L1 PRACTICES OF ENGLISH TEACHERS WORKING IN L2 CLASSES IN TURKISH PRIMARY SCHOOLS: HOW MUCH, WHEN, HOW AND WHY?

SERDAR TEKIN

Doctor of Philosophy

ASTON UNIVERSITY
December 2020

ASTON UNIVERSITY

L1 PRACTICES OF ENGLISH TEACHERS WORKING IN L2 CLASSES IN TURKISH PRIMARY SCHOOLS: HOW MUCH, WHEN, HOW AND WHY?

Serdar Tekin
Doctor of Philosophy, Aston University
December 2020

Thesis Summary

This thesis is concerned with the understanding of young learner (henceforth YL) English teachers' use of first language (henceforth L1) in English classes in Turkish primary schools. Due to the lack of research on L1 use in lower-level settings (Izquierdo et al., 2016; Sali, 2014), it aims to contribute to the academic debates around monolingual and bilingual language teaching from YL teachers' perspectives. More specifically, the study examines to what extent and for what functions they use L1 as well as underlying motivations for L1 use.

The study adopted a qualitative case study approach, and data were collected from five teachers through multiple methods, including classroom observation with field notes and interviews (partially stimulated recall). First, a pre-interview was conducted with each participant, followed by observations of different grades and finally post-interviews which aimed to explore the issues with regards to L1 use specifically. Gathering data over the course of three months, data consist of 60 observations and ten interviews in total. L1 utterances in teachers' talk were identified and analysed to determine the amount and functions of L1 use. In order to find out the underlying reasons for L1 use, thematic analysis (Nowell et al., 2017) was used to analyse the interviews and field notes.

The findings reveal that despite some negative attitudes towards L1 in the course of teaching English, all teachers used L1 to different degrees and for various purposes, identifying a number of practical reasons for their decisions. It also became clear that in the context of this study, L1 was an essential part of the classroom, and several factors including learners' young age and their distinctive characteristics had some role to play in teachers' L1 use. In light of the results of this study, a number of suggestions are proposed mainly for pre-service and in-service teacher education.

Keywords: L1 use, young learners, primary English, bilingual teaching

Dedication

This thesis is wholeheartedly dedicated to my beloved wife, Meliha Tekin, who has continually supported and encouraged me both before and during my research journey over the last several years.

Acknowledgements

First of all, my most heartfelt and sincere thanks go to my dear supervisor, Dr Sue Garton. Although words cannot adequately express my gratitude to her, I will try my best to describe it. Along with her immense guidance and support over the years, she has been an excellent role model for my future career. In addition to the generous enlightenment and encouragement she provided throughout the PhD journey, her support about professional development activities including conferences, training and teaching was very valuable for me. She has always been understanding and treated me like a 'colleague' rather than a 'student'. Although pursuing a PhD can sometimes appear intimidating and stressful, it has been a delightful and enjoyable journey thanks to her.

I would also like to thank my associate supervisor, Dr Nur Kurtoglu-Hooton, whose encouragement meant a lot to me, particularly during tough times.

I must express my gratitude to the other members of LSS and Aston University, especially Dan Thomson and Shrook Ahmed, both of whom helped me very much to overcome the most challenging procedures at the beginning of PhD. During the last three years, I have felt like being a part of a large family here at Aston.

Although most of my friends are not sure what I do, I would like to thank them for their support and providing a welcome distraction. Discussing each other's research ideas and exchanging ideas were really enjoyable for me as well as being informative.

I would also like to give a special thanks to my family for their everlasting belief and understanding. I truly appreciate everything they have done for me so far. It would be impossible for me to get this far without them. I feel lucky to have such a supportive family.

Finally, I would like to thank the Ministry of National Education in Turkey for funding my doctoral research at Aston University.

Table of Contents

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

List of Abbreviations

L1 – First language

L2 – Second language

YL – Young learner

ELT – English language teaching

EFL – English as a foreign language

MONE – Ministry of National Education

TEOG – Transition from Primary to Secondary Education Exam

GTM – Grammar Translation method

SLA – Second language acquisition

CAH – Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

SCT – Sociocultural Theory

RQ – Research question

PD – Professional development

BERA – British Research Association

ESRC – Economic and Social Research Council

List of Abbreviations

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Figures

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Overview of the research

The issue of how to teach a second language (L2) has been of great interest to researchers who have continuously been in the quest for better and more effective ways, and their vigorous work has led to much debate on various aspects of L2 teaching, including the use of first language (L1).

Teachers' use of L1 in second and foreign language teaching has long been a contentious issue. This debate is mainly shaped by two opposing views which are monolingual and bilingual language teaching. Monolingual language teaching is predicated on an almost complete avoidance of the use of L1 in the class, and maximum exposure to the L2 as the optimum approach to language teaching. It has been regarded as the norm and is embraced by recent methods such as Communicative language teaching and Task-based language learning and teaching (Bruen and Kelly, 2014). However, the English-only classroom has been increasingly questioned in favour of bilingual teaching which is based on the notion that L1 has a facilitative role in L2 learning and therefore should have a place in the language classroom (Butzkamm, 2003; Edstrom, 2006; Hall and Cook, 2012; Littlewood and Yu, 2011).

The debate on L1 use has prompted a multitude of studies at different levels in various contexts all over the world. However, most likely due to the fact that English has relatively recently been introduced at primary level (Copland and Garton, 2014; Garton, Copland and Burns, 2011), the majority of the studies seem to have been carried out in higher level teaching contexts. In this regard, a number of researchers (e.g. Izquierdo et al., 2016; Sali, 2014) highlight the rarity of the empirical studies conducted in primary school settings with young learners (YLs) and therefore call for new ones. In addition, considering the distinctive characteristics of YLs (Pinter, 2017), L1 practices of teachers working in primary settings may be different from those at higher levels so need investigating. Thus, for the purpose of addressing the gap in the literature and providing beneficial implications for teachers, particularly those working in primary schools, teacher educators and curriculum makers,

11

more research in primary contexts should be conducted. It is in line with this requirement that this research aims to explore primary school language teachers' L1 practices.

1.2 Rationale and purpose of the research

It is important to explain the researcher's main motivation to conduct this study for the readers to better understand the nature of the research and evaluate the results. Having worked as an English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher in different educational settings for several years, I always viewed teachers' language choice in the course of teaching as interesting and also confusing since the use of L1/L2 was not always a straightforward issue. Although using either language was sometimes a taken for granted decision for me, it was not easy to decide on which language to use in certain situations. Following working with teenagers for a few years, I started to work in primary school contexts and language choice was even more challenging to me as I was not familiar with YLs who were very different from older learners in many aspects (Section 3.3 below). For this reason, language use attracted my attention once my actual teaching experience started.

Following postgraduate study in TESOL in the UK, I learned that L1 use in L2 classes was a much-debated topic in the field, and there was still no general agreement among the academics or practitioners. In fact, the debate was not a recent one (Section 3.1.1 below), and there were various studies examining this issue from different perspectives including teachers' and learners' L1 use in different contexts, their attitudes, sociolinguistics L1 use, etc. The more I read about the debate and different views on L1 use, the more I became interested, and therefore decided to investigate this issue further to contribute to the literature.

Having explained the personal motivation, this exploratory study investigates YL English teachers' use of L1 in English classes. Analysing data from five participant teachers working in different primary schools in Turkey, it aims to add to our understanding of L1 language use in YL classrooms by examining YL English teachers' L1 practices and their actual classroom experiences. More specifically,

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

it investigates to what extent and for what functions YL EFL teachers use L1 in L2 classes. It also explores the underlying motivations to employ L1 in the course of teaching English, addressing the following research questions (RQs):

1. How much L1 do YL EFL teachers use in English classes?

2. For what functions do YL EFL teachers use L1 in English classes?

3. What are the underlying reasons for L1 use with YLs in English classes?

1.3 Contributions of the research

The current research aims to make a contribution from mainly two perspectives; academic and practical. Regarding the academic viewpoint, despite the growing literature on L1 use, a substantial proportion of these studies have been conducted at higher level educational contexts. Being carried out in primary school contexts, this study explores L1 use from YL teachers' perspective, on the assumption that experiences with YLs might be different from older learners. Thus, it has the potential to add to the debate of L1 use in L2 teaching.

Moreover, this research is believed to make a practical contribution in that the findings provide useful implications to education policy designers as well as language teachers working with YLs. The results might encourage teachers to evaluate their way of teaching in terms of language use by making a comparison between teaching contexts and make informed decisions on L1 use in L2 classes. It is believed that particularly teachers with little or no previous experience might benefit from the insights offered. A necessity of guidance for inexperienced teachers is also emphasised in the literature (e.g. Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2001).

1.4 The terminology used in this research

In order to prevent any confusion and ensure conceptual clarity, it is worth explaining the terminology used in this research which is two-fold; YL and L1/L2 use. Regarding the former, "young learner" is a generic term and legally refers to the children until the age of 18. However, several age classifications have been made in ELT, together with different terminology, by various researchers (e.g. Ellis, 2014; Pinter, 2012). For example, Ellis (2014) argues that a distinction should be made between pre and post 11/12 years old due to considerable differences in terms of physical, social and psychological changes as a result of puberty. Pinter (2012) classifies YLs as two groups, being younger (two-seven years) and older learners (eight-twelve years). In this regard, Enever and Moon (2010) express the necessity of accurate descriptors as well as a common terminology in order to develop age-appropriate approaches, which is, according to Pinter (2011), very difficult because defining "fixed age brackets" is not a straightforward issue due to different cultural interpretations (p.2). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to explore the discussion about age range descriptors; therefore, YL in this thesis is used for the learners studying in the 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades in primary schools in Turkey. As mentioned in Section 2.1.2 below, their age range is between 7 and 9 years old.

As for the terms of language choice, it is acknowledged that different terms are used in different studies to refer to the same concept. While there are relatively few terms used for L2 such as "target language", "second language" "new language", L1 is used under many different names including "home language" (Cummins, 2009), "own language" (Hall and Cook, 2012), "local language" (Mahboob and Lin, 2016) and "first language" (Copland and Neokleous, 2011). As a result of terminological inconsistency[1], there is a call for conceptual clarity for the terms with clear distinction or definition to prevent confusion among researchers (Garton and Kubota, 2015; Hall and Cook, 2012).

---

[1] Terms are discussed among researchers as a result of the inconsistency in terminology, which is beyond the scope of this thesis, but see Hall and Cook (2012) and Lin (2013).

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Despite acknowledging the lack of uniformity in terminology, this study uses the term "first language" (abbreviated to L1) and "second language" (abbreviated to L2) which are pervasive terms used in much of the literature (Anderson and Lightfoot, 2018). Although the term "first language" might be problematic in some contexts where the same L1 is not a shared language among all learners, it is not the case in the context of this study where first language is regarded as Turkish and the second language being taught is English.

For a better understanding of the research, as well as results and implications, it is essential to give some contextual information. Thus, the next chapter provides a general contextual background of the study. Detailed information about specific school contexts in which data collection was carried out is provided along with the details of the participants in Section 4.6.

Chapter 2 Research context

The research took place in Turkish state primary schools. In this regard, a brief description of Turkish educational system and English language teaching (ELT) in primary schools is provided to contextualise this research.

2.1.1 Education system in Turkey

The official language in Turkey is Turkish, and English is taught as a foreign language. In fact, English is the most commonly taught compulsory foreign language across state and private institutions at different levels (Kirkgoz, 2008). The education system consists of five main levels which are pre-school, primary school, middle school, high school and higher education (see Table 2.1 below). All levels but pre-school have the same duration, which is four years. Except for university, all levels are compulsory.

Table 2.1 Education levels in Turkey

Level	Grade	Age	Length
Pre-school	–	5/6	1 year
Primary school	1 – 4	6 – 9	4 years
Middle school	5 – 8	10 – 13	4 years
High school	9 – 12	14 – 17	4 years
Higher education	1 – 4	18 – 21	4 years[2]

From middle school on, learners have achievement tests to move up to the next level. Learners can choose which school to go to according to the result of these exams. The exams are central exams conducted at the national level. The questions are prepared by the Ministry of National Education (MONE) and are entirely multiple choice based. Although the content of English exam differs at

---

[2] There are also some programs which last longer although the majority are for four years.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

different levels, they have a common point in that their focus is mainly on reading, vocabulary and grammar rather than communicative skills.

Primary education is different from upper levels in terms of teachers' professions. Although each subject is taught by different teachers from middle school on, this is not the case in primary schools where classroom teachers are the only teachers. They teach all the subjects except for English which is taught by specialist teachers. Therefore, classroom teachers can be regarded as the main teachers whom learners encounter every day. In contrast, English teachers meet learners once a week for an 80-minute English lesson.

There are two paths for becoming an English teacher in Turkey. The most common one is studying a four-year BA in ELT which covers the pedagogical aspects of teaching and aims to improve teacher candidates' content knowledge. This program specifically focