

USES AND PERCEPTIONS OF TRANSLANGUAGING AND CODE-SWITCHING AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING STRATEGIES: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract

The use of the first language of the group (or L1) as a scaffolding device to teach a foreign language (or FL), is gaining ground as a pedagogical tool in the FL classroom. This leads to the coexistence of two languages within one classroom, which paves the way for code-switching and translanguaging as legitimate FL teaching strategies. This case study, based on a language school for adults in Catalonia, delves into teachers' knowledge, extent and frequency of use, and prevalent perceptions of code-switching and translanguaging as FL teaching strategies. Using a mixed-method approach combining a focus group discussion and a series of classroom observations, the research findings reveal that most foreign language teachers use both FL and L1 in a variety of classroom situations, notably to teach vocabulary and grammar, for classroom management and to create bonds with learners, particularly with lower-level students. However, there is a clash between teachers' actual practices and their beliefs, which are affected by a strong tradition of FL use only. The latter often leads to feelings of guilt and acquiescence among professionals towards applying code-switching and translanguaging strategies in the classroom, as those, if overused, tend to deprive learners of a necessary exposure to the FL. As a conclusion, it is argued that, in an increasingly multilingual world, a balance should be found between exposure to the FL and a reasonable use of the L1.

Keywords: code-switching, translanguaging, foreign language teaching, use of L1, teaching strategies, teachers' perceptions.

Resum

L'ús de la primera llengua del grup (o L1) com a dispositiu de suport (*scaffolding*) per ensenyar una llengua estrangera (LE) està guanyant terreny com a eina pedagògica a l'aula de LE. Això dona peu a la convivència de dues llengües dins l'aula, cosa que legitima l'alternança de codi lingüístic (*code-switching*) o el transllenguatge (*translanguaging*) com a estratègies vàlides per a la didàctica de llengües estrangeres. Aquest estudi de cas, centrat en una escola d'idiomes per a adults, explora el coneixement, el grau i freqüència d'ús, i les principals percepcions dels professors pel que fa a l'alternança de codi i el transllenguatge com a estratègies per a l'ensenyament d'una LE. Mitjançant un mètode mixt que combina un grup de discussió i una sèrie d'observacions d'aula, els resultats de la investigació revelen que la majoria de professors fan servir tant la LE com la L1 en diverses situacions dins l'aula, especialment per a ensenyar vocabulari i gramàtica, per a la gestió d'aula i per crear vincles amb els alumnes, sobretot els de nivells baixos. No obstant això, s'observa un contrast entre les pràctiques reals dels professors i les seves creences, que es veuen afectades per una forta tradició d'ús exclusiu de la LE. Aquesta circumstància segueix provocant sentiments de culpa i aquiescència entre els professors pel que fa a l'aplicació d'estratègies de *code-switching* i *translanguaging* a l'aula, ja que si són utilitzades en excés, sovint priven els alumnes d'una exposició necessària a la LE. Com a conclusió, s'argumenta que en un món cada cop més multilingüe, cal caminar cap a un equilibri entre l'exposició a la LE i un ús raonable de la L1.

Paraules clau: alternança de codi, transllenguatge, ensenyament de llengües estrangeres, ús de la L1, estratègies didàctiques, percepcions dels professors.

1. INTRODUCTION

A major question that continues to be debated in the field of foreign language teaching is whether it is more productive to teach a foreign language using it as the sole language of instruction, or whether it is equally acceptable to switch between that foreign language (from now on, also: FL) and the native language or first language that is common to the class (from now on, also: L1), that is alternating between FL and L1.

In linguistics, this phenomenon of alternation has been known as code-switching (from now on, also: CS), and it consists of shuttling between two different languages in the same speech. It takes place when, in conversation, two speakers have more than one language in common, and they prefer to communicate by switching languages rather than using the same language throughout the whole speech when the linguistic or cultural context allows them to do so (Macaro, 2005). In recent years, it has been faced against a similar notion referred to as translanguaging (from now on, also: TL). Rather than just shifting from one language to another, the latter has been defined as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 401).

CS and TL are interrelated theoretical concepts and there is still some confusion as to the distinction between them. However, the idea of using L1 in the FL class can lead us to both notions, which have also been extensively discussed as possible legitimate pedagogical tools and foreign language teaching strategies.

This research dissertation does not aim to establish a specific distinction between CS and TL. It is otherwise a case study which aims to determine the level of incorporation of code-switching and translanguaging as foreign language teaching strategies at an Official Language School for adults in Catalonia where three foreign languages are taught: English, French and German, as well as to analyse the teachers’ knowledge and perceptions of the notions of code-switching and translanguaging, that is the use of L1 in the FL class.

Thus, the study aims to address the following research questions, presented also as research objectives:

- What do the foreign language teachers at the school know about code-switching and translanguaging as linguistic notions in general, and as teaching strategies in particular?
- To what extent are those applied as teaching strategies in the foreign language classes at the school?
- What are the teachers’ perceptions about code-switching and translanguaging as foreign language teaching strategies?

At the end of this dissertation, conclusions are drawn about how familiar teachers are with both notions, how often and on what types of situations they choose to use them as pedagogical tools in their foreign language classrooms, how comfortable they feel with them and whether they perceive them as legitimate and effective teaching strategies.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Code-switching and translanguaging: when L1 and FL meet

There is some confusion when distinguishing between code-switching and translanguaging. Various definitions exist of both terms and it is not always easy to tell the difference between them. While some scholars include CS as part of the process involved in TL, others draw a clear distinction between both notions. The only undisputed fact is that they share the idea of two different languages coming into contact, whether by means of an alternation, coexistence, or even a conflation between them.

Code-switching is the oldest of the two notions. The term was originally coined by Hans Vogt (1954) in his review of Uriel Weinreich's prominent work *Languages in Contact* (1953), and it has been the subject of thorough discussion in literature for more than half a century. From the 1970s onwards, it started receiving growing attention as an independent field of research (Stell and Yakpo, 2015).

There have been contrasting theoretical approaches to explain it, and it has been given a variety of definitions by authors such as Blom and Gumperz (1972), Poplack (1980), Myers-Scotton (1993, 2005), Auer (1998, 2005), McSwan (1999, 2014) or Macaro (2005), among others (as all cited in Stell and Yakpo, 2015).

Macaro (2005) defines it as a phenomenon that occurs when a speaker and an interlocutor share knowledge of more than one language and they prefer to communicate by switching languages rather than limiting the speech to just one of the languages.

From a grammatical approach, Poplack (1980) proposed three types of code-switching: extrasentential (or tag-switching), intersentential, and intrasentential. Extrasentential switching consists of inserting a single element (tag) from one language into an otherwise monolingual sentence, i.e. "*Això no es pot dir així, tu vois?*". Intersentential switching is characterized by a switch from one language variety to another at different levels of a discourse, that is in two consecutive statements, as in: "*Espero que us agradi el video. Das ist toll*". Finally, intrasentential code-switching means switching from one language variety to another within the boundaries of the same clause, with just one word or phrase, e.g. "*Puedes responder la question número seven, please?*".

Translanguaging, for its part, is a rather new concept that is still under development (Beres, 2015). The term translanguaging was first proposed by Cen Williams in his PhD thesis (1994a), where he coined the Welsh word *trawsieithu* to refer to a pedagogical practice adopted in bilingual secondary schools in Wales, which involved using two languages in the same lesson in a systematic and structured way. Students received information in one language and then were asked to deliver a piece of written or spoken work in the other language. As examples, they were asked to read a text in Welsh and then write a review of it in English, or to create a poster in English and then present it in Welsh (Beres, 2015; Portolés and Martí, 2017; Nagy, 2018).

The term *trawsieithu*, later renamed in English as translanguifying, first, and then as translanguaging by Colin Baker (2001), originally referred to a language practice entailing “a deliberate alternation between the language of input and output in the classroom” (Lewis et al. 2012, p. 643, as cited in Nagy, 2018, p. 42).

The notion of translanguaging has been further developed by leading researchers in the field of multilingual education such as Baker in the UK and Ofelia García in the US. The latter has popularised the term in recent years by reformulating its original definition by Williams and expanding its implications. According to her, “translanguaging, or engaging in bilingual or multilingual discourse practices, is an approach to bilingualism that is centred not only in languages as has been often the case, but on the practices of bilinguals that are readily observable” (García, 2009, p. 44). That is, “the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximise communicative potential” (García, 2009, p. 140). Thus, translanguaging is a common practice in multilingual communities that transcends the pedagogical practice suggested by Williams in 1994. Learners pick the resources from their unique linguistic repertoire to meet their communicative needs in both the oral and written modes (Portolés and Martí, 2017), depending on “topical, contextual and interactional factors” (García and Wei, 2014, p. 14-15).

García and Wei (2014) also argue that translanguaging goes beyond a learning strategy and a mere alternation of languages and modes. It is “the discursive norm of all bilinguals, as well as a pedagogical theory of learning and teaching” (García and Wei, 2014, p. 126, as cited in Beres, 2015).

Other definitions of translanguaging are those of Canagarajah (2011, p. 401) who defines it as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system”, or Baker (2011, p. 288, as cited in Nagy, 2018, p. 42) who views it as “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages”.

Translanguaging works differently depending on the language proficiency of the user. Bilingual speakers usually display a two-way, independent form of TL, where they choose to switch languages freely, according to their interests within the communicative situation. By contrast, emergent bilinguals who are not yet fluent enough in the FL they are learning, turn to a milder version of TL, where they use their L1 as both a scaffolding tool and a language of thought, as they still have a strong dependence on their native language, which they need to learn the new language. This variant is classified as a one-way, dependent form of translanguaging (García and Wei, 2014, as cited in Nagy, 2018).

Despite code-switching and translanguaging are oftentimes confused, different authors have drawn clear distinctions between them. Naomi Kano (2013) upholds that while CS implies only shifting codes (or languages), TL requires changing not only languages, but also modes (written and oral speech). Thus, translanguaging becomes an intricate, fluid process which includes code-switching as a part of it, as well as translation, and even a conflation of both code-switching and translation. Beres (2015) agrees that translanguaging includes code-switching, and transcends it, since the former cannot consist of a simple alternation between codes, as it is not merely about using separate languages, but rather about exploiting a flexible, comprehensive linguistic repertoire that encompasses all the language codes that make it up as one sole entity.

García and Wei (2014, as cited in Nagy, 2018) support the same idea that translanguaging transcends code-switching and goes beyond language categories. While CS only entails switching separate monolingual codes, TL focuses on how speakers create meaning from their multilingual repertoire. García and Angel Lin (2016) postulate that even some of the strongest advocates of code-switching (Gumperz, 1982; Auer, 2005; Myers-Scotton, 2005) acknowledge that it is based on a monoglossic rather than heteroglossic conception, which assumes that bilinguals or multilinguals have disconnected language systems in their minds, which contrasts with the dynamic view of a single integrated linguistic system including all languages posited by translanguaging. In García's own words (2009:45, as cited in Nagy, 2018, p. 43), "translanguaging is the process by which bilingual students perform bilingually in the myriad multimodal ways of classrooms".

2.2. Presence of the L1 in the foreign language classroom: Code-switching and translanguaging as FL teaching strategies.

Code switching and translanguaging have been widely researched as teaching strategies in a variety of educational situations involving the presence of more than one language within one classroom. Some examples would be bilingual education, immersion programmes or CLIL instruction. This dissertation will

focus exclusively on their use within foreign language classrooms, that is, as teaching strategies to teach a foreign language to groups that share one native language, or sometimes more than one. Such is the case of schools in Catalonia, a bilingual region where Catalan and Spanish usually coexist as L1 and L2 in the different foreign language classrooms. In that respect, this dissertation will treat both Catalan and Spanish as L1, since they share this status in an even proportion among students, the vast majority of whom are fluent in both.

Within a foreign language teaching setting, code-switching and translanguaging emerge when the L1 of the group makes its appearance in the classroom with a pedagogical purpose, that is, to help students in their learning process, as a scaffolding device in their acquisition of the FL. Of course, it is a type of situation that inevitably demands the presence of a bilingual teacher who is also fluent in the group's native language.

Until quite recently, the use of the L1 within the domains of the foreign language classroom could be referred to as "the elephant in the room". Although it did seem reasonable that the L1 served a legitimate purpose to help students progress in their acquisition of the foreign language, the fact was hardly ever mentioned (Levine, 2011, as cited in Kerr, 2019).

Throughout the 20th century, the general norm was to teach languages monolingually, refusing to mix them for instruction. Not even alluding to the possibility of using a learner's own language as a scaffolding strategy to help acquire a foreign language (Hall and Cook, 2013). In recent years, because of the events that have led to globalisation and the multilingual world of today, strategies such as code-switching and translanguaging, which open the door to the coexistence of more than one language within the classroom, have been gaining ground as rightful FL teaching strategies. There are growing findings that the use of the L1 may be a benefit for both students and teachers, and this is reflected in myriad studies, publications or even teacher training programmes and materials (Kerr, 2019).

The pedagogic functions which are attributed to the use of the L1 in the FL classroom are divided into two main types, depending on what the teachers' goals are. 'Medium-oriented goals' involve the transmission of meaning via teaching the language itself: explaining vocabulary and grammar, correcting tasks, etc. For their part, 'framework goals' lead to classroom management-related events, such as giving task instructions, maintaining discipline, assessing group work, etc. (Varshney, 2008, as cited in Hall and Cook, 2013). Other authors (as also cited in Hall and Cook, 2013), such as Auerbach (1993), Edstrom (2006), Kim and Elder (2008) or Brooks-Lewis (2009) also highlight a social function of the use of the L1 in the FL class. Teachers use it to build bonds with students, appealing to their personal dimensions, to create a positive learning environment. In that vein, teachers can also resort to the L1 to clarify doubts or develop difficult ideas to reinforce students' understanding, or even to illustrate differences between the L1 and the

foreign language (Cummins, 2007). Macaro (2005) summarises the 5 distinct areas in which teachers across all learning contexts make use of the L1: building rapport with the students, giving difficult instructions, controlling behaviour, translating to check understanding when time presses and teaching grammar and vocabulary.

Williams (2012, as cited in García and Wei, 2015) makes a distinction between natural translanguaging, when displayed by students, and official translanguaging, when applied by teachers to ensure full understanding of the subject. Examples of the latter include explaining terms, shedding light on difficult concepts or providing written translations, in line with the abovementioned theories.

Regarding the frequency of use of CS and TL strategies in foreign language classrooms, there exist different estimations depending on the authors. Some place it at a low proportion of 5% to 15% (Macaro and Mutton, 2002, as cited in Macaro, 2005), and others as far as 30% of the total lesson time (Chaudron, 1988, as cited in Macaro, 2005). As summarized by Kerr (2019), the average proportion ranges between 20% and 40%, even though it can be as high as 90% in some classes, and 0% in others.

Nevertheless, some authors argue that there must be a balance between the use of the L1 and the FL in the classroom. Overuse of the L1 can be just as counterproductive as no use of it at all. Each teacher must decide how often and for what purposes should the L1 be used in the classroom, always to the advantage of all agents involved in the process of teaching and learning (Kerr, 2019).

A strong advocate of the use of the L1 in the FL class is Paul Seligson, a reputed English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher with worldwide experience who believes that, for international students to learn English, they must think in their own language. In his view, it makes no sense to destroy the bonds between L1 and FL. When trying to acquire new knowledge, it is pointless to ask students to forget about what they already know. Previous knowledge (their L1) is there to help the new information soak in. Even more so if we bear in mind that many modern languages today share common features and have similar words. It makes no sense to isolate languages from each other. And the best foreign language teacher is undoubtedly a bilingual or multilingual individual, who has been through the same process as the learners (Seligson, as cited by Álvarez, 2016). In that vein, Cook (2002, as cited in Pacheco, 2016, p. 23) asserts that “the L1 is always present in the L2 learner” and any pedagogy within a classroom where two or more languages coexist could be deemed as translanguaging, as both students and teachers constantly resort to their multiple language resources.

When analysing the functions of translanguaging and code-switching as FL teaching strategies or pedagogical tools, once again some differences between both notions come to the fore. Translanguaging, in its original Welsh conception by Cen Williams (1994), alluded to a pedagogical method that consisted of intentionally switching between the language of input and the language of output (García and Lin,

2016). Thus, it stems from pedagogy and, by its own nature, it is tightly linked to pedagogical practices. TL plays a major role in education, where it is trusted to provide a space in the classroom where learners can make full use of their cross-linguistic resources, and it promotes among language learners what García defined as dynamic bilingualism, or the use of their entire language repertoire (Nagy, 2018).

