w szczególności nie zlecałam opracowania rozprawy lub jej istotnych części innym osobom, ani nie odpisywałam tej rozprawy lub jej istotnych części od innych osób.

Jednocześnie przyjmuję do wiadomości, że gdyby powyższe oświadczenie oka-zało się nieprawdziwe, decyzja o wydaniu mi dyplomu zostanie cofnięta.

Poznań, 25.06.2023
....

(miejscowość, data)   (czytelny podpis)

Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

Introduction

Historically, the role of learners' own language (or L1) in foreign language teaching has been a subject of a heated methodological debate. Since the end of the 19th century attitudes towards own language use in foreign language pedagogy have fluctuated (Howatt 1984, Butzkamm 2003). First, the grammar-translation method introduced at the end of the 18th century deemed students' own language as crucial – virtually every aspect of language teaching relied heavily on the use of learners' L1 (Howatt 1984, Richards and Rodgers 1986, Howatt and Smith 2014, Cook 2010). However, towards the end of the 18th century and in the 19th century attempts were made at introducing teaching methods that engaged the taught language more, first by the pre-reformers and then by the linguists and teachers involved in the Reform Movement (Howatt 1984). The process of making the new language dominant in the classroom progressed steadily, and at the end of 19th and 20th century natural methods of language teaching, audiolingualism, or error analysis were developed. These movements, methods and approaches all slowly but surely led to the exclusion of students' own languages from the classroom and the promotion of *monolingual teaching* (Richards and Rodgers 1986, Howatt and Smith 2014).

21st century, however, brought a breakthrough work of Cook (2001) – a re-examination of the role of own language in the FL classroom. In the last twenty years numerous arguments have been made for the re-evaluation and re-introduction of students' own language in different domains of language teaching. The supporting evidence came from different fields of linguistics. First, the psycholinguistic research showed that languages coexist in the mind and code-switching and code-change are natural for bi- and multilinguals (Obler 1982, Beauvillain and Graninger 1987, Locastro 1987, Cook 1993). Second, Stern (1992) argued that monolingual and bilingual teaching are actually two

sides of the spectrum on which teachers move freely, depending on the objectives of a given lesson. Third, the use of translation in new language teaching has been re-evaluated (Stern 1992, Widdowson 2003, Hall and Cook 2012). Fourth, the sociolinguistic perspective also started to be taken into consideration, accounting for learners' cultural backgrounds, the undeniable burden of British imperialism, and the status of native versus non-native teachers of English (Philipson 1992, Atkinson 1993, Cook 2001, Widdowson 2003, Cook 2010). Fifth, evidence from the fields of Second Language Acquisition and recently neurolinguistics and neuroimaging research revealed the impossibility of separating different languages in the human mind (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008, Bialystok 2009, Gullberg 2011), the advantages of code-switching in bi- and multilinguals (Cook 2010, Nikula 2007), and that learners' own language and the learnt language actually trigger or suppress different emotions (Jończyk et al. 2016, 2019). Sixth, it has been shown that students' own languages are used in classrooms around the world (Hall and Cook 2012, Hall and Cook 2013) and it is a state of affairs which cannot be denied regardless of what the literature advises. In fact, teachers' code-switching in some environments was reported to help create a safer space for students, appreciate the value of national languages, promote multilingualism, and open more educational possibilities (Hall and Cook 2012). Finally, with the recent *Multilingual turn*, changes in the language classrooms around the world and the multilingual condition being the default one in the ever-evolving societies, using more than one language in classrooms is becoming a standard. Considering all the above, the current research project is an investigation of the practices and attitudes regarding the use of learners' own language in the classroom by Polish teachers of English.

This dissertation is divided into three parts: a theoretical one (Chapters 1 and 2), an empirical part with the main study (Chapters 3 and 4), and a follow-up study with general discussion (Chapter 5). In the theoretical part of the dissertation I will provide a historical overview of teaching methods in the 19th and 20th centuries, focusing on how students' own language was approached in different methods. This part will also offer a review of the most recent, 21st-century literature, to illustrate how the issue of own language use in classrooms started to be re-evaluated. In the empirical part of the thesis I will describe and justify the study design and report on the results from both the qualitative and quantitative parts of the study. In the last part of the thesis I will talk about the follow-up study and offer general discussion of the results of the main study. I will

also provide final conclusions, the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 1 is a historical one, providing a brief walk through different foreign language teaching methods of the 19th and 20th centuries (Kelly 1969, Howatt 1983, Richards and Rodgers 1986, Howatt and Smith 2014). Starting with the grammar-translation method, through the Reform Movement, natural methods, audiolingualism, Krashen's theories, error analysis, until the communicative approach to language teaching, a number of methods and movements in foreign language teaching will be evaluated through a lens of their attitude towards own language use.

Chapter 2 will offer a more up-to-date review of 21st century literature that provides arguments for the re-evaluation of own language use in teaching foreign languages. The analysed literature encompasses a wide range of linguistic fields: psycholinguistics, Second Language Acquisition, sociolinguistics, translation studies,and classroom research.

Chapter 3 is the first empirical chapter. It will describe the methodology of the study, justify the choice of the mixed-methods design, and characterize the procedure and group of participants. This chapter will also discuss the qualitative part of the study – the survey. The survey, a modified version of Cook and Hall's (2012) and Scheffler et al. (2017), investigates the attitudes and practices of Polish teachers of English in terms of the use of Polish in their teaching. In line with Lynch (2015), two variables have been tested: teachers' work experience (in years), and the level of taught groups. The chapter will report on the results of the questionnaire and outline areas that would benefit from an in-depth, qualitative look.

Chapter 4 will focus on the qualitative part of the study: interviews with teachers and lesson observations. The twofold qualitative part of the study ensures data triangulation and enhances the reliability of the study, as it provides a closer look at the areas of the questionnaire that raised doubts or were particularly interesting to analyse.

Additionally, to obtain a holistic picture of the investigated problem, Chapter 5 will report on the follow-up study, where six teacher-trainers employed in leading universities in Poland were interviewed. The academics were asked about their own attitudes and practices involving own language use in TEFL as well as about their classes and content of their curricula. This chapter will also provide a brief conclusion of the whole work, tying together the results and offering suggestions for further research.

The results of the study may offer a valuable contribution to classroom research as well as spark discussion about systematizing the issue of own language use in student-teachers' education.

Chapter 1: Towards monolingualism in the classroom: 19th and 20th century thought on language teaching

"It is clear that ideas do not exist on their worth alone. (…) As in fine arts, needs, approaches, and resources change, and one generation's heresy becomes the orthodoxy of the next."
Kelly, L.G., *25 Centuries of Language Teaching*

1.1. Introduction

The role of own language in second language teaching has been a subject of a heated methodological debate since the end of the 19th century (Butzkamm 2003: 29). Once an essential tool in foreign language teaching and learning, own language later became rejected and barred from the classroom, only to be reconsidered again as potentially useful in the instruction process.

The primary aim of this chapter is to review, assess and discuss methods and approaches to foreign language teaching in the 19th and early 20th centuries and scrutinize them in terms of the role of learners' own languages. This will allow a better understanding of the issue of own language use in foreign language classrooms and show where the arguments for and against it stem from. Sections 1.2 through 1.6 will focus on the developments in foreign language pedagogy in the 19th century. They will present the rationale behind used methods, give examples of coursebooks and discuss the role of learners' own language. They will also offer a historical perspective on how present attitudes to own language use were shaped. The second part of the chapter will review the key developments in FL classrooms in the 20th century and provide direct insight into the reasons for the complete rejection of own language in language pedagogy.

1.1.1. Terminology

As far as terminology is concerned, a brief explanation is needed in order to justify the author's choices. The nomenclature used throughout this dissertation is drawn directly from Cook 2010, Hall and Cook 2012 and Hall and Cook 2013.

Arguments used by them are very convincing for the author of the current study and seem to offer a modern and inclusive terminology for the field of English teaching. They also encompass the intricacies involved in the rapidly changing language landscapes of the world. The key terms will be listed here, together with the argumentation for their use.

   Own language is the first new term visible in the title of the thesis as well as in all the following chapters. It serves as a more versatile, inclusive and reality-reflecting alternative for *L1*, *first language* or *mother tongue*. Indeed, in the language teaching environment of the 21st century the language common to all students in a classroom may not necessarily be students' first learnt language, nor their mothers' language. To quote Hall and Cook:

> (…) although German is the language used in German secondary schools, and therefore the language likely to be recruited as an aid to the teaching of English, it is not the first language of all the pupils in those schools, who may for example be recent arrivals from Turkey or Poland. (Hall and Cook 2012: 274)

Perhaps a decade ago one could dispute the above in the context of vastly monolingual Polish education, but the political upheavals: first, economic immigration from the East, and then the war in Ukraine, possibly forever changed the number of languages that can be heard in school halls and classrooms around the country. Therefore, Polish is no longer the *first*, nor the *mother* tongue of all Polish pupils, although in this dissertation it is the language discussed as a tool in teaching English. Hopefully, though, Polish can be called all pupils' *own language*, alongside their many different *first languages* such as Ukrainian, Belarusian, Russian, Vietnamese, Georgian or regional Silesian.

   Following this logic, Hall and Cook also argue for the abandoning of the familiar terms: *foreign language* – as a little outdated in the globalised world, where a considerable part of the workforce use English daily, *second language* – as factually untrue for many learners, and *target language* – as having unnecessary military connotations. The proposed neutral and inclusive term is *new language* to described the language being learnt and thus this name will be used in the current work.

   It has to be noted, however, that the terms such as *first language*, *L1, foreign* or *second language*, *L2* and *target language* will be used in direct quotations from interviewed teachers as well as when reviewing literature that uses these terms, in order to avoid misquotations and blurring of the original sense of quoted texts.

Finally, when referring to the language teaching methods involving the *own language* the author will use the term *bilingual teaching* and, in turn, when referring to language teaching methods relying solely on English (or any other *new language*) the author shall use the term *monolingual teaching*.

1.2. The Grammar-Translation method

The Grammar-Translation method (formerly known as the Prussian method) was first introduced in Prussian Gymnasien at the end of the 18th century. Its premises: tedious grammar rules, long lists of exceptions, pages of sentences to translate and hardly any oral practice were the reflection of the political and educational context of that time. The method stemmed from teaching Latin – the language which dominated the world of politics, religion, trade and education until the 16th century (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Latin was no longer a productive or living language, and therefore teaching it by means of translating literary texts and mastering grammar peculiarities seemed logical at the time. The more "expressive" aspects of language were neglected in the world of education and learning a language was treated a "mental exercise" (Howatt, 1984: 134). This, in turn, became a model for studying modern vernaculars, such as Italian, Spanish, French or English, which were included in the curricula in European schools in the 18th and 19th century. Generally speaking, this method emphasised the importance of reading, maintaining intellectual discipline and becoming "a man of letters". No importance was attached to real, communicative use of foreign languages and, with few exceptions, the only oral practice involved repeating previously translated sentences.

1.2.1. Flagship coursebooks – an overview

In the nineteenth century, with the grammar-translation method in its full bloom, a number of coursebooks for foreign language learning were published. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 3) list those by Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H.S. Ollendorf, Franz Ahn and Johann Meidinger as examples of well-known and useful textbooks used in teaching foreign languages in Europe. Apart from them, however, there was also

a plethora of very comprehensive coursebooks written by ambitious scholars, especially for secondary schools, e.g. by Tiarks and Weisse (Howatt 1984: 136). This section will focus on presenting examples of those harmful, as well as more practical ideas from four of the aforementioned authors.

The first discussed author is Rev. J. G. Tiarks, whose fifteen editions of *Practical Grammar of German* and eleven editions of *Introductory Grammar* (fragment shown in Figure 3) were the staple of every elementary German course in the 1860s in England. The *Practical Grammar of German* is a purely theoretical work, written in English, which takes the reader through all parts of speech in German and provides them with lengthy explanations of grammar rules and plenty of exceptions to them, without any example sentences. It also presents the basis of German phonetics and gives a "short reading lesson". Tiarks's second work, *Introductory Grammar*, is designed as an "abstract" to the *Practical Grammar* and aimed at "young students instructed in large classes" who might need some exercises for writing in German (Tiarks, 1837: Preface). Tiarks welcomes his students with a recommendation of his course as a safe and quick way to acquire all the necessary inflections, "endings", declensions and conjugations. The exercise section is based on a selection of sentences suitable for young and receptive minds (i.e. concerning religion and morality), which illustrate grammar rules and parts of speech in German. A student is first presented with a number of sentences in English and then with a selection of new vocabulary items translated into German and the key to this translation task. All the vocabulary lists are bilingual English-German. If a wave of frustration comes over a poor student studying countless "endings" and tedious explanations of the rules, they can always turn to an uplifting poem and memorise it. Interestingly enough, the coursebook structure used by Tiarks can still be seen nowadays, for example in Latin or Old English courses, enriched by additional exercises and grammar rules (e.g. Czyżma and Roguszczak *Język łaciński* [The Latin Language], 2011 – as shown in Figure 2). A page from J.G. Tiarks and O. Schmidt (1847) with a text in the target language and glosses translating new vocabulary into the source language is shown below in Figure 1.

13.—Das Augsburgische Glaubensbekenntniß.

Der Kaiser hatte das Protestiren der Evangelischen auf dem Reichstage in Speyer sehr übel[1] genommen, und weil er damals gerade zu dem Papste in einem freundschaftlichen Verhältnisse stand, so dachte er die Protestanten mit Gewalt zu unterdrücken. Jetzt schien also ein gefährlicher Zeitpunkt für die Evangelischen einzutreten. Die Türken wendeten[2] ihn jedoch ab. Diese waren in Ungarn eingefallen, und der Kaiser sowohl als sein Bruder Ferdinand bedurften Hülfe, und ersterer änderte seine Plane. Er rief 1530 die Stände des Reichs nach Augsburg zusammen, um sich mit ihnen über Religion und die Hülfe gegen die Türken zu berathen. Die Stände kamen und er forderte, man solle zuerst die Hülfe gegen die Türken bewilligen, dann sollte auch von den Beschwerden[3] der Protestanten die Rede seyn. Aber man traute ihm nicht. "Wenn er einmal die Hülfe gegen die Türken hat," so dachte man, "so macht er wieder mit uns, was er will." Der Kaiser mußte nachgeben, und die Religionsangelegenheiten wurden zuerst vorgenommen.

Nun wollte er genau wissen, was eigentlich die Lutherische Partei glaubte und nicht glaubte. Auf diese Frage waren die Lutheraner schon gefaßt[4] gewesen, und Luther hatte früher gewisse Artikel aufgesetzt,[5] welche die hauptsächlichsten Unterschiede enthielten. Aber die Abfassung[6] eines förmlichen Glaubensbekenntnisses vertraute man ihm nicht an. Man fürchtete, er möchte sich seiner Gewohnheit nach zu stark, zu wenig schonend[7] ausdrücken. Melanchthon, Luthers sanfter Freund, welcher so manchen Ausbruch seiner Heftigkeit zurückhielt, mußte diesmal

---

[1] Uebel nehmen, to take amiss.   [2] abwenden, to ward off.
[3] die Beschwerden, the grievances.   [4] auf etwas gefaßt seyn, to be prepared for a thing.   [5] aufsetzen, to compose.   [6] die Abfassung, the drawing up.   [7] zu wenig schonen, with too little forbearance.

Figure 1. A page from *A progressive German reader for the use of schools.* edited by J.G. Tiarks and O. Schmidt, 1847 with a text in the target language and glosses translating new vocabulary into the source language.

Lectĭo quinta

DE ROMANŌRUM FINITĬMIS

(Repetitĭo)

DE ROMANŌRUM FINITĬMIS

Finitĭmi Romanōrum saepe bellum parant; amicos et socĭos convocant, agros Romanōrum vastant et multos viros necant.

Nuntĭus ad Romanos venit et dicit popŭlum Romanum in magno pericŭlo esse. Romani copĭas cogunt; paucos in muris relinquunt et cum relĭquis copĭis finitĭmos oppugnant. Romani fortĭter pugnant et victorĭam reportant. Finitĭmi Romanis magnam praedam dant. Scimus etĭam Romanos oppĭda finitimōrum oppugnare et multos popŭlos superare. Postremo popŭlus Romanus imperĭum Italĭae habet; ad multa oppĭda copĭas mittit; oppĭda magnis praesidĭis tenet et agros Romanis agricŏlis dat. Oppĭda occupata Romani colonĭas vocant. Cum relĭquis finitĭmis amicitĭam confirmant et incŏlas socĭos vocant. Poëtae antiqui Romanos gaudere suis victorĭis tradunt.

Uwagi do tekstu

copĭas cogunt – wojsko gromadzą
incŏlas socĭos vocant – mieszkańców nazywają sprzymierzeńcami
oppĭda occupata colonĭas vocant – zajęte miasta nazywają koloniami (lectio VII)
gaudere suis victorĭis – cieszą się ze swoich zwycięstw.

Jest to **ablativus causae**, który oznacza przyczynę, dla której coś się dzieje.

Poëtae... tradunt – poeci przekazują; w łacinie orzeczenie umieszcza się zazwyczaj na końcu zdania.

occupata od occupatus, a, um – zajęty

Przetłumacz na język łaciński:

Bogaty Rzymianin posiada wielu niewolników. Niewolnicy pracują na polach i w ogrodzie pana. Czytamy, że życie niewolników jest nieszczęśliwe. Wielu panów jest surowych i często karze swoich niewolników. Niewolnicy nie kochają, lecz boją się surowych panów. Niektórzy panowie kochają swoich niewolników i mówią, że niewolnicy są przyjaciółmi.

Figure 2. Czyżma and Roguszczak *Język łaciński*, 2011. Similar text concerning the history of Rome with bilingual glosses.

to attain, erreichen; the object, der Zweck; to understand, verſtehen; to mislead, verführen; the outward appearance, der äußere Schein; the mistake, der Fehler; to escape, entgehen; the attention, die Aufmerkſamkeit; the crime, das Verbrechen; to dishonor, entehren; to destroy, zerſtören; to misunderstand, mißverſtehen; to displease, mißfallen; much, ſehr; to leave, hinterlaſſen; the fortune, das Vermögen; to resist, widerſtehen (gov. dat.); the temptation, die Verſuchung; to trouble, bemühen; to answer, beantworten; to explain, erklären; the sentence, der Satz; to spoil, verwöhnen; entirely, gänzlich.

ON THE ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

Rule 1—4. The grass is green. The boys write. Man is a mortal creature. He can write. We go out. I have been imprudent. The children would have been wiser. I ought to have spoken. I have been able to work. My mother would have been blamed. They are gone out. We have been obliged to wait.

The grass, das Gras; mortal, ſterblich; the creature, das Geſchöpf; imprudent, unvorſichtig; wise, weiſe; to blame, tadeln; to be obliged, müſſen; to wait, warten.

Rule 5—8. The child has made a mistake. Many children make mistakes. We encourage our friends. Our friends have encouraged us. We are grateful to our friends. They begin their work. They have accomplished their work. The father can give his son no hope. The master has given the servant his wages. The son will relate the story to his father. The judge has given up the criminal to the gaoler. My neighbour will introduce your son to his friend. He has given it to me. He has recommended me to you. I shall send you the books. I shall give them to you.

The mistake, der Fehler; to encourage, aufmuntern; grateful, dankbar; to begin, anfangen; the work, die Arbeit; to accomplish, zu Stande bringen; the master, der Herr; the servant,

Figure 3. A page of Rev. Tiarks's *Introductory Grammar*, exercise section.

The second example of textbook writing is T.H. Weisse's *A Complete Practical Grammar of the German Language* from 1885. It is enough to say that the book consisted of 500 pages packed with "facts, lists, cross-reference to other parts of the book, and rules piled upon rules so that everything is as important as everything else and nothing is important at all" (Howatt, 1984: 138). School pupils were supposed to learn completely useless exceptions and rules as well as words such as *ostriches, anvils* or *gluttons*.

In opposition to secondary school textbooks crammed with rules and designed to shape young minds and teach them academic discipline, there were also coursebooks serving more commercial purposes. There was no internationally accepted *lingua franca* in the 19th century, thus every person who wanted to enjoy the merits of railways, e.g. tradesmen or people who emigrated to a foreign land, had to, at least to some extent, master the use of a relevant foreign language. A new kind of learner was born, one who did not demand academic education, but a fast and practical method of learning to communicate. This formed a new market, which yielded books such as Franz Ahn's *A New, Practical and Easy Method* and H. G. Ollendorff's *A New Method of Learning to Read, Write and Speak, a Language in Six Months.* Those publications enabled learners without experience to learn a language quickly (Linn 2006: 78),

Ahn published his courses in German, English, Italian, Spanish, Russian and Dutch, and he also applied them to two classical languages (Howatt 1984: 140). There were a number of pivotal differences between his courses and the courses of Tiarks or Weisse: grammatical knowledge imparted to learners was limited to the minimum, only basic terminology was introduced; sentences for translation were based on everyday language; vocabulary was divided into twelve thematic sets and coupled with easy and practical dialogues. Ahn's course, though dull, was just sixty pages long, systematic, orderly and as practice-focused as it was possible for an old Victorian gentleman.

In contrast to Ahn, whose attitude to language teaching seems to stem mostly from his practical nature, Ollendorf's hopefully-sounding *Method* of learning to use a language in six months possesses some characteristics of a theory. The author himself explains:

> (…) my system of acquiring a living language is founded on the principle that each question contains nearly the answer which one ought or which one wishes to make to it. The slight difference between the question and the answer is always explained before the question: so that the learner does not find it in the least difficult, either to answer it, or to make similar questions to himself. Again, the question being the same as the answer, as soon as the master pronounces it, it strikes the pupil's ear, and is therefore easily reproduced by his speaking organs. (Ollendorff 1841: vii)

Ollendorf called this complicated screed on the nature of questions and declarative sentences the "interaction theory'. It is not really known how it actually worked in practice, but it definitely was the base for the structure of his textbooks; the exercise sections consisted of continuous sets of questions and answers, which students had to translate from their native language into the target language. A typical exercise section is shown in Figure 3.

Another difference between Ollendorff and his predecessors was that he was very organized and consistent in introducing new grammar points; he was the first textbook author to use a syllabus. His syllabus is led by "logic"; he introduces the present tense first, then the past tenses, passive voice, etc. However, he does not always cover one grammar point in one lesson. Page 184 of *Ollendorff's New method of learning to read, write, and speak the French language* (1865) is provided in Figure 4 below.

Both Ahn's and Ollendorff's publications received mixed reviews. One of the most telling ones was by Kroeh from the Foreign Quarterly Review from 1845, which praised the authors for their practical approach and marked them as the pioneers of a new wave in teaching foreign languages; nonetheless, as Kroeh asserts in a typically 19th century scholarly fashion, such a practical approach will never fully satisfy a strong and inquisitive mind (Kroeh 1845).

English gun, and several other articles, by (par) one of my friends who goes where he is.

Listen to what the professor says, instead of speaking. Now, listen to what he says—Is the doctor a man of merit? Listen to him, and then you can say whether (if, si) he is a man of merit.—Do the scholars listen to their English teacher? Those who are good, listen to him; the bad ones play instead of listening.—Are your gloves French? Yes, they are French gloves. (3, §39.)—Do you give me English or German paper? I give you neither English (repeat papier) nor German paper; but I give you some fine French paper.—Do you read Spanish well? (§170.) I do not read Spanish well, but German.—What book is the soldier reading? He is reading a pretty French book.—Do the sailors drink tea or coffee, in the morning? Some take coffee, others drink tea.—What do you drink, in the evening? I take tea, then.—You take coffee in the morning; do you not? No, I take tea in the morning, also.—Do you drink no coffee? No, I do not drink it any more.—Who takes chocolate? The Spaniards and Italians drink a great deal of it.—Do the French take it also? They take some, but not so much as the others.—Do the Turks take tea, chocolate, or coffee? They take neither tea nor chocolate, but they are very fond of coffee.

Why so?	Then.	† Pourquoi donc?	donc.
How goes it?	(First rate.)	Comment va?	Cela va bien, très-bien.
Is it possible?	It is possible.	Est-il possible?	C'est possible.
It is true, however.	Is it true?	C'est vrai, cependant.	Est-ce vrai?
Is it not true?	It is not true.	N'est-ce pas vrai?	Ce n'est pas vrai.

TWENTY-SEVENTH LESSON, 27th.—*Vingt-septième Leçon, 27me.*

VOCABULAIRE. 1re Section.

To show.	Montrer, 1. Faire voir.
I show, do show, am showing.	Je fais voir. Je montre.
He does not show.	Il ne fait pas voir. Il ne montre pas
Dost thou show?	Fais-tu voir? Montres-tu?
Show him the apartment.	Montres-lui / Faites-lui voir } L'appartement. (§150.)
To show something to some one.	Montrer / Faire voir } quelque chose à quelqu'un.
To show one something.	
Do you show me your gun?	Me faites-vous voir votre fusil?
I do.	Je vous le fais voir, (le montre.)
What do you show the man?	Que faites-vous voir à l'homme?
I show him my fine clothes.	Je lui montre mes beaux habits.
Tobacco. Tobacco, (for smoking.)	Du tabac. Du tabac à fumer.

Snuff.	Du tabac en poudre, (à priser.)
To smoke. To snuff, take snuff.	Fumer, 1. Prendre du tabac ou priser.
Do you smoke or take snuff?	Fumez-vous ou prisez-vous?
I neither smoke nor snuff.	Je ne fume ni ne prise. (§162, A.6.)
You chew; do you not?	Vous chiquez, n'est-ce pas?
I neither smoke, snuff, nor chew.	Je ne fume, ni ne prise, ni ne chique.
Is it possible? It is wonderful!	Est-il possible? C'est extraordinaire!
To chew. Do not chew, (imperat.)	Chiquer, 1. Ne chiquez pas.
The gardener. This valet.	Le jardinier. Ce valet-ci.
That concert. To the concert of Mr...	Ce concert-là. Au concert de M....
To intend, to intend to.	Compter, 1. (sans prépos.)
Do you also intend to go to the ball?	Comptez-vous aussi aller au bal?
I intend to go to it, (going there.)	Je compte y aller.
To know, to know how, (bef. a verb.)	Savoir,* 3. (§144, sans prépos.)
Dost thou know? Dost thou not know?	Sais-tu? Ne sais-tu pas?
Does the child know? He does not.	L'enfant sait-il? Il ne sait pas.
To swim. Swimming.	Nager, 1. Nageant. (§144, R.2.)
Do you know how to swim? / Can you swim?	} Savez-vous nager?
Does he read? He does not know how.	Lit-il? Il ne sait pas lire.
A cigar. A Spanish cigar.	Un cigare. Un cigare espagnol.
To think of, [meaning, what is your opinion of] What do you think of the weather?	Penser, 1. de... Que pensez-vous du temps?

VINGT-SEPTIÈME THÈME. 1re Sec.

N'oubliez pas d'écrire la date en Français.

Bon soir, Michel, comment vous portez-vous aujourd'hui? Je me porte très-bien, merci. Et vous, Mr., comment va? Cela va bien, je vous remercie. Vous voyez que je fume un cigare espagnol, en voulez-vous un? Non, je vous suis bien obligé; mais je ne fume plus. Vous chiquez, n'est-ce pas? Non, je ne chique pas. Est-il possible! Vous ne fumez ni ne chiquez! -C'est extraordinaire! N'est-ce pas? Oui, en vérité! Mais vous prisez? Non, je ne prise pas. Quoi! Vous ne chiquez, ni ne fumez, ni ne prisez? Est-il possible! C'est possible. Ce que je vous dis est vrai. Mais, pourquoi est-ce extraordinaire? Parce que tout le monde fume ou prise ou chique. Non pas tout-à-fait. Que pensez-vous du temps? Je pense qu'il est superbe. Quoi! Ne fait-il pas trop chaud pour vous? Pour moi? Non, en vérité.

What does your father want? He wants some tobacco.—Will you go for some? I will go for some.—What tobacco does he want? He wants some snuff.—Do you want tobacco, (for smoking?) I do not want any; I do not smoke.—Do you show me anything? I show you gold ribbons, (des rubans d'or.)—Does your father show

Figure 4. Ollendorff's *New method of learning to read, write, and speak the French language.* 1865. Page 184, lesson twenty-seven, words 'to show', 'to smoke', 'to take snuff'.

1.2.2. The role of own language

As reported above, the students' own language was crucial for the grammar-translation method of foreign language teaching. It was the only means of instruction used to introduce new grammar and vocabulary items, the translation exercises required translating sentences from the native language into the target language or vice versa. Bilingual dictionaries and glossaries were provided. There was also much room for comparison and contrast of the native and foreign language grammars. Students were taught deductively, which means that they received a formal presentation of grammar rules in their native language and then proceeded with the translation exercises. The very philosophy of the grammar-translation method reduced the use of the target language to the minimum, since studying it was seen mostly as an exercise for the mind and its purpose was not to create a foreign language speaker or user.

1.2.3. Critique

It can be said that in the 20th century the grammar-translation method was ostracised by academics and specialists in foreign language teaching and second language acquisition (Cook 2009). Although recently some researchers have started to cast a friendlier glimpse at some elements of this method (Kupferberg 1999, Butzkamm 2003, Sheen 2005, Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009, Ammar et al. 2010, Cook 2010, Kim 2011), there are many justified reasons for criticising this traditional method of language teaching. First, there was no research which could give the grammar-translation method a rationale or a scientific basis. Second, the mother tongue was much overused, which did not leave any space for spontaneous speaking practice. Third, the examples and sentences used for translation exercises were monotonous and repetitive. Fourth, no attention was paid to syntactic relations between word classes. As described by Howatt (1984): "important regularities in complete sentence units were overlooked". This encouraged the "arithmetical" building of sentences, word by word. This "arithmetical fallacy", as called by Henry Sweet, resulted in awkward examples of sentences and phrases unacceptable to a native

speaker, e.g. *Pen of my aunt* or *The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen* (Sweet 1899/1964: 73).

1.3. Jacotot, Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin: towards the Reform Movement

The reformation of the foreign language teaching methods was a steady process. Before the last two decades of the nineteenth century, which were marked by the Reform Movement, there were individual thinkers, who, in spite of not inspiring any notable change in the foreign language teaching world, are to be appreciated for their attempts to set up new standards.

Jean Joseph Jacotot (1770-1840) was a professor of Latin who taught French to elementary Belgian students. This unique experience inspired him to design the first monolingual method of teaching a foreign language. In his teaching he mainly used Fénelon's *Aventures del Télemaque* as one of the first sources for inductive teaching: his students were encouraged to learn the text by heart and then look for comparisons and similarities in different parts of the book, find the answers to a variety of comprehension questions (thus scanning the text and guessing the meaning from the context) as well as "generalize their observations, form and test hypotheses and discover how the language worked" (Howatt, 1984: 151). What shocked Jacotot about his own teaching was a realization that explaining was actually redundant, a realization which gave rise to his *emancipatory* or *panacestic* method, based on the following principles (Jacotot 1823, as quoted in Howatt 1984):

1. all men have equal intelligence;
2. every man has received from God the faculty of being able to instruct himself;
3. we can teach what we do not know;
4. all is in all.

Jacotot was the first to see the role of the teacher as a responsive one, reacting to students' process of discovery, leading them towards the right understanding; not controlling, explaining or lecturing. He also believed in equal abilities of all human beings, given the "sufficient strength of will and determination" (Howatt 1984: 151). Jacotot's methods were adopted in a few institutions in Belgium and they attracted some interest in England, France and Russia. It must be said, however, that he failed to gain widespread popularity

and did not have a lasting impact on the future of language teaching, probably because his classroom techniques were not based on any underlying theory. The laborious process of digging through one's book seemed mundane and the method as a whole - a little too radical to find a solid base of followers. What needs to be appreciated about Jacotot's theory is certainly his idea of *enseignement universel (universal education)*, the conception of a generative principle, and the attachment to a text as a whole rather than sentences or words in isolation (Howatt 1984).

Claude Marcel (1793-1876) was the second individualist whose thought concerning language teaching and learning is worth mentioning as an important part of the pre-reformative tendencies. He created a comprehensive work entitled *Language as a Means of Mental Culture and International Communication*, which discussed the structure, organization and purpose of education and the role of both modern and classical languages in it (Howatt 1984: 152). The book consisted of six volumes in which the author writes about the very notion of education, the nature of spoken and written language, the benefits of studying foreign languages and the inadequacies of the ordinary scholastic course. He also develops his own idea of a teacher's profession and describes the principles of his *rational method*. In a progressive manner, the book presents a natural order of acquiring a language, giving the utmost importance to learning how to read and hear (*impression)* and assigning a secondary value to the *expression*, namely speaking and writing, and strongly objects to the importance attached to grammar teaching and learning (Marcel 1853). Marcel's work was astonishingly modern for his time. He was the first one to divide what we know today as receptive and productive language skills (his *expression* and *impression*), he also distinguished between the four skills (*branches*): hearing, speaking, reading and writing. Most importantly, however, he acknowledges the *analytic* and *synthetic* methods of teaching, known today as the deductive and inductive instruction (Wilkins 1976). Marcel's Rational Method emphasises reading (*impression*) over other skills and comprises both analysis and synthesis in language instruction, depending on the learner and the general aims of education. This special attachment to reading and his view that pronunciation should only be learned later in the course of education did not guarantee Marcel a good reputation among the representatives of the Reform Movement, who, influenced by the newly developed science of phonetics, praised speaking and listening skills above all others. Importantly for this chapter, Marcel considered learning the native language as a "method of nature", which should form the base for teaching the *expression*.

He used pictures, simple sentences, frequent repetition and gestures to teach speaking. However, when teaching reading, a pivotal skill in his consideration, Marcel relied heavily on students' mother tongue. He advocated word-by-word, literal translation into the mother tongue as the best way to figure out the meaning:

> (…) by means of these explanations, practice soon associates in the mind of the learner the foreign words with the native, so that the recurrence of the former will readily recall the latter; and thus will the power of comprehending the written language be rapidly acquired. (Marcel 1853, II: 93)

Marcel's work was one of the greatest achievements of language teaching thought. As concluded by Howatt: "(…) there is no single work in the history of language teaching to compare with it for the strength of intellect (…), the breadth of scholarship with which it is informed, and the wealth of pedagogical detail on every aspect of language teaching and learning" (Howatt 1984: 155).

The next author, whose work fills the void between the late grammar-translation representatives Ahn and Ollendorf and the Reform Movement, was an Englishman, Thomas Prendergast (1806-1886). His method, published as *The Mastery of Languages, or the art of speaking foreign languages idiomatically* (1864) and later as a set of 'mastery courses' in French, Spanish, Latin and even Hebrew, was based on the observation of children and first language acquisition. The most modern and fresh discovery he made in this area was that words are not really language, and that despite understanding so few words children understand so much language by observing gestures, appearance, wider context etc. Also, he observed that children tended to learn and fluently use 'chunks' of words, whole phrases, which consist of separate words that children do not understand and maybe never will. Those idioms, as he said, "are the rails on which the trains of thought travel swiftly and smoothly" (Prendergast 1864:11). Unfortunately, at this point his theory 'derailed' and he formed a method basically the same as the twentieth-century behaviourists and structuralists. He went on to design sets of sentences which illustrated as many rules of a language as possible, the more in one sentence the better, to be remembered by students and recalled if the need for communication arises. As Howatt points out, "(they) represented the starting point or 'database' for the development of fluency rather than true fluency itself" (Howatt 1984: 158). This attitude resulted in unrealistic examples of sentences such as:

(1.) *The friend himself might have given at once the advice we gave to the rich young man.* (Prendergast 1864: 165)

(2.) *When the man who brought this parcel for me yesterday evening calls again, give it back to him, and tell him that it is not what I ordered at the shop.* (Prendergast 1874: 8).

Following Jacotot's motto *all is in all*, Prendergast's students ought to memorize as many examples as possible and generate real language on their bases. Prendergast's work followed this path of diligence and discipline, as he delved into statistical properties of languages, constructed lists of the most commonly used words and complicated models of combining words to construct meaningful and correct sentences. Once again, a brilliant mind, who would feel at home among the linguists of the twenties and thirties of the twentieth century, got caught into a trap of too strong attachment to the technicalities of his method, which clouded the real value of his thought. Prendergast's work was not acknowledged by the Reform Movement, mainly because it did not use the merits of phonetics and focused on isolated sentences.

François Gouin (1831-1896) is the last pre-Reform Movement individualist whose work will be discussed in this chapter. Gouin's claim for fame was his 'series' method, which already benefited from the budding Reformist thought, but did not contribute directly to it. To discuss Gouin's method and the phenomenon of his popularity it seems best to provide the reader with an example from his coursebook *The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages* from 1880:

(1.) *The seed is planted in the ground.*

(2.) *The seed sprouts.*

(3.) *The plant takes root.*

(4.) *The plant grows.*

(5.) *The stalk develops.*

(6.) *The plant puts forth leaves.*

(7.) *The plant buds.*

(8.) *The plant blossoms.*

(9.) *The flower is fertilised.*

(10.) *The fruit hardens.*

(11.) *The fruit increases in size.*

(12.) *The fruit ripens.*

(13.) *The seed falls and propagates the plant.*

(Gouin 1894: 63)

What we can see above is Gouin's famous 'series technique', on which he based his method. Gouin believed that the structure of language was a reflection of the sequence of events that constructed a given experience. This sequential structure, in turn, ought to constitute a base for associated language. In this way, the learner should understand and remember the new language in a quick, logical and efficient way. Howatt (1984: 164) believes that in order to understand Gouin's train of thought one needs to know his experience and the reasons Gouin himself gave as its justification (whether one chooses to believe him or not is a different matter). Gouin tells the story of his fruitless attempts to learn German using first Ollendorff's method and then trying out Jacotot and Robertson. He indeed studied very hard and even memorized a dictionary, but apparently nothing worked. Finally, he started observing children learning their native language. He noticed his own nephew reconstructing an event in the form of the abovementioned series, trying to organize his experience cognitively, and decided that that was the right way of learning a foreign language. Sadly, contrary to Prendergast, he did not reflect on his observations and stuck to his 'series technique' for the rest of his career as a language teacher. He was indeed successful, set up his own school and his technique became commonplace in the twentieth century's Direct Method.

The reasons for the failure of the pre-reform individualists are manifold. According to Howatt (1984: 147) the problem could have lain in their individualism, the lack of general theory underlying their techniques and lack of flexibility and openness to modifications of their restrictive methods. The changes they proposed might have been too radical for their times, but they surely paved the way for the future reformers and heralded the introduction of complete monolingualism in the classroom.

1.4. The Reform Movement

1.4.1. Introduction, leaders and principles of the movement

After isolated attempts of the pre-reformers to change the methods used to teach foreign languages, in the last twenty years of the nineteenth century many factors came together to make a unique shift in the history of language teaching, later called the Reform Movement. The main reason why the Reform Movement managed to have a lasting impact on foreign language teaching was that both linguists and classroom teachers became inspired by a new scientific discipline – phonetics. Suddenly, linguists started to pay attention to what is actually done in the classroom and classroom teachers saw the new discipline as something revolutionary for their practice. Professional associations and societies such as the International Phonetic Association were established, which formed the first platform for vivid and productive discussion about the subject. Finally, there appeared such personalities as Viëtor, Passy, Jespersen and Sweet among the phoneticians, or Klinghardt on the side of classroom teachers, who were able to take on the roles of intellectual leaders of the movement.

The Movement started with the publication of *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren (The language must start afresh!)* – a 1882 pamphlet by Viëtor, continued with Sweet's address in 1884 and was encapsulated in Jespersen's *How to Teach a Foreign Language* in 1904. Wilhelm Viëtor, influenced by his teaching experience in Germany, was a pioneer of what we now call applied linguistics. In his work, he proposes connected text as lesson material (Howatt and Smith 2014). Such texts, in Viëtor's classroom, provided the basis for pronunciation and extensive question-answer oral practice as well as inductive grammar teaching. Interestingly enough, in one of his pamphlets Viëtor argues that focusing on the spoken language would help children with the overload of work and, consequently, improve their mental health (Howatt 1984: 171). He believed that written homework should be abandoned altogether and the only language practice outside the classroom ought to involve learning songs and rhymes by heart. This supported the first principle of the Reform Movement: focus on speaking. In his *Der Sprachunterricht* Viëtor expressed his irritation with the lack of focus on the spoken language in classrooms and promoted the new science of phonetics as the source of the accurate description of

speech which all professional teachers should be familiar with. This sparked off the only conflict between the representatives of the movement: the issue of transcription. Howatt (1984: 172) explains that for linguists like Viëtor and Sweet teaching pronunciation was crucial and needed to be done before starting the work on a text; these texts ought to be printed in the scientifically approved notations, not in the traditional orthography, which could be very problematic for the children, especially in such languages as French or English, where spelling is dramatically different than pronunciation. As a consequence, for some teachers reforming their teaching meant aligning with the science of phonetics completely and some of them claimed that learning a new notation system constituted yet another unnecessary burden for students. The issue of whether or not to switch into transcription completely seemed to have been resolved by Klinghardt in 1887. His experiment is described in detail by Howatt, 1984: this *Realgymansium* teacher in Silesia conducted an experiment using Sweet's *Elementarbuch des gesprochenen English* (1885). It lasted for about a year and the participants were fourteen-year-old boys whose English was elementary. He introduced them to the phonetic notation and treated speaking as a primary skill. Students saw texts and sentences in phonetic notation and after early stages of repeating the sentences after the teacher and learning the correct pronunciation they learnt grammar inductively from them. Importantly, Sweet's transcription got rid of traditional word boundaries and replaced them with speech units. After the extensive oral and induced grammar practice students began to ask and answer questions, retell the story etc. Klinghardt's most important discovery was that indeed speaking and communicating in a foreign language in the classroom produced very good results even measured by traditional grammar-translation standards. However, after switching to standard orthography towards the second semester, he also concluded that this transition was not a great difficulty for them. Sweet never commented on the results of Klinghardt's research (Howatt, 1984: 174).

Fortunately for the Movement, the next two principles, connected text and oral methods in the classroom, were not as controversial as the phonetic notation. Thanks to the idea of using connected texts as classroom materials, foreign language teaching got rid of nonsensical sentences and welcomed more interesting and worthwhile topics. It also introduced some discoveries by the newborn science: psychology; associated sentences made it easier for students to remember words and grammar rules, which were now contextualized and taught inductively. The Reform Movement advocated semi-

monolingualism in the classroom, following its third principle: oral methodology. The foreign language was supposed to be a normal means of communication, but the reformers did not go to the extreme. The mother tongue could still be used in a strictly confined contexts, for example for glossing new words and explaining new grammar, but never to translate isolated sentences. As emphasized by Howatt, 1984: 173, the Reform Movement was not adamant to exclude own language from the lessons, as it was represented by non-native teachers.

1.4.2. Henry Sweet: the father of the applied linguistic approach

Henry Sweet went down in the history of linguistics as a man who "taught phonetics to Europe and made England the birthplace of the modern science" (Wrenn 1946: 182) thanks to the publication of his *Handbook of Phonetics, including a Popular Exposition of the Principles of Spelling Reform (*1877). Not less than for his achievements in phonetics should Sweet be known for his contribution to the reform of English teaching. In *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899) Sweet proposes a "rationally progressive method" of studying a foreign language (Sweet 1899/1964: 47); as a staple of his method he considers first and foremost phonetics. One of many "fallacies", as he likes to name various wrongdoings of previous methods, is in his opinion the belief that one can learn how to speak just by imitating. He argues that students should gain knowledge of how different sounds are produced and they should be given more freedom and independence in exploring the new language as not everything needs to be explained explicitly. He considered phonetics the basis for the language learning process, thus he also required fluency in phonetic notation from his students. Sweet also laid intellectual foundations for the marriage of language teaching and psychology; in his method he adopted associationism, which resulted in constructing meaningful, connected and coherent texts used as teaching materials. Such texts served as materials for learning new vocabulary and grammar points. However, he warned the readers against putting too much trust in the inductive method understood as letting students guess the rules and meanings. It may, as he argues, result in creating too many wrong associations and teachers' work may go to waste (Howatt, 1984: 186). His inductive method involved the teacher in finding out the right examples from sentences and texts and presenting the rules to students, thus creating

the right associations in their minds. In his *Elementarbuch* Sweet included natural texts, introduced in the order of their grammatical sophistication: starting from descriptions, which use mostly present tenses and gradually moving to narratives, presenting past and perfect aspects and then to dialogues, which he considered the most challenging with their use of modal verbs and conversational vividness.

Importantly for this chapter, Sweet did not understand the supremacy of speaking as one would today. Classroom conversations, strict monolingualism of the classroom environment and learning a foreign language just like one's mother tongue, principles characteristic of the natural method, were unacceptable for him. Sweet's view on natural language teaching, which, in his opinion, does not show enough respect and trust in the adult learners' intellectual abilities, resembles to some extent that of Butzkamm (2003):

> The fundamental objection to the natural method was that it puts the adult into the position of an infant, which he is no longer capable of utilising, and, at the same time, does not allow him to make use of his own special advantages (…) the power of analysis and generalization – in short, the power of using a grammar and dictionary. (Sweet 1899/1964: 75)

All in all, Sweet constructed a well-established, rational method of teaching a foreign language. Today one would consider his great attachment to phonetic notation and fear of formal orthography exaggerated and the whole programme rather too linguistic. Howatt (1984: 188) points out that Sweet also did not really specify the kind of student he had in mind while designing his method. Sometimes it seems to be a school pupil and sometimes an adult and conscientious student of English. In contrast, Jespersen's learner showed some signs of intellectual independence, interest in the world and readiness to interact with others. Nonetheless Sweet's work laid foundations for applied linguistics in language teaching which is respected until today.

1.5. The natural methods of language teaching

1.5.1. Before the 19th century and towards Berlitz

A natural approach to foreign language learning has been present in teaching methodology since ancient Rome (Kelly, 1969) and is a recurring motive in the history of studying second language acquisition. First modern attempts to use a mother-tongue-like method of learning a foreign language were noted by Montaigne in his *Essay on the Education of Children* (1580) (Howatt 1984: 192). Montaigne's father employed a native speaker of Latin to teach the boy by means of walking with him and speaking only Latin. Natural methods, though different from that of Montaigne's teacher, were commonplace before the 19th century among affluent citizens whose children were home-schooled. Even John Locke in *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* (1693) described the "Original way of Learning a Language by Conversation as the most expedite, proper and natural" (Axtell 968: 277). In his opinion, there are some learners for whom detailed knowledge of grammar is necessary, but in the early stages of language learning and for purposes more practical than academic the natural approach seems to be essential.

The next proponent of the natural way of teaching was J.S. Blackie, a Scottish professor of Latin and Greek. In his article for the *Foreign Quarterly Review* in 1845 he described a 'direct method' lesson from the 16th century (Howatt, 1984: 194). It shows a Latin teacher, who, in a Jesus-like manner gathers a mixed group of children, parents, servants, clergyman and the elderly around himself and speaks Latin to them. After months of practice his students are able to understand every word that comes out of his mouth as well as produce the language (Blackie 1845, as quoted in Howatt, 1984: 194). In his article Blackie begins with a thought encapsulating the grounds for all natural methods. He writes: "All persons being normal and healthy specimens of the genus *homo,* can speak; and by the same natural capability that they do speak one language, they could speak two, three, four and half-a-dozen, if only external circumstances were favourable for such a result." (Blackie 1845, as quoted in Howatt, 1984: 195)

Blackie himself designed a method based on the "mystery of Nature", astonishingly modern for his times. Not only does he suggest an original listening practice step in his system, but also introduced inductive grammar teaching much before the Reform

Movement or even pre-reform ideas came into effect (Howatt 1984: 196). Considering a general lack of interest in education in Britain of that time, Blackie's work was doomed to fall into oblivion. The people who gave the natural methods their real momentum came later and found fertile soil for their innovations in America.

1.5.2. Maximilian D. Berlitz and the American influence

Howatt (1984: 192) sees the natural methods of teaching foreign languages as a kind of 'mirror image' or an 'alter ego' of the rational methods. Indeed, these methods arose not from the purely scientific linguistic or psychological grounds but out of teaching practice and the effects thereof. It seemed quite inevitable that the suitable environment for developing such practice-and-effect-based methods be America – the land of the new and the experimental. There were two unique couples of native-speakers of German and French who emigrated to the US from Europe and whose schools popularized the natural methods: Gottlieb Henes and Lambert Saveur, who started their School of Modern Languages in Boston in 1869, and Maximilian D. Berlitz and Nicholas Joly, whose first school was founded in Providence and who, by the end of the century, had sixteen language schools all over the country and thirty more in Europe.

Saveur's Natural Method was described in the teaching manual *An Introduction to the Teaching of Living Languages without Grammar or Dictionary,* which consisted mostly of the ideal lesson plans based on conversations, which looked like monologues abundant in questions and answers. Below is the example of one of such ready-to-use pieces for the teacher (Saveur was a native speaker of French teaching the Americans):

> There is a mirror on the wall between the two windows. Do you see it, monsieur? – No. – I believe you. – Indeed; it is behind you. Rise and turn around. That is right. The mirror is before you now. Do you see it? – Yes, I see it. – Where is it? – It is between the windows hanging on the wall – I see myself in it; do you see yourself in it? – I see myself in it also. – *Je m'g vois; vous y voyez-vous – Je m'y vois aussi.* – I imitate you monsieur; but you do not explain what *y* signifies. – **Certainly not; I do not wish to explain. One does not understand explanations when one commences the study of a language.** – What am I to do, monsieur? **– Listen, I beg you; imitate me, as you said, and understand by guessing a little.** – What does it signify in this case? – Tell monsieur, mademoiselle. – It signifies, I think. I see myself in the mirror. **But why do you speak of the mirror, when you announce the face? – It is to speak French and to teach it to you** (..) (Saveur 1875: 13, emphasis mine)

Upon reading this excerpt from *Introduction* one can clearly understand the principle of the Natural Method. Question-answer practice was key and the mother tongue was strictly forbidden. Instructions were unnecessary, as the language was supposed to be acquired in the mother-tongue-like conditions. Sauveur's courses were very intensive, with the first month spent on laborious oral practice in class. Dialogues such as the one above served more as a revision of the lesson, a training; students learned about 120-130 in the course of a two-hour lesson, starting with parts of the body; the teacher used a lot of gestures and objects to demonstrate new vocabulary. As Howatt (1984: 199) points out, the clue of the Method was not so much oral practice as the attitude of the teacher. Sauveur strongly believed in asking 'genuine questions', ones that the teacher really does not have the answers to. This provoked true conversation and a put real communicative burden on the student. Moreover, Sauveur's course of the conversation was always coherent: one sentence flowed from another, in the order predictable to the student. Thus, the meaning could easily be derived from the context of the previous sentences, one could say as if providing what Krashen later called +1 Input. Sauveur's Method became well-known and he even organized trainings for new teachers. However, it was Berlitz who perfected the method and built the network of his schools. More and more native speakers of various languages came to the US at that time, providing America with the ideal material for 'natural' teachers. Also, in 1884 F. Franke, a German scholar, gave justification for fully-monolingual teaching by establishing the association between forms and meanings in the target language (Richards and Rodgers 1986). As described by Howatt (1984: 204), a German immigrant himself, Berlitz established his school in 1878 and hired a French assistant, Joly. Perhaps Joly, who started using the natural method of teaching first, was inspired by Sauveur or even attended his training. The fact is that Berlitz started using the method and made it the trademark of his franchise. He employed only native speakers, who followed the same pattern of teaching. A Berlitz English course was divided into two segments (Pakscher 1895, as quoted in Howatt, 1984: 206); the first segment included learning to name objects in the classroom and the verb *to be* and the most common adjectives as well as vocabulary that was easily shown or presented, Lesson 5 introduced lexical verbs and the alphabet did not come until Lesson 8; then simple texts and dialogues followed. Part 2 consisted of question-and-answer activities. Grammar was referenced just as an appendix for some popular courses. The secret of Berlitz's course was its simplicity and utility: it was designed for people without formal education who

needed English for the communicative and practical use. His coursebooks were targeted at beginners and elementary students; the advanced level seemed not to be the aim of the course. The side-effect of this type of school was also the development of a new teacher: a native speaker, whose methods were brought to him as a set of rules ready to apply and who did not see him or herself in this job forever. A true franchise indeed, one that paved the way for the 20th century classroom monolingualism and has had faithful and satisfied clients for over a century now.

1.6. Developments in the US: structural linguistics and the Audiolingual Method

The dawn of World War II found foreign language teachers in the US using mostly the Direct Method or the reading-based approach, which was recommended for all American schools and colleges by The Coleman Report in 1929. Unlike in Great Britain, where applied linguists such as Harold Palmer and Michael West did extensive research into vocabulary acquisition, thus forming the Oral Approach and the Situational Language Teaching approach, teaching in the US still lacked consistency and clear syllabi; grammar was thought chaotically, depending on the coursebook used in the classroom and the order of vocabulary items introduced at different stages of learning was not systematized (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 44). Fortunately for the development of language teaching, upon entering World War II America found itself in great need of translators and staff able to communicate in various languages. Together with a network of universities, the American government established the Army Specialized Training Program, whose aim was to train soldiers and staff quickly and effectively in order to achieve a communicative level of any given foreign language. Linguistics from over 50 American colleges, e.g. a Yaleman Leonard Bloomfield, were engaged in creating new programmes. Once again, similarly to the Direct Method, the effects of such intensive training of what was now nicknamed as 'the Army Method', were mostly due to the constant contact with a foreign language; methodological bases for teaching were not formulated (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 45). At the same time, the stream of people was flowing to the US in search of work and the new future, hence the demand for an effective and relatively fast method of learning English. Towards the fifties those demands were met by Audiolingualism.

Audiolingualism was built on firm scientific foundations. One of them was *structural linguistics* which shaped the audiolingual attitude to grammar. Structuralists believed that the elements in a language are governed by rules and that there are structural levels on which any language can be described (phonetic-phonemic-morphological-syntactic). Those levels were thought to resemble a pyramid, in a way that phonemic systems build morphemic systems, which built phrases, clauses and sentences (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 49). Thus, in order to learn a language one ought to master those 'building blocks' and the rules which govern how the blocks are connected. Another theoretical assumption was that speech is the primary means of communication and it comes before any other modality. Thirdly, a strong psychological base for Audiolingualism was established in the form of *behavioural psychology*. According to behaviourists, human behaviour is elicited by a *stimulus*, which provokes a *response*, which in turn can be learned by *reinforcement* of the stimulus (Skinner 1957, Brown 1980). After the right amount of reinforcement people create a habit, which is the result of the learning process. This theory was a ready-made recipe for an effective foreign language lesson, understood as mechanical habit formation and based on oral drills.

There was a "general form" of an audiolingual lesson, following the instructions from *Structural Notes and Corpus: A Basis for the Preparation of Materials to Teach English as a Foreign Language* (American Council of Learned Societies 1952) and the aural-oral approach. Such a lesson started with listening to a model dialogue and then repeating it as pronunciation practice. Oral practice involved memorizing the situational dialogues with the teacher correcting pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation and eventually the students memorising the dialogue. This was followed by some inductive grammar teaching as well as vocabulary exercises and introducing some cultural aspects of the language. The excerpts from the dialogues were further drilled. Reading and writing were considered secondary to listening and speaking and should be taught after a student develops oral fluency. Audiolingualism was a teacher-oriented method, and the teacher was a conductor of the sets of endless drills. Teachers were not required to be native speakers of the target language, but due to the fact that little attention was paid to providing explanations, the classroom environment was essentially monolingual. However, emphasis was placed on ridding the students from their L1-rooted errors by using contrastive analysis. For instance, in the so-called American Army Method, there was a trained, structural linguist present in the classroom together with a native speaker, to

provide instructions and comments if needed (Cook 2010: 24); thus, although in an unconventional sense, translation was used in these classrooms as a form of aid and clarification (Angiolillo 1947). Soon, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was formulated and became widely popular among linguists from 1940s and 1970s. It was developed to "determine the potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in a second-language-learning situation" (Gass and Selinker 1994: 96 as quoted in Thao 2020: 103). According to this hypothesis, L1 was the source of mistakes in L2 and it heavily influenced the acquisition of both productive and receptive skills in the new language. L1 could be both the source of positive transfer and negative transfer (*interference*). As summarized in Thao 2020, the *apriori* version of CAH assumed diligent comparing and contrasting of all elements of L1 and new language in anticipation of negative or positive transfer, while the *aposteriori* approach focused on analysing the recurrent errors in learners' L2 performance. The *aposteriori* approach to CAH can be considered part of the later-developed Error Analysis. However, Error Analysis does not pinpoint L1 as the sole source of learners' errors (Byram 2004, Gass and Selinker 1994, Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991, as quoted in Thao 2020).

Audiolingualism was a dominant method of foreign language teaching in the States until the sixties, when the MIT's Noam Chomsky rejected both structuralism and behaviourism and introduced the idea of transformational grammar. In the same way, Audiolingualism, based of habit formation, memorization and drilling, which focused on the mechanical aspects of language learning, suffered the same fate that all the past theories had.

1.7. Developments in Great Britain: Situational and Communicative language teaching

The 1920s and 1930s in the British history of language teaching were marked by two eminent linguistic personalities: Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby, whose work was aimed at finding a sounder ground for the oral approach known from the Direct Method. The result of this endeavour was "a systematic study of the principles and procedures that could be applied to the selection and organization of the content of a language" (Richards

and Rodgers 1986). The main principles of Palmer, Hornby and later also West was vocabulary and grammar control, seen as the most important aspects of language learning. Faucett et al. published *The Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* in 1936, which was a guide based on the frequency of the occurrence of certain words in the English language; later on this work was polished and revised by Michael West and published as *A General Service List of English Words* in 1953. This tremendous work provided a scientifically sound base for choosing appropriate vocabulary content for EFL courses. The second ground-breaking source for English teachers published in 1953 was *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* by Hornby, Gatenby and Wakefield; this work presented the results of the linguists' investigation into sentence patterns and structures and their classification. The aforementioned publications provided the source for the *Oral Approach*, which was transformed into *Situational Approach* in the 1960s. The main principles of the approach were the supremacy of the spoken language, the use of carefully selected and graded vocabulary and grammar points, late introduction of reading and writing, and the monolingual environment of the classroom. Later on, the focus on the spoken language was emphasised even more and the need to base language teaching on reality-grounded situations was seen as the only practical method: "our principal classroom activity in the teaching of English structure will be the oral practice of structures. This oral practice of controlled sentence patterns should be given in situations designed to give the greatest amount of practice in English speech to the pupil" (Pittman 1963: 179). What Pittman meant by *situation* is using examples, not explanations; hence the use of objects, pictures, action, mime as means of presentation, and later chorus repetition, drills, dictations and controlled writing and reading tasks as practice. Elicitation and inductive teaching were of utmost importance in Situational Approach, as using translation or students' mother tongue was forbidden.

Deep into the 1960s, with the publication of Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* in 1957 and his critique of structuralism, the Situational Approach seemed to be losing its potential. Language became recognized for its uniqueness, creativity and various functions, and teaching it on the basis of particular situations was not enough. What is more, linguists and teachers started noticing that the communicative aspect of language should be the essential one and pupils should above all be prepared to communicate in a foreign language; knowing structures was not enough to achieve this.

An interesting mixture of Grammar Translation and Audiolingualism was introduced in the 1970s by Paulston and Bruder (1976). Following the idea that concept learning should proceed practice (Carrol 1974, Chastain 1971), but aware of a pressing need for learning communication, they proposed a *Cognitive Code,* in which a learner goes from a mechanical through meaningful to communicative stage (MMC) (DeKeyser 2002: 51). This meant starting with entirely focus on formS–based activities at the beginning of the practice stage with a clear target of developing and improving conscious, declarative knowledge. Emphasis was put on giving a student enough time to think and apply the rules consciously. Errors were expected and corrected and drills were based on real-life situations such as telling stories using past tenses (De Keyser 2002: 55). The native language of the students was allowed in explanations.

There were many more advocates of the new, communication-based movement, such as Christopher Candlin, Henry Widdowson or D.A. Wilkins. Wilkins is the author of *Notional Syllabusses*, a book in which he describes two kinds of meaning needed for successful communication: notional categories, such as concepts of time, location or frequency, and communicative function categories, such as requests, offers, denials, complaints (Wilkins 1972). Apart from the important work of linguists of that time, there was also a new need for adults to learn foreign languages as the Council of Europe became an important political aspect of any European's life. This context gave rise to what is now known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). What is special about this approach is that there is no single publication on which it is based, no single flagship coursebook; what was common for all the Communicative Language teachers was equal emphasis on the functional as well as structural aspects of language (Littlewood 1981) and using procedures based on problem-solving or pair work. Canale and Swain (1980) differentiate between the 'stronger' and the 'weaker' version of the Communicative Approach; while the weaker version proposes providing learners with as many chances to communicate in the target language as possible, the 'stronger' version users believe that one learns the language by using it and communication is the only means of teaching. (also in Howatt 1984: 279).

There are a few cast-iron policies in a communicative classroom. Above all, meaning is crucial and is derived from the context; intelligible pronunciation is important, as there is no effective communication without it; drilling is not a commonplace practice, though it may be used; communication is encouraged from the very beginning and the

learner is expected to struggle with being understood and understanding; contrary to the Situational Approach or the Audiolingual Method, using the L1 in certain contexts is not forbidden, but accepted as a tool (Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983). The Communicative Approach was also one of the first teaching approaches which changed the role of the teacher and learner and the relationship between them dramatically; now the teacher is a motivator, a guide and help, sometimes a manager and sometimes even a counsellor; the learner is for once a human being, able to interact with other students and allowed to be creative and unpredictable in his or her use of the target language. This freedom of learning and teaching was also the source of critique of CLT. Swan (1985) poses some vital questions about teacher training in CLT, the systematization of teaching materials or testing and grading. These questions and doubts are still vital today, as the communicative approach still dominates in many education systems in the 21st century.

1.8. SLA and the Natural Approach

Much of EFL teaching after World War Two was conducted in the former British colonies under the supervision of the British Council, which took a great effort to professionalize the field of foreign language teaching. This endeavour, however, needed more theoretical background and top-down approach (Davies, 1993), hence the establishment of the School of Applied Linguistics in the University of Edinburgh in 1957. Pit Corder, a professor from this very school, published the essay entitled *The Significance of Learners' Errors* in 1967, which, together with Larry Selinker's *Interlanguage* (1972), marked the beginning of SLA – a subdiscipline of applied linguistics (Davies, 1993). As an academic endeavour, SLA is closely connected to cognitive sciences, psychology and education. One of the most prolific SLA researchers is Stephen Krashen. Through the 1970s until the beginning of 1990s Krashen published a number of books and articles proposing and discussing his five hypotheses pertaining to second language acquisition, which had an enormous influence on thinking about language learning and teaching: the input hypothesis, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen and Terrell 1982, Krashen 1981, 1994). These hypotheses built what he called the Natural Approach.

In his input hypothesis Krashen argues that the quality of teachers' input matters and there is little chance of successful language acquisition when the input is too easy or too difficult for a learner. What he proposes is the notion of 'comprehensible input' (or the i+1 input), i.e. linguistic material understandable for the learners, but which contains structures a little beyond their competence, which they may acquire while relying on the already known language (Krashen and Terrell 1982: 32). With time, learners acquire more and more language and improve their accuracy along the way (Krashen 1982: 21). The Input Hypothesis is often compared to Lew Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky 1986); however, Krashen's input hypothesis concentrates on the teacher and the input provided by him or her, without the interactive aspect (Lynch 2015 after Lantolf 2000).

Krashen's acquisition-learning hypothesis (2003) proposes two independent ways in which learners gain linguistic competence; there is *acquisition*, which is subconscious, intuitive and natural and requires input in the foreign language, and *learning*, which is a conscious experience, where students learn explicit grammar rules.

The Monitor Model, Krashen's third hypothesis, on which the Natural Method was built, refers to the difference between *acquisition* and *learning*. The Monitor is a direct product of the *learning* process and serves as a storage of conscious grammatical and lexical knowledge. In the course of producing output in a foreign language, the Monitor serves as a controller or editor, a prism through which an utterance passes before it reaches the receiver.

In the Natural Order Hypothes Krashen addresses the order in which grammatical structures are acquired universally by all learners of English. Based on previous research he establishes the list of domains which are most and least problematic for a learner and predicts what errors will occur in the process of acquisition (Krashen 1982: 13).

Another factor that influences language acquisition to a large extent according to Krashen is the emotional and mental state of the learner, which can both boost or hinder the process. This *Affective Filter*, as he calls it, can be low or high, depending on the level of confidence, anxiety and overall well-being of the learner.

As noticed by Lynch (2015), Krashen, as well as later Chambers (1991) or Frey (1988) were strong proponents of L2-only class environment, while others of his time (MacDonald 1993, Haliwell & Jones 1991, Kramsch 1981) allow judicious use of L1 and consider it a useful teaching tool. The monolingual approach advocated for by Krashen

also came under criticism of e.g. Macaro (2000: 177), who claims that "it would be un-wise to recommend the total exclusion of the L1 from the foreign language classroom". Also Selinker's *interlanguage* changed the perception of L1's role in language acquisition. The ideas presented in the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Error Analysis regarding negative transfer from L1 came under criticism when a theory of *interlanguage*, a separate system formed by learners, which has certain characteristics of both L1 and L2, was developed. *Interlanguage*, a linguistic system "in between", a "relay station" between own language and new language, if you may, was developed by a number of researchers separately, inter alia William Nemser and Pit Corder (Tarone 2006).

Krashen's theories and hypotheses left a mark on the development of SLA and ELT and found their followers in the proponents of his Natural Approach (Richards and Rodgers 1986).

1.9. Focus on FormS vs. Focus on Form: Michael Long and his Interaction Hypothesis

In a modern communicative EFL classroom one of the burning questions is how to teach grammar effectively without a disruption to the communicative environment (Sheen 2002, Doughty and Williams 1998, Lightbown 2000, Norris and Ortega 2000). Michael Long (1988, 1991) addressed two approaches dominant in the understanding of teaching grammar in the communicative classroom. He distinguished between 'focus on form (advocated *inter alia* by Doughty and Varela (1998)), where students' attention is drawn to grammatical mistakes only when an opportunity arises within the communicative context and where the teacher gives quick feedback on a given mistake, and the older, well-known approach 'focus on formS' where grammar lessons follow the established order of introducing isolated grammar points. 'Focus on form' and 'focus on formS' differ substantially not only in their execution within the communicative classroom, but also in their theoretical and cognitive grounding. 'Focus on form' is a child of linguistic universalism; it understands the acquisition of a second language as a process in principle similar to first language acquisition. Thus, only a natural interaction creates an opportunity for comprehensible input to be produced and exposure to the real language is crucial. 'Focus on FormS', conversely, sees learning a second language as a regular

skill-learning process, which should be treated as a natural cognitive activity. Sheen (2002) provides three steps of focusing of formS:

> 1. providing understanding of the grammar by a variety of means (**including explanation in the L1, pointing out differences between the L1 and L2**);
> 2. exercises entailing using the grammar in both non-communicative and communicative activities for both comprehension and production;
> 3. providing frequent opportunities for communicative use of the grammar to promote automatic, accurate, use. (Sheen 2002: 304, emphasis mine)

It is interesting to notice that focus on formS, in opposition to focus on form, acknowledges the use of L1 as both a means of instruction and a source of comparisons.

As Sheen (2002) also points out, although the differences between the two approaches seem sharp, there is still some confusion in the literature. For example, in their article Norris and Ortega (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of a number of studies concerned with using focus on form and focus on formS and reached the conclusion that both approaches seem equally effective in second language pedagogy. However, as the authors themselves emphasize, their focus on form was defined slightly differently than the original Long's approach.

In his 1996 paper *The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition* Long focused on the role of interaction in L2 development. Although the importance of learners' interaction in a foreign language had been a known idea since 1980s, it was Long's article which promoted it worldwide. In a nutshell, similarly to Krashen's input hypothesis, Long claims that comprehensible input is necessary for effective foreign language learning. However, what he finds essentially important is *negotiating for meaning*. As Long himself explains: "I would like to suggest that *negotiation for meaning*, and especially negotiation work that triggers *interactional* adjustments by the NS [native speaker – comment mine] or more competent interlocutor, facilitates *acquisition* because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways (Long 1996: 452)."

What is Longs' intention here is that when there is a breakdown in communication, or when the interlocutors do not understand each other, they start to use different communicative strategies. These strategies, and the cognitive effort used to understand each other, will boost acquisition substantially.

1.10. Conclusion

The main objective of this chapter was to review the history of foreign language pedagogy in the 19th and 20th centuries, taking under investigation the development of the approach towards learners' own languages across twenty decades of language teaching.

The chapter started by justifying the reasons for using a certain nomenclature throughout the dissertation. The terms *own language*, *new language*, *monolingual* and *bilingual* teaching were introduced, and the choice behind using the traditional *L1 – L2* terminology in certain places of the thesis was explained.

Subchapters 1.2 through 1.9 were devoted to describing the tenets of different language teaching methods and their underlying theories. The sections covered methods and movements ranging from the Grammar-Translation method and the Reform Movement, through natural methods of language teaching and developments after World War I on both sides of the Atlantic, to the emergence of the field of Second Language Acquisition. In each section the author attempted to provide a succinct review of a given method or movement in new language teaching as well as pinpoint how a given method treated learners' own languages and contributed to further developments in the issue of own language use in the classroom.

This historical chapter serves as an attempt at understanding how the *monolingual teaching* principle came into being. It is also a foundation for the further exploration of modern language teaching approaches, allowing the author to delve deeper into the current literature on the subject in Chapter 2.

Chapter 2: Re-evaluating own language use in EFL teaching: a review of current literature

"If there is another 'language teaching revolution' round the corner, it will have to assemble a convincing set of arguments to support some alternative (bilingual?) principle of equal power"
(Howatt 1984: 298)

"(…) it is the time to open a door that has been firmly shut in language teaching for over 100 years, namely the systematic use of the first language (L1) in the classroom"
(Cook 2001: 403)

2.1. Introduction

The aim of the chapter is to review late 20th and early 21st century literature on the subject of own language (OL) use in TEFL and provide a wide perspective on the issue. It will include the discussion of the results of both empirical research studies and theoretical works seminal for the subject matter in the order described below.

Section 2.2 will discuss findings from the field of applied linguistics: new ideas emerging in SLA and how the issue of translation in language teaching is currently approached. Section 2.3 will be concerned with the sociolinguistic aspects of OL use in TEFL. Section 2.4, in turn, will discuss the psycholinguistic and cognitive perspectives on the issue of OL use, including how it relates to language transfer and code choice. Section 2.5 will offer a look at the results of empirical studies from the area of language teaching methodology. Finally, section 2.6 will analyse attitudes of teachers and students towards the use of OL.

2.2. Applied linguistics: the shift within the field

2.2.1. New arguments in Second Language Acquisition

As demonstrated in Chapter 1, the history of foreign language instruction has seen various contradictory trends. However, since the Reform Movement, for many complex

reasons, the great escape from learners' own languages began in TEFL. However, recent years have witnessed a considerable amount of literature that indicates a timid L1 comeback and suggests rethinking the assumptions on which modern EFL teaching was established. Some of the arguments for shaking the solid monolingual foundations of the TEFL world are presented below.

The most influential arguments for the reconsideration of own language use in TEFL and the re-examination of the very bases of monolingual new language teaching were made by Cook in 2001. In the beginning of his article, Cook notices that teaching has many goals, both *internal* and *external*, which pertain not only to the actual use of the new language outside the school context, but also to a variety of educational aims. Thus:

> Language teaching methodology has to be responsive to the multiple goals within one educational context and the varying aims across contexts. The question of using the L1 may not have a single answer suitable to all teaching goals. (Cook 2001: 403)

Cook points out that although different trends in TEFL methodology came into and out of fashion in the 20th century, the core assumptions of most of them lied in the arguments of the 19th century Reformers (Hawkins 1987, as quoted in Cook 2001: 403). After decades of imparting the heritage of the Reform Movement to generations of students and teachers, postulates of the supremacy of spoken language over written communication and the restriction of L1 use in TEFL became the unquestionable foundation of teacher education.

Indeed, the 'anti-L1 attitude was clearly the mainstream element in twentieth-century language teaching methodology' (Cook 2001: 405). Even if not completely forbidden, like in the Audiolingual method, where the L1 was supposed to be 'deactivated' while learning the new language (Brooks 1964, as quoted in Cook 2001: 404), in more recent teaching methods L1 is either seen as a possible source of problems (literature on task-based learning, e.g. Crookes and Gass 1993 or Nunan 1989; teacher training literature: Scrivener 1994: 192), or completely avoided (Halliwell and Jones 1991). In more L1-favourable accounts, e.g. Duff and Polio (1990) or Macaro (1997), the main source of concern is the issue of L1-L2 balance in the classroom. There is almost no literature exploring deliberate and constructive uses of Learners' own languages in the classroom (Cook 2001).

Two sorts of arguments for monolingual teaching that are rejected by Cook come from the fields of L1 acquisition and psycholinguistics. Since the Great Reform, an argument has been made for equalizing the processes of L1 and L2 acquisition, which has been reflected in such methods as Total Physical Response and the Audio-lingual method. Here, Cook brings up the arguments made by Singleton (1989): L2 learners are very different from L1 learners, not only biologically, but also socially. Not only do they have more mature brains and larger memory capacity, but they have already been socialized, gained life experience, and, most importantly, they already know one language and are able to express their thoughts and needs (Singleton 1989, Halliday 1975). Also, the goals of L1 and L2 learning seem to be seen as identical, when they are actually not. As Cook points out: 'this attitude sees L2 users as failing to achieve membership in a group to which they can never belong; they are shadows of native speakers, not L2 users in their own right' (Cook 2001: 407).

From a psycholinguistic perspective, the monolingual teaching of new languages has been supported by referring to the notion of coordinate bilingualism, where two languages constitute two different systems in the mind. Some considered this form of bilingualism as an ideal (Brooks 1964 in Stern 1992):

> What the learner must not do may be summarised as follows: (a) he must not speak English, (b) he must not learn lists of English-foreign-language equivalents, and (c) he must not translate from the foreign language into English. All these activities will nullify his efforts to establish within himself a co-ordinate system of two languages, and will instead only collapse the structure into a compound system with English dominant. (Brooks 1964: 52 in Stern 1992: 281)

Following the assumption of coordinate bilingualism, the sources of monolingual teaching can be traced back to Contrastive Analysis, where any transfer from L1 was seen as detrimental to the new language development (Lado 1957, Widdowson 2003), and hence, any L2 learning should only happen through L2 (Cook 2001). However, according to the notion of compound bilingualism, different languages form a single, unified system in the mind, and languages are interwoven in the brain (Ervin and Osgood 1954, Weinreich 1953). According to Ervin and Osgood (1954): "This development (a compound command) is typical of learning foreign languages in the school situation. It is obviously fostered by learning vocabulary lists which associate a sign from language B

with its sign and its meaning in language A. (Ervin and Osgood 1954: 140 in Stern 1992: 281)."

Indeed, empirical evidence shows that the latter theory is actually true; languages do coexist in the mind in vocabulary, syntax, phonology and pragmatics (Beauvillain and Grainger 1987, Cook 1994, Obler 1982, Locastro 1987). Further evidence for the existence of a single, interconnected system of languages in the mind comes from literature exploring the notion of mental lexicon, as well as code-switching and code change (see section 2.4.1.).

Another line of argumentation comes from Stern (1992), who takes a stance on the issue of crosslingual and interlingual language teaching. He argues that monolingual teaching and teaching that employs students' own language as a tool are not the opposites, but rather two extremes on the teaching spectrum. What he means is that most teachers will use students' own language to various degrees at different teaching stages, depending on the teaching objectives, group level, etc. Apart from translation (See section 2.2.2), he mentions a variety of techniques which can be used in crosslingual teaching. He also acknowledges the intrinsically human behaviour of falling back on one's own language when in need, i.e. looking for a reference or translation. Indeed, Stern emphasizes that 'the own/new language connection in a learner's mind is an indisputable fact of life' (Stern 1992, as quoted in: Hall and Cook 2012: 280). Stern also notices potential in marrying crosslingual and intralingual teaching strategies and using them in combination or balanced appropriately depending on the context, goals and purpose of a specific course or lesson. Stern (1992), as well as Macaro (1997, 2006) and Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) emphasize that in order to strike a perfect balance between mono- and bilingual teaching further research is needed for 'different language learning contexts, age groups and abilities' (Hall and Cook 2012: 281).

Side by side with Cook and Stern, the third author whose arguments for the reintroduction of own language in the EFL classroom are seminal for the discussion is definitely Widdowson (Hall and Cook 2012: 281). In his *Defining Issues in English Language Teaching* he asserts that own language definitely has its place in the process of learning a new language and he regretfully remarks that 'the dominant pedagogy remains determinedly monolingual' (Widdowson 2003: 152). In the same chapter, he calls for the reevaluation of contrastive analysis and translation in language teaching. In Widdowson's opinion, it is crucial to start the discussion with a comprehensive and complex definition

of bilingualism (Widdowson 2003: 149). At the core of it, he claims, lies language contact, as only when two languages are in contact in the user's mind can we speak of bilingualism (Widdowson 2003, Spolsky 1998). Thus, FL teachers ought to start by building a connection between students' own languages and the new language. However, for years, any contact between those languages was considered as negative transfer or interference, which resulted in language teachers avoiding it at all costs and building their teaching strategies around the idea of coordinate bilingualism more than compound bilingualism. Consequently, instead of imagining the learning process as:

L1→ L1/2 → L1 + L2

teachers modelled it in the following fashion:

L1→ L2 → L1 + L2 (Widdowson 2003: 150)

For almost a century, as Widdowson points out, teaching pedagogy was mostly occupied with inventing new ways of teaching the new language monolingually or 'discrediting' contrastive analysis as a diagnostic tool, struggling to add the new language to the already existing one as a separate system, while more and more evidence from cognitive research studies continued to suggest that languages actually form a blend and coexist in the mind (Ellis 1994 in Widdowson 2003). Another argument that Widdowson makes for the purposeful and strategic use of own language in EFL teaching pertains to interlanguage, a term coined by Selinker (1972), which acknowledges the systematic nature of a language that the learner forms in the process of new language acquisition. For a long time, own language has not been exploited in EFL instruction due to the theoretical assumptions of how language acquisition proceeds. Monolingual teaching is to some degree based on the assumption that comprehensible new language input suffices to activate the implicit learning process (Krashen 1985). The formation of interlanguage, which in itself naturally draws on and is modified by the learner's own language resources (Ellis 1994, Widdowson 2003) is supposed to be enough for the successful acquisition of the new language. Widdowson, however, asks a valid question here about how actually *comprehensible* input becomes comprehensible. Supposedly, there must be some kind of reference to the context or their own language made in a learner's mind, the meaning has to be 'downloaded' from somewhere. If a Learner's OL indeed serves as a *cognitive* filter of sorts and helps in building the NL comprehension from the very beginning of the acquisition process, then explicit own language instruction could bring even more benefits

(Widdowson 2003). Refraining from it, even in the face of the most logically made arguments, seems counterproductive to effective language learning:

> (…) So as soon as we accept that the subject we are teaching is a foreign language, then at least one familiar language (typically the L2) is necessarily implicated. In other words, the very subject we teach is, by definition, bilingual. How then can you teach a bilingual subject by means of a monolingual pedagogy? Only, one might suggest, with some difficulty. And one might hazard the suggestion that it may well be that many of the problems that monolingual language pedagogy has sought to grapple with over the years are self-inflicted, and therefore, of course, also inflicted on learners (…) (Widdowson 2003: 154-155)

2.2.2. The translation issue

The complex and divisive issue of the usefulness and the methodological bases for using translation in EFL has been a subject of the academic discussion for years. Many considered it an unnecessary source of errors and yet another difficulty that we as teachers sentence our students to (Jespersen 1904, Berlitz 1898, 1919). It was also supposed to instil an erroneous idea that one-to-one equivalents exist between languages (Berlitz 1919, Jespersen 1904), that it does not teach anything useful in the real life (Jespersen 1904, Lado 1964, Long and Robinson 1998) and indeed is a waste of valuable classroom time (Jespersen 1904, Berlitz 1919). For Gatenby (1948/1967), translation is a departure from natural language acquisition:

> It may confidently be asserted that all failure in language learning is a result of departure from the conditions of the process of acquiring speech. Every normal child learns to speak the language of his environment and to understand what is said in it.
> There is, of course, no translation. Even the child who is becoming bilingual learns each language directly from different sets of speakers, usually in different situations. If called upon for an interpretation he seems to have the same difficulty as a unilingual child who is asked for a paraphrase (…). (Gatenby 1948/1967: 66-67)

Finally, it is not something that successful learners employ (Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982). To quote the authors: "The second language is a new and independent language system. Since successful second language learners keep their language distinct, teachers should, too. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 269)."

However, not all scholars subscribe to the views described above. One of the authors who looks favourably at translation and own language use is Widdowson (1978, 2003). In his earlier work, *Teaching language as communication,* he remarks:

> What we are aiming to do is make the learner conceive of the foreign language in the same way as he [sic] conceives of his own language and to use it in the same way as a communicative activity. This being so, it would seem reasonable to draw upon the learner's knowledge of how his own language is used to communicate. That is to say, it would seem reasonable to make use of translation. (Widdowson 1978: 159)

He continues to justify his stance in his later work (Widdowson 2003), where he makes a very clear distinction between acquiring one's first language and dealing with an 'essentially bilingual nature of the foreign language classroom' (Hall and Cook 2012). He emphasizes the importance of the fact that new language learners are already functional users of one language system and refers to the notion of compound bilingualism, where different language systems and intertwined in the mind (Weinreich 1953, Cook 2001). Widdowson argues further that monolingual teaching, by neglecting the natural need of new language learners to, when in need, fall back on the language system they already know, actually hinders the learning process (Widdowson 2003, as in Hall and Cook 2012). He is also cited extensively by Stern (1992) as a justification for the argument for using crosslingual teaching techniques:

> The use of translation as a teaching technique has long been viewed with suspicion by language teachers and many, of course, proscribe it altogether as a matter of principle. I want to argue that translation (…) can be a very useful pedagogic device and indeed in some circumstances (…) translation of a kind may provide the most effective means of learning. (Widdowson 1979: 101 in Stern 1992: 281)

An interesting stance on translation use in the classroom is also provided by Duff (1989), who considers it a highly useful group and pair work activity and suggests including it in classroom discussions, as it sparks off discussion, improves accuracy and language awareness (Duff 1989 in Stern 1992). Translation in language teaching (TILT) has also been argued to be a useful educational tool in the context of widespread online communication, building language awareness, supporting accuracy, and creating a 'citizen of the world', well-versed in intercultural communication (Witte, Harden, and Ramos de Oliveira Harden 2009, Cook 1991, 1997, 2007, 2008, 2010). Additionally, it could be perceived as a weapon in fighting 'linguistic imperialism, especially in the teaching of English', create functioning real-life bi- and multi-linguals in the globalized world

where monolingualism is becoming the relict of the past. It also speeds-up the explanation process and fosters positive student-teacher relations (Cook 2010: 52). Interestingly enough, Cook (2010) firmly separates the issue of TILT from own-language use in EFL, emphasizing that support for bilingual or crosslingual teaching does not equal support for translation. The prejudice against translation present in the teaching methodology since the Reform Movement is so deeply-rooted that even such strong defenders of own-language use as V. Cook (2001) or Stern (1992) exhibit a great deal of reserve when it comes to supporting TILT (Cook 2010). Therefore, while the revival of bilingual language teaching is an indisputable fact, currently there is only 'a climate for revival' for translation (Cook 2010: 53).

2.3. The sociolinguistic perspective

Considering the colonial history of the United Kingdom, the political status of the USA and their role in international politics, as well as the current status of English as the world's *lingua franca*, teaching English as a foreign language is considerably different than teaching any other modern language. From the sociological and sociolinguistic perspectives, TEFL is a complex and nuanced endeavour. Oftentimes the issues such as Learners' identity, their national history in relation to the English-speaking world, or certain stigmas attached to, for example, some varieties of pronunciation, need to be taken into account.

Indeed, some academics tend to blame British imperialism for the widespread monolingualism in EFL teaching (Philipson 1992, Atkinson 1993, Widdowson 2003, Cook 2001, Cook 2010). For historical reasons, for many years English was taught worldwide by teachers who just speak English, in multilingual groups and the status of native teachers of English was unwavering (Atkinson 1993, Phillipson 1992). Due to the political dominance of the UK and the highest esteem given to native speaker teachers, non-native teachers often felt guilty about using their native language in their practice, afraid that too little English will equal their incompetence or unprofessionalism. Widdowson (2003) seems to concur with this particular line of reasoning. In his opinion, non-native English teachers for years have been made to think that "to acknowledge the bilingual nature of the subject is to diminish it, that any concession to the L1 in the classroom

is unprofessional and amounts to a betrayal of pedagogic principle" (Widdowson 2003: 155). He also regretfully notices that despite being equipped in an invaluable resource which is their own bilingualism and a language shared with their students, non-native English teachers are faced with a daunting task of refraining from this asset and teaching the authentic and communicative use of English, a competence they very often do not possess. Widdowson argues that the subject called English as a Foreign Language is not meant to teach English as used in the native-speaker context (which, by the way, has plenty of varieties as well), but as a bilingual subject at its core. This raises a question of what kind of English teachers are really supposed to teach, particularly valid in the times of the ongoing debate about English as *lingua franca*. Naturally, Widdowson notices the role of native-speaking institutions in this particular state of affairs. It has been the mission of such institutions to promote monolingual pedagogy and support native teachers who, more often than not, do not have any competence in their students' own languages. To support his theory about the interest of the state being involved in monolingual English teaching, Widdowson quotes fragments of the British Council Annual Report from 1998: "I have been round many countries where I have visited the British Council and for every pound I spent on the British Council it often produces much more business for Britain, particularly in English language teaching. (The British Council 1998: 10 in Widdowson 2003: 157)." He also quotes a preface to Graddol 1997 written by Charles, Prince of Wales himself: "English has become the world's global language. I commend this work to all who see a strong and vigorous future for our [English] language (Graddol 1997 in Widdowson 2003: 157)."

As Widdowson observes, however, the English spoken globally is not the same English as that spoken by Charles at all, and, even more importantly, it would never have become a global phenomenon if it was confined to the British version of it. Ultimately, English is learnt around the globe in different contexts, different social circumstances and realities, and thus should be taught as such. If this were the case, the supposed inferiority of non-native English teachers would exist no more and it would be possible to teach English with respect to students' cultural heritage and their linguistic experiences.

In fact, when discussing the issue of communicative competence, the unquestionable ban on own language use in EFL may, in some researchers' view, hinder the very process of communicative development. As observed by Allwright and Bailey, "banishing the learners first language (…) deprives [them] of their normal means

of communication and so of the ability to behave fully as normal people (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 173, as quoted in Hall and Cook 2012: 286) and may have "potentially alienating effects" on students (Littlewood and Yu 2011 in Hall and Cook 2012: 286). Moreover, if new language learning was perceived not only as new skill learning, but also as a cultural experience and communication building endeavour, Tomasello's words should be taken into consideration remarking that "the theory of cultural learning sees collaborative dialogue as the essential means by which human beings learn" (Tomasello 1999 in Cook 2001: 408). In fact, depriving students of the chance to communicate in their own language could mean depriving them of their chance to fully benefit from the learning process.

2.4. The psycholinguistic and cognitive perspective

2.4.1. Transfer and code-choice

In its very essence, the notions of transfer and code-choice undermine the theoretical underpinnings of natural new language or coordinate bilingualism. Transfer, defined as a multidirectional influence of one language on other languages in one mind, suggests the impossibility of separating different languages from each other or deactivating any of the known languages simply not to 'disturb' the acquisition of a new language. A plethora of research studies show that languages in the mind are interconnected and influence each other in a number of ways, not only in the area of language, but also in the cognitive area of concept construction and perception (Epstein 1915, Mecken 1937, Fries 1945, Weinreich 1953, Lado 1957, Odlin 1989, 2003, Gass and Selinker 1992, Bowermann 1996, Imai and Gentner 1997, Grosjean 1998, Bowerman and Choi 2001, 2003, Herdina and Jessner 2002, van Hell and Dijkstra 2002, de Bot, Lowie and Verspoor 2005, Cook et al. 2006, Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008, Pavlenko 2008, Bialystok 2009, 2011, Gullberg 2011).

The roots of transfer research, as discussed in Jarvis and Pavlenko's (2008) overview of cross-linguistic influence research, go deep in history and can be found not only in language acquisition, but also psychology. Before the 20th century, any influence from

the native language on the new language was viewed as a negative occurrence, linked to low aptitude and general lack of intelligence and skill (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008). Interestingly enough, it was the native language that was considered to be in danger, prone to bad influences from the new language. Early evidence for the existence and formation of pidgins and code-switching among immigrants in the US was given by Mecken (1937) and in the books of Marcus Ravage (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008). The stigma attached to crosslinguistic influence started to be removed with the introduction of transfer research as a scholarly subject by, among others, Fries, Weinreich and Lado. With time, it was established that without a shadow of a doubt, crosslinguistic influence is impossible to avoid and it concerns every bilingual speaker as well as every new language learner. What is more, not only does it work in multiple directions (own → new language, new → own language, L2→L3, L3→L2, etc.), but also pertains to different domains (e.g. linguistic and conceptual) (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008).

The area of research crucial for the cross-lingual teaching arguments is the mental lexicon (Sperber and Wilson 1998, Aitchison 2003, Bialystok 2011). The construct of the mental lexicon assumes that there are certain representations of words in the mind, concepts, that are acquired throughout one's life and which certain lexical items with their meaning, pronunciation and syntactic characteristics are mapped onto. The mental lexicon consists of concepts and meanings that are stored, processed, interconnected in various ways and activated when needed. There are numerous theories regarding the mental lexicon, and research into it is a broad area of knowledge. Lexical decision tasks and priming have been used extensively to look into how mental lexicon is structured and what links connect individual items within it. The development of the mental lexicon in bilingual and multilingual children has been researched intensively in the last decades, with some researchers arguing that separate mental lexicons are created for different languages (Jiang 2000). However, bilingual or multilingual speakers need to constantly switch between those systems and select the right items, which provides them with a significant cognitive advantage over monolingual speakers (Bialystok 2011). Other theories which posit that languages constitute one, coexisting, constantly merging, and inter-connected system in the mind is the Dynamic Systems Theory (de Bot, Lowie and Verspoor 2005) and the Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (Heredina and Jessner 2002). According to those theories, "the components [of the system] are all directly or indirectly interconnected, it is constantly changing and self-organising" (de Bot, Lowie and Verspoor

2005: 200). Furthermore, "the system is reacting to external input and its entire organisation, including the L1, changes with new input" (Heredina and Jessner 2000). Thus, a tentative assumption could be made that providing students with opportunities for code-switching and active use of all their languages could lead to creating high-functioning bi- and multilinguals as well as support their cognitive development.

The possible advantages that code-switching may bring students have already been noticed and discussed in the Second Language Acquisition literature. Cook (1996) notices that "the uniqueness of L2 use is seen in code-switching where both languages are simultaneously on-line. One language is switched to another according to speech function, rules of discourse, and syntactic properties of the sentence". In his seminal 2001 paper he also quotes Grosjean, who describes code-switching as a cognitively demanding task, and a useful skill: "Code-switching is a highly skilled activity – the 'bilingual mode' of language in which L1 and L2 are used simultaneously, rather than the 'monolingual mode' in which they are used separately' (Grosjean 1989 in Cook 2001: 408). Widdowson (2003: 152) also draws attention to the advantages of L1-L2 transfer can for learners' development. He quotes Ellis (1994):

> … there is now clear evidence that the L1 acts as a major factor in L2 acquisition. One clear advance in transfer research has been the reconceptualization of the influence of the L1, whereas in behaviourist accounts it was seen as an impediment (a cause of errors), in cognitive accounts it is viewed as resource which the learner actively draws on in interlanguage development. (Ellis 1994: 343, in Widdowson 2003:152)

Code-switching in the classroom has also been found to elevate the atmosphere by building a sense of solidarity, unity and shared experience, which positively influences students' motivation (Cook 2010). Moreover, it has been observed to boost students' emotional safety (Nikula 2007). Different studies show that code-switching appears all around the world in various teaching contexts and across levels (Mitchell 1988, Polio and Duff 1994, Arthur 1996, Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie 2002, Kim and Elder 2005, Edstrom 2006). As summed up by Macaro, exclusive or near-exclusive use of the new language occur rarely in a monolingual classroom (Macaro 1997: 81).

Research shows, however, that teachers present different attitudes to code-switching depending on their cultural background and educational traditions (Hobbs et al. in-Cook 2010). Generally speaking, non-native English teachers, for example in Japan or Great Britain, evaluate using learners' own languages in the classroom much more

positively than native teachers. Similarly, many scholars who argue for classroom own language use publish in Canada, where bilingual education is deeply rooted in tradition (Stern 1992, Auerbach 1993, Cook 2001). The issue of code-switching is quite an emotionally complex one as well, as our own languages oftentimes "feel" like the only right means of conveying particular messages or meanings. As observed by Edstrom (2006), even though using English while teaching Spanish seemed unprofessional and not pedagogically sound to her, when she wanted to strike a cord and speak with students on a more personal note, she switched to English, as, "quite frankly, (it) was the most 'real' for all of us" (Edstrom 2006).

Despite the complexity and emotional load connected with code-switching and cross-linguistic transfer, research in the field of psycholinguistics definitely demonstrates that involving more code-switching, accepting transfer as a natural phenomenon and drawing on all learners' active languages may bring multiple benefits to their linguistic, cognitive, and social development.

