

Faculté de philosophie, arts et lettres

Perspectives on Teacher Talk in the English Language Classroom

**A comparative analysis between Flemish and
Walloon secondary schools**

Auteure : Sophie De Gelan

Promotrice : Prof. Dr. Fanny Meunier

Lectrice : Dr. Pauline Degrave

Année académique 2021-2022

Master en langues et lettres modernes, orientation germaniques, à finalité
didactique

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to thank Professor Doctor Fanny Meunier for accepting my project and the methodology I imagined. I would like to thank her for her rich feedback and insight on my initial versions. Her pieces of advice were extremely helpful for the achievement of this master dissertation.

Secondly, I would like to thank the teachers who accepted to welcome me warmly. Without them, this master's dissertation would not have been possible, and I realize that it is not always easy to be observed while teaching.

Thirdly, I would like to express my thanks to my stepfamily which opened their doors and offered me accommodation when I was carrying out my classroom observations in Flanders. Their caring welcome and kindness permitted me not to commute between the two communities when collecting the data, which helped enormously.

Finally, I would like to warmly thank my dearest friend, Vanina Bar, as well as my companion, Nicolas Noyon, for their useful feedbacks, comments, and pieces of advice, but also for their infinite commitment. They both have worked tremendously to help me with the thinking and writing process of this master's dissertation. Last but not least, I would like to thank my whole family along with my "host-Idaho-family" for their support, help and encouragement during my studies.

Abstract

The use of the pupils' mother tongue (MT) in the language classroom has been a topic of debate for many years. Based on the observations of English teachers in Flanders and Wallonia, this master's dissertation aims to render a qualitative report of the situations in which the pupils' native language was used by their instructors. This study compares the teachers from both communities who teach English in 4th and 6th grades of secondary school. The observations have shown that the Flemish teachers used the target language (TL) almost exclusively, while the Walloon instructors relied much more on their pupils' assumed common native language (L1), i.e. French. Furthermore, it appeared that the type of language used by the teachers was proper to the instructor and not so much related to the pupils' level. As such, the teachers seemed to have their habits and did not appear to adapt the language to their pupils' level. After the observations, the teachers have all been interviewed in order to collect their opinion on the use of the pupils' L1. One finding was that they all mentioned that the use of the target language was crucial for the learning process of a foreign language, but not all teachers appeared to apply what they recommend – or, to put it differently, 'to walk the talk'.

Table of contents

List of abbreviations	viii
List of tables	ix
List of figures	x
1. Introduction	1
2. State of the art	3
2.1. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)	3
2.1.1. Definition of the concept	3
2.1.2. Non-instructed/naturalistic versus instructed language acquisition	4
2.1.3. Factors influencing SLA	4
a. Age	4
b. Motivation and attitude	5
c. Aptitude	6
2.1.4. Core elements of SLA	6
a. Input	6
b. Intake	8
c. Output	9
d. Interaction	10
2.2. Teacher Talk (TT)	12
2.2.1. Definition of the concept	12
2.2.2. Key characteristics of Teacher Talk	13
2.2.3. Categories of Teacher Talk	15
2.2.4. Teacher Talking Time (TTT)	17
2.3. L1 in the English classroom	18
2.3.1. The concept	19
2.3.2. A shift in perspective	19
2.3.3. Situations of L1 in the FL classroom	22
2.3.4. Teachers' perspective	24
2.3.5. Pupils' perspective	25
2.3.6. Plurilingualism in the classroom	27
2.4. English in Belgium	30
2.5. Foreign language education in Belgium	32
2.5.1. FW-B's education system	33
2.5.2. Flanders' education system	34

3. Research questions and hypotheses	36
3.1. Research questions	36
3.2. Hypotheses	37
4. Methodology	39
4.1. Contacting and finding the schools	39
4.2. Creation of the observation grid	41
4.3. Observations	42
4.4. Interviews of the teachers observed	43
4.5. Data analysis	44
5. Results and discussion	46
5.1. General observations	46
5.2. Greeting pupils: welcoming and saying goodbye	48
5.3. Giving instructions	50
5.4. Asking questions	52
5.5. Providing corrective feedback	54
5.6. Explaining grammar	55
5.7. Explaining meaning	59
5.8. Making comments	62
5.8.1. General observations	62
5.8.2. Teachers' personal opinions	63
5.8.3. Disciplinary comments	64
5.8.4. Comments on the time	65
5.8.5. Comments on a task	66
5.8.6. Comments based on the teachers' observations	67
5.8.7. Organizational comments	69
5.9. Congratulating	70
5.10. Checking comprehension	72
5.11. Repeating pupils' ideas	75
5.12. Answering pupils' questions	75
5.13. Dealing with attendance	79
5.14. Added criterion: humor	80

6. Conclusion	82
7. Insights for professional development	86
8. Bibliography	88
9. Appendix	101
9.1. Questions for the Walloon teachers' interview	101
9.2. Translation of the questions for the Walloon teachers' interview	101
9.3. Questions for the Flemish teachers' interview	101
9.4. Translation of the questions for the Flemish teachers' interview	101
9.5. Reproduction of Table 6 - Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed	102

List of abbreviations

ARJD	Athenée Royal Jules Destrée (Marcinelle)
ASO	Algemeen Secundair Onderwijs
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CI	Comprehensible Input
CO	Comprehensible Output
CPH	Critical Period Hypothesis
CSC	Collège du Sacré-Coeur (Charleroi)
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
FW-B	Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles (Wallonia-Brussels Federation)
GO!	Gemeenschapsonderwijs (Community education in Flanders)
GSE	General Secondary Education
IL	Interlanguage
IND	Institut Notre-Dame (Loverval)
ISLA	Instructed Second Language Acquisition
L1	First/Native Language
L2	Second Language
LM1	Langue Moderne 1 (First Foreign Language)
LM2	Langue Moderne 2 (Second Foreign Language)
LM3	Langue Moderne 3 (Third Foreign Language)
MT	Mother Tongue
PTL	Pedagogical Translanguaging
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SJC	Sint-Jozefscollege (Aalst)
SPC	Sint-Pieterscollege (Leuven)
STT	Student Talking Time
TL	Target Language
TSO	Technisch Secundair Onderwijs (Technical Secondary Education)
TT	Teacher Talk
TTT	Teacher Talking Time

List of tables

<i>Table 1. The different categories of teacher talk (adapted from Flanders, 1970: 5)..</i>	<i>16</i>
<i>Table 2. “Functions of teachers’ L1 use (based on Polio and Duff, 1994)”, literally taken from Ellis (2011: 130).....</i>	<i>23</i>
<i>Table 3. Characteristics of the teachers observed classified by community</i>	<i>40</i>
<i>Table 4. Observation grid: characteristics of the classroom and of the situations observed</i>	<i>41</i>
<i>Table 5. Number of hours observed according to the school and grades</i>	<i>42</i>
<i>Table 6. Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed</i>	<i>44</i>
<i>Table 7. Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed</i>	<i>47</i>
<i>Table 8. Language(s) used by the teachers when greeting the pupils</i>	<i>49</i>
<i>Table 9. Language(s) used by the teachers when giving instructions</i>	<i>50</i>
<i>Table 10. Language(s) used by the teachers when asking questions.....</i>	<i>53</i>
<i>Table 11. Language(s) used by the teachers when providing corrective feedback...</i>	<i>54</i>
<i>Table 12. Language(s) used by the teachers when explaining grammar</i>	<i>56</i>
<i>Table 13. Language(s) used by the teachers when explaining meaning.....</i>	<i>59</i>
<i>Table 14. Language(s) used by the teachers when making a comment</i>	<i>62</i>
<i>Table 15. Language(s) used by the teachers when congratulating</i>	<i>71</i>
<i>Table 16. Language(s) used by the teachers when checking comprehension.....</i>	<i>72</i>
<i>Table 17. Language(s) used by the teachers when repeating pupils’ ideas.....</i>	<i>75</i>
<i>Table 18. Language(s) used by the teachers when answering pupils’ questions.....</i>	<i>76</i>
<i>Table 19. Language(s) used by the teachers when dealing with attendance.....</i>	<i>79</i>
<i>Table 20. Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed – Reproduction of Table 6.....</i>	<i>102</i>

List of figures

<i>Figure 1. Percentage of French and Dutch speaking Belgians who know English well or very well according to their age, borrowed from Van Parys & Wauters (2006: 3).</i>	31
<i>Figure 2. Knowledge of English per province, borrowed and slightly adapted from Van Parys & Wauters (2006: 3)</i>	32

1. Introduction

"Language is not a genetic gift, it is a social gift. Learning a new language is becoming a member of the club – the community of speakers of that language."

Frank Smith

Acquiring a second language is surely no easy task. Many factors, such as motivation, age, attitude, must be taken into account when learning a foreign language. Nevertheless, these elements are not the only ones that should be considered. One of the key aspects of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is *input*. Input can be defined as the "language that a learner is exposed to" (Gass, 2010: 195). In order for a learner to produce language (i.e. meaningful output), s/he needs to receive input. Benati (2020: 27), for instance, considers input as "a necessary and vital factor for second language acquisition as it provides the primary linguistic data for the creation of an implicit unconscious linguistic system."

Krashen (1982), a well-known scholar in the field of SLA, identifies three cases in which input can be found: i.e. "foreigner talk, teacher talk, and interlanguage talk." (Duyck, 2013: 33). Of the three 'talks' identified by Krashen (1982), one is of particular interest for this master's dissertation, as this study focuses on Teacher Talk (TT). Furthermore, to have a "harmonious and effective classroom atmosphere for teacher-student interaction", Jing & Jing (2018: 320) argue that TT should be of "high quality" and comprehensible. Next to comprehensibility and effectiveness, it is worth taking into consideration that TT is a "source of motivation" (Dörnyei, 2001 in Nicaise 2015: 79). Additionally, pupils should "relate to" the teacher's utterances and be motivated by it. However, this concept implies that the language teacher uses the target language, i.e. the foreign language learned by the pupils. One could thus wonder what the implications are when teachers decide to use the pupils' assumed Mother Tongue (MT).

The use of the pupils' first language (L1) by the teacher in the language classroom has been a growing source of discussion. While some researchers (e.g. Richardson and Thornbury, 2016: 8) prone the exclusive use of the target language in class, others (e.g. Auerbach, 1993; Benson, 2004) advocate that the use of the pupils' L1 can be beneficial in the learning process. Similarly, Schweers (1999: 6) argues that "there

appears to be an increasing conviction that the first language (L1) has a necessary and facilitating role in the second and foreign language (L2) classroom.”. As the use of the pupils’ L1 permits to create a reassuring working atmosphere in the classroom, it also helps to save time. Nevertheless, one could wonder to what extent (or in which proportion) the use of the pupils’ mother tongue is beneficial to the process of foreign language learning.

Additionally, it appears that the language teachers typically use their pupils’ L1 in certain circumstances. As such, according to Byram & Hu’s study (2017: 483), language teachers tend to rely on their pupils’ mother tongue when dealing with grammar, disciplinary issues, and pupils’ personal matters. Nevertheless, it appears that other situations, such as when asking or giving the meaning of a word (Schweers, 1999: 7), may prompt the use of pupils’ L1.

The present study is a qualitative research aiming to observe the secondary school English teachers’ use of their pupils’ native language, with the help of an observation grid based on previous observation schemes. The grid lays out the various situations in which teachers usually speak. During the observations, notes were taken of the cases in which the teachers used either French or Dutch in their English classroom. After the analysis of the data, the teachers have been interviewed in order to obtain their opinion and impressions on the presence of the pupils’ mother tongue (MT) in class. These interviews permitted to nuance and confront what had been observed and what is presented in the result section.

This master’s dissertation is divided into various sections. First, the state of the art (Section 2) presents the key theoretical components of the acquisition of a second/foreign language (SLA), Teacher Talk (TT) and use of the pupils’ native language (L1) in the classroom. Furthermore, given the intricate linguistic situation of our country, the last two subsections of this first chapter deal with *English in Belgium* (Subsection 2.4) and the *Foreign language education system* of the country (Subsection 2.5). Second, the two research questions and the hypotheses that drive this study (Section 3) are presented prior to the methodology (Section 4). Third, the results and the discussion (Section 5) are grouped in the last section of this research, where the findings are detailed according to the situations observed in the English classrooms. Finally, the conclusion (Section 6) is followed by a personal section, titled *Insights for professional development* (Section 7), in which I discuss what this master’s dissertation has taught me for my future career.

2. State of the art

2.1. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

In this first section of the state of the art, the concept of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is defined and illustrated. Further, the distinction between non-instructed/naturalistic and instructed language acquisition is made. The key factors influencing the acquisition of a second language are tackled - these factors being the age of the learners, their motivation and attitude as well as their aptitude. The last subsection deals with four core elements of SLA, namely input, intake, output, and interaction.

2.1.1. Definition of the concept

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) represents a field of research that has been investigated extensively since the 1960s (Byram, 2004: 179). SLA can be defined as “the way in which people learn a foreign language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom” (Ellis, 1997: 3). Gass & Selinker (2008: 7) explain that the term ‘second language’ (L2) stands for “a non-native language”. As a matter of fact, the term SLA is also used when dealing with the learning of a third or even fourth language. Nevertheless, Ellis (2008) draws attention to the fact that one should be vigilant when using the term “second” since it might portray an offensive character. Accordingly, the author declares that “the term additional language may be both more appropriate and more acceptable” (Ellis, 2008: 5).

Ellis (1997: 4) identifies two main goals in SLA research: the *description* of SLA as well as the *explanation* of the concept. The former deals with “collecting samples of learner language at various points and [...] describing its development” (Rüddeger, 2017: 13), while the latter identifies the aspects that can influence the acquisition of the second language, such as age, motivation, and aptitude, etc. Van Patten & Williams (2015: 9) summarize various theories and state (among other elements) that “exposure to input is necessary for SLA”, and that “a good deal of SLA happens incidentally”. That is, “the learner’s *primary* focus of attention is on the message contained in the input, and linguistic features are “picked up” in the process” (ibid.).

2.1.2. Non-instructed/naturalistic versus instructed language acquisition

Ellis (2008: 6) defines naturalistic (or non-instructed) language acquisition as a phenomenon that “takes place in naturally occurring situations”. Appel & Vermeer (1994) argue that the input is limited and varies depending on the linguistic environment of the speaker. Klein (1986, in Ellis, 2008: 6) adds up that “learners of naturalistic second language acquisition concentrate on communication” (Duyck, 2013: 19).

As for instructed language acquisition, Ellis (2008: 6) explains that it is mastered “through study with the help or ‘guidance’ from reference books or classroom instruction.”. While this term is often referred to as “L2 learning” (Appel & Vermeer, 1994: 12), it is much used reciprocally with “SLA”. Klein (1986, in Ellis, 2008: 6) states that the learner “typically focuses on some aspect of the language system”, but not on all of them.

2.1.3. Factors influencing SLA

This following section lays out some factors that can influence the acquisition of a second language. This outline does not claim exhaustivity but lists the most frequently cited elements (i.e. age, motivation, attitude and aptitude) analyzed in previous studies.

a. Age

It is widely acknowledged that the earlier someone starts learning a second language (L2), the better. This can be accounted for by the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) which suggests “that children are better language learners than adults [...]” (Gass & Selinker, 2008: 405). As Birdsong (1999, in Gass & Selincker, 2008: 405) puts it “there is a limited developmental period during which it is possible to acquire a language be it L1 or L2, to normal, nativelike levels. Once this window of opportunity is passed, however, the ability to learn languages declines.”. Ellis (2008) concurs with Birdsong (1999) and further argues that puberty creates a frontier for pronunciation by stating that “[l]earners who commence learning an L2 after the onset of puberty (and possibly earlier) are unlikely to acquire a native-speaker accent [...]” (Ellis, 2008: 312).

However, it is worth mentioning that the Critical Period Hypothesis has been widely criticized and debated (Penfield & Roberts, 1959; Lenneberg, 1967 in Meunier & Paquot, 2022). Although there is an “agreement that there are general age factors”, (Meunier & Paquot, 2022), there happens to be a “disagreement on the existence of cut-off points and on the effect of confounding variables, [i.e.] extra variables that you didn’t account for” (ibid.). Moreover, the CPH does by no way prevent any learner to reach a particular level in the language learned, even if it is a person who has passed the Critical Period, as is for instance reported in the literature on exceptional learner (my personal course notes, taken from Meunier & Paquot, 2022).

b. Motivation and attitude

Motivation and attitude are two key concepts for the acquisition of a second language which have largely been discussed in SLA literature. As stated by De Bot et al. (2005: 72), “a high motivation and a positive attitude towards a second language and its community help second-language learning.” According to Gass & Selinker (2008), motivation can quicken and boost the process of SLA. However, they admit that it is no easy task to determine the outcome of motivation in real life. Rüddeger (2017: 20) further comments on the fact that motivation is a dynamic process and that it can vary from time to time. A wide range of situations is likely to trigger motivation in SLA: a forward-looking relationship between learner and instructor, a feeling of confidence, and good relationships with classmates (Philip, 2017: 6). Philip (ibid.) adds that “both teacher scaffolding and peer assistance can promote motivation.”

Attitude towards a foreign/second language may also influence the way learners acquire the language. However, Lightbown & Spada (2006: 63) reason by stating that “it is difficult to know whether positive attitudes produce successful learning or successful learning engenders positive attitudes, or whether both are affected by other factors.” The attitude of learners towards the second language (L2) correlates with the learner’s “*attitude towards the social group speaking this language (variety)*” and “[...] *towards the target language community*” (Appel & Vermeer, 1994: 70, translated by Duyck, 2013: 35). In other words, the attitude of the learner towards the community of the language s/he is studying influences the esteem of the second language.

c. Aptitude

It appears that some learners have more difficulties than others when it comes to learning languages. Consequently, variation in the ability to learn foreign languages occurs. This reality can be defined as *foreign/second language aptitude*, *language talent* or *linguistic giftedness* (Dörnyei, 2006: 46). Two features dealing with aptitude are commonly agreed on. Elaborating on Jorgenson's (2000) article, Nardo & Reiterer (2009: 213) consider aptitude as an *exceptional capability* and as *potential*. One of the first models of FL aptitude, established by Carroll (1981: 105), counts four basic abilities, namely (1) *phonetic coding ability*, which is "the ability to hear and discriminate between different sounds, and imitate them accurately" (Philip, 2017: 5), (2) *grammatical sensitivity*, which corresponds to "the ability to recognize the grammatical functions of words (or other linguistic entities) in sentence structures" (Carroll, 1981: 105), (3) *rote learning ability* being the "ability to learn associations between sounds and meaning rapidly and efficiently, and to retain these associations" (ibid.), and (4) *inductive language learning ability* which is defined as "the ability to infer or induce the rules governing a set of language materials, given samples of language materials that permit such inferences" (ibid.). Ellis (2008) points out, however, that Carroll's model does not include "communicative and contextual aspects" (Olivares, 2012: 4).

In short, "language aptitude seems to be a special, inherent talent that not all individuals possess. It cannot be learned, however, it may be trained within limits" (Rüddeger, 2017: 28). There happens to be a consensus among scholars that "language aptitude is not about the ability to learn a foreign language but rather indicates the rate of progress of the learner under optimal learning conditions" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015: 38, in Rüddeger, 2017: 28).

2.1.4. Core elements of SLA

a. Input

Gass defines input as the "language that a learner is exposed to" (Gass, 2010: 195). In the 1980s, Krashen (1982; 1985) stressed the importance of Comprehensible Input (CI) by advocating that it is one of the key factors for language acquisition. Benati (2020: 27) defines input as "a necessary and vital factor for second language

acquisition as it provides the primary linguistic data for the creation of an implicit unconscious linguistic system.”

Krashen’s theory (1985) of Comprehensible Input hypothesis suggests that “learners acquire an L2 only when they are presented with meaningful and contextualized language input at the $i+1$ level where i refers to the current level of competence and 1 refers to the language a little beyond the i level [...]” (Saengboon, 2004: 14). In order to improve the acquisition, Krashen (1985) claims, to quote Saengboon (2014: 14) that the input should be “comprehensible, relevant, interesting, sufficient, and presented in a situation that encourages a low filter setting”, the latter suggesting that it should motivate the learners. Philip (2017: 13) adds that “when students have to cope with language that is a little beyond their comprehension, this provides the opportunity to move further along in learning”. Krashen (1982) states that L2 input is found in “three different types: foreigner talk, teacher talk, and interlanguage talk” (Duyck, 2013: 33). Teacher talk will be discussed in Subsection 2.2.. Saengboon (2004: 15) further posits that the instructor should contribute to his/her pupils’ learning process by offering “as much as comprehensible input as possible through visual aids and a wider range of lexical items rather than through the study of syntactic structures”.

In terms of crucial categories, Philip (2017: 17) outlines four of them in language learning courses: *meaning-focused input*, *meaning-focused output*, *language-focused learning*, and *fluency development*¹. Input does not necessarily only happen in the classroom but can also occur outside of the school environment. Therefore, learners can be exposed to the target language in their everyday life, for instance when surfing on the internet, watching series, “listening to songs or spending time on extensive reading [...]” (Philip, 2017: 17).

Philip (2017: 9) reports that input on its own is not enough to develop the ability to communicate. The author further explains that pupils need to be aware of what they hear/read to be able to take the expressions or words in and actively use them when communicating (ibid.). Ellis (2015) and Krashen (1985), among other scholars, point out that “it is in using language, through observation and trial and error, that learners start to really think about how the target language system ‘works’.” (Philip, 2017: 9). By producing language, the learners make connections between form and meaning (Swain, 1995). Gass (2010) accurately distinguishes *input* from *intake*. While the

¹ Note that this section will only deal with meaning-focus input

former is described as “the language that is available” (Gass, 2010: 9), the latter can be defined as what is “internalized [...] by the learner” (Gass, 2010: 9). In addition, it is not because a learner receives CI that s/he will automatically take the input in (Meunier, 2020).

b. Intake

Previous research has shown that *intake* has been defined in many ways by various scholars (Chi, 2016: 76). Some researchers such as Corder (1967) and Van Patten (2002) consider *intake* as a product, while others (a.o. Chaudron, 1985) identify this concept as a process (Chi, 2016: 77). The former sees *intake* as a “selected part of input that is *processed*” (ibid.), while Chaudron (1985: 2) defines *intake* as a term that is referring “not to a single event or product, but to a complex phenomenon of information processing that involves several stages”. Chaudron (1985) further describes *intake* as “the mediating process between the target language available to learners as input and the learners’ internalized set of L2 rules and strategies for second language development” (Chaudron, 1985: 1). Leow (1993), who also considers *intake* as a process, identifies *intake* as “an intermediate process between exposure to input and actual language acquisition” (Leow, 1993: 334). A few years subsequently, Alcon (1998) advocates an association of both perspectives (Chi, 2016: 77), and Alcon (1998) argues that “intake is a product of a process” (Chi, 2016: 77). More generally speaking, Sharwood Smith (1994: 8) reports *intake* as “that part of input which has actually been processed by the learner”.

There seems to be different factors that could influence the input-intake processing (Chi, 2016: 80-81). Krashen’s input hypothesis is the first one pointed by Chi (2016), which is developed in the subsection above (i.e., *a. Input*). Chi (2016: 81), among others, further argues that the accuracy of input is a key element in the concept of intake. Previous studies showed that “the inaccuracies in input negatively affect language acquisition” (Chi, 2016: 81), however some mistakes may be conducive in the learning process (Meunier, 2020). The third influencing factor that Chi (2016) identifies is the noticing hypothesis. This phenomenon involves the attention of the learner that is taken to a specific element of the language (Chi, 2016: 82). Furthermore, Schmidt (1990: 129) realizes that “noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake.”. Moreover, Chi (2016: 82) concludes her section by stating

that “educators and/or input providers need to be mindful of learners’ background knowledge and current level of language proficiency to ensure that learners are able to notice input for intake and further processes in SLA”. To sum up, for input to become intake, the learner must be provided by meaningful accurate input and his attention needs to be (explicitly) driven to it.

c. Output

Output can be generally defined as “the language that learners produce during meaning-focused interaction” (Loewen & Sato, 2018: 291), or as “what a language learner spontaneously produces without an experimental prompt or without repeating the utterance of another individual” (Gass, 2010: 208). Gass (2010) further argues that output comes from the knowledge acquired thanks to the input. Swain (1993, 1995) adds that “output has a hypothesis-testing function” (Izumi et al., 1999: 422). This Comprehensible Output Hypothesis was initially put forward by Swain. She states that when learners speak, they analyze the interlocutor’s reactions to study if s/he understands what is said (ibid.). Depending on the reaction, the learner who is expressing himself/herself adjusts his/her utterance (ibid.). In other words, learners “test comprehensibility and linguistic well-formedness of their interlanguage (IL) against feedback from their interlocutors” (Izumi et al., 1999: 423). As far as L2 acquisition is concerned, Swain (1993, 1995) explains that output is, in some situations, one of the factors that leads to acquire an L2. She illustrates her statement by saying that *internal/external feedback* draws the learner’s attention to the mistakes that were made. Consequently, based on Swain & Lapkin (1995), Izumi et al. (1999: 424) state that

[t]he recognition of problems is believed to prompt learners to generate alternatives by searching their knowledge, assessing alternatives, applying existing knowledge to known contexts or new contexts, and then using the resulting knowledge. Alternatively, recognition of problems through output may prompt learners to seek out relevant input with more focused attention.

In short, thanks to the attention driven to some problematic aspects of the utterances, learners modify their statements and learn from their mistakes.

There exists a considerable body of literature on the Comprehensible Output hypothesis (e.g. Swain, 1985; Krashen, 1998; Izumi et al., 1999; Shehadeh, 2002; Saengboon, 2004; Gass, 2010). Comprehensible Output, also abbreviated to CO, deals with the need for a learner to be “pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately” (Swain, 1985: 249). Krashen (1998) articulates the CO hypothesis as the language we acquire “when we attempt to transmit a message but fail and have to try again” (Krashen, 1998: 175). However, research (e.g. Pica, 1988; Krashen, 1994; Ellis et al., 1994; Krashen, 1998) has pointed out the lack of CO, which, according to Krashen (1994, 1998), among others, “is too infrequent to amount to a significant source of language competence” (Shehadeh, 2002: 621). Krashen (1998) concludes his research by identifying three main difficulties in the CO hypothesis. He presents the first one as being “too scarce to make a real contribution to linguistic competence” (Krashen, 1998: 180). The second difficulty is the ability to reach “high levels of linguistic competence without output” (ibid.). Finally, the last one suggests that “there is no evidence that CO leads to language acquisition” (ibid.).

As for input, output in the classroom context should be meaningful and accurate (Saengboon, 2004). Swain (1985) adds that learners of a foreign language should have “ample opportunity to produce their L2 (or output) if they are to make satisfactory progress [...]” (Saengboon, 2004: 15). Based on De Keyser (2001; 2017) and Leyster & Sato (2013), Loewen & Sato (2018: 292) highlight that “as output necessarily involves language use, it facilitates production practice and, thus, the development of fluency and automaticity”.

d. Interaction

Both Germain (1993) and Cohen (1994) argue that in order to acquire a second language apace, interaction is also crucial. *Interaction* is considered here as the communication between two individuals, and more precisely, between two learners or a learner and a provider. Moreover, Philip et al. (2014: 198) highlight that peer interaction is “generally felt to be less stressful than teacher-led interaction, precisely because it will not be carefully monitored”. Yule & Macdonald (1990), among others, have found that teaming learners of “different proficiency levels promote[s] beneficial interaction” (Loewen & Sato, 2018: 297). Storch & Aldosari (2013: 46) add that to grasp

the connection between proficiency levels and second language learning, “it is not only proficiency difference which needs to be taken into consideration, but also the kind of relationship learners form when working in pairs”. Furthermore, in a communicative-oriented approach, the learners interact with one another, ask questions, need to take risks, and may make syntactic and pronunciation mistakes, which are part of the learning process (personal translation from Poulin, 2007: 16). Poulin (2007) and Cohen (1994) state that the situations of communication need to be contextualized and meaningful to the learners. By doing so, pupils are able to reiterate the situation in a non-classroom context (ibid.).

Input, *negotiation* (of meaning and form), and *output* depict the three main components of interaction, according to Loewen & Sato (2018). *Input* is, as illustrated earlier, a key feature of language acquisition. In order to interact and communicate, people need to have *input* as well as *output*, the latter being defined as “the language that learners produce during meaning-focused interaction” (Loewen & Sato, 2018: 291). Loewen & Sato (2018: 289) also consider *negotiation of form* as being “particularly relevant to ISLA because it often involves teachers’ pedagogical intervention”, such as “feedback with corrective intent” (ibid.). Furthermore, the authors point out negotiation for *meaning* as a “communication breakdown” that takes place to clarify the understanding. That is, “[the] negotiation for meaning include[s] clarification requests, confirmation checks and comprehension checks” (Loewen & Sato, 2018: 288) which are all reactions to an interruption in the communication.

As illustrated above in this section, interaction also takes place between the provider and the learners. This phenomenon leads to the following section, that is *Teacher Talk*.

2.2. Teacher Talk (TT)

Given its interactive nature and its place in the language classroom, Teacher Talk (TT) is seen as a central source of input in the classroom (Byram, 2004: 608). Starting with the definition of the concept, this section then lays out the various characteristics and categories of teacher talk. The last subsection is devoted to Teacher Talking Time (TTT) in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom as well as Student Talking Time (STT).

2.2.1. Definition of the concept

Teacher Talk (TT) is defined as “the type of speech used by language teachers to address classroom participants” (Byram & Hu, 2017: 698). According to Cullen (1998: 179), the way in which TT has been investigated has changed from a *quantitative perspective* to a *qualitative perspective*. He verbalizes his statement by declaring that “more emphasis is given to how effectively they [the teachers] are able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction in their classroom [...]” (ibid.). Jing & Jing (2018: 320) further state that “[t]eacher talk must be of high quality in order to create a harmonious and effective classroom atmosphere for teacher-student interaction”. However, teacher talk should not be confused with classroom language or classroom discourse.

Behnam & Pouriran (2009) describe classroom language as “a form of discourse which falls within language classrooms specifically verbal routines in classroom” (Al-Smadi & Ab Rashid, 2017: 164). Nicaise (2015: 59) defines classroom language more generally as “the language [...] that takes place in the classroom”. Moreover, Cullen (1995: 3) states that this concept is “the actual language that is used by both teachers and students during the lesson”. Teacher talk is thus considered as one of the features of classroom language (Al-Smadi & Ab Rashid, 2017).

Based on O'Neill's (1994) findings, Ellis (2011: 119 [the ten conditions have been reproduced here]) considers TT as *useful* when ten conditions are met:

1. It is broken into sense groups.
2. It is simplified but not unnatural.
3. It is more redundant than ‘ordinary speech’ and words and structures are naturally repeated or ‘recycled’ at regular intervals.

4. It is broken into 'short paragraph' segments to encourage or invite students to interrupt, comment and ask questions.
5. When new vocabulary or structure is taught, typical examples are given.
6. The teacher gets regular feedback through questions – especially 'open questions'.
7. The teacher uses other devices to get feedback such as student physical responses.
8. A variety of elicitation and explanation techniques are used (e.g. use of context, enactment, illustration).
9. A variety of correction techniques are employed, including both covert and overt types.
10. It is between 95 per cent and 85 per cent comprehensible.

According to Ellis (2011), these conditions help SLA, although it should be noted that no previous empirical research attests his claim. He further argues that the current tendency among teachers is to "reflect on their own practice of teacher-talk by preparing transcriptions of lessons and then examining them in terms of predetermined features of teacher-talk (such as amount of teacher-talk, rate of speech, types of questions [...])" (Ellis, 2011: 119).

Now that teacher talk is defined and clarified, I will present the key characteristics of this concept in the next subsection.

2.2.2. Key characteristics of Teacher Talk

In order for teacher talk to be effective, various researchers such as, among others, Cullen (1998), Ellis (2011), Walsh (2011), Nicaise (2015), Byram & Hu (2017) have mentioned many different characteristics of that concept.

Back in the nineties, Cullen (1998) was highlighting the shift from quantitative research to qualitative research on the subject. He (Cullen, 1998: 179) states:

while the question of how much teachers talk is still important, more emphasis is given to how effectively they are able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction in their classroom through, for example, the kind of questions

they ask, the speech modifications they make when talking to learners, or the way they react to student errors [...].

In other words, according to Cullen (1998), teachers should pay attention to the form and content of what they utter in class in order to ease the learning process of their pupils as well as to trigger communication.

Byram & Hu (2017: 698) identify the key components of TT as “generally grammatical” with “several modifications or adjustments such as simplifications, rephrasing, frequent pauses etc.”. According to them, teachers make these modifications when talking to “facilitate L2 communication” (ibid.). Even though instructors seem to take their learners’ level into account when speaking, no concise and established rules exist to clarify the effectiveness of TT (ibid.).

Echoing the ten conditions mentioned above, Ellis (2011) provides a summary of Chaudron’s (1988) main characteristics of teacher talk and reports that “[t]eachers are likely to explain, question, and command and learners to respond.” (Ellis, 2011: 117). Aligned with Ellis’ ideas, Cullen (1998: 181-182) identifies more or less the same characteristics as the ones mentioned earlier. Additionally, the instructors “tend to slow down their rate of speech (...)” (Ellis, 2011: 117). Moreover, they seem to make longer breaks when talking to learners than when they address native speakers (ibid.). Teachers adapt their vocabulary and tend to repeat themselves with second language learners (ibid.). However, Nicaise (2015: 378) warns that “simplifying the language down should not lead to too much deformation.”. He further argues that “intonation, word and sentence stress, rhythm, the use of weak forms, all of that which gives spoken language its naturalness, should be kept.” (ibid.). This can be complemented by Meunier (2012: 113), who states that “[...] exposure to a large amount of natural native-like input (be it oral or written) remains one of the prerequisites to promoting the acquisition of formulaic language.”.

The teacher should, according to Nicaise (2015: 78-79), provide a rich language both linguistically speaking and on the content level. He agrees with Krashen’s (1982; 1985) notion that the language used in the classroom should be “i+1 level of language” (Nicaise, 2015: 78-79) and adds that “[c]omprehensibility is the most important factor in good teacher talk”. Nicaise (ibid.) then softens his statement by arguing that pupils do not have to understand every single word that is uttered, “but it [teacher talk] should be pitched in a way that students can follow what the teacher is saying”. In this regard, Ellis’ (2011: 119) tenth condition for TT to be *useful* articulates that between “95

percent and 85 percent” of TT should be understood by the pupils. Besides comprehensibility, Dörnyei (2001, in Nicaise, 2015: 79) considers teacher talk as “a source of motivation”. Nicaise (2015: 79) explains that pupils should “relate to” the teacher’s output and be motivated by it. However, teacher talk does not only reside in linguistic input (Jing & Jing, 2018).

More recently, Jing & Jing (2018: 322) have explored *non-verbal discourse* as being part of TT. This concept, in the context of this research, “refers to the body language that goes together with teacher talk” (ibid.). In their study, which consists of analyzing videos of instructors teaching English to Chinese pupils, they observed various forms of *non-verbal discourse* “such as eye-contact, facial expression, body gestures, etc.”. They further explain that the teacher observed “wears an encouraging smile [...] and tries to use gestures to help students to understand the meaning” (ibid.). In addition to that, the teacher nods and has an *affirmative eye-contact* during the lesson (ibid.). In short, *non-verbal discourse* is characterized by different forms and help pupils to understand their teachers’ utterances.

While the various characteristics of teacher talk have been depicted, the categories of the concept are addressed in the following subsection.

2.2.3. Categories of Teacher Talk

In this section, the different categories of teacher talk are described. Note that these categorizations (e.g. Flanders, 1970; Cullen, 1998) are not exhaustive but contain the most recurrent categories suggested in well-known studies. Furthermore, note that these studies have been published more than 25 years ago, and that since then, language education has evolved considerably.

Previous studies (e.g. Cullen, 1998; Ellis, 2011; Putri, 2015; Aisyah, 2016) have shown that ‘asking questions’ is the most prominent category of teacher talk. Ellis (2011: 120) remarks that “teachers, whether in content classrooms or language classrooms, typically ask a lot of questions.”. Putri (2015: 21) explains that “by asking questions [,] [the] teacher was considered successful in getting students’ attention, involving students in the interaction, conveying the learning material, and introducing new material without the need to directly lecture the students.”. Moreover, Byram & Hu (2017: 699) add that, by asking questions, the teacher expects the pupils to answer them. As a matter of fact, it “involve[s] learners in communicative interactions (...) [and]

allow[s] teachers['] insights into learners' comprehension of their teachers' talk." (ibid.). The most dominant type of questions found in Aisyah's (2016: 68-69) study is "close-ended questions" such as "*Do you know paper cranes?*" which imply "short phrases as response" (e.g. *Origami.*).

Yet, 'asking questions' is not the only category that composes teacher talk. Flanders (1970, in Aisyah, 2016: 64), distinguishes two categories of TT: "indirect influence and direct influence". On the one hand, the category types "indirect influence" can be subdivided into "accepting feelings, appraisal or encourages, accepting or using students' ideas and asking questions" (ibid.). On the other hand, the latter category (i.e. "direct influence") is subdivided into "lectures, giving directions, and criticizes or justifying authority." (ibid.). Table 1 provides a summary of the various categories of TT. This table has been borrowed and (slightly) adapted from Flanders (1970: 5, in Aisyah, 2016: 65).

	Type of influence	Sub-category	Explanation of the category
Teachers' talk	Indirect influence	Accepts feelings	Accepts and clarifies the feelings of the students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included.
		Praises or encourages	Praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or saying 'uh huh?' or 'go on' are included.
		Accepts or uses students' ideas	Clarifying, building, or developing ideas or suggestions by a student.
		Asks questions	Asking a question about content or procedures with the intent that a student may answer.
	Direct influence	Lectures	Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas; asking rhetorical questions.
		Gives directions	Directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply.
		Criticizes or justifies authority	Statements, intended to change student behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern, bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing, extreme self-reference.

Table 1. The different categories of teacher talk (adapted from Flanders, 1970: 5)

Although Cullen's (1998) six categories (inspired from Bowers [1980]) do not completely correspond to Flanders' (1970) model, both lists are fairly overlapping. Cullen (1998: 186) presents the following categories: "questioning/eliciting, responding to students' contributions, presenting/explaining, organizing/giving instructions, evaluating/correcting, 'sociating'/establishing and maintaining classroom rapport.". Note that, once again, the first category mentioned here is 'questioning'. Surprisingly, the categories 'praises or encourages' and 'lectures' (Flanders, 1970) are absent from Cullen's enumeration. Moreover, 'nodding', which is an element of *non-verbal discourse*, is also described in Table 1 and echoes Jing & Jing's (2018) clarification of the concept.

Much previous (quantitative) research has been carried out on the time that teachers spend talking, i.e. Teacher Talking Time (TTT), as will be developed in the following subsection.

2.2.4. Teacher Talking Time (TTT)

Generally speaking, TTT "refers to how much the teacher talks during a lesson" (Kostadinovska-Stojchevska & Popovikj, 2019: 26). However, as mentioned earlier, many scholars such as Ellis and Cullen (a.o.) "have emphasized the quality or effectiveness (contents) of TTT rather than the quantity" (Kostadinovska-Stojchevska & Popovikj, 2019: 26). Numerous studies nevertheless contain an average percentage of TTT. Meunier (2012: 6) points out that "teacher talking time (TTT) takes an impressive 70% of classroom time in general [...]", while Walsh (2011: 215) estimates it to "70-80 per cent of the total class-time". Many researchers have tried to measure the exact amount of TTT, but no consensus has been found (Cárdenas, 2013: 28). However, as Van Lier (2001: 1, paraphrased in Kostadinovska-Stojchevska & Popovikj, 2019: 27) remarks, "it is important to note that although excessive TTT in the classroom has been criticized by many researchers, they usually do not advocate minimizing TTT as an objective". They add that "TTT should be allocated to relevant interactions between the teachers and the students" (ibid.), which echoes the qualitative research.

Student talking time, abbreviated as STT, goes hand in hand with TTT. Defined as “the amount of time student use while in classroom interaction” (Kostadinovska-Stojchevska & Popovikj, 2019: 27), Cullen (1998:179) reports that:

[...] teacher talk in the EFL classroom was considered to be something of a danger area for language teachers [...]. ‘Good’ teacher talk meant ‘little’ teacher talk [original quotation marks], since it was thought that too much TTT deprived students of opportunities to speak.

Annamuradov & Korkut (2019: 61) echo Cullen’s views by stating that even if teacher talking time is perceived as “a valuable source of input for students [...], the exceeding use of TTT will automatically limit the STT”.

While TTT can be seen as an “impeder of STT” (Cárdenas, 2013: 24), the opposite can also be true. In this regard, TTT can be a “facilitator of STT” (ibid.: 27), echoing the various categories and characteristics mentioned in the previous subsections.

As for the use of the pupils’ L2 in the classroom, one can wonder whether an English teacher always uses the target language. This topic of L1 use in the English classroom is addressed in Subsection 2.3.

2.3. L1 in the English classroom

As Jing & Jing (2018: 323) explain, language lessons can be portrayed as “the process of continuous interactive adjustment and adaption [sic]” between the instructor and the learners or between learners, for example. They further state that “teacher talk is not something stable and unchangeable and English class is not always conducted in total English”, to which they add that, “sometimes, mother tongue must be involved for clarity, for better understanding of the lecture, or even for activating classroom atmosphere and some other factors.” (ibid.). Given the fact that the present research analyzes TT, and more precisely focuses on teachers’ L1 use in the EFL classroom, this subsection is relevant to the topic.

In this regard, this subsection devoted to the first language (L1)/mother tongue (MT) in the classroom is composed of five central elements, namely (1) the definition of the concept, (2) the shift in perspective along the years, (3) the situations in which

pupils' L1 is used, (4) teachers' perspective of the concept as well as (5) pupils' perspective.

2.3.1. The concept

In the context of this study, terminological clarifications are worth giving. The pupils' L1 in the present study is either French or Dutch, depending on the community. These two languages are the expected native languages of the pupils and that of the teachers observed.

While “recent research studies have shown how the use of the students' own language is not just unavoidable, but beneficial to their learning of foreign languages” (Richardson & Thornbury, 2016: 8), other previous studies advocate exclusive L2 use in the classrooms. This topic can be perceived as controversial, in the way that various points of view and opinions are motivated at some point. For instance, Auerbach (1993: 21) illustrates this polarity of opinions by stating that “L1 may be a potential resource rather than an obstacle”. She further adds that “practioners [...] report finding selective and targeted integration of L1 useful” (ibid.).

In short, this concept has led to numerous debates and dividing opinions. In this regard, the following sections depict, as objectively as possible, the various viewpoints and arguments.

2.3.2. A shift in perspective

As pointed out by Schweers (1999: 6), “there appears to be an increasing conviction that the first language (L1) has a necessary and facilitating role in the second and foreign language (L2) classroom.”. However, this perspective is not shared by everybody working on the field or researching on the concept.

Shin et al. (2019) as well as Richardson & Thornbury (2016) provide a good summary of the evolution of L1 use in the foreign language classroom. In this regard, Ghobadi & Ghasemi (2015, paraphrased in Shin et al., 2019: 406) state that “[u]ntil the late nineteenth century, L2 was predominantly taught via the L1, driven by a grammar-translation approach that focused on written texts, along with structural analysis that focused on grammar and linguistic form.”. Next to this approach, about a century ago,

other methods (e.g. 'direct method', 'communicative approach', etc.) adopted and "encouraged the exclusive use of L2 in the FL classroom" (Shin et al., 2019: 406).

In relation to this monolingual approach, Richardson and Thornbury (2016: 8) give two explanations to this exclusiveness of L2 in FL classrooms, the first one being that "students' mother tongue was considered as a source of interference and an unhelpful barrier to foreign language learning." (e.g. "negative transfers" from pupils' L1). The second explanation that they give concerns the "rise of native-speakerism" (ibid.). It is "the belief that the native speaker [is] the ideal model and the ideal teacher" (Cook, 2010, paraphrased in Richardson and Thornbury, 2016: 8). In short, the way the L2 was acquired in this approach consisted of "internaliz[ing] the target language, approximating to native speaker standards." (ibid.).

As a consequence, the 'monolingual principle' ruled foreign language classes at that time (Richardson & Thornbury, 2016). Blyth (1995: 152) states that this principle "would seem to make eminent sense, particularly in contexts where students have few if any opportunities to encounter the target language outside of class.". He further posits that "beginning students are not always convinced that immersion is the best approach." (ibid.: 153). Cook (1992) stresses that even if teachers expel their pupils' L1, they cannot exclude it from the learners' mind.

More recently, other perspectives advocate L1 use in the FL classroom (e.g. Moore, 2013), which Conteh & Meier (2014: 3) call the "bilingual view". Schweers (1999, paraphrased in Zulfikar, 2018: 44) comments that "[w]hile the proponents of the Communicative Approach firmly argue that the use of L1 may hinder L2 learning, its opponents claim that the use of L1 can actually facilitate the acquisition of L2". The author adds that other researchers have a "more neutral standing" (ibid.). Various studies (e.g. Auerbach, 1993; Benson, 2004) have shown that using pupils' L1 in the FL classroom has advantages, as it "[...] provides a sense of security and validates the learner's lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves." (Auerbach, 1993: 13). Auerbach (1993: 20) further states that "its [L1] use reduces anxiety and enhances the affective environment for learning, takes into account sociocultural factors, [and] facilitates incorporation of learners' life experiences [...]". Furthermore, using pupils' mother tongue "can stimulate collaborative dialogue among L2 learners in classes." (Zulfikar, 2018: 45). Other researchers (e.g. Miles, 2004; Zulfikar, 2018) as well as teachers, have pointed out that using the first language "saves time and avoids confusion" (Zulfikar, 2018: 46). According to Zulfikar, "L1 use can help a teacher

explain or clarify concepts, tasks, assignments, instructions, or activities more clearly.”. (ibid.: 49). Schweers (1999: 9) emphasizes that “[...] it is more important for students to understand a concept than it is for that concept to be explained exclusively in English.”. Moreover, Shin et al. (2019: 412) point out that “some findings suggest that teachers’ exclusive use of L2, ironically, can make students less involved in class both verbally and cognitively.”.

In addition to the advantages of using learners’ native language in class, Richardson & Thornbury (2016: 9) present four arguments in favor of it: (1) *affective argument*, (2) *psycholinguistic argument*, (3) *sociolinguistic argument*, and (4) *pedagogic argument*. The first argument (i.e. the *affective argument*) echoes Auerbach’s (1993) statement as she argues that when learners (mainly beginners) hear their L1, they are more motivated and feel less anxious. The *psycholinguistic argument* (2) suggests that “it is unhelpful to separate the learners’ own language and the target language as two separate and independent systems in the students’ minds.” (Richardson & Thornbury, 2016: 9). Sousa (2011, paraphrased in Richardson & Thornbury, 2016: 9) further explains that to acquire new vocabulary, the learners need to make links between his/her L1 and his/her L2. The *sociolinguistic argument* (3) argues that by using both languages (i.e. target language (TL) and L1) the learners can “construct a realistic bilingual or multilingual identity, rather than an unrealistic monolingual one.” (Richardson & Thornbury, 2016: 9). Last but not least, the *pedagogic argument* (4) points out that the use of learners’ MT “often enables teachers to form and maintain relationships with their students, manage the class efficiently, check understanding, and give faster explanations.” (ibid.).