By contrast, code-switching is “rarely institutionally endorsed or pedagogically underpinned” (Creese and Blackledge, 2010, p. 105, as cited in García and Lin, 2016, p. 3). Even if code-switching, understood as the process of shifting from one language to another, has been used and continues to be used on a global basis as a pedagogical practice in foreign language classrooms, it does not enjoy as much recognition as translanguaging in academic terms. In 1990, Rodolfo Jacobson developed the so-called “concurrent approach” to bilingual education, which called for teachers to strategically switch language codes in the classroom with a pedagogical purpose, albeit only intersententially. Despite Jacobson’s efforts, CS as a pedagogical tool was never fully supported institutionally (García and Lin, 2016).

Translanguaging, owing in part to its pedagogical roots, has established itself as a widely endorsed practice in foreign language classrooms where most learners share the same L1. Even if a distinction can also be drawn between spontaneous and pedagogical translanguaging. The former merely refers to the general discursive practices of multilingual users, whereas the latter alludes to the teaching strategies and practices applied in multilingual contexts (García and Wei, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012; as both cited in Nagy, 2018).

According to García, TL “enables teachers and pupils alike to see bilingualism as a resource that can facilitate the acquisition of language skills and general knowledge” (García, 2012, as cited in Beres, 2015, p. 37). Her view coincides with that of Creese & Blackledge, who posit that TL allows for “permeability between languages” (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, as cited in Beres, 2015, p.37). Li Wei (2019, as cited in Vallejo and Dooly, 2019, p. 8) takes it one step further, upholding that TL “questions the very existence of the boundaries between named languages and promotes any effort that aims at breaking those boundaries”.

It can be asseverated that translanguaging goes beyond languages as independent entities, as it focuses on how bilingual and multilingual users interact with their entire linguistic repertoires to make meaning, transcending both codes and modes (Kano, 2013). That makes TL a pedagogical approach that “reflects people’s use of language and not simply people as language users” (García, 2006, p. 13, as cited in Kano, 2013, p. 39).

Thus, translanguaging becomes paramount when teaching emergent bilinguals since, in their process of acquisition of the new language, TL allows them to go through a learning experience they would otherwise miss. In other words, thanks to TL, they have the possibility to connect to their full linguistic repertoire,

which includes their L1, to take full advantage of their process of learning a foreign language. As a result, their skills and confidence alike are enhanced (Beres, 2015). Translanguaging goes beyond a simple way to “scaffold instruction to make sense of learning and language; rather, it is part of the metadiscursive regime that students in the twenty-first century must perform” (García, 2011, p. 1965, as cited in Vallejo, 2018, p. 90). Moreover, Macaro (2005, p. 80) asserts that the inclusion of the L1 is a necessity in the FL classroom, as learners will use the FL in an ever more globalized and multilingual world where multiple languages coexist, therefore “it should become one of the objectives when planning the curriculum”.

Translanguaging not only boosts learners’ competence in the FL, but it also improves their general academic performance and allows them to unlock their true potential. In words of García (2014a, p. 115) translanguaging can give “voice to those who do not speak yet” (As cited in Beres, 2015, p. 38, emphasis added).

2.3. Teachers’ perceptions of code-switching and translanguaging as FL teaching strategies

The degree of use of translanguaging and code-switching as teaching practices in the foreign language class will depend to a great extent on the perceptions of bilingual FL teachers about incorporating the L1 in their lessons. Students’ perceptions on the matter do have an influence as well, but that is not the subject of study of this dissertation. When we talk about teachers’ perceptions, we refer to the set of feelings and beliefs held among professionals which add either positive or negative value, and confer more or less legitimacy, to the use of translanguaging and code-switching as teaching strategies within the foreign language classroom (Hall and Cook, 2013).

After conducting a series of surveys and interviews to find out what were the most widely held beliefs among teachers concerning the use of the L1, Ernesto Macaro (2009) resolved that there exist three different types of stances that teachers can adopt:

The **virtual position**, which refers to teachers who reject using the L1 and support FL use only, as they believe the native language of the group exerts a negative influence because it hinders exposure to the foreign language, as well as to the foreign culture, which are the learners’ main learning targets. The **maximal position**, that of teachers who believe that an exclusive use of the FL is not feasible, albeit desirable, since the perfect conditions do not exist and students, to a greater or lesser extent, will always inevitably end up using their L1 in the FL class. For that reason, teachers who adopt the maximal position are lenient towards an occasional use of the L1, even if admitting to feelings of guilt about it. And the last one is **the optimal position**, which encompasses those teachers who unswervingly support a rational use of the L1 to enhance their students’ learning experience, as using their native language allows them to

connect to their entire linguistic repertoire, which opens the door to translanguaging (Macaro, 2009, as cited in Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2019).

Macaro (2014, as cited in Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2019) also points out that the optimal position is the least common of the three positions and it represents a minority of teachers. In line with what teachers in the maximal position experience, a number of studies have found guilt to be a widespread sense among FL teachers regarding the use of the L1 for pedagogical purposes (Macaro, 1997, 2009; Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009; Littlewood and Yu, 2011; as all cited in Hall and Cook, 2013). This is due in part to a long prevalence of L1-only language-teaching policies, particularly in the field of English teaching, which somehow continues to put pressure on many foreign language teachers (not just English teachers). Although translanguaging and code-switching do not cease to gain ground, the belief that instruction should be performed solely in the target language, that is the FL itself, with no room for the L1 of the group, is still a very deep-rooted idea in the field of foreign language teaching. In some contexts, using the L1 is still a controversial issue. This situation has urged the necessity to convince teachers that it is legitimate to use their students' L1, because it can help scaffold their acquisition of the FL, as long as it is used in a sensible way (Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2019). Feeling guilty will not help teachers develop professionally and they must learn to appreciate the potential of the L1, rather than viewing it as a hurdle (Kerr, 2019). In words of Macaro (2005, p. 69), teachers' sense of guilt "is not a healthy outcome of a pedagogical debate".

Apart from guilt, Macaro also reports on a feeling of acquiescence among bilingual FL teachers, the majority of whom think of making "recourse to the L1" in the FL class as something "unfortunate and regrettable but necessary". The native language of the class is found to be present across all learning contexts where a choice of language for instruction can be made. Nevertheless, Macaro's general impression is that teachers are convinced that the FL "should be the predominant language of interaction of the classroom", yet paradoxically so, there is not "a majority of teachers in favour of excluding the L1 altogether". The reason for this, however, is not that they give particular value to the L1, but rather that they believe the ideal conditions for an exclusive use of the FL do not exist, which fits into Macaro's maximal position. According to some findings, bilingual teachers are more prone to using the L1 with beginner-level learners who are not yet fluent enough in the FL and cannot effectively use it to make meaning, and therefore face a higher risk of becoming frustrated in the class. Thus, "recourse to L1 is almost entirely a comprehension issue not an acquisition issue" (Macaro, 2005, p. 68).

Teachers' beliefs are often mirrored in their teaching practices (Kerr, 2019). The more they find the L1 useful to scaffold the acquisition of the FL as well as to enhance their students' learning experiences, the more likely will they be to support translanguaging or code-switching as legitimate strategies, and the

more will they resort to them in the classroom. This is not always true, however, and teachers' beliefs sometimes do not match their actual practices. It is a complex association which is not always easy to make (Basturkmen, 2012, as cited in Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2016). Some research data have demonstrated that a lot of teachers make much more use of the L1 in the classroom than they would admit to. There is often "a conflict between the professed desires of teachers about L1 use and their classroom realities" (Copland and Neokleous, 2011, as cited in Kerr, 2019, p. 4). Even so, research shows that, indeed, teachers' beliefs oftentimes exert a major influence on teachers' practices (Zhang and Liu, 2014, as cited in Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2016).

This is often subject to an array of determinants. The fact that teachers condemn the use of the L1, feel guilty about it or show flexibility towards it, will depend on factors such as their teaching experience, their training and education before and after entering into service, the institutional policies in their school or organisation, or their own personal experiences as language learners (Kerr, 2019). By contrast, their nationality is not commonly described as a variable when considering the teachers' beliefs about the use of the L1. For instance, regardless of being native or non-native in the FL, bilingual teachers usually agree on the need to use the L1, despite not being particularly proud about it (Macaro, 2005).

As Kubanyiova (2014, as cited in Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2016, p. 8) concludes, teachers' practices are "closely related to how they believe teaching should be carried out and to the teaching methods they have internalized throughout their careers".

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Methodological approach and criteria

This dissertation follows a case study approach which uses a mainly qualitative research method, although it supplies some quantitative information as well. Two data collection tools were used: focus group and classroom observation. The focus group discussion was based on a semi-structured guide whose results were analysed in a primarily qualitative manner, whereas classroom observation findings were examined both qualitatively and quantitatively.

A mixed method was selected due to the exploratory nature of the research questions of the dissertation, which expect to obtain both qualitative and quantitative answers. Regarding teachers' knowledge of code-switching and translanguaging, the study aims to find out about what is known (qualitative), as well as to what extent it is known (quantitative). It is as important to identify the different types of uses of CS and TL (qualitative), as it is to determine how often they make appearance in the classroom (quantitative). And concerning the last question, referring to teachers' perceptions, qualitative tools such as a focus

group are essential to collect not just objective (what they perceive), but also subjective information (why they perceive it in a particular way).

3.2. Participants

As has already been said, this research is a case study that was conducted at an Official Language School in Catalonia, focusing exclusively on its teachers' knowledge, uses and perceptions of CS and TL. As a case study, therefore, it is restricted in scope and aims to collect data from a limited sample of subjects.

The selected institution is EOI Guíxols, a small school of slightly over 200 students where three foreign languages are taught: English, German and French. All students are over 16, that is adults and late teenagers, and most of them have Catalan and Spanish as L1 and L2 (or vice versa). The staff consists of 5 teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL), 2 teachers of German as a foreign language and 1 teacher of French as a foreign language. That amounts to a total of 8 foreign language teachers who teach a total of 17 groups, organised as shown in figure 1:

	ENGLISH	GERMAN	FRENCH
A1	2	1	1
A2	2	1	1
B1	2	1	1
B2	4	0	0
C1	1	0	0

Fig. 1: Number of groups by language and level

Three of the schoolteachers were selected to participate in the focus group discussion, while classroom observations were conducted in a total of 6 groups.

Participants in the focus group were selected further to a set of criteria to obtain a sample that was representative of the specific context of the school. Thus, the sample included one professional for each of the three languages taught at the institution, as well as for each of the four levels of the sessions selected for classroom observation (A1 to B2). The eventual group was made up of an English B2 teacher, a German A1/B1 teacher and a French A1/B1 teacher. This trio of bilingual teachers included one native speaker and two non-native speakers of the languages they teach. Two of them have over 10 years teaching experience, and one of them has over 5 years teaching experience. They all have experience teaching different language levels, from A1 to B2 (beginner to upper intermediate).

As for the classroom observations, the 6 selected groups were as follows: English A2, English B2, German A1, German B1, French A1 and French B1. Those included classes taught by the three teachers in the focus group, as well as an extra group of English A2 taught by one teacher who did not take part in the focus group.

This composition aimed to offer an inclusive sample of all languages and levels taught by the team of professional foreign language teachers at EOI Guíxols, so that the information gathered in this case study genuinely reflects the institution's reality.

3.3. Data collection tools (1): Focus group

3.3.1. Selection criteria

The first data collection tool selected for this dissertation was a focus group that was carried out with three of the foreign language teachers at the school. A focus group discussion was preferred over individual interviews as this case study is after a collective vision that can be applied to all participants, rather than a selection of their different views. Interaction is a necessary condition in any discussion, and it is precisely the kind of condition needed to obtain the type of answers that can lead to achieving the objectives of this dissertation.

Interaction entails a unique group dynamic that can generate spontaneous responses that would otherwise never be obtained via individual interviews. In focus groups, the facilitator serves only as a guide who is solely responsible for creating a favourable environment in which participants feel comfortable enough to share their views. But those who essentially direct the flow of questioning, based on a set of topics provided by the facilitator, are the participants themselves. While sharing their myriad views, they stimulate each other in a manner that they may connect their thoughts to those of their peers, which may in turn encourage them to develop new and unrehearsed ideas (Glitz, 1998, et al., as cited in Williams and Katz, 2001). Rather than repeating the same question to all participants and expecting their answers one by one, in the fashion of a personal interview, the very nature of a focus group implies analysing how meaning is made through group interaction (Morgan, 2008 and Barbour, 2007, as both cited in Hernández Sampieri, 2014). This natural process of stimulation among the members of the group is particularly useful when qualitatively analysing the results of a discussion, as it provides a highly valuable source of data which otherwise may remain unobserved.

3.3.2. Design, development and procedure of data collection and analysis

The focus group discussion for this study followed a semi-structured guide which began with a warm-up and was then divided into three different sections, corresponding roughly to the three research questions of the dissertation.

The objective of the warm-up section was to make the participants familiar with the topic and to trigger in them some reflection on their initial standpoint towards CS and TL. To scaffold this reflection, a short introductory video was used. Participants watched a brief online class by Isabel Carrasco and Phillip Bartlett (2021), who have become popular online English teachers in Spain via their YouTube channel, and who are known to use CS and TL in their classes.

For its part, section 1 included a set of topics in the form of mostly open-ended questions that intended to serve as an introduction to the theoretical notions of code-switching and translanguaging, from both a linguistic and educational point of view. Section 2 revolved around the uses of CS and TL as foreign language teaching strategies. Topics in this central part referred to the different types of situations where CS and TL may be used as well as to the frequency of use of the L1 in the FL classroom. Lastly, section 3 delved into teachers' perceptions about using CS and TL as teaching strategies. Their perceptions include both their beliefs and their feelings, and the extent to which those may influence their practices, in their view. (See Appendix 1 for the semi-structured guide including the complete list of topics for the focus list).

As mentioned earlier, the focus group discussion was carried out with three different FL teachers of different levels within EOI Guíxols. It was held via an online Zoom session and lasted 40 minutes. The session was recorded, and the qualitative data retrieved were subsequently transcribed, codified and organised into three categories, corresponding to the three areas of information explored by the research questions. Finally, the contributions of participants were labelled as T1, T2 and T3 (teacher 1, teacher 2 and teacher 3) for the results section of this dissertation.

3.4. Data collection tools (2): Classroom observation

3.4.1. Selection criteria

To complement the qualitative data obtained via the focus group, a set of classroom observations were conducted as a second data collection tool for this case study.

The original intention was to use a questionnaire to be answered by the full staff of eight FL teachers at EOI Guíxols, looking to retrieve a range of quantitative data to be triangulated with the qualitative information from the focus group. But it was then decided to favour quality over quantity and conduct a

series of classroom observations instead. Primarily, because direct observation was deemed to be a more reliable method to figure out the true extent of use of code-switching and translanguaging in the school. Even if direct observation is not free of bias from the researcher, and can be subject to the so-called Hawthorne effect, that is a change of behaviour in people when they know they are being observed (Oswald et al., 2014), answers in a questionnaire always stand a higher chance of bias. Direct observation was considered to be the best way to analyse the relation between the qualitative results of the focus group and the real practices in the classrooms.

Thus, the primary objective of the classroom observations was twofold. First, they were aimed at gauging the actual levels of application of CS and TL as foreign language teaching strategies in the school. But, at the same time, they were a necessary tool to crosscheck whether the feelings and beliefs expressed by teachers about CS and TL as foreign language strategies did indeed match their classroom practices or not. Therefore, they were conducted in classes delivered by the three participant teachers at the focus group, plus an extra English A2 class. The latter was due to the fact that both the German and French teacher at the focus group taught lower and intermediate levels (A1/B1), whereas the English teacher at the focus group taught only an intermediate level (B2), so it was necessary to observe a lower-level class of that language to be able to obtain a thoroughly representative sample both language and level-wise.

3.4.2. Design, development and procedure of data collection and analysis

A total of 6 sessions were observed on 3 different dates, for a maximum of 60 minutes. Observation was direct and overt, all sessions were recorded and data were collected via a combination of checklists to record quantitative information and field notes sections to record further qualitative information (Taylor-Powell and Steele, 1996).