2.5. Evidence from empirical studies

2.5.1. Contrastive Analysis: a revival?

A relationship between learners' own or previously learnt languages and the new language has been described in the literature at length. Some claim that the differences between those languages can lead to difficulties and errors, as well as the avoidance of some grammatical structures altogether (Odlin 1989, White 1991, Schachter 1974 in Ammar, Lightbown and Spada 2010). Similarities between languages can also be misleading to Learners and cause them to overgeneralize (Han and Selinker 1999, White 1998, Zobl 1980 in Ammar, Lightbown and Spada 2010). The influence of Learners' OL on the environment of a classroom is particularly robust when all students share the same own language. Recently, however, some arguments have been made for the reintroduction of Contrastive Analysis in classrooms with a shared own language, not as a traditional basis of new language teaching, though, but in its revamped version ingrained in Communicative Practice (Ammar, Lightbown and Spada 2010). There are a number of studies

which confirm the effectiveness of using Contrastive Analysis techniques in new language teaching both with advanced, adult learners, and with young learners. Lightbown and Spada, for example, investigated French-speaking learners of English. More specifically, they looked into how they acquire, recognize, and use English questions. In some studies French students were merely exposed to correct English questions (Lightbown and Spada 1999), in others they were provided with explicit instruction and some practice (White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta, 1991). Another time the researchers used some elements of contrastive analysis in the instruction (Spada, Lightbown and White 2005). A general conclusion from these studies was that the participants relied heavily on their knowledge and patterns of their own language (French); however, they were hardly ever able to show awareness of this, nor could they justify their linguistic decisions. Similarly, when asked to explain why they had deemed particular questions in English correct or incorrect, the participants were only able to justify 1 out of 10 decisions (Lightbown and Spada 2000). More importantly, in a further study, students who were not able to clarify relevant differences (pertaining, yet again, to the formation of Wh- and yes/no questions) between their L1 French and English were the ones who performed worse on the grammaticality judgement task than those who presented more metalinguistic awareness (Ammar, Lightbown and Spada 2010). As advised in the same article, students should be made aware of the possibility of confusion between their OL and NL. Depending on the language pairing and the structural similarities or differences between them, EFL instruction should be modified accordingly. Having implemented this, an abundance of opportunities to hear and use those particularly confusing structures ought to be provided in order for the students to start producing their own meanings.

The effectiveness of Contrastive Analysis within communicative EFL setting is also demonstrated in empirical studies of Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996) and Kupferberg (1999). Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996) conducted an experiment involving 137 intermediate learners and showed that contrastive metalinguistic input (CMI) facilitated the acquisition of difficult new language structures. In her 1999 study, Kupferberg partially replicated the study with advanced English users, 57 teachers and student teachers ofEnglish in Israel. Participants could recognize the problematic grammatical structure (in this case, the Past Perfect tense), but were reluctant to produce it spontaneously. The results of the study suggest that Contrastive Metalinguistic Input may help learners produce a difficult new language structure more frequently.

Elements of Contrastive Analysis have also been reported to bring positive effects on pronunciation teaching (Dziubalska-Kołaczyk 2015, Brzoza 2017). It is suggested that referring to students' own language proves useful when teaching particularly difficult sound clusters.

As demonstrated above, Contrastive Analysis in its modern form might find its place in the contemporary TEFL classroom and serve as a useful tool in creating a conscious functioning bilingual.

2.5.2. To translate or not to translate – the effect of translation activities on grammar acquisition and retention

Section 2.2.2. of the chapter revisited the issue of using translation in TEFL. It has also been argued that there is place for translation in foreign language pedagogy. The usefulness of translation as an awareness-raising classroom activity beneficial especially for advanced learners has also been examined empirically by Kallkvist (2008). For her longitudinal and experimental study Kallkvist recruited Swedish university students - advanced learners of English. The students participated in an authentic 13-week-long English grammar course and the researcher investigated the effects of two different focus on formS exercises on the students' morphosyntactic accuracy. Students were randomly assigned to three different groups, one of which engaged in L1-L2 translation activities, the second one in fill-in-the-bank and transformation activities, and the third one took part in a meaning-only course. The results of the pre-test and post-test indicated a somewhat greater gain for the "translation" versus "no translation" groups when it comes to the target grammar structures (results approaching significance), however, the "no translation" group performed better on a writing task that involved direct use of the new language. Both focus on formS groups were significantly better than the "meaning-only" group. As concluded by Kallkvist (2008: 199) her study provides justification for a limited use of translation activities with advanced learners who share the same own language. It does not, however, support translation-only or translation-focused new language teaching.

2.5.3. Vocabulary acquisition and retention

According to two influential models of vocabulary acquisition, Learners' own languages play a crucial role in the process. In Kroll and Stuart's Revised Hierarchical Model (1994), a new language word is first "mapped onto" the own language equivalent, which in turn is tightly connected with the concept (presented below in Figure 5). With time, as the new language learning progresses, a link is created between the concept and the new word. Therefore, within this framework of thinking about vocabulary learning as an ongoing process of the transformation of the concept-word connection, learner's own language is seen as a vessel through which a new word gets into the mind (Zhao and Macaro 2016: 78). The second relevant model is that developed by Jiang (2000, 2004), and is consistent with the RHM. It assumes three stages of NL vocabulary acquisition: the L2-L1 word association stage, the mediation stage, and the integration stage. Yet again, OL (own language) isseen as a necessary medium for new vocabulary learning. There have been suggestions (Brysbaert and Duyck 2009) of abandoning the RHM in behalf of connectionist models such as Dijkstra's and Van Heuven's BIA+ model (2009). However, an argument has also been made for the RHM's relevance in its essential assumptions, albeit needing some revisions (Brysbaert and Duyck 2009).
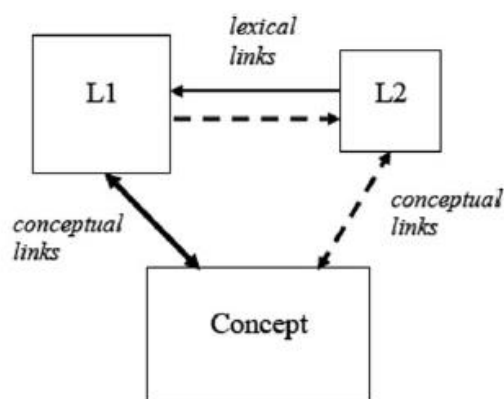
Figure 5. The revised hierarchical model of vocabulary acquisition (Kroll and Stewart 1994 as adapted by Zhao and Macaro 2016)

The following section will offer a closer look at studies which examined the influence of own-language-inclusive EFL instruction on English new vocabulary acquisition and retention in different age groups and on different levels of proficiency.

In their 2010 study Lee and Macaro investigated the influence of teachers' use of Korean (first language) in the context of vocabulary teaching. The participants were large groups of elementary school children at a lower level of proficiency, and adult university students at a significantly higher level of proficiency. Both groups were divided into two learning conditions – the English-only condition, where the teacher introduced and clarified the meaning of new vocabulary items using only the new language, and the code-switching condition, where the teacher switched to Korean for clarification. When it comes to the amount of learnt vocabulary, there was a significant effect of the code-switching condition for both young and adult learners. With young learners, both the acquisition and retention were significantly better in the code-switching condition, while with adult learners, there was no effect for retention, just for the immediate recall. What is more, the effect sizes were much larger for the young participants than for adult learners. Lee and Macaro's results reveal that both adult and young learners on different levels of proficiency benefit from their teachers' making a connection between a newly learnt word in English and its meaning in their own language. This is in line with Tian and Macaro (2012) and Jiang (2004): even on an advanced level of proficiency there is still some connection with the own language lexical store. Nevertheless, young learners seem to benefit from own language use in vocabulary teaching more than advanced learners, especially when it comes to delayed retention of the new words.

The age factor was further inspected by Lee and Macaro in their 2013 study once again employing a Korean sample of primary school pupils (six-graders) and college freshmen. All groups were given a pre-test, vocabulary learning sessions (L2-only methods for half of the participants and code-switching methods for the other half), and then a post-test and delayed post-test (retention test). Both groups benefited from the code-switching methods of vocabulary learning concerning the size of the new lexicon gained and the length of vocabulary retention. The results of the study suggest that Kroll and Stewart's (1994) Revised Hierarchical Model of vocabulary acquisition is only partially correct, as even in proficient and older learners still exists a connection with the L1 lexical store. The results also reveal that children are much more eager to accept English Only pedagogy, while adults tend to resist it and feel more comfortable knowing that their teacher is competent in students' OL.

The results of the abovementioned studies have been corroborated by Zhao and Macaro (2016) for concrete and abstract words in a group of Chinese adult learners

of English. This quasi-experimental research study investigates the effect of own language-inclusive EFL instruction on the acquisition of concrete and abstract words, which are thought to be processed differently by the human mind (Barsalou 1990, Binder et al. 2005, Fliessbach et al. 2006). Three groups on a similar, upper-intermediate level of proficiency underwent a number of learning sessions during which new vocabulary items were either explained by the teacher using 1) just English, or 2) own language (Chinese) explanations or translations. A comparison group was not provided with any target words explanations. The pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test ensued. The results showed that the L1- use group significantly outperformed the L2- only group in learning concrete and abstract words in both post-test and delayed post-test with strong effect sizes. The authors of the study suggest that providing students with direct own language translations makes the process of vocabulary acquisition and linking new words with an already existing concept more straightforward and may greatly enhance the vocabulary learning process.

One of the newest studies exploring the Code-Switching methods in teaching vocabulary was conducted by Song and Lee (2019) on young children aged five and six. The authors investigated vocabulary acquisition and retention in pre-school children using storytelling activities in two conditions: English Only, where the teacher instructed the children without referring to their OL, and Code-Switching, where children's OL was used succinctly in the instruction. The researchers were also interested in the children's attitudes towards both learning conditions. The results supported previous findings for older groups of Learners: young children performed better on post-tests and retention tests when the instruction of the activity involved some reference to their OL. They also expressed feelings of more comfort to Teacher's moderate use of their OL as compared to the English Only type of instruction. The study offered the first evidence for the preference of Code-Switching vocabulary teaching methods for such young learners.

2.6. The EFL classroom: attitudes and perspectives

2.6.1. Students and teachers have a voice

Apart from theoretical arguments of scholars from the field of Second Language Acquisition it is worth looking into real EFL classrooms around the world, since oftentimes the actual teaching process has little to do with what is currently promoted in the literature. To quote Hall and Cook (2012: 272), "in some places, the latest fashion simply does not reach teachers, syllabus or text-book writers; in others, there is a significant time lag before a new approach arrives; and elsewhere, new theories may be actively resisted". To support this claim, their 2012 and 2013 papers offer a comprehensive investigation into students' and teachers' attitudes towards own- language use in EFL teaching and learning.

First, the issue of code-switching in EFL classrooms. Teachers all around the world are known to deliberately code-switch in their teaching practice for different reasons, which often has much to do with their cultural background (Hall and Cook 2012, for more see sections 2.3. and 2.4.). In some, especially post-colonial settings, code-switching in the classroom is used deliberately by teachers to create a safer space for students, appreciate the value of national languages, promote multilingualism, and open more educational possibilities (Arthur 1996, Lin 1996, Katunich 2006, Chick and McKay 2001 in Hall and Cook 2012).

This being said, it would be interesting to know how much of own language teachers and students decide to choose in their classroom interactions, and in what situations. As regards the amount of own language used, Hall and Cook report two methodological approaches to this issue: counting the number of words uttered in the new and own language (employed by e.g. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie 2002 and Liu et. al. 2004), and the time spent using the new and own language (as in Duff and Polio 1990 or Edstrom 2006). The results of the studies were context- and culture-dependent. However, regardless of the contextual and cultural differences, there are two general conclusions that can be drawn from these studies: (1) the amount of new vs. own language use in the classroom varies substantially from teacher to teacher (in Duff and Polio 1990, Turnbull 2001, Edstrom 2006, Kim and Elder 2008, Copland and Noekleous 2011 the disparity between

teachers' new language use varies between 90% and 10% of classroom time), even if they work in the same institution (Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie 2002), which seems to depend on the number of students taught (Edstrom 2006), the level of students (Kharma and Hajjaj 1989, Liu et al. 2004), and the material taught (Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie 2002), (2) the teachers are not aware of how much and when they use own language, they do it haphazardly and at random; when interviewed, they underestimate the amount of own language use (Polio and Duff 1994, Copland and Neokleous 2001), which may stem from the prevalence of monolingual teaching and the stigma put on own language use (see Prodromou 2002). Contrary to the quantity of own language use in their EFL instruction, teachers seem to be more aware of the situations in which they use it, namely (1) when the new language is substantially different, (2) to teach grammar, (3) for managerial and administrative purposes, (4) to empathise with learners, (5) to provide translations when students are lost (Duff and Polio 1990, Atkinson 1987, Franklin 1990, Macaro 1997, 2001, Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie 2002, Carless 2004, Liu et al. 2004, Copland and Neokleous 2011, Levine 2011, Cook 2001, Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009). In general, the literature draws a line between goals connected to the new language teaching, called 'medium- oriented goals' (Ellis 1994: 577-578, Dodson 1967/1972, Butzkamm 2001, 2003, Deller and Rinvolucri 2002) or 'core goals' (Littlewood and Yu 2011), those which pertain to maintaining discipline and organising classroom life, called 'framework goals' (Ellis 1994, Kim and Elder 2008), and creating friendly and safe atmosphere, reassuring or building a relationship with students: 'social goals' (Kim and Elder 2008, Littlewood and Yu 2011, Allwright and Bailey 1991, Chen 2003, Brooks-Lewis 2009).

Many studies support the idea of using students' own language as a support system which reduces anxiety, reinforces good atmosphere in the classroom and helps in building a positive student-teacher relationship (Auerbach 1993, Stibbard 1998, Stables and Wikeley 1999, Canagarajah 1999, Levine 2003). Apparently, it also advances team-building and integrates classmates, which has been investigated in Malta (Camilleri 1996), South Africa (Adendorff 1996) or in Sweden (Cromdal 2005 after Hall and Cook 2012).

Drawing on this substantial body of evidence describing the ubiquity of own language in actual EFL instruction, some researchers decided to investigate the matter at the source and asked teachers and students about their attitudes to the problem. In some studies, teachers describe their own language use as "the skeleton in the cupboard" (Prodromou 2002: 5), something they feel ashamed or guilty about (Mitchel 1988, Macaro 1997,

2006, Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009, Littlewood and Yu 2011, in Hall and Cook 2012). In fact, looking at what Macaro (2006) reports, it could be inferred that teachers use own language when they feel helpless and have no other methods at hand, as "the majority of bilingual teachers regard code-switching as unfortunate and regrettable, *but necessary*" (Macaro 2006: 68, in Hall and Cook 2012). There are hardly any cross-lingual teaching practice materials available for EFL teacher trainees or in-service teachers, and monolingual teaching has been widely promoted all over the world, hence the understandable feeling of guilt and self-doubt in teachers who find themselves using it in their practice; the lack of available tips and clues on how to use it systematically and purposefully is also to blame for these feelings, as well as for teachers' employing own language randomly and ineffectively. However predominant monolingual teaching training may be, Macaro (2006) reports that the majority of teachers is still against complete exclusion of Learners' own languages from their classrooms. Moreover, even if sceptical and reserved about using own language as a teaching resource, many teachers seem to change their views with time and become less convinced of the righteousness of monolingual teaching (Atkinson 1993, Auerbach 1994, Burden 2000, Mattioli 2004, Butzkamm 2003, in Hall and Cook 2012). They also report that the amount of own language in their classrooms seems to depend on the level of students they teach (Mitchell 1988, Macaro 1997, Crawford 2004 in Hall and Cook 2012), even though for example Meij and Zhao (2010) in their study conducted in China report otherwise. This, however, may be ascribed to cultural differences, as described in sections above. Hall and Cook (2012) also report on teacher trainees' views on the issue, quoting Orland-Barak and Yinon (2005) in the Arabic-Jewish context of Israel and Macaro (2001) who investigated the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainees to own language use in TEFL as well as the rationale behind it. In summary, yet again, it has been discovered that teacher trainees also do include own language in their teaching regardless of their cultural background, among all for maintaining discipline, organising classroom life, or giving instructions. Their rationale, however, depends on a number of factors such as binding school policies or personal beliefs. Therefore, yet again, OL use remains random and unsystematic.

In their large-scale study, Hall and Cook (2013) looked into what teachers around the world think of own language use in EFL teaching. Specifically, they were interested in what types of own-language activities teachers and students engage in, what their perceptions of own language use in relation to the culture and institution they practice in are,

and to what extent their teaching practices are related to their workplace, learners' English language level, and work experience. They used mixed-methods design, with surveys collected as quantitative data, and semi-structured interviews as qualitative data. Almost 3 000 teachers recruited from 111 countries around the world took part in the quantitative part of the study; 17 teachers were interviewed. The results of the study suggest that the majority of teachers around the world use own language to some extent in their teaching. However, there is immense variation within the group, as almost 30% of the teachers reported that they use only English. Also, most learners use their own language at least a few times at different stages of a lesson, for instance to compare the new and own language grammars or to look up words in bilingual dictionaries, as well as for more social purposes, such as maintaining friendships and group interaction. Further parts of Hall and Cook's (2013) questionnaire reveal that while some teachers try to exclude own language from their instruction, other strike a balance between the new and own language and look for what Macaro called the 'optimal position' (Macaro 1997). Contrary to a body of research reporting that teachers feel ashamed or guilty about own languages use in their practice (e.g. Macaro 1997, Prodromou 2002, Butzkam and Caldwell 2009), only 30% of Hall and Cook's teachers admitted to such feelings. Arguments that the teachers surveyed and interviewed by Hall and Cook gave against own language use were that it may deprive students of the new language input, that it may stop students from thinking in English, or that it may cause negative transfer. However, yet again these concerns varied among teachers and altogether present an uneven picture of teachers' attitudes. When it comes to the arguments for own language use, teachers admitted that it may help students relate their new knowledge to what they already know, and that judicious own language use may reduce some classroom anxiety. One of the variables that Hall and Cook (2013) were curious about was students' language level and indeed, the preponderance of the surveyed teachers agreed that using own language is more appropriate with lower levels; the age of learners and class size did not seem relevant here. There was also some evidence suggesting that the type of institution matters in terms of own language use, with private institutions emphasising the requirement of the monolingual teaching policy (possibly seeing it as more prestigious or expected), and public institutions giving teachers more of a carte blanche in this respect. Essentially for this thesis, teachers in Hall and Cook (2013) admit that their teacher training programmes did not explore cross-lingual teaching methods or give them any encouragement to practice such methods. Despite this

apparent gap in teacher education, they notice, however, the new current flowing in the direction of own language discussion and acknowledging its worldwide use in TEFL, oftentimes ignored by professional literature. As regards the teaching experience variable, the interviews conducted by Hall and Cook (2013) reveal more positive attitudes towards own language in the group of experienced teachers, already well-established in their teaching practice. In brief, one of the main conclusions of the study is that own language use in TEFL is not just a case of a few instances of poor teaching practice, but a widespread phenomenon, albeit neither fully acknowledged nor properly studied.

More attention has yet to be paid to learners' perceptions of their own language use in TEFL. So far, some research has been done into learners' beliefs regarding the usefulness of translation (Liao 2006, Whyatt 2009, Kim 2011, Scheffler 2013). Kim (2011) showed that a translating exercise with lower-level Korean students might raise their consciousness and improve writing skills, while Liao (2006) demonstrated that Taiwanese college students consider translation a useful tool in their new language development, especially in reading, writing and vocabulary learning. This has been bolstered by Whyatt (2009), who discovered that Polish university students view translation as enriching and entertaining language practice. Secondary school students in Poland also seem to appreciate translation exercises, as reported by Scheffler (2013). Teenage learners from his study were asked to perform a couple of grammar-translation tasks involving tense and aspect (grammar areas which tend to be problematic for Polish learners). The pupils were also asked to complete questionnaires about the tasks and provide spontaneous comments on them. This mix of translation and metalinguistic practice was evaluated by students as interesting, out of the ordinary, challenging, and helpful. However, some students remarked that they were not something they would like to do on everyday basis.

As a more in-depth investigation of students' beliefs and attitudes, Scheffler et al. (2017) provide a more comprehensive account of learners' attitudes to own language use in their learning process in the context of two typologically different languages: Polish and Norwegian. The researchers looked into how learners' own languages are used in their EFL classrooms, how the pupils use their own languages in home study, and how they perceive the role of their own languages in the new language learning process. The learners in both countries completed online questionnaires and participated in interviews. As regards students' beliefs about their own language use in learning English,

especially Norwegian students are appreciative about explanations made in their own language, and are more apprehensive about Norwegian not being used at all during the lessons. Polish students, on the other hand, find their own language most useful in establishing the meaning of new vocabulary and in learning grammar. Both groups welcome their own languages as a good learning support system; however, they do not feel the need to include it in their speaking fluency practice.

As demonstrated above, both teachers and students acknowledge the existence of own language in their EFL teaching practice/learning process, and consider it beneficial in certain contexts and activities. The account of their experiences and perspectives, even though it ought to be regarded as an invaluable source of knowledge about the realities of the EFL teaching world and an inspiration for teacher trainers and academics, seems to have been neglected in the SLA/teaching methodology literature for far too long.

2.6.2. Involving own language in teaching practice: when and how

As reported in the previous sections, there has been a considerable shift in the perception of own language use in the SLA literature. There is also evidence from the field of psycholinguistics and cognitive linguistics, as well as sociology, which supports bilingual language teaching. The situation in EFL classrooms around the world seems to call for a radical change in the teaching dogmas. A sound theoretical base for the re-consideration and re-introduction of the cross-linguistic approach to language teaching has been built, however, one might wonder how exactly it could be implemented in teaching practice. The aim of the following section is to provide overview of the work of few authors that describe the more practical side of the problem.

A seminal work which gave inspiration for further comprehensive exploration of the area was Dodson's *Language Teaching and the Bilingual Method* (1967). Dodson's "bilingual method" (1962, 1967) advocates systematic use of own language in teaching vocabulary and structures, the justification behind this being that a true bilingual needs to switch between languages quite often. Indeed, "the sign of true bilingualism is not merely the possession of two languages, but also the ability to jump easily from one to the other" (Dodson 1967: 90 in Stern 1992: 282). Various studies based on Dodson's method

confirmed positive results of bilingual teaching (Sastri 1970, Walatara 1973, Meijer 1974, Ishii et al 1979, Butzkamm 1980, Kaczmarski 1988, Caldwell 1990, Kasjan 1995, 1996).

Buzkamm and Caldwell have had a longstanding interest in the issue of own language use in TEFL (Caldwell 1990, Butzkamm 1989/2002, 2003, Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009) and in contrast with Cook, Stern or Widdowson, concern themselves with more practical aspects of using the mother tongue (Butzkamm's term) in teaching English as a foreign language. In his 2003 manifesto, Butzkamm confidently announces the 'death of a dogma' and deals with controversies that arose around own language use and translation in the EFL classroom. He re-introduces the notion of a Language Acquisition Support System (first used by Bruner 1983), which, in his mind, is constituted by learners' own languages. In fact, for Butzkamm the mother tongue is 'the greatest asset people bring to the task of foreign language learning' (Butzkamm 2003: 29). By acknowledging both the realities and reported practices of EFL teachers around the world and a variety of already existent bilingual teaching methods (suggestopedia or Curran's counselling approach), Butzkamm builds a carefully-crafted argument for using the mother tongue as a 'base of reference' and denounces all the inconsistencies behind the strictly monolingual approach. Drawing on Dodson's seminal publication (1967) and the replications of his experiments, he puts the blame for the teaching world not paying enough attention to bilingual methods on the native speakers who, due to a trend visibly present in the 70s and 80s, spread all over the world and started their careers as English teachers, more often than not with no prior knowledge of their learners' own languages (West 1962 in Butzkamm 2003: 30). Butzkamm seems to claim that the two thousand – years – old practice of bilingual teaching has been rejected too quickly, too drastically, and without proper reflection. For him, the desperate escape from students' own languages that took place in the whole 20th century might be likened to building artificial islands in constant danger of "being flooded by the sea of the mother tongue" (Butzkamm 2003: 30). Indeed, our own languages equipped us with a cognitive framework inasmuch as we learnt to think, understand the world, and express ourselves through them. As a logical consequence of this premise, not using own languages in FL teaching would be a waste of this vast ocean of knowledge, the "linguistic endowment" that we all possess (Butzkamm 2003). Butzkamm breaks his theory down to 10 maxims, which are summarized below. First, the FL learner must build upon existing skills and knowledge acquired in and through the Mother Tongue; the exclusion of own language, which is prior knowledge present in the

student's mind, is impossible, and therefore teachers should not ignore this "natural tendency", but use it systematically and effectively. Especially when dealing with beginners, establishing new concepts and learning new lexical items is automatically connected with already existing concepts in their own languages, at least "until the FL has established an ever-more complex network for itself". Second, monolingual techniques of establishing meaning can mislead new language learners and consequently cause more harm than good and be less effective than own language translations. "For many phrases, only a clarification in the mother tongue can bring pupils to trust in a foreign language expression" (Butzkamm 2003: 31). Additionally, the constraint of monolingual techniques that is put on teachers and methodologists results in tedious, topic-neutral textbooks and materials designed for beginners. Without such constraint, at least teenage and adult beginners could enjoy more varied and exciting learning context. In Maxim 3 Butzkamm boldly claims that own language aids can actually facilitate conducting lessons in the target language, since when used skilfully, own language references and explanations do not take away much time from the new language. As an example technique he presents the "sandwich technique" (used earlier by Dodson 1967, 1972 for dialogue teaching):

> Teacher: "You've skipped a line. Du hast eine Zeile übersprungen. You've skipped a line."
> Teacher: "I mean the last word but one. Das vorletzte Wort. The last word but one."
> (Butzkamm 2003: 32)

Butzkamm suggests writing the expression on the board and reserving a special section of the board especially for this purpose. Students often ask questions in their own languages, looking for clarification or explanation; Butzkamm's suggestion is not to ignore or reprimand, but rather spot it as a chance for some teaching, as illustrated below:

> Pupil: "Ich wollt" das auch sagen."
> Teacher: "Oh, I see. In English it is: 'That's what I was going to say'. Try it, please."
> (Butzkamm 2003: 32)

Later, Butzkamm argues that own language use gives rise to more real-life communication inasmuch as it allows for quick translation which does not disturb the course of a lesson. He even expresses an opinion that the need for more communication in the classroom and the avoidance of own language are mutually contradictory. Butzkamm draws his knowledge mainly from numerous interviews with students and teachers, as well

as transcripts of language lessons. Here he recalls a student who claimed that when practicing conversation in English during a lesson, because of a constant demand for grammatical correctness, she felt pressurized into inventing the simplest story possible just to use the language she knew. Consequently, she did not feel the interest of the teacher with the actual content of her story, she felt that this communication was in fact artificial (Butzkamm 2003: 32). Maxim 5, related to Maxim 2, is concerned with own language actually allowing teachers to use authentic, real-life texts at earlier stages of teaching. This, in turn, boosts language acquisition by providing more comprehensible input. Butzkamm proposes a variety of interesting reading activities which involve both students' own language and the new language; for example, students might read bilingual editions of available books, or they could be given a translation of chosen paragraphs beforehand and then read them in English with better understanding. They could also read their favourite books for the second time, this time in the new language. He refers to a series of books by O'Sullivan & Rösler, who wrote their books in a bilingual fashion, mixing two languages throughout the book, especially in the dialogues. This could serve as a potentially infinite source of classroom material. In the 6th Maxim, Butzkamm refers to the closeness of languages in terms of language families. If own language and new language are grammatically or lexically close, making use of own language could actually accelerate students' progress in acquiring certain grammatical structures or lexical items. To illustrate, even though past structures are taught quite late in the curriculum, German students, who have a parallel past structure in their own language, could learn English present and past perfect tenses much easier and earlier than the schedule or curriculum suggests. In the same way, we could introduce some of the advanced vocabulary items (e.g. symmetry, symposium, seminar, hyperbole, bishop), which stem from Latin to Polish learners because Polish counterparts are often similar or even the same. Another technique that Butzkamm proposes is "mirroring" new language and own language structures, i.e. whereas in English "John *is* four years old", in Polish "*John *has* four years" ("Jan *ma* cztery lata"). Butzkamm illustrates this technique with the following example of how it could be used to explain German word order:

> Der in weniger Minuten einlaufende Zug
> *The in a few minutes arriving train
> (The train due to arrive in a few minutes)

Schlieβlich kam er

*Eventually came he

Ich muss mein Auto waschen

*I must my car wash

By such structural mirroring a student can understand not only the meaning of the message, but also grasp the syntactic complexity of the message more clearly. In Maxim 7, Butzkamm stresses the usefulness of links between the new and the old knowledge. In this way, he claims, the strongest cross-linguistic networks are formed. In Butzkamm's opinion, cognates can play a positive role here, helping students "decode" the new words, although they may need further clarification in order to convey their exact and accurate meaning. Basically, he sees the genealogical similarities and differences between languages as paths worth exploring in language pedagogy and as possible facilitators of the new language acquisition. Going further, in Maxim 8 Butzkamm deals with the notion of interference, which he does not consider real danger in bilingual language teaching practice. He sees inference as a mere lack of knowledge, a means of conveying the message when a student cannot recall an appropriate new language structure or word, which is an only natural step on a developing bilingual's way to success. Indeed, it has never been shown that bilingual teaching techniques cause more interference errors than monolingual teaching practice; actually, such a hypothesis has been rejected by Meijer (1974). In his 9th Maxim Butzkamm touches on the problem which served as an inspiration to the whole thesis, namely the fact that over-extensive promoting of monolingual teaching and the unavailability of proper instruction for teachers on how to use bilingual teaching effectively, in many cases and in numerous learning contexts actually proved counterproductive and resulted in teachers overusing their own languages in their teaching practice. To quote the author: "Less skilled and less proficient teachers can have problems maintaining an officially monolingual teaching paradigm. Rather than being used, therefore, the mother tongue is misused. Teachers simply succumb to the ease of conducting the class in the MT [mother tongue – author]. (Butzkamm 2003: 36)."

The abovementioned problem is often reported by Polish students as well as teachers (in the current study). Finally, Butzkamm's Maxim 10 is a call for treating students' own language as a scaffolding, a means to an end. The new language is supposed

to become a firm construction in the mind and "stand on its own two feet". Once this end is achieved, there will no longer be a need to find support in the use of own language, it will simply "get practiced away". This view finds support in literature from the fields of psycholinguistics, cognitivism and neurology (West 1962, Brown 1972, Butzkamm 1989/2002, Saunders 1988, Tracy 1996 in Butzkamm 2003), as well as in teaching the Deaf (Hager Cohen 1995, Butzkamm and Butzkamm 1999).

Butzkamm continued his work in cooperation with Caldwell. In their ground-breaking book, *The Bilingual Reform: A Paradigm Shift in Foreign Language Teaching* (2009), they propose a holistic view on the issue of bilingual teaching, which is deep-seated in classroom realities and based on authentic struggle of practicing teachers. The book serves as a guide for practicing teachers as well as a call for change in the native-centred language teaching philosophy; in fact, they even put native speakers under pressure and suggest they should learn at least one new language in order to fully understand the task they face every day at work: creating new bilingual speakers. When it comes to specific advice offered to practicing teachers, the book follows the ten maxims of bilingual language teaching described in Butzkamm 2003, emphasizing the difference between 'decoding' and 'code breaking' (Cook 2001) in establishing meaning, which, consequently, builds up learners' knowledge of not only the meaning, but also the new language system. As an example, instead of merely presenting the meaning of the English *Thank you* to a Polish EFL learner as *Dziękuję,* one would present it analytically as *Dzięki ci*, hence teaching the learners not only the meaning, but also how the new language syntax works (here it is the presence of an explicit subject in English). In this way, the learner is able to apply the pattern in their future utterances.

Resources exploring bilingual teaching techniques are available to teachers around the world (Dodson 1967, Butzkamm's body of work, Deller and Rinvolucri 2002). However, the overriding issue remains that for over one hundred years students' own language has been restricted and pushed into a dark corner of teaching methodology. Bilingual teaching techniques are yet to be introduced into available teaching materials that educators use around the world working with students with significantly different language backgrounds.

2.7. Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to explore how the issue of own language use in TEFL has been approached by the more recent, late 20th and early 21st century literature.

The first section of the chapter dealt with the changes of attitudes within the field of applied linguistics. First, it summarized major psycholinguistic arguments for the reconsideration of own language use in TEFL made by Singleton (1989), Duff and Polio (1990), Stern (1992), Macaro (1997), Cook (2001), Widdowson (2003) and others. Second, the section reports on the current views on using translation in TEFL. Cited authors included Duff (1989), Widdowson (2003), Cook (2010) and Hall and Cook (2012).

The next section presented the sociolinguistic perspective on own language use in EFL instruction. It briefly discussed the role of British imperialism and political dominance on how the TEFL landscape developed around the world. It also touched upon the issue of the competence of native versus non-native EFL teachers and cited Cook's (2001) and Hall and Cook's (2012) views on what it means to be a learner of English in the modern world. Section 2.4, in turn, presented the psycholinguistic and cognitive perspective on the issue, discussing the phenomena of transfer and code-choice, which occur naturally and tend to be increasingly welcomed in multilinguals, citing authors such as Odlin (1989, 2003), Gass and Selinker (1992), Ellis (1994), Bowermann (1996), Imai and Gentner (1997), Macaro (1997), Grosjean (1998), Bowerman and Choi (2001, 2003), Herdina and Jessner (2002), van Hell and Dijkstra (2002), Widdowson (2003), de Bot, Lowie and Verspoor (2005), Cook et al. (2006), Edstrom (2006), Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008), Pavlenko (2008), Bialystok (2009, 2011) and Gullberg (2011).

Section 2.5 offered a review of selected empirical studies regarding Contrastive Analysis and the use of translation in acquisition and retention of NL grammatical structures and vocabulary: Kallkvist (2008), Lee and Macaro (2010), Tian and Macaro (2012), Jiang (2004), Lee and Macaro (2013), Zhao and Macaro (2016) and Song and Lee (2019). In sum, the results of the reported studies point to the benefits of code-switching and own language-inclusive methods of FL instruction for both acquisition and retention of the new language.

The last section takes a look at how students and teachers report their attitudes towards own language use in their EFL classrooms. Results of studies by *inter alia* Hall

and Cook (2012, 2013), Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002), Liu et al. (2004), Duff and Polio (1990), Edstrom (2006) implicate that teachers around the world use their and their students' own languages, albeit quite haphazardly and unsystematically. The amount of OL use seems to depend on various factors such as the number of students, their level and taught material. Cited studies suggest that there are various benefits of using OL both for students' comfort and competence in the NL (Liao 2006, Whyatt 2012, Kim 2011, Scheffler 2013, Scheffler et al. 2017). This section also investigated the practicalities of own language use in EFL: teaching methods and techniques proposed by Dodson (1962, 1967), Caldwell (1990), Butzkamm (1989/2002, 2003) and Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009).

This chapter, in concert with Chapter 1, reviewed the history of changing attitudes towards own language use in TEFL, presented results of research studies and gave voice to applied linguists as well as practicing teachers and students. Together, their aim was to establish a sound basis for the research study that will be reported in the following chapters.

Chapter 3: Quantitative data analysis: a questionnaire investigating teachers' practices and attitudes towards OL use in TEFL

3.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the quantitative part of my research study. Section 3.2 will establish a niche in the existing research in the field of own language use in EFL. Section 3.3 will familiarize the reader with the specificity of the Polish education system, which is the context for the study. Section 3.4 will present research methodology employed in the study; first, it will discuss the grounds for choosing the explanatory sequential mixed-methods design, second, hypotheses underlying the study and quantitative research questions, and third, details concerning the research tool, the sample, procedure and data analysis. Section 3.5 will present (1) the results of ANOVA tests conducted on the bases of my research hypotheses and (2) the results of ANOVA tests conducted on the basis of new insights gained from the interviews and lesson observations. Section 3.6 will discuss the obtained ANOVA results, confront them with research hypotheses and draw preliminary conclusions, as well as describe how the quantitative questionnaire results affected the design of the qualitative part of the study.

3.2. The niche

As described in Chapter 2, section 2.6, there is a body of published research into teachers' and students' attitudes towards own language use in the classroom. The established knowledge includes the finding that own language is widely used in second language education around the world and that teachers' practices are much more complex and unsystematic than previously expected (Duff and Polio 1990, Turnbull 2001, Edstrom 2006, Kim and Elder 2008, Copland and Noekleous 2011, Hall and Cook 2013, Scheffler et al. 2017). There is also some evidence that young foreign language teachers' views on own language use change in favour of own language after they start their practice and experience classroom reality (Lynch 2015). It has also been shown that the quantity of own

language use in classrooms and its context is reliant on the language level of the group (Kharma and Hajjaj 1989, Liu et al. 2004). What seems to be missing from the research available up to date is a detailed investigation into a possible combination of the two factors which purportedly influence teachers' own language use, namely teacher experience and group level, as well as a more in-depth case study of teachers' motivations and decisions in respect to own language use. Additionally, some insight into teacher education concerning own language use could offer a more comprehensive understanding of EFL teachers' choices. The current study aims at filling this niche by employing a mixed-methods design that utilizes a large-scale questionnaire, interviews, and lesson observations. The participants of the study were recruited among (1) Polish EFL teachers who practice within the system of state-funded, public education, (2) student teachers, and (3) teacher trainers from leading Polish universities offering EFL teaching programmes. Its general aim is to shed light on the issue of own language use in the context of the Polish public education system. Expectedly, the discussion and conclusion stemming from the results of the study will also uncover some patterns valid in different educational settings.

3.3. The Polish context

The aim of this section is to provide the reader with general knowledge about the structure of the Polish primary and secondary education system and its two major reforms, matters regarding the Polish EFL curriculum, as well as the socio-economic status of teachers in Poland and their working conditions. The details of the aforementioned issues are generally available on the European Commission's website in a section devoted to Eurydice – an official EU network which gathers data and publishes reports concerning national education systems, which explains how different education systems function in the EU countries, and which compares them with one another. Information about recent structural changes within the Polish primary and secondary education system can also be found onthe Polish Ministry of National Education website and in the reports published by OECD (2015), Eurydice (2017, 2018) and the European Commission (2017). The following section is based on these very sources.

Since the first major reform of the Polish education system in 1999, Polish schools have been divided into three stages: 6 years of primary school (+1 year of compulsory pre-school, the so-called year '0'), 3 years of lower secondary school, and 3 years of secondary school (or alternatively 4 years of vocational secondary school). Each educational stage was completed by passing a compulsory national test, the result of which determined the scope of schools available to each student for further education (even though the majority of the best schools in Poland function within the public system, the better the test results, the more top-ranking schools are available to students). Regardless of the results of the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) test, where Polish students scored above average in all subject areas twice in a row (OECD PISA 2015 Key Findings, OECD PISA 2018, Publications, Results for Poland), this 6+3+3 (4) system had been criticised for many years by part of the public opinion and some oppositional political parties for disrupting children's educational and adaptive experience with stressful testing and change of environment at their most vulnerable age. It has also been argued that separating teenagers aged 12 to 16 caused numerous pedagogical problems. Thus, after winning the 2015 parliamentary elections the oppositional Law and Justice party immediately took to implementing one of their flagship postulates: reforming the school system. Since 2017 lower secondary schools have been gradually replaced with 8-year primary schools, and therefore the whole system returned to the 8+4 (5) – year model from before 1999. My study was conducted throughout school years 2017/2018 and 2018/2019, amidst the whirlwind of the reform, which significantly affected the length of the data collection process. Moreover, students who entered the public system after the reform of 2015 follow a different curriculum than those who had entered the system earlier.

According to the national curriculum for foreign language education (information accessible through the Ministry of National Education's website, curriculum updated in 2017), in the first stage of their education process (grades 1-3), all students attend compulsory modern foreign language classes (any modern language, 90 minutes per week). In the second stage (grades 4-8), the number of hours assigned to modern language classes can be increased by the school principal and in grade 7 a second modern language is introduced. The most popular foreign languages taught in Polish schools are English and German (Eurydice Highlights, 2017), however, some schools introduce German and others English at the first stage of the education process and students have the right to adhere

to their first-learned modern language as the dominant one throughout the whole education process. Therefore, the first rift in the level of English can be noticed in grade 7 (age 13), where some students have already been learning English for 7-8 years, and others are just starting. Moreover, the number of hours of foreign language classes vary depending on the school and class profile from 90 minutes per week in grades 1-3 up to even 5-6 hours per week in grades 7-8 and in secondary schools in classes with bilingual profiles or due to school principal's decision to allocate extra time to foreign language classes at the cost of other subjects. As a consequence, the level of competence in English varies greatly around the country and even within one school. Details of the curriculum and its link to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2011) are provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1. The Core Curriculum for General Education in Foreign Languages in specific types of schools, updated in 2017 (translation mine).

Version of the curriculum	Stage of education	Foreign language taught as	Description	Number of hours in one cycle (year)	CEFR reference
I.1.	first (grades 1-3)	First	from the beginning in grade 1	**180**	A1[4]
II.1.	second (grades 4-8)	First	continuation of grades 1-3	**450**	**A2+** (B1 in passive skills)
II.1.Bilingual	second (grades 4-8)	First	for bilingual schools/ groups	450 (II.1.) + **120 = 570**	**A2+/B1**
II.2.	second (grades 7-8)	Second	from the beginning in grade 7	**120**	**A1**
II.2.Bilingual	second (grades 7-8)	Second	from the beginning in grade 7 in bilingual schools/groups	120 (II.2.) +**120 = 240**	**A1+**
III.1.Basic	third (secondary school)	First	continuation of foreign language taught as first in primary education – basic level	**360**	**B1+** (B2 in passive skills)
III.1.Advanced	third (secondary school)	First	continuation of foreign language taught as first in primary education – advanced level	360 (III.1.Basic) **180 = 540**	**B2+** (C1 in passive skills)
III.1.Bilingual	third (secondary school)	First	continuation of FL1 from primary school – level appropriate for bilingual schools or groups OR continuation of FL2 from primary school level appropriate for bilingual schools or groups OR from the	360 (III.1.Basic) + 180 (III.1.Advanced) **330 = 870**	**C1** (C2 in passive skills)

			beginning in grade 1 of secondary school in bi-lingual school or group		
III.2.0	third (secondary school)	Second	FL2 from the beginning in secondary school	**240**	**A2+**
III.2.Basic	third (secondary school)	Second	continuation of FL2 from primary school	**240**	**B1+**

The workload and social status of teachers in Poland is also an issue worth briefly touching upon. According to Education Policy Outlook for Poland (OECD 2015), "school leaders in Poland work in schools where responsibilities for curriculum and assessment are the highest among all OECD countries, but their level of autonomy for resource allocation is below OECD average" (OECD 2015:11), which definitely contributes to school principals' level of stress and their management styles. Although teachers in Poland are on average younger compared to other OECD countries, the percentage of women working in this profession in Poland is particularly high (74% versus OECD's 67% average). This may stem from the fact that in a traditionally patriarchal Polish society a profession which requires completing a bachelor's degree (for primary education) or master's degree (for secondary education), but pays from 420 to 582 euro nett per month (depending on the stage of the official professional development path), is not attractive for family breadwinners. This unquestionably difficult economic situation forces teachers to work extra hours outside of the public system tutoring and teaching in private schools. As a consequence, despite enjoying a comparably smaller teaching load than other OECD teachers and their special status defined in the Teacher's Charter, Polish educators report being constantly overworked and stressed. Nevertheless, the OECD's report shows that Polish teachers extensively invest their time and energy in professional development (94% compared to the OECD average of 88%) and 80% of them would choose to become teachers if they faced a career decision again. This complex situation in the profession coupled with a rushed reform of 2015 resulted in the first nationwide strike since 1993. The strike, which took place in April 2019, lasted a month. This event and the atmosphere surrounding it definitely prolonged and sometimes even impeded data collection for the present study.

The aim of this section was not so much to provide a critique of Polish foreign language education or contemplate the struggles of being a teacher in Poland, it was

to explain the complexity of the environment in which my study was conducted and the diverse experiences of teachers who participated in it. These make for a complicated foreign language teaching landscape across different schools, which is reflected in the results of the study, especially in its qualitative part.

3.4. Methodology

3.4.1. The Mixed Methods design

Traditionally, research studies in the field of Second Language Acquisition have been conducted using either qualitative or quantitative research methods. Both of these approaches have their unique characteristics, useful depending on the type of academic enquiry. As succinctly categorized by Mackey and Gass (2005), quantitative research offers an objective, controlled, outcome-oriented, generalizable way of data collection and analysis, which assumes a stable reality, while qualitative research is characterised by subjective, naturalistic, process-oriented, case study approach which assumes a dynamic reality and keeps close to the data (Mackey and Gass 2005: 2, based on Reichardt and Cook 1979, Dörnyei 2009). The epistemological, ontological and methodological underpinnings of quantitative and qualitative methods are different and, therefore, in the past, most researchers claimed that these two approaches to research cannot be mixed due to their reliance on diverse philosophical paradigms (Schwandt 2000, Maxwell and Delaney 2004). However, attempts have recently been made to reconcile these seemingly contradictory types of scientific investigation and the theoretical and philosophical foundations have been laid under the mixed methods type of research design.

The noteworthy textbooks and articles discussing the grounds and technicalities of using mixed methods design are, among others, Tashakkorie and Tedlie 1998, Creswell 2002, Johnson and Onwuegbuzi 2004, Creswell et al. 2003, Riazi and Candlin 2014. As argued by Melzi and Caspe 2010: "there is growing recognition of the need to draw on, and in some cases, integrate both quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to gain a more complete understanding" (in Riazi and Candlin 2014: 138). It seems that educational research, in its whole complexity, dynamics, and richness of observed

interactions and situation-dependent decisions made by students and teachers, needs to draw from the strengths of both these research types. As noticed by Fishman (2010) in reference to the hypotheses verifying (top-down) versus hypotheses generating (bottom-up) means of gaining knowledge: "the total research enterprise of SLE (Second Language Education) must be inclusive enough and supportive enough to provide room and recognition for both Erklärende and Verstehende approaches to its subject matter" (Fishman 2010: 14). Mixed-methods research (or MMR) are thus said to "bridge the poles ofpositivism and constructivism (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004, Hanson et al. 2005 in: Riazi and Candlin 2014: 138). It may certainly be said that MMR has been legitimized as a fully-accepted means of scientific investigation, as there are two respectable journals which publish MMR across a range of disciplines: the *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* (http://mmr.sagepub.com) and the *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches* (http://mra.e-contentmanagement.com) (Riazi and Candlin 2014).

In the light of the above, and following in the footsteps of Hall and Cook (2013), I decided to complement the objective, numerical data obtained from a large-scale questionnaire and analysed statistically with interviews and lesson observations typical for classroom-oriented research, thus gaining, hopefully, an all-encompassing picture of the problem in question and then taking a closer look at specific cases. Such mixed methods designs have been in use in educational and social science since 1980s and have been praised for providing "a powerful mix" of data and a "complex picture of a social phenomenon" (Miles and Huberman 1994: 42 and Greene and Caracelli 1997:7 in Cresswell 2012: 535). There are different types of mixed methods designs and the choice of a particular method should depend strictly on the research questions asked and the context in which they are asked (Tashakkori & Teddlie 2003). The one employed in this study is the explanatory sequential mixed methods design, where "the researcher first conducts quantitative research, analyses the results and then builds on the results to explain them in more detail with qualitative research. It is considered explanatory because the initial quantitative data results are explained further with the qualitative data. It is considered sequential because the initial quantitative phase is followed by the qualitative phase." (Creswell 2013: 44). Additionally, the three-step design of this study (questionnaire – interviews – lesson observations) allows for methodological triangulation, which "reduces observer and interviewer bias and enhances the validity and reliability (accuracy) of the information" (Johnson 1992: 146 in Mackey and Gass 2005: 181). It also allows

for expanding the field of enquiry by adding a new group of participants in the qualitative part (academics) in order to gain a deeper understanding of the investigated matter.

3.4.2. Study design

3.4.2.1. Variables

The choice of both dependent and independent variables identified for the quantitative study was based on thorough analysis of previous studies (e.g. Lynch 2015).