To sum up, along the years, there has been as “shift of focus from the ‘deficit’ or ‘native speaker’ view to the ‘asset’ or ‘bilingual view’” (Conteh & Meier, 2014: 3, paraphrased in Richardson & Thornbury, 2016: 8). This recent shift in perspective has had an “impact on ELT [English Language Teaching] methodology and materials in a significant way.” (Richardson & Thornbury, 2016: 8). Considering that recent findings have drawn attention to the fact that “the use of the students’ own language is not just unavoidable, but beneficial to their learning of foreign languages” (ibid.), the situations in which pupils’ L1 is used in the FL classroom are considered in the following subsection.

2.3.3. Situations of L1 in the FL classroom

The most recurrent situation in which teachers switch to their pupils' native language happens to be for giving 'grammar instructions'. This has been discussed by a large number of authors in the literature. Zéphir & Chirol's (1993) findings show that pupils' mother tongue is often used, while the target language (TL) is "chosen for communicative activities" (Blyth, 1995: 152). In a study led by Littlewood & Yu (2011), Chinese students reported that their instructor used their L1 for "(a) talking with a student about a personal matter, (b) explaining a difficult grammar point; and (c) dealing with a serious discipline problem." (Byram & Hu, 2017: 483). Similar research, among which by Macaro (1997), corroborates these findings. Moreover, "Mitchell (1988) and Liu et al. (2004) found that explaining grammar and meanings were the two most common reasons" for using pupils' MT in the FL classroom (Byram & Hu, 2017: 483). Byram & Hu (ibid.) further posit that "these purposes cover three key dimensions of pedagogical communication – establishing positive relationships, ensuring understanding and maintaining discipline".

In his article on L1 use in the EFL classroom, Schweers (1999) adapted Atkinson's (1987) list of suggested uses of L1 in the classroom. Schweers (1999: 7) then outlines the nine cases in which a teacher is susceptible to use his/her pupils' L1, namely (1) *eliciting language*, which consists of asking "How do you say 'X' in English?", (2) *checking comprehension*, (3) *giving complex instructions to basic levels*, (4) *co-operating in groups*, where pupils "compare and correct answer to exercises or tasks in the L1", (5) *explaining classroom methodology at basic levels*, (6) *using translation to highlight a recent taught language item*, (7) *checking for sense*, which consists of having learners translate their sentences/statements in order for them to realize the mistake they made, (8) *testing* and (9) *developing circumlocution strategies*, which corresponds to having the learners reformulate their statement in the case of an unknown expression. Note that uses number (3) (i.e. *giving complex instructions to basic levels*) and (5) (i.e. *explaining classroom methodology at basic levels*) both echo Swain & Lapkin's (2000, paraphrased in Moore, 2013: 241) findings that "higher proficiency students used the L1 less than lower proficiency students.". In other words, FL classrooms of lower proficiency learners are more likely to have a higher amount of L1 than high-proficiency pupils.

L1 use in FL classrooms can also be found at university level. Polio & Duff's (1994) findings, which are based on observations of English-speaking language instructors teaching different languages (e.g. German, Chinese, Japanese) to English-speaking learners, are summarized in a table by Ellis (2011: 130), in which she outlines the "functions of teachers' L1 use" in different categories. This table is reproduced below and identified as Table 2.

<u>Categories of L1 use</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Findings</u>
Classroom administrative vocabulary	Use of L1 words to refer to aspects of the culture of university classroom (e.g. 'review section', 'mid term', 'homework').	The L1 words were typically inserted into TL utterances.
Grammar instruction	Use of the L1 to explain grammatical concepts.	This was very common and involved whole utterances in the L1.
Classroom management	Use of the L1 to set up learning activities.	Some teachers used the L1 exclusively; others code-switched (i.e. used a mixture of English and the TL).
Empathy/solidarity	The use of L1 for interpersonal and rapport-building purposes.	Some teachers used the L1 to digress from instructional sequences in order to background their role as teachers (e.g. joking in the L1).
Practicing English	The use of L1 by students to help their teacher's non-native English.	Students provided English equivalents for TL items.
Unknown vocabulary/translation	The use of L1 to show the meaning of TL items.	Teachers used the TL item first and then gave the L1 translation.
Lack of comprehension	The use of L1 to resolve students' comprehension problems.	This was 'surprisingly uncommon'.
Interactive effect	The teacher responded to a student using the L1 by using the L1 him/herself.	There appeared to be a reciprocal effect - the use of the L1 by one participant led to its use by another.

Table 2. "Functions of teachers' L1 use (based on Polio and Duff, 1994)", literally taken from Ellis (2011: 130)

Not surprisingly, *grammar instruction* is, as is the case in many prior studies, also depicted in Polio and Duff's (1994) findings as being taught in the pupils' L1. Moreover, as in Atkinson's (1987) model, L1 use also occurs in situations of unknown vocabulary or unknown/misunderstood concepts. In addition to these two elements, it seems that in both studies, pupils' MT is used when dealing with organizational matters. The fact that "some teachers used the L1 to digress from instructional sequences in order to

background their role as teacher” is echoed in Piasecka’s (1986: 97) statement in that “teaching bilingually does not mean a return to the Grammar Translation method, but rather a standpoint which accepts that the thinking, feeling, and artistic life of a person is very much rooted in their mother tongue.”. In a way, using pupils’ L1 would help “building” a good relationship with the learners. Furthermore, note that the *interactive effect* in Polio & Duff (1994) is not mentioned in Atkinson’s (1987) findings.

Moreover, Byram & Hu (2017: 484) consider that having to choose between pupils’ MT and the target language when dealing with “personal problems or maintaining discipline” can lead to ‘conflicting criteria’. In this way, they argue that while a conversation is led in the pupils’ L1, this exchange could happen in the target language, since it could be “the stimuli for real communication that the classroom often lacks.” (ibid.). They further postulate that it depends on the “situation, the topic and learner(s), including the latter’s proficiency and the extent to which they feel ‘at home’ with the language.” (ibid.). In other words, depending on the situation and the learners’ level, it could sometimes be appropriate to use the target language instead of shifting to the learners’ MT.

Although studies on the topic have shown that the proportion of L1 in the FL classroom varies “even amongst teachers in similar situations and even when the teachers are native speakers of the FL.” (ibid.: 482), Hlas (2016, paraphrased in Shin et al., 2019: 416) reports that “recent studies recommend that L2 should be taught in L2 90% of the time, and in L1 10% of the time”. Hlas (ibid.) further adds that teachers’ utterances in the target language “should be comprehensible, tak[e] into consideration the students’ understanding and proficiency level.” (ibid).

Whereas L1 use in FL classrooms has largely been studied, other researchers found it interesting to investigate teachers’ and pupils’ viewpoint on the subject, which is presented in the following sections.

2.3.4. Teachers’ perspective

In Schweers’ (1999) study, the author asked various questions to (Spanish-speaking) English teachers to have their opinions and explanations on their L1 use in their EFL classrooms. As such, Schweers (1999: 8) asked the teachers observed “If you use Spanish in your classroom, why do you think this may be more effective than using English exclusively?”. A teacher answered that s/he considers that “it is more important

for students to understand a concept than it is for that concept to be explained exclusively in English.” (ibid: 9). Moreover, another teacher stated that s/he uses Spanish (i.e. pupils’ L1) “to establish rapport with [his/her] students, and [...] to serve as model person who speaks both languages and uses each one when necessary or convenient.” (ibid.). The third teacher explained that he thinks “students can identify better with a teacher who speaks to them in their own language, thereby letting them know that you respect and value their native language.” (ibid.). S/he further advocated his/her statement by talking about the importance of the “politico-socio-cultural implications of teaching a language” (ibid.) and added that s/he jokes in the pupils’ L1 to be sure that everybody understands. Telling a joke in the learners’ L1 parallels Polio & Duff’s (1994) findings. Note that all these answers in general echo the various findings illustrated above.

Moreover, as previously mentioned, teachers justify their L1 use by the “time-saving factor”. Zulfikar’s (2018: 47) findings indeed illustrate that, according to the teachers observed, using pupils’ MT “could save valuable time in explaining key ideas that otherwise would take a lot more time if explained in L2.” Furthermore, as Wilkerson (2008: 3) puts it, L1 is “used during classroom instruction to save time, demonstrate authority, and reduce ambiguity, and these categories of usage often co-occurred.”. *Reducing ambiguity* could be coupled with the explanation of meaning (cf. *lack of comprehension* in table 2).

Moreover, Shin et al.’s (2019: 413) research has shown that before “reflect[ing] on their actual classrooms, [and] exchanging feedback with fellow teachers”, language teachers “exhibited negative attitudes towards the use of L1 and neglected student requests for more explanations in L1” (ibid.), while they recognized afterwards that “L1 avoidance was not a goal itself, and that L1 could be a useful tool to foster L2 fluency.” (ibid.). In this regard, it is worth considering pupils’ viewpoint on L1 use in the FL classroom.

2.3.5. Pupils’ perspective

Next to English teachers’ perspective, pupils’ opinion is also sometimes sought and taken into account, as in Schweers (1999), where Spanish speakers learn English as a foreign language. Almost 90% of the learners who participated in this study think that their MT (i.e. Spanish) should be used in their English classes. Furthermore, the author

estimates, according to his findings, that “86 percent of students [...] would like Spanish” to be used “to explain difficult concepts” (Schweers, 1999: 7), while “only 22 percent of teachers saw this as an appropriate use.” (ibid.). To the question “If you prefer the use of Spanish [i.e. L1] in your class, why?”, 68% of the students answered that they “feel less lost” when their L1 is not used (ibid.: 8). Finally, Schweers (1999: 7) also found out that “[s]tudents feel there are clear cases where Spanish will facilitate their comprehension of what is happening in class” and adds that “[a] majority also agree that the use of Spanish helps them to learn English.”. In parallel to Schweers’ (1999) findings, Macaro & Lee (2013, paraphrased in Shin et al., 2019: 412) further argue that:

some participants pointed out that if teachers speak exclusively in L2 without any pauses between sentences, to allow students to reflect or think, and without any explanation of words or expressions, students with a lack of linguistic knowledge experience cognitive overload.

In short, Schweers’ (1999) and Macaro & Lee’s (2013) studies help to demonstrate that pupils feel more at ease and understand the course better, at least in some cases, when their L1 is used.

Moreover, Chiou’s (2014, paraphrased in Shin et al. 2019: 412) study, based on four different proficiency groups, reports that “[s]tudents of all proficiency levels favoured use of L1, and the lowest L2-proficiency groups exhibited the strongest preference for using L1 in L2 classes.”. In addition to that, a study (Macaro & Lee, 2013) on college students and children revealed that both groups “agreed L1 had a valuable role in FL classrooms.” (Shin et al., 2019: 412). Moore’s (2013: 242) findings show that learners “found L1 use effective in grammatical meta-talk and interpersonal negotiations.”.

To conclude, it appears that learners of a FL find it useful to have their L1 in the FL classroom as it helps them to grasp meanings and concepts and to feel more comfortable with the language. As Moore (2013: 243) puts it: “research reveals L1 use to be a naturally occurring phenomenon in the L2 classroom at the levels of external, private, and inner speech, and it may be drawn on either explicitly or implicitly for a variety of purposes.”.

2.3.6. Plurilingualism in the classroom

Wandruszka (1979), paraphrased in Hufeisen et al. (2004: 14), states that “plurilingualism is innate in all individuals” since, as humans, we switch between various language variants such as “standard language, dialect, colloquial language (...)” (ibid.). Wandruszka (1979) differentiates between two types of ‘plurilingualism’, namely “internal plurilingualism” (Hufeisen & al, 2004: 14) and “external plurilingualism” which corresponds to capacity to acquire foreign languages next to the L1 acquisition (ibid.). Note that this section is devoted to “external plurilingualism” only.

Traditionally speaking, the literature offers two different views. Cenoz & Gorter (2013: 591) report that the teaching of English as a second language has widely been linked to a monolingual approach, which consists of using the target language (TL) only. Moreover, they argue that while it is generally known that language learners “combine elements from different languages, the boundaries between languages are usually defined, or hard, in school settings” (ibid.: 592). In other words, the authors describe the acquisition of English “as an isolated language in the curriculum” (ibid.). Furthermore, Cook (1999 in Cenoz & Gorter, 2013: 593) argues that the teaching of English is often coupled with the objective of attaining the “native-like command of the target language”.

However, Hopp & Thoma (2021: 2) mention that “recent proposals have shifted the perspective away from viewing FL learning as aiming to approximate monolingual native speaker proficiency.”. Moore and Vallejo (2018: 35) declare that plurality of languages is not only a “social reality” but also “a reality of the classroom” as well. They further emphasize that plurilingualism should be included in the teaching methodology that is taught to teachers-to-be. Various researchers agree on the fact that plurilingualism in the classroom is a valuable and useful concept. For instance, Dooly & Vallejo (2019: 2) identify numerous features and advantages to “plurilingual pedagogical approaches”. In such approaches, the learners’ native language, whichever it is, is taken into account during the learning phase (ibid.). Dooly & Vallejo (2019: 2) further argue that

there is no strict separation of languages – either conceptually (as communicative resources) or in practice (providing space for multiple languages in the classroom). This implies that ‘one-language-only’ learning environments can be more flexible and open to promote ‘translanguaging spaces’ which allow students to ‘integrate linguistic codes that have been formerly separated through different practices and in different places’ (Li 2011, 1223).

In other words, the teacher should take his/her pupils’ mother tongue into account and not hesitate to rely on it when possible, e.g. when a comparison between both languages is worth mentioning. It is worth noting that the teacher does not necessarily need to master all languages that his/her learners speak. In this regard, Dooly & Vallejo (ibid.) declare that “[d]idactics of plurilingualism also implies taking into account all of the potential communicative repertoires the learners bring to the classroom, including the multiple modalities that communication entails, along with and beyond languages”. Moreover, Cenoz & Gorter (2013: 596) conclude their research by stating that plurilingual teaching methods rely on “learners’ metalinguistic awareness and experiences as plurilingual speakers”, which permits to learn more efficiently. They further conclude that learners’ plurilingualism is to their advantage (ibid.).

Similarly, Hopp & Thoma (2021: 2) state that plurilingualism in the FL classroom can ease target language learning in two ways. On the one hand, the first way posits that “[p]lurilingual FL teaching can address the specific (meta)linguistic resources of minority language students and [...] partially compensate for the lower FL achievement often reported for this group.” (ibid.). On the other hand, the second way postulates that “plurilingual FL teaching can potentially boost FL development for both majority language and minority language students, since it addresses their resources as ‘emergent multilinguals’ (Turnbull, 2018).” (ibid.). Furthermore, previous research has shown that plurilingualism in the FL classroom may have “positive effects [...] on vocabulary acquisition” (Busse et al., 2020 in Hopp & Thoma, 2021: 2). In addition to this, Hopp & Thoma’s research (2021) has shown that the presence of plurilingualism in the FL classroom can “selectively facilitate grammatical development among primary school students.” (ibid.: 17). They further assert that, although the target language is less used, the pedagogical translanguaging (PTL), i.e. the plurality of languages in the

classroom, does not appear to impede the learning process of the target language (ibid.).

Considering the curriculum and the design of the lessons, Van den Akker et al. (2010: 10) point out that “language awareness” should be included in the “curriculum design”. Nevertheless, they further argue that language teachers should be taught “CEFR² modules as well as innovative plurilingual-oriented programs providing for familiarisation with the CEFR principles and acknowledgement of their benefits” (ibid.). In this regard, Hufeisen et al. (2004: 18) similarly argue that FL lessons should draw the attention to the way in which learners can acquire a foreign language efficiently.

In sum, while it is still common to hear and read about the monolingual approach (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013), a shift in perspective seems to favor plurilingualism in the FL classroom (Hopp & Thoma, 2021). In addition to this, the mother tongue should not be ignored when learning a FL, but should rather “be deliberately and actively included in foreign language learning, since it fundamentally structures the mental language network in which all elements, units and structures of the new language will be anchored.” (Hufeisen et al., 2004: 19). Moreover, various studies (e.g. Hopp & Thoma, 2021) have shown that plurilingualism in the language classroom is beneficial to the acquisition of vocabulary and “grammatical development” (ibid.: 17). However, as Van den Akker et al. (2010) postulate, it is necessary to provide language teachers with explicit information on the topic.

The last two sections of the state-of-the-art focus on language use in Belgium, and more specifically on English in Belgium and on the language educational system Flanders and Wallonia.

² CEFR stands for “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages”.

2.4. English in Belgium

This section focuses on the official languages spoken in Belgium. In addition, it deals with the place that English holds in the country. Furthermore, the various proficiency levels in the Dutch and French communities are also considered below.

As depicted in many previous studies on this topic, Belgium has three official languages, namely French, Dutch and German. French is spoken in Wallonia and in Brussels, while Dutch is spoken both in Flanders and in the capital of the country (Brussels). As for German, it is spoken in the eastern part of the country, but will not be discussed further as this paper only focuses on the French and Dutch Communities. Interestingly, the “language of wider communication” (Van Splunder, 2021: 41) happens to be English in all communities of Belgium. As Van Splunder (*ibid.*) puts it: “[a]part from the official regional languages [...], English increasingly serves as the unofficial language of wider communication in Belgium.”. Moreover, Van Hoecke (2017: 45-46), among others, depicts English as a *lingua franca* in Europe, and Belgium is no exception to it. Van Splunder (2021: 52) mentions English as “a ‘neutral’ language or as a go-between speakers of Dutch, French and German, who might feel more comfortable speaking English as *lingua franca*.”. He further mentions that “[i]t might even make sense to adopt English as fourth official language in Belgium.” (*ibid.*).

Although English happens to be the most common language between two speakers of different communities, it appears that Flemish speakers have a “considerable higher” proficiency in English than French speakers (Van Splunder, 2021: 40). Figure 1, which was borrowed from Van Parys & Wauters (2006), confirms Van Splunder’s findings. This phenomenon can be explained by the fact that the Dutch audio-visual culture is rarely dubbed in their mother tongue, but rather subtitled, while most series, films and TV shows are dubbed in French (*ibid.*). Van Parys & Wauters (2006) further remark that “this certainly influences negatively the willingness of the Walloon community to study foreign languages as well as the level of linguistic competence, because they practise their linguistic skills less in everyday life.” (Duyck, 2013: 15). Van Hoecke (2017: 45) further adds that “Flemish children have already been surrounded with English input in Flemish society on numerous occasions.”. This is clearly illustrated in a previous study led by Verspoor et al. (2007: 4-5), in which they have shown that 36.7% of (self-assessment of) English language knowledge was learned through media by Dutch learners, while only 12% of English was learned by

French learners of English. Although their study (ibid.) reveals that Dutch speakers estimate to learn 59.6% of English at school, while French speakers report 77.5%, Verspoor et al. (ibid.) further posit that “media use explains to a large extent the differences in language proficiency between the national groups [own translation]”.

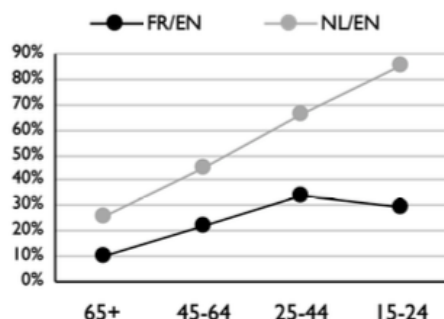


Figure 1. Percentage of French and Dutch speaking Belgians who know English well or very well according to their age, borrowed from Van Parys & Wauters (2006: 3)

In addition, Van Parys & Wauters (2006: 4) state that “the origin of these discrepancies lies in a disparity in learning motivations [own translation]” and point out that “the willingness to learn a foreign language depends mainly on the frequency with which we expect to interact in it. [own translation]” (ibid.). In short, these elements suggest, once again, that motivation and attitude are key factors in SLA.

Duyck (2013: 15) concludes by stating that “the Walloon community finds itself far behind Flanders when it comes to linguistic competences”, which echoes both figures (i.e. 1 & 2). She further states that:

[T]he majority of the Walloon population is predominantly monolingual. Moreover, the language education has to cope with several flaws and is not able to meet its needs. On top of that, the Walloons hardly have contact with English in everyday life. These three factors do not stimulate the motivation and attitude towards foreign language learning. (ibid.).

These three elements depicted by Duyck (2013) report the main origins of the discrepancies between both communities. These findings are reflected in Figure 2 (Van Parys & Wauters, 2006: 3), in which the knowledge of English is illustrated per province. Both figures 1 & 2 complete each other and show that Dutch speakers are more proficient in English than French speakers are. A study by Ginsburgh & Weber (2006: 1) reveal, in line with these findings, that “while 59% and 53% of Flemish know French or English respectively, only 19% and 17% of Walloons know Dutch or English. [own translation]”.

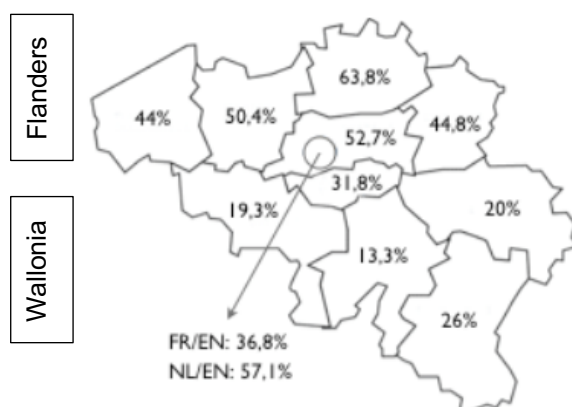


Figure 2. Knowledge of English per province, borrowed and slightly adapted from Van Parys & Wauters (2006: 3)

The following section, which rounds off the theoretical background, gives a deeper insight into language education in Belgium and how it can differ from a community to another.

2.5. Foreign language education in Belgium

Due to the fact that the Belgian education system is autonomous in the various Communities (Goethals, 1997: 105; Schacht, 2020: 12), this section needs to be divided into two categories. The first one deals with the Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles (FW-B) system, which corresponds to the French Community, while the latter considers the Flemish education system. Note that, as mentioned earlier, the German-speaking Community will not be part of the discussion in this paper.

Furthermore, some terminological comments are worth including. The “educational hierarchy” in secondary schools is “divided in three grades, each consisting of two years.” (Schacht, 2020: 13), which means that when mentioning the “second grade”, it refers to the 3rd and 4th years of secondary school for instance.

Moreover, as this paper focuses on General Secondary Education (GSE), this section only takes the Enseignement Général de Transition and the Algemeen Secundair Onderwijs (ASO) into account. More information concerning the three other forms of orientation, can be found in Schacht's (2020) master's thesis in which she compares both systems.

2.5.1. FW-B's education system

In the Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles (FW-B), i.e. Wallonia-Brussels Federation, the pupils who have French as their L1 have to take Dutch as their L2, while Dutch speakers have to take French as their L2 (Mettewie & Van Mensel, 2020: 6). Moreover, the learning of a foreign language is mandatory from the 5th year of elementary school at a rate of two hours a week³ (Blondin & Chenu, 2013: 14). However, a bit more than 40% of the "128 elementary schools that were observed by the language course inspection [...] organized language stimulation or language activities before the compulsory start of language learning" (own translation from Blondin & Chenu, 2013: 14).

Legally speaking, the foreign language that pupils are learning in elementary school conditions the language they have to learn when entering high school (Ginsburgh & Weber, 2006: 7). However, as stated in Blondin & Chenu (2013: 19), various studies (e.g. Poulain, 2002; Etienne, 2011) deplore inconsistencies in terms of the language studied (own adapted translation). It appears that pupils are allowed, under certain conditions, to change the language they are learning when going from elementary to secondary school. Note that such a case scenario is not possible in Flanders (own translation from Blondin & Chenu, 2013: 19). Nonetheless, Ginsburgh & Weber (2006: 7), among others, maintain that pupils are not encouraged to change from a language to another.

The first two years of secondary school, i.e. the first grade, implies that the pupils must follow the foreign language class (be it English, Dutch or German) four

³ Note that as a result of the Pact reforms, foreign language awareness will start from kindergarten (at least 50 minutes per week), while language learning will begin in the 3rd grade of elementary schools. Furthermore, the learning of a second foreign language (i.e. LM2) will begin from the second year of secondary school. For more information, do not hesitate to consult the website (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles, 2022).

hours a week (own translation from Ginsburgh & Weber, 2006: 7; Lebrun, 2003). It is worth noting that pupils attending secondary schools in Brussels are obliged to choose Dutch as their first foreign language, also abbreviated to LM1 (Schacht, 2020: 7; Mettewie & Van Mensel, 2020: 6). Furthermore, “[i]t is only from the third year onwards that the student can (but does not have to) choose a second foreign language. A pupil can therefore finish secondary school with knowledge of only one non-native language”⁴ (own translation from *ibid.*). The second foreign language, also known as LM2, can vary according to what the secondary school offers (Schacht, 2020: 17). As such, the pupils can take either “English, Dutch, German, Spanish, Italian or Arab” as their LM2 (Lebrun 2003 in *ibid.*).

Finally, in the last grade of secondary school, i.e. 5th and 6th years, pupils may add a third foreign language (LM3) to their curriculum (Schacht, 2020: 7). These languages (be it “English, Dutch, German, Spanish, Italian, Arabic or Russian”) depend on what the schools offer (Lebrun, 2003 in Schacht, 2020: 17). Pupils attending school at this level need to have one foreign language at a rate of two to four hours a week, while both LM2 and LM3 are taught four hours a week (Schacht, 2020: 17).

2.5.2. Flanders’ education system

Since both communities have their own way of dealing with education matters, it is worth mentioning the Flemish education system. “GO! Onderwijs van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap” corresponds to one of the two Flemish governmental networks dealing with education, while the other is the “government-aided official network” (Schacht, 2020: 23).

While Walloon pupils can choose their first foreign language, Flemish students must have French as their LM1 starting in their 5th year of elementary school (Schacht, 2020: 28; Peters et al., 2020: 1). It is worth noting that “half of the pupils are introduced to the foreign language at an early stage” (own translation from Hooft et al., 2019: 60). When entering secondary school, pupils must take the same FL, i.e. French, while they must follow English as LM2 in their first or second year (Schacht, 2020, 28). Moreover, Flemish pupils attend each of these classes three hours a week (*ibid.*). A third

⁴ Note that due to the recent reforms, pupils will have to choose their LM2 from their 2nd year of high school.

language (be it German or Spanish) can be added to their curriculum when entering the third grade, i.e. 5th year of secondary school (Mettewie & Van Mensel, 2020: 5). The second and the third FL each represent two hours a week of the core curriculum (ibid.).

In short, the main difference between the FW-B's education system and Flanders is that Flemish pupils must learn French as their first FL, while Walloon pupils can choose between Dutch, English and German (Schacht, 2020). Moreover, the number of hours a week differs depending on the community and on the target language.

This section rounds off the state of the art, while the following one (Section 3) is devoted to the research questions and hypotheses that drive this study. They are mainly based on the pieces of information I gathered when doing research for my master's thesis.

3. Research questions and hypotheses

3.1. Research questions

As previously mentioned, this master's dissertation aims to provide a qualitative comparison of the L1 use by English teachers in 4th and 6th grades of high school in Flanders and Wallonia.

In this master's thesis, I will address the following research questions:

- 1) In which circumstances do the observed Flemish and Walloon English teachers use Dutch or French in their 4th and 6th grade EFL classrooms?

For this first research question, Dutch is assumed to be the Flemish pupils' L1, while French is considered as the Walloon pupils' L1. Furthermore, the similarities and differences will be analyzed between both communities, as well as between both grades.

Secondly, in order to deepen the investigation, my following research question will make it possible to give further comments on/explanations to my previous analyses. My second research question is thus formulated as follows:

- 2) How do the English teachers explain the fact that they use their pupils' L1 in class in certain situations?

For this second research question, the teachers will be interviewed in order to obtain some pieces of information that could clarify and justify their L1 use in the EFL classroom.

These two research questions will guide the research project outlined in this master's dissertation. The final aim is thus to analyze in which situations the observed English teachers switch to their (presumed) pupils' L1 and understand why they do so, but also to compare the results with similar types of studies carried out in other contexts.

3.2. Hypotheses

The four hypotheses that go hand in hand with both research questions, may be formulated as follows:

- 1) The observed English teachers from both communities are expected to use their pupils' L1 when dealing with grammar.

On the basis of Littlewood & Yu's (2011) and Byram & Hu's (2017) research and findings, I hypothesize that the teachers will justify their change from the TL to the L1 by mentioning the greater easiness of the grammatical terms, as well as the facilitation effect, for the pupils, to understand the grammar topic that is dealt with. Furthermore, based on Zulfikar (2018) and Wilkerson (2008), I expect the teachers to mention the "time-saving factor", being crucial in a 50-minute class, where French/Dutch is understood more easily by the pupils. As a consequence, using pupils' (expected) L1 would fasten the understanding of grammar rules.

- 2) The observed English teachers from both communities are expected to use their pupils' L1 when giving a translation of an unknown word or expression.⁵

The teachers who would confirm this hypothesis are expected to clarify their doings by stating that some words do not necessarily have synonyms that their pupils are familiar with. Moreover, these instructors might imply the facilitator and time-saving effect of quickly switching to French/Dutch to explain or translate a word or an expression.

- 3) In both communities, the observed English teachers are expected to use their pupils' L1 more often in the 4th grade than in the 6th grade.

Considering that these two grades are composed of pupils of different levels, 4th graders are expected to be less fluent than 6th graders. In this regard, teachers may

⁵ Note that this hypothesis does exclude the fact that some teachers may give synonyms, similar expressions, "word in context" in the target language, or may make gestures to explain the unknown expression or word.

have to use their pupils' L1 more often with 4th graders, which parallels Swain & Lapkin's (2000) findings that L1 was more used with lower proficiency levels than with more advanced learners.

- 4) Considering the language closeness between Dutch and English, being both Germanic languages, the Flemish English teacher may need to switch less often to their pupils' L1 than the Walloon English teachers.

Moreover, I expect the Flemish pupils to be more in touch with the target language since a very young age than the Walloon counterparts. While the majority of cartoons, movies and films are translated and dubbed in French, it is not the case in Dutch. As a consequence, Flemish pupils may have had more input in English than the pupils from the other community. Consequently, the former pupils may be a bit more familiar with the target language than the latter. These elements may confirm the fourth hypothesis.

In short, the main reason the observed English teachers may give for switching from the target language to their pupils' (expected) L1 would be efficiency. It is not uncommon for teachers to complain about the short amount of time they are given to teach. As a matter of fact, they choose to be straightforward in order to save more time than if they taught the whole class in English.

4. Methodology

The following section outlines the various steps that were taken to answer the research questions that were introduced earlier. This section gives more precision on the way I worked to achieve the end of my research. Five steps are depicted here, namely ‘contacting schools’, ‘creating my personal observation grid’, ‘observing’, ‘interviewing the observed teachers’, and ‘analyzing the data’.

4.1. Contacting and finding the schools

The very first step of this research consisted of emailing some schools and finding teachers that met the criteria. Four main criteria are adopted in the context of this research: (1) the teacher needs to teach in both 4th and 6th grades, (2) the pupils need to have 4 hours of English a week, (3) Walloon pupils need to have English as their Second Language⁶ (ESL), and (4) all pupils need to be in General Secondary Education (GSE), also known as ‘Enseignement Général de Transition’ in Wallonia and ‘Algemeen Secundair Onderwijs’ (ASO) in Flanders.

The Walloon high schools that were contacted are all situated in the region of Charleroi, while the Flemish ones were schools that were not too far away from train stations, i.e. Leuven, Aalst and Denderleeuw.

The Walloon teachers were easier to find than the Flemish ones. Due to the pandemic, the school-specific school rules regarding trainees, and the geographical distance with Flanders, it was barely impossible to find teachers that met all the criteria. As a consequence, I had to review my initial criterion and accept that some teachers may have Walloon pupils who had English as their third language or classes which only had two hours of English a week.

Table 3 renders the teachers observed (anonymized) in both communities, the school in which they teach, and whether they fulfill the basic criteria or not. It goes without saying that I would have liked to have a greater number of teachers who would all perfectly fulfill my criteria, but due to the current epidemic situation and the classes that they were attributed to, that was not feasible.

⁶ I consider that Walloon pupils’ L1 is French, while Flemish pupils have French as their second language and English as their third language.

Criteria / characteristics	Walloon teachers			Flemish teachers		
Teacher	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4	Teacher 5	Teacher 6
School	ARJD Marcinelle	IND Loverval	Collège du Sacré- Cœur Charleroi	Sint- Pieterscollege Leuven	Sint- Jozefscollege Aalst	Leonardo College Denderleeuw
Teaches in both grades	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Teaches to pupils who have 4h/week	Yes	Yes	Yes	No, 2h/week (4th and 6th grade)	No, 3h/week (4th grade), 2h/week (6th grade)	No, 2h/week (4th grade), 3h/week (6th grade)
Walloon pupils: ESL / Flemish pupils: English L3	Yes	Yes	Not all of them (4 th ESL, 6 th L3)	Yes	Yes	Yes
General Secondary Education	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes, except for one class (TSO)

Table 3. Characteristics of the teachers observed classified by community

As shown in Table 3, the only criterion that is satisfied is the first one, i.e. all teachers observed teach in both 4th and 6th grades. All Walloon observed instructors teach 4 hours a week to both grades concerned. However, since the Flemish curriculum does not permit to have 4 hours of English a week, some classes had 2 hours a week, while others had 3. The third criterion is almost completely satisfied. All Flemish pupils as well as a Walloon classroom have English as their third language, while the rest of Walloon observed groups have English as a SL. Finally, except for one class observed, all pupils are in General Secondary Education. The exception here concerns a mixed class of 3rd and 4th graders who are in TSO, i.e. Technisch Secundair Onderwijs, which corresponds to Technical Secondary Education. Note that all Walloon teachers have French as their MT, while all Flemish teachers had Dutch as their native language. As a consequence, the six teachers observed share the same (assumed) native language as their pupils’.

4.2. Creation of the observation grid

Based on Sharma (2010), Aisyah (2016) and my previous observations in the context of my internship, Table 4 depicts the observation grid I created to observe the teachers. This grid was not exhaustive but was modified along the way, i.e. some characteristics or situations were added. It is worth mentioning that each situation does not necessarily always happen in the classroom (e.g. Introducing/closing a chapter).

Situation/Characteristics	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	...
Region (Flanders/Wallonia)			
Teacher's school			
Teacher's native language			
Grade observed (4 th /6 th)			
Pupils' level (LM1/LM2)			
Welcoming students			
Giving instructions			
Asking questions			
Providing corrective feedback			
Explaining grammar			
Explaining lexis/meaning			
Introducing/closing a chapter			
Making a comment			
Congratulating			
Checking comprehension			
Repeating students' ideas			
Saying goodbye			
Dealing with a conflict			
Answering pupils' questions			
Dealing with attendance			

Table 4. Observation grid: characteristics of the classroom and of the situations observed

As explained above, this list of characteristics (cf. Table 4) was designed in a table in order to have an overview of my data, as well as to be able to compare the different teachers more easily. Since the teachers observed are anonymized, I also added their school to differentiate them from one another.

4.3. Observations

Using my personal observation grid (Table 4), I observed each teacher for five to six periods, which lasted 50 minutes each. Note that for convenience's sake, these periods will be referred to as *hours* in this study. Two to three hours were devoted to the 4th graders, while the same amount of time was dedicated to the 6th graders. As illustrated in Table 1, Athénée Royal Jules Destrée (ARJD) of Marcinelle, Institut Notre Dame (IND) of Loverval, Collège du Sacré-Coeur (CSC) of Charleroi are, the Walloon schools in which I observed a teacher. Sint-Pieterscollege (SPC) of Leuven, Sint-Jozefscollege of Aalst and Leonardo College of Denderleeuw are the three Flemish high schools in which I observed the three other teachers. Table 5 below shows the number of hours observed according to the school and the grades.

	ARJD Marcinelle	IND Loverval	Collège du Sacré- Coeur Charleroi	Sint- Pieterscollege Leuven	Sint- Jozefscollege Aalst	Leonardo College Denderleeuw	Total
Number of hours observed in 4th grade	3	3	3	3	3	3	18
Number of hours observed in 6th grade	3	3	3	3	2	2	16
Total of hours observed	6	6	6	6	5	5	34

Table 5. Number of hours observed according to the school and grades

Table 5 clearly illustrates the amount of time spent observing the teachers. I tried to collect a balanced sample in order to have comparable data. The main reason why I only observed 5 hours in Aalst and Denderleeuw can be accounted for by timetable clashes and the pandemic.

In terms of the observations proper, I sat in the back or in the front of the classroom and took notes as accurately as possible using my observation grid. It is worth mentioning that I had to observe the teacher from Sint-Pieterscollege online only due to the fact that the school had to close because of the pandemic situation. Moreover, three hours of observation (out of 5) took place in Denderleeuw, while the two others had to be followed online for the same reason.

At first, I would time when the teachers were using their pupils' L1. However, taking notes and timing precisely all together was no easy task. Moreover, after discussing the matter with my supervisor, we quickly questioned the accuracy of my data and the lack of other materials to calculate the amount of time the teachers spoke in French or in Dutch. I was indeed not in possession of the amount of time pupils talked or worked (be it on their own, in pairs or groups), nor of the amount of time the teachers used the target language. Consequently, I reoriented the angle of my study and observed qualitatively rather than quantitatively.

During my observations, I tried to capture TT as literally as I could, i.e. I transcribed what I could hear and follow. While teachers only were observed, I sometimes transcribed what the pupils could utter in order to have as much context as possible and to be able to fully explain the situation in which the instructor and his/her pupils spoke in their (assumed) common L1.

4.4. Interviews of the teachers observed

In order to complete my observations, I interviewed all teachers in their native language, which prompts natural reactions. The aim is to illustrate, justify and clarify the results that I obtained when observing the English teachers. To proceed, the interviews, which took place online via Teams, were planned and recorded. Note that the teachers gave their oral agreement for the recording of the meeting. By documenting the interviews, I could interact more easily and not lose any piece of information. Furthermore, I could potentially ask additional questions in reaction to the teachers' answers. To guide the interviews, three neutral per teacher were written beforehand. As such, the three Flemish teachers had the same questions, while the Walloon teachers had three other questions. Note that the questions asked during the interviews can be found in Section 9, i.e. *Appendix* in both the original language (French and Dutch) and the English translation.

4.5. Data analysis

In order to analyze the data I retrieved from my observation, I created, with the help of codes, a table (cf. Table 6) that summarizes my findings. When compiling Table 6, which was a long process, I took note of the main differences, similarities and interesting tendencies that could be mentioned in my results and answer my first research question. In order to facilitate the analysis and be able to answer my research questions, this table is designed to ease the comparison between both communities and the various situations observed.

When I observed the classes, I always used my observation grid (see Table 4) in order to classify information. However, since all lessons and teachers are different, it happened that some utterances could fit two different criteria. For instance, the teacher may make a comment by asking a rhetorical question. In this case, I tagged the saying with the help of both codes, namely “Comm” and “Q?”. In order to be as precise as possible, each hour observed is summarized in the table, according to the teacher.

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																		
School observed		ARID Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SJC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw						
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2
Welcoming pupils	W	E	E	X	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	FR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	X	
Giving instructions	Ins	E	E	EFR	E	E	E	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	FR	EFR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	E	E	E
Asking questions	Q?	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	E	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	
Providing corrective feedback	Fb	X	E	X	E	X	X	X	FR	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	ED
Explaining grammar	Gr	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	FR	FR	FR	X	X	FR	X	FR	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	ED	X	X	E		
Explaining lexis/meaning	Lex	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	X	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	X	X	E	E	X	E	X	X	E	X	X	X	ED	ED	X	ED				
Introducing/closing a chapter	Chap	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	E	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	
Making a comment	Comm	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	ED	ED	ED	ED	
Congratulating	Cong	EFR	E	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	X	X	FR	FR	EFR	E	E	X	E	E	E	E	X	X	E	X	E	X	E	X	E	X	E	X	E	X	E	
Checking comprehension	Check	E	E	E	EFR	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	X	X	FR	E	EFR	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	E	X	X	X	
Repeating students' ideas	R	E	E	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	E	X	D	X	E		
Saying goodbye	Bye	E	E	E	E	X	X	X	E	FR	FR	X	X	X	FR	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	X	X	E	E	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E		
Dealing with a conflict (=Argument)	Arg	X	FR	X	X	FR	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	X	X	X		
Answering pupils' questions	Ans?	FR	EFR	X	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	FR	X	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	E	E	E	D	X	E	X		
Dealing with attendance (=absent)	Abs	FR	X	FR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	E	FR	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	E	X		

Table 6. Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed

As Table 6 shows, I chose various letters with correlating colors, each corresponding to a language. As such, I could annotate when the instructor spoke in either French (FR), Dutch (D) and/or English (E). In the case the teacher used both languages, both symbols were retrieved, i.e. *EFR* or *ED*. Nevertheless, since such observation criteria are a bit artificial and caricatural, some of the situations could not always be observed for each hour. In this case scenario, I grayed out the box and

added an “X”. Moreover, it worth noting that since this masters’ dissertation is based on a qualitative study, I excluded numbers as it may be misleading at some point. The second column (white) corresponds to the codes/symbols I used when annotating my observation grids. For practical matters, note that this table is reproduced in Section 9, i.e. *Appendix*.

All hours observed were retrieved in this table. Nonetheless, for the IND Loverval I grouped two hours into one, as I did not distinguish both periods in my observation notes because they were taught in a row, which explains this slight difference.

This section rounds off the methodological part, while the following one (Section 5) is devoted to the results and discussion of my observations. Since this dissertation is based on qualitative research both the results and the discussion form one section.

5. Results and discussion

This section presents and discusses the results of the observations realized in the six schools. The first subsection deals with the general observations that summarize what can be visually analyzed in Table 6 (cf. Subsection 4.5.). Furthermore, *Welcoming pupils* and *Saying goodbye* are grouped in one subsection (i.e. *Greeting pupils: welcoming and saying goodbye*) since they showed similar results. However, as the other situations observed reveal different aspects, they will all be analyzed separately, each corresponding to a subsection. While analyzing my notes, I noted that the teachers made jokes or humoristic comments. Since I found this interesting, I mentioned it in the interviews. As I collected data and explanation on the subject, the last subsection is dedicated to *humor in the classroom*. Note that all statements that are in Dutch or in French are translated into English in the footnotes.

Furthermore, note that since the category *Introducing/closing a chapter* could only be observed five times and only in Flanders, no subsection can therefore be devoted to it, as a comparison with Wallonia is not feasible. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that all Flemish teachers introduced their chapters in the target language. Similarly, as the category *Dealing with a conflict* could only be observed five times, this matter will not be discussed further.

Finally, remember that this master's dissertation is a qualitative study based on six Belgian teachers. Considering the fact that the number of participants is limited to three per community, the tendencies revealed could be slightly different if the study was reproduced.

5.1. General observations

Based on Table 7, which is a copy of Table 6, these general observations describe the broad tendencies of the languages used in both communities. It is worth noting that more details, nuance, and illustrations are to be found in the following subsections.

Community		Wallonia												Flanders											
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Lovreval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven					
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1
Welcoming pupils	W	E	E	X	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	FR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
Giving instructions	Ins	E	E	EFR	E	E	E	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	FR	EFR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
Asking questions	Q?	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	E	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	E
Providing corrective feedback	Fb	X	E	X	E	X	X	X	FR	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Explaining grammar	Gr	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	FR	FR	FR	X	X	FR	X	FR	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	X	X
Explaining lexis/meaning	Lex	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	X	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	X	X	E	E	X	X	E
Introducing/closing a chapter	Chap	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	E	X	X	X	X
Making a comment	Comm	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
Congratulating	Cong	EFR	E	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	X	X	FR	FR	EFR	E	E	X	E	E	E	E	X	E	X
Checking comprehension	Check	E	E	E	EFR	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	X	X	FR	E	EFR	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X
Repeating students' ideas	R	E	E	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	E
Saying goodbye	Bye	E	E	E	E	X	X	X	E	FR	FR	X	X	X	FR	X	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	X	E
Dealing with a conflict (=argument)	Arg	X	FR	X	X	FR	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X
Answering pupils' questions	Ans?	FR	EFR	X	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	FR	X	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
Dealing with attendance (=absent)	Abs	FR	X	FR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	E	FR	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X

Table 7. Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed

First of all, we can notice that all situations could not always be observed (cf. gray X cases in Table 7) since it depends on the activities and on the interaction in class. Some criteria such as *Introducing a chapter* and *Dealing with a conflict* could rarely be observed, for instance. The former was observed barely five times and only in Flanders. This kind of phenomenon fairly illustrates the fact that such an observation grid does not completely correspond to the reality but helps to guide the process of data collection.

Secondly, Table 7 shows that, despite the fact that Flemish pupils have English as their third language, while it is the Walloons' L2, the target language (i.e. English) was much more used in Flanders than in Wallonia. Moreover, the number of cases in which the pupils' mother tongue (only) was used (cf. *FR* or *D* in Table 7) in class appears to be very rare in Flanders, while it is a prominent scenario in Wallonia. These observations confirm what was put forward by many researchers such as Peters et al. (2020: 12). They stated that thanks to the contact that Flemish pupils have with the target language outside of school (e.g. series, film, songs, radio, etc.) , they have a better level than the French speakers of the country. They further posit (ibid.: 16) that thanks to the daily contact with English via the television and the radio, pupils' level increases. In addition to that, they mention the closeness of these two Germanic languages (ibid.) as a factor that might facilitate the learning process. There appears to be more cognates between Dutch and English than between French and English. In the interview, the teacher from SPC Leuven cited the same reasons that explain the difference in level between both communities. The teacher further stated that this discrepancy had an impact on the languages used in class. Moreover, the presence of

both the TL and the MT within the same situation can be more frequently observed in Wallonia than in Flanders, which confirms the fourth hypothesis introduced in Subsection 3.2. By way of reminder, the hypothesis was formulated as follows: “Considering the language closeness between Dutch and English, being both Germanic languages, the Flemish English teacher may need to switch less often to their pupils’ L1 than the Walloon English teachers.”. In short, Walloon pupils’ native language was more used in the English classroom than Dutch in Flanders.