In the case of classroom observations, research mainly aimed to pinpoint to what extent code-switching and translanguaging are applied in the school. Eight different categories of situations were established for observation, according to teachers' comments and reflections at the focus group: giving task instructions, explaining vocabulary and grammar, comparing structures between languages, clarifying doubts and developing difficult ideas, assessing groupwork, correcting tasks, classroom management and creating bonds with students (see Appendix 2).

Qualitative data were then transcribed and codified into the abovementioned categories, whereas quantitative data were converted into simple percentages for comparison. At the end of the process, all data were triangulated and crosschecked against those of the focus group and were subject to straightforward interpretation to validate results.

4. RESULTS

Presented hereunder are the results obtained via the analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data from the focus group and the classroom observations carried out in this study. The results are organised into three different categories, which correspond to the three research questions of the dissertation. These are: teachers' knowledge of code-switching and translanguaging; extent and frequency of use of CS and TL as teaching strategies in foreign language classrooms; and teachers' perceptions of CS and TL as foreign language teaching strategies. Participant teachers at the focus group are referred to as T1, T2 and T3, and their textual citations are enclosed in Catalan, which is the language they were originally produced in.

Teachers' knowledge of code-switching and translanguaging

Despite all three participants in the focus group appeared to be rather unfamiliar with the terms code-switching and translanguaging, it became evident that they did have a notion of their existence both as linguistic phenomena and as teaching strategies within an educational context. The three of them declared to have knowledge of other professionals using the L1 in foreign language classes, such as Carrasco and Bartlett from Amigos Ingleses, albeit not being fully aware that this type of practice is referred to with specific terms, let alone that the topic has been extensively researched.

Teacher 1 (from now on: T1) openly admitted to regularly using the L1 in the FL class, and even if not familiar with most authors and literature on the subject, T1 did mention previous knowledge of Paul Seligson: "*... i alguna vegada he volgut investigar per veure si algun autor recolzava el que jo faig, que és comparar les llengües a classe perquè puguin relacionar estructures que s'assemblen, i recordo una conferència d'en Paul Seligson, que és coautor dels llibres de l'English File que fem servir a les EOI, que deia que si vols fer servir el castellà per ensenyar l'anglès, endavant, que no és cap vergonya fer servir la llengua 1 a l'aula*").

Teacher 2 (from now on: T2) referred to a possible distinction between code-switching and translanguaging in pedagogical terms: "*Potser el primer [CS] vol dir fer un canvi total de llengua per a una explicació o aclarir un concepte concret, i translanguaging és anar canviant de tant en tant mentre parles sense un motiu concret? O sigui, com jugar amb les dues llengües?*". Once given the definition of translanguaging by Canagarajah (2011): "the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system", T2 connected this with

a student in their class not being able to shuttle between languages yet, due to lack of knowledge of the foreign language: *“M’ha fet pensar en un alumne que tinc que a casa parla català, ho tradueix tot del castellà, i a classe ha de fer el mateix. Llavors aquest encara no pot canviar fàcilment entre llengües perquè necessita fer previ de traducció tota l’estona. Fins que no ets totalment bilingüe i tens tot el repertori integrat potser no ho pots fer, això de translanguaging, no? Per tant només ho podem fer nosaltres. Els alumnes encara no, no?”*.

Finally, Teacher 3 (from now on: T3), ventured into a possible scaffolding function of code-switching and compared translanguaging to translation: *“Pot ser que code-switching sigui una cosa que t’ajuda a fer com un pont entre la llengua 1 i la llengua 2? I translanguaging suposo que és fer traducció, com el que faig jo a primer, segurament, que els hi dius la paraula traduïda en català”*.

Extent and frequency of use of CS and TL as teaching strategies in foreign language classrooms

All three teachers admitted to having used the L1 in their classrooms at some point, even if unwillingly or unknowingly. Their unanimous statement was: *“Sí, segur que ho hem fet. Tothom ho fa això, en un moment o altre”* (T1, T2, T3). There was also consensus that they use it occasionally, rather than often, and mostly for lower levels. T3 declared to never use it for upper levels.

When discussing common uses of code-switching and translanguaging as teaching strategies in specific types of situations, T1, T2 and T3 agreed that the two most recurring reasons to resort to the L1 within a foreign language lesson are classroom management and creating affective bonds with students, followed by explaining vocabulary and grammar, comparing syntactic and lexical structures between L1 and FL and clarifying doubts or developing difficult ideas, in that order. Other than those, they also mentioned other less common but also feasible types of situations where the L1 can be used, all of which can be placed into one of the following categories: giving task instructions, correcting tasks, and assessing group work.

Focus group participants believe that using the L1 for bonding purposes with students is inevitable, for instance if you need to resort to humour, particularly in lower levels: *“Jo a A1 a vegades si els veig cansats em surt de fer alguna broma per relaxar l’ambient, i sovint no m’entenen si no ho faig en català”* (T1). This may not be so common in upper levels, but one of the most likely situations where a teacher may use the L1 with adult students regardless of their level is classroom management, paperwork and school administration issues, for instance giving information about student funding or exams: *“Me n’he adonat que quan necessiten més el català és per entendre el funcionament de l’escola. Per exemple, la setmana passada que vaig fer tutoria grupal els hi vaig haver d’explicar encara un altre cop l’avaluació continua, i vaig haver de canviar i ho vaig haver de fer en català, perquè els hi costava seguir. Aquestes coses més*

burocràtiques, diguem, els hi costen encara que ja tinguin un cert nivell. Però jo per a les explicacions gramaticals no faig servir el català” (T2).

T2's opinion contrasts with that of T3, who asserted that grammar explanations may require some use of CS and TL strategies, although less often than with classroom management: *“Un dia de classe normal segurament es faci servir més el català per parlar de coses de l'escola i a la part de gramàtica. Per vocabulari potser una mica menys.” (T3)*, which is in line with T1's opinion: *“Jo a B2 he utilitzat a vegades el català, però no tant per explicar paraules, sinó quan comencen a perdre's. En una explicació gramatical per exemple. Ataques el català... A vegades per anar més ràpid i a vegades per ajudar-los, perquè veus que s'estan perdent”*. In other words, that the reason why it is easier to explain grammar in the L1 can be twofold. Either because it helps students understand better or because it is more time effective, or both. Grammar explanations sometimes lead to developing difficult ideas or clarifying doubts. Teachers end up using the L1 for both purposes, and they often approach it as a scaffolding device to compare syntactic structures that bear an interlinguistic resemblance: *“A vegades veus que tenen la sensació de: “buf! això es molt complicat!” i tu els dius: “no, no és complicat, si ho tradueixes literalment, veuràs que en català estàs utilitzant exactament la mateixa estructura”. Jo ho faig molt això de comparar amb la llengua mare” (T1)*. However, some believe there is a risk in comparing languages, as this may cause students to make mistakes due to inaccurate literal translations: *“A mi em fa por això de que comparin molt les llengües, perquè a vegades l'errada la fan justament perquè comparen, perquè tradueixen textualment” (T3).*

According to T2 and T3, it is less common, even sporadic to use CS and TL strategies for giving task instructions, correcting tasks, or assessing group work. By contrast, T1 admits to using the L1 in those cases more often than not, particularly when students do not seem to understand how to perform a particular activity, or its outcome, after an explanation in the FL: *“Moltes vegades, dependent de la cara que em posin, o les torno a repetir més lentament i simplificant l'input, o acabo repetint-ho tot en català (...) A vegades preparo activitats que són una mica difícils d'explicar, per exemple alguns jocs, i la veritat és que és més fàcil fer-ho en català. És una mica frustrant si no t'entenen.” (T1).*

While participants at the focus group discussion clearly placed classroom management and bonding purposes on top of the list of classroom situations where the L1 may be used, the results of the observations manifest that, when it comes to real frequency of use, there is another situation that usually entails as much use of L1 as classroom management, and more use of L1 than creating bonds with students. Explaining vocabulary and grammar grabs the top position, as illustrated in figure 2:

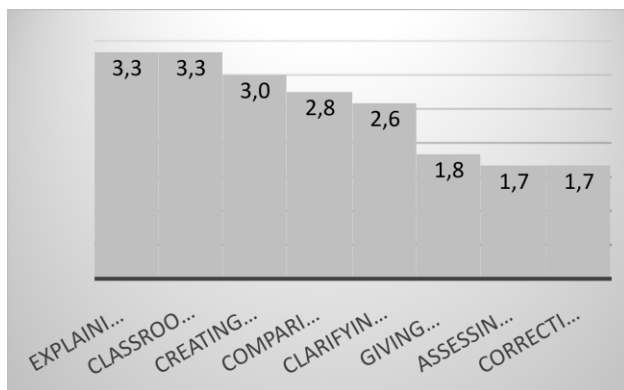


Fig. 2: Frequency of use of L1 by situation

Scale of assessment:

- 1: Hardly ever (<5 examples per sequence)
- 2: Sometimes (5-10 examples per sequence)
- 3: Often (11-15 examples per sequence)
- 4: Very often (>15 examples per sequence)

As shown in the chart, both classroom management and explaining grammar and vocabulary share over 10 examples per session observed. In both cases, the exact number of examples per session was 13. As for the rest of situations, the order unveiled by the results of the observation roughly matches that expressed by the teachers in the focus group discussion, with assessing group work and correcting tasks at the bottom of the rank as well.