Independent variables included:

Independent Variable 1: teachers' work experience

The significance of this variable has been shown by, for example, Lynch 2015. This variable was operationalized by dividing all participants into 5 groups: student teachers, 1-5 years of experience, 6-10 years of experience, 11-20 years of experience, 20+ years of experience. The division was loosely based on the four successive teaching posts available to teachers in Poland through a special structure of promotion awarded after considering teachers' work experience and professional achievements.

Independent Variable 2: pupils' level of English

The significance of this variable has been shown by, for example, Kharma and Hajjaj 1989 and Liu et al. 2004. This variable was operationalized by employing the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Pupils' level was declared by the teacher and ranged between A1 and C1 (with next to no teachers reporting C1 level of their groups).

Dependent variables included:

Dependent Variable 1: EFL teachers' use of Polish in the classroom

This variable was operationalized by employing a 5-point frequency scale on which teachers marked the frequency of their use of Polish in 9 different categories of activities.

Dependent Variable 2: EFL teachers' inclusion of Polish or bilingual educational resources in the guidelines for home study given to their pupils

This variable was also operationalized by employing a 5-poing frequency scale on which teachers marked the frequency of their use of Polish or bilingual educational resources in the guidelines for home study given to their pupils. 5 different categories of activities were included in the questionnaire.

Dependent Variable 3: EFL teachers' attitudes to the role of Polish in their teaching practices

Dependent Variable 3 was operationalized by employing a 5-point Likert scale on which teachers chose to what extent they agree or disagree with each of the 36 statements included in this part of the questionnaire. Each part of the questionnaire used in the study will be discussed in detail in section 3.4.3.

3.4.2.2. Research questions

The following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there a significant difference in reported own language use in the classroom between EFL teachers with different work experience?
2. Is there a significant difference in guidelines for home study given to their pupils in terms of own language-based resources between EFL teachers with different work experience?
3. Is there a significant difference in EFL teachers' reported attitudes towards the role of own language in EFL instruction between teachers with different work experience?
4. Is there a significant difference of reported own language use in the classroom between EFL teachers who teach pupils on different proficiency levels?
5. Is there a significant difference of reported guidelines for home study given to pupils which concern the use of own languages between EFL teachers who teach pupils on different proficiency levels?

6. Is there a significant difference in reported attitudes towards the role of own language in EFL instruction between EFL teachers who teach pupils on different proficiency levels?

3.4.2.3. Hypotheses

First, relying on previous research (Lynch 2015) and prevalent trends in TEFL education, it is hypothesized that less experienced teachers are stricter about excluding Polish from their teaching, adhering tightly to the professional instruction they most likely received at university. With time and more practice in the public school realities, more experienced teachers are expected to be more flexible about using Polish in their teaching.

Second, on the basis of research (Kharma and Hajjaj 1989, Liu et al. 2004), it is hypothesized that the lower their pupils' level of English, the more inclined teachers feel to support their teaching with the use of Polish.

3.4.2.3. The instrument

There are a number of advantages of survey research. Especially when it comes to questionnaires administrated online, this way of collecting data is cost-effective, relatively quick, easy to analyse, allows for a large sample size (thus greater statistical power), and genuine answers. However, questionnaire-based research may also pose a challenge in terms of sampling and non-sampling errors. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) discuss nine dangers involved in questionnaire research: simplicity or superficiality of answers, unreliable or unmotivated respondents, respondent literacy problems, little or no opportunity to correct respondents' mistakes, social desirability bias, self-deception. acquiescence bias, halo effect, and fatigue effects. Due to these possible shortcomings, it is essential to thoroughly contemplate the design of the questionnaire, bearing in mind specific research goals, and test the tool by conducting at least one pilot study to verify its usability. Some of the challenges of questionnaire studies may also be avoided or fixed by employing mixed-methods design and thus gaining a more in-depth view of the research problem, as has been done in this study.

The questionnaire used in the study was based on Hall and Cook (2013) and Scheffler et al. (2017) and modified to suit the purposes of this study. It consists of five parts which will be described below. The language of the questionnaire was Polish. The final version of the questionnaire both in Polish and English can be found in Appendices 1 and 2.

1. Biographical data

In this part of the questionnaire participating teachers were asked about the following: gender, age, native language, work experience (divided into 4 ranges, as given in section 1.4.2.1), teaching post according to the official promotion structure, the level of groups that participants teach most of the time (divided into 5 levels, as given in section 1.4.2.1), type of school and the type of teacher training they had received.

2. Teachers' own language use in the classroom

In this part of the questionnaire the participating teachers were asked how often they use Polish in their classrooms in nine areas: vocabulary teaching, grammar teaching, comparing English and Polish grammar, activities involving translation, clarifying mistakes, grading and evaluating, giving instructions, maintaining discipline and establishing good relations with pupils. The participants were required to mark the frequency of their use of Polish in each area on a 5-point scale (never-rarely-sometimes-often-always).

3. Guidelines for home study given to pupils in terms of Polish-based resources

In this part of the questionnaire participants were asked how often they encourage their students to use Polish-based or bilingual resources in their home study in 6 domains: using bilingual Polish-English dictionaries, reading Polish explanations of English grammar points, comparing English and Polish grammatical structures, doing translation activities, using online translators, watching programmes and films with Polish subtitles. Once again, the participants were required to mark the frequency of such encouragement in each domain on a 5-point scale (never-rarely-sometimes-often-always).

4. General attitudes towards own language use in six language teaching domains

In this part of the questionnaire participants were presented with a list of 36 statements regarding the issue of own language in EFL teaching. The statements referred to three general domains: linguistic (grammar and vocabulary), affective (rapport and anxiety), and organizational (assessment and classroom management). The participants were asked to mark their degree of agreement with the statements on a 5-point Liker scale (disagree completely- disagree-neither agree nor disagree-agree-completely agree). There were six

statements in each sub-domain, three positively-keyed and three negatively-keyed (positive or negative towards own language use), as illustrated below:

A positively-keyed statement (organizational domain):
The teacher should comment on students' grades in Polish.
A negatively-keyed statement (organizational domain):
The Teacher should present all tasks in English.

Internal consistency of participants' answers in this task has been confirmed by calculating Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha > .74$ for all domains).

5. Additional comments.

In the last section of the questionnaire the participants were asked to leave a comment (not obligatorily) to report any problems with the format of the questionnaire or additional remarks or thoughts about the issue in question.

3.4.3. The pilot study

In order to test the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted before the main study. 70 teachers were recruited for the pilot using convenience sampling. The questionnaire was created using an online platform – SSI (later rebranded and currently existing as DYNATA under https://www.dynata.com/) and distributed to EFL teachers via a Polish Facebook group for English teachers and among teacher friends. The main aims of the pilot were to test the clarity of questions, teachers' response rate, check internal consistency of statements in Part 3 of the questionnaire, and run preliminary ANOVA tests. As a result of the pilot, the wording of some questions was changed. Second, the decision was made to divide teachers differently in terms of their work experience, and third, the basis for defining the level of taught group was changed (CEFR instead of grades according to the Polish education system). The response rate was high enough to expect no future problems with data collection, and the questionnaire met with a friendly response and interest among the surveyed teachers. Statements in Part 3 of the questionnaire were internally consistent and Cronbach's alpha values for the six sub-domains are provided in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Cronbach's alpha values for statements included in Part 3 of the questionnaire.

Domain	Sub-domain	Cronbach's Alpha
LINGUISTIC	Grammar	.835
	Vocabulary	.806
AFFECTIVE	Relationship with students	.793
	Discomfort	.841
ORGANIZATIONAL	Assessment	.83
	Class organization	.821

3.4.4. The sample population

Bearing in mind that "selecting the sampling design, which comprises making decisions about the sampling scheme(s) and sample size(s), is a pivotal step for addressing challenging issues in MMR" (Collins et al. 2007: 269 in: Riazi and Candlin 2014:148), the sample for this study was selected carefully and meticulously. With regard to the relationship between quantitative and qualitative samples this study employed primarily nested sampling, where the qualitative sample was a sub-sample of the quantitative sample. Multilevel sampling was also employed at the later and additional part of the study (a follow-up investigation), where a new group (academic teachers) was interviewed using the same questions and procedure as the primary group consisting of previously surveyed teachers.

The sample for the questionnaire-based part of the study was selected based on data collected from the report from the Educational Information System in September 2017. According to this report, there are 40 493 English teachers in the Polish public school system, 89% of whom are female and 11% male. 61% of the population teach in primary schools and 39% in secondary schools. Lower secondary schools were included as secondary level; after the 2017 public school system reform lower secondary schools were being phased out and as a result, starting from the year 2017 some teachers began teaching older pupils (lower secondary groups incorporated into primary schools), and some younger pupils than before (lower secondary groups incorporated into high schools). There were 515 teachers in the sample for this study, a group that almost

perfectly reflected the abovementioned gender and type of school ratios (male teachers constituted 11% of the sample, however the percentage was higher for high schools and lower for primary schools). Additionally, 90 student teachers were recruited from 18 public universities listed by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. 5 of the universities were randomly chosen using a web tool (available at https://www.random.org/). Altogether there were 605 participants in the quantitative part of the study.

3.4.5. Procedure

The questionnaire (see Appendix A) was created using online platform SSI (later rebranded and currently existing as DYNATA under https://www.dynata.com/). Due to the fact that the first platform underwent commercial changes, in later stages a different platform was used for collecting the remaining data – https://www.1ka.si/d/en. First, a list of schools with their email addresses were obtained for each voivodeship in Poland via the local educational authorities (Kuratorium Oświaty). Second, emails with the link to the questionnaire together with the researcher's university credentials and supervisor's recommendation were sent out to all schools from the previously obtained lists. As the next step, school principals distributed the emails among English teachers employed in their schools. The process of collecting data from teachers all over the country that fit the rigorous sampling requirements lasted about seven months.

3.4.6. Data analysis

Data gathered via online platforms were exported to Microsoft Excel spreadsheets, and analysed further using the newest available SPSS software (SPSS 25 and SPSS 26) for statistical analysis. In the case of Part 3 of the questionnaire where two scales were used (positively- and negatively-keyed items), the responses needed to be appropriately coded on a scale from 1 to 5. Next, descriptive statistics were conducted including normality tests, homogeneity of variance tests, and Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency of Part 3 of the questionnaire. Later, for each relevant part of the questionnaire, a one way ANOVA was conducted for each independent variable: teachers' work experience and

pupils' level of proficiency. The ANOVA tests were followed by Tukey's post-hoc tests. In cases where the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, Welch's ANOVA was conducted and followed by Games-Howell's post-hoc tests.

3.5. Results

The results of the questionnaire will be reported separately for the three main tasks. The results of task 3 will be reported for three domains: linguistic, affective, and organizational. For each task, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate the effect of independent variables (work experience and pupils' language level) on participants' responses.

3.5.1. Questionnaire task 1

As mentioned above, in Task 1 of the questionnaire participants were asked about their use of Polish for different purposes in their classroom practice, specifically how often (on a 5-point scale) they used Polish in certain teaching activities. When it comes to teachers' experience, one-way ANOVA revealed statistical differences ($p = .000$) between groups in the use of Polish in their teaching practice. Student teachers seem to use less Polish in different teaching situations (M = 3.20, SD = .689) than teachers with 6-10 years of experience (M = 3.53, SD = .664) ($p = .002$) and teachers with 11-20 years of experience (M = 3.53, SD = .568) ($p = .000$).

As far as pupils' language level is concerned, it seems that the lower the level of the group, the more Polish teachers use in their classrooms. Differences between groups were statistically significant ($p = .000$) and Tukey's post hoc showed significant differences between the pairings are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3. The results of Tukey's post hoc test for task 1 of the questionnaire, the language level variable: significant differences between the levels.

	A1 (M=3.62, SD=.615)	A2 (M=3.39, SD=.576)	B1 (M=3.42, SD=.608)	B2 (M=3.02, SD=.608)
A1 (M=3.62, SD=.615)	-------------------	(p = .002)	(p = .011)	(p = .000)
A2 (M=3.39, SD=.576)	-------------------	-------------------	-------------------	(p = .009)
B1 (M=3.42, SD=.608)	-------------------	-------------------	-------------------	(p = .003)

The lack of a significant difference between groups A2 and B1 may stem from the similarity of those levels and their frequent conflation. Overall, the frequency of the use of Polish in participants' teaching practice ranged between M = 3.00 and M = 3.62 showing their moderate, however not at all reluctant, use of Polish. The results of Part 1 are presented in Figures 6 and 7 below.
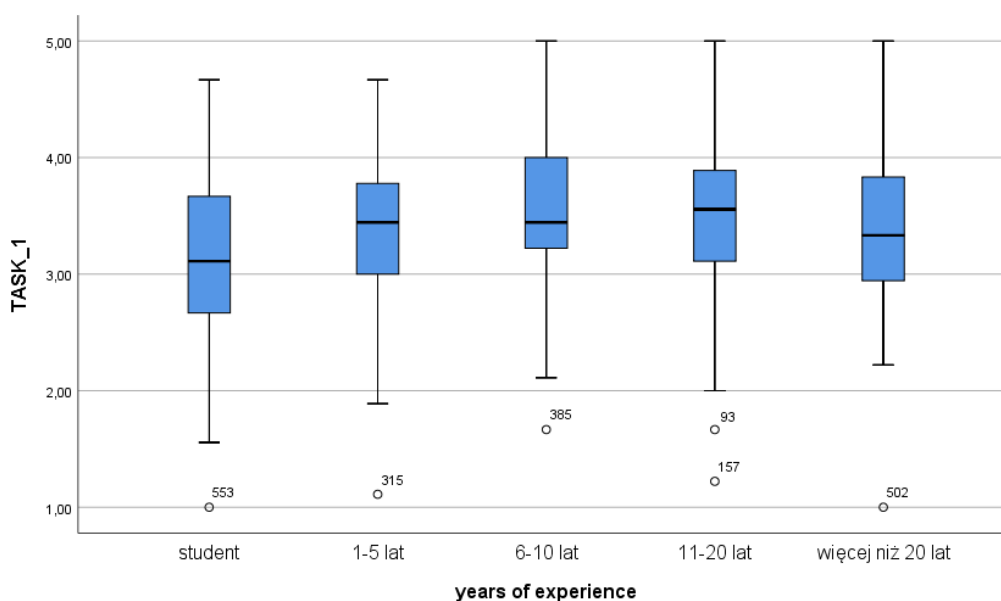

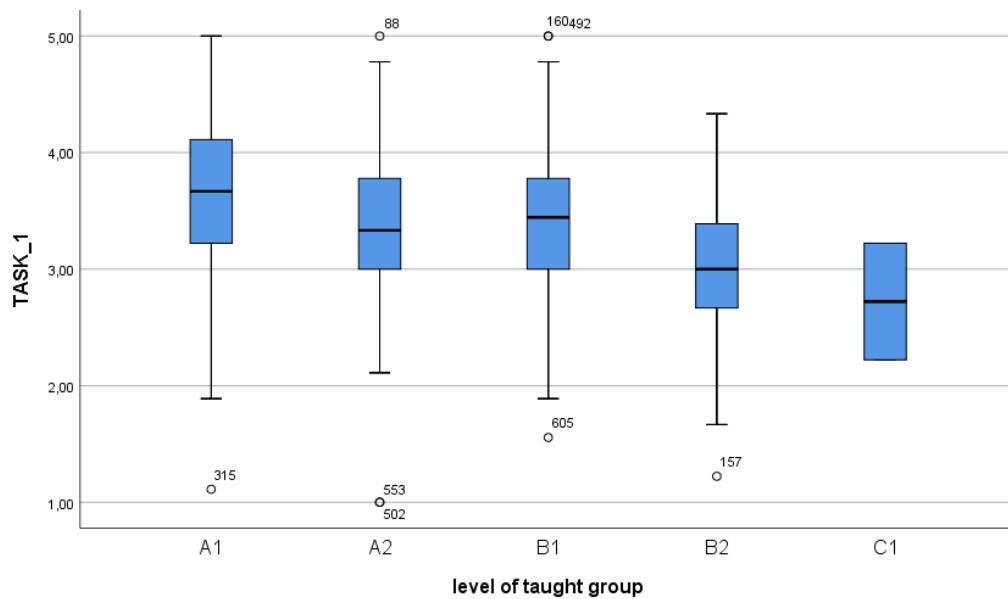Figure 6. Box plot for Task 1, variable: teachers' experience.

Figure 7. Box plot for Task 1, variable: pupils' language level.

3.5.2. Survey task 2

In Task 2 of the questionnaire, the participants were asked about homework guide-lines that they give their pupils in terms of the use of Polish and bilingual learning re-sources. Similarly to Task 1, they were asked about how often (on a 5-point scale) they encourage their students to use bilingual dictionaries at home, practice translation, watch films with Polish subtitles, use online translators and read Polish explanations of English grammar. For pupils' language level normal distribution as well as the assumption of ho-mogeneity of variance were violated, therefore Welch's ANOVA was conducted with Games-Howell's post-hoc test. As far as teachers' work experience is concerned, the dif-ferences between the groups were statistically significant ($p = .002$). Student teachers (M = 2.8, SD = .72) were significantly different ($p = .017$) than teachers with 6-11 years of experience (M = 3.14, SD = .07) and teachers with 11-20 years of experience (M = 3.16, SD = .014), ($p = .001$). The difference between student teachers and the oldest group – 20+ years of experience (M = 3.1, SD = .07) – was on the verge of statistical significance, $p = .046$ in Tukey's test and $p = .058$ in Games-Howell's test. When it comes to the second variable – pupils' level of proficiency – there were no significant differences between the groups. The means for different group levels rose from M = 2.7 for level B2 to M = 3.14 for level A1. The results of Part 2 are presented in Figures 8 and 9 below.

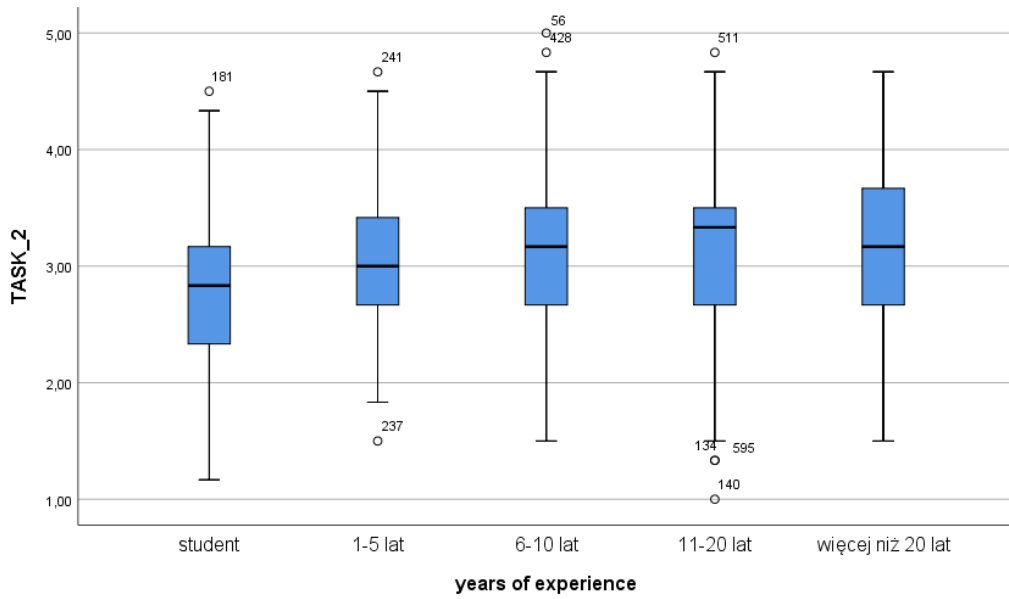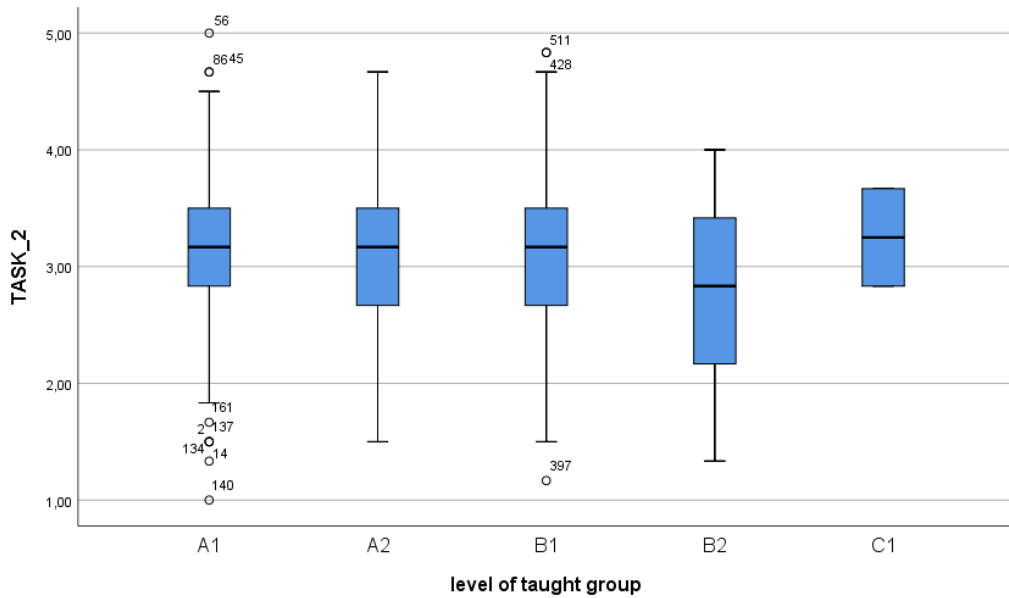Figure 8. Box plot for Task 2, variable: teachers' experience.

Figure 9. Box plot for Task 2, variable: pupils' language level.

3.5.3. Survey task 3

In contrast with Part 1 and Part 2 of the questionnaire, where participants were asked about their actual teaching practices involving the use of Polish, Part 3 aimed at investigating participants' attitudes towards own language use in three specific domains: linguistic, affective, and organizational. The ANOVA results together with selected graphs will be presented below.

3.5.3.1. The linguistic domain

The linguistic domain of Task 3 included statements regarding the use of Polish in teaching new grammar and vocabulary. A positively-keyed statement for this domain was, for example: *I believe that it is easier for pupils to learn English grammar when it's explained in Polish* or *Translating English words into Polish helps pupils understand them better*. A negatively-keyed statement for this domain was, for example: *English explanations of grammar are entirely sufficient for pupils* or *English explanations of new vocabulary are more useful to pupils than Polish translations*.

The results of the one-way ANOVA test for the linguistic domain versus teachers' work experience did not reveal any significant differences between groups, F (4,573 = .367), p = .83, η^2 = .003. As can be seen in Figure 10 below, regardless of their work experience, teachers' attitudes towards using Polish in teaching new grammar and vocabulary are overall positive, with the mean scores ranging from M = 3.52 SD = .478 for the most experienced teachers to M = 3.57, SD = .465 for teachers with 1-5 years of experience.
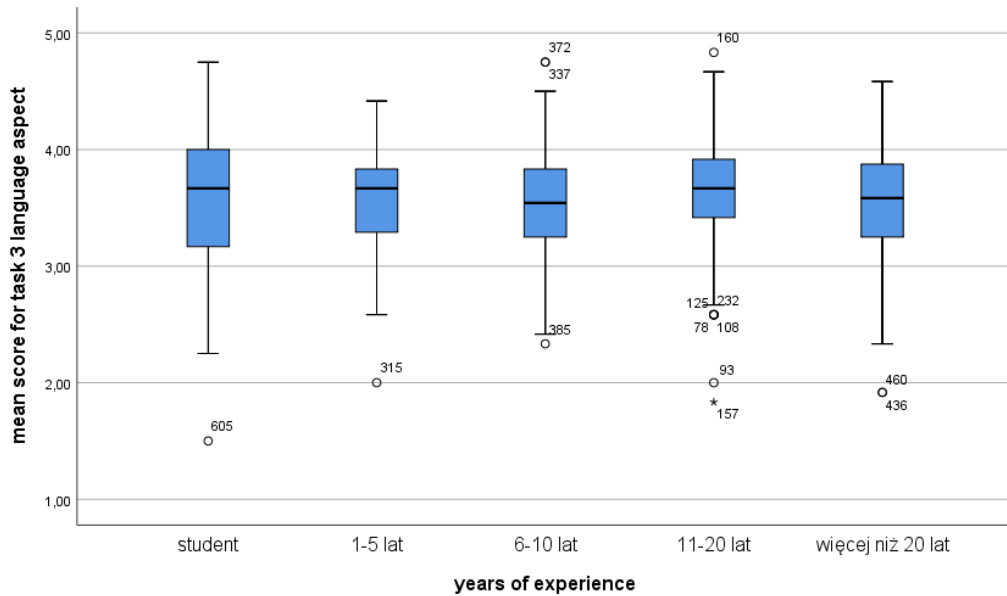
Figure 10. Box plot for Task 3 - linguistic domain vs. teachers' work experience.

Correspondingly, the results of one-way ANOVA for the linguistic domain versus pupils' language level did not reveal any significant differences between groups, F (3,572 = 2.23), p = .83, η^2 = .011. As can be seen in Figure 11 below, regardless of pupils' language level, teachers' attitudes towards using Polish in teaching new grammar and vocabulary are overall positive, with the mean score ranging from M = 3.36 SD = .651 for level B2 to M = 3.63 SD = .472 for level A2. There were only two teachers who reported teaching primarily on level C1, and thus these results were excluded from this report.
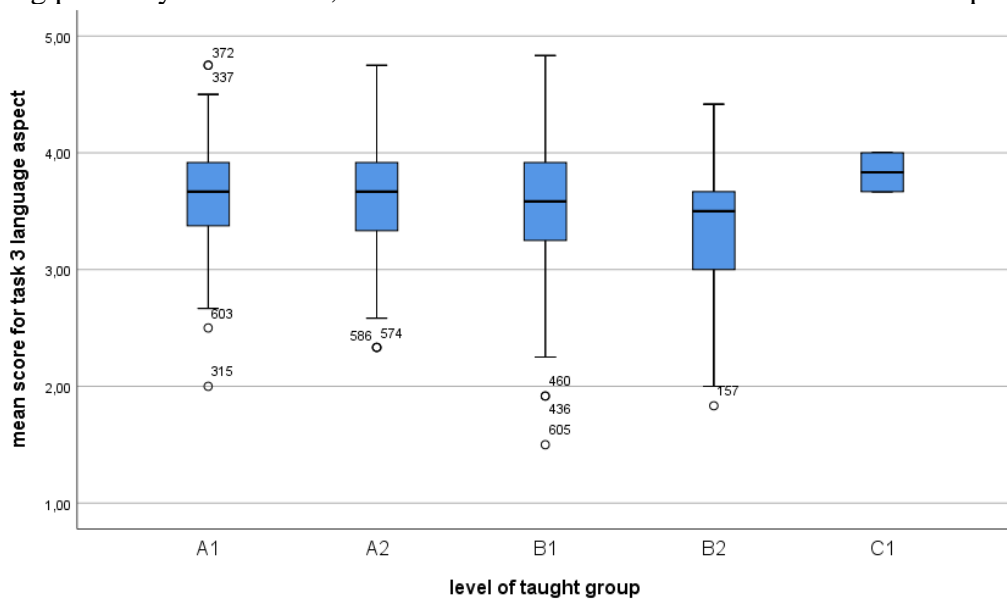
Figure 11. Box plot for Task 3 - linguistic domain versus pupils' language level.

3.5.3.2. The affective domain

The affective domain of the questionnaire's Task 3 included those of the 36 statements that pertained to teachers' comfort in their day-to-day practice, as well as all matters linked to affect: building a relationship with pupils, atmosphere in the classroom and the like. The domain included statements such as: *I would be worried if I couldn't answer pupils' questions in Polish* (as a positively-keyed item), or *Communicating with pupils exclusively in English has a positive effect on a friendly student-teacher relationship* (as a negatively-keyed item).

The results of the one-way ANOVA test for the affective domain versus teachers' work experience did not reveal any significant differences between groups, $F (4,591 = 1.56)$, $p = .19$, $\eta^2 = .01$. As can be seen in Figure 12 below, although still not negative, teachers' attitudes towards the role of Polish in building the feeling of comfort in their practice and positive relationships with their students are more reserved, with the lowest scores in the most experienced groups (20+ years of experience) M = 3.08, SD = .547, and the highest scores for the groups with 11-20 years of experience, M = 3.17, SD = .538.
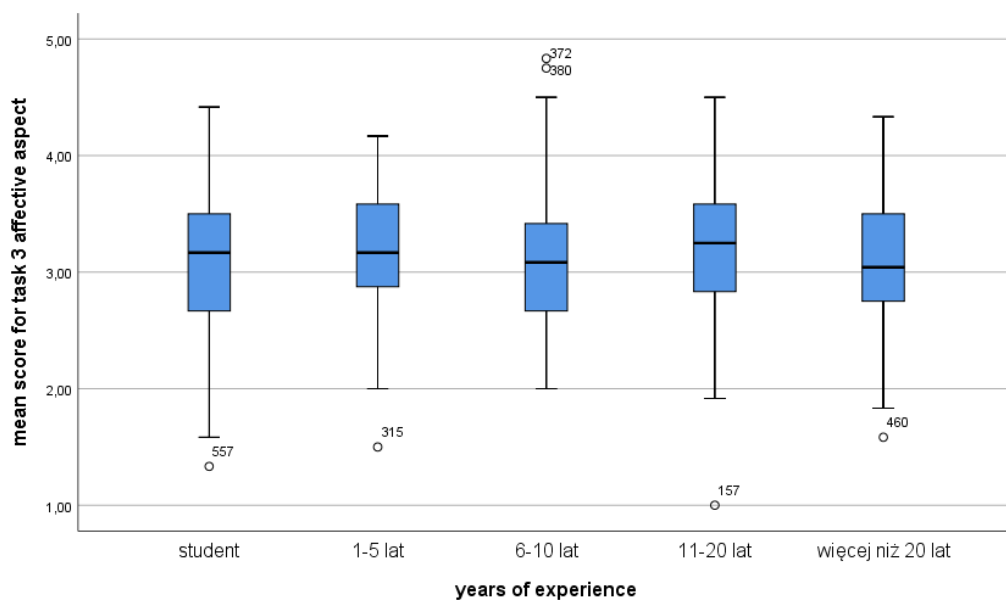
Figure 12. Box plot for Task 3 - affective domain versus teachers' experience.

In contrast to the linguistic domain (grammar and vocabulary), in the affective domain participating teachers clearly demarked the difference between the level of the taught

group and the role that Polish plays in building comfort and friendly relationships between students and teachers. The results of the one-way ANOVA for the affective domain versus language level of pupils revealed significant differences between groups (with a weak effect size), $F(4,597 = 3.51)$, $p = .008$, $\eta^2 = .023$, as illustrated in Figure 13. Polish seems to play the biggest role in establishing comfort and positive relationships with lower levels of pupils – M = 3.23, SD = .535 for level A1, and a much smaller role in more advanced groups – M = 2.85, SD = .637 for level B2. Indeed, Tukey's post-hoc test revealed that there is a significant difference, $p = .01$, between these two groups (A1 and B2). It is worth noting that the means across groups are lower for the affective domain than for the linguistic domain.
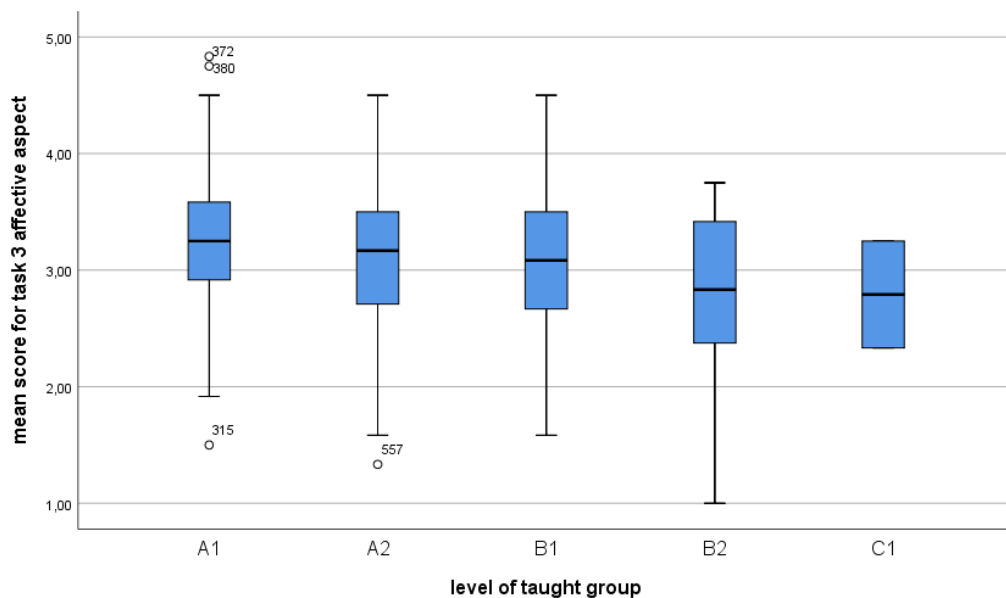
Figure 13. Box plot for Task 3 - affective domain versus pupils' language level.

3.5.3.3. The organizational domain

The third group of statements in Task 3 of the questionnaire was connected with the organizational aspects of teaching, such as grading, giving feedback, and classroom management. The following statements were included: *Polish is the language in which pupils should receive instructions* (a positively-keyed item), *Teacher's requirements should be explained in English* (a negatively-keyed item).

In this domain the assumption of the homogeneity of variance was violated, therefore, as advised by literature (Moder 2007, Moder 2010, Vogt 2005) Welch's ANOVA was conducted and afterwards Games-Howell's post-hoc test. The results of the Welch's ANOVA for the organizational domain versus teachers' work experience revealed significant differences between groups, $F(4,599 = 5.34)$, $p = .023$, $\eta^2 = .036$. As shown by Games-Howell's post-hoc test, there was a statistically significant difference ($p = .000$) between student teachers (M = 2.99, SD = .535) and teachers with 11-20 years of experience (M = 3.28, SD = .489) and between teachers with 6-10 years of experience (M = 3.10, SD = .472) and 11-20 years of experience (M = 3.28, SD = .489) ($p = .029$). The box plot for Task 3 – organizational domain versus teachers' experience is shown in Figure 14 below.
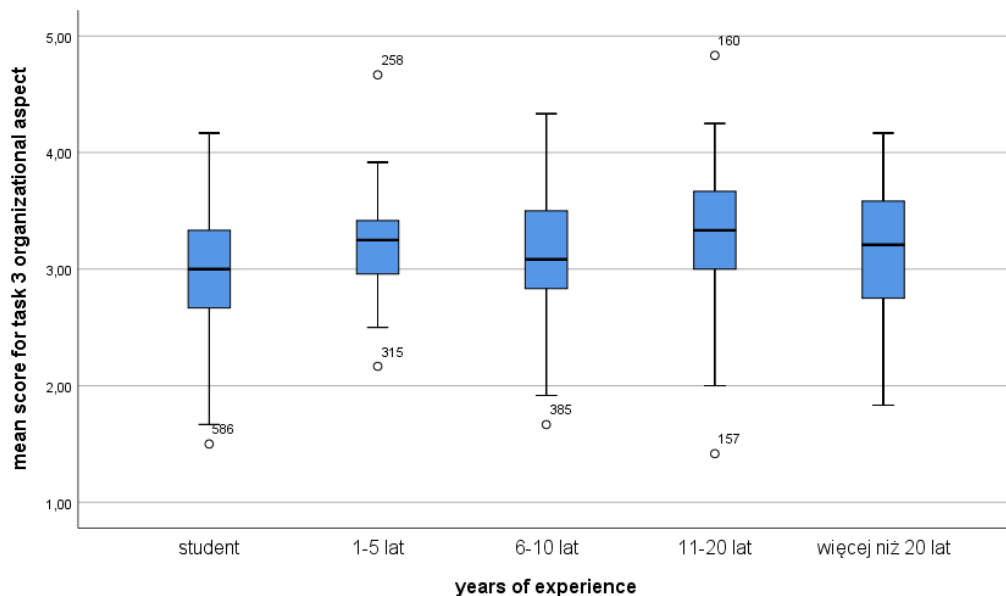
Figure 14. Box plot for Task 3 - organizational domain versus teachers' experience.

The level of the taught group has an influence on how useful teachers find Polish in the organizational layer of their teaching. Welch's ANOVA for the organizational domain versus pupils' language level revealed significant differences between groups (with a weak effect size), $F(4,599 = 5.54)$, $p = .023$, $\eta^2 = .036$. Games-Howell's post-hoc test showed significant differences between the following pairings: A1 (M = 3.23, SD = .535) x B1 (M=3.08, SD = .555) with $p = .23$, A1 (M = 3.23, SD = .535) x B2 (M = 2.85, SD = .637) with $p = .000$, and A2 (M = 3.12, SD = .552) x B2 (M = 2.85, SD = .637) with $p = .006$. The higher the level of students, the less Polish is needed to organize classroom life

and provide understandable feedback. The box plot for Task 3 – organizational domain versus pupils' language level is shown in Figure 15 below.
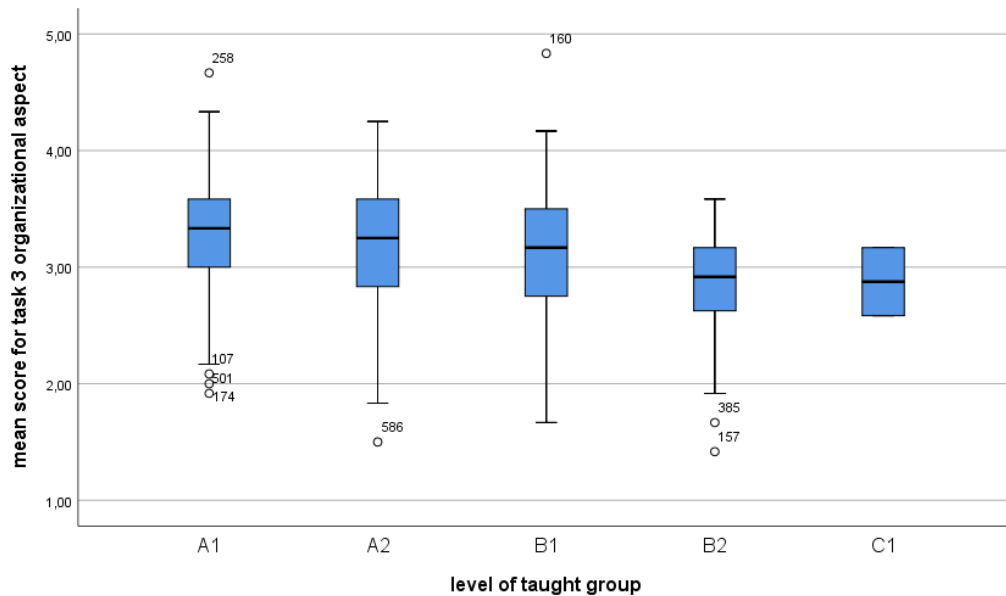
Figure 15. Box plot for Task 3 - organizational domain versus pupils' language level.

3.5.4. Part 3 of the questionnaire: further analysis

After conducting thematic analysis of the qualitative part of the study – interviews with 24 teachers and lesson observations of 10 different lessons (more information about participants, data collection and analyses will be provided in Chapter 4), a few points came to light regarding the quantitative analyses of Part 3 of the questionnaire. One of the recurring themes in the interviews was the need to differentiate between the use of Polish in teaching grammar and teaching vocabulary. To provide a relevant example, Teacher 1 says this about using Polish in teaching grammar (translation and emphasis mine):

> When it comes to teaching grammar, **I don't have a problem with using Polish in these situations**, especially with less advanced groups.

When asked about introducing new vocabulary, however, they claim that:

> Vocabulary-wise, as I said, generally we have a list of words in the course book, so we've got an English word and Polish translation and pronunciation, **I try to use very little Polish then**, but sometimes I make sure that they understand.

The same response pattern was noticed in the majority of interviews. Teacher 2 says this about teaching grammar:

> Yes, I do [use Polish] depending on the level of the group you use more or less of it, I know there are different theories about this, some say not to use Polish in the classroom at all, others say that it's OK, I personally use it, I don't know if it's good or bad but I believe that you learn grammar intuitively either way and what is really important is practicing these forms, but I would also like them to know what is what and why it is like that, **so I use, maybe even overuse, I have to admit, because Polish really dominates these lessons, at least the theoretical parts of it.** (Teacher 2)

but admits that when teaching vocabulary, they try to avoid Polish:

> I'd say, hmm, generally the first thing I do is give them a definition in English, and **we try to operate mainly, when it comes to vocabulary, to operate around English,** but again, it depends on pupils' level. (Teacher 2)

Two more examples are provided below:

> Well, generally when it comes to using Polish, it's only practical with, I try in teaching grammar, because I mostly focus on understanding more than just speaking English to the learners. **So in general regardless of the level I always try to use Polish when I teach grammar.** (Teacher 10)

> Well, mostly in part **it's enough to explain the word in English**. Some, mostly older students, prefer to get a Polish translation. (Teacher 10)

> I mean, honestly I think that **if you want to use Polish, do it when explaining grammar because I think it's good for a student to understand the concept of what is presented to him or her, so when I introduce a specific structure, for example a new tense, I do it mostly in Polish**. (Teacher 19)

> If I knew that a word is too difficult, **I tried to describe in English what it can be and give them a chance to guess, so I tried to avoid Polish in lower secondary school,** well, with 5th grade it was not possible, because they were too weak for that. (Teacher 19)

Apart from the dichotomy within the linguistic domain of Part 3 of the questionnaire, where grammar and vocabulary were grouped together in the original analysis, also when it comes to the organizational domain many teachers emphasized the need to separate the issues of grading and providing feedback from classroom management. Generally, teachers stressed the importance of providing feedback in Polish for various reasons: clarity, the requirements of the formal public education context or the need to communicate with

parents who do not always know English. Classroom management, on the other hand, seems to be the area where teachers try to avoid using Polish and emphasize the need to familiarize students with the English wording of instructions and requests. A few quotations are provided below as examples.

> **Organization-wise I would, I would divide that**, organisation in English unless the group don't understand, which happens really rarely because they, well, they have been learning so long at this stage when they come to high school that they do understand things like: 'Open the book', 'Close the window', 'Turn on the light', I don't know, 'Put that sandwich back in your bag', these are not difficult instructions (…). **For grading**, for example when somebody is taking a mock oral exam, like the Matura (…) **I give them feedback in Polish**. (Teacher 1)

> (...) Because generally, **perhaps because it's like that in the exam, later when the official part's over and the results are announced in Polish** (…) although for more advanced groups, I think, it wouldn't make a difference if I tell them something in Polish or in English. (Teacher 1)

About feedback and assessment:

> I'll say that: I've got one group that is very advanced and I can give them the whole feedback in English and they will understand everything, but **the majority at this educational stage, in lower secondary school and in primary school, formative assessment is best conducted in Polish. I need to be sure that the message is clear and the rules of formative assessment require a very clear message.** (Teacher 2)

About classroom management and organization:

> (…) you can physically show them, I even have this shtick, in the weakest groups there will always be one savvy pupil and he or she is a translator. **I go on in English all the time, instructions, everything**. (Teacher 2)

Due to this apparent dissonance within the linguistic and organizational domains, it seemed necessary to conduct new ANOVA tests for Task 3 of the questionnaire, separating the results regarding grammar, vocabulary, assessment, and classroom organization in order to see whether these analyses will offer new answers and insights.

3.5.4.1. Grammar

The results of the one-way ANOVA tests conducted separately for grammar correspond with the results obtained for the linguistic domain as a whole (see section

1.5.3.1). As shown in Figures 16 and 17 below, there were no significant differences between groups, neither for the work experience variable nor for the language level variable. Once again, regardless of their work experience and pupils' language level, teachers' attitudes towards the use of Polish in grammar teaching were positive, with means ranging between 3.5 and 4 points. Even though fairly positive, the attitudes expressed in the questionnaire were still more moderate than those expressed in the interviews, where teachers unanimously argued for own language use in grammar instruction (more details in Chapter 4).
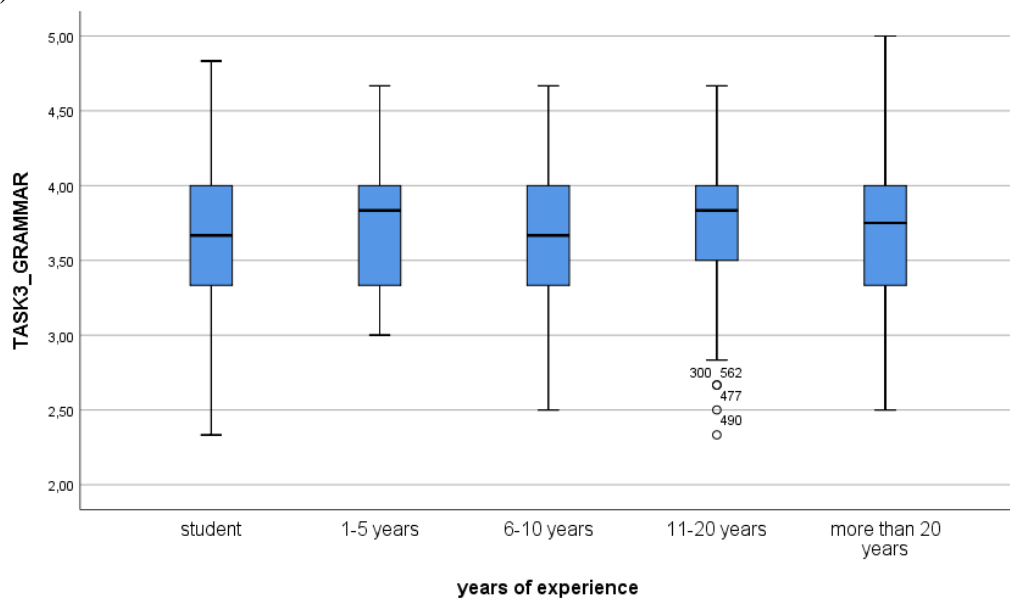
Figure 16. Box plot for Task 3 – grammar versus teachers' work experience.
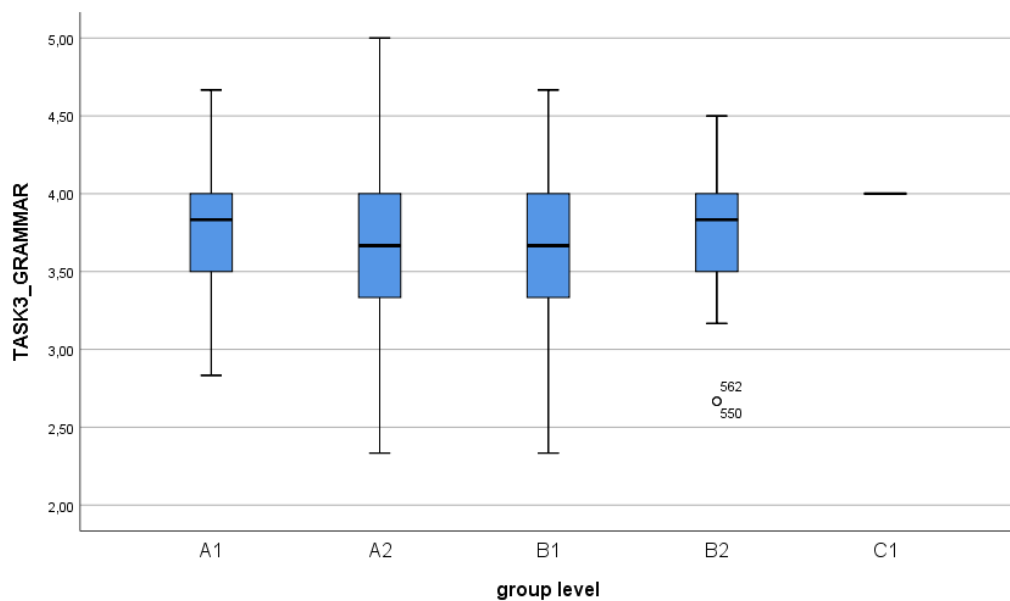
Figure 17. Box plot for Task 3 – grammar versus pupils' language level.

3.5.4.2. Vocabulary

Similarly, the results of the Welch's ANOVA conducted separately for vocabulary also agree with the results obtained for the linguistic domain as a whole (see section 1.5.3.1). A shown in Figures 18 and 19, there were no significant differences between groups, neither for the work experience variable nor for the language level variable. Teachers' general attitudes towards the use of Polish in vocabulary teaching were positive, with means ranging between 3.5 and 3.7 points. Comparing the graphs regarding grammar and vocabulary separately however, reveals, as expected, that teachers have a slightly more accepting attitude towards using Polish in grammar instruction than in vocabulary teaching. This was investigated further in lesson observations.
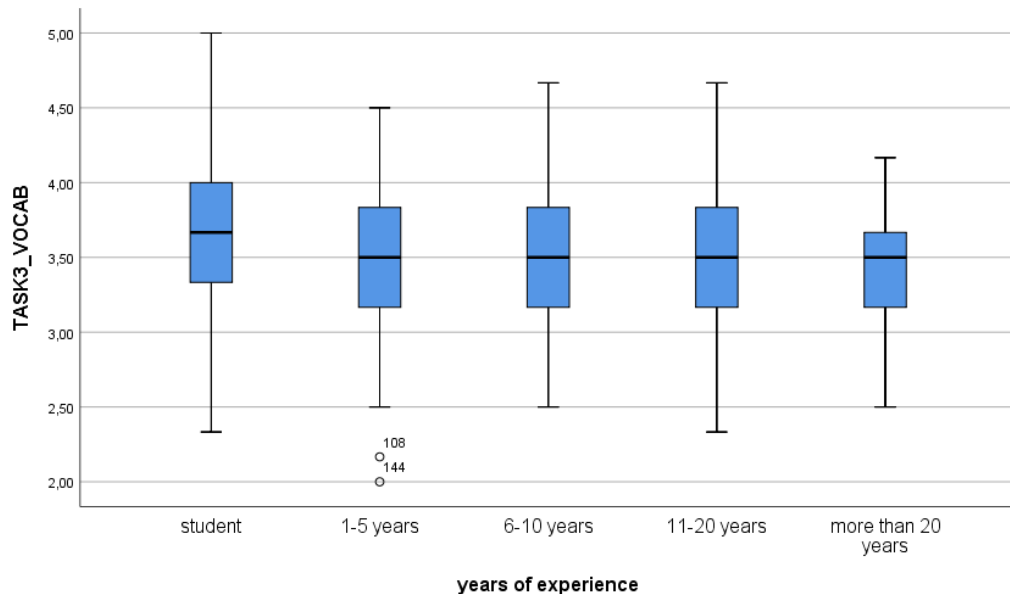
Figure 18. Box plot for Task 3 – vocabulary versus teachers' work experience.
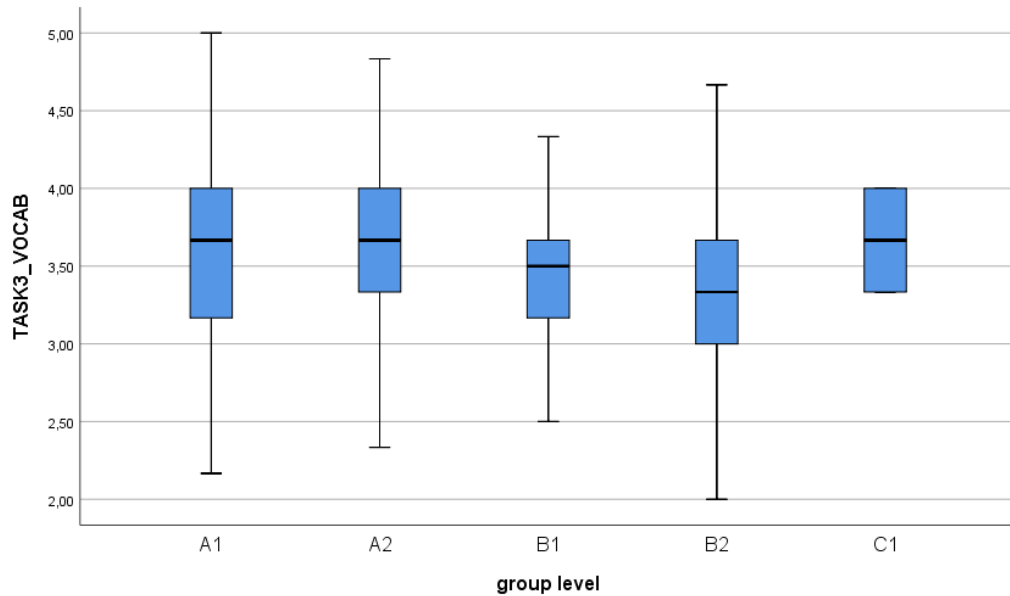
Figure 19. Box plot for Task 3 – vocabulary versus pupils' language level.

3.5.4.3. Classroom organization

First analyses for the organizational domain of Task 3, where classroom organization and grading were grouped together, revealed significant differences between student teachers and teachers with less experience, and teachers with 20+ years of experience (see Figure 20 below). They also clearly indicated that the need for Polish in organizational matters is inversely proportional to the level of students (see section 1.5.3.3). However, the only significant difference in terms of teachers' work experience uncovered by further analyses conducted for classroom organization alone was between student teachers (M = 2.7, SD = 0.7) and teachers with 11-20 years of experience (M = 2.9, SD = 0.38), p =.015 (see Figure 21 below). When it comes to students' language level, the results from previous tests for this domain have been confirmed and statistical differences were revealed for all pairings (p = .000) – the more advanced the students, the lower the mean. The results are illustrated in the graphs below.
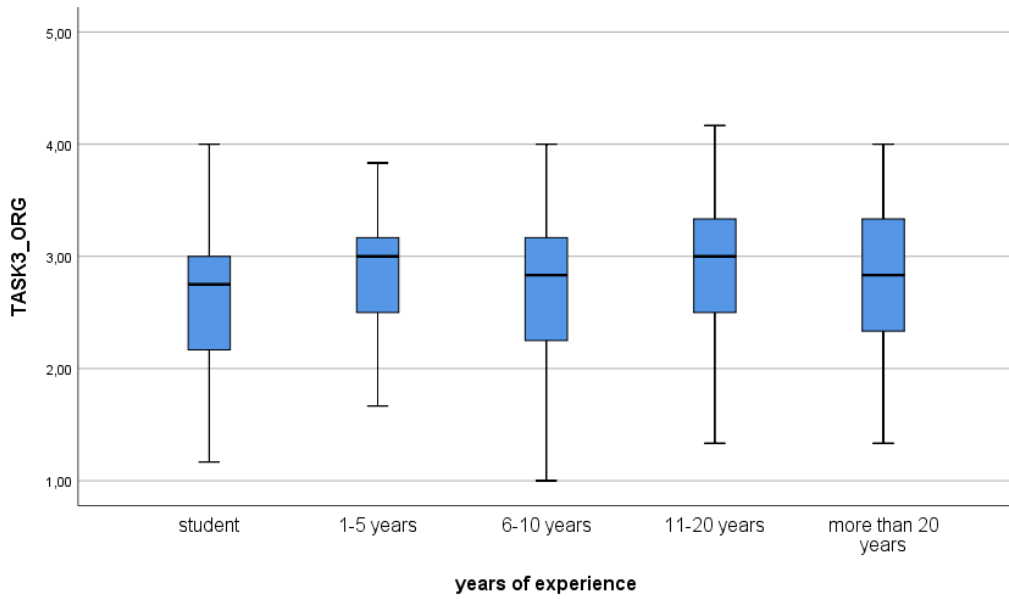
Figure 20. Box plot for Task 3 – classroom organization versus teachers' work experience.
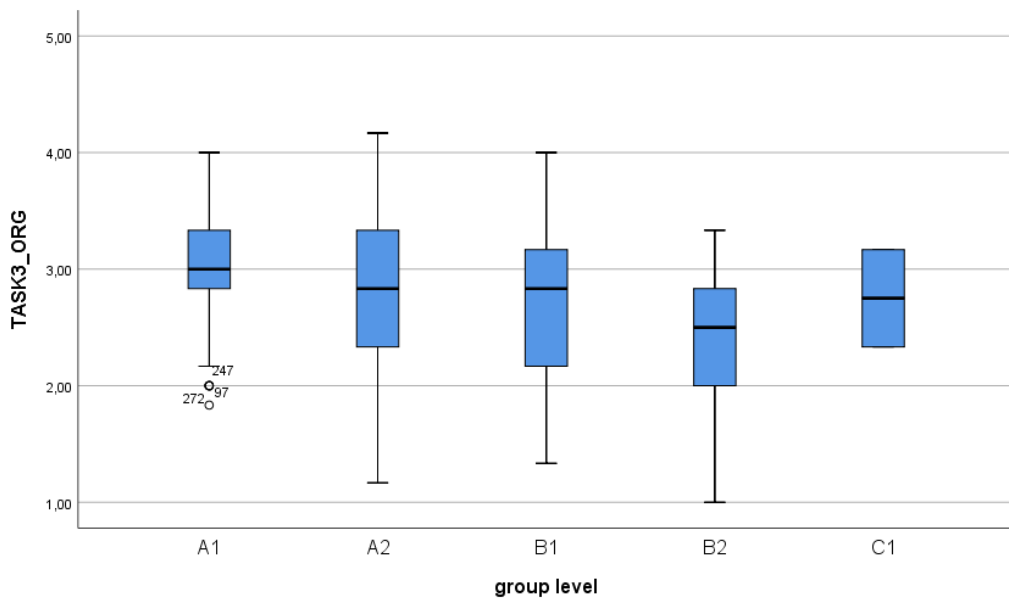
Figure 21. Box plot for Task 3 – classroom organization versus pupils' language level.

3.5.4.4. Grading

The results obtained for grading alone were slightly different than the results for classroom organization. Again, there was a significant difference between student teachers (M = 3.2, SD = 0.68) and teachers with 11-20 years of experience (M =3.63, SD =

0.32), (p = .000), but teachers with 6-10 years of experience (M =3.4, SD = 0.53) were also significantly different than teachers with 11-20 years of experience. It seems that when it comes to grading and giving feedback to students in Polish, teachers' views fluctuate over time, as illustrated in Figure 22 below. Surprisingly still and contrary to organization alone, there were no significant differences between groups when it comes to students' level (see Figure 23 below). Teachers' attitudes to giving feedback and grading students in Polish oscillate around 3.5 points across all levels, which, in comparison with classroom organization and management, seems like a more unanimous and positive vote.
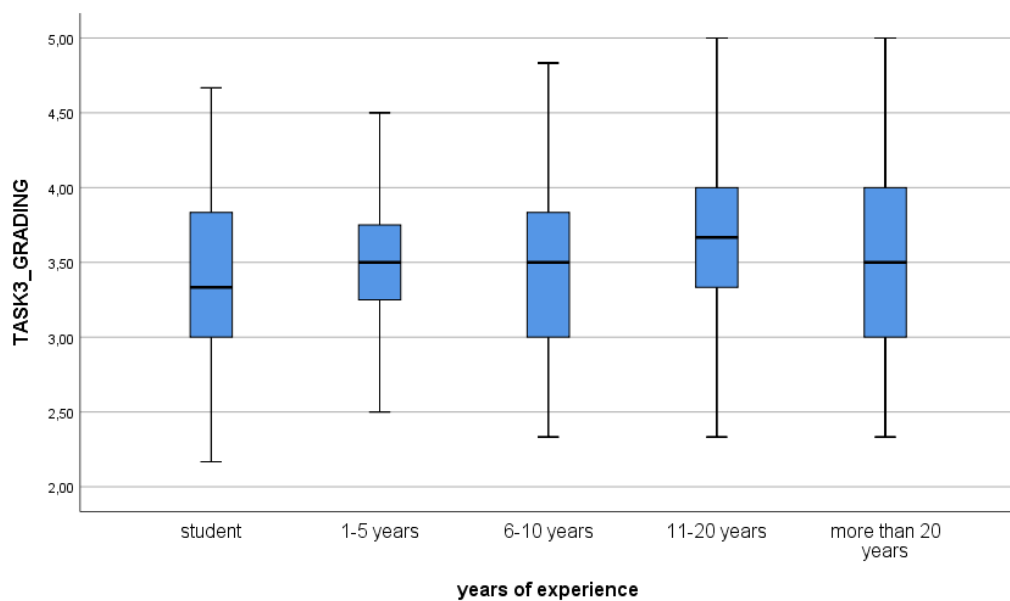

Figure 22. Box plot for Task 3 – grading versus teachers' work experience.
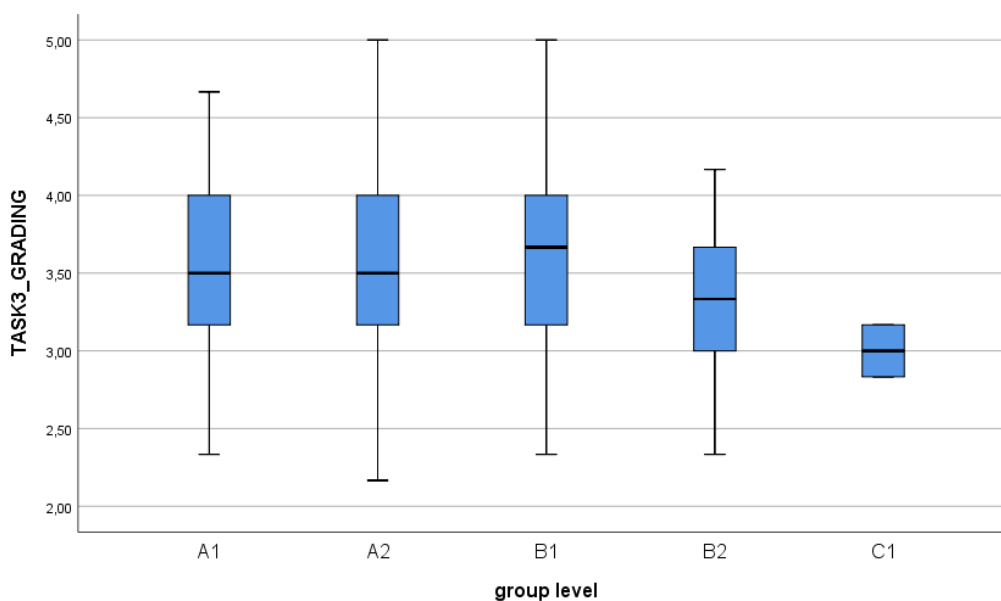
Figure 23. Box plot for Task 3 – grading versus pupils' language level.

3.6. The questionnaire: summary of results and matters for further qualitative inquiry

The aim of the following section is to synthesize the results obtained from the questionnaire and outline some of the observed patterns in order to verify the hypotheses and answer quantitative research questions. Directions for further qualitative investigation will also be provided.

Task 1 of the questionnaire looked into teachers' classroom practices in terms of the use of Polish. The results of this task answer Research Questions 1 and 4 and partially confirm both hypotheses. Overall, it has been revealed that teachers are not reluctant to use Polish in their classrooms and evaluate it as a useful tool in their teaching. However, it has been found that student teachers are significantly different than teachers with 6+ years of experience with respect to using Polish in their teaching. Clearly, they seem unsure of the place of Polish in the classroom and are stricter about the monolingual principle in comparison with their experienced colleagues. In terms of the second variable – students' language level – the results show that the lower the level of students, the more present Polish is in the classrooms, which is an issue worth verifying during lesson observations.

Task 2 of the questionnaire inspected the kind of advice for home study that teachers give their pupils. The results of this task answer Research Questions 2 and 5 and partially confirm the first hypothesis. The purpose of this task was to establish to what extend teachers believe that bilingual language learning resources are useful in their pupils' home study. The results concerning teachers' work experience revealed the same pattern as in Task 1 – student teachers differ from their more experienced (6+ years) colleagues and seem to value Polish as a teaching and learning resource less than practicing teachers both inside and outside of the classroom. Interestingly, there were no significant differences between groups in terms of language level with slightly more positive responses for less advanced groups.

In Task 3 teachers expressed their attitudes towards using Polish in different domain of teaching English as a foreign language. The results of this task answer Research Questions 3 and 6 and partially confirm both hypotheses. In the first, linguistic domain (grammar and vocabulary instruction), no significant differences were revealed for either of the variables. Regardless of their work experience or the level of taught group, teachers expressed positive attitudes about using Polish in their teaching with means ranging from 3 to 4 points on a 5-point Likers scale. Further, more detailed analyses, where grammar was separated from vocabulary, revealed that teachers consider Polish more useful in grammar instruction than in presenting new vocabulary. This is another issue worth investigating during lesson observations. In the second domain pertaining to affect (relationship with students and teachers' comfort) it has been found that in general teachers feel comfortable using just English in their classrooms and their attitude towards the role of Polish in establishing good relationship with their students is moderate. In the affective domain Polish seems to play a more important role in less advanced groups and has no place in more advanced classrooms. At this stage it may be concluded that Polish plays a more important role in language instruction than in establishing relationships with students and providing comfort to teachers. In the third, organizational domain (classroom organization and grading) of Task 3 statistical tests once again uncovered differences between student teachers and younger teachers, and teachers with 20+ years of experience. It seems that the oldest group of teachers uses the most Polish for organizational matters and grading, which might pertain to the kind of TEFL education they received. When it comes to the level of students, according to the analyses the higher the level of a group the lower their need for Polish in the

organizational matters. Further analyses where the domain was divided into strictly organizational matters and grading plus feedback revealed an interesting dichotomy within this domain. The results for classroom organization and management alone resembled the results for the whole domain (more Polish used by older teachers and with less advanced groups). However, when extracted from the whole domain, the use of Polish in grading and providing feedback was unanimously regarded as useful across levels (no differences between groups). The attitudes fluctuated across work experience, though.

Drawing preliminary conclusions from the quantitative part of the study, it can be said that Polish teachers' practices and attitudes towards using Polish in their teaching are positive, but there is some hesitancy present. Hypothesis 1 has been partially supported – teachers with different work experience were not as different from each other as expected. However, interesting patterns came to light regarding the rift between young student teachers and those who have just started their professional journey, and the already practicing teachers. Hypothesis 2 was fully supported, as across the questionnaire tasks it has been shown that the lower the level of students the more Polish is used in the classrooms and the more it is accepted as a methodological tool.

Naturally, all the abovementioned conclusions are worth investigating in the qualitative part of the study by conducting a thorough thematic analysis of interviews and lesson observations. It is especially interesting to investigate the matter of the grammar versus vocabulary dichotomy and the issue of grading and feedback. What is more, an interesting pattern has been brought to light concerning the differences between student teachers and the older generation of teacher. These differences inspired a follow-up study of sorts, namely a set of interviews with academic teachers from EFL teaching programmes at leading Polish universities. The results of these conversations about how young teachers are currently educated about the matters concerning own language use in TEFL will be provided in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Qualitative data analysis: interviews and lesson observations

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the qualitative part of the study. Section 4.2. will briefly describe thematic analysis as a method of qualitative data analysis – the opportunities and challenges that it presents to the researcher. Qualitative research questions will be listed in section 4.3. Section 4.4 will discuss interviews with teachers: the structure of the interviews, participants, and data collection process, as well as the results of the analysis. Finally, section 4.5 will present the participants, the data collection process and results of the analysis of lesson observations carried out as the second step of the qualitative part of the study.

4.2 Thematic analysis as a method of qualitative analysis

In their 2006 comprehensive paper on thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke argue that although "poorly demarcated and rarely acknowledged", thematic analysis is actually "a foundational method for qualitative analysis" (Braun and Clarke 2006: 78). They also argue that thematic analysis should be regarded as an autonomous research method and not, as claimed by e.g. Boyatzis (1998) or Ryan and Bernard (2000), a mere tool or process applied within different methods of analysis. Contrary to conversation analysis (CA), interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), grounded theory, discourse analysis or narrative analysis – thematic analysis is not bound to one particular epistemological position or one specific theoretical framework or model. Instead, it is congruent with both essentialist and constructionist standpoints and its flexibility allows for a broad-spectrum and in-depth insight into data (Braun and Clarke 2006). The flexibility of thematic analysis is sometimes considered as its weakness in as much as "there is no clear agreement about what thematic analysis is and how you go about doing it" (Braun and Clarke 2006: 79). Indeed, as demonstrated by Braun and Clarke, many papers are not entirely transparent about the premises or details of thematic analysis done

on their data sets, nor do they explicitly describe the steps involved in the said analysis (also in Attride-Stirling, 2001). This not only makes it hard to formulate an opinion about research methodology employed in a particular study but also to place such research in a larger framework of other research done on that topic by comparing or replicating it. Another common problem with how the results of thematic analyses are reported, according to Braun and Clarke (2006: 80), an apparent lack of agency on the part of the researcher. Themes tend to 'emerge' from the data or 'be discovered' in it, instead of being actively found, identified or selected by the researcher consciously and purposefully in the analysis. Support for such attitude to qualitative data treatment can be found e.g. in Fine 2002, who claims that it is enough to 'give voice' to participants. Braun and Clarke (2006: 80), however, albeit not postulating one perfect method for carrying out qualitative research, still emphasize the need for researchers to be conscious of their decision-making process and to describe it explicitly in the method section. Additionally, although, as previously mentioned, thematic analysis is epistemologically flexible, Braun and Clarke also stress that it is important for researchers to state which theoretical framework they subscribe to, and therefore build their presumptions on, in their qualitative analysis, be it the essentialist, constructionist or contextualist approach. For the purpose of this study, the essentialist/realist approach to data was taken, where "a simple, largely unidirectional relationship is assumed between meaning and experience and language (language reflects and enables us to articulate meaning and experience)" (Braun and Clarke 2006: 85) and the analysis focuses on semantic rather than latent themes.

It is generally assumed that thematic analysis should be guided by qualitative research questions (which do not overlap with the actual interview questions) and involves browsing across a data set following a number of steps (Braun and Clarke 2006). The said steps require subsequently: dividing the text into smaller chunks, initial/open coding, organising and assigning codes to larger categories (focused/analytic coding) and then identifying overarching themes (axial/thematic coding) (Braun and Clarke 2006, Brown 2014, Cohen et al. 2011, Creswell 2013, Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, Kiczkowiak 2018, Saldana 2009). Coding is an inductive, data-driven process (Cohen et al. 2011, Mackey and Gas 2005). It is important to add that the analysis is not linear – "Instead, it is a more recursive process, where movement is back and forth as needed, throughout the phases" (Braun and Clarke 2006: 86).

A process that, as noticed by Braun and Clarke 2006, Bird 2005, Dornyei 2007, Riessman 1993 and many others, begins with verbal data transcription, which gives the researcher an opportunity to delve into the data and already notice budding themes and patterns, and even begin interpretation. As far as the present study is concerned, the researcher was the only interviewer and lesson observer, and therefore the process of noticing themes and patterns in participants' answers started at an even earlier stage of conducting interviews and lesson observations and continued later on at the stage of transcription and transcription verification (all the data were transcribed and later verified against the original recordings by both the researcher and another transcriber). The used codes were not pre-given, but generated inductively, which increases the validity of the study. Initial codes, themes and revised themes were generated for each qualitative research question with the sample divided into five groups according to work experience. The codes and transcriptions were then relayed to priorly trained Coder 2, who searched for the same codes and themes in the transcribed interviews and added new codes if needed. Later, Coder 1 and Coder 2 convened and compared their coded transcriptions to clear any possible confusion. To assure the inter-rater reliability of the coding, Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (Pearson's r) was calculated for each batch of coded fragments responding to a given research question. In all cases there was either a strong or moderate positive correlation between the number of utterances assigned to each code by Coder 1 and the number of utterances assigned to each code by Coder 2 (RQ1: r (58) = .93, $p < .00$; RQ2: r (28) .83 = .00, $p < .00$; RQ3: r (51) = .63, $p < .00$).

4.3 Qualitative research questions

In line with the underpinnings of the quantitative part of the study and on the basis of the results obtained from the questionnaire, three qualitative research questions and one mixed research question were formulated for interviews and lesson observations:

Qualitative:
1. How do teachers with different work experience use their native language in the classroom?

2. How do teachers use their native language with students on different proficiency levels?

3. How do teachers with different work experience describe their attitudes towards the role of native language in English instruction?

Mixed:

1. How do interviews and lesson observations help to explain any quantitative differences in those teachers' (reported) native language use in the classroom and their attitudes towards the role of the native language in English instruction?

4.4 Interviews

4.4.1 Structure, sample, and data collection process

The interviews were semi-structured and conducted in Polish. The conversations revolved around nine general questions and included follow-up questions and questions for clarification. The teachers were welcome to digress if they wished to as well as freely discuss examples and classroom situations. The questions are listed below:

1. Do you use Polish when you teach English grammar? Provide examples if possible.

2. Do you use Polish when you teach English vocabulary? Provide examples if possible.

3. Do you use Polish to organize life in the classroom or grade students?

4. Does the level of the group play a role in how often and in what situations you use Polish in your teaching?

5. Do you feel comfortable conducting lessons only in English?

6. Has your attitude to using Polish in the classroom changed in the course of your teaching career?

7. Did you talk about own language use in EFL teaching during your teacher training? If yes, was it put in a positive or negative light?

8. What is the biggest benefit of using Polish in the classroom?
9. What is the biggest danger of using Polish in the classroom?

Altogether 24 EFL teachers participated in the interviews. All interviewed teachers were recruited from the group who had previously completed the questionnaire in Part 1 of the study. The teachers were contacted via the email addresses they had provided at the end of the questionnaire. 24 teachers responded and agreed to participate in the interviews. From this group, 10 teachers additionally consented to having their lessons observed as the next stage of the study. The make-up of the interviewed group reflected the gender and work experience structure of the EFL teaching profession in Poland accurately, with 17 female and 7 male participants (71% female participants). As far as their teaching experience is concerned, referring back to the division proposed in the questionnaire, the sample consisted of 5 student teachers (21%), 4 teachers with 1-5 years of experience (17%), 4 teachers with 6-10 years of experience (17%), 7 teachers with 11-20 years of experience (29%) and 4 teachers with more than 20 years of experience (16%). 10 teachers (42%) reported teaching mostly A1-A2 level (primary school and junior high school), 9 teachers (38%) reported teaching A2-B2 levels (high school, vocational school), and 5 teachers (20%) reported teaching all levels of students.

Gathering qualitative data poses a number of ethical issues concerning the anonymity of participants (Cohen 2011). It is of utmost importance to inform participants of the purpose of the study, their role in it, as well as how and where the results of the study will be published or presented. Every stage of the study was conducted adhering to the BERA (2011) ethical guidelines. There are a number of ways in which breaking the anonymity of participants could result in negative consequences for their careers or professional reputation (Mackey and Gass 2005) and therefore throughout the course of the study teachers were assured of their anonymity. While this is much easier done with the quantitative part of the study, where questionnaire answers became coded numbers and teachers provided their email addresses exclusively out of their own volition, gathering quantitative data requires not only a certain amount of trust on the side of the participants, but also specific steps undertaken by the researcher in order to fully inform the participants of how the data would be transcribed, coded, and presented. Before taking part in interviews each participant read and signed an informed consent form

(see Appendix B) where they acknowledged having been informed about the procedure and aims of the study, as well as about their anonymity and freedom to resign from their participation at any given time. The consent form was obtained from the Language and Communication Laboratory at the Faculty of English, Adam Mickiewicz University, and is habitually used by the Laboratory employees and Faculty researchers. The participants were also informed that the transcriptions of their interviews would be made available to them upon request and that they would be sent an electronic copy of the thesis or any related publications if they wished to get acquainted with the results and conclusions of the study of which they were a vital part.

The interviews were conducted and recorded by the researcher herself: in person, when possible, or via Skype. Next, the content was transcribed (see an example in Appendix C) and reviewed by the researcher and another transcriber who was not otherwise involved with the study to ensure accuracy and objectivity. Interviews were then analysed using the 20.0.5. version of MAQDA Plus 2020 software.

4.4.2 Question- based thematic analysis

As described in section 4.2, thematic analysis is not linear and requires a number of steps: transcription, dividing the text into smaller fragments, identifying initial codes and grouping them into larger themes. The aim of the following section is to answer three qualitative research questions and one mixed research question listed in section 4.3 by pinpointing the overarching themes across the interviews. In reporting themes identified for each qualitative research question, the mixed research question will be answered by making simultaneous references to quantitative results and drawing parallels between the results of the two parts of the study.

The first qualitative research question (RQ1) investigates the possible relation between teachers' work experience and how they use Polish in their classrooms. First, teachers' answers to questions 1, 2 and 3 of the interviews were analysed, as those questions asked directly about everyday use of Polish in participants' classrooms. However, bits and pieces of material regarding RQ1 appeared in different parts of the interviews as well, therefore, after analysing questions 1, 2 and 3, the researcher also looked for the themes in different sections of the interviews. This method is in line

with available literature on thematic analysis: the research questions should be broader than the interview questions and not overlap with them, and the analysis is a recursive process, requiring going back and forth in the material (Braun and Clarke 2006, Brown 2014, Cohen et al. 2011, Creswell 2013, Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, Kiczkowiak 2018, Saldana 2009).

First and foremost, it needs to be said that all the interviewed teachers, regardless of their teaching experience and age, unanimously admit that they do use Polish in their classrooms. Across groups with different work experience Polish is used to make students understand new language: the most frequently recurring theme in all interviews was the linguistic one. Polish is used to make students focus on the meaning and use of the presented new language by explaining grammar rules and terminology, providing examples, and, less often, to translate new vocabulary, especially abstract words. The usefulness of Polish is considerably more pronounced in teaching grammar than vocabulary and skills.

> (...) because I think the student should understand the very concept of what is presented to them, so if I introduce a new structure, or a new tense, I do it mostly in Polish. (Teacher 19, student teacher)

> (...) the terms such as 'verb', 'noun', or even in some games when it is about a specific word, these terms are [provided] in Polish. (Teacher 21, 2 years of experience)

> So, I try to use as much English as possible but when it comes to grammatical intricacies, and especially when it's difficult grammar, I admit I switch to Polish because it's faster, easier, it takes, I don't know, maybe it doesn't take less time but it's like, for the student it is, it seems to me, easier. (Teacher 5, 10 years of experience)

> (…) but sometimes I make sure that they understand, so for example when I'm conducting a lesson and we have vocabulary exercises, reading, listening, then I just ask them, right? What does it mean? I mean, I'm not saying that I'm asking them in Polish, for example 'What does it mean?' and something, and then when somebody from the group knows, then it's cool, and if not, then I explain it to them and they figure it out. (Teacher 1, 12 years of experience)

> Avoiding Polish completely happens very rarely. If we try to do it, like I do, like I have had a couple of times in my life when I had more quick-witted groups, on higher level, and I thought transfer of knowledge would be faster in English, it actually turns out that Polish is useful when we need to explain grammar, so Polish is useful in explaining. (Teacher 4, 23 years of experience)

> I think mostly when it's about abstract words, because sometimes I don't know, reading a definition of a word that I see for the first time, OK, I understand what this word is about but it's like, I can't find a perfect, one hundred percent accurate Polish equivalent,

so then I look for a Polish translation myself. So it seems that students also have this problem. Not every definition is easy, not every word is like, especially the abstract ones are harder, and it's like providing this Polish equivalent you momentarily understand the meaning, and that's what it is all about. (Teacher 5, 10 years of experience)

A few teachers also reported comparing English and Polish grammar when presenting new material, using different techniques:

Comparing with Polish, in order to make students aware that languages are different, have completely different, because a student is like a walking Google Translate, I mean they think that everything can be translated word for word. They don't care that grammar also influences meaning, significantly, especially in English. So they need to be made aware and I don't think that comparing tenses and languages is wrong. The only thing you need to remember is to keep the proportions, because I can give them a lecture in linguistics but what it's really about is to make them understand more, what tenses are all about, why we, in what contexts we use them, and then we practice, practice, practice in English. (Teacher 2, 8 years of experience)

And there was this, it was about this sneaky thing that in English we have 'I wish you had done something' and in Polish we say 'It's a shame I didn't do it' [Szkoda, że nie zrobiłem], this is the difference in how you approach this sentence. (Teacher 17, student teacher)

And sometimes it's very useful to compare a structure in Polish and in English, then it [using Polish] is definitely useful. (Teacher 15, 25 years of experience)

And to make it really hit home, make a student really understand that it's different in their language and it's different in our language, it's essential to explain that in Polish, so 'Jak stary jesteś ty?' ['How old are you?' translated word for word]. And I always ask: 'Now, Dominika, try to translate'. 'I know, I know'. But now try to read it literally. 'But what does it mean literally?' 'Word for word.' I even draw lines under the right words for them, right? (Teacher 9, 25 years of experience)

Classroom organization and management rank second when it comes to frequently recurring themes. Teachers across groups use Polish to establish classroom rules and maintain discipline:

Once, I wanted to present them with the rules of working with me, so then I spoke Polish to avoid inaccuracies such as, for example that they have three warnings and after the third warning the whole class will suffer the consequences, that, for example, they will have an extra homework if someone is especially naughty, I did that in Polish because I wanted it to be clear what they can and can't do, what I expect of them. (Teacher 19, student teacher)

(…) or that the instruction is really complicated in a specific case, for example with older students I remember that Polish was useful when I explained the rules of a game to them, which was full of various rules, sub-rules, little intricacies, to draw their attention to them you use Polish to make a game just flow. Obviously, the game itself is in English, but it was much smoother and faster and there weren't any situations when somebody didn't

> understand something because they didn't understand the instruction when they were especially complicated. (Teacher 19, student teacher)

> I also mix [languages], both in primary school and in lower secondary school, because, the group is not always focused enough to do everything in English. It's very often like, I start conducting the lesson in English, and then for example, there is some kind of event in school, especially in primary school, with younger children, there is chaos in the classroom, because something happened, for example and they get very emotional and excited so when somebody, for example, drops their cup of milk or something, it immediately turns into drama, so then I switch to Polish to keep the discipline. (Teacher 7, 1 year of experience)

Talking about grading:

> In Polish, because I want everything to be clear for them, what they need to work on. I don't want to think that I explained something, told them about everything, and then this student, who does not understand everything, it will allow them to think about it once again and say that maybe they did not know why they got this particular grade. (Teacher 12, 8 years of experience)

> In my opinion, I think most of English lessons are conducted in Polish and it pertains to both lesson organization and presenting new subjects. (Teacher 15, 25 years of experience)

It is important to observe that, even though Polish is used to present new language, clarify rules and organize classroom life by all groups of the interviewed teachers, its use seems to be motivated by a range of factors different for younger teachers and for the more experienced ones. Student teachers when reflecting on their need to use Polish often admit that it helps them manage big groups of students and maintain discipline; they use Polish to take the lead, establish themselves.

> (..) there were almost thirty of them. (...) The groups were joined then because the teacher was on maternal leave, I think. (…) So I had to use more Polish to manage and discipline them because, again, their level was too low to understand a comment in English. (Teacher 19, student teacher)

> (...) when the children were going crazy and they needed to be calmed down, not like just saying 'sit down' and the kid sits down, but when something is really happening, then I totally have to switch to Polish, because (…) their level of English is too low to just explain to them why they shouldn't hit their friends, for example. (Teacher 17, student teacher)

Students and young teachers (student teachers, 1-5 and 6-10 years of experience) often mention affective reasons for using Polish: they seem to worry about students' language barrier and how it makes them feel, saying that Polish relieves the discomfort and helps with stress, especially in pre-teenage groups.

(…) because they will be like, aware that if they really don't understand something, because they are allowed to not understand things, then they can just ask about it in Polish and the teacher will not give them a failing grade, or, I don't know, will not discipline them for using Polish in the English class, but they will just explain. And I think that this is valuable, that this teacher will be more 'human' to students, that if they don't understand, they can just ask and they will know. (Teacher 17, student teacher)

It seems to be that because I use Polish this lesson is not too formal. It doesn't matter if it's in English or in Polish, everybody feels casually, freely. (Teacher 10, student teacher)

Because they were blocked, they said 'No, I will say nothing'. So in one group, a little bit experimentally because I'd been teaching them for three years and I just see their whole progress, and in this group I experimentally allowed them to answer whatever, just to make them answer. And I allowed them to answer in Polish, just to give me a sign that they understand what I'm saying, that they want to answer the questions. And this bore fruit: even when they were doing reading exercises, looking for information in the text, they were able to find this piece of information and that already told me that they understand something. (Teacher 6, 3 years of experience)

And there was this student, he just always said 'No', because he was so averse to speaking in the classroom. He had this reputation, from his previous school, of being a little bit of a class clown, and I think he already accepted this role and in his mind he was a lost cause. And I just couldn't, I thought to myself: 'God, such a nice boy, let's give him some time'. And I gave him time and already in the third grade he started to develop quickly, very quickly, and he saw that he actually knows something, because nobody forced him to do anything. He didn't have to say 'No' just because anymore. (Teacher 6, 3 years of experience)

I will say that on A1 level, so in the fourth grade, by all means, explaining an English word in English on such a basic level with a big group and children on various levels, they wouldn't understand and they would have a problem and they would feel bad. (Teacher 21, 2 years of experience)

Yes, that's how I feel, that when the group is really good, and I have such groups in lower secondary school, and I start speaking English to them, even when they don't understand everything entirely, they are still happy and they are, you know, in this situation, like, immersed. But they are groups where when I enter and start speaking English, I see fear in their eyes and zero focus and they start drawing in their notebooks, so then I have to say something in Polish just to discipline them somehow. (Teacher 7, 1 year of experience)

Polish is also helpful in building a bond with students and helps create a friendly work environment:

I'm not a native speaker, they [students] are not natives, some issues on a, I don't know, social level, co-operating level, are more neat in Polish, easier. In high school apart from studying we are expected to build a bond between a teacher and the group, especially between the form teacher, so it seems that English would impede this somehow.

Let's call it 'the human aspect' I think is better realised in the mother tongue. (Teacher 22, 21 years of experience)

This attention to students' psychological comfort sometimes manifests itself in succumbing to students' nagging and complaining about not understanding English, which causes young teachers to use Polish instead.

> Often when I tried to explain some [new vocabulary] in English, they asked me to explain in Polish because 'Miss, what is a 'noun' and what is a 'verb', and after a while I switched to Polish. (Teacher 17, student teacher)

> So with this fifth grade it was like that, they always wanted to know the Polish translation and usually I had to explain it to them, so when there was a new word I translated it into Polish, gave them the Polish equivalent. (Teacher 19, student teacher)

> Students, say, who somewhere in the beginning of the road were weaker, they demand Polish: 'But how do you say it in Polish? But why are you giving us these rhymes, stories? I just want to know! (Teacher 2, 8 years of experience)

All groups apart from students report that they use Polish in grading in order to adhere to formal regulations and maintain a good relationship with parents. In some quotes it is also visible that teachers are often afraid of being misunderstood or unclear by using only English and that they could later deal with unpleasant reactions from parents.

> We can't do it in English because we have to take into consideration that also the parent, who is actually the recipient here. They also need to have insight, we can't leave them with Google translate, right? (Teacher 6, 3 years of experience)

> [Feedback] in English often has less of an impact, it's perceived differently, more friendly. But when it comes to explaining the rules in the classroom, it needs to be done in Polish. (Teacher 6, 3 years of experience)

> There is a little bit more of this, this Polish [in organisation]. Very often I need to handle formal things regarding school or lesson organisation and then I know that Polish needs to be there and there's more of it. (Teacher 7, 1 year of experience)

> They often reprimanded me [students] when I was still getting used to the organisation of the school and I typed in, they told me to type in subjects of lessons in Polish. So I assumed that if they are in Polish in the register they should be in Polish in the notebooks as well. However, then the group said that they would prefer to write lesson subjects in their notebooks in English. (Teacher 7, 1 year of experience)

> Well, [I give feedback] in Polish, because I want it to be clear for them what they still have to work on and not to allow myself to think that I have explained, talked about everything and later this student, who had not understood everything, this will give them an opportunity to think about it again and later say that he or she doesn't know why they got this grade. (..) It's a formal thing. (Teacher 12, 4 years of experience)

> I need to be sure that the message is clear and the rules of formative assessment require a very clear message: positive, negative, recommendations, etc. And I want to know, to be sure that it was understood. (Teacher 2, 8 years of experience)

I'll tell you what, it is required from me that every grade, for example of a written essay, or a short test, or a regular test, be supported by additional information. As a rule, this information is written in English, on the test. But I am often under the impression (…) that if the feedback is given in English, it is not treated entirely seriously. You know what I mean, the seriousness of this feedback does not reach them completely, their mistakes, etc. And when it is given to them in Polish, be it in a written or spoken form, it seems to get to them more. (…) Sometimes there are situations, for example if it's about grades, that to create the seriousness of a given situation, apart from feedback in English written on the test (…) they have a different weight if you give them in Polish, as a teacher, a professor here in high school. (Teacher 13, 15 years of experience)

For sure, requirements, everything is [done] clearly in Polish. (…) To be precise, clear and fair to everyone. (…) For example we do it like this: in the first, organizational lesson we have a printed sheet of paper which kids paste in their notebooks for parents to get acquainted with all the rules. If they have any questions they come to consult us, etc. And parents also sign this, you know? So they are aware of the rules and requirements. (Teacher 11, 11 years of experience)

I mean, I think that from a formal standpoint it [the requirements] needs to be [in Polish] because sooner or later someone can say that they weren't graded according to the criteria, or that the grade wasn't justified as well as it should be. After all we live in Poland and all those formal issues need to be handled in Polish, so for example I need to put lesson subjects to the register in Polish, or, I even think that the linguistic issues, things about the language should be presented in Polish so that no one can accuse me later of purposefully confusing them by explaining things in English. (Teacher 22, 21 years of experience)

Interestingly enough, the most experienced teachers (11+ years of experience) sometimes admit that it is more natural and instinctive for them to speak Polish and they seem to have a closer psychological bond with their own language. Also, as shown in the quotes above, some of them are of the opinion that feedback and grades given in Polish are taken more seriously.

[taking about mock oral exam procedure] In general they pick a set, I say everything in English just like in the real exam, I clock them, finish, count the points and I say the rest in Polish. It's easy, almost automatic, Polish kicks in automatically. (…) Sometimes I need to remind myself that it's a bit too much of Polish now and the shape of the lesson is getting lost somewhere. (Teacher 1, 12 years of experience)

There are also motivations for the use of Polish common to all interviewed teachers. Undoubtedly the most predominant theme here is control and fear of leaving students to understand something on their own.

[about the benefits of using Polish] "For the teacher it is this confidence that students really know what we are doing, etc., in organizational matters, or when we discuss

grammar, sometimes they may have problems with theoretical issues. (Teacher 16, student teacher)

But if a situation happened which would require teacher's intervention and explaining something, if I needed to be confined to English then I would be stressed. I wouldn't know if this child understood what I meant or if they know what they did wrong or what they did right. I would be afraid and I wouldn't want to have lessons with small children only in English, I would feel uncomfortable. If something was going wrong in the classroom and I wouldn't be able to react because they would just not understand me and then it would be a problem.)Teacher 17, student teacher)

[about using Polish in vocabulary lessons] Less, less. I need to say that I'm trying to make them work with texts, to make them spot the unknown words on their own. I put the words on the board in Polish and in English, but the lessons themselves are conducted in English and in general I speak to them in English, but when I see that they are lost, then I write the new words Polish-English, with the translation. It's the easiest way to prepare them and teach, right? If I just put the words on the board in English together with the definition they would eventually get lost. (Teacher 7, 1 year of experience)

But when it comes to complicated matters I speak English and explain in Polish. (Teacher 12, 4 years of experience)

Of course when there are some more difficult words that not everyone will catch immediately, after giving the definition I make sure that they understand what the word means, right? So the role [of Polish] is to make sure that everyone understands. (Teacher 11, 11 years of experience)

Apart from the ever-present control, using Polish is certainly a convenient time-saver:

Well, but we don't have time for that because the curriculum is what it is and because of that everything is just fast, the curriculum is just worked through, without any afterthought. (Teacher 10, student teacher)

[about using Polish] It simply saves time, it is sometimes enough to thrown the instruction in Polish and immediately everybody knows, but when we have to do it in English, later you need to explain everything again, show separately, say that a half of the group understood and half didn't, the clock is ticking, right? (Teacher 10, student teacher)

But when they were 'my kids', those in 8th grade, level B2, honestly I didn't waste time describing a new word to them, I just gave them a Polish translation and they quickly caught it and used it right away. (Teacher 17, student teacher)

It seems to me that we save time, maybe, especially when it comes to translating words, yes, I don't give the definitions, just one word and it's done, the whole meaning of the word, right? Students know, like, internally what the word is about, after all they have it in their native language, so for sure it's a time-saver. (Teacher 5, 10 years of experience)

Most teachers also mentioned time-saving as the biggest benefit of using Polish in their lessons (question 8 of the interview).

Themes described above correspond to Part 1 and 2 of the questionnaire. The statistical analysis of the results revealed differences between student teachers and practicing

teachers in the frequency and amount of Polish used in their classrooms (see: Chapter 3, sections 3.5.1 and 3.5.2). Referring to more focused interview data analysis, it might be hypothesised that this statistical difference between students and the rest of the teachers may stem from the fact that, living in the world of English as *lingua franca* and having been in contact with English from their early childhood, the younger generation of teachers are more confident in their language skills and are not afraid to make it a staple of classroom communication. Additionally, they are not yet familiar with the realities of school work such as procedures in grading and establishing contact with parents, nor do they have to deal with the 45-minute realities of public school teaching units. As could be seen in the analysis above, even though there were no statistical differences in questionnaire Tasks 1 and 2 between practicing teachers in how much Polish they use in their classrooms, the interviews revealed that they seem to do it for different reasons. This observation is an essential one for teacher educators and trainers.

As far as own language use on different proficiency levels (RQ2) is concerned, interview data unequivocally corroborate the results of statistical analysis of questionnaire Tasks 1 and 2: the amount and context of the use of Polish in teaching is definitely level-dependent. However, yet again interview data reveal the intricate details and complexities of this issue.

In the linguistic domain, according to the interviewed teachers, using Polish is more justified on lower level in teaching grammar:

> In teaching grammar I have no problem using Polish in these situations, especially with less advanced groups. (Teacher 1, 12 years of experience)

> I think that such method works, the higher the level, the less Polish. It's not that I have anything against using Polish to explain grammar, I think that such a 'mixed method', combining these two methods is the best way to go. (Teacher 1, 12 years of experience)

> And in high school, really, there is much more space for English, they understand already… I keep thinking about examples… They already operate with such terms as 'infinitive', they know what it is, they know what a 'gerund' is, 'passive voice', etc. And the textbooks are structured this way, so for example in high school often the theory which is placed at the end of the book, it is often already in English, so the passive part [of learning], they understand it. (Teacher 14, 12 years of experience)

However, there were teachers who argued the opposite: it is more convenient to use Polish for explaining grammar or translating unknown vocabulary on more advanced levels because it is simply faster and it does not disturb the flow of the lesson. In other words, advanced students, in their opinion, will not suffer because of the use of Polish. For them,

the 'cost' of time and disturbing the flow of the lesson on advanced levels is too high comparing to the 'cost' of using Polish.

> (…) in 8th grade, this B2 level, honestly, I did not waste time on describing a new word, I just said it in English and they caught it immediately and started using it right away. (Teacher 17, student teacher)

The majority of interviewed teachers agree that giving clear instructions, organizing and managing the classroom, and maintaining control over students' understanding of lesson content in less advanced groups is done easier and more effectively in Polish:

> (…) it's good to find your ground with a group first, what the level is, there is no use, according to my experience, show off when no one understands us. (Teacher 4, 23 years of experience)

> [about monolingual teaching] In lower secondary school, I think, there wouldn't be any problems, but with primary school there would be problems, especially with instructions. (Teacher 19, student teacher)

> For sure with a weaker group I would feel less comfortable [speaking just English], because I would be afraid that they would not understand everything. (Teacher 18, student teacher)

> The higher the level of the group, the more English I can use in the classroom. I have no problem with this, especially with beginners or pre-intermediate levels, I noticed a lot of Polish in these lessons. Maybe I should try more, to speak the target language, but it is very tiring on lower levels. (Teacher 5, 10 years of experience)

Teachers seem to also have different opinions about grading and giving feedback in Polish on different levels. Some argue that higher level students need more detailed feedback in Polish, while others, on the contrary, believe that it is lower-level students who benefit more from receiving comments about their performance in their own language:

> It is again the matter of the level and what we are evaluating. Because for a smaller child, I think even up to 5th of 6th grade it is enough, you know just like it is in the text books, different levels, like smiley faces or pictures of suns. (…) But in higher grades obviously you evaluate different skills separately, so I think Polish is used to discuss what is OK. (Teacher 15, 25 years of experience)

> I have a group which is very advanced and I can give the whole feedback in English and they understand everything, but the majority on this level, lower secondary school or primary school, formative assessment is best done in Polish. (Teacher 2, 8 years of experience)

Interestingly, many teachers also make a differentiation between the level of students and the age of students. They seem to notice that when it comes to teaching children on lower levels, the more English the better, as the material is not complicated and the new language can be acquired naturally. However, when it comes to older students on lower levels (for example lower secondary or high school students who are still somewhere around level A2), Polish seems to play a role of a communication facilitator, as the material covered is much more complex, discussed topics and vocabulary more serious, and using Polish can show some respect towards those teenagers, who, after all, are already fluent in one language – Polish, and are eager to discuss more complicated topics and express themselves in a more sophisticated manner. It also seems that when it comes to lower levels, the older the student, the more difficult it is to overcome the language barrier and psychological block.

> Maybe yes, well, with very small children, I don't know, kindergarten kids, using English is not as problematic for them. (…) Because they accept everything in the lesson, the teacher comes and speaks English and they are not especially surprised and, somehow instinctively, if they do something wrong, no problem, it's more like teaching through playing, so the teacher can repeat everything as many times as they want. The instructions are easy too, as a rule, there are pictures, so Polish is not necessary. (…) However, when the children get older, a barrier is created. I think they don't feel as free as earlier. I have just come across a higher grade and I tried conducting the whole lesson in English, but I saw they were very confused and I started translating everything into Polish. (Teacher 21, 2 years of experience)

> Well, it all depends on the age group. Because when it comes to adults, adults feel safer when they have everything explained to them in Polish, especially when they are on a low level. (Teacher 12, 4 years of experience)

Another level-dependent factor influencing the amount of own language in the classroom listed by teachers is a mixed level of students. It seems that for some teachers the problem that makes them use Polish is not the level itself, but the fact that oftentimes groups are mismatched level-wise:

> I would rather say that it's not dependant on the level, but a variety of levels in the same group. So, in the public school I can have students on all levels from A to B in one group, although I tend to notice it in private schools as well. There are some people in advanced groups that have no chance of passing the exam. (…) So the problem here is the variety within the group. The wider the gap between the students the more difficult it is to use the target language. (Teacher 8, 3 years of experience)

As can be inferred from the quotes above, the interviewed teachers agree that the use of Polish is indeed level-dependent – as shown in the quantitative analysis. However,

an in-depth, qualitative look at the matter revealed that teachers' accounts are often contradictory and their use of Polish on different levels is dependent on many factors, especially, as it seems, on the particular teacher's experience, skills and opinions.

The content of the quotes provided above in the discussion of qualitative RQ1 and RQ2 already painted a partial picture of how teachers with different work experience describe their attitudes towards the role of own language use in teaching English (RQ3). It is quite clear that Polish is present in all interviewed teachers' classrooms and that, regardless of their work experience, attitudes towards own language use in different domains are moderate to positive, with the most positive for grammar instruction and organization and moderately positive for vocabulary instruction and the affective domain. This corroborated the results of the quantitative part of the study. A deeper insight into the interview data has also shown that the motivations behind teachers' use of Polish tend to vary depending on their work experience and that the group level needs to be accounted for even though teachers do not speak in unison about this factor. There are, however, more fragments of the interviews with interesting new themes, which can help create a bigger picture and illustrate teachers' mixed feelings and complex attitudes to using Polish in their lessons even better, and these fragments will be provided and commented on below. This time the analysis was not only semantic, but at times more constructionist, and the themes detected were not only literal, but also latent, as the tone of the speakers and language they used to talk about their experiences connected with the use of Polish needed to be taken into account.

A new theme definitely worth exploring is the theme of guilt accompanying the use of own language in EFL lessons. Teachers with different work experience express their guilt about using Polish in their lessons differently, which may be influenced by teacher training they had received, their language competence, and personal teaching history. The interview data show that the most experienced teachers (more than 11 years in the public education system) are somewhat conflicted about using own language in their classrooms. In the interviews older teachers were defensive about using Polish and felt that they needed to explain themselves to the interviewer. First, because of the time constraints imposed by the school reality, many teachers feel that using Polish in some contexts makes their lessons more efficient. However, some consider this way of saving time as a sign of teachers' laziness:

It seems to me that when we enter a more difficult material we are under pressure: this needs to be covered, this needs to be explained, that needs to be checked. And English, it seems, is lost somehow.

I think that we as teachers cut corners. (Teacher 15, 25 years of experience)

It is important to show how conflicted the older generation of teachers seems to be regarding the justification for their use of Polish. On the one hand, they report being very strict towards their students, controlling them and forcing to speak only English. Many report punishing students for their use of Polish in their lessons or giving prizes such as 'points' or grades for just using English during the lessons:

(…) so I announce, for example, it may be called differently, an 'only English zone', so for example, for 15 minutes we just speak English and those who speak English between themselves, for example while doing the exercises, are praised in some way. Those, who don't, are punished with a 'minus' grade or something like that. Children rather accept this. It looks a bit like cultural persecution, doesn't it? (Teacher 4, 23 years of experience)

So, for example: 'Today for two hours we don't use Polish and I'll treat it as your class engagement and you'll get a 5 for active engagement'. (Teacher 1, 12 years of experience)

Teachers in this group also mention that one of the biggest dangers of using Polish in TEFL are: wasting precious classroom time and encouraging students' laziness and distracting them:

Well, I think that my students are less focused on understanding then [when the teacher speaks Polish], because they know that you'll say that in Polish again or explain it again after a moment. So they don't feel the need for maximal focus on these explanations because they feel they will be able to ask again in Polish. They put less effort into that. (Teacher 1, 12 years of experience)

Well, I think that the biggest problem [of using Polish] will be making students used to it. Using English will not be a challenge for them, they will get lazy, lose motivation to communicate somehow. (Teacher 13, 15 years of experience)

Well, I think that students get thrown off the 'English mode'. If we're conducting a lesson which flows nicely, I think that sometimes it throws you off [using Polish]. We're conducting a lesson and that this Polish, they switch to Polish and then are unwilling to switch back to English. (Teacher 14, 12 years of experience)

On the other hand, there were also instances of rebellious voices in this group, the theme here being the pride of being Polish and speaking Polish and an unapologetic use of Polish:

> We're Polish, we communicate in Polish and think in Polish, so why wouldn't we use it? (Teacher 9, 25 years of experience)

> (…) I remember these awful times when students were outraged with a literal translation 'Jak stary jesteś ty? ['How old are you?' translated word for word], because we don't speak like that. This outrage was directed at the teacher, obviously. (…) But I was persistent and I succeeded and I do use Polish in explaining new grammar. (Teacher 9, 25 years of experience)

A theme present in this group of teachers was also change. Many reported a more relaxed attitude towards complete monolingualism in the classrooms gained through the years, emphasized constant development regarding this matter and the change of EFL teaching in Poland (course books, resources).

> I used to be stricter, I think it stemmed from my private school experience, where the emphasis was put on this, even on elementary level, where no one understands anything in English, to explain grammar in English. I don't know where I got it from, this feeling that if I explain something in Polish it is not entirely OK or methodologically sound because English should be everywhere. But then I decided that I need to focus on the effects and the effect is that instead of focusing on the grammar students focus on understanding what I'm saying really and what I want from them, and this defies the purpose. I don't think it's wrong, I used to think that in the past, that you should not do it [use Polish], that it is not good, but now I see that it works. (Teacher 1, 12 years of experience)

> The classes used to be larger, it was more wild, there were more problems with discipline. Now young people are calmer, or maybe I'm more experienced and I can allow myself for some musings: 'Am I doing it right or wrong?' Back in a day it was done spontaneously, and now, come to think of it, I think it is really good that I do use Polish. (Teacher 9, 25 years of experience)

Some noticed that they use more English in their lessons now, because it is easier and the students have more exposure to English in general:

> I mean, I can say from my own perspective that indeed I used to have less experience with this, where to use Polish, where I can squeeze it in. I think that there is much more openness on the side of students. In the past there wasn't much exposure to English (…) and now they 'catch' the language naturally, the entry level has risen significantly. (Teacher 15, 25 years of experience)

> It had to change because (…) course books have changed, methodology has changed, I learned new things, I went to courses abroad, my attitude has changed, I listened to other teachers from different countries and I saw that this east of Europe, the attitude is very traditional, lecture-like. (Teacher 4, 23 years of experience)

In the group of very experienced teachers Polish is also considered a more 'intellectual' language for the students, a language necessary to fully comprehend new material, especially when learning grammar:

> Yes, after translating, converting it into our Polish grammar it is understood [new grammar]. Then the student learns with his or her mind, not with a mere reflex, they try to analyse it using their intellect then. (Teacher 9, 25 years of experience)

In general, very experienced teachers were less confident in expressing their feelings and attitudes towards using Polish in their lessons. They appeared afraid of losing their face or seeming incompetent. Those who admitted using Polish in certain contexts seemed to be the rebellious ones, and were not sure if what they were saying was methodically sound or justified.

The difference in the tone and manner of speaking about the own language issue was almost palpable in interviews with less experienced, younger teachers. Many themes found in the data obtained from more experienced teachers (as described above) were also present in conversations with younger and less experienced teachers. However, there was an important difference in the tone of speaking about the own language issue: it could be noticed that younger teachers treat monolingual teaching as a given, for them English is ubiquitous and they were perfectly aware that the English-speaking media and culture are widely accessible and commonly present in their students' lives. They expressed their confidence in their own language skills and the conversation about the use of own language was a very relaxed one comparing to the tension around this topic present in the conversations with older teachers. Younger teachers seem to treat Polish in their lessons as something purely practical, they concentrate on how Polish makes their lessons more efficient, their message clearer and their life easier:

> I'm a fan of using Polish during the lessons. Contrary to the majority of what we were taught in teaching methodology classes. (…) First and foremost it saves time and problems in communication, and it seems to me that in case of teaching grammar I don't need the taught foreign language at all, because who needs that? (Teacher 8, 3 years of experience)

> Obviously the biggest problem is that they know we speak Polish, so they don't have to put in that effort, which they would have to put in the lessons with a native speaker. The effort is not there because they know I will understand everything they say in Polish. I could pretend not to, I could introduce a rule that I'm not reacting to Polish, but in the end they know they will convey the message and when the bell rings and they want to talk something over, a homework or a test, they will use Polish, right? (Teacher 7, 1 year of experience)

> And when you speak Polish to everyone, especially when it comes to formative assessment, then I have no doubt that my message will be clear and understood. (Teacher 2, 8 years of experience)

> I know there are different theories about that, some say that we shouldn't use Polish at all in our classes, some say that yes. Well, I use it. I don't know if it's right or wrong but I think that generally you learn grammar intuitively and practicing the forms is easy, but I would also like them to know what they're using and why. So I use Polish, sometimes probably overuse it because it does dominate in these lessons, in these theoretical parts. We explain how to use tenses, the contexts, we compare tenses, mix them, (...) translate into Polish, etc. (Teacher 2, 8 years of experience)

The theme of prize or punishment is absent in this portion of data, younger teachers seem to be very utilitarian about using Polish and do not introduce restrictions in their classrooms. On the contrary, what is present in the data is younger teachers' willingness to be liked by their students and to do whatever makes them happy:

> Because on higher levels, sure, you can discuss everything and throw in one word here and there. But on this level here, where you have students who, for example, only had German in the lower secondary school, I think it would be harmful for them and completely discouraging. One boy, he doesn't like to speak and I know about it, because even if I ask them to prepare monologues at home, they have 2 weeks for it, plenty of time, and I know he is prepared, but he is not used to speaking and it's difficult to make him say the easiest things. (Teacher 12, 4 years of experience)

> I think you should speak English in the English classes but it's so difficult in these groups where you can see in their faces that they don't want this lesson to be in English. And the teacher lets it go, because they want children to be happy. And I think they would get used to that after a while, but it's not easy. (Teacher 21, 2 years of experience)

Having said that, the themes of guilt, teachers surrendering, and change in attitudes are also noticeable in the interviews with some of the younger teachers:

> Maybe I should try more, speak more in the target language and make them try harder to understand, but it's tiring for me on lower levels, it's work. Sometimes I don't control myself and just switch to Polish. (Teacher 5, 10 years of experience)

> I try for Polish not to be there, I try to give them these 45 minutes in English, but, you know… (Teacher 7, 1 year of experience)

> It seems that the only thing constant is development and trying to be a better teacher. There was a moment when I realised that there was too much Polish, and I tried to use more English, step by step. (…) The work needs to be shifted to students and if there's group work, presentation, dialogues, etc., everything is in English. So the proportions changed in my case. I mean my philosophy, attitude, formative assessment and grammar rules are in Polish, but the proportions are that English must dominate. (Teacher 2, 8 years of experience)

Moreover, younger teachers are aware that overusing Polish may lead to killing the flow of the lesson or the motivation of students as well as spontaneity of the lesson:

I think that it makes students lazy when they switch to Polish, they expect to speak it all the time, so the instructions are in Polish and they don't have to try, don't have to listen because when I speak Polish they don't have to focus, the understand in passing and they know what to do. In English they have to compose themselves, focus to hear and understand, get through the accent and receive the message, so Polish can make them lazy. (Teacher 19, student teacher)

I mean I think that this influences the speaking, that grammar, vocabulary, they are not harmful [presented in Polish], but in dialogues, when we want them to speak spontaneously, then… They are not prepared for that, they want to take notes and I often say 'Write down the key words' because we remember better when we write. But (…) it kills spontaneity, they want to translate everything. (Teacher 12, 4 years of experience)

Overall, younger teachers presented a more constructive, self-aware attitude towards using Polish in their classrooms. There was less shame and hesitation about this topic, which was expressed both verbally and non-verbally - in the tone of the interviews and their behaviour when speaking about this topic. Younger teachers (1-5 years of experience) were also the only group who remembered their teacher training quite clearly and referred to it to in their interviews. Some noticed the clash between the attitudes in the academia and the reality of teaching a foreign language and mentioned how their attitudes to own language use changed after graduating (theme: attitude fluctuation).

4.5 Lesson observations

4.5.1 Sample and data collection process

In order to provide data triangulation in the study, lesson observations with a small focus group were conducted. From the previously interviewed group of 24 participants, 10 teachers agreed to have their lessons observed. Types of observed lessons and teachers' work experience in years is provided in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Data regarding lesson observation participants.

Participant alias	Work experience (in years)	Lesson type
Teacher 7	1	Listening-speaking: students' presentations
Teacher 2	8	Listening-speaking
Teacher 12	8	Speaking
Teacher 5	10	Listening-speaking
Teacher 20	10	Grammar: Present Simple and Continuous - Revision
Teacher 1	12	Functions – expressing opinions
Teacher 23	19	Reading-speaking
Teacher 24	20	Grammar: conditional clauses
Teacher 22	21	Grammar: Present Simple and Continuous Revision
Teacher 4	23	Grammar: Conditionals

Due to organisational and time constraints, there were limitations concerning teacher representation in this part of the study: no student teachers' lessons were observed and only one observed lesson was conducted by a teacher from the 1-5 years-of-experience group. Moreover, all of the observed lessons were conducted in lower secondary and secondary schools with participants aged 12-19. The majority of observed groups were on level B1 (six lessons), but one lesson on level A1, two lessons on level A2, and one lesson on level B2 were also observed. The focus of four of the observed lessons was grammar, the rest of the lessons were skills-focused. As described in section 1.4.1, all participating teachers signed an informed consent (see Appendix B) and were familiarized with the purpose of the study and how the data will be used in further analyses and publications. The teachers were instructed to conduct a regular lesson and were informed that the results of the observations will be reported with respect for their anonymity. It was emphasized that their natural behaviour is crucial for the observations. The lessons were observed by the researcher herself and analysed using a self-designed observation sheet. The observation sheet included the context in which Polish was used by the teachers – categories based on the questionnaire used in Part 1 of the study – such as presenting grammar, presenting vocabulary, correcting

mistakes, giving instructions, establishing a good relationship with students, etc. The frequency of the use of Polish in each context was noted and additional comments and details provided in a separate column (see Appendix D). The aim of the analysis was to attempt to answer the same qualitative and mixed questions as in the interview analysis (see section 1.3). Thematic analysis of the notes was conducted, the results of which will be described in the following sections.

4.5.2 Results and analysis

4.5.2.1 The teachers' experience factor

As far as teachers' experience is concerned, the quantitative results showed differences in own-language use between student teachers and practicing teachers; therefore it is important to note again that no lessons by student-teachers were observed in this part of the study. With this in mind, the results of the observations of lessons conducted by practicing teachers were in line with the results of the questionnaire and interviews, as there were no observable experience-dependent differences in how much and in what context teachers used Polish in their lessons. The qualitative inquiry suggests that the frequency and context of own-language use observed in these lessons seems to be first and foremost dependent on the lesson type, and secondly on teachers' personal attitudes towards using Polish in EFL and their confidence in their own knowledge of English.

As far as lesson type is concerned, it could be clearly noticed that Polish was used most extensively in grammar lessons. Four of the observed lessons were grammar lessons. During all of these lesson Polish was used to present grammar, to give instructions and to maintain discipline. All teachers used Polish to talk with Students (henceforth Ss) about the rules concerning a given grammatical structure: Teacher 20 used Polish to test Ss grammar knowledge by asking them about the rules governing the use of Present Simple and Continuous tenses while Teacher 22 conducted the whole tense revision in Polish: the Ss discussed the rules in Polish and sometimes the teacher mixed Polish and English by providing some rules in English and asking Ss questions such as:

"Do czego się tego używa?" ["What is it used for?"]. Teacher 4 presented all rules concerning conditional sentences on the whiteboard in Polish. All four used Polish to clarify instructions or translate them into Polish after having provided them in English beforehand. Polish was also used by all of the teachers to organize Ss' work and maintain discipline. Teacher 20, Teacher 22 and Teacher 24 also used Polish in their grammar lessons to practice translation, correct Ss' mistakes and give them feedback, as well as to maintain good relationship with them, for example by chatting with them every now and then to relieve the tension of covering intellectually demanding material. What seemed striking to the researcher was that the amount of Polish used by teachers in the observed grammar lessons did not correlate with how successful the lesson was overall. While Teacher 4 (23 year of teaching experience), clearly suppressed their use of Polish and tried very hard to conduct the whole lesson in English, the lesson was not very successful: Ss did not get much practice and did not seem to grasp the presented grammatical concepts. The suppression of Polish in this case could have stemmed from the fact that this particular teacher was not really confident in their knowledge of teaching methodology, which could have been noticed in the interview:

> Well, in fact, it is always a difficult topic, when and how, to what extent to use the native language in teaching a foreign language. It would be perfect if we could do it just using English, in my case, but the reality is what it is […] and it's difficult to omit Polish altogether. If we try to do it, like I tried a few time in my life, […] it turns out that Polish is actually really practical and useful in explaining. (Teacher 4, 23 years of experience)

Quite to the contrary, the rest of the grammar lessons were successful even though teachers' use of Polish was very different: while Teacher 20 and Teacher 22 used Polish extensively in all contexts from rule presentation to vocabulary clarification and establishing good relationship with Ss, and Teacher 24 presented a very constrained attitude to the use of Polish and limited it to rule presentation and translation practice, all of those lesson were very successful, clear to the Ss and enjoyable. The reason for this seems to be teachers' confidence in their teaching skills, knowing exactly what the purpose of using Polish in certain contexts was, providing Ss with sufficient practice time, and great rapport. Those teachers knew exactly why they were using Polish and were very confident in their teaching skills and techniques, which was also visible in their interviews. Confidence in their foreign language competence and teaching skills

seemed to make them more focused and allowed them to use Polish unapologetically in the contexts in which they saw fit.

The rest of the observed lessons – six of them, concentrated on communication practice, listening, speaking and function. The use of Polish during these lessons was very different from what could be observed during the grammar lessons; after analysing the results of the questionnaire and themes present in the interviews, this was to be expected. First, the overall presence of Polish was less pronounced during the communication and skills-focused lessons. When it comes to the linguistic domain – contexts defined in the observation sheet as presenting vocabulary, presenting grammar, comparing English and Polish grammar and translation practice – Polish was only used from time to time to present new vocabulary. This was done in a number of ways: for example, Teacher 1 constrained their use of Polish and only used it once to spare time and not interrupt the flow of the students. On the other hand, Teacher 2 used solely English to explain unknown vocabulary, but when Ss could not grasp the idea the teachers asked the best Ss in the group to translate for the rest of the class. This technique of 'using' better students to translate something instead of using Polish by teachers themselves was a recurring theme in the interviews as well. In general, providing direct translation of the unknown vocabulary during the skills-focused lessons was done to save time or clarify the meaning. In these lessons Polish was used more extensively in the other two domains: the organisational and the affective one. Whereas feedback and performance comments were provided in English by all teachers, Teacher 7 and Teacher 12 used Polish to explain and clarify instructions. Both teachers seemed to have been doing it for formal reasons, which may stem from their personal attitude towards explaining rules and regulations in Ss' own language. Teacher 7, whose lesson was conducted with an A2 level group in lower secondary school, used Polish to present a lesson plan and the subject of the lesson as well as to instruct Ss how to do the listening and speaking tasks It was clear to see that Ss felt safer and more confident after hearing the lesson agenda and task instructions in Polish. Teacher 12, on the other hand, conducting a Matura (final high school exam) type speaking lesson with a B1 level group explained all the speaking exam procedures in Polish. Polish was also used in the skills-focused lessons to maintain discipline, organise classroom life and make plans for future lessons, as well as to establish good relationship with Ss. This was done by reprimanding some Ss on their behaviour in Polish, discussing the week plan of lessons

in Polish, or joking and making witty and personal comments about Ss to entertain the group. These behaviours corroborated data from the interviews, where some of the themes selected were using Polish when presenting formal requirements, giving task instructions or to make Ss feel safer and more confident.

4.5.2.2 The group level factor

The results of the quantitative part of the study revealed significant differences in own-language use in the EFL classroom and in attitudes towards own-language use between teachers who work with groups on different language levels. Overall, it could be seen that using Polish is more accepted on lower-levels. However, qualitative data obtained from the interviews revealed that the situation is much more complex than the numerical data would suggest. Although it seems that Polish is used more often with Ss on lower levels, some teachers believe that it is on higher levels that its use is most effective and called for, while lower-level groups should receive as much input in the target language as possible. It also seems that perhaps the age of the learners is a more significant factor than group level. The focus group lesson observations, although conducted on a small sample, in lower secondary schools and secondary schools with learners aged 12-19, offer some additional insights into the matter.

Three lessons with students classified as level A1-A2 were observed. All of them were attended by Ss aged 13-16 in 7th grade of primary school (former 1st grade of lower secondary school), 3rd grade of lower secondary school and 2nd grade of high school (a weak group, level A2). With these groups, the use of Polish seemed to serve two purposes: in the linguistic and organizational domains to provide clarification, understanding, explanations available to all Ss in the group, and in the affective domain to relieve tension and make Ss feel more comfortable. In the linguistic domain, Polish seemed indispensable when dealing with lower-level groups consisting of teenagers. One reason for that is definitely the fact that even though the competence of such Ss is very low, the formal requirements concerning material that should be covered in the lessons are strict and demanding. In order to get Ss through the grammar intricacies and lots of new vocabulary Polish seems to be an effective and time-saving tool which helps to provide equal chances to all Ss in terms of following the lesson

and understanding instructions. Teenagers do not wish to be spoken to like children and they also deal with more complicated subject matter, both grammar- and vocabulary-wise. As far as relieving tension and making Ss feel more comfortable, teachers used Polish to welcome Ss in the classroom, reassure them when they encountered difficulties in doing exercises, or to make jokes and lighten up the mood.

As far as level B1-B2 is concerned, seven lessons were observed. One lesson was conducted with 2nd grade students in lower secondary school (a strong group) and the other six lessons took place in secondary schools with Ss aged 16-19. Even though it could be said that the amount of Polish in those lessons was comparable to the lessons observed on lower levels, the difference in teachers' attitudes and how they used it was palpable. When it comes to the linguistic domain, while the use of Polish in skills-focused lessons was less pronounced compared to the grammar-focused lessons, the tone and purpose of using Polish to present new vocabulary and grammar was very similar: it was a time-saver which did not disturb the flow of the lessons, not an unavoidable tool needed for Ss to understand the linguistic content of the lessons, which was observed on lower levels. The same pertains to the organizational domain: Polish was used to comment on the instructions to tasks or to organise lesson agenda not because it was necessary Ss' level allowed for understanding English in these situations and the teachers were well aware of that), but rather to be more effective and quick. On the other hand, Polish used in the affective domain did not serve the reassuring or tension relieving purpose, but rather a relationship building one. With higher level students it could be noticed that Polish was used to maintain rapport and good relationship with students, joke, provide witty comments or a bit of irony, as well as some off-topic comments or extra information. All in all, the use of Polish with stronger groups was more relaxed and purely utilitarian in the linguistic domain, and camaraderie- or bond-building in the affective domain.

4.5.2.3 Overall attitudes

Lesson observations on a small focus group provided an additional reinforcement for the results obtained from the questionnaires and interviews, as well as some additional insights. As shown in questionnaire, teachers generally believe that as much English

as possible should be used in the classroom. However, they do see a place for Polish in their teaching practice. This was corroborated in lesson observations, as there was no lesson from which Polish was completely absent. Own-language was used by teachers for a variety of purposes: presenting grammar, translation practice and comparing Polish and English in grammar-focused lessons, and for presenting vocabulary in skills-focused lessons. Regardless of the type of lessons, Polish was used to organise the classroom, introduce lesson agenda, and to maintain friendly relationship with students. As shown above, the amount, context, and, maybe most importantly, the tone in which Polish was used in the observed classroom, were different and depended on the type of lessons, the level of Ss, and on the personal experience and confidence of teachers. It needs to be added that the effectiveness of the observed lessons and the fulfilment of lesson goals was not dependant on the amount of Polish present in the classroom, but rather on the techniques used by teachers and their awareness and control over their classrooms.

4.6 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to give a comprehensive review of the qualitative part of the study. First, section 4.2 discussed thematic analysis as a self-standing method of qualitative analysis and as part of a mixed-methods design. The section touched upon the epistemological grounds of thematic analysis, its strengths and weaknesses as shown in literature, and the steps involved in it. It also emphasized the importance of providing a well-written and thorough description of each part of the analysis to ensure clarity and replicability. The main points of reference for this section were Braun and Clarke (2006) as well as Attride-Stirling (2001), Fine (2002), Mackey and Gas (2005), Saldana (2009), Cohen et al. (2011), Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Creswell (2013), Brown (2014) and Kiczkowiak (2018). The section also explained the premises of thematic analysis employed in the current study and provided the values of Pearson's Correlation Coefficient to ensure the inter-rater reliability of the analysis.

Section 4.3 listed qualitative and mixed research questions, while Section 4.4 delved into the details of the interviewing process and the analysis. Overall, 24 teachers were recruited from the large group of participants who had previously completed

the questionnaires, reflecting the gender and work experience structure of the EFL teachers in Poland. Additionally, ten of those teachers agreed to have their lessons observed as the second part of the qualitative study. There were 9 questions asked in the interviews, all of which were based on the previously administered questionnaire.

The analysis of the interviews revealed interesting patterns in the teachers' attitudes and practices and offered a more detailed look into the issue of own language use. The following reasons for using own language in the classroom were given by the teachers: the linguistic reason (presenting new language), classroom organization and management, enforcing classroom rules and maintaining discipline, managing students' discomfort and stress, building student-teacher bonds and relationships, grading and providing feedback, maintaining control over students' learning process, and saving time. In order to answer qualitative RQ1, the listed reasons for own language use were analysed in relation to teachers' work experience. While all teachers across the board openly admit using Polish in their classrooms, there were some subtle differences in their motivations. The most pronounced differences were observed between student teachers and practicing teachers. Student teachers seem to feel safer and more in control thanks to using Polish in their classrooms, while more experienced teachers see it rather as a time-saver. Student teachers and younger teachers also seem to pay more attention to students' comfort in the classroom and the language barrier, as they mention affective reasons for own language use more often that older teachers. This may correlate with the fact that young teachers report being influenced by students' nagging and complaining about having to use English. It is worth noting that the oldest group of teachers also report that using Polish in the classroom is more natural for them and that they feel closer to their students thanks to code-switching during lessons. Some also claim that feedback given in Polish has more gravity. All practicing teachers report that Polish gives them a sense of control over the learning process and allows them to be sure that students understand what to do and how to do it.

The analysis of the interviews clearly revealed that students' proficiency level is another factor influencing the amount and context of using own language in the classrooms (RQ2). However, the level-dependent use of own language turns out to be a surprisingly elusive problem, reliant on a number of factors. For instance, the interviewed teachers see using Polish as more justified with lower-level students when teaching new grammar, however, some argue that Polish is useful in teaching new grammar

to advanced students to make the process faster and more fluent. Teachers seem to agree that in lower-level groups using Polish is more effective when organising and managing the classroom and giving instructions. Opinions are once again divided with regard to grading and giving feedback; some teachers claim that Polish is more useful with advanced learners in this context, while others believe in giving feedback in Polish to lower-level students. The interviews uncovered an interesting variable, which might have clouded teachers' answers regarding the proficiency level of the groups: many teachers mentioned a difference between the level of students and their age. Naturally, dealing with lower level but older students requires exchanging more complicated messages, instructions and covering more complex topics – Polish seems to be more useful here than when working with lower levels young learners, where both the content of the lessons and the topics of small talk are simple. This needs to be taken into account when debating own language use with different proficiency levels and when investigating discrepancies in teachers' opinions. Apart from the teacher experience and group level factors, other themes in teachers' own language use in EFL were found in the interviews, among them the theme of teachers' guilt, the theme of rebellion against teacher training and unapologetic use of Polish during lessons or simply a theme of change that teachers undergo throughout the course of their careers.

Section 4.5 provided the analysis of the third part of the study - lesson observations. Ten teachers agreed to have their lessons observed, ranging from one to 23 years of experience. The focus of each lesson was different – there were four grammar lessons, three listening-speaking lessons, one reading-speaking lesson, one speaking and one functions lesson. Observed groups were mostly level B1 and students' age ranged from 10 to 12 years old. Overall, the analysis of the grammar lessons has revealed that the frequency of the use of Polish by teachers was mostly dependant on the type of lesson, not on teachers' length of practice. What is more, the quantity of Polish used during the lessons did not correlate with how successful the lesson turned out; it was rather the knowledge, confidence and charisma of certain teachers that allowed them to engage their students and make them receptive to knowledge, be it with an extensive use of Polish or none at all. The skills-focused lessons corroborated themes present in the interviews: Polish was used to present formal requirements, provide instructions or build a relationship with the students. When it comes to the complex factor of language level of the group, the observations revealed that with lower-level groups

Polish was used both for linguistic purposes – to provide clarification and instructions, and for affective reasons – to relieve the tension and make weaker students more comfortable and less stressed. Polish seemed to be an equalizer which helped everybody to follow the lesson. In strong groups, however, Polish was a purely utilitarian tool, used to save time and strengthen the bond between teachers and students.

Overall, the chapter offered a qualitative perspective on the own language use in EFL by analysing the results of interviews and lesson observations. Together with the quantitative analysis of the questionnaire from Chapter 3 they offer a full picture of this issue among English public school teachers in Poland.

Chapter 5: The follow-up study and general discussion

5.1.   Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the follow-up to the main study as a complementary last piece of the project, and provide general discussion of the results.

A few words regarding the structure of the following chapter are in order. The idea to include follow-up interviews with academic teachers was conceived after analyzing the results of the main study. In the process of summing up the results and pondering their relevance to teacher education in Poland, it seemed relevant to add an academic point of view on the matter. The author considers these additional interviews as part of a wider discussion concerning the main study on EFL teachers. Thus, it is combined with the general discussion in the last chapter of the dissertation.

Section 5.2 will present justification for the follow-up study and the research questions. Section 5.3 will describe the sample and process of data collection and interview questions will be listed in section 5.4. Section 5.5 will provide qualitative thematic analysis of the follow-up interviews, which will be followed by sections 5.6 and 5.7 comprising general discussion and conclusion which encompass all parts of the study.

5.2 Follow-up: justification and research questions

In the qualitative part of the main study practicing teachers were asked a number of interview questions, one of them being: "Did you talk about own language use in EFL teaching during your teacher training? If yes, was it put in a positive or negative light?" (See: Chapter 4, Section 4.4.1). The answers concerning the approach to own language use in teacher education were not only interesting, but seemingly varied across groups of teachers with different length of work experience. The analysis of the interviewed teachers' answers starting from those most experienced and ending with student teachers offer a fascinating walk through the trends in EFL teacher education.

In the group of teachers with 20+ years of experience prevailed memories of a negative attitude towards using own language in their university education. These teachers

146

also mentioned relying heavily on monolingual British teaching materials and lack of practical approach towards teacher training – reportedly the clash between the academic preparation and teaching reality was tremendous. This pattern seems to change in the group of teachers with 11-20 years of teaching experience. Teachers in this group mentioned that mostly negative academic attitudes towards own language use in EFL started to decline and the subject was either discussed in a more positive light or avoided altogether Heavy reliance on monolingual British teaching resources was also mentioned in this group. The 6-10-years-of-experience group, on the other hand, noticed a turn to communicative language teaching in their teacher training, which again promoted monolingual language teaching. Some teachers in this group noticed a determination in excluding Polish from EFL lessons promoted in their university education. Some, on the contrary, remember a more "realistic" and "positive" attitudes towards own language in their university education. These mixed-messages, subject avoidance, or a clash between the academic education and school reality noticeably disappear when analysing the interviews with the youngest teachers and student teachers. Many teachers in the 1-5-years-of-experience group notice a more realistic, down-to-earth attitudes in the academia, which means the acceptance of the use of Polish in certain educational contexts. The young teachers reported a sort of comeback to own languages in their university training. However, some teachers in this group also report that using Polish was considered in their academic training as unprofessional. Teachers in this group also notice the use of monolingual teaching materials as well as a clash between the academic and school realities. The group of student teachers followed suit and added that using Polish is usually evaluated poorly in their lesson observations and considered as demotivating for pupils. Some students added that the use of own language should be level dependent.

The above analysis served as an inspiration for the follow-up study whose aim was to investigate the current trends in teacher training in Polish universities with regard to own language use and in this way complete the main research study and provide a holistic view on the matter.

The research questions pertained to academic teachers' own beliefs and attitudes as well as their reflections based on the observations of student teachers' lessons. The following research questions were formulated:

1. How do academic teachers present to their students the issue of own language use in TEFL in terms of teaching grammar, vocabulary and skills?

2. How do academic teachers present to their students the issue of own language use in TEFL in terms of grading, classroom management and relationship building?

3. Do academic teachers present to their students the issue of own language use in TEFL differently depending on the level of pupils?

4. Has the attitude of academic teachers towards the use of own language in TEFL changed over the years?

5. How do academic teachers perceive their students' use of Polish in the lessons they observe / visit?

5.3 Sample and data collection

Six academic teachers were interviewed in the follow-up study. All the teachers are specialists in the field of TEFL, work at English Departments at their universities and overlook the development of student teachers. They also publish regularly in professional journals and have a say in the matters concerning curricula in their teaching specialisations' programmes. The academics were chosen from reputable Polish universities with thriving English Departments: Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, University of Warsaw, University of Wrocław and University of Zielona Góra.

The academics were contacted via email and the conversations were held via Skype or on the phone. Before the interview all academic teachers signed the same informed consent form as the teachers in the qualitative part of the study. Yet again the consent form was obtained from the Language and Communication Laboratory at the Faculty of English, Adam Mickiewicz University. Once again, the participants were informed that the interviews would be recorded and transcribed and they could read the transcriptions and learn about the results of the study if requested.

The content of the interviews was transcribed and reviewed by the researcher and another transcriber who was not otherwise involved with the study to ensure accuracy and objectivity. Interviews were then analysed using the 20.0.5. version of MAQDA Plus 2020 software.

5.4 Interview questions

Following the qualitative part of the main study, the interviews were semi-structured and conducted in Polish. The conversations included six questions concerning the TEFL classes conducted by the interviewees and three questions about the academic teachers' reflections after observing their students' lessons. Similar to the qualitative part of the study, the interviewed academic teachers were encouraged to provide examples, elaborate on their answers and share their thoughts freely. The questions are listed below:

In my TEFL classes with university students and future teachers:
1. How do you present the issue of own language use in teaching English grammar? Provide examples.
2. How do you present the issue of own language use in teaching English vocabulary? Provide examples.
3. How do you present the issue of own language use in teaching skills? Provide examples.
4. How do you present the issue of own language use in grading and classroom management? Provide examples.
5. How do you present the issue of own language use in the EFL classroom regarding the level of the taught group?
6. Over the years, has there been any change in how you present the issue of own language use in TEFL to your students? If yes, what has changed?

On the bases of student teachers lesson observations:
1. What is the biggest advantage of student teachers using Polish during the observed lessons?
2. What is the biggest disadvantage of student teachers using Polish in the observed lessons?
3. Are there any other issues regarding own language use in EFL classroom that you discuss with your students?

5.5 Qualitative thematic analysis

The aim of the following section is to answer five qualitative research questions listed in section 5.2 by pinpointing the overarching themes across the interviews. For each theme, appropriate excerpts from the interviews will be provided. The themes were italicised in the text.

The first research question (RQ1) investigates how academic teachers present the issue of own language use in TEFL in relation to teaching new language: grammar, vocabulary and skills. Following the procedure from the qualitative part of the main study (See: Chapter 4, Section 4.4.2), first, academic teachers' answers to questions 1, 2 and 3 of the interviews were analysed since they asked directly about how the issue of using own language in teaching grammar, vocabulary and skills is addressed in their didactics classes. However, both coders also looked for themes regarding the linguistic domain in other sections of interviews.

As far as presenting new grammar to pupils is concerned, academic teachers seem to have a moderate to positive attitude towards own language use. Four out of six interviewed academics present Polish as useful in *clarifying* grammatical issues. A few chosen interview excerpts below:

> It is of course a discussion, an open issue, these are not black and white kind of problems or unanimously correct answers, so it is always part of an open discussion, but my position here, and I express it quite clearly to my students, is that the native language can be very helpful and is a base of numerous useful grammar teaching techniques. (Academic Teacher 2)

Additionally, some academics point out that using teaching techniques involving Polish is a matter included in the current *national curriculum*.

> And here is the answer to the question about teaching grammar, also linguistic mediation, which is, after all, in our [public school] curriculum and which, inter alia, assumes translation from one language to another, doesn't it? Processing this, this given message. So for me Polish should of course be present. Not too much, as we often observe it, but when it's justified you can surely refer to this language. (Academic Teacher 3)

Four academic teachers also present Polish as useful in *comparing and contrasting* new and own language:

> When it comes to grammar, I draw attention to, for example, language mistakes, that many language mistakes stem from transfer and therefore it is useful to refer to the native

150

language and make pupils sensitive to those differences occurring between languages. (Academic Teacher 6)

Then of course, when it comes to grammar, we always mention cross-language comparisons, for example specific language structures like Present Perfect, right? That in Polish you can sometimes express it in the Present tense, sometimes in the Past tense, right? Maybe like '*I have never done something*' or '*I have been doing something for some time*' and maybe make pupils aware of the function of this tense, right? (Academic Teacher 2)

Two academic teachers said they emphasize the importance of input and production in English and draw their students' attention to *communicative language teaching* first and foremost. Just two interviewees claimed that they explicitly discuss own language in grammar teaching as part of their didactics classes.

In contrast to teaching grammar, academic teachers were more clearly opinionated when it comes to presenting and clarifying new vocabulary. Four out of six academics present using own language as allowed when *comparing and contrasting* new and own language and when *clarifying* the meaning of new words. They also stated that in their didactics classes they discuss own language as useful in teaching vocabulary.

I do say that you can compare, when it comes to grammar, but especially when it comes to vocabulary. It's worth introducing similar vocabulary, cognates. (…) Draw students' attention to the fact that it is an easy way of expanding pupils' vocabulary, that of course false friends exist but maybe we should not demonize them. (Academic Teacher 1)

Yes, yes, it is one of the ways to, for example, present vocabulary, translation, isn't it? And I discuss the use of Polish also in, not only at the presentation stage, but when it is just better to translate a given word and sometimes students suggest specific situations and we discuss them, right? Abstract words, words that are difficult to translate, for example false friends, it is worth paying attention to them. (Academic Teacher 2)

One interviewee expressed clear *reservation* towards using own language in vocabulary teaching:

Rather not, here, when it comes to vocabulary, attention is paid to using as little Polish as possible. (…) If Polish must be used because pupils demand it, the technique we should use is explaining the word in English, give examples, in the least ask a pupil to suggest a Polish equivalent. But the teacher tries not to use own language in this area. (Academic Teacher 4)

Teaching reading, writing and speaking skills was the third domain investigated in RQ1. The dominating theme in the academic teachers' answers was *monolingual teaching* of language skills. All academic teachers emphasized the need for almost total exclusion of own language in teaching reading, writing and speaking. In fragments regarding

teaching writing and speaking a theme of *brainstorming* appeared, where own language should be allowed.

> [In teaching language skills] the stress is definitely put on English, but sometimes [Polish] appears as well, in these sessions, discussions, it also depends on a group – how eager they are to discuss topics. (…) They do a lot in pairs, groups, working out some ideas, and for example brainstorming them in Polish, why not? (Academic Teacher 2)
>
> When it comes to teaching speaking, communication skills, this should be conducted in the target language. We teach that a group should be monitored closely during communication classes conducted in groups, right? So that there is no switching to the native language. (Academic Teacher 4)
>
> And when it comes to teaching reading, I always show how beneficial it is to highlight unknown words in the text and this is good in the context. And then I would encourage students to explain these words from the reading in English, provide a synonym, this is much more valuable than translating. (Academic Teacher 5)

One academic teacher noticed the benefits of *comparing and contrasting* own language and new language pronunciations in teaching speaking skills and spelling in teaching writing.

> So of course also writing and speaking, the differences between how it looks in Polish, where there is not such a huge difference between the way we spell and pronounce words as in English, where the verbal realization of graphemes is different. I draw pupils' attention to that. (Academic Teacher 9)

Overall, it can be said that academic teachers see the benefits of using own language in teaching the new language. However, those benefits seem to be most pronounced in teaching grammar and less in teaching vocabulary and skills. It is safe to assume that this is also how they present the own language issue to their students and future language teachers.

The second research question (RQ2) investigates how academic teachers present the problem of own language use in TEFL in relation to the organizational domain: classroom management and grading, and the affective domain: relationship-building and classroom atmosphere. Once again, following the procedure from the qualitative part of the main study (See: Chapter 4, Section 4.4.2), first, academic teachers' answers to question 4 of the interviews were analysed since it asked directly about how the issue of using own language in classroom management and organization. However, both coders also looked for appropriate themes in other sections of the interviews.

In terms of classroom organization and management, academic teachers were un-divided – the prevalent theme was *monolingualism*. According to the interviewees, such actions as organizing work during a lesson or reprimanding students should be done in English. According to two academics Polish is allowed in giving instructions but just when absolutely necessary.

> English is rather favoured here. Sometimes we even do, depending on the class dynamic, but sometimes for those green, unexperienced teachers it's useful to gather some examples of phrases, typical phrases used in classroom management. (Academic Teacher 2)

> I rather express the view that it should be English and it is possible even in beginning groups. It is actually possible right from the start. It seems to me that this language of instructions and conducting the lesson can be done in very simple English. However, I always let my students know that there's nothing to fear if you help yourself with some Polish. (Academic Teacher 2)

> During class visitation we talk about it with students, that class management forced pupils to use English in real communication. Because describing a picture, let's be honest, is not fully communicative, while asking if you may open the door or anything else like that is based in reality, it is very real use of language and it is worth considering doing it just in English. (Academic Teacher 3)

> Class management, I just give an example of giving instructions and present right and wrong use. I show the future teachers the right and wrong use of Polish in giving instructions, full stop. When it comes to classroom management I try to show them that all the things, even with the youngest students, the earliest stages of education, all class management should be done predominantly in the target language. (Academic Teacher 5)

Grading is another aspect included in RQ2. In this domain academic teachers are more open to the use of own language, the themes that appear here are *clarity of feedback* and *age of pupils*:

> Yes, of course in giving feedback there are various techniques, also techniques encouraging self-correction, right? But here in grading and giving feedback I would suggest Polish, at least in primary school. (Academic Teacher 3)

> I believe that my students know that when it comes to talking to pupils about their mistakes, discussing them, it is for sure done in Polish because pupils' competence is not high enough to understand certain nuances, details in the target language. (Academic Teacher 4)

Academic Teacher 6 refers to *current literature* as well as *standards* promoted by the European Union:

> Nowadays, at least in methodological papers, there is much talk about how important the mother tongue is, so I follow that direction. When it comes to grading I tell my pupils

about formative assessment, open, descriptive evaluation and feedback and I certainly stress out that there is place for Polish there.
(…)
There also was this idea of the European language portfolio and we talk about it with students and how it was received by teachers. There was a survey and teachers did not appreciate the fact that the portfolio was prepared exclusively in Polish and there is no option of providing examples in English. In my opinion this is a drawback of this portfolio, students should be able to switch languages when reflecting on their performance and acquired skills. But nevertheless I always tell students that Polish should have its place and even dominate so that everything is understood and clear for pupils. The pupils need to understand their mistakes and strengths. (Academic Teacher 6)

However, Academic Teacher 2 claimed to present to their students a more conservative, *monolingual* model of grading and feedback, although not supporting it with any specific arguments:

When giving feedback etc. I emphasize the presence of English. It is also one of the points of one of our first discussions in class, how to do that well. I mostly try not to share my personal views on the matter and imply that English should be dominant here even with less advanced groups. (Academic Teacher 2)

Finally, the last element of RQ2 was how the interviewed academic teachers present the use of own language in terms of building relationships with pupils and good classroom atmosphere. The interviewed academics unequivocally expressed positive attitude towards own language use in order to *strike a chord* with pupils and create a *friendly learning environment*.