Thirdly, Table 7 shows that the languages used in class are proper to the teacher and do not necessarily vary according to the level of the pupils. In this way, if the teacher observed uses the TL only, s/he does so in all classes at all levels. What is more, the table shows that the teacher from IND Loverval had very few situations in which s/he used the TL only. The one exception is for the teacher from CSC Charleroi, who uses more English with the 6th graders than with the 4th grade. In this regard, this teacher, along with the teacher from SJC Aalst mentioned in their interview that they consciously adapted their level and amount of L1 according to the level. As such, they both reported that they switch more often to the pupils’ L1 in 4th grade than in the 6th grade, but only when they saw that pupils did not understand what they were asked to do. Furthermore, it appears that, when possible, they asked other pupils to translate in order to avoid using the L1 themselves.

Finally, it appears that besides pupils’ mother tongue and the target language, no other foreign languages were used in the English classroom. As such, a Walloon teacher did not utter a word of Dutch in his English class, while none of the Flemish teacher used French. Based on my personal experience as a high school student, I expected that a Walloon teacher may make a link between both Germanic languages, when giving the translation of a word or when explaining a grammar point, but it did not occur.

5.2. Greeting pupils: welcoming and saying goodbye

Broadly speaking, as Table 8 shows, both *Welcoming pupils* and *Saying goodbye* took mainly place in English. In this regard, there is no exception for Flanders. As an example, the teacher from SPC Leuven, who I observed online, would greet his/her pupils by saying “Hello. Could you turn on your camera?”. Note that her greeting was directly followed by a question. Furthermore, the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle

welcomed his/her pupils by stating “Good morning. Sit down”. Not surprisingly, the *Welcoming pupils* situation was relatively short and very often followed by either a question and/or an instruction.

On the other hand, it appears that the teacher from IND Loverval always welcomed his/her 6th graders in their native language. For example, the teacher would say: “Vous pouvez entrer, hein. Vous serez mieux que dehors dans le froid⁷.” or “Bon alors, asseyez-vous.⁸”. As a consequence, as far as these greeting situations are concerned, the teacher did not adapt his/her language use according to his/her pupils’ level.

Community	Wallonia																							
	ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven					
	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th
Grade observed	1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1
Hour n°X observed	1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1
Welcoming pupils	W	E	E	X	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	FR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
Saying goodbye	Bye	E	E	E	E	X	X	E	FR	FR	X	X	FR	X	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	X	X	E

Table 8. Language(s) used by the teachers when greeting the pupils

Furthermore, as stated earlier, all Flemish teachers said goodbye to their pupils in English. As such, the teacher from SJC Aalst would say “See you next week! Bye.” for example. As Table 8 shows, the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle proceeded only in English as well in this case. However, both other Walloon teachers sometimes said goodbye in French by stating, for example, “Au revoir, à tantôt. Bon appétit.⁹” (IND Loverval). Nonetheless, the only time when the teacher from CSC Charleroi said goodbye in French, was when the bell rang while s/he was still explaining the tenses in French. My hypothesis here is that since s/he was busy explaining the conditional in his/her native language and hurried by the time, s/he continued his/her momentum and kept the pupils’ MT.

⁷ My translation: “You can come in, you know. You’ll be better than outside in the cold.”

⁸ My translation: “Well, sit down.”

⁹ My translation: “Goodbye, see you soon. Enjoy your meal/lunch.”

5.3. Giving instructions

The general tendencies for this situation are quite similar to the ones in the previous subsection. As Table 9 shows it, the Flemish teachers always used English, except for the teacher from Leonardo College Denderleeuw who gave two instructions in Dutch, while giving more than ten instructions in the TL during the hour concerned. Note that Dutch was used in a class with both 3rd and 4th graders. Interestingly, the teacher switched to Dutch when addressing the 3rd year students. S/He uttered: “4th year, I want you to take a piece of paper, you’re going to do the test. 3rd year, pack een bladje papier en je mag zelfstandig werken.¹⁰” Here, we can clearly notice that depending on the pupils’ level, the teacher adapts his/her language. In this case, s/he used the pupils’ mother tongue. However, other strategies than translating could be used: paraphrasing, using synonyms, showing, asking a pupil to explain what the class is supposed to be doing, etc. Note that the other example will be discussed in the *Explaining grammar* subsection (i.e. 5.6.) as it includes both situations.

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																	
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SIC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw					
Grade observed		4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th					
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3				
Giving instructions	Ins	E	E	EFR	E	E	E	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	FR	EFR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	E	E	E	

Table 9. Language(s) used by the teachers when giving instructions

Teacher talk in Wallonia, however, showed more diversity in the sense that all teachers used French, but some used the language more often than others. Similar to the teacher previously mentioned, the instructor from ARJD Marcinelle gave very rarely instructions in the pupils’ MT. The only case in which s/he used French when giving instructions was during a grammar activity. After giving some examples of uncountable nouns in French, the teacher asked for more examples. S/He said: “Trouvez-moi d’autres exemples. Tout ce qui est boisson, c’est généralement indénombrable.¹¹” All utterances (dealing with grammar) that surrounded this example took place in French. Furthermore, in his/her interview, the teacher explained that when s/he gives a slightly more complicated task, s/he always tries to first explain it in English. If the teacher sees that the pupils do not seem to understand, s/he asks “one of the best pupils” to explain in French what they are supposed to do. If the designated student forgets some

¹⁰ My translation: “(...) take a sheet of paper and you can work on your own.”

¹¹ My translation: “Give me other examples. Everything dealing with beverages is generally uncountable.”

elements, the teacher confessed that s/he translates him/herself. The instructor further clarified that s/he proceeds this way in order to make sure that the pupils understand and undertake the task as well as possible.

Opposed to this teacher, the teacher from IND Loverval used very little English in class, all situations combined. When giving an instruction in English, this teacher automatically translated his/her statement into French or switched from one language to another within the same sentence. For example, s/he would say: “Prenez la page 23, donc twenty-three. Allez Marie, rapproche toi puisque tu n’as pas ton livre. Tu regardes avec quelqu’un. Dépêche-toi, hurry up.¹²”. In this case, which is not isolated, the teacher uses both the TL and pupils’ MT within the same sentence. Note that French is mainly present and always followed by English, but not the other way around. Next to “Please take this sheet I gave you. It’s with the fill in exercises.”, these two examples are the only ones containing the TL for the six hours observed. Furthermore, in his/her interview, the teacher maintains that using pupils’ MT is a beneficial for three reasons: i.e. it saves time, the instructions are clear(er) and the contact with the pupils is more natural. As a consequence, s/he argues that by using French mainly, s/he does not lose his/her audience. The teacher further explains that since 50% of the certification tasks, i.e. the answers of the listening and reading comprehensions, take place in the pupils’ mother tongue, it seems “logical” (to him/her) to use the pupils’ L1 so often in the classroom.

Another scenario was observed in CSC Charleroi, where the teacher used consistently more French in 4th grade than in 6th grade. As such, all instructions were given in English for the 6th graders, while the presence of the pupils’ MT was more limited in 4th grade. It is worth noting that Table 9 may sometimes be slightly misleading as it does not show how many utterances were retrieved for each situation. In this way, although the 2nd hour observed in 4th grade is ticked as *FR*, only one instruction was retrieved for this period. Moreover, the other cases (i.e. *EFR*) reveal code-switching. As such, the teacher appears to switch to his/her pupils’ MT when getting bossy or when translating an unusual word s/he used in his/her instructions. The former case can be illustrated by this statement: “Ok, back to your seat. [The teacher waits a few seconds] Bon les gars, on s’assied. Les mouchoirs, je vous les apporterai¹³. [Bossy

¹² My translation: “Take you book page 23, so *twenty-three*. Come on Marie, come closer since you don’t have your book. Look with someone. Hurry up, *hurry up*.”

¹³ My translation: “(...) Well guys, sit down. The tissues, I’ll bring them.”

tone]”. This instruction was uttered in the context of a noisy class, where five pupils were standing in the middle of the room and not reacting to the teacher’s request. In this case, the instructor might feel more powerful and bossier when switching language to get his/her pupils’ attention. Furthermore, this teacher switched shortly to French in order to translate a verb considered unknown. As illustration, s/he declared: “I want you to look into the grammar and write the past simple, the past continuous and the present perfect. Try to spot them. Essayez de les retrouver.¹⁴”. However, it is worth noting that when the teacher used only the TL to give instructions, many occurrences were retrieved from the data.

In short, it appears that the three Flemish teachers and the instructor from ARJD Marcinelle mainly used the target language when giving instructions. Furthermore, the Walloon teacher from Loverval used very little English, while the teacher from Charleroi seemed to switch from English to French when having to show authority or giving the translation of an unknown word.

5.4. Asking questions

Along with the previous subsection (i.e. *Giving instructions*), *Asking questions* is one of the most observed categories. These findings echo numerous research (e.g. Cullen, 1998; Ellis, 2011; Putri, 2015; Aisyah, 2016) in which the authors state that the most prominent category of teacher talk deals with the teacher asking questions to the pupils. Furthermore, Ellis (2011: 120) posits that “teachers, whether in content classrooms or language classrooms, typically ask a lot of questions.”. It appears that this category is extremely large as it encompasses all questions the teachers asked to their pupils. As such, questions can be found in many different categories such as *Explaining grammar*, *Checking comprehension*, *Dealing with attendance*, etc. Consequently, it is not an easy task to draw clear conclusions for this subsection. Therefore, general tendencies and some examples can be revealed.

As for the preceding subsection, all Flemish teachers asked questions in the target language (cf. Table 10), except for one short question, i.e. “An, wil je het misschien doen?¹⁵”, that the teacher from Leonardo College said. No clear explanation

¹⁴ My translation: “(...) Try to find them.”

¹⁵ My translation: “An, do you want to do it maybe?”

can be given for this exceptional use of the pupils' mother tongue, as the Flemish teachers used English exclusively. Furthermore, it appears that even when the teacher asks a question in the TL and that the pupils answer in their mother tongue, the instructor keeps using English. For instance, the teacher from SJC Aalst said: "Everything ok Leonie?", while the pupil answered: "Nee, die werkt gewoon nie. Ik moet een minuut wachten.¹⁶" to which the instructor replied: "That's fine, we'll wait a minute then."

Community	Wallonia																		Flanders											
School observed	ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SJC Aalst					
Grade observed	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	6th
Hour n°X observed	1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1
Asking questions	Q?	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	E	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	X	E	E	E	E

Table 10. Language(s) used by the teachers when asking questions

Generally speaking, as Table 10 illustrates it, the Walloon teachers used both pupils' L1 and the TL for this category. However, it appears that depending on the situation, they seemed to prefer using a language over the other. In this way, if an instructor is busy correcting an exercise in French, s/he will typically ask the questions in the same language. The same scenario can be observed for the TL. For example, when the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle was dealing with grammar, s/he asked "Quelle elle est différence entre un comparatif et un superlatif?¹⁷". Note that an entire subsection (cf. 5.6.) is devoted to grammar. Moreover, the Walloon teachers used the pupils' MT when asking for a translation or checking the comprehension of a word: "Ca veut dire quoi *required*? [Pupils answer in French] Oui, c'est ça.¹⁸".

However, it appears that the amount of TL for this category very much varies in function of the teacher. While both teachers from ARJD Marcinelle and CSC Charleroi mainly used English when asking questions (e.g. "Which chapter are we working on?", "Which words do you remember from the list?"), the teacher from IND Loverval mainly used pupils' L1. For example, s/he would ask a pupil to hand out the sheets in French. Furthermore, the rare situations in which s/he spoke the TL, s/he spontaneously translated what s/he uttered, for instance, "*Why is his job hard?* Pourquoi c'est difficile son job?¹⁹". Note that because of the immediate translation, pupils did not have the

¹⁶ My translation: "No, it doesn't work. I have to wait a minute."

¹⁷ My translation: "What is the difference between a comparative and a superlative?"

¹⁸ My translation: "What does *required* mean? [Pupils answer in French] Yes, that's it."

¹⁹ My translation: "*Why is his job hard?* Why is it difficult his job?"

time to think nor to answer in the TL. As a consequence, the pupils only replied in their mother tongue. However, when the pupils were debating, the teacher interacted in English with them and even added some humorous notes (for more explanations and examples on humor, cf. Subsection 5.14). As such s/he asked “What is your favorite subject at school besides English, since it’s the best course?”.

To sum up, *Asking questions* is the most prominent category observed in this study, thereby confirming what previous research has shown. Moreover, it is worth remembering that teachers asked questions in many different situations, as this category is quite broad. Additionally, it appears that the Flemish teachers used the TL almost entirely when asking questions, while it varied from a teacher to another in Wallonia.

5.5. Providing corrective feedback

Conclusions cannot be drawn from this subsection as only a few cases could be retrieved when observing. However, as Table 11 shows, the languages used in class by the various teachers seem to follow the same path as in the section previously discussed.

Community		Wallonia															Flanders																			
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle					IND Lovreval					CSC Charleroi					SPC Leuven					SIC Aalst					Leonardo College Denderleeuw									
Grade observed		4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Providing corrective feedback	Fb	X	E	X	E	X	X		FR	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	E	E

Table 11. Language(s) used by the teachers when providing corrective feedback

When providing corrective feedback to his/her pupils, the teacher from SPC Leuven repeated what a pupil said either literally or with other words. Note that this category was observed only once as the teacher taught online. As such, s/he interacted less with the pupils, as s/he confessed during the interview. Furthermore, the teacher from Leonardo College used English when correcting an exercise. To do so, s/he gave the right answer orally. The only time s/he used pupils’ MT was in 6th grade where s/he said “De twaalf is *statement* en dertien is *deposit*.²⁰”. In this case, the class was correcting a fill-in the blank exercise, but had some issue finding the correct answer. To clarify and resolve the ambiguity, the teacher spoke a few words of Dutch. Of note, all the other statements were in the TL.

²⁰ My translation: “[Number] twelve is *statement* and [number] thirteen is *deposit*.”

Typically, when providing feedback, the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle repeated what a pupil said and put emphasis on what was wrong in the pronunciation. On the other side, the two other Walloon teachers used French when correcting. The teacher from IND Loverval gave all the answers of the listening comprehension in French. S/He explained this habit by stating that since pupils have to answer in their L1 for the receptive skills tests, s/he proceeds the same way in class. Finally, the teacher from CSC Charleroi used the pupils' MT when correcting an exercise, rectifying pronunciation, giving some precision about a word or a grammar point, or summarizing what has been said in a listening comprehension. As such, s/he said: "Non, pas *you couLd* [teacher puts the emphasis on the "l"]. *You could* [Teacher pronounces properly], sans le "l" prononcé.²¹". As shown in this example, the teacher speaks French when putting the emphasis on the way *could* should be pronounced. Furthermore, after some pupils gave their answer (which was expected in French) in the context of a listening exercise, s/he summarized the content by stating "Voilà. En Europe, ils disent qu'on va travailler dans différents endroits, alors qu'au Japon, ils doivent trouver un bon travail qu'ils vont garder toute leur vie.²²".

In short, depending on the teacher, the activity and the context, one teacher might use the TL while the other may use pupils' MT.

5.6. Explaining grammar

In this subsection, a clear-cut can be drawn between both communities (cf. Table 12). In order to teach grammar, all Walloon teachers exclusively used French, while all Flemish instructors used English. Accordingly, the first hypothesis cannot entirely be verified, since it stated that pupils' L1 would be used in both communities when dealing with grammar. Additionally, in their interview, all Walloon teachers mentioned that they automatically and deliberately switched to their pupils' L1 when working on grammar. This echoes what Mitchell (1988) and Liu et al. (2004) revealed in their studies. Furthermore, all Walloon teachers argued that their pupils' level of grammar, even in their mother tongue, was so low that they would not understand if the lesson was given in the TL. Opposed to the Walloon teachers, the Flemish instructors stated that they

²¹ My translation: "No, not *you couLd*. *You could*, without the "l" pronounced."

²² My translation: "That's it. In Europe, they say you go working in different places, whereas in Japan, they have to find a good job that they're going to keep all their life."

all teach their grammar activities in English. They, however, confessed that they sometimes translate the name of a tense for the pupils to compare with their native language.

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																			
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loviersal						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SIC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw							
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th		
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Explaining grammar	Gr	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	FR	FR	FR	X	X	FR	X	FR	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	E	ED	X	X	X	E		

Table 12. Language(s) used by the teachers when explaining grammar

As Table 12 shows, grammatical explanations were more common in 4th grade than in 6th grade, and such in both communities. This finding could be justified by the fact the pupils sitting in 4th grade are assumed to have a lower proficiency level than 6th graders. Consequently, the latter needs fewer grammatical explanations than the former. Moreover, it is worth noting that the program in 4th grade requires more grammatical lessons than in the last grade.

Furthermore, examples are necessary to illustrate the findings and show how contrasted the communities are in this regard. Underneath, examples (1) and (2) are transcriptions of grammatical lessons and interactions between the Walloon teachers and their pupils. Note that the translations can be found in the footnotes.

This first example (1) comes from ARJD Marcinelle. The teacher is dealing with countable and uncountable nouns. Note that in the first sentence, s/he code-switched. Interestingly, s/he gives mnemonic techniques to remember when to use *much* and *many*.

- (1) “Alors, normalement, vous devriez avoir vu les mots comptables et *uncountable*. Vous vous souvenez de *much* et *many* ? *Much* pour le prix. Pourquoi? [Pupils answer in French] *Much*, *u* comme *uncountable*. Vous entourez le petit *u* et vous reprenez *uncountable*. [...] Si je vous dis du lait, on ne peut pas dire un lait, deux lait, on dit une brique de lait ou beaucoup de lait. Avec lait, on utilise *much*.²³”

²³ My translation: "So, normally, you should have seen the countable and *uncountable* words. Do you remember *much* and *many*? *Much* for the price. Why? [Pupils answer in French] *Much*, *u* like in *uncountable*. You circle the little *u* and you remember *uncountable*. [...] If I tell you milk, you can't say one milk, two milk, you say a carton of milk or a lot of milk. With milk, we use *much*."

This second example depicts the teacher from CSC Charleroi, who introduces his/her grammar lesson by reactivating pupils' prior knowledge. Based on a text, the pupils needed to identify the different tenses and tell how they were formed. In another grammatical activity, this teacher explicitly uttered in pupils' L1 that they were learning a new tense and that they would deal with it exclusively in that language. Interestingly, in this example (2) below, along with others, the teacher keeps the grammatical terms in English, e.g. *past perfect*, *phrasal verb*, *present perfect*, etc.

- (2) “On se souvient la règle pour le passé simple ? Donc c’est +*ed* ou alors on prend le TP si c’est un irrégulier. Alors, le *past perfect*, c’est un temps qu’on a pas encore vu. On avait vu le *present perfect*. Vous vous souvenez de comment on le forme? [A pupil answers in French] Donc le *past perfect*, c’est *have* au passé avec un participe passé. Qui sait me trouver un exemple? [Pupil: *Had been stolen*] Donc ici, c’est un passif : a été volé. Qu’est-ce qu’on a d’autre comme *past perfect*? [Pupil : *had broken*] C’est actif ou passif ? [Pupil: actif] Très bien. Alors, c’est un *phrasal verb* donc il manque un morceau [Pupil: *down, had broken down*].²⁴”

The following examples, i.e. (3), (4) and (5), are retrieved from the observed lessons in Flanders. Interestingly, one of them gives slightly more details on the actual use of the tenses discussed. As such, the teacher in example (3) illustrates the difference in use of the past simple between American English (AmE) and British English (BrE) for instance.

- (3) “When you talk about something that happened in the past that is still true today, you use the present perfect. AmE uses the past simple much more than BrE, who [sic] uses the present perfect. There is a link between the past and the

²⁴ My translation: “Do we remember the rule for the simple past? So, it's +*ed* or we take the TP [irregular past participle] if it's an irregular. So, the *past perfect* is a tense that we haven't seen yet. We had seen the present perfect. Do you remember how it is formed? [A pupil answers in French] So the *past perfect* is *have* in the past with a past participle. Who can give me an example? [Pupil: *Had been stolen*] So here, it's a passive: *had been stolen*. What else do we have as a *past perfect*? [Pupil: *had broken*] Is it active or passive? [Pupil: active] Very good. So, it's a *phrasal verb* so there is a missing piece [Pupil: *down, had broken down*]. ”.

present. Or it can be a finished action with a result in the present. (Gives an example). You have words like just, recently, already. The difference with the continuous, you want to stress the activity that you have been doing for a certain time.”

Moreover, the following example (4) is a transcription from Leonardo College. In this case, the teacher explains the difference between *will* and *going to*. Interestingly, s/he gives further nuances by mentioning the use of *may* and *might*.

- (4) “This is the difference between *I will* and *I am going to*. *I will* is for spontaneous decisions and *going to* is for something that will certainly happen. When you make predictions based on evidence, you use *going to*. When you are uncertain, you use *may* and when you’re less certain, you use *might*. These are all modals as well. Don’t confuse with *should*.”

Finally, example (5) illustrates the only sentence that was uttered in Dutch when dealing with grammar. It is worth noting that this situation was observed in a mixed class of both 3rd and 4th graders in Leonardo College. With this class, it appears clearly that the teacher adapts his/her language use accordingly to the level. In this statement, the teacher translates *irregular* and gives a piece of advice to the pupil. The “list”, to which the instructor refers, corresponds to a table composed of four columns with common used irregular verbs. The first column corresponds to the infinitive, the second one to the past form of the verb, while the third one contains the past participle. Lastly, while the fourth column is optional, it is usually completed with the translation of the verb.

- (5) “Yes, so for the regular verbs, you have to add *-ed* [...]. This one is irregular, *dus onregelmatig, kijk eens in de lijst*.²⁵”

To sum up, this category is the most polarized observed between both communities. As such, there is a clear distinction between Wallonia, where grammar is exclusively taught in French, while the complete opposite was observed in Flanders,

²⁵ My translation: “[...] so irregular, check the list.”

i.e. the grammar was entirely given in the TL. This implies that the first hypothesis is only verified for the Walloon teachers, but not for the Flemish community.

5.7. Explaining meaning

On the basis of Table 13, we can notice that this category was observed almost systematically in Wallonia, while it only occurred seven times in Flanders. Based on the general observations, I witnessed that Flemish pupils' proficiency was higher than the Walloon's pupils' proficiency, which can be explained, as illustrated in the state of the art, by the great amount of input in the TL in Flanders. As a consequence, one could argue that the Flemish teachers rely less on explanations and translations of words, as pupils are more familiar with the English language. Moreover, the closeness between Dutch and the target language may also ease the understanding of words and expressions. Finally, the Flemish teachers stated in their interview that they promote as much TL as possible in their classroom. As such, this declaration is clearly visible in their practice.

Community		Wallonia															Flanders														
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle					IND Loverval					CSC Charleroi					SPC Leuven					SIC Aalst					Leonardo College Denderleeuw				
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Explaining lexis/meaning	Lex	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	X	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	X	X	E	E	X	E	X	X	X	E	X	E	

Table 13. Language(s) used by the teachers when explaining meaning

While the second hypothesis was formulated as follows: "The observed English teachers from both communities are expected to use their pupils' L1 when giving a translation for an unknown word or expression.". This supposition was partially confirmed in that four different approaches to the explanation of a word or expression were observed: (1) explaining with the help of a synonym or a definition, (2) asking the pupils the meaning of the word or the expression, (3) giving the translation right away, (4) using gestures. In order to illustrate the various explanations, examples are given according to each approach. Note that, generally speaking, the Walloon teachers resort to the use of pupils' L1 by translating or asking for the problematic word or expression, while the Flemish teachers tended to give synonyms or define the word in the TL. Furthermore, the tendency the Walloon teachers adopted can be linked with one of Schweers' (1999: 7) cases in which teachers are more likely to use their pupils' L1, namely *checking for sense*.

Note that these three examples (6, 7, 8) were only found in Flanders. As such, it never happened in Wallonia that a teacher gave synonyms nor a definition to a word in the TL.

(6) “*Crooked* means bent or curved.”

(7) “*To supersede* means to replace something with something higher.”

(8) “*Logger* is a typical English beer, as Stella, but it is not as strong as Stella, and that’s why the English are drunk when they come here.”

Furthermore, the following examples (9, 10, 11) could be observed in both communities, but mainly in Wallonia. In this case, when a pupil asks the meaning of a word, the teacher questions the classroom. This technique is an optimal solution for the teacher to avoid translating him/herself and have the pupils to participate. Furthermore, it is an effective approach to activate the students’ knowledge.

(9) “What are *assumptions*? [Pupils answer in Dutch, the teacher repeats their answer:] *lets willen veronderstellen, ja.*”

(10) “What’s a *cellar*? [Pupils answer in Dutch, the teacher repeats their answer:] *A kelder, yeah.*”

(11) “What is a *shelter*? [Pupils answer in French, the teacher repeats their answer:] *Un abris.*”

Moreover, it is worth noting that this third category was only observed in Wallonia and particularly in the IND Loverval. As such, the teacher typically translated what s/he read right after uttering the sentence or the word. However, it is important to mention that in his/her interview, this teacher explicitly said that pupils love translations as they give them a feeling of “security”. S/He further argues that “La traduction est scolaire et les élèves sont habitués aux pratiques scolaires. Le fait de pouvoir vérifier et connaître la traduction est sécurisant.²⁶”. In addition to this, the teacher firmly posits that “understanding globally” does not exist, and that s/he wants vocabulary with “systematic translations”. In short, according to him/her, translation is the key for the pupils to be able to follow the class and become more proficient. His/Her view is clearly reflected in the approaches in class. In many cases, the teacher was reading a text out loud in the TL and immediately translating the words that s/he assumed to be unknown.

²⁶ My translation: “Translation is academic, and students are used to academic practices. The fact that they can check and know the translation is reassuring.”

Note that most examples below (12, 13, 14) are taken from the observation in his/her classroom. Furthermore, the last example shows code-switching between both the TL and pupils' L1.

(12) “*To swear*, jurer dans le sens dire des grossiers mots.²⁷”

(13) “*Taste* veut dire ? Le goût.²⁸”

(14) “*The woman* était *trapped*, ça veut dire... Coincée. Donc elle était piégée, coincée sous le *billboard*.²⁹”

Finally, the last approach could only be observed with the teacher from CSC Charleroi. S/He used gesture in order to avoid translating, but also to illustrate a word or an expression (cf. examples 15 and 16). Note that this approach echoes Jing & Jing (2018: 322), who stated that *non-verbal discourse* is part of teacher talk. They further posit that it “refers to the body language that goes together with teacher talk” (ibid.).” Note that besides using gestures to mimic a word or an expression, the teacher used this technique to show authority.

(15) “To climb the ladder [The teacher does as if s/he was doing the action of climbing on a ladder].”

(16) “What is a *glimpse*? [The teacher mimics the way of looking through something].”

In short, the second hypothesis was partially verified in the sense that not all teachers translated an unknown word or expression. Most Flemish teachers used synonyms and definitions to explain a concept or a word. On the other side, all Walloon teachers used translations, sometimes by asking the pupils. Although gestures were only used by one teacher, it is worth pointing out this efficient approach as it avoids having recourse to the pupils' L1. However, not all words and expressions permit the use of non-verbal discourse.

²⁷ My translation: “*To swear*, [means] to swear but in the sense using offensive language”. Note that the verb “*jur*er” in French could also mean “to promise”. That explains why the teacher gives further explanation.

²⁸ My translation: “What does *taste* mean? Taste [said in French].”

²⁹ My translation: “The woman was *trapped*, it means... trapped. So she was trapped, stuck under the *billboard*.”

5.8. Making comments

While reading through my observation notes, I noticed that many examples for the six teachers were retrieved for this category. This subsection is divided into several categories as all examples concerned different types of comment. As such, I identified six categories of comments, namely the *comments related to teachers' opinion*, the *disciplinary comments*, the *comments on the time*, the *comments regarding a task*, the *comments based on the teachers' observations*, and the *organizational comments* (i.e. the comments dealing with the organization of the activities carried out in class). Note that the first subsection (i.e. 5.8.1.) deals with the *general observations*, which are based on the Table 14 and the general findings.

5.8.1. General observations

Based on Table 14, general tendencies can be revealed. The main point that can be made here is that there is a clear distinction in the languages used by teachers between the two communities. Although one can notice that English is still dominant in Flanders, *Making comments* is the first category in which Dutch was so present. However, it appears that, in both communities, the languages used are very proper to the teacher observed. As such, the teacher from IND Loverval only used French to make comments, while the teachers from SPC Leuven and SJC Aalst only used the target language, for instance. Furthermore, the other teachers seem to use both the TL and the pupils' MT.

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																	
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SJC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw					
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	h (+3)	4th	6th	6th	
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Making a comment	Comm	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	ED	ED	ED		

Table 14. Language(s) used by the teachers when making a comment

In Wallonia, both teachers from ARJD Marcinelle and CSC Charleroi seemed to try to use the TL but used the pupils' MT when getting irritated or commenting on disciplinary issues (cf. 5.8.3. for examples). This observation does not completely reflect what is shown in Table 14 for the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle. It is worth noting that this teacher did not appear to have a lot of patience and that the pupils were not quite disciplined. Consequently, most of his/her comments dealt with discipline, and s/he used mainly French.

5.8.2. Teachers' personal opinions

This category confirms what was stated in the previous subsection (i.e. 5.8.1. General observations) in the way that all examples retrieved for this category of comments follow the same tendencies as the ones displayed in Table 14. As such, when giving their personal opinion, the teacher from SPC Leuven commented in English, while both teachers from ARJD Marcinelle and IND Loverval used the pupils' L1. These observations are illustrated in the following examples. Example (17) refers to a task the teacher from SPC Leuven asked. The pupils had to read a book and watch the film adaptation of it in the order they want to. However, the teacher gave his/her opinion on which medium s/he would consult first. The second example, i.e. example (18), is the comment this teacher made after correcting a task that his/her pupils had to carry out.

(17) "I think it's better if you read the book first."

(18) "Reading all your comments and reviews on the series was very interesting. I guess a lot of you love watching action movies. You all had different opinions, and it's nice to see and read. Thank you for that."

The example below, i.e. (19), was in the context of a discussion concerning the "Rhéto Trophée", a run organized by the seniors. The teacher was surprised that the pupils participating had to run 3 km only.

(19) "Trois kilomètres ! C'est une blague? C'est pas juste courir sur un chemin ? [...] Bien entendu, mais trois kilomètres c'est rien du tout. Mais bon, un trail, c'est minimum cinq kilomètres normalement. C'est étrange. Et il n'y avait pas plus que trois? Pour les rhétos?³⁰"

Example (20) depicts what the teacher from IND Loverval said. S/he asked the pupils to give a few titles of music they liked in order to sing in class. S/he did not support some of them, as the lyrics were either offensive or dealing with sex and/or drugs.

³⁰ My translation: "Three kilometers! Is this a joke? It's not just running on a path? [...] Of course, but three kilometers is nothing. Well, a trail is normally at least five kilometers. It's strange. And there was no more than three? For the seniors?"

- (20) “Je dois censurer vos musiques. Certaines parlent de sortir de la *came* en entrant dans le café. Ça ne va pas.”³¹”

In short, these examples illustrate the kind of comments some of the teachers made when expressing their opinion. Moreover, the clear distinction in language use between both communities is also present in this subsection: the Flemish teachers were more likely to use the TL, while the Walloon commonly resorted to French.

5.8.3. Disciplinary comments

This subsection contains examples that illustrates cases in which the pupils had to settle down and/or do their tasks. Most of the time, this type of comments was made in English. However, as explained earlier, the teachers from ARJD Marcinelle, CSC Charleroi and Leonardo College Denderleeuw used the pupils’ L1 when getting mad or irritated. This echoes Byram & Hu’s (2017: 484) findings. In their interview, two teachers mentioned that using the pupils’ MT was sometimes more striking and had a greater effect than when they used the TL. One of the instructors further stated that, by using their native language, the pupils cannot do as if they do not understand. Examples (21), (22) and (23) illustrate cases in which the teacher asked the pupils to calm down or to put their mask on.

- (21) “Girls please, you’ll speak when you’re finished. Please work now.”

- (22) “Guys, I need you to settle down a little bit please.”

- (23) “You should have your mask on.”

The examples below, i.e. (24), (25), (26), and (27) illustrates situations in which the teachers were exasperated, and all used their pupils’ L1. Example (24) depicts the near end of the lesson during which the pupils were noisy.

- (24) “Joachim, est-ce que j’ai dit que c’était fini? Non. Tu arrêtes de ranger tes affaires.”³²”

³¹ My translation: “I have to censor your music. Some of them talk about taking the *dope* out when you walk into the coffee shop. That’s not okay.”

³² My translation: “Joachim, did I say it was over? No. You stop putting your stuff away.”

In example (25), the teacher was upset because some of the pupils were doing their homework instead of working on the exercise they are supposed to.

(25) “Het is niet de bedoeling dat jullie nu beginnen aan het invullen hé. Dit moet thuis. Nu de oefeningen a.u.b.”³³”

Note that the following example (26) was uttered after the teacher asked, in English, three times the pupil to change seat. As the pupil did not understand (or pretended not to), the teacher switched to French.

(26) “Noah, tu ne vas pas commencer. Soit tu bouges tout de suite, soit je te mets une note. Et c’est parce que c’est le premier cours, autrement la prochaine fois, c’est directement la note.”³⁴”

Finally, in example (27), the teacher had already reminded the pupils (in the TL) multiple times to put their mask properly on both their mouth and nose. After a few times, s/he got angry and said in an authoritative tone:

(27) “Ton masque, sur ton nez.”³⁵”

In short, it appears that the teachers used the TL when asking the pupils to settle down. However, when the instructor was getting mad, s/he tended to switch back to the pupils’ L1 in order to get their attention and be sure that they understood what was going on.

5.8.4. Comments on the time

Very often, when the pupils were busy carrying out a task, the teachers would tell them beforehand how much time they had to complete the activity. As such, when the time was almost over, all the teachers would typically tell the pupils. This observation is illustrated in examples (28) and (29). Note that these two examples are not the only ones. That type of comment was always in the TL.

³³ My translation: “You are not supposed to start filling it out now. This has to be done at home. Now the exercises please”

³⁴ My translation: “Noah, you’re not going to start. Either you move right now, or I’ll put a note. And that’s because this is the first class, otherwise next time it’s straight to the note.”

³⁵ My translation: “Your mask, on your nose.”

- (28) “Right, two more minutes, then you should be finished for page 62.”
- (29) “So, we’ve got about 3 minutes left. How far are you guys?”

However, it occurred once that a teacher, i.e. IND Loverval, commented on the precious time they have in class (cf. example [30]). The teacher used the pupils’ L1 to proceed. However, note that, as illustrated in Table 14, this teacher only used French in this category.

- (30) “Je vais regarder chez moi, parce qu’on perd un temps précieux.”

To sum up, when commenting on the time there was left for the lesson and/or for the activity, all teachers (except the one from IND Loverval) used the target language.

5.8.5. Comments on a task

This category concerns comments that were made by the teachers in order to give further information concerning a task the pupils are (or will be) performing. All examples retrieved for this type of comments come from Flemish teachers. For this category, all examples were uttered in the target language. Note that this category is not the most prominent one, but was worth mentioning.

In example (31), the teacher from SPC Leuven was teaching online and gave more precision on what the pupils were supposed to have done by the following week.

- (31) “The assignment is on the platform. It will be for next Monday. It’s really a small one. Next week, I want to do something on school rules. You should have this book [shows it on the screen]. [...] I’m going to use it for a debate, which will take place in class.”

Example (32) depicts a more practical comment that dealt with the way in which the teacher combined two documents to ease the pupils’ task.

- (32) “I put both texts in one PDF for you guys. So that it’s easier for you. So instead of having *Hastings 1* and *Hastings 2*, you have everything in one document.”

Finally, the following example (33) sketches the main idea of an adapted fairy tale that the pupils had to read. In short, this gave a general idea of the end of the story and in this way, the activity was contextualized.

- (33) “Ok, so this is kind of the same story. The storylines are the same, but it’s a bit more violent.”

5.8.6. Comments based on the teachers’ observations

This category deals with comments that were made by teachers on the basis of what they saw or witnessed. In the two communities, both the TL and the pupils’ MT were used in this context. However, no general tendencies could be drawn. As such, depending on the situation, there does not seem to be any general pattern in the languages used. This type of comments is very spontaneous and proper to the teacher.

For example (34), the teacher from Leuven observed that a pupil did not seem very awake. As a consequence, s/he said:

- (34) “Michiel, you look tired.” [Pupil: “I only slept for 2 hours”]. “Ohhhh poor you! I’ll stop on time.”

In this case (35), the teacher came in and noticed that there was no black board anymore. The school was removing the boards to hang new smartboards in all of the classrooms. This example testified the strong presence of technology in Flemish high schools.

- (35) “Er is geen bord meer. Het is triestig hé? Zitten ze [the new smartboards] samen in de gang beneden?³⁶”

Furthermore, examples (36), (37) and (38) illustrate situations in which the teachers tried to stimulate the pupils as they were not participating enough.

- (36) “Come on guys. Wake up. Come to the board.”
(37) “Guys, I always have the same volunteers who go to the board. So, please come. I want everyone to come and write a word.”
(38) “Come on guys, you should participate a bit more.”

³⁶ My translation: “There’s no board anymore. It’s sad, isn’t it? Are they [the smartboards] together in the hallway downstairs?”

Interestingly, only one teacher, i.e. the instructor from SJC Aalst, commented on the language the pupils used. Note that s/he was the most extreme teacher in his/her interview concerning the (almost) exclusive use of the target language in the classroom. Every single time this teacher could hear a word of Dutch in class, s/he would say such sentences (cf. examples [39] and [40]):

(39) "English only, no Dutch."

(40) "And of course, I want to hear you speak English because I hear a lot of Dutch."

Besides comments on the language, the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle commented on the dissatisfying level the pupils had (cf. example [41]). This comment showed irritation from the teacher. The fact the s/he used French correlates with the interpretation mentioned earlier: when a teacher appears to be angry or irritated, s/he tends to use the pupils' MT.

(41) "Bon les gars, votre niveau n'est pas satisfaisant, donc vous relevez la barre ou je passe une très mauvaise journée?³⁷"

Finally, example (42) was retrieved from the observations in IND Loverval. In this case, the teacher walked through the desks to see who had completed the activity. Note that this comment, which was made in French, was composed of very simple words. As such, it showed that, even for small and easy utterances, the teacher did not use the target language.

(42) "Ici, je vois que ça se termine, c'est super. Ici aussi. Top."³⁸

In short, the comments based on the teachers' observations are very much proper to the instructor. If the teacher has the tendency to use the TL only, s/he will follow the same pattern for this category.

³⁷ My translation: "Okay guys, your level is not satisfactory, so are you going to raise it or am I having a very bad day?"

³⁸ My translation: "Here, I see that it comes to an end, that's great. Here too. Top."

5.8.7. Organizational comments

This type of comments concerns the practical organization of the activities in class. However, it is worth noting that all teachers in their interview mentioned having recourse to the pupils' L1 when dealing with school and exams matters. Nevertheless, such situations could not be observed, except once in ARDJ Marcinelle, when the teacher commented on the senior race (cf. example [19] in Subsection 5.8.2.).

Very often, the teachers commented on which exercises they either skip (43), start with (44) or finish up later on (45).

(43) "We're going to skip exercise 4."

(44) "We're going to start with a song today. It's *Somebody that I used to know*. If you don't understand a word, please ask me after we've listened to the song."

(45) "On finira la troisième question demain."³⁹

Furthermore, some teachers commented on what they were doing and why they were doing so. As such, example (46), which was retrieved from Leonardo College Denderleeuw in 4th grade, showed code-switching. Furthermore, example (47) depicted what the teacher from IND Loverval was doing, but also refers to "saving time". Note that these two examples echo Polio & Duff's (1994) findings, where both the pupils' L1 exclusive use or code-switching were observed in the situation of classroom management (Ellis, 2011: 130).

(46) "We move to the next page, ik laat de tekst staan zodat jullie jullie notities nog kunnen invullen."⁴⁰

(47) "Je vais vous donner la feuille pour la suite du cours comme ça on gagne une minute ou deux. Et après, je vais ramasser hein."⁴¹

Finally, the last example (48), which is quite long, mixes various types of comments. As such, the teacher from IND Loverval mentioned what the pupils would revise before the finals and directly went on with what s/he was doing and gave an instruction to the pupils, i.e. check whether they understood their mistakes. Note that this teacher was

³⁹ My translation: "We'll finish the third question tomorrow."

⁴⁰ My translation: "I leave the text so you can still fill in your notes."

⁴¹ My translation: "I'm going to give you the sheet for the rest of the lesson so we can save a minute or two. And then I'll pick it up huh."

the one making the more comments. This general category, i.e. *Making a comment*, was the most prominent for this teacher, and showed that TT was very much present in his/her teaching style. This instructor was clearly the master teaching what pupils had to remember.

(48) “On va revoir tous les temps avant les examens de Noël pour rafraîchir vos connaissances. Je passe une dernière fois pour reprendre toutes les feuilles. [Picks them up, but a pupil has not finished yet] Quand j’ai tout ramassé, tu dois avoir fini hein. Alors, ceux qui m’ont rendu l’interro d’aujourd’hui, regardez bien si vous comprenez la faute dans la phrase. Regardez bien à tout.”⁴²

To sum up this whole category (i.e. *Making comments*), the general tendency of language use is proper to the teachers’ habits. However, both communities kept the same trend as in the other situations in the sense that Flemish teachers used the TL more often than the teachers from the other community. It appears that when the teachers became irritated and/or angry, they tended to use the pupils’ L1. Surprisingly, the teacher from SJC Aalst was the only one commenting on the pupils’ language use.

5.9. Congratulating

In terms of the content, all teachers from both communities used the same type of expressions when congratulating in the target language. As such, the instructors would utter “(Very) Good”, “Nice (job)”, “Excellent” and “Perfect”. While the congratulations were quite short, they were often preceded by “Yes” and/or followed by “thank you”. For example, the teacher would say “Yes, very good. Thank you.” Or “Yes, perfect. (Thank you).”. As for *Greeting pupils*, all Flemish teachers used the target language to congratulate. As shown in Table 15, not a single word of Dutch could be detected while observing. Interestingly, the teacher from SPC Leuven, even if s/he was teaching online, unmuted his/her microphone to congratulate the pupils. Moreover, as many

⁴² My translation: “We’ll go over all the tenses before the Christmas exams to refresh your knowledge. I’m coming by one last time to pick up all the sheets. [Picks them up, but a pupil has not finished yet]. When I have picked up all the copies, you should be done. So, those of you who turned in today’s test, look carefully if you understand the mistake in the sentence. Have a good look at everything.”

presentations were given at SJC Aalst when I observed, the teacher felicitated the pupils with more details. For example, s/he would say:

(49) “Thank you, boys. You explained everything very clearly. For me, it was a nearly perfect presentation. You included the effects, and I did not expect that, but it’s very good. You gave a very good example for the rest.”

Note that this kind of example was only observed when the pupils gave a presentation in front of the class. When dealing with a pupil’s brief answer, all teachers from both communities congratulated concisely, no matter the language used.

Community		Wallonia															Flanders																	
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle					IND Loverval					CSC Charleroi					SPC Leuven					SIC Aalst				Leonardo College Denderleeuw								
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	h (+3rd)	4th	6th	6th		
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2		
Congratulating	Cong	EFR	E	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	X	X	FR	FR	EFR	E	E	X	E	E	E	E	X	X	E	X	E	X	E	E	X	E	X	E

Table 15. Language(s) used by the teachers when congratulating

However, as demonstrated Table 15, the scenario in Wallonia is not as clear-cut as in Flanders. As such, it appeared that all Walloon teachers had their own way of working. While the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle only used the pupils’ L1 once, s/he always felicitated the pupils in English. As such, the teacher uttered “Très bien.⁴³” when correcting a vocabulary exercise in French. Furthermore, it appeared that the teacher from IND Lovervall did not congratulate his/her pupils very often. The way this instructor taught did not prompt congratulations. Since the teacher was talking most of the time and giving the answers to his/her own questions, the pupils did not have many opportunities to think and answer the questions themselves. As a consequence, there was no need to congratulate them. The only congratulations that could be observed were given in French and formulated as follows: “Oui, voilà, c’est bien.⁴⁴”, “Ah c’est très bien, c’est un très bon début.⁴⁵”. Furthermore, it seemed that the teacher from CSC Charleroi adapted his/her congratulations according to the language s/he was using. On the one hand, when the teacher was speaking French while dealing with grammar for example, s/he would felicitate the pupils in the same language. For instance, the instructor would say: “Très bien, voilà.⁴⁶” after a pupil gave a good answer

⁴³ My translation: “Very good.”

⁴⁴ My translation: “Yes, there we go. It is good.”

⁴⁵ My translation: “Ah that’s very good. That’s a very good start.”

⁴⁶ My translation: “Very good, here you go.”

or a grammatical explanation. On the other hand, when the teacher was busy interacting in the target language with the pupils, s/he would keep English to congratulate, for example “Excellent.”, “Very good.”.

In short, the language used in Flanders was systematically the target language, while it depended on the teachers in Wallonia. It appeared that two Walloon teachers tended to congratulate their pupils in the language they were talking at the moment of speaking. As such, if the teacher was using his/her pupils’ L1, s/he felicitated them in the same language.

5.10. Checking comprehension

Interestingly, the main findings concerning this subsection reveal that, in both communities, the teachers checked their pupils’ comprehension by asking questions. However, as attested in Table 16, it is worth noting that such instances could only be observed three times in Flanders. As a consequence, coming to conclusions may be difficult as the amount of data is limited. Nevertheless, the main tendencies and examples will be presented below. Moreover, the limited amount of data for the Flemish community echoes the same findings as some of the previous subsections, e.g. *Explaining meaning*. As such, my interpretation of this finding is that, thanks to the Flemish pupils’ proficiency, teachers might assume and expect that the pupils understood the vocabulary/concept used. This perception was confirmed by two Flemish teachers in their interview, in which they stated that they consider that their pupils have understood. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the teacher from SPC Leuven mentioned that s/he might have checked the pupils’ comprehension if s/he was in class and not online.

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																			
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SIC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw							
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th		
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Checking comprehension	Check	E	E	E	E	EFR	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	X	X	FR	E	EFR	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	E	X	E	X	X		

Table 16. Language(s) used by the teachers when checking comprehension

Furthermore, the following example can illustrate the type of questions teachers asked their pupils in order to check whether they understood or not. For instance, the teacher mentioned previously uttered “Was there anything from the text not clear? I hope the words were also ok.”, even though s/he did not receive any response. In his/her interview, s/he further stated that since s/he could not see his/her pupils’

reaction, as they were online, it was quite difficult to assess their degree of understanding.

While some questions to check the pupils' understanding remained very general, e.g. "Do you have any questions?", other interactions between the teacher and the pupils appeared to be more intricate. For instance, the teacher from Leonardo College verified the pupils' understanding of an adapted fairy tale they had previously read by asking precise questions on the content of the story. The interaction between both the teacher and a pupil goes as follows:

(50) - (Teacher) "The sisters are locked up. Why?"

(51) - (Pupil) "They meet the prince."

(52) - (Teacher) "What does the prince do to her?"

(53) - (Pupil) "He rips her dress."

(54) - (Teacher) "Yes, he rips her dress."