The data above also bring evidence to the fact that teachers' actual practices in the classroom sometimes do not correspond to their perceptions, as will be further discussed in the next section. Figure 3 displays the mismatch between teachers' perceptions and their actual use of L1 depending on the situations. The gap between admittance and actual use is particularly bigger in the case of vocabulary and grammar explanations:

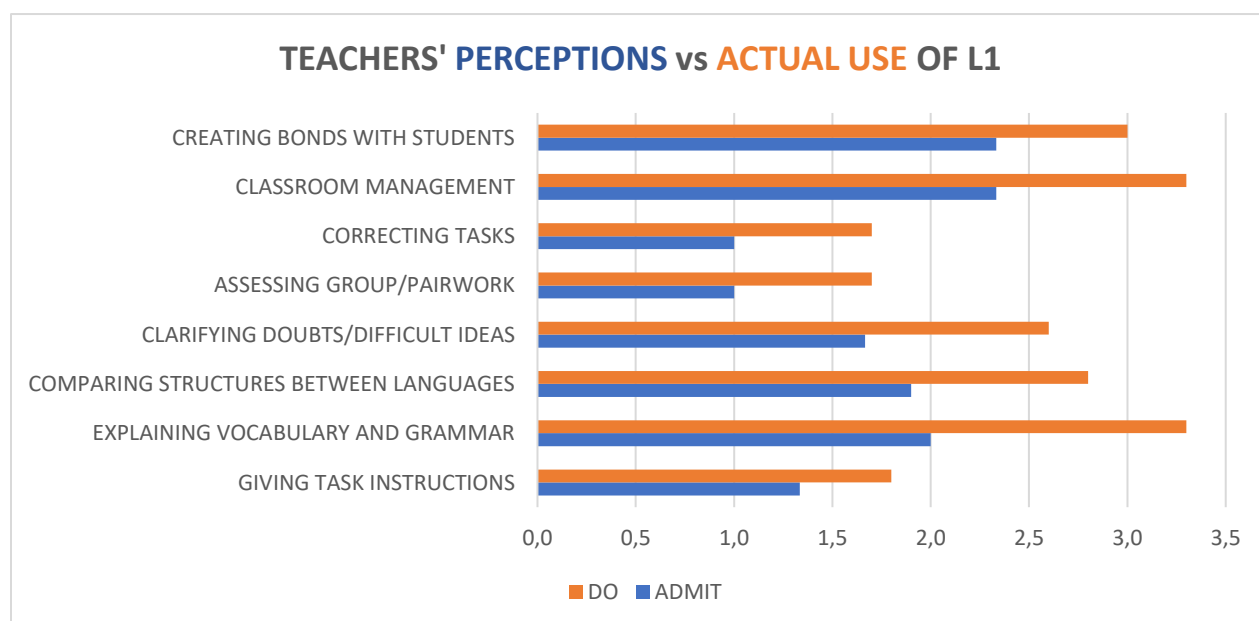


Fig. 3: Teachers' perceptions as opposed to their actual uses of L1

If broken down into languages and analysed with the scale above, frequency of use of the L1 appears to be greater in German (average: 3.1) than it is in English (2.3) and French (2.2).

If examined in terms of levels of proficiency, the results show a significant predominance of L1 in lower levels A1/A2 (average: 2.8) over upper levels B1/B2 (average: 2.2).

The chart in figure 4 below exhibits a triangulation of the three variables that were taken into account for the analysis of the frequency of use of L1: classroom situations, languages and levels of proficiency:

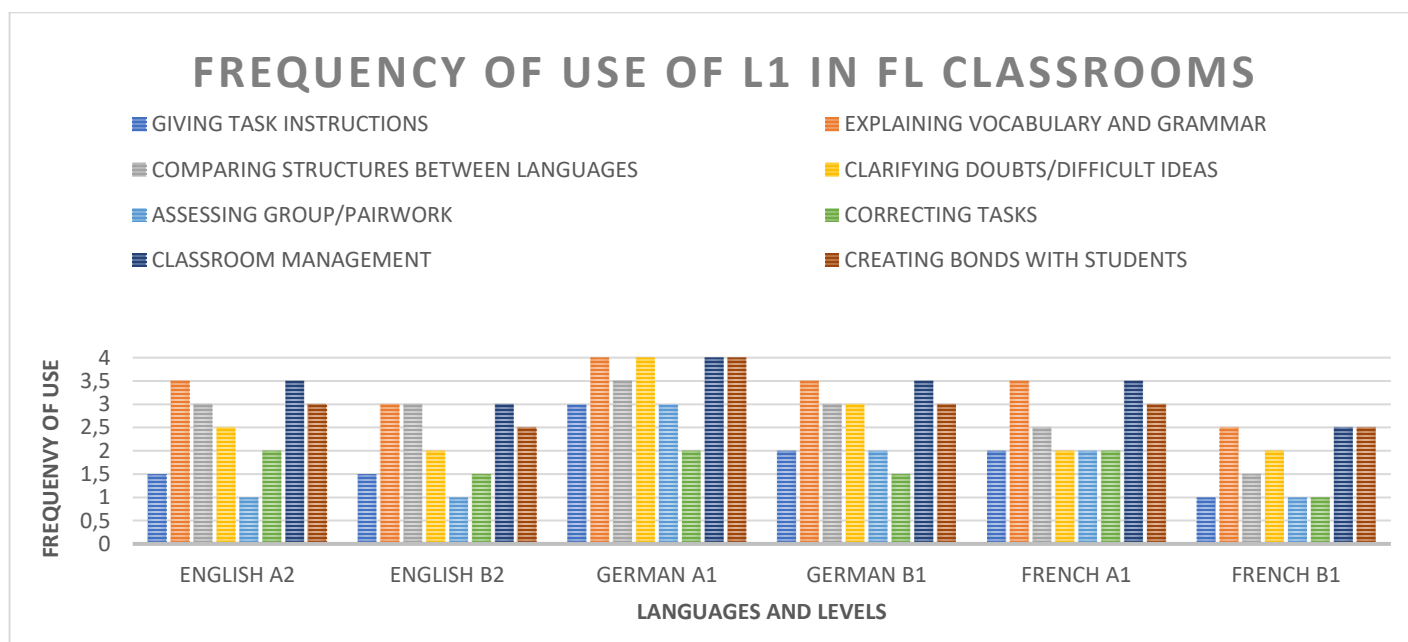


Fig. 4: Frequency of use of L1 in FL classrooms by situations, languages and levels

Hereunder (figure 5) is a list of qualitative examples of uses of TL and CS strategies by teachers obtained from the observations, organised by classroom situations, and including combined samples of all languages and levels:

SITUATIONS	EXAMPLES OF USE
Explaining Vocabulary and Grammar	<p><i>“Dès que veut dir en cuanto, en el momento que” (French B1)</i></p> <p><i>“Meinst du ein Backofen? El forn?” (German A1)</i></p> <p><i>“I see your point: Ja sé què vols dir!” (English A2)</i></p> <p><i>“Booster seria un potenciador; Poaching en aquest context vol dir caça furtiva” (English B2)</i></p> <p><i>“Be able és per dir can amb el future” (English A2)</i></p> <p><i>“Aquí és necessària una Verkürzung” (German B1)</i></p>
Classroom Management	<p><i>“Recordeu triar els horaris de les tutories” (English B2)</i></p> <p><i>“La convocatòria de les beques acabava la setmana passada” (French B1)</i></p> <p><i>“Porteu el mòbil el proper dia” (German B1)</i></p>
Creating Bonds with Students	<p><i>“Salva, no te salvas: trouve le mot!” (French B1)</i></p> <p><i>“Keine Angst que a l’examen no us cruixiré amb això” (German A1)</i></p> <p><i>“Arriba un guiri aquí i li respons això and you give him a shock!” (English B2)</i></p>

Comparing Structures between Languages	<i>"Voilà! En francès també fem servir el subjuntif ici"</i> (French A1) <i>"Wie lange és exactament el mateix que how long"</i> (German A1) <i>"Hold your horses! No us sona aquesta expressió? Para el carro!"</i> (English B2)
Clarifying Doubts / Difficult Ideas	<i>"Per ser comptable ha de poder dividir-se en unitats. Una cosa incomptable és abstracta, en principi indivisible"</i> (English A2) <i>"Zugzwang és com quan tens molta pressió i has de prendre una decisió ràpid"</i> (German B1)
Giving Task Instructions	<i>"De moment, wir lesen. No gireu la fulla encara!"</i> (German A1) <i>"Vous faites les exercices ensemble. No els feu sols, vale?"</i> (French A1) <i>"L'has de llegir per a tu. Don't do it out loud."</i> (English B2)
Assessing Group / Pairwork	<i>"Sí, ho podeu fer així, und dann corregim"</i> (German A1) <i>"Heu de dir per què és False"</i> (English A2)
Correcting Tasks	<i>"What's missing here? Quina era la preposició?"</i> (English B2) <i>"El següent, c'est a qui?"</i> (French A1) <i>"Eins oder Zwei? Segur que la sabeu..."</i> (German A1)

Fig. 5: Qualitative examples of TL and CS as FL strategies in different classroom situations

Teachers' perceptions of CS and TL as foreign language teaching strategies

All three teachers in the focus group discussion agreed that introducing the L1 in the FL class does carry some risks, despite being necessary at times. In their view, a strong presence of the L1 in the classroom may reduce the students' exposure to the foreign language and affect the quality of the FL input they receive, which cannot be found within the immediate social context once they step out of the classroom. *"També depèn molt del context, és a dir si per exemple això fos una classe en un país on es parla la llengua, ja no m'importaria tant, perquè ells ja tenen molt d'input. Però ja que estem aquí, aquestes 2 hores que venen a classe es com per molts l'únic moment en el qual poden practicar. Em sento malament si els hi parlo en català i els hi robo aquest moment"* (T2). A similar reflexion was uttered by T3, who pointed out that the L1 may sometimes even pose a serious interference, rather acting as a scaffolding device: *"Quan aprens la llengua fas el procés com un nen, que no en coneixia cap altra abans. Un nen no parla de seguida. Primer escolta, assimila i després pot produir. Un alumne que comença A1 sense que hi hagi interferències de cap altra llengua, és sobretot un benefici per a ell. L'aprendrà molt més ràpid"* (T3)."

T1, T2 and T3 share a similar perception when it comes to the adequacy of use of CS and TL as teaching strategies depending on the level. There is consensus that those are generally more suitable for lower levels, when students still have a strong dependence from their mother tongue, which plays a significant role in their process of acquisition of the foreign language. By contrast, although it cannot be discarded at all, it is usually not necessary to use the L1 to help students in upper levels. However, as there exists

some risk of overexposure to the L1, it is generally better to use it only sporadically, also to prevent bad habits in the future, such as answering in the L1 even if being already fluent in the FL. *“A primer els alumnes utilitzen molt la llengua mare i sovint agraeixen que jo tb la utilitzi. Però també he tingut casos a nivells alts d’alumnes que parlaven molt en català. Si a primer ja els obligues, els hi vas creant l’hàbit i la dinàmica de preguntar les coses en la llengua meta. I això és bo”* (T1). By contrast, T2 upheld that upper-level students do not have a positive perception of CS and TL in the classroom: *“A partir de B2 ells mateixos ja et demanen que les explicacions siguin en la llengua meta (...) Però clar, ja tenen domini i ho poden fer. És una manera que ells practiquin també. A vegades es pot escapar alguna traducció, no vull dir que no. Però en principi no cal utilitzar la L1. Em fa sentir culpable”* (T2). This reflection brings forth the issue of guilt among FL teachers using TL and CL, which is shared also by T1, who admits to having received complaints from students about using the L1 in the past which triggered a feeling of unease. T2 adds that TL and CL are easy options that may not always be beneficial: *“no és que trobi que no està bé, però em sembla una estratègia com fàcil, per dir-ho així, per a ells, no? Que en certs punts potser va bé, sí. Perquè si estan molt ofuscats o cansats, vale, doncs és un recurs que està bé tenir. És una opció. Però potser no seria el primer recurs que utilitzaria. N’utilitzaria altres abans d’aquest”*.

Finally, another factor that T1, T2 and T3 find decisive when choosing to apply CS and TL strategies is the type of students and their requirements. Some profiles are more prone to it than others so the decision should always be left to the teacher’s discretion. *“Depèn també del grup que tinguis. Per exemple jo a A1 aquest any tinc alguns estrangers que quasi no parlen ni català ni castellà”* (T3).

As a general conclusion, if we compare the results of the focus group discussion and the classroom observations, it may be noted that teachers’ beliefs do not generally match their practices, a phenomenon that will be more thoroughly discussed in the following section of this dissertation.

5. DISCUSSION

In response to the three research questions, the findings of this case study have provided three prominent answers: teachers were aware of the existence of code-switching and translanguaging as both linguistic phenomena and teaching strategies despite not being able to name them, define them or elucidate them as theoretical notions; they were as well familiar with their use in foreign language classrooms as pedagogical tools for a diverse range of situations; but they harboured a certain sense of unease toward those practices despite not declaring themselves overtly against them, even admitting that they can be sometimes useful or necessary.

A resonance to these outcomes can be found in several of the theories proposed by the authors discussed at the beginning of this dissertation. Next is a comparative analysis of the results of this study, organised

into three blocks corresponding to the three research questions, as done in the previous section to present the results.

Teachers' knowledge of code-switching and translanguaging

Despite teachers did not have a thorough knowledge of CS and TL, their intuitions proved to be in line with the theories of many authors who suggest a scaffolding role of CS, and particularly of TL, in the acquisition of a foreign language, such as Kerr (2019), Nagy (2018), Beres (2015), Hall and Cook (2013) or even García (2011).

One of the teachers admitted to having carried out some research on the matter which led to names such as Paul Seligson, a fellow professional who has emerged as a strong advocate for the use of the L1 in foreign language classrooms in recent years.

Another teacher suggested the idea that emergent bilinguals who are not fluent enough in the new language they are learning, cannot yet fully integrate the latter into their linguistic repertoire, which to an extent supports the thesis defended by García and Wei (2014) and backed up by Nagy (2018), that there are different types of translanguaging depending on the levels of language proficiency, and learners at the early stages of their learning process usually tend to a one-way, dependent form of translanguaging, still experiencing significant attachment to their L1.

The results of the study are scarce regarding the first research question, leaving little room for comparison with further authors, which is due in part to the restrictive nature of the research (a case study with three teachers).

Extent and frequency of use of CS and TL as teaching strategies in foreign language classrooms

When gauging the extent of use of CS and TL as FL teaching strategies, the results obtained in the study, both from the teachers' comments in the focus group discussion and from the classroom observations, led to establishing eight different categories of situations where teachers may use L1 in the classroom: explaining vocabulary and grammar, classroom management, creating bonds with students, comparing structures between languages, clarifying doubts and difficult ideas, giving task instructions, assessing groupwork and correcting tasks. The majority of those broadly coincide with the goal-oriented functions established by Varshney (2008, as cited in Hall and Cook, 2013), with only three exceptions: clarifying doubts, comparing structures and creating bonds.

The latter is highlighted by a few other authors though, such as Auerbach (1993), Edstrom (2006), Kim and Elder (2008) or Brooks-Lewis (2009), as all cited in Hall and Cook (2013), who describe it as a social

function of CS and TL aimed at generating a favourable learning environment. And the former two are supported by Cummins (2007), who mentions developing difficult ideas to reinforce understanding, as well as illustrating differences between L1 and FL.

Building rapport with the students, giving difficult instructions and teaching grammar and vocabulary are also mentioned by Macaro (2005), who also includes controlling behaviour, which was not observed by the teachers in this study probably due to the fact that they teach adult learners, and translating as a time-effective tool to check understanding quickly, which was indeed expressed during the focus group, although as part of the process of teaching vocabulary.

Regarding the frequency of use of CS and TL in FL classrooms, research findings show that the percentages may match, or even surpass those provided by Kerr (2019), who places the proportion between 20% and 40% of the total classroom. This appreciation has some limitations, however, as a specific scale based on a range of numeric values from 1 to 4 was used to determine frequency. Bearing in mind that the measurements applied to teaching sequences generally lasting 15-30 minutes, with mixed ratios of teacher talking time and student talking time, the average of 2.5 reached in this study, equivalent to 5-10 examples per sequence, may match the estimations made by Kerr, or even go up to as far as 50%, although the exact proportion is difficult to establish.

Teachers' perceptions of CS and TL as foreign language teaching strategies

Concerning teachers' perceptions on the subject, this case study supports most of Macaro's postulates from his several studies. The first one is Macaro's claim that the least common of the three positions described in his 2009 study is the optimal position. None of the three teachers who participated in this case study can be clearly included in the latter. T1 may seem a likely candidate to adopt the optimal position in the short to mid-term. However, the position that best defines both T1, T2 and T3 is the maximal position. Despite expressing some criticism towards the use of the L1 in the classroom, which would bring them closer to the virtual position, none of them discarded CL and TL practices completely, albeit admitting to feeling sometimes guilty and uncomfortable about using the L1 in class, because it reduces exposure to the FL. An argument that would rather fit into Macaro's virtual position.

This sense of guilt is also supported by Macaro (1997, 2009), as well as other authors such as Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) or Littlewood and Yu (2011), as all cited in Hall and Cook (2013), who blame it on the language-teaching policies which tend to put pressure on teachers of all foreign languages, a reason which could not be thoroughly investigated in this case study, due to its limitations.

Teachers in the study also found consensus in the argument that levels of proficiency of students play a key role in the adequacy of use of code-switching and translanguaging strategies in the foreign language classroom. Their perception was that it makes more sense to use the L1 with beginners than it makes to use it with advanced learners, who are a lot less dependent on their native language. This backs up another of Macaro's theses (2005), which upholds that bilingual teachers are more prone to using L1 at lower levels, when learners are not yet fluent enough in the FL and cannot use it to make meaning. Therefore, teachers stand for the use of TL and CS to help comprehension, rather than acquisition.

This study also sheds light on the fact that teachers' beliefs are not always reflected in their actual teaching practices, contrary to Kerr's judgment (2019), and more in tune with those of Basturkmen (2012) and Doiz and Lasagabaster (2016). Further to comparing the results of the focus group discussion with those of the classroom observation, it became manifest that teachers generally admit to using the L1 less than they actually do, which proves that there is a conflict between their ideals and what they end up doing in their classroom realities (Copland and Neokleous, 2011, as cited in Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2016).

Finally, the fact that all three teachers may fit into the same line of thought, being 2 non-natives and 1 native, proves that their nationality is not a defining variable, as posited once more by Macaro (2005). By contrast, belonging to the same institution, and therefore following the same policies, may indeed be a key factor, as suggested by Kerr (2019) or Kubanyiova (2014, as cited in Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2016).

6. CONCLUSIONS

Despite its limitations in size and scope, this case study demonstrates that even if there is growing recognition of code-switching and translanguaging as legitimate teaching strategies to scaffold the acquisition of a foreign language, they are both negatively affected by a long tradition of separation between L1 and FL that still exerts a significant influence on 21st-century teachers in pedagogical terms.

Most professionals do not rule out the possibility of combining the foreign language they are teaching with the group's mother tongue completely, some even stress the necessity of using the L1 to check understanding, particularly with learners in lower levels. Even so, it is a widespread belief that this would not be an ideal or desirable situation, as overusing the L1 may work against the interest of all stakeholders in the learning process, particularly that of students, who would be deprived of a necessary exposure to the new language they are beginning to acquire.

Teachers view code-switching and translanguaging as valid options to teach a foreign language, and they generally admit to using them occasionally (albeit often for non-language related purposes), although

they do not consider them a primary resource, as may be others such as reformulating words or providing term definitions in the FL.

Apart from that, teachers also tend to express feelings of guilt or acquiescence when using the L1. And they turn out to be not very familiar with research on the matter, which has been analysing the generally positive effects of code-switching and translanguaging as foreign language teaching strategies and studying their application in the classrooms for decades.

However, when we turn to actual practices in foreign language classrooms, observation results come as a surprise since they show that there is a greater presence of the L1 in foreign language classrooms than teachers would apparently admit to. Thus, code-switching and translanguaging are currently more widespread than it would initially seem, in all situations, languages and levels of proficiency.

It is particularly surprising to find out that teachers are eminently prone to using the L1 for teaching vocabulary and grammar, that is a clearly language-related activity with a medium-oriented goal, which contrasts with their analysis, according to which the L1 would be more suitable for issues related to classroom management or for bonding purposes with students, that is to say, two of the less strictly language-related situations, with a rather framework-oriented goal, that may arise within a foreign language lesson.

This leads to the conclusion that maybe more research needs to be carried out to further delve into the causes of this mismatch between teachers' practices and beliefs. There may be myriad reasons for that, which unfortunately could not be pinpointed by this small, restricted case study.

The results of this research may serve as a starting point for a more ambitious project aimed at identifying both teachers' and adult learners' perceptions of the use of code-switching and translanguaging as teaching strategies, to further determine whether the L1 poses more of a benefit or a disadvantage, a scaffolding device or a burden in the process of acquisition of a foreign language. And to identify the balance between a necessary exposure to the FL and a reasonable use of the L1 in an increasingly multilingual world where languages are in constant coexistence.

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8. APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: FOCUS GROUP SEMI-STRUCTURED GUIDE

WARM-UP

- Introducing Amigos Ingleses website + YouTube channel:

<https://www.amigosingleses.com/>

https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCOJHr_SvK4HsYnYLXCn4ifQ

- Did you know Isabel and Phillip?
- Do you think it's wise to actively use the L1 in the FL class?
- Do you think you usually do it?
- Do you know anyone else who, like Amigos Ingleses, does it?

PART 1. Knowledge of TL and CS

- Did you know that mixing L1 and FL is both a kind of practice that has been thoroughly researched and can be used as a teaching strategy in class?
- What do you know about code-switching? Have you read about it?
- And about translanguaging?
- Q&A: Facilitator summarises definitions of CS and TL
- Now that we know what CS and TL are, do you think you've ever used them in class (consciously or not)?

PART 2. Use of TL and CS

- How often do you use the L1 in class?
- In what types of situations do you think you use the L1?
 - In general
 - For specific purposes: explaining vocabulary and grammar, giving instructions, classroom management, etc.?

PART 3. Perceptions of TL and CS

- Do you think it makes sense to use L1 in a foreign language class?
- Does it add up to your students' learning experience or is it rather a disadvantage?
- Is it necessary? Is it legitimate? Negative or positive? A benefit or a risk?
- How do your students react to your use of L1 in class? Do you think they prefer you to use it or not? Do they prefer to use the FL only? In any level?
- Is it useful to you as a teacher?
- Have you ever felt guilty for using L1 in class?
- Do code-switching and translanguaging make sense as foreign language teaching strategies at all?

APPENDIX 2: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GRID

FREQUENCY AND EXAMPLES OF USE OF TRANSLANGUAGING/CODE-SWITCHING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM											
TYPE OF SITUATION	L1*				FL*				EXAMPLES OF USE		
Giving Task Instructions	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
Explaining Vocabulary and Grammar	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
Comparing Structures between Languages	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
Clarifying Doubts and Developing Difficult Ideas	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
Assessing Group/Pairwork	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
Correcting Tasks	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
Classroom Management	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
Creating Bonds with Students	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4			
FURTHER FIELD NOTES:											

(Source: Adapted from Fuertes, 2011)

Scale of assessment: 1: Hardly ever (<5 examples per sequence); 2. Sometimes (5-10 examples per sequence) 3. Often (11-15 examples per sequence); 4. Very often (>15 examples per sequence).