One of my friends who teaches at a German university noticed that she could not have as good contact with her students when speaking English with them as when speaking their native German. They surprised her in the way they could open fully in English and their own language helped in improving the atmosphere sometimes. So I think that in order to build a better relationship, have personal contact, Polish could also be used. Pupils should have the comfort of being able to communicate with the teacher in their own language if they wish to. (Academic Teacher 3)

The first thing that comes to mind is that a quick reaction in the native language can easily fix a problem with discipline. After the overflow of English, suddenly using Polish by a teacher who does not regularly use it is a surprise, it has a shock-effect. Oftentimes Polish helps children deal with some emotional issues. When we see that there is a lot of stress, that a child is getting lost and confused, maybe is overwhelmed by the amount of English, insertion of Polish allows to relieve this emotional tension. (Academic Teacher 4)

It is important, in my opinion, to stress in the beginning of the school year, or maybe the lesson, as part of a code of conduct, it should be said that own language is permitted so that the pupils are not afraid of asking questions if they don't understand something. So it is really important and also part of a strategic training – using your own language in some contexts is one of the strategies, isn't it? So a pupil should know that they can help themselves in this way. (Academic Teacher 6)

The third research question (RQ3) investigated how academic teachers present the problem of own language use in TEFL in relation to the pupils' language level. First, academic teachers' answers to question 5 of the interviews were analysed since it asked directly about the influence of the group level on the use of own language. However, both coders also looked for appropriate themes in other sections of the interviews.

One of the first themes found in the academic teachers' responses was *age vs. level*. The interviewed academics noticed that very often the age of pupils and group level are different variables influencing the use of own language in the classroom. A chosen excerpt below:

> Age seems to be a different factor than level and I give my students lots of examples from diploma lessons, which I visit. In many cases there isn't even a word of Polish spoken in the classroom [in primary school visitations] and they are very successful lessons. But language level seems to be a more important factor. Of course, the low level does not mean that Polish should be used a lot necessarily. (Academic Teacher 2)

The second and third themes found in the interviewed at first glance seem to contradict each other. Some academic teachers are of the opinion that *the lower the level, the less own language* should be used by a teacher:

> In my classes we stress out how important authentic, natural communication is, especially in early education. On the other hand, we say that an older or adult student learning a new language needs the support of their mother tongue. (Academic Teacher 4)

> I would allow own language if it is inversely proportional to the language level. So the more advanced a group is, the less I would care, the less rigorous the use of Polish would be, because then you can incorporate some linguistic intricacies, bilingual games, etc. I would really encourage that. On the other hand, with the youngest groups or groups that do not know English at all, I would encourage teachers to use the most their time in the lesson in the target language. (Academic Teacher 5)

Some, on the other hand, believe that *the lower the level, the more own language is needed*:

> Sure, when it comes to purely administrative issues, explaining, instructing, if the level is lower, you need to explain more, because understanding and clarity is important. (Academic Teacher 6)

This disparity in opinions is quite striking, although after taking a closer look at the entirety of the interviews one could offer a simplified summary of the age-level-own language conundrum. It seems that the interviewed academics agree that when working with

groups on higher levels a teacher can be more free in their choice of using pupils' own language. It can be done to draw interesting parallels between languages or delve into grammatical intricacies that might be interesting for advanced students. Additionally, advanced students will surely appreciate a joke or anecdote in their own language here and there – which allows to build a creative and fun learning environment. All the above is also true for adult and teenage learners of English – even if they are only intermediate or beginner learners. On the other hand, the same adult or teenage intermediate or beginner learners, similarly to children on lower language levels, need to be exposed to the new language as much as possible. In these groups, Polish will also be used, but to clarify instructions and give meaningful feedback.

The fourth research question (RQ4) investigated if and how academic teachers' opinions about own language use in TEFL changed over the years. First, academic teachers' answers to question 6 of the interviews were analysed since it asked directly about the influence of group level on the use of own language. However, both coders also looked for appropriate themes in other sections of the interviews.

Overall, all academic teachers admitted in the interviews that in the course of their university education and professional careers attitudes towards own language use in the academia have changed. Some interviewees described the change from explicitly *negative to positive*:

> Ten or fifteen years ago, to be honest, I was more of a proponent of monolingual teaching, English only. (…) And here I admit I did not discuss own language use in my classes at all. Now, however, I am more convinced that there is a positive influence there, of own language. (Academic Teacher 2)

> I was taught that way, that you cannot say anything in the mother tongue and I see that native speakers who work at out institution and live in Poland, they exclude Polish altogether, from what I have seen and heard. In my opinion it is a little absurd, (…) when I was a student it caused a lot of stress, that you couldn't say anything unless it was in English. I think there was the opinion that this helped learn the language and develop language skills. (Academic Teacher 6)

One of the interviewed academics noticed that apart from the change from *negative to positive*, the attitudes to own language use in the academia have *fluctuated*:

> I think it comes in waves, there are trends in teaching grammar, it works like a pendulum, it goes one way and then back. Of course I remember when I was a student I was told to use only English, to avoid the mother tongue completely. (…) Now the spell has been sort of removed from this issue and it is said to be beneficial, the use of own language. (Academic Teacher 4)

Another interviewed academic teacher described their attitude and practice in terms of own language use in TEFL as always being *liberal*. They also mention that the *national curriculum* has encouraged conscious bilingualism in students, therefore allowing more bilingual activities in the classroom:

> I was never forbidden to use Polish in classes. I know that some students do not entirely believe that conducting a class totally in English is possible, for example in a primary school and I encourage them to try, with an option to use Polish. So I encourage students to use mostly English, but Polish should be like a safety net. For sure there were changes in the national curriculum, mediation or language processing appeared and is included in the national examination, so there is a change. But when it comes to my own education, nobody forbade me to use Polish. We discussed the use of Polish in relation to various methods, how it evolved, but let's say now we are more conscious of the role of our mother tongue in TEFL, in the past it was more intuitive. (Academic Teacher 3)

The fifth research question (RQ5) investigated if and how academic teachers' opinions about own language use in TEFL changed over the years. First, academic teachers' answers to questions 7, 8 and 9 of the interviews were analysed since it asked directly about their observations of own language use by student teachers during lesson visitations. However, both coders also looked for appropriate themes in other sections of the interviews. Academic teachers were asked about the positive and negative aspects of own language use by their student teachers, as observed during lesson visitation. One of the positive aspects was *better understanding*:

> (…) I often notice when students conduct their lessons, that they are in English and then there is a short summary in Polish, for example. They are often a little bit clumsy and lost in that, they are very inexperienced teachers obviously. But I would say that helping understanding is the main benefit. (Academic Teacher 2)

Another positive theme was *better relationship with pupils*:

> It seems to me that contact with students is one of the benefits, as well as helping students understand what is going on, providing explanation, ensuring that everything's clear. (Academic Teacher 3)

Among the negative themes observed in the interviews were: *too little exposition to English*, *overreliance on Polish* and *lack of linguistic creativity*:

> (…) if it is overused that there is lack of sufficient exposition to English, of course. (…) To introduce vocabulary some students use a picture and sometimes even though the picture is clear to understand, pupils still demand a Polish translation. And that this

an issue – they are used to Polish translations and feel lost without it, even though they get an explanation in English and an illustration and everything should be clear. This causes the overreliance on Polish, feeling unsafe without it. This, of course, does not help communication. (Academic Teacher 2)

The biggest problem? Just like in the times of teaching Latin, we translate everything both ways, pupils do not learn whole phrases or sentences, the point is not to communicate, but to have this one-to-one correspondence. This leads to translating whole texts, they translate them verbatim, re-write them. I have seen this in my classroom visits. This closes students up for language, experimenting, playing with it. It turns into maths with letters. It is not good and not fun. (Academic Teacher 4)

Apart from the above analysis referring to previously established research questions 1-5, one of the interviews also offers a look at the overall organization of teacher training in esteemed institutions around Poland. The remarks made by Academic Teacher 1 pertained to the lack of uniformity in teacher education and training and were not only interesting to the researcher, but also valuable for the current study.

First, the academic pointed out that there is no uniform teacher training system for students of English in Poland:

You know, at our institution we do not have didactics classes, we have a teaching methods and teaching young learners courses as elective courses and then special designer courses conducted by various lecturers. We do not even have a dedicated specialization, just a TEFL "path". We have around 40 students on it, maybe 20 now.

There is also no uniformity in terms of classes student teachers are required to take:

What is more, we have this very bizarre system, I mean it is very student-friendly, it is a system of individualized courses. Our students select these courses according to their interests, but apart from that I literally demanded that there be an intro to teaching methods common for all students on the "teaching path". The rest, some lectures on teaching methods or didactics, are elective.

The TEFL curriculum in Poland is not universal for all teacher-training institutions, either:

So we just, not to make a total revolution, we try to bend the rules that are introduced, the administrative requirements etc. And on top of that there is the issue of what a particular lecturer or tutor actually knows: some of them are more traditional, older, we cannot really know how up-to-date they are with the literature. Not everyone has heard of *linguistic imperialism*, for instance. It is all very complex.

Finally, there are no uniform requirements in terms of teaching practice for students on the "teaching path" of English studies:

> In a nutshell: looking at how differently the requirements for gaining a teaching permission are conducted in different institutions (Universities, Teaching Colleges, etc.)… We do it in the easiest way possible because there are three, four people in our department and we are not able to visit forty student teachers' lessons, it is physically impossible. Especially that we will not be paid for going anywhere out of the city.

Academic Teacher 1 was not the only interviewee who emphasized the problem of the lack of uniformity in teacher education before answering any interview questions. Rather than doing it explicitly and offering an explanation, however, the rest of the academics tended to stress that the researcher ought to treat their answers individually, not as an example of what approaches are present in the whole system. The above fragments and those more implicit "defenses" paint a rather unorganized picture of the Polish TEFL education, where particular lecturers and tutors decide about their curricula and the content of their classes, and where students are not legally required to conduct any certain number of lessons under proper supervision.

5.6 General discussion

As discussed in theoretical Chapters 1 and 2, the role of students' own language in teaching new languages has sparked controversy since the end of the 19th century (Butzkamm 2003: 29). Starting with the Grammar-Translation method, through the Reform Movement, natural methods of language teaching and various teaching methods developed after the World War I and II, the opinions about own language use in teaching have had their ebbs and flows.

In the 21st century, after decades of the world dominance of *monolingual teaching*, new ideas and movements have emerged in the field of Second Language Acquisition (Duff and Polio 1990, Stern 1992, Macaro 1997, Cook 2001, Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009, Hall and Cook 2012). Arguments shaking the ground under the *monolingual principle* have also come from the sociolinguistic perspective; western culture has been changing, giving voice to the previously unheard: ethnic minorities, victims of British and American imperialism, speakers of regional languages and heritage languages, as well as those who speak different varieties of English. Moreover, the status of "native" ESL teachers has been called into question and non-NESTs have been advocating

for themselves, and been advocated for, in the ESL world. (Atkinson 1993, Widdowson 2003). With the development of new branches of linguistics: psycholinguistics and cognitive linguistics, and an in-depth inquiry into the issues of transfer and code-switching, even more evidence appeared for the complex nature of acquiring a new language and their interconnectivity in the human mind (Epstein 1915, Mecken 1937, Fries 1945, Weinreich 1953, Lado 1957, Odlin 1989, 2003, Gass and Selinker 1992, Bowermann 1996, Imai and Gentner 1997, Grosjean 1998, Bowerman and Choi 2001, 2003, Herdina and Jessner 2002, van Hell and Dijkstra 2002, de Bot, Lowie and Verspoor 2005, Cook et al. 2006, Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008, Pavlenko 2008, Bialystok 2009, 2011, Gullberg 2011). Empirical studies such as Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996) provided justification for the return of Contrastive Analysis, and reports such as Dziubalska-Kołaczyk (2015) suggested positive influence of elements of CA on learning pronunciation. Using OL appears to have positive influence on vocabulary learning and retention, as well (Lee and Macaro 2010, Tian and Macaro 2012). Finally, looking into EFL classrooms around the world, it appears that teaching practice has not been in concert with the *monolingual principle* for a long time, if ever. EFL teachers use OL for a variety of purposes: to facilitate and precipitate teaching new vocabulary and grammar, create a safer, more friendly space for students, organize classroom life effectively, or provide meaningful and clear feedback (Dodson 1967/1972, Allwright and Bailey 1991, Ellis 1994, 2003, Butzkamm 2001, Deller and Rinvolucri 2002, Chen 2003, Macaro 2006, Kim and Elder 2008, Brooks-Lewis 2009, Littlewood and Yu 2011, Hall and Cook 2012).

Another theoretical account worth mentioning when deliberating the changes in the SLA landscape is the so-called *Multilingual turn* (Conteh and Meier 2014, May 2014, Meier 2016, Vetter and Jessner 2019). Considering the dynamically changing portrait of a typical language learner in the global West and the omnipresence of multilingual students in EFL classrooms, Meier concludes:

> (…) my findings showed that authors, associated with the multilingual turn, conceive *languages* as a resource for learning and as associated with status and power; the *learners* as diverse multilingual and social practitioners; and *learning* as a multilingual social practice based on theoretical pluralism, consistently guided by critical perspectives. (Meier 2016: 131)

This sort of "zooming in" on the diversity of social, and therefore also teaching-learning, contexts in the West "has increasingly challenged bounded, unitary and reified conceptions of languages and related notions of 'native speaker' and 'mother tongue'" (May

2014: 1), the obsolescence of which has also been argued in Section 1.1.1 of the current work. However, as May (2014) also observes, the "mainstream" SLA representation and the majority of the TESOL industry appears to be purposefully deaf to the diversity argument, rarely engaging with the *status quo*-contesting "critical applied linguists".

In view of all the above, investigating the status and use of own languages in the practice of EFL teachers remains a fascinating and worthwhile endeavour, ever so in the rapidly changing Western societies. As described in Section 3.2 of the current work, literature reports the presence of OL in EFL classrooms worldwide (Duff and Polio 1990, Edstrom 2006, Kim and Elder 2008, Hall and Cook 2013). However, the use of OL by teachers appears to be unsystematic and quite complex. There have also been scientific inquiries into whether factors such as group level, age of students, or work experience influence the quantity and purpose of OL in EFL classrooms (Liu et al. 2004, Lynch 2015).

This project was an attempt at investigating a possible combination of the two factors: teacher experience and group level, on the actual use of OL by EFL teachers. The work is pioneering for a number of reasons. First, it offers an in-depth look into teachers' attitudes and practices by employing a mixed-methods design. Not only was a large, representative group of Polish EFL teachers and student teachers asked to complete a detailed, carefully designed questionnaire, but a selected group of participants was also interviewed and had their lessons observed. This allowed to gain a holistic look at the matter in question, by analyzing and cross-referencing quantitative and qualitative data to fully understand the results and draw meaningful conclusions. Secondly, this research study has been conducted in the Polish context, which tends to be underrepresented in similar studies. The results of this research will hopefully serve as a valuable source of knowledge for both applied linguists and practicing teachers in Poland as well as other Slavic countries and countries of similar linguistic landscapes. Finally, to fully understand the roots and causes of Polish EFL teachers' choices in terms of the use of OL, a follow-up study has been conducted to investigate the academic, teacher-training context and complete the picture by adding current information about EFL teacher education in the leading Polish universities.

5.6.1 Implication for EFL teaching

The results of this study have a number of implications for EFL teaching.

From a global perspective, the study offers a look at an underrepresented part of the English-teaching world. It is worthwhile to provide an analysis of EFL teachers' behaviour in Central Europe, where the public school context is widely different than in Western Europe. Polish language education comes with its own challenges and intricacies, and investigating its complexities is important, for example from the perspective of the European Union regulators and law-makers.

From a Polish perspective, this work may serve as a useful self-reflection and a looking glass providing a peek into the practices of other teachers. The results of the study suggest that in case of Polish teachers, in the past, when English was not so ubiquitous and ever-present in business, education, culture and entertainment, it was for a reason that monolingual teaching was so heavily promoted among teachers of previous generations, keeping them disciplined. However, new, younger teachers seem to present a different level and control over their skills, both linguistic and pedagogical, and thus giving them methodological 'permission' to use Polish in certain contexts would not pose a danger of Polish being overused in the classroom, but rather provide a resource for both them and their pupils alike. This study is a chance to raise awareness, promote openness and start a discussion about how and why EFL teachers use Polish in their classrooms, and whether these practices should be systematized in some way.

Finally, the follow-up study will hopefully raise awareness regarding the lack of uniformity in teacher education in Poland and inspire academics and teacher trainers to consider how this influences language education in Poland as a whole.

5.6.2 Limitation of the study

There are a number of limitations to the current study that need to be mentioned and considered.

First, although the group of participants recruited for the quantitative part of the study was substantial and representative, the group of teachers involved in the interviews and lesson observations was gathered using convenience sampling. This is a weakness of the

qualitative part of the study and it is suggested that in the replicating or following up on the current study a bigger and more diverse group of teachers be interviewed and have their lessons observed.

Second, the study was conducted over the course of two years, from 2017 to 2019. Since then, the world has changed both globally and locally, and with it changed EFL classrooms. Before the pandemic and the war in Ukraine Polish classrooms were vastly monolingual – economic immigration from the East was present, but did not change the educational environment in a substantial way. After the Russian invasion, Poland welcomed millions of refugees, predominantly Ukrainian, but also from other Eastern countries. Polish EFL classrooms are therefore no longer the same as in 2019 – the monolingual setting is changing rapidly and dynamically, introducing many new own languages in EFL education. Perhaps in 2023, with the *monolingual turn* fully in place also in Central Europe, Polish teachers would express different opinions regarding the usefulness of Polish in their practices.

Considering the above limitations, follow-up studies recruiting more teachers for interviews and lesson observations, as well as investigating how the Russo-Ukrainian war is shaping the experiences and practices of Polish teachers are needed and should be conducted in the future.

Concluding remarks

This dissertation was an attempt to reflect on the attitudes towards the use of learners' own languages in foreign language pedagogy and specifically investigate the attitudes and practices of Polish teachers of English.

The theoretical part of the thesis provided an overview of the history of foreign language teaching methods that lead to the domination of the *monolingual teaching* approach. It also reported on the newest findings from the fields of SLA, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and classroom research which lay the groundwork for the return of own languages in TEFL.

The empirical part of the study was a mixed-methods research project which first used quantitative data from a specially-designed questionnaire, and then qualitative data from interviews and lesson observations, to draw conclusions about the attitudes and practices of Polish teachers of English. Teachers' use of Polish in the classroom was investigated for three main domains: the linguistic domain (grammar and vocabulary), the affective domain (students' comfort and relationship building) and the organisational domain (classroom management and feedback). The ANOVA tests were conducted for two variables: teachers' work experience in years and the level of taught groups. It was hypothesized that (1) less experienced teachers are stricter about excluding Polish from their teaching, adhering tightly to the professional instruction they most likely received at university, and that (2) the lower their pupils' level of English, the more inclined teachers feel to support their teaching with the use of Polish. The results of the study partially confirmed Hypothesis 1: teachers with different work experience were not as different from each other as expected. However, interesting patterns came to light regarding the rift between young student teachers and those who have just started their professional journey, and the already practicing teachers. Hypothesis 2 was fully supported, as across the questionnaire tasks and interviews it has been shown that the lower the level of students, the more Polish is used in the classrooms, and the more it is accepted as a methodological tool. Interviews and lesson observations corroborated the results of the qualitative part of the study and provided more insight into the matter.

Numerous studies in the field of neurolinguistics show that languages in the multilingual brain coexist and blend. However, our emotional reactions or decision-

making processes seem to be different depending on the language we speak or hear. For instance, Cipolletti et al (2015) demonstrate that the Foreign-Language Effect can lead to forming different moral judgements depending on the chosen language. Storme et al. (2017) report that language-switching in multilinguals may lead to more original thinking and generating more creative ideas. Jończyk et al. (2019) show that processing negative emotions seems to be easier when done in the non-native language. There are multiple accounts of the bilingual and multilingual condition being beneficial for language users both on a cognitive and emotional level. As mentioned previously, due to social changes around the world, not many classrooms consist of homogenous groups who speak the same language as their own, Poland notwithstanding. Multilingualism seems to be the future of humanity.

With this in mind, this research project proposed a look at a changing Polish EFL classroom and teachers' practices with hope to (1) spark a constructive discussion about how much Polish ought to be used in classrooms to promote multilingualism, provide meaningful feedback and build emotionally comfortable learning environment without sacrificing the invaluable classroom time that should be spent providing input in English, and (2) talk about how to systematise what knowledge about this issue is imparted tostudent-teachers.

Abstract

The role of learners' own language (or L1) in foreign language teaching has been a subject of a methodological debate since the end of the 19th century (Butzkamm 2003). Throughout the history of TEFL attitudes towards own language use in EFL have fluctuated (Howatt 1984). The grammar-translation method introduced at the end of the 18th century deemed students' own language as crucial, as virtually every aspect of language teaching in the grammar-translation method relied heavily on the use of learners' L1 (Howatt 1984, Richards and Rodgers 1986, Howatt and Smith 2014, Cook 2010). Towards the end of the 18th century and in the 19th century attempts were made at introducing teaching methods that engaged the taught language more, first by the pre-reformers and then by the linguists and teachers involved in the Reform Movement (Howatt 1984). Finally, the end of 19th and 20th century, with such representatives as Sweet, Berlitz, Palmer, Krashen or Long, were marked by the development of natural methods of language teaching, audiolingualism, or error analysis. These movements, methods and approaches all slowly but surely led to the exclusion of students' own languages from the classroom and the promotion of *monolingual teaching* (Richards and Rodgers 1986, Howatt and Smith 2014).

21st century, however, brought a breakthrough work of Cook (2001) – a re-examination of the role of own language in the FL classroom. In the last twenty years numerous arguments have been made for the re-evaluation and re-introduction of students' own language is different domains of language teaching. First, the supporting evidence came from the psycholinguistic research showing that languages coexist in the mind and code-switching and code-change are natural for bi- and multilinguals (Obler 1982, Beauvillain and Graninger 1987, Locastro 1987, Cook 1993). Second, Stern (1992) argued that *monolingual* and *bilingual* teaching are actually two sides of the spectrum on which teachers move freely, depending on the objectives of a given lesson. Third, the use of translation in new language teaching has been re-evaluated (Stern 1992, Widdowson 2003, Hall and Cook 2012). Fourth, the sociolinguistic perspective also started to be taken into consideration, accounting for learners' cultural backgrounds, the undeniable burden of British imperialism, and the status of native versus non-native teachers of English (Philipson 1992, Atkinson 1993, Cook 2001, Widdowson 2003, Cook 2010). Fifth,

evidence from the fields of Second Language Acquisition and recently neurolinguistics and neuroimaging research revealed the impossibility of separating different languages in a human mind (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008, Bialystok 2009, Gullberg 2011), the advantages of code-switching in bi- and multilinguals (Cook 2010, Nikula 2007), and that learners' own language and the learnt language actually trigger or suppress different emotions (Jończyk et al. 2016, 2019). Sixth, it has been shown that students' own languages are used in classrooms around the world (Hall and Cook 2012, Hall and Cook 2013) and it is a state of affairs which cannot be denied regardless of what the literature advises. In fact, teachers' code-switching in some environments was reported to help create a safer space for students, appreciate the value of national languages, promote multilingualism, and open more educational possibilities (Hall and Cook 2012). Finally, with the recent *Multilingual turn*, changes in the language classrooms around the world and the multilingual condition being the default one in the ever-evolving societies, using more than one language in classrooms is becoming a standard.

Considering all the above, the current research project is an investigation of the practices and attitudes regarding the use of learners' own language in the classroom by Polish teachers of English. The study followed a mixed-method design. In line with Lynch (2015), two variables were tested: teachers' work experience (in years), and the level of taught groups. To ensure data triangulation, a survey based on Cook and Hall (2012) and Scheffler et al. (2017) was conducted on a large, representative group of teachers, followed by interviews and lesson observations of a chosen group of teachers. Additionally, to obtain a holistic picture of the investigated problem, six teacher-trainers employed in leading universities in Poland were interviewed. The results of the study partially confirmed Hypothesis 1: teachers with different work experience were not as different from each other as expected. However, interesting patterns came to light regarding the rift between young student teachers and those who have just started their professional journey, and the already practicing teachers. Hypothesis 2 was fully supported, as across the questionnaire tasks and interviews it has been shown that the lower the level of students, the more Polish is used in the classrooms, and the more it is accepted as a methodological tool. Interviews and lesson observations corroborated the results of the qualitative part of the study and provided more insight into the matter. The results of the study may offer a valuable contribution to classroom research as well as spark discussion about systematizing the issue of own language use in student-teachers' education.

Streszczenie

Rola języka ojczystego (L1) w nauczaniu języków obcych stanowi przedmiot debaty metodologicznej od końca XIX wieku (Butzkamm 2003). Stosunek do wykorzystywania języka ojczystego w nauczaniu języka angielskiego wielokrotnie zmieniał się na przestrzeni lat (Howatt 1984). W metodzie gramatyczno-tłumaczeniowej, wprowadzonej pod koniec XVIII wieku, język ojczysty był uznawany za kluczowy – zasadniczo każdy aspekt nauczania języka w tej metodzie silnie się na nim opiera (Howatt 1984, Richards and Rodgers 1986, Howatt i Smith 2014, Cook 2010). Końcówka XVIII wieku i XIX wiek to okres ruchu reformatorskiego (Reform Movement), w ramach którego językoznawcy i nauczyciele eksperymentowali z metodami nauczania bardziej angażującymi drugi język (Howatt 1984). Z kolei późny XIX i XX wiek charakteryzowały się rozwojem naturalnych metod nauczania języków obcych, audiolingwalizmu, oraz analizy błędu, reprezentowanych przez m.in. Sweeta, Berlitza, Palmera, Krashena i Longa. Wszystkie te ruchy, metody i podejścia stopniowo, konsekwentnie prowadziły do wyłączenia pierwszego języka z nauczania języków obcych i promocji nauczania jednojęzycznego (Richards i Rodgers 1986, Howatt i Smith 2014).

W XXI wieku, dzięki analizie roli pierwszego języka w nauczaniu języków obcych, Cook (2001) doprowadził do metodologicznego przełomu. W ciągu ostatnich 20 lat wielokrotnie analizowano kwestię stosowania pierwszego języka w nauczaniu języków obcych i ponownego wprowadzenia go do różnych obszarów związanych z nauczaniem języków obcych. Pierwsze dowody potwierdzające użyteczność języka ojczystego w tym zakresie zostały dostarczone przez psycholingwistykę; wykazano, że języki koegzystują w umyśle, oraz że *code-switching* i *code-change* są naturalne dla osób dwu- i wielojęzycznych (Obler 1982, Beauvillain i Graninger 1987, Locastro 1987, Cook 1993). Po drugie, w 1992 roku Stern dowiódł, że *jednojęzyczne* i *dwujęzyczne* nauczanie to w rzeczywistości dwa bieguny spektrum, po którym nauczyciele języków obcych swobodnie się przemieszczają w zależności od celu danej lekcji. Po trzecie, ponownie przeanalizowano kwestię wykorzystania tłumaczenia w nauczaniu drugiego języka (Stern 1992, Widdowson 2003, Hall i Cook 2012). Po czwarte, zaczęto brać pod uwagę perspektywę socjolingwistyczną, uwzględniając takie czynniki jak zaplecze kulturowe uczniów, niezaprzeczalne brzemię brytyjskiego imperializmu, oraz status natywnych nauczycieli

języka angielskiego w porównaniu do nie-natywnych (Philipson 1992, Atkinson 1993, Cook 2001, Widdowson 2003, Cook 2010). Po piąte, badania z dziedziny akwizycji drugiego języka, neurolingwistyki i neuroobrazowania ujawniły brak możliwości oddzielenia od siebie różnych języków w ludzkim umyśle (Jarvis i Pavlenko 2008, Bialystok 2009, Gullberg 2011), korzyści z *code-switching* dla osób dwu- i wielojęzycznych (Cook 2010, Nikula 2007), oraz że język ojczysty i drugi język wywołują i tłumią różne emocje (Jończyk i in. 2016, 2019). Po szóste, wykazano że języki ojczyste są powszechnie stosowane w nauczaniu języków obcych na całym świecie (Hall i Cook 2012, Hall i Cook 2013), bez względu na metodologiczne zalecenia. Co więcej, istnieją doniesienia o korzyściach płynących z *code-switching* u nauczycieli – w pewnych środowiskach stwarzało to bezpieczniejszą atmosferę dla uczniów, pomagało dowartościować języki ojczyste, promowało wielojęzyczność, a także stwarzało więcej możliwości edukacyjnych (Hall i Cook 2012). Wreszcie ostatni *zwrot wielojęzyczny* (*Multilingual turn*), zmiany zachodzące w praktycznym nauczaniu języków obcych na całym świecie, oraz coraz powszechniejsza wielojęzyczność w stale ewoluujących społeczeństwach – to wszystko złożyło się nowy standard, jakim jest stosowanie więcej niż jednego języka w nauczaniu języków obcych.

W świetle powyższego niniejsza praca bada praktyki i stosunek nauczycieli języka angielskiego do wykorzystywania języka polskiego w nauczaniu. Badanie opiera się na metodologii mieszanej. Wzorując się na pracy Lyncha (2015) uwzględniono dwie zmienne: doświadczenie nauczycieli (mierzone w latach), oraz poziom zaawansowania nauczanych grup. W celu zapewnienia triangulacji danych, przeprowadzono ankietę w oparciu o prace Cooka i Halla (2012) i Schefflera i in. (2017) na dużej, reprezentatywnej grupie nauczycieli, a następnie szereg wywiadów i obserwacji lekcji wybranej grupy nauczycieli. Dodatkowo, w celu uzyskania holistycznego obrazu analizowanego zagadnienia, przeprowadzono wywiady z sześcioma pracownikami wiodących polskich uczelni specjalizującymi się w kształceniu nauczycieli. Wyniki badania częściowo potwierdziły Hipotezę 1: nauczyciele o różnym poziomie doświadczenia nie różnili się od siebie w zakładanym stopniu. Zidentyfikowano jednak interesujące wzorce ilustrujące rozłam między studentami specjalizacji nauczycielskiej realizującymi praktyki i nauczycielami-stażystami, a bardziej doświadczonymi pedagogami. Hipoteza 2 została całkowicie potwierdzona w toku badań: na podstawie zadań z kwestionariusza i wywiadów wykazano, że im niższy poziom uczniów, tym więcej języka polskiego używano na zajęciach,

i tym większa akceptacja dla języka polskiego jako narzędzia metodologicznego. Wywiady i obserwacje lekcji potwierdziły rezultaty jakościowej części badania i rzuciły na nie więcej światła. Wyniki niniejszej rozprawy mogą stanowić cenny wkład w badania nad praktyką nauczania języków obcych, jak również przyczynek do dyskusji na temat usystematyzowania kwestii wykorzystania języka ojczystego w kształceniu przyszłych nauczycieli.

References

Aitchison, Jean. 2003. *Words in the mind: an introduction to the mental lexicon* (3rd edition.) Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Allwright, Dick and Kathleen Bailey. 1991. *Focus on the language learner.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

American Council of Learned Societies. Committee on the Language Program. 1952. *Structural notes and corpus; a basis for the preparation of materials to teach English as a foreign language.*

Ammar, Ahlem, Patsy M. Lightbown and Nina Spada. 2010. "Awareness of L1/L2 differences: does it matter?". *Language Awareness* 19, 2: 129-146.

Angiolillo, Paul. 1947. *Armed Forces Foreign Language Teaching*. New York: S F Vanni.

Atkinson, David. 1993. "Teaching in the target language: a problem in the current orthodoxy." *The Language Learning Journal* 8, 1: 2-5.

Attride-Stirling, Jennifer. 2001. "Thematic networks: an analytic tool for qualitative research." *Qualitative Research* 1, 3: 385-405.

Auerbach, Elsa. 1993. "Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom." *TESOL Quarterly* 27, 1: 9-32.

Axtell, James L. (ed.). 1968. *The educational writings of John Locke; a critical edition with introduction and notes, by John L. Axtell*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Barsalou, Lawson. 1990. "Access and interference in categorization." *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society* 28, 3: 268-271.

Basnight-Brown, Dana M. 2014. "Models of lexical access and bilingualism." in: Robert Heredia and Jeanette Altarriba (eds.). *Foundations of bilingual memory*. New York: Springer.

Benati, Alessandro. 2005. "The effects of processing instruction, traditional instruction and meaning-output instruction on the acquisition of the English past simple tense." *Language Teaching Research* 9, 1: 67-93.

Berlitz, Maximilian. 1898. *The Berlitz method for teaching modern languages. English part. First book.* (10th edition). Berlin: Cronbach.

Berlitz, Maximilian. 1917. *Method for teaching modern languages.* New York: Berlitz.

Bialystok, Ellen. 2001. *Bilingualism in development: Language, literacy and cognition.* London: Cambridge University Press.

Bialystok, Ellen. 2011. "Coordination of executive functions in monolingual and bilingual children". *Journal of Cognition and Development* 110, 3: 461-468.

Binder Jeffrey R. et al. 2005. "Distinct brain systems for processing concrete and abstract words." *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* 17, 6: 905-917.

Bowerman, Melissa and Soonja Choi. 2001. "Shaping meanings for language: Universal and language-specific in the acquisition of spatial semantic categories". In Melissa Bowerman and Stephen Levinson (eds.), *Language acquisition and conceptual development.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Bowerman, Melissa and Soonja Choi. 2003. "Space under construction: Language-specific spatial categorization in first language acquisition". In Dedre Gentner and Susan Goldin-Meadow (eds.), *Language in mind: Advances in the study of language and thought.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

British Educational Research Association (BERA). 2018. *Ethical guidelines for educational research.* (4th edition.) London.

Brooks-Lewis, Kimberly Anne. 2009. "Adult learners' perceptions of the incorporation of their L1 in foreign language teaching and learning." *Applied Linguistics* 30, 2: 216-235.

Brown, S.R. 1980. *Political subjectivity: applications of Q methodology in political science.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Boyatzis, Richard E. 1998. *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Braun, Virginia and Victoria Clarke. 2006. "Using thematic analysis in psychology." *Qualitative Research in Psychology* 3: 77-101.

Braun, Virginia and Victoria Clarke. 2014. "What can 'thematic analysis' offer health and wellbeing researchers?" *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being* 9, 1: 1-2.

Brooks-Lewis, Kimberly Anne. 2009. "Adult learners' perceptions of the incorporation of their L1 in foreign language teaching and learning." *Applied Linguistics* 30, 21: 216-235.

Brysbaert, Marc and Woulter Duych. 2010. "Is it time to leave behind the Revised Hierarchical Model of bilingual language processing after fifteen years of service?" *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 13, 2: 359-371.

Brzoza, Bartosz. 2017. "Rozwijanie świadomości fonetycznej w zakresie (pozornie) podobnych form leksykalnych a rozumienie mowy języka obcego." *Języki obce wszkole* 2: 25-28.

Butzkamm, Wolfgang. 2003. "We only learn language once. The role of the mother tongue in FL classrooms: Death of a dogma", *Language Learning Journal* 28: 29-39.

Butzkamm, Wolfgang. 2014. "What is a 'natural' approach? Or why is gradation and systemization necessary, even if it isn't natural?" Review of *Systemization in foreign language teaching. Monitoring content progression*. by Wilfried Decoo. (https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/view/21020271/what-is-a-natural-fremdsprachendidaktik-rwth-aachen-) (date of access: 28.05.2023).

Butzkamm, Wolfgand and John A.W. Caldwell. 2009. *The bilingual reform: a paradigm shift in foreign language teaching*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Byram, Mike. 2004. *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning.* New York: Routledge.

Canale, Michael and Merrill Swain. 1980. "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing." *Applied Linguistics* 1, 1: 1-47.

Campfield, Dorota et al. 2012. *Szkolne, psychologiczne i społezcne uwarunkowania wyników nauczania na I etapie edukacyjnym. Raport na podstawie wyników fazy wstępnej ogólnopolskiego badania podłużnego Szkolnych Uwarunkowań Efektywności Kształcenia.* Warszawa: Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych.

Carless, David R. 2003. "Factors in the implementation of task-based teaching in primary schools." *System* 31: 485-500.

Copland Fiona and Georgios Neokleous. 2010. "L1 to teach L2 complexities and contradictions." *ELT Journal* 65, 3: 270-280.

Carroll, James L. 1974. "Demonstration techniques simulating four language disabilities." *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 7, 5: 287-290.

Chambers, F. 1991. "Promoting use of the target language in the classroom." *Language Learning Journal* 4: 27-31.

Chastain, Kenneth. 1971. *The development of modern language skills: theory practice.* Philadelphia, Penn.: Curriculum Development Center.

Cipolletti, Heather et al. 2015. "The moral foreign-language effect." *Philosophical Psychology* 29, 1 (https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/09515089.2014.993063?scroll=top&needAccess=true&role=tab&aria-labelledby=full-article) (access date: 30.05.2023).

Chlopek, Zofia. 2008. "The intercultural approach to EFL teaching and learning." *English Teaching Forum* 4: 10-19.

Chłoń-Domińczak, Agniesszka. 2017. "Changes in the education system in Poland." *European Social Policy Network (ESPN) Flash Report*.

Chomsky, Noam. 2015 (1957). *Syntactic structures*. Benton Harbor, MI: Martino Fine Books.

Cohen, Louis, Lawrence Manion and Keith Morrison. 2011. *Research methods in education*. (8th edition.) London: Routledge.

Cole, Simon. 1998. "The use of L1 in Communicative English classrooms." *The Language Teacher* 22, 12.

Council of Europe, Modern Languages Division, Strasbourg. 2011. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching and assessment.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Conteh, Jean and Gabriela Meier (eds.). 2014. *The Multilingual Turn in languages education.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Cook, Guy. 1994. *Discourse and literature: the interplay of form and mind.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cook, Guy. 1997. "Key concepts in ELT: schemas." *ELT Journal* 51: 86.

Cook, Guy. 2007. "A thing of the future: translation in language learning." *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 17, 3: 396-401.

Cook, Guy. 2010. *Translation in Language Teaching: An Argument for Reassessment*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cook, Vivian. 1991. *Second language learning and language teaching.* London: Edward Arnold.

Cook, Vivian. 2001. "Using the first language in the classroom." *The Canadian modern language review* 57, 3: 402-423.

Corder, Pit. 1967. "The significance of learner's errors." *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* 5, 4: 161-170.

Creswell, John W. 2012. *Educational research. Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research.* (4th edition.) Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Creswell, John W. 2014. *Research design. qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* (4th edition.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, John W. and Vicki L. Plano Clark. 2011. *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. (3rd edition.) Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Crooks, Graham and Susan M. Gass (eds.). 1993. *Tasks and language learning: integrating theory and practice.* Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Czyżma Jolanta and Elżbieta Roguszczak. 2011. *Język łaciński.* Gdańsk: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego.

Davies, Alan. 1993. "Speculation and empiricism in applied linguistics." *Edinburgh Working Papers in Applied Linguistics* 4: 14-25.

de Bot, Kees, Wander Lowie and Marjolijn Verspoor. 2005. *Second language acquisition: an advanced resource book*. London: Routledge.

Decoo, Wilfried. 2011. *Systemization in foreign language teaching. Monitoring content progression*. London: Routledge.

de Bot, Kees, Wander Lowie and Marjolijn Verspoor. 2005. *Second language acquisition. An advanced resource book.* London: Routledge.

DeKeyser, Robert (ed.). 2002. *Practice in a second language: perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology.* Cambridge: Cambrdige University Press.

Del Maschio, Nicola et al. 2022. "Foreign to whom? Constraining the moral foreign language effect on bilinguals' language experience." *Language and Cognition* 14, 4: 511-533.

Deller, Sheelagh and Mario Rinvolucri. 2002. *Using the Mother Tongue. Making the most of the learner's language.* London: British Council, English Teaching Professional.

Dey, Ian. 2005. *Qualitative data analysis. A user-friendly guide for social scientists.* London and New York: Routledge.

Dijkstra, Ton and Walter van Heuven. 2002. "The architecture of the bilingual word recognition system: From identification to decision." *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 5: 175–197.

Dodson, Charles Joseph. 1967. *Language teaching and the bilingual method.* New York: Pitman Publishing.

Doughty, Catherine and E. Varela. 1998. "Communicative focus on form." In Catherine Doughty and Jessica Williams (eds*.), Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition,* New York: Cambridge University Press, 114-138.

Doughty, Catherine and Jessica Williams (eds.). 2000. *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2007. *Research methods in applied linguistics. Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Zoltán and Tatsuka Taguchi. 2010. *Questionnaires in second language research.* (2nd edition.) New York: Routledge.

Duff, Patricia and Charlene Polio. 1990. "How much foreign language is there in the foreign language classroom?" *Modern Language Journal* 74, 2: 154-166.

Dulay, Heidi, Marina Burt and Stephen Krashen. 1982. *Language two.* Rowley: Newbury House.

Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, Katarzyna et al. 2015. "Teaching to suppress polglish processes." *Second Language Learning and Teaching* 24: 235-247.

Edstrom, Anne. 2006. "L1 use in the L2 classroom: one teacher's self-evaluation." *Canadian Modern Language Review* 63, 2: 275-292.

Ellis, Rod. 1994. *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ervin, Susan and Charles Osgood. 1954. "Second language learning and bilingualism." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 49: 139-149.

Fazal, Shawana et al. 2016. "Integration of grammar translation method with Communicative Approach: a research synthesis." *International Journal of Arts and Humanities* 44: 121-130.

Finocchiaro, Mary and Christopher Brumfit. 1983. *The Functional-notional Approach: from theory to practice.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fliessbach Klaus et al. 2006. "The effect of word concreteness on recognition memory." *Neuroimage* 32, 3: 1413-1421.

Frey, Herschel. 1988. "The applied linguistics of teacher talk." *Hispania* 71, 3: 681-686.

Gatenby, Edward Vivian. 1948. "Reasons for failure to learn a foreign language (Part I)." *ELT Journal* 2, 4: 102-106.

Gao, Shan et al. 2015. "Second language feedback abolishes the "hot hand" effect during even-probability gambling." *The Journal of Neuroscience* 35, 15: 5983-5989.

Gouin, François. 1894. *The art of teaching and studying languages*. London: G. Philip & Son.

Gass, Susan and Larry Selinker. 1994. *Second language acquisition: an introductory course (eds.).* New York and London: Routledge.

Graddol, David. 1997. *The future of English?* London: British Council.

Grainger, Jonathan and C. Beauvillain. 1987. "Language blocking and lexical access in bilinguals." *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology A: Human Experimental Psychology* 39A, 2: 295-319.

Gullberg, Marianne. 2010. "Methodological reflections on gesture analysis in second language acquisition and bilingualism research". *Second Language Research* 26, 1: 75-102.

Hall, Graham and Guy Cook. 2012. "Own-language use in language teaching and learning", *Language Teaching* 45, 3: 271-308.

Hall, Graham and Guy Cook. 2013. *Own-language use in ELT*. (ELT Research Papers 13, 1). London: British Council.

Halliday, Michael. 1975. *Learning to mean-explorations in the development of language*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliwell, Susan and Barry Jones. 1991. *On target: teaching in the target language*. London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.

Herdina, Philip and Ulrike Jessner. 2002. *A Dynamic Model of Multilingualism: Perspectives on change in psycholinguistics*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters

House, Juliane, 2012. Review of *Translation in language teaching* by Guy Cook. (https://academic.oup.com/applij/article-abstract/33/2/216/180331) (date of access: 12.05.2018).

Howatt, A.P.R. 1984. *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Howatt, A.P.R. and Richard Smith. 2014. "The history of teaching English as a foreign language, from a British and European perspective". *Language and history* 57, 1: 75-95.

Hu, Guangwei. 2002. "Psychological constraints on the utility of metalinguistic knowledge in second language production." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 24: 347-386.

Inbar-Lourie, Ofra. 2010. "English only? The linguistic choices of teachers of young EFL learners." *International Journal of Bilingualism* 14, 3: 351-367.

Ishii, T. et al. 1979. "Experiment on the acquisition and retention of sentence-meaning and the imitation performance." *Journal of the Kansai Chapter of the Japan English Language Education Society* 3: 52-9.

Jarvis, Scott and Aneta Pavlenko. 2008. *Crosslinguistic influence in language and cognition.* New York: Routledge.

Jespersen, Otto. 1904. *How to teach a foreign language*. London: Allen and Unwin.

Jacotot, Jean Joseph. 1823. *Universal Teaching Method*. [No indication of publisher.].

Jiang, Nan. 2000. "Lexical representation and development in a second language." *Applied Linguistics* 21, 1: 47-77.

Johnson, R. Burke and Anthony J. Onwuegbuzie. 2004. "Mixed methods research: a research paradigm whose time has come." *Educational Researcher* 33, 7: 14-26.

Jończyk, Rafał et al. 2016. "The bilingual brain turns a blind eye to negative statements in the second language." *Cognitive, Affective & Behavioral Neuroscience* 16: 527-540.

Jończyk, Rafał et al. 2016. "The bilingual brain turns a blind eye to negative statements in the second language." *Cognitive, Affective and Behavioral Neuroscience* 16: 527-540.

Jończyk, Rafał et al. 2019. "Keep calm and carry on: electrophysiological evaluation of emotional anticipation in the second language." *Social, Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience* 2019: 885-898.

Kaczmarski, Stanisław P. 2003. "Język ojczysty w nauce języka obcego – kilka refeksji." *Języki obce w szkole* 1: 14-19.

Källkvist, Marie. 2008. "L1-L2 translation versus no translation." in: Lourdes Ortega and Heidi Byrness (eds.). *The longitudinal study of advanced L2 capacities.* New York: Routledge, 182-202.

Kasjan, A. 1995. "Die bilinguale Methode im Deutschunterricht für japanische Studenten I. Die Einführung in die Textarbeit.' *Gengobunka Ronkyu* 45: 159-71.

Kasjan, A. 1996. "Die bilinguale Methode im Deutschunterricht für japanische Studenten II. Die Einführung in die Textarbeit." *Gengobunka Ronkyu* 7: 125-42.

Kelly, Louis G. 1976. *25 centuries of language teaching*. (2nd edition.) Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

Kharma, Nayef and Ali Hajjaj. 1989. *Errors in English among Arabic speakers*. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Kiczkowiak, Marek. 2018. *Native speakerism in English language teaching: voices from Poland*. University of York. (https://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/20985/) (date of access: 28.05.2023).

Kim, Eun-Young. 2011. "Using translation exercises in the communicative EFL writing classroom." *ELT Journal* 65, 2: 154-160.

Kim, Sun Hee and Catherine Elder. 2005. "Language choices and pedagogic functions in the foreign language classroom: a cross-linguistic functional analysis of teacher talk." *Language Teaching Research* 9, 4: 355-380.

Kolanowska, Ewa (ed.). 2018. "The system of education in Poland." *Eurydice*.

Kramsch, Claire. 1981. *Discourse Analysis and Second Language Teaching*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Krashen, Stephen. 1982. *Second language acquisition and second language learning.* Oxford: Pergamon Press Inc.

Krashen, Stephen. 1985. *The input hypothesis: issues and implications.* New York: Longman.

Krashen. Stephen. 1994. *Second language acquisition. Theory, applications, and some conjectures.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Krashen, Stephen and Tracy Terrell. 1982. *The Natural Approach. Language acquisition in the classroom*. San Francisco, CA: Alemany Press.

Kroeh, C.F. 1887. "Methods of teaching modern languages." *Transactions and proceedings of the Modern Language Association of America III*: 169-185.

Kroll, Judith and Erika Stewart. 1994. "Category interference in translation and picture naming: Evidence for asymmetric connections between bilingual memory representations." *Journal of Memory and Language* 33: 149–174.

Kupferberg Irit. 2010. "The cognitive turn of Contrastive Analysis: empirical evidence." *Language Awareness* 8, 3-4: 210-222.

Kupferberg, Irit and Elite Olshtain. 1996. "Explicit contrastive instruction facilitates the acquisition of difficult l2 forms. Special issue on Cross linguistic approaches to language awareness. *Language Awareness* 5: 149-165.

Lado, Robert. 1957. *Linguistics across cultures: applied linguistics and language teachers.* Ann Arbour, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Lado, Robert. 1964. *Language teaching: a scientific approach.* New York: MacGraw Hill.

"Language Education Policy Profile: Poland." 2005-2007. Language Policy Division, Strasbourg. Ministry of National Education, Poland.

Larsen-Freeman, Diane and Michael Long. 1991. *An introduction to second language research.* London: Longman.

Lee, Jang Ho and Ernesto Macaro. 2013. "Investigating age in the use of L1 or English-only instruction: vocabulary acquisition by Korean EFL learners." *The Modern Language Jorunal* 97: 887-901.

Levine, Glenn. 2011. *Code choice in the language classroom.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Li, Yang et al. 2019. "Back to the future? How Chinese-English bilinguals switch between front and back orientation for time." *NeuroImage* 203 (https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1053811919307712?fbclid=IwAR0osUoclBVIpGSjwYToXnBaupBE6_9HoH6UjkeY4IzUUS20UIG0ZShGzoA) (date of access: 30.05.2023).

Liao, Q. Y. 2006. *A research of contemporary western translation theories.* Nanjing: Yilin Press.

Lightbown, Patsy M. 2000. "Anniversary article. Classroom SLA research and second language teaching." *Applied Linguistics* 21, 4: 431-462.

Lightbown, Patsy M. and Nina Spada. 2000. "Do they know what they're doing? L2 learners' awareness of L1 influence." *Language Awareness* 9, 4: 198-217.

Linn, Marcia C. 2006. *The Knowledge Integration Perspective on Learning and Instruction.* In R. K. Sawyer (Ed.) *The Cambridge handbook of: The learning sciences*: 243–264. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Linn, Marcia C. and B-S. Eylon. 2006. *Science Education: Integrating Views of Learning and Instruction.* In P. A. Alexander and P. H. Winne (Eds.) *Handbook of educational psychology*: 511–544. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Littlewood, William. 1981. *Communicative language teaching: an introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Littlewood, William and Baohua Yu. 2009. "First language and target language in the foreign language classroom." *Language Teaching* 42, 4.

Liu, Dilin et al. 2004. "South Korean high school English teachers' code switching: Questions and challenges in the drive for maximal use of English in teaching." *TESOL Quarterly* 38, 4: 605–638.

LoCastro, Virginia. 1987. "Aizuchi: a Japanese conversational routine." in L.E. Smith (ed.), *Discourse across cultures: strategies in world Englishes,* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 107-113.

Long, Michael. 1983. "Does instruction make a difference? A review of research." *TESOL Quarterly* 17, 3: 359-382.

Long, Michael. 1991. "Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology." In Kees De Bot, Ralph Ginsberg and Claire Kramsch (eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 39–52.

Long, Michael. 1996. "The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition." In William C. Ritchie and Tej K. Bhatia (eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition*, New York: Academic Press, 413-468.

Long, Michael. 2001. "Focus on Form". In Christopher Candlin and Neil Mercer (eds.), *English language teaching in its social context,* London: Routledge.

Long, Michael H. and Peter Robinson. 1998. "Focus on form. Theory, research, and practice." in: Catherine Doughty and Jessica Williams (eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 15-42.

Lynch, Michael Patrick. 2015. *Target language use in modern language classrooms: perception and change among newly qualified teachers in Scotland.* (https://era.ed.ac.uk/handle/1842/20424?show=full) (date of access: 28.05.2023).

Macaro, Ernesto. 1997. *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy.* Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Macaro, Ernesto. 2000. *Issues in Target Language Teaching*. In Kit Field (ed.), *Issues in modern foreign languages teaching*. London: Routledge Falmer, 171-189.

Macaro, Ernesto. 2001. "Analysing student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms: theories and decision making." *The Modern Language Journal* 85: 531-548.

Macaro, Ernesto. 2005. "Codeswitching in the L2 classroom: a communication and learning strategy." In Enric Llurda, (ed.), *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession*. New York: Springer, 66-84.

Macaro, Ernesto. 2006. "Strategies for language learning and for language use: revising the theoretical framework." *Modern Language Journal* 90: 320-337.

Macdonald, C. 1993. *Using the Target Language*. Cheltenham: Mary Glasgow Publications.

Mackey, Alison and Susan Gass. 2005. *Second language research. Methodology and design.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Marcel, Claude. 1853. *Language as a means of mental culture and international communication; or, manual of the teacher and the learner languages*. [No indication of publisher.].

Mason, Jennifer. 2002. *Qualitative researching*. (2nd edition.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

May, Stephen. 2014. *The Multilingual Turn: implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education.* New York: Routledge.

Maxwell, Joseph A. 2010. "Using numbers in qualitative research." *Qualitative Inquiry* 16, 6: 475-482.

McMillan, Brian. 2011. Review of *The bilingual reform: a paradigm shift in foreign language teaching* by Wolfgang Butzkamm and John A.W. Caldwell. *JALT Journal* 33, 1: 86-88.

Meier, Gabriela Sylvia. 2016. "The multilingual turn as a critical movement in education: assumptions, challenges and a need for reflection." *Applied Linguistics Review* 8, 1: 131-161.

Mitchell, Mark L. and Janina M. Jolley. 2010. *Research design explained.* (7th edition.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Nikula, Tarja. 2007. "Speaking English in Finnish content-based classrooms." *World Englishes* 26, 2: 206-223.

Norris, John M. and Lourdes Ortega. 2000. "Effectiveness of L2 instruction: a research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis." *Language Learning* 50, 3: 417-528.

Norris, John M. and Lourdes Ortega. 2005. "Does type of instruction make a difference? Substantive findings from a meta-analytic review." *Language Learning* 51, 1: 157-213.

Nunan, David. 1989. *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Obler, Loraine and Lise Menn (eds.). 1982. *Exceptional language and linguistics.* New York: Academic Press.

Odlin, Terence. 1989. *Language transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning.* Cambridge University Press.

Odlin, Terence. 2003. "Crosslinguistic influence," In Catherine J. Doughty and Michael Long (eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition*, Oxford: Blackwell

Ollendorff, Heinrich Gottfried. 1838. *A new method of learning to read, write and speak a language in six months, adapted to German*. London: Whittaker.

Ollendorff, Heinrich Gottfried. 1865. *Ollendorf's new method of learning to read, write and speak the French language*. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

Passy, Paul. 1886. *Eléments d'anglais parlé*. Paris: Librairie Shakespear.

Paulson, Christina and Mary Bruder. 1976. *Teaching English as a second language: techniques and procedures.* Cambrdige, MA: Winthrop Publishers, Inc.

Pavlenko, Aneta. 2005. "Bilingualism and thought". In Annette De Groot and Judith Kroll (eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism: psycholinguistic approaches*, Oxford University Press, 433-453

Phillipson, Robert. 1992. *Linguistic imperialism.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pittman, Goerge Alfred. 1963. *Teaching structural English.* Oxford: Ginn & Co.

Podstawa programowa kształcenia ogólnego z komentarzem. Język obcy nowożytny. 2022/2023. Ministerstwo Edukacji i Nauki.

Prendergast, Thomas. 1864. *The mastery of languages, or the art of speaking foreign tongues idiomatically.* London: Richard Bentley.

Prodromou, Luke. 2002. " The role of the mother tongue in the classroom." *IATEFL Issues*: 6-8.

Renou, Janet. 2001. "An examination of the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and second-language proficiency of adult learners of French." *Language Awareness* 10, 4: 248-267.

Results from PISA 2018. 2018. Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), OECD.

Riazi, A. Mehdi and Christopher N. Candlin. 2014. "Mixed methods research in language teaching and learning: opportunities. issues and challenges." *Language Teaching* 47, 2: 135-173.

Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. 1986. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Riessman, Catherine Kohler. 1993. *Narrative analysis*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publishings. Inc.

Rolin-Ianziti, Jeanne and Siobhan Brownlie. 2002. "Teacher use of learners' native language in the foreign language classroom." *Canadian Modern Language Review* 58, 3.

Ryan, Gery W. and H. Russel Bernard. 2000. "Data management and analysis methods", in: Norman Denzin and Yvonna Lincoln (eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*. (2nd edition.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, 768-802.

Saldaña, Johnny. 2013. *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. (2nd edition.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publishing.

Sandelowski, Margarete. 2001. "Focus on research methods. Real qualitative researchers do not count: the use of numbers in qualitative research." *Research in Nursing & Health* 24: 230-240.

Sastri, H.N.L. 1970. "The bilingual method of teaching English – an experiment. *RELC Journal* 1, 2: 24-28.

Sauveur, L. 2015 (1874). *Introduction to the teaching of living languages without grammar or dictionary.* (English edition.). Victoria, Australia: Leopold publications.

Scheffler, Paweł. 2012. "Theories pass. Learners and teachers remain." *Applied Linguistics* 33, 5: 603-607.

Scheffler, Paweł. 2013. "Gramatyczne dryle tłumaczeniowe w nauczaniu języka angielskiego". *Języki obce w szkole* 1: 82-87.

Scheffler, Paweł. 2013. "Learners' perceptions of grammar-translation as consciousness raising." *Language Awareness* 22, 3: 225-269.

Scheffler, Paweł and Hanna Wysocka. 2013. "Pochwała naturalności, czyli język obcy oswojony." *Języki obce w szkole* 3: 76-85.

Scheffler, Paweł et al. 2017. "Language background and learners' attitudes to own-language use." ELT Journal 71, 2: 197-217.

Scrivener, Jim. 1994. *Learning teaching.* Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann English Language Teaching.

Selinker, Larry. 1972. "Interlanguage." *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* 10, 3: 209-231.

Sheen, Ron. 2002. "'Focus on form' and 'focus on forms'." *English Language Teaching* 56, 3: 303-305.

Simrad, Daphnée and Wynne Wong. 2004. "Language awareness and its multiple possibilities for the L2 classroom." *Foreign Language Annals* 37, 1: 96-110.

Singleton, David. 1989. *Language acquisition: the age factor.* Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Sitek, M.ichał (ed.). 2016. "Program międzynarodowej oceny umiejętności uczniów. Wyniki badania 2015 w Polsce." Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych.

Skinner, Burrhus Frederic. 1957. "The experimental analysis of behaviour." *American Scientist* 45, 4: 343-371.

Smith, Richard C. 2004. *An investigation into the roots of ELT, with a particular focus on the career and legacy of Harold E. Palmer (1877-1949).* (https://era.ed.ac.uk/handle/1842/6750) (date of access: 28.05.2023).

Song, Daeun and Jang Ho Lee. 2019. "The use of teacher code-switching for very young EFL learners." *ELT Journal* 73, 2: 144-153.

Spada, Nina and Yasuyo Tomita. 2010. "Interactions between type of instruction and type of language feature: a meta-analysis." *Language Learning* 60, 2: 263-308.

Sperber, Dan and Deidre Wilson. 1998. "The mapping between the mental and the public lexicon." In Peter Carruthers and Jill Boucher (eds.), *Thought and language,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 184-200.

Spolsky, Bernard. 1998. *Sociolinguistics. Oxford introductions to language study.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stern, Hans Heinrich. 1992. *Issues and options in language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Storme, Martin et al. 2017. "The effect of forced language switching during divergent thinking. A study on bilinguals' originality of ideas." *Frontiers in Psychology* 8, Article 2086.

Swan, Michael. 1985. "A critical look at the Communicative Approach." *ELT Journal* 39, 1: 2-12.

Sweet, Henry. 1899. *The practical study of languages: a guide for teachers and learners*. London: J.M. Dent & Co.

Tashakkori, Abbas and Charles Teddlie. 2003. *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research.* Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

Tarone, Elaine. 2006. "Interlanguage". In Brown, Keith (ed.). *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*. Boston: Elsevier. 747–751.

Tarone, Elaine. 2007. "Sociolinguistic approaches to Second Language Acquisition Research." *Modern Language Journal* 91: 837-848.

Teddie, Charles and Abbas Tashakkori. 2009. *Foundations of mixed methods research. Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Tiarks, Johann Gerhard. 2018 (1837). *An introductory grammar of the German language (an abstract of "practical grammar of the German language) with exercises for writing German.* Creative Media Partners, LLC.

Tiarks, Johann Gerhard. 1847. (3rd edition.) *A progressive German reader, containing grammatical exercises, easy letters, short stories, easy poems, historical sketches, dialogues, idiomatical phrases, and proverbs, for the use of schools.* London: A. Black.

Thao, Mai Thi Phuong. 2020. "Role of L1 in L2 acquisition according to contrastive analysis hypothesis and error analysis." *Journal of Education and Practice* 11, 2: 102-107.

Thierry, Guillaume et al. 2009. "Unconscious effects of language-specific terminology on preattentive color perception." *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 106, 11: 4567-4570.

Turnbull, Miles and Jennifer Dailey-O'Cain (eds.). 2009. *First language use in second and foreign language learning.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Vaismoradi, Mojtaba et al. 2016. "Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis." *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice.* 6, 5: 100-110.

Van Hell, Janet and Tom Dijkstra. 2002. "Foreign language knowledge can influence native language performance in exclusively native contexts". *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review* 9, 4: 780-789.

Vetter, Eva and Ulrike Jessner. 2019. "Introduction: advances in the study of Third Language Acquisition and multilingualism." In: Eva Vetter and Ulrike Jessner (eds.), *International research on multilingualism: breaking the monolingual perspective.* Berlin: Springer, 1-9.

Viëtor, Wilhelm. 1882. *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren! Ein Beitrag zur Uberbürdungsfrage.* Heilbronn: Ehnninger.

Viëtor, Wilhelm. 1902. *Die Methodik des neustrachlichen Unterrichts*. Leipzig: Teubner.

Vygotsky, Lew. 1986. *Thought and language.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Wach, Aleksandra. 2017. "Techniki bilingwalne w nauczaniu gramatyki języka obcego." *Języki obce w szkole* 1: 22-27.

Wach, Aleksandra. 2019. *L1 as a consciousness-raising tool in learning L2 grammar*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM.

Walatara, Douglas. 1973. "An experiment with the bilingual method." *RELC Journal* 4, 2: 57-67.

Weinreich, Uriel. 1953. *Languages in contact.* The Hague: Mouton.

Whitney, Norman. 2005. Review of *Defining issues in English language teaching* by Henry George Widdowson, *ELT Journal* 59, 1: 69-72.

Whyatt, Bogusława. 2012. *Translation as a human skill. From predisposition to expertise.* Poznań: Wydawnictwo naukowe UAM.

Widdowson, Henry George. 1978. *Teaching language as communication.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, Henry George. 1979. *Explorations in Applied Linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, Henry George. 2003. *Defining issues in English language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wilkins, David. 1976. *National syllabuses. A taxonomy and its relevance to foreign language curriculum development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Witte, Arnd, Theo Harden and Alessandra Ramos de Oliviera Harden (eds.). 2009. *Translation in second language learning and teaching: 3.* Bern: Peter Lang Verlag.

Wrenn. C.L. 1946. "Henry Sweet. Presidential address delivered to the Philological Society on Friday, 10th May, 1946." *TPS*: 177-201.

Yavus, Fatih. 2012. "The attitudes of English teachers about the use of L1 in the teaching of L2." *Social and Behavioral Sciences* 46: 4339-4344.

Zając-Knapik, Halina. 2015. "Rola języka ojczystego w nauczaniu gramatyki języka rosyjskiego na studiach rusycystycznych i proponowane rozwiązania dydaktyczne." *Linguodidactica* XIX: 265-281.

Zarębska, Jadwiga and Zespół Wydziału Informacji i Promocji ORE (eds.). 2011. *Nauczyciele języków obcych w roku szkolnym 2010/2011*. Warszawa: Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji (ORE).

Zhao, Ting and Ernesto Macaro. 2016. "What works better for the learning of concrete and abstract words: teachers' L1 use of L2-only explanations?" *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 26, 1: 75-98.

Appendix A

The survey in Polish - version for student teachers.

Rola języka polskiego w nauczaniu języka angielskiego

Survey short title: DOKTORAT WERSJA
STUDENCI
Survey long title: Rola języka polskiego w
nauczaniu języka angielskiego
Question number: 18
Survey is active

Active from: 20.03.2018

Active until: 20.06.2018

Author: weronika.krzebietke

Edited: weronika.krzebietke

Date: 19.03.2018

Date: 20.03.2018

Rola języka polskiego w nauczaniu języka angielskiego

Niniejszy kwestionariusz jest badaniem na potrzeby pracy doktorskiej dotyczącej roli języka ojczystego w nauczaniu języka obcego. Badanie jest przeprowadzane na Wydziale Anglistyki Uniwersytetu im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu.

Ankieta jest anonimowa, byłabym jednak wdzięczna za pozostawienie adresu mailowego w ostatniej części ankiety w celu ewentualnego kontaktu w dalszych częściach badania. Całość zajmie Pani/Panu około 15-20 minut. Proszę odpowiadać na pytania biorąc pod uwagę wyłącznie uczniów na poziomie, na którym najczęściej Pani/Pan naucza w trakcie praktyk pedagogicznych, tj. jeśli większość czasu podczas praktyk pracuje Pani/Pan z uczniami na poziomie B1, niech odpowiedzi w ankiecie dotyczą pracy właśnie z tymi uczniami. Proszę odpowiadać na pytania zgodnie z Państwa własnymi doświadczeniami i odczuciami.

Bardzo dziękuję za znalezienie czasu w Państwa zabieganym, studenckim życiu:)

mgr Weronika Krzebietke

Q1 - Część 1: o Tobie

Q2 - Płeć:

◯

◯

◯

Q3 - Wiek:

◯

◯

◯

Q4 - Język ojczysty:

◯

◯

◯

Q5 - Typ studiów w zakresie nauczania języka angielskiego:

◯

◯

◯

Q6 - Długość odbytych praktyk zawodowych:

○

○

○

○

Q7 - Typ szkoły, w których odbywane są/były praktyki zawodowe (większość czasu):

○

○

○

Q8 - Poza praktykami zawodowymi wymaganymi przez Uczelnię, pracuję również jako nauczyciel w:

○

○

○

Q9 - W trakcie praktyk oraz/lub mojej pracy zawodowej przez większość czasu uczę uczniów na poziomie językowym:

○

○

○

○

○

Q10 - Część 2: język polski na lekcjach języka angielskiego

Q11 - Używam języka polskiego na moich lekcjach w celu:

	Nigdy	Rzadko	Czasem	Często	Zawsze
wyjaśniania słownictwa:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
wyjaśniania gramatyki:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
porównywania gramatyki angielskiej z polską:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
ćwiczeń tłumaczeniowych:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
wyjaśniania błędów:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
oceniania uczniów:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
wydawania poleceń do zadań:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
utrzymywania dyscypliny:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
nawiązywania dobrych relacji z uczniami:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Q12 - Część 3: język polski w nauce angielskiego w domu

Q13 - Zachęcam moich uczniów, żeby:

	Nigdy	Rzadko	Czasem	Często	Zawsze
korzystali ze słowników dwujęzycznych (ang-pol lub pol-ang):	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
czytali objaśnienia gramatyki w języku polskim:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
porównywali gramatykę angielską z gramatyką polską:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
robili ćwiczenia tłumaczeniowe:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
korzystali z internetowych programów tłumaczeniowych:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

oglądali programy/filmy w języku angielskim z polskimi napisami:	○	○	○	○	○

Q14 - Część 4: Twoim zdaniem

Q15 - Poniżej znajdzie Pan/Pani pewną liczbę stwierdzeń. Proszę o zakreślenie jednego z możliwych wyborów, w zależności od stopnia, w jakim zgadza się Pan/Pani lub nie zgadza z danym stwierdzeniem.

Przykład:

Piłkarze Arki Gdynia są dużo lepsi od piłkarzy Legii Warszawa.

Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się

Nie zgadzam się
Ani się zgadzam, ani się nie zgadzam
Zgadzam się
Zdecydowanie zgadzam się

Odpowiadając na to pytanie, powinni Państwo zakreślić jedną z opcji. Odpowiedź, którą Państwo wybierzecie ma wskazać, jakie są Państwa odczucia w oparciu o wszystko, co Państwo wiedzą lub sądzą. Nie ma tutaj złych odpowiedzi.

Q16-:

	Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się	Nie zgadzam się	Ani się zgadzam, ani się nie zgadzam	Zgadzam się	Zdecydowanie zgadzam się
Martwiłoby mnie, gdybym nie mógł/mogła w trakcie lekcji odpowiadać na pytania uczniów po polsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Komentarze nauczyciela do wystawionych stopni powinny być po polsku.:	○	○	○	○	○

Zwracanie się do siebie tylko po angielsku jest kluczowe dla dobrych relacji między nauczycielem a uczniami w klasie.:	○	○	○	○	○
Tłumaczenie angielskich słówek na język polski pomaga uczniom w ich zrozumieniu.:	○	○	○	○	○
Czułbym/Czułabym się zupełnie swobodnie, gdybym na lekcji był zdany/była zdana tylko na angielski.:	○	○	○	○	○
Uważam, że uczniom łatwiej uczy się gramatyki, gdy jest ona wyjaśniana po polsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Kiedy nauczyciel od czasu do czasu porozmawia z uczniami na lekcji po polsku, wytwarza to sympatyczny klimat między nim a uczniami.:	○	○	○	○	○
Do wyjaśnienia uczniom, co mają robić, w stu procentach wystarcza angielski.:	○	○	○	○	○
Definicje słówek w języku angielskim są dla uczniów lepsze od polskich tłumaczeń.:	○	○	○	○	○
Uczniom jest łatwiej zrozumieć gramatykę angielską, gdy pokazuję im, jak różni się ona od gramatyki polskiej.:	○	○	○	○	○

Najlepiej, jeśli nauczyciel wyjaśnia po angielsku, dlaczego postawił taką, a nie inną ocenę.:	○	○	○	○	○
Gdybym nie mógł/mogła odpowiadać na żadne pytania moich uczniów po polsku, czułbym/czułabym się nieswojo.:	○	○	○	○	○
Jeśli uczeń wie, co angielskie słowa znaczą po polsku, łatwiej jest mu się ich nauczyć.:	○	○	○	○	○
Komunikowanie się na lekcji wyłącznie w języku angielskim świetnie oddziałuje na przyjazne stosunki pomiędzy nauczycielem a uczniami.:	○	○	○	○	○
Uczniom całkowicie wystarczają wyjaśnienia gramatyczne po angielsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Nauczyciel powinien udzielać uczniom informacji zwrotnej po polsku na temat tego, jak radzą sobie z angielskim.:	○	○	○	○	○
Jeśli uczniowie nie znają znaczenia jakiegoś słówka, wolą wyjaśnienie po angielsku niż po polsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Język polski jest odpowiednim językiem do wydawania poleceń do ćwiczeń.:	○	○	○	○	○

Przyjacielskie relacje nauczyciel-uczeń najlepiej tworzy się poprzez ciągłe użycie języka angielskiego.:	○	○	○	○	○
Wyniki testów powinny być omawiane po angielsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Wolę przedstawiać zadania domowe w języku polskim.:	○	○	○	○	○
Uczniom łatwiej pojąć znaczenie angielskich słówek, gdy znają ich polski odpowiednik.:	○	○	○	○	○
Czuję się komfortowo, kiedy na lekcji tłumaczę wszystko tylko po angielsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Zasady oceniania należy przedstawiać uczniom po polsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Objaśnienia w języku polskim pomagają uczniom zrozumieć gramatykę angielską.:	○	○	○	○	○
Nawiązuję dużo lepszy kontakt z uczniami, gdy mogę czasem zwrócić się do nich na lekcji po polsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Wszystkie zadania, które uczeń ma wykonać, nauczyciel powinien przedstawiać po angielsku.:	○	○	○	○	○

Byłbym/byłabym całkowicie spokojny/spokojna i pewny/pewna siebie, gdyby całe zajęcia przebiegały wyłącznie po angielsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Uczniowie najlepiej rozumieją gramatykę angielską, gdy wyjaśnienia są po angielsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Kiedy nauczyciel wyjaśnia, co zrobić w domu, powinien używać języka angielskiego.:	○	○	○	○	○
Poprzez użycie od czasu do czasu języka polskiego nauczyciel staje się bardziej przystępny.:	○	○	○	○	○
Wymagania nauczyciela względem uczniów powinny być wyjaśniane po angielsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Żeby uczeń dobrze rozumiał, co ma zrobić na lekcji, najlepiej użyć polskiego.:	○	○	○	○	○
Denerwowałabym/denerwowałbym się, gdybym na lekcji nie mogła/mógł udzielać żadnych wyjaśnień po polsku.:	○	○	○	○	○
Wyjaśnienia angielskiego słownictwa w języku angielskim są bardziej pomocne dla uczniów niż polskie odpowiedniki.:	○	○	○	○	○

| Omawianie różnic między gramatyką angielską a polską jest stratą czasu.: | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Q17 - Adres e-mail:

Q18 - Dodatkowe uwagi dotyczące tematu ankiety? Zapraszam do pozostawienia komentarza.

Appendix B

Participation agreement / declaration in Polish.

OŚWIADCZENIE OSOBY BADANEJ
zgoda na udział w badaniach

Nazwisko i imię osoby badanej
....

Niniejszym oświadczam, że zostałam/zostałem* szczegółowo poinformowana/poinfor-mowany* o sposobie przeprowadzenia badań i moim w nich udziale. Rozumiem, na czym polega badanie i do czego potrzebna jest moja zgoda oraz że moje dane będą poufne i nieudostępniane nikomu poza kierownikiem projektu i opiekunem naukowym. Wyrażam zgodę na przetwarzanie moich danych do celów prowadzenia projektu. Oświadczam, że otrzymałam/otrzymałem* wyczerpujące, satysfakcjonujące mnie odpowiedzi na zadane pytania, dotyczące tego badania. Zostałam/Zostałem*poinformowana/poinformowany*, że mogę odmówić uczestnictwa w badaniach w każdym momencie realizacji projektu badawczego. W oparciu o przedstawione mi informacje wyrażam zgodę na uczestnictwo w badaniach w terminie.........................

Prowadząca badanie
mgr Weronika Krzebietke

…………………………..   ………….…………
   podpis badacza   podpis osoby badanej

Poznań, ...

Appendix C

A sample of a transcribed interview.

Wywiad numer: 6
Miejsce Nagrania:
Data/Godzina:
Nagranie przeprowadził:
Transkrypcja wykonana w dniu: 12/09/2019
Transkrypcję wykonał: http://www.transkryptor.pl
Czas nagrania/minuty: 00:14:44

---

opis zdarzeń, wyraz bliskoznaczny (w nawiasie)
[00:00:00] – stempel czasowy

[00:00:00]

coś o swoim backgroundzie, czyli kogo uczysz w tej chwili, kogo uczyłaś, od ilu lat już uczysz?

- Uczę od trzech lat i w zasadzie teraz można liczyć te trzy lata bo zaczęłam jakoś tak nietypowo, w marcu, gdzieś w połowie drugiego semestru, także trzy lata, niedługo trzy i pół będzie. Uczyłam na wszystkich poziomach i angielskiego również, bo uczyłam i w podstawówce, znaczy oprócz tych całkiem małych, małych, początkowego to uczyłam klasa w podstawówce klasa siódma, klasa ósma, całe gimnazjum, wszystkie roczniki i w liceum też.

Yhm, i od ilu lat uczysz?

- Od trzech.

-

Od trzech, od trzech lat?

- Yhm.

Czyli prosto po studiach tak?

- No prawie.

Prawie, okay. To w takim razie porozmawiamy dzisiaj o użyciu języka polskiego na lekcjach, ja bym jednak wtedy prosiła o może kierowanie się tym jak go używałaś, jak uczyłaś tego generalnego angielskiego, takiego ogólnego-

- Yhm, dobrze.

Dobra?

- Dobra.

Pierwsze pytanie jak używasz czy, języka polskiego w nauce gramatyki? Czy on się przydaje i jeżeli tak to do czego, może jakieś przykłady na przykład?

- Generalnie zależy od grupy. Były grupy, szczególnie jak miałam gimnazjum gdzie, to była klasa trzecia, oni mieli rozszerzony angielski, ja ich dostałam jakby z marszu bo weszłam po innym nauczycielu. Byli dosyć dobrze przeszkoleni, to nie była klasa początkująca z racji tego, że mieli rozszerzony angielski, i oni generalnie byli w stanie zrozumieć tłumaczenia gramatyczne, oprócz jakichś bardzo zawiłych po angielsku bez żadnego problemu.

Yhm.

- Jak były bardziej zawiłe czasem trzeba było zapauzować i wytłumaczyć to jeszcze raz po polsku, szczególnie jak był taki typowy blank face na twarzy, że trzeba było jeszcze, widać było, że nie dotarło, jeszcze raz nie?

Yhm.

- Także w takich przypadkach tak, a no generalnie to widać po tym, czy uczniowie rozumieją czy nie. Jeżeli faktycznie te tłumaczenia po angielsku w jakiś prosty oczywiście sposób na dany, na dany tam poziom, jeżeli to nic nie daje, no to wtedy się przestawiałam na polski żeby, żeby się upewnić, że oni jednak tą gramatykę gdzieś tam umieją nie?

Yhm, rozumiem. A czy w zakresie gramatyki jakieś przykłady może kiedy ten polski się przydaje?

- Na pewno jeżeli chodzi o czasy, typowo o czasy, bo czasy są na tyle skomplikowane, że my nie mamy polskich odpowiedników ich, więc wtedy, wtedy się to przydaje, szczególnie jeżeli to jest, w tym tłumaczeniu czasów są potrzebne jakieś skomplikowane skomplikowane słowa, których oni mogą nie mieć w słowniku, wtedy trzeba się przełączyć, bo jeżeli będziemy na nich rzucać słowami, których oni nie rozumieją, to im to przeleci ponad głowami i nic z tego nie będą mieli.

Yhm.

- Natomiast konkretnych przykładów, no myślę, że na pewno te wszystkie Presenty, wszystkie Present Perfect, wszystkie, wszystkie, i Past Perfect, natomiast do Past Simple, tam nie było potrzeba aż tyle tłumaczenia po polsku nie?

Yhm.

- Szczególnie jeżeli grupa już gdzieś tam to podstawowe słownictwo miała, mówiąc po poznańsku, „ogarnięte" tak? To nie było większego problemu, żeby im powiedzieć „yeah,

that's in the past", ale, ale jeżeli, jeżeli właśnie chodzi o Perfecty, jeżeli były te czasy teraźniejsze, które, już ich było więcej niż jeden po polsku, to tam się zaczynała robić, jakieś, jakieś były problemy.

Yhm, a co z nauczaniem słownictwa? Czy język polski się przydaje?

- I tak i nie. Znowu zależy od grupy, zależy od ich zrozumienia, zależy od tematu często. Jeżeli miałam temat który był, jeżeli grupa dana miała jakiś temat bardzo opracowany, bo na przykład się tym interesowali, bo w klasie były osoby, które w tym siedziały, no to wtedy nie było takiego problemu. Natomiast jeżeli na przykład mieliśmy sport w grupie w której sportowców nie było żadnych, no to trzeba się było wrócić, żeby im to wytłumaczyć, bo czasami mówienie, że to jest sport, który się rozgrywa w tyle i tyle osób, z piłką na boisku, to im to w ogóle nic nie mówiło. No więc, no wtedy trzeba jednak podać odpowiedniki polskie nie?

[00:04:09]

Yhm, yhm. Czyli poziom grupy ma tutaj znaczenie?

- Poziom grupy ma znacznie. Ma znaczenie poziom, mają znaczenie zainteresowania. Więc może takie podejście do uczucia też w miarę indywidualne, bo pamiętam, że jedną grupę miałam, która nie miała żadnego problemu ze wszystkimi takimi bardzo, ze słownictwem powiązanym bardzo z, może niekoniecznie walką, ale tam był właśnie jakiś taki temat, że było o królach, o zamkach, królestwie, i oni byli wielkimi fanami „Władcy Pierścieni", więc oni wszystkie słownictwo znali, natomiast oni bardzo cierpieli jak przeszliśmy do sportu, więc wywiad z gwiazdą, który mieli przeprowadzić, wręcz błagali mnie, czy mogą zrobić wywiad z orkiem. I nie mieli z tym wywiadem żadnego problemu i zrobili go pod wszystkie kryteria egzaminacyjne nie? Nawet poruszyli kryteria, które były w podręczniku typu tam „Zapytaj się o typowy dzień gwiazdy", no to ich gwiazdą był ork, więc pytali się o typowy dzień, nie było żadnego problemu. Natomiast jeżeli im miałabym próbować zrobić konkretnie sport, bez żadnego tłumaczenia po polsku, to byłoby źle.

[00:05:14]

Yhm.

- Bo dla nich to było w ogóle nie do pojęcia. I mówienie, że dany sport się rozgrywa, tak jak mówię nie? Tyle i tyle osób, tam na boisku, to są łatwe słowa i oni to znają, ale oni nie mają wiedzy merytorycznej żeby to powiązać z jakimś sportem nie?

Yhm.

- Także im to nic nie mówiło, dla nich to był dalej nieznany sport. Natomiast ja mam jeszcze inną metodę jak chodzi o tłumaczenie słówek, ja im zawsze mówię, że, szczególnie dla wzrokowców, żeby wpisali sobie w Google, broń Boże nie tłumaczenia, ale żeby wpisali w Google grafika i znaleźli obrazy. I oni bardzo często to załapują, więc tam można całkowicie wykluczyć ten polski też, nawet do (nieczytelne), tylko mówię, to znowu nie na tematy, na które oni nie mają żadnego tam bladego pojęcia o czym mówię.

I też nie abstrakcyjne?

- I nie abstrakcyjne.

Yhm, no właśnie. A co z organizacją i ocenianiem?

- Wydaje mi się, że jednak po polsku.

Yhm, a jakieś powody dla których to jest lepiej robić po polsku, ty robisz to po polsku?

- Okay, powód mój osobisty jest mimo wszystko taki, że chcę, żeby tutaj nie było żadnych wątpliwości. Poza tym oni bardzo często, bo my dajemy dzieciom do zatwierdzenia, do podpisania, do informacji taki mini regulamin na lekcji.

Yhm.

- I w tym regulaminie oprócz tego, że jest oczywiście zachowanie, czy mają nosić książki czy nie i tak dalej, i jakie tam wynikają kary z nie noszenia, nie przynoszenia zadań domowych, jakie są oceny, to oprócz tego właśnie jest waga ocen i nie możemy tego zrobić po angielsku, bo musimy brać pod uwagę to, że również rodzic, do którego w ogóle to jest, oni również muszą mieć do tego zawsze wgląd, nie możemy ich zostawić z tłumaczem Google do tłumaczenia tego nie?

Yhm.

- Także mimo wszystko myślę, że oceny jakby, może nie koniecznie sam feedback, bo ten feedback jak oni dostają od nas on może być po angielsku i bardzo często po angielsku on gdzieś tam jest, troszeczkę mniejsze ma takie uderzenie, on trochę inaczej jest odbierany, bardziej po przyjacielsku. Natomiast jak chodzi o wyjaśnianie zasad, o wyjaśnianie reguł panujących na lekcji, o to wszystko, tutaj, tu musi być polski.

Yhm, a organizacyjnie, takie życie w klasie?

- Tutaj zależało, tutaj w moim przypadku bardzo dużo zależało od grupy.

Okay.

- Jeżeli grupa, i szczególnie też o podejście grupy do mnie. Bo jeżeli grupa była dosyć, dosyć spoko, nie było problemu żeby się zgrać, nie było problemu żeby pracować, i się słuchali, i był czas i też na posilenie się i oni wiedzieli kiedy przestać, to nie było żadnego problemu, żeby im takie polecenia wydawać po angielsku i oni też je zawsze rozumieli. Natomiast jeżeli grupa była, no mówiąc po polsku krnąbrna tak? I grupa, która musiała stanąć okoniem dla zasady a, to wtedy myślę, że wtedy też myślę, że ciężko byłoby wymóc na nich jeżeli byłoby to robione po angielsku, bo za chwilę by było, ściana niezrozumienia, w tym też językowego nie?

Rozumiem. A jak się czujesz jak prowadzisz całe zajęcia po angielsku? Czy ci się zdarza, jeżeli, jak to, jak jest-

- Zdarza się, szczególnie na te tematy informatyczne, dosyć często, nawet w klasie piątej, siódmej, w klasie ósmej, no i oczywiście nie ma żadnego problemu z tym nie?

Okay.

- Trzeba, trzeba czasem polawirować troszeczkę słownictwem, trochę tłumaczyć w inny sposób, obchodzić dookoła rzeczy, których oni nie umieją, żeby wpadli na to, o co nam chodzi. Dopuszczam nawet, jak ja prowadzę całość po angielsku, jak widzę, że grupa jest, która gdzieś tam miała zaległości wcześniej, szczególnie jak są pojedyncze sztuki w tej grupie, które miały wcześniej zaległości, i oni mają jakąś tam blokadę, barierę językową, to wiem, że kiedyś, na samym początku jak zaczynałam uczyć, to ja gdzieś tam miałam w głowie takie „Nie nie nie, trzeba ich zmusić, żeby mówili po angielsku" ale to nic nie dawało. Bo oni się blokowali, oni mówili „Nie, nie będę mówić nic". Więc w jednej grupie trochę eksperymentalnie, bo uczę ich od trzech lat po prostu więc widzę ten cały rozwój, i w jednej grupie trochę eksperymentalnie pozwoliłam im odpowiadać byle mówili. I pozwoliłam odpowiadać nawet po polsku, byle by mi dali jakiś komunikat, że oni rozumieją to, o czym mówię, że oni chcą odpowiedzieć na pytanie, i to zaczęło owocować tym, że oni nawet jeżeli, to były ćwiczenia z czytania teksu, z wyciągania, wyszukiwania informacji w tekście, oni byli mi w stanie znaleźć tą informację i to już mi mówiło, że oni coś z tego teksu rozumieją. I oni po czasie zaczęli coraz więcej wrzucać angielskiego, siłą rzeczy. I w tym momencie nie ma problemu, żeby mi odpowiadali, po tych trzech latach, nie ma problemu, żeby odpowiadali mi po angielsku i konwersacja może iść swobodnie poangielsku, natomiast na początku miałam wrażenie, że jakbym im powiedziała „Nie, koniec polskiego, angielski" oni by siedzieli i nic by nie powiedzieli nie?

To właśnie jest takie moje kolejne pytanie, bo jesteś też na świeżo po studiach, jak to się zmieniło od tego czasu, kiedy weszłaś świeżo po studiach do szkoły, jakie miałaś wtedy na ten temat poglądy, czy czułaś, że mogłabyś użyć polskiego czy w ogóle... i czy to się zmieniło wraz z twoją praktyką?

[00:10:04]

- To znaczy na pewno zobaczyłam różnorodność uczniów.

Aha.

- Bo na studiach jest dużo, panuje takie przekonanie mimo wszystko, że jak najwięcej tłuc angielski, ludzie się prześcigają w metodach jaki to angielski jest wspaniały że, jest, jest jedna metoda taka takiego immersing, że jak przyjdzie dziecko wrzucić do angielskiego to w końcu się nauczy w nim pływać i będzie mówić. I nigdy nie byłam zwolennikiem tego, bo sama ja byłam dosyć dużym opornikiem jeśli chodzi o uczenie się niemieckiego, więc jak mnie wrzucili do klasy, która mówiła po niemiecku, to ja siedziałam jak ten słup soli. Ja, ja dostałam dwa na koniec roku i ja byłam szczęśliwa, że mnie nie oblali.

Yhm, bardziej ze względu takich nerwów czy, czy niepokoju?

- Ze względu nerwów, ze względu obrazy na cały świat, bo wiadomo, że jeżeli ktoś nas zmusza do czegoś, czego my nie umiemy, nie chcemy, boimy się, to jest bunt.

Yhm.

- I nie chciałam nigdy, żeby uczniowie mi się buntowali, bo ja wiem, że, że na języku, o ile na matmie mogą się buntować i to nie wpływa na ich, na ich zdolność liczenia, bo albo umieją

liczyć albo nie, to na języku mimo wszystko gdzie jest komunikacja potrzebna oni się nie mogą buntować. Jak dopuścimy do buntu to przegraliśmy. I ja się zawsze starałam robić, nawet świeżo po studiach, żeby oni mi się nie buntowali. I gdzieś tam wolałam mimo wszystko iść w takie bardziej luźne, luźne podejście za cenę tego, żeby te dzieciaki się mnie nie bały. Bo jak ja bym im powiedziała „Nie, koniec, teraz mówicie po angielsku", no to, i ja to wiedziałam, bo ja, ja pamiętam o sobie, własnym przykładem, kiedy miałam właśnie ten bunt do niemieckiego nie?

Yhm.

- „Teraz mówicie po niemiecku". „Nie, nie umiem", koniec. „Nie będę mówić, może mi pani wstawić jeden". Ja kiedyś miałam takie sytuacje też na lekcji, gdzie „Nie będę mówić po angielsku, może mi pani wstawić jeden, ja na to nie odpowiem". Także myślę, że, że gdzieś tam to moje nastawienie było, natomiast umacniam się w tym, że ono działa, że mimo wszystko jeżeli uczę, miałam ucznia, który się nie odezwał przez dwa lata, jak w trzeciej klasie zaczął gadać, no to się okazało, że jest najlepszy z klasy. A on przez dwa, on „Nie", bo on miał taki uraz do mówienia na lekcjach, do odzywania się, bo on miał taką, troszeczkę miał taką opinię przyniesioną z poprzedniej szkoły takiego klasowego błazna, i mi się wydaje, że on już wszedł w to miejsce i on już był na takiej, u siebie w głowie na straconej pozycji.

Yhm.

- I ja po prostu, ja nie mogłam znieść tego, mówię „Boże, taki fajny chłopak" mówię, „Ale dobra, damy mu czas". I tak mu dawałam czas i faktycznie, w trzeciej klasie już, już się bardzo, bardzo szybko zaczął rozwijać i ten postęp był, bo on zobaczył, że on faktycznie coś umie, ale że go nikt nie zmuszał do tego. On nie musiał już siedzieć i mówić „Nie" dla zasady.

Yhm.

- Także myślę, że gdzieś to tam działa. Czy takie nastawienie miałam zaraz po studiach? Myślę, że tak, natomiast musiałam wyjść z tego, z tego, z tych wszystkich metod, które gdzieś tam nam, uczyli na studiach-

Jak to wyglądało, co mówili? Mówili, że polski okay?

- Polski, polski źle, angielski dobrze.

Yhm.

- Jakikolwiek język dobrze, polski źle.

Yhm, yhm.

- Ale no nie wiem-

Mówiono o tym? Czy było w tobie jakieś takie przekonanie na początku, może już nie pamiętasz, ale może sobie przypominasz, że jak użyjesz tego polskiego to się czułaś jakaś winna czy, że nie powinnaś, że może to świadczy o twojej niekompetencji?

- Nie, nie. Takiego przekonania nie miałam, trafiłam na na tyle dobrych metodyków, że oni mówili, że jednak trzeba się czasami nagimnastykować-

Aha-

- Pani, pani szukała bardzo, bardzo długo-

    [00:13:12]

Yhm, okay-

- Także oni, oni właśnie, szczególnie, że dużo tutaj też odegrało to, że uczę hiszpańskiego i z racji uczenia tego języka na poziomie, na którym generalnie uczę, to jest wszystko początki. Więc mimo wszystko mieliśmy podejście do ludzi, którzy dopiero zaczynają, więc może widziałam też, że jest też, jak wygląda uczeń, który zaczyna.

Yhm.

- Nie uczeń który już, wymagamy od niego, żeby coś wiedział, bo już parę lat miał angielski, ale uczeń, który zaczyna od zera. I bardzo często byli uczniowie, którzy się zachowywali, jakby zaczynali od zera, pomimo tego, że już mieli angielski. Także może też to się przełożyło. Nie miałam poczucia winy, nie. Czy się starałam używać angielskiego? Tak. Ale są grupy, na których no, choćbym nie wiem jak się starała, nie daję rady, no trzeba czasem wrócić.

Jakbyś miała określić co jest największą korzyścią z używania polskiego w określonych oczywiście kontekstach na lekcji?

- Brak nieporozumień co do tego, co chcemy powiedzieć.

Yhm, a największa, największe zagrożenie, które się wiąże z używaniem tego języka ojczystego, największy problem?

- Myślę, że chyba po prostu brak użycia angielskiego, za mało czasu wtedy zostaje na sam angielski.

Yhm.

- Przy czterdziestu pięciu minutach jak spędzimy pół godziny tłumacząc czas po polsku zostaje nam dwadzieścia, plus dziennik, plus inne czynności wokół lekcyjne, zostaje nam dwadzieścia, piętnaście na użycie angielskiego.

Yhm.

- A w ciągu tego jeszcze trzeba zrobić ćwiczenia, oni nie mogą po prostu usiąść i mówić, powinien być jakiś wstęp do tego nie?

Dobra, dziękuje bardzo!

- Bardzo proszę, bardzo proszę.

To wszystko, zatrzymuję-

    [00:14:44]

    (koniec nagrania)

Appendix D

Lesson observation form.

TEACHER NO _____

GROUP LEVEL: _____

TEACHER'S EXPERIENCE IN YEARS: _____

OWN LANGUAGE USE IN THE CLASSROOM – LESSON OBSERVATION SHEET

CONTEXT	FREQUENCY	DETAILS, COMMENTS
PRESENTING VOCABULARY		
PRESENTING GRAMMAR		
COMPARING ENGLISH AND POLISH GRAMMAR		
TRANSLATION PRACTICE		
CORRECTING MISTAKES		
GRADING/ASSESSMENT/FEEDBACK		
GIVING INSTRUCTIONS		
MAINTAINING DISCIPLINE		
ESTABLISHING GOOD RELATION-SHIP WITH Ss		