This example (50-54) also shows that the teacher had a fluent conversation with the pupil. The instructor also repeated the pupil's last answer to ensure that everybody heard, as the reply was not uttered very loudly.

Additionally, the main tendency in Flanders for this category was to use the TL, while it was not the case in Wallonia (cf. Table 16). As such, it appeared that the Walloon teachers have all their own way of working. While a teacher used almost exclusively French, another used both the TL and the pupils' L1, while the last one used English most of the time.

As this category was more observed in Wallonia, a larger number of examples and clearer conclusions can be reached. While the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle mentioned in his/her interview that s/he used the TL as much as possible in class, s/he confessed that s/he often switches to the pupils' L1 when observing that they do not understand. S/He further posits, as argued in Zulfikar's (2018: 47) findings, that s/he regrets having to translate what s/he asked, but in order to save time, this was the only efficient approach s/he had found. For instance, after watching a video, the teacher asked the pupils who understood more than fifty percent of the video. As nobody answered, s/he translated the question into French.

Likewise, the teacher from CSC Charleroi checked the pupils' comprehension by asking the meaning of a word or an expression. The following example, which is the transcription of the interaction between both actors, clearly illustrates that various

categories can be found within a short dialogue. In this way, the teacher verifies the pupils' understanding of a phrasal verb by asking a question, where the end of the interaction are congratulations. Consequently, this example could be assigned to four different categories, namely *Checking comprehension*, *Asking questions*, *Explaining meaning*, and *Congratulating*. The interaction goes as follows:

(55) - (Teacher) "Alors, ça voulait dire quoi *to break down*?"

(56) - (Pupil) "Casser."

(57) - (Teacher) "Non, ça ne veut pas dire casser. C'est quoi comme genre de verbe ?"

(58) - (Pupil) "Un *phrasal verb*."

(59) - (Teacher) "Oui, et il veut dire quoi ici?"

(60) - (Pupil) "Tomber en panne."⁴⁷

(61) - (Teacher) "Yes, very good."

Note that these examples (55-61) show that, in this case, the teacher used the pupils' native language, but it happened that they used the TL as well. As such, s/he asked in English if a pupil would summarize what they had seen during the previous class.

Shortly, it appears that this category could not be observed many times in Flanders, while it was quite prominent in Wallonia. Generally speaking, the Flemish teachers tended to use the TL only, but this finding may not be taken for granted considering the short amount of data. Furthermore, it seems that the language used by the Walloon teachers was proper to the person and not to the community. Finally, the main finding was that all utterances made by the teachers, in both communities, were questions.

⁴⁷ My translation:

- (Teacher) "So, what did it mean *to break down*?"

- (Pupil) "Casser."

- (Teacher) "No, it doesn't mean *casser*. What kind of verb is that?"

- (Pupil) "A phrasal verb."

- (Teacher) "Yes, and what does it mean here?"

- (Pupil) "Tomber en panne."

5.11. Repeating pupils' ideas

Generally speaking, all occurrences of the teachers repeating his/her pupils' ideas took place in English, except for one. As shown in Table 17, this category could not be observed many times.

Although the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle tended to repeat his/her pupils' ideas, the two other Walloon teachers did not. Considering the IND Loverval teacher's tendency to automatically translate what s/he read or heard, the pupils did not have the time to utter nor think about any type of questions. In fact, the pupils seemed passive during all the observations. Concerning the teacher from CSC Charleroi, s/he repeated the pupils' answers in the same language that the response was given. For instance, if a pupil gave the translation of a word in the TL, the teacher repeated the same word in English.

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																		
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SIC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw						
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2
Repeating students' ideas	R	E	E	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	E	X	E	X	D	X	

Table 17. Language(s) used by the teachers when repeating pupils' ideas

Interestingly, as shown in Table 17, this category (i.e. *Repeating pupils' ideas*) is the only one in which a Flemish teacher (i.e. Leonardo College Denderleeuw) used the pupils' L1 only, while it was not the case in Wallonia. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the amount of data collected for this category is relatively restricted. Furthermore, the only time the teacher from Leonardo College used Dutch for this category was when s/he repeated the translation of a word a pupil gave in his/her native language. Consequently, this tagging may be misleading somehow. Moreover, the teachers typically repeated pupils' answers literally and very distinctly, i.e. word by word. Generally speaking, all teachers who repeated their pupils' responses did so when correcting an exercise or when asking for a translation.

5.12. Answering pupils' questions

First of all, it is worth mentioning the type of questions that pupils ask. Very often, the pupils got the teacher's attention to ask for clarification about the meaning of a word or to repeat what was said. Furthermore, it appeared that they sometimes asked to postpone a deadline. The pupils very rarely asked to go to the bathroom. Although this

section focuses on the teachers' answer, it is worth noting that all Walloon pupils asked their questions exclusively in French, while most of the Flemish pupils used the target language.

Likewise, as shown in Table 18, this category could be more observed in Flanders than in the other community. My interpretation here is that the lessons are designed differently depending on the community. In Flanders, the teachers prompted more interactions with the pupils by having them participate more and built the lesson on the basis of their reactions and preferences. In Wallonia, by contrast, the teachers came to class with an already-built sequence and gave their lesson in a “traditional way”. In other words, the Flemish teachers' design of lessons appeared to encourage interactions, while the Walloon teachers seemed to keep the master's place who tells what the pupils need to remember. Consequently, the amount of teacher talk was greater in Wallonia than in the other community. This interpretation can account for the smaller amount of data collected for the French speakers observed.

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																	
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loveral						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SIC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw					
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	h (+3)	4th	6th	6th	
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Answering pupils' questions	Ans?	FR	EFR	X	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	FR	X	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	E	E	E	D	X	E	X		

Table 18. Language(s) used by the teachers when answering pupils' questions

Moreover, concrete examples are worth mentioning to illustrate the language(s) used by the teachers, as shown in Table 18. By looking at the colors only, a clear distinction between both communities can be drawn. In almost every case (except for two sentences), the Flemish teachers answered their pupils' questions in the TL, no matter the language the pupils used. For instance, a pupil from Leonardo College asked in Dutch: “Mevrouw, krijgen we nog een volledige les om dit te doen?⁴⁸”, whereupon the teacher answered in English: “Yes, on Friday. And then the week after that, we'll do the test, ok?”. Another similar example from SJC Aalst also illustrates this phenomenon, where the pupil mentioned in Dutch that s/he needed her book. The teacher replied: “You can go grab it.”. As discussed earlier, most of the Flemish pupils used English to ask their questions. One of them asked “What do you mean by *material*?” to which the teacher replied “Like books, black board, classroom for example. That type of things.”. Note that the only time the teacher from Leonardo College used Dutch was when providing the translation of a word in the mixed class of

⁴⁸ My translation: “Miss, are we going to have another full class to do this?”

both 3rd and 4th graders: “*Direct*, het betekent direct.”⁴⁹. Finally, the unique sentence uttered in Dutch by the teacher from Aalst (cf. example [62-63] below) was uttered in a context in which the pupil did not understand the grammatical point on direct and indirect speech that had been seen right before.

(62) -(Pupil): “Mevrouw, ik snap het onderwerp niet.”⁵⁰

(63) -(Teacher): “Well, have a look at this example [Teacher shows the example]. Stel je nu voor dat je dat zegt [Teacher gives an example in English]. Je moet altijd in die persoon jezelf terugplaatsen.”⁵¹

Interestingly, the teacher started answering in English, but s/he switched to Dutch after showing the example. Note that this statement was said in 4th grade, which correlated with what the teacher said in his/her interview. As such, the instructor mentioned that at this level, it happened s/he switched to the pupils’ MT to explain something that was not understood. However, s/he reported that s/he always explained the concepts in the TL first.

Nevertheless, the situation was different in Wallonia. The most extreme teacher was the one from IND Loverval. Over the six hours totalized, this teacher answered two questions from pupils. This was due to the fact that s/he monopolized the interactions in class and automatically translated what s/he said, read or heard. As such, when asking a pupil to repeat more distinctly, the teacher used the pupils’ native language (64):

(64) “Attends, je n’entends qu’un mot sur cinq, donc tu dois crier un peu plus fort pour que je te comprenne. [The pupil repeats the question] Tu as bien choisi. Je t’expliquerai plus tard pourquoi. Mais en attendant, je peux déjà te dire que c’est bon.”⁵²

This example (64) shows that the answer to the question was also given in French. A similar example was retrieved when observing the same teacher. When the pupil asked in his mother tongue whether s/he had to write down or not, the teacher

⁴⁹ My translation: “*Direct* means direct.”

⁵⁰ My translation: “Miss, I don’t understand the subject”

⁵¹ My translation: “[...] Imagine that you say this [...]. You always have to put yourself back in that person.”

⁵² My translation: “Wait, I only hear one word out of five, so you have to speak a little louder for me to understand you. [The pupil repeats the question] You chose well. I’ll tell you why later. But in the meantime, I can already tell you that it’s correct.”

answered: “Non, vous ne devez pas noter. J’ai écrit pour les gens qui comprennent mieux quand c’est écrit.”⁵³. Note that these two questions (asked by the pupils), which were the only ones observed for this teacher, were questions dealing with note-taking and whether the answer was correct or not. In short, none of these questions referred to the understanding of the target language.

The two other Walloon teachers, i.e. CSC Charleroi and ARJD Marcinelle, seemed to have similar tendencies in their language use. As such, it appeared that when a pupil asked a question that dealt with vocabulary or grammar, both instructors answered in French. This echoes what was described in Subsections 5.6 (i.e. *Explaining grammar*) and 5.7 (i.e. *Explaining meaning*). For instance, a pupil asked “Madame, ça veut dire quoi *to burglar*?⁵⁴”, to which the teacher answered “Ça veut dire cambrioler.”⁵⁵. Furthermore, it seemed that when the pupils made a comment about what had been said, the teachers tended to respond in their L1. For example, a pupil commented “Madame, 72° c’est impossible hein.”⁵⁶ in reaction to a video they had just watched. The teacher drew the pupils’ attention to the elements that were given in the instructions: “Qu’est-il écrit dans la situation? En Farenheit. Donc ça veut dire que c’est beaucoup plus haut que Celcius. C’est normal.”⁵⁷. Finally, once, a pupil asked in his native language to postpone a test. The teacher refused by stating “No, the test has been planned for two weeks.”.

Note that in their interview, all teachers from both communities mentioned that when dealing with organizational matters –be it a school party or exams – they all used their pupils’ L1 in order to make sure they understood. Furthermore, many of the teachers referred to the fact that, since they only have 50 minutes to teach, using the pupils’ MT was more efficient.

⁵³ My translation: “No, you don’t have to write it down. I wrote for people who understand better when it’s written.”

⁵⁴ My translation: “Miss, what does it mean *to burglar*?”

⁵⁵ My translation: “It means *cambrioler*.”

⁵⁶ My translation: “Miss, 72° is impossible.”

⁵⁷ My translation: “What is written in the situation? In Farenheit. So that means it’s much higher than Celcius. That’s normal.”

5.13. Dealing with attendance

Although this situation could not be observed many times, it worth commenting on it. Statistically speaking, Walloon teachers took attendance orally more often than the Flemish ones. This can be explained by the fact that all classes observed in Flanders had a smart board that both teachers used to do the attendance while the pupils were working on their own. Note that since the teacher from SPC Leuven was observed online, s/he checked the names of the pupils present on Teams. Furthermore, when the Flemish teachers took attendance orally, it was rather a short question such as “Who is absent guys?”.

However, it appeared that the Walloon teachers proceeded mainly orally and very often in both languages, as shown in Table 19. This can be accounted for by the fact that educators still come in class to take attendance. As a consequence, they speak French, and the Walloon teacher usually interacts in this language with both the educator and the pupils. Nevertheless, this situation did not occur every hour. Moreover, the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle acknowledged in his/her interview that s/he found attendance boring and that it takes a lot of time. S/he added that in order to proceed more efficiently, s/he tends to use pupils’ MT. His/Her testimony can be illustrated by this example taken from 4th graders: “Guys, on fait les présences. Emma n’est pas là. Jenny non plus. Louis n’est pas là. Sarah est où? [pupils answer in French] Naomi, elle court⁵⁸.” When this teacher used both languages, it was mainly to check whether s/he pronounced the pupils’ name properly, as it was her first day with the class. Moreover, as for asking questions, the teacher from Loverval mainly took attendance in French, except once. S/He mainly said “Il y a des absents?⁵⁹”, while s/he also uttered “Who is missing?”.

Community		Wallonia															Flanders																			
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle					IND Loverval					CSC Charleroi					SPC Leuven					SIC Aalst					Leonardo College Denderleeuw									
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Dealing with attendance (=absent)	Abs	FR	X	FR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	E	FR	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	X	E	X	

Table 19. Language(s) used by the teachers when dealing with attendance

⁵⁸ My translation: “(...) we are taking attendance. Emma is not there. Jenny neither. Louis is not there. Where is Sarah? Naomi, she is running.”

⁵⁹ My translation: “Are there people missing/absentees?”

To sum up, it appears that the Flemish teachers and the Walloon teacher from Charleroi rarely took attendance. Thanks to the technology in Flanders, teachers did not have to rely on the pupils to ask who was absent. However, the two other Walloon teachers used the pupils' mother tongue as it is more efficient, according to the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle.

5.14. Added criterion: humor

This last subsection concerns an added criterion to the basic observation grid. When observing, I noticed that some of the teachers made funny comments and/or jokes. Consequently, I talked about the phenomenon with all the teachers during their interview. It appears that all teachers have their own way of dealing with humor in their classrooms, but all of them stated that humor and jokes are crucial when teaching. They further explained, as in Schweers (1999: 8), that it creates a nice atmosphere in the classroom and good relationships with the pupils.

Interestingly, when joking, the Flemish teachers did not necessarily always use the TL. As such, it depended much on the situation. For example, the teacher from SPC Leuven told that s/he sometimes makes jokes in Dutch. Furthermore, the teacher from Aalst mentioned that s/he “resolves many issues” by joking or by making humorous comments. All teachers, except for IND Loverval and ARJD, further stated that they always tried to joke in the TL, and sometimes asked a pupil to translate if they saw that not many pupils understood.

Although the teacher from CSC Charleroi mentioned this, it appeared that s/he mainly joked in French. The comment took place when a pupil came in late with her wireless headphones in his/her ears, to which the teacher reacted by saying “There is something that bothers me.”. When the pupil turned them off after the teacher's remark, the music went off his/her phone in the classroom. In reaction to the situation, the teacher said humorously “On peut dire que tu fais une entrée fracassante, hein!⁶⁰”, before switching back to English. Interestingly, when the teacher was serious, s/he used the target language, while s/he switched very shortly to the pupils' L1 when using a humorous tone.

⁶⁰ My translation: “We can say that you make an impressive entrance!”

Finally, the teacher from ARJD Marcinelle said that s/he mainly joked in French, as, according to him/her, when joking, we come back to our “naturalness” and thus to our native language. Spontaneously, s/he makes humorous comments in French, and sometimes in the TL. For instance, after asking what *misty* meant, a pupil answered “brouillageux”, which is a non-existing blend of “nuageux⁶¹” and “brouillard⁶²”. To this funny and unexpected answer, the teacher replied humorously “Brouillageux! On apprend des nouveaux mots aujourd’hui. Très formel comme expression.⁶³”, before switching back to English. Nevertheless, s/he mentioned that when joking in English, the pleasantries should remain quite short and easy to understand.

In a nutshell, all teachers mentioned that joking or making humorous comments in class helped to create a good atmosphere and relationship with the group. Nevertheless, it appeared that the languages used when joking were proper to the teachers’ habits and to the situation, and not necessarily to the community. However, based on the teachers’ interviews, it appeared that the Flemish teachers had more the tendency to use the TL, although they sometimes use Dutch, than the teachers from the other community.

This marks the end of the *Results and discussion* section. The following section deals with the conclusions that could be drawn from the observations in the six schools and the interviews.

⁶¹ My translation: Cloudy

⁶² My translation: Mist

⁶³ My translation: “Brouillageux! We’re learning new words today. Very formal expression.”

6. Conclusion

The present dissertation aimed to identify the situations in which the Walloon and Flemish English teachers of 4th and 6th grades used their pupils' mother tongue in the language classroom. Its purpose was also to expand knowledge in the field of teacher talk (TT) as well as that related to the use of the pupils' native language in the English classrooms. Based on a qualitative analysis, which consisted in observing three English teachers in both Flanders and Wallonia, it can be generally concluded that the Flemish teachers used almost exclusively the target language (TL), while the Walloon teachers switched to their pupils' mother tongue (L1) more often.

Moreover, the observations have revealed that the Walloon teachers used exclusively French when dealing with grammar. However, it appeared that the teachers from the other community used the target language in this situation. Consequently, the first hypothesis, which was formulated as follows: "The observed English teachers from both communities are expected to use their pupils' L1 when dealing with grammar" is partly verified, as it is only the case in one of the two communities, i.e. Wallonia. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that the Flemish teachers explained in their interview that they sometimes relied on the pupils' L1, i.e. Dutch, when they saw that pupils did not understand.

While the second hypothesis expected the English teachers from both communities to use translations in the case of an unknown word, it appeared that only the Walloon teachers typically did so. As such, all of them used almost exclusively French when providing the translation of an unknown word or expression. However, the Flemish teachers used mainly synonyms and definitions in the target language when explaining a word their pupils did not know. It is worth restating that the cases in which *Explaining meaning* and *Providing corrective feedback* occurred were much more observed in Wallonia than in the other community. This could confirm the fourth hypothesis that suggested that "Considering the language closeness between Dutch and English, being both Germanic languages, Flemish English teacher may need to switch less often to their pupils' L1 than the Walloon English teachers."

Furthermore, while it was expected (cf. the third hypothesis in Section 3.2.) that the teachers would use their pupils' L1 more often with the 4th graders than with the 6th graders, it appeared that the languages used were proper to the teachers and not to the pupils' level. Consequently, this observation opposes Swain & Lapkin's (2000)

findings. The teacher from CSC Charleroi was the only one who showed a clear difference in his/her language use depending on the pupils' level. While all teachers mentioned in their interview that they adapt their language use, this was not clearly reflected in the observations. As such, it appeared that the teachers adopt habits and seem to keep them irrespectively of the pupils' level. For instance, a teacher who typically greeted his/her pupils in French did so in both grades.

Moreover, the circumstances in which the observed Flemish and Walloon English teachers used their pupils' native language depended very much on the teacher and the community. As such, none of the Walloon teachers taught an entire lesson without relying on the pupils' L1, while it was the case for ten hours (out of sixteen) observed in Flanders. In Wallonia, the situations in which the teachers used mainly French were when *Explaining grammar*, *Explaining meaning* and *Making comments*. Furthermore, it appeared that the teacher from IND Loverval almost exclusively used French in her English classes in all situations. The rare cases in which the Flemish teachers used Dutch were mainly to clarify something a pupil did not understand, and they were relatively short utterances.

In their interviews, all teachers mentioned using their pupils' L1 when they wanted to clarify something. Furthermore, the three Walloon teachers stated that they always used French when *Explaining grammar* as the pupils' grammatical knowledge is very poor. All of these teachers mentioned the fact that, even in French, teaching grammar remained quite difficult since the pupils do not master the basic grammatical terms, even in French. All Walloon teachers recognized not even trying in the target language as "they [the pupils] will not understand a single word.". Nevertheless, two Walloon teachers were aware that they should use English as much as possible, but due to the pupils' low level of understanding, they often had to switch to French in order not to "waste" too much time and energy. Furthermore, the Flemish teachers stated that they use their pupils' L1 only when necessary and in the case of a paraphrase in the TL that was not understood.

In addition to that, it is worth mentioning that an extra category was added along the way to the observation grid which was created prior to the observations, i.e. *humor*. When observing, it appeared that all teachers sometimes made humorous reflections and/or jokes when teaching. They all mentioned in their interview that humor is necessary in the classroom as it permits to have a pleasant working atmosphere and a qualitative relationship with the group.

Nevertheless, it must be taken into account that this study consisted of observing only six teachers in total. As the number of teachers observed is relatively limited, the results need to be considered carefully. Consequently, a similar study with a larger sample of respondents would be worth doing in order to confirm or refute the tendencies observed in this master's dissertation. The number of studies confronting the English teachers' language use in both communities remains indeed fairly limited. Further research on the field could focus on a comparison between the Belgian provinces and/or the three communities. Nevertheless, it would be necessary to have a larger number of teachers observed. Furthermore, comparing French teachers with Walloon teachers may be interesting as well, as they both share the same native language. In addition to that, it could be worth interviewing pupils in order to obtain their feelings and impressions on the use of their L1 in the classroom.

Finally, it is worth commenting on the strengths and weaknesses of the teachers' use of a language over another. The exclusive use of the target language in the language classrooms is often depicted as the ideal teaching method, or the "way to go" when teaching languages. Also, it is often stated that a low amount of TL from the teacher may give the impression that the instructor is not competent nor motivated. In any case, being extreme in the use of a language could eventually lead to pupils' demotivation. However, as many scholars have argued, motivation is a key component in learning (cf. Subsection 2.1.3.b).

As such, the fact that all Flemish teachers used almost exclusively the target language can, in my opinion, have both disadvantages and advantages. In the case of Flemish pupils, they are immersed and constantly in contact with the foreign language when following their English classes. Nevertheless, the overuse of English may lose some of the pupils who might have difficulties.

As for the Walloon teachers' (over)use of French may be explained by various factors: time-saving, effectiveness, and self-reassurance. It seemed that the teachers tried to use French in order to ease the understanding, as the instructor often stated that their pupils' level was either "low" or "terrible". Nevertheless, it may give the impression that the teachers try to adapt themselves by using the "easy way", and not by pulling the pupils up. As a consequence, using the pupils' mother tongue may not always help the pupils, but rather comfort them in their beliefs that they are not good at English (or whichever other foreign language).

Relying on the pupils' common L1 may seem ideal/useful in some specific situations, but teachers must take into consideration that all pupils in the classroom do not necessarily share the same native language. While the teacher may have the impression the s/he is helping the pupils by doing so, s/he should make sure that they all share the same mother tongue and if not, adapt his/her lessons and references to the assumed common L1 accordingly.

Finally, I would like to conclude this section with an inspiring quote from Neil Gaiman, which I address to both language teachers and learners: "I hope that in this year to come, you make mistakes. Because if you are making mistakes, then you are making new things, trying new things, learning, living, pushing yourself, changing yourself, changing your world."

7. Insights for professional development

As a soon-language-teacher-to-be, I found crucial to mention what this master's dissertation has taught me. Doing field observations with different teachers have provided me with various teaching styles and lesson designs, but not only.

First of all, it is worth taking into account that, observing classes, did not only consist in the actual observations, but extended to going to the teachers' room, chatting with some of the instructors, getting to know them, learning about the school systems, etc. By doing so, I have built a network of teachers around me. Although I am aware that I will not be teaching in Flanders, I have had the opportunity to discover three schools in my region. This has offered me the opportunity to go with the Collège du Sacré-Coeur (CSC) in Ghent, on a short city-trip with the 4th graders. Consequently, one can say that I already have "a foot" in some of these schools.

Secondly, I had always idealized the exclusive use of the target language in the classroom. Although the use of English only in the Flemish classes was very often observable, I noticed that none of the lessons in Wallonia were exclusively taught in the target language. However, these observations have taught me that, as long as the pupils learn, it is not a big issue if the instructor sometimes uses his/her pupils' L1. Nevertheless, I am still convinced that the target language should be used as much as possible in - and outside of - the classroom. Furthermore, as using French to teach the English grammar seemed efficient, I might proceed in the same way. I do not mind if the pupils do not know the grammatical terms in English by heart. What matters is that they can communicate accurately by applying what they have learned.

Thirdly, during these observations, I have noticed the type of habits that some of the teachers had, as well as the kinds of exercises that were often carried out by the pupils. By observing and putting myself in the pupils' shoes, I reflected on some tendencies that I would really like to avoid when teaching. For instance, I will not automatically translate what I read, hear or say, but rather prompt my pupils as much as possible. Additionally, I have noticed that teachers in general devote a large proportion to classroom time to their own talk (teacher talking time) thereby limiting the amount of pupils' potential proportion of available talking time. Pupils should be more (pro-)active, and to do so, the sequences should be designed to encourage pupils' participation.

Fourthly, the observations in Flanders have taught me enormously. All teachers were a great source of inspiration. The way in which they had the pupils built the sequence with them was impressive, innovative and rich (both for the instructor and the pupils). The flipped classroom system does not seem very much developed in Wallonia, but I might consider it. However, I have to keep in mind that my pupils will not necessarily have the same level as the Flemish do. Consequently, my activities will be as adapted as possible to my classes.

To conclude, observing the teachers in both communities was a great source of inspiration for the teaching methods I intend to use, as well as for the design of the activities. Furthermore, these observations have helped me to put into perspective the fact that using a little amount of French during my lessons can be useful and efficient. However, I will certainly not forget the importance of the target language in class. Moreover, thanks to this experience, I have met many secondary school actors, who might offer me a job in a few months. Finally, I would like to conclude with Denis Waitley's inspiring quote, which reflects what this master's dissertation has taught me: "View life as a continuous learning experience."

8. Bibliography

- Aisyah, N. (2016). An Analysis of Teachers 'Talk in an EFL Classroom. *Journal of English and Education*, 4(2), 63-79.
- Al-Smadi, O. A., & Ab Rashid, R. (2017). A theoretical review of classroom discourse. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 6(3), 164-173.
- Alcon, E. (1998). Input and input processing in second language acquisition. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 36(4), 343-362. doi:10.1515/iral.1998.36.4.343
- Annamuradov D., & Korkut, P., (2019). Student Talking Time in Foreign Language Learning in a Preparatory School: A Classroom Observation. In ALTINTAŞ, G., & AYDAN, F. *Elementler Artırılmış Gerçeklik İle Hareket Ediyor: Bir Ders uygulaması*. UTEK 2019.
- Appel, R. & Vermeer, A. (1994). *Tweede-taalverwerving en tweede-taalonderwijs*. Bussum: Coutinho.
- Atkinson, D. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: A neglected resource? *ETL Journal*, 41 (4), 241–247.
- Auerbach, E. R. (1993). Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL quarterly*, 27(1), 9-32.
- Behnam, B., & Pouriran, Y. (2009). *Classroom discourse: Analyzing teacher/learner interaction in Iranian EFL task-based classrooms*. *Porta Linguarum*, 12, 117-132.
- Benati, A. G. (2020). *Key questions in language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Benson, C. (2004). The importance of mother tongue-based schooling for educational quality. *Commissioned Study for EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005*, 1 (1).
- Birdsong, D. (Ed.). (1999). *Second language acquisition and the critical period hypothesis*. Routledge.
- Blondin, C., & Chenu, F. (2013). *L'apprentissage des langues. Mise en perspective européenne de la situation de la Fédération Wallonie–Bruxelles*. Ministère de la Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles.
- Blyth, C. (1995). *Redefining the boundaries of language use: The foreign language classroom as a multilingual speech community*. The American Association of University Supervisors, Coordinators and Directors of Foreign Languages Programs (AAUSC), 92-111.
- Bowers, R. (1980). *Verbal behaviour in the language teaching classroom*. Unpublished PhD thesis, Reading University.
- Busse, V., Cenoz, J., Dalmann, N., & Rogge, F. (2020). Addressing linguistic diversity in the language classroom in a resource-oriented way: An intervention study with primary school children. *Language Learning*, 70, 382–419.
- Byram, M. (2004). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. London: Routledge.
- Byram, M., & Hu, A. (2017). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- Cárdenas, F. L. (2013). *Teacher talking time vs. student talking time: Fostering speaking in the EFL classroom*. Published dissertation: Universidad Austral de Chile.
- Carroll, J.B. (1981). Twenty-five years of research in foreign language aptitude. In *Individual Differences and Universals in Language Learning Aptitude*, K.C. Diller (ed.). Rowley MA: Newbury House.

- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2013). Towards a Plurilingual Approach in English Language Teaching: Softening the Boundaries Between Languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(3), 591–599.
- Chaudron, C. (1985). Intake: On models and methods for discovering learners' processing of input. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 7(1), 1-14. doi:10.1017/S027226310000512X
- Chaudron, C. (1988). Teacher talk in second language classrooms. *Second language classrooms*, 50-89.
- Chi, D. N. (2016). Intake in second language acquisition. *Hawaii Pacific University TESOL Working Paper Series*, 14, 76-89.
- Chiou, B. (2014). Rethinking the Role of L1 in the EFL Classroom. *English Teaching & Learning* 38(4), 53–78. doi:10. 6330ETL.2014
- Cohen, E.G. (1994). *Le travail de groupe : stratégies d'enseignement pour la classe hétérogène*. Montréal : Chenelière/McGraw-Hill.
- Comer, W.J. (2013). Thinking through Teacher Talk: Increasing Target Language Use in the Beginning Russian Classroom. *Russian Language Journal / Русский Язык*. 63: 91-112.
- Cook, G. (2010). *Translation in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cook, V. (1992). Evidence for Multicompetence. *Language Learning*, 42, 576-591.
- Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 185-209. doi: 10.2307/3587
- Conteh, J., & Meier, G. (2014). *The Multilingual Turn in Languages Education: Opportunities and Challenges*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Corder, P. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 5(1-4), 161-170. doi:10.1515/iral.1967.5.1-4.161

- Cullen, R. (1995). The use of lesson transcripts in teacher development, *The Teacher Trainer*, 9(1), 3-7.
- Cullen, R. (1998). Teacher talk and the classroom context, *ELT Journal*, 52(3), 179-187.
- De Bot, K., Lowie, W., Verspoor, M., & Verspoor, M. H.(2005). *Second language acquisition: An advanced resource book*. Psychology Press.
- De Keyser, R. M. (2001). Automaticity and automatization. In P. Robinson (ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 125–151.
- De Keyser, R. M. (2017). Knowledge and skill in ISLA. In Loewen, S. & Sato, M. (eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Instructed Second language Acquisition*. Routledge, 15–32.
- Dooly, M., & Vallejo, C. (2019). Bringing plurilingualism into teaching practice: a quixotic quest?. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23, 1, 81-97.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001) *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Individual differences in second language acquisition. *AILA review*, 19(1), 42-68.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The Psychology of The Second Language Learner Revisited*. New York: Routledge.
- Duyck, M. (2013). *The acquisition of English productive and receptive vocabulary of Walloon secondary school children prior to English instruction*. Unpublished dissertation: Ghent University.

- Ellis, R., Tanaka, Y., & Yamazaki, A. (1994). Classroom interaction, comprehension, and L2 vocabulary acquisition. *Language Learning* 44, 449-491.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*, 2nd edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2011). *Language teaching research and language pedagogy*. Malden, MA: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Ellis, N. (2015). Implicit and explicit language learning: Their dynamic interface and complexity. In Rebuschat, P. (Ed.). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 3–23). Amsterdam : John Benjamins.
- Etienne, D. (2011). *Enseigner les langues étrangères*. Quels sont nos objectifs et nos priorités ? Bruxelles : De Boeck, Coll. Action !
- Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles (2022). *Référentiel des langues modernes : Tronc commun*. Retrieved from http://enseignement.be/index.php?page=25703&ne_id=6424.
- Flanders, N. A. (1970). *Analyzing teaching behavior*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.
- Gass, S. (2010). “The relationship between L2 input and L2 output”. In Macaro, E. (eds.) *Continuum companion to second language acquisition*, London: Continuum, 194-219.
- Gass, S. & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*, 3rd edn. New York: Routledge.
- Germain, C. (1993). *Le point sur l’approche communicative en didactique des langues* (2^e ed.). Collection dirigée par Claude Germain. Montréal : Centre éducatif et culturel.

- Ghobadi, M., & Ghasemi, H. (2015). Promises and Obstacles of L1 Use in Language Classrooms: A State-of-the-Art Review. *English Language Teaching*, 8(11), 245-254.
- Ginsburgh, V., & Weber, S. (2006). La dynamique des langues en Belgique. *Regards économiques*, 42(1), 1-10.
- Goethals, M. (1997). English in Flanders (Belgium). *World Englishes*, 16(1), 105-114.
- Hlas, A. C. 2016. "Secondary Teachers' Language Usage: Beliefs and Practices." *Hispania* 99 (2): 305–319.
- Hooft, H., Gobyn, S., & Van den Branden, K. (2019). VROEGE START?. Een analyse van interventies en maatregelen voor effectief vreemdetalenonderwijs. Steunpunt Onderwijsonderzoek, Gent.
- Hopp, H., & Thoma, D. (2021). Effects of Plurilingual Teaching on Grammatical Development in Early Foreign-Language Learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 105(2), 464–483. doi:10.1111/modl.12709
- Hufeisen, B., Neuner, G., Council of Europe., Goethe-Institut Inter Nationes., & European Centre for Modern Languages. (2004). *The plurilingualism project: Tertiary language learning: German after English*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Pub.
- Izumi, S., Bigelow, M., Fujiwara, M., & Fearnow, S. (1999). TESTING THE OUTPUT HYPOTHESIS: Effects of Output on Noticing and Second Language Acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(3), 421–452.
- Jing, N., & Jing, J. (2018). Teacher talk in an EFL classroom: A pilot study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(3), 320-324.
- Kostadinovska-Stojchevska, B., & Popovikj, I. (2019). Teacher talking time vs. student talking time: Moving from teacher-centered classroom to learner-centered classroom. *The International Journal of Applied Language Studies and Culture*, 2(2), 25-31.

- Krashen, S.D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press Inc.
- Krashen, S.D. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and implications*, New York: Longman.
- Krashen, S.D. (1994). The input hypothesis and its rivals. In: Ellis, N. (Ed.). *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages*. Academic Press, London, pp. 45-77.
- Krashen, S.D. (1998). Comprehensible output?. *System*, 26(2), 175-182.
- Lebrun, S. (2003, January 7). Langues à l'école : imposées ou au choix, un peu ou beaucoup. *La Libre*, Retrieved from <https://www.lalibre.be/belgique/2003/01/07/langues-a-lecole-imposees-ou-au-choix-un-peu-ou-beaucoup-IM2HAXIYOZEQZO5GJ5QM2UU4FY/>.
- Lenneberg, E. H. (1967). *Biological foundations of language*. New York: Wiley.
- Leow, R. P. (1993). To simplify or not to simplify: A look at intake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15(3), 333-355. doi:10.1017/S0272263100012146
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages are Learned*, 3rd edn. Oxford University Press.
- Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language teaching*, 44(1), 64-77.
- Liu, D., Ahn, G. S., Baek, K. S., & Han, N. O. (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.
- Loewen, S., & Sato, M. (2018). Interaction and instructed second language acquisition. *Language Teaching*, 51(3), 285-329. doi:10.1017/S0261444818000125
- Lyster, R. & Sato, M. (2013). Skill acquisition theory and the role of practice in L2 development. In M. García Mayo, M., Gutierrez-Mangado, J. & M. Martínez

- Adrián (eds.), *Contemporary approaches to second language acquisition*. Amsterdam : John Benjamins, 71–92.
- Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy* (Vol. 5). Multilingual matters.
- Macaro, E., & Lee, J. H. (2013). Teacher Language Background, Codeswitching, and English-only Instruction: Does Age Make a Difference to Learners' Attitudes? *TESOL Quarterly: A Journal for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages and of Standard English as a Second Dialect* 47(4), 717–742. doi:10.1002/tesq.74.
- Mettewie, L., & Mensel, L. V. (2020). Understanding foreign language education and bilingual education in Belgium: a (surreal) piece of cake. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-19.
- Meunier, F. (2012) 'Formulaic language and second/foreign language teaching', in *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* (Vol. 32, pp. 1-34).
- Meunier, F. (2020). *English as a Foreign Language*. LGERM2522 – EFL methodology: Course notes. UCLouvain.
- Meunier, F., & Paquot, M. (2022). *English Linguistics: Second Language Acquisition*. LGERM2725. Course notes and Powerpoint Presentations. UCLouvain.
- Miles, R. (2004). *Evaluating the use of L1 in the English language classroom*. Birmingham: University of Birmingham.
- Mitchell, R. (1988) *Communicative Language Teaching in Practice*, London: CILT.
- Moore, E., & Vallejo, C., (2018). "Materials Set 6: Linguistic Diversity, Education and Social Justice." In *Teaching in and for Plurilingualism in the 21st Century*, edited by Emilee Moore. Barcelona: KONECT. <https://www.konectproject.com/>.

- Moore, P. J. (2013). An Emergent Perspective on the Use of the First Language in the English-as-a-Foreign-Language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*. 97 (1): 239-253.
- Nardo, D., & Reiterer, S. M. (2009). *Musicality and phonetic language aptitude*. De Gruyter Mouton.
- Nicaise, E. (2015). Highlighting linguistic features of native-English teacher talk as a reference framework for French-speaking EFL teachers: a corpus study, unpublished thesis (Ph. D.). *University of Louvaine*.
- O'Neill, R. (1994). *The Myth of the Silent Teacher*. Talk five at Annual IATEFL. April 1994, <http://www.binternet.com/~ted.power/esl0420.html> (not accessible anymore).
- Olivares, G. (2012). Foreign language learner variables in an urban commuter university setting. *Journal of Second Language Acquisition and Teaching*, 19, 1-23.
- Penfield, W., & Roberts, L. (1959). *Speech and Brain-Mechanisms*. Princeton University Press: Princeton.
- Peters, Elke, Noreillie, Ann-Sophie, & Puimège, Eva. (2020). Frans eerste vreemde taal en Engels tweede vreemde taal? Of toch niet? Een blik op de Engelse en Franse taalvaardigheid van jongeren in Vlaanderen. In *Taal en de wereld*, 53–70.
- Philp, J., Adams, R., & Iwashita, N. (2014). *Peer interaction and second language learning*. Routledge.
- Philp, J. (2017). *What do successful language learners and their teachers do? : Part of the Cambridge Papers in ELT series*. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Piasecka, K. (1988). The bilingual teacher in the ESL classroom. In S. Nicholls & E. Hoadley-Maidment (Eds.), *Current issues in teaching English as a second language to adults*. London: Edward Arnold, 97-103.
- Pica, T. (1988). Interactive adjustments as an outcome of NS NNS negotiated interaction. *Language Learning*, 38(1), 45-73.
- Polio, C. G., & Duff, P. A. (1994). Teachers' language use in university foreign language classrooms: A qualitative analysis of English and target language alternation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 313-326.
- Poulain, R. (2002). *Mémoire de l'inspection des langues germaniques de la communauté française au Ministère de l'Éducation à propos de l'année scolaire 2000-2001* (unpublished document).
- Poulin, G. (2007). *La pédagogie de la coopération en enseignement de l'anglais langue seconde : représentations et pratiques d'enseignants du secondaire* (Doctoral dissertation, Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières).
- Putri, D. S. (2015). The analysis of teacher talk and the characteristic of classroom interaction in English as a foreign language classroom. *Journal of English and Education*, 3(2), 16-27.
- Richardson, S. and Thornbury, S. (2016). *What's new in ELT besides technology?* Part of the Cambridge Papers in ELT series. [pdf] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rüdegger, S. (2017). *Language aptitude in primary school children and its effects on other cognitive domains* (Master's dissertation, Uni Wien).
- Saengboon, S. (2004). Second language acquisition (SLA) and English language teaching (ELT). *PASAA. Bangkok*, 35(1), 11-34.

- Schacht, E. (2020). *The teaching of foreign languages in Belgium: A comparative study of modern languages curricula in the French- and Dutch-speaking Community of Belgium*. Faculté de philosophie, arts et lettres, Université catholique de Louvain, Prom. : Meunier, Fanny.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning¹. *Applied linguistics*, 11(2), 129-158.
- Schweers, W. (1999). Using L1 in the L2 classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 37(2), 6-13.
- Sharma, B. K. (2010). Mother tongue use in English classroom. *Journal of NELTA*, 11(1), 80-87.
- Sharwood Smith, M. (1994). *Second language learning theoretical foundations*. London: Longman.
- Shehadeh, A. (2002). Comprehensible output, from occurrence to acquisition: An agenda for acquisitional research. *Language Learning*, 52(3), 597-647.
- Shin, J. Y., Dixon, L. Q., & Choi, Y. (2019). An updated review on use of L1 in foreign language classrooms. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 41(5), 406-419.
- Sousa, D. (2011). *How the ELL Brain Learns*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin.
- Storch, N. & Aldosari, A. (2013). Pairing learners in pair work activity. *Language Teaching Research* 17.1, 31–48.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In: Gass, S., Madden, C. (Eds.). *Input in Second Language Acquisition*. Newbury House, New York, 235-256

- Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 50, 158-164.
- Swain, M. (1995). *Three functions of output in second language learning*. In Cook, G. and Seidlhofer, B., (eds.) *Principle and Practice in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford University Press, 125-144.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, 371-391.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4, 251-274.
- Van den Akker, J. J. H., Fasoglio, D., & Mulder, H. (2010). *A curriculum perspective on plurilingual education*. Enschede: Council of Europe.
- Van Hoecke, E. (2017). *Second languages in Flanders: an empirical study on receptive English and French vocabulary size and the influence of language input on 11-12 year olds* (master's thesis). Ghent University, Ghent.
- Van Lier, L. (2001). Constraints and resources in classroom talk: Issues of equality and symmetry. In C. Candlin & M. Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context: A reader*. London: Psychology Press, 90-107.
- Van Parys, J., Wauters, S. (2006). *Les Connaissances Linguistiques en Belgique*. CEREC Working Papers; 2006/7.
- VanPatten, B. (2002). Processing instruction: An update. *Language Learning*, 54(2), 755-803. doi: 10.1111/1467-9922.00203
- VanPatten, B. & Williams, J. (2015). *Theories in Second Language Acquisition. An Introduction*. New York: Routledge.

- Van Splunder, F. (2021). Higher Education in Flanders: English as the 'other' language. In R. Wilkinson & R. Gabriëls (Eds.), *The Englishization of Higher Education in Europe* (pp. 37–56). Amsterdam University Press.
- Verspoor, M., Bot, K. D., & Heiden, F. V. D. (2007). Engels in het voortgezet onderwijs, de rol van buitenschools taalcontact. *Levende Talen Tijdschrift*, 8(3), 3-10.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. Routledge.
- Wandruszka, M. (1981). *Die Mehrsprachigkeit des Menschen*. München: Deutscher Taschenbuch Verlag.
- Wilkerson, C. (2008). Instructors' use of English in the modern language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 41(2), 310-320.
- Yule, G. & Macdonald, D. (1990). Resolving referential conflicts in L2 interaction: The effect of proficiency and interactive role. *Language Learning* 40.4, 539–556.
- Zéphir, F. & Chirol, M-M., (1993). Attitudes of Teaching Assistants and Students Toward the Exclusive Use of the Target Language in Beginning French Classes. In *The Dynamics of Language Program Direction*. AAUSC Issues in Language Program Direction, edited by David P. Benseler, 241-63. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Zulfikar, Z. (2018). Rethinking the use of L1 in L2 classroom. *Englisia: Journal of Language, Education, and Humanities*, 6(1), 42-51.

9. Appendix

9.1. Questions for the Walloon teachers' interview

- a) Quels sont, selon vous, les bénéfices d'utiliser la langue maternelle des élèves?
- b) A partir de quels moments ou dans quelles situations déterminez-vous que vous allez utiliser le français ?
- c) Y a-t-il des aspects de la matière pour lesquels vous auriez tendance à utiliser le français ?
- d) Qu'en est-il de l'humour en classe ?

9.2. Translation of the questions for the Walloon teachers' interview

- a) What are, according to you, the benefits of using the pupils' native language?
- b) In which situations do you determine that you are going to use French?
- c) Are there situations/elements of the lesson for which you would tend to use French?
- d) What about humor in the classroom?

9.3. Questions for the Flemish teachers' interview

- a) Wat denkt u van het gebruik van de moedertaal (door u & door uw leerlingen) in de klas?
- b) In mijn observaties heb ik opgemerkt dat u helemaal/bijna geen Nederlands gebruikt. Wordt u zo onderwezen in uw leraaropleiding? Hoe legt u dit uit?
- c) In welke situaties denkt u dat u het Nederlands zou moeten gebruiken?
- d) Hoe zit het met humor?

9.4. Translation of the questions for the Flemish teachers' interview

- a) What do you think about the use of the mother tongue (by you & by your pupils) in the classroom?
- b) In my observations, I have noticed that you do not use Dutch at all or hardly ever. Are you taught to proceed this way in your teacher training program? How do you explain this?
- c) In what situations do you think you might have to use Dutch?
- d) What about humor?

9.5. Reproduction of Table 6 - Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed

Community		Wallonia																		Flanders																	
School observed		ARJD Marcinelle						IND Loverval						CSC Charleroi						SPC Leuven						SJC Aalst						Leonardo College Denderleeuw					
Grade observed		4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	4th	4th (+3rd)	4th	6th	6th		
Hour n°X observed		1	2	3	1	2	3	1+2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2		
Welcoming pupils	W	E	E	X	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	FR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	X			
Giving instructions	Ins	E	E	EFR	E	E	E	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	FR	EFR	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	E	E	E		
Asking questions	Q?	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	E	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	X	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED		
Providing corrective feedback	Fb	X	E	X	E	X	X	X	FR	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	ED		
Explaining grammar	Gr	FR	X	FR	X	FR	X	FR	FR	FR	X	X	FR	X	FR	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	ED	X	X	E		
Explaining lexis/meaning	Lex	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	EFR	X	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	X	X	E	E	X	E	X	X	E	X	X	X	ED	ED	X	ED			
Introducing/closing a chapter	Chap	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	E	X		
Making a comment	Comm	FR	FR	FR	EFR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	FR	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	ED	ED	ED	ED		
Congratulating	Cong	EFR	E	E	E	X	E	X	FR	FR	X	X	FR	FR	EFR	E	E	X	E	E	E	E	X	X	E	X	E	X	E	E	X	E	X	E			
Checking comprehension	Check	E	E	E	EFR	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	X	X	FR	E	EFR	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	E	X	X			
Repeating students' ideas	R	E	E	E	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	E	X	D	X	E		
Saying goodbye	Bye	E	E	E	E	X	X	X	E	FR	FR	X	X	X	FR	X	E	E	E	E	E	X	E	X	X	E	E	E	X	E	E	E	E	E			
Dealing with a conflict (=Argument)	Arg	X	FR	X	X	FR	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	X	X	E	X	X			
Answering pupils' questions	Ans?	FR	EFR	X	X	X	X	FR	FR	X	X	X	FR	X	EFR	EFR	EFR	EFR	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	ED	E	E	E	D	X	E	X		
Dealing with attendance (=absent)	Abs	FR	X	FR	EFR	EFR	X	FR	E	FR	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	E	X	X	X	X	X	X	E	E	X	X	X	X	E	X		

Table 20. Language(s) used by the teachers according to the situations and the hours observed – Reproduction of Table 6

UNIVERSITÉ CATHOLIQUE DE LOUVAIN

Faculté de philosophie, arts et lettres

Place Blaise Pascal, 1 bte L3.03.11, 1348 Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgique | www.uclouvain.be/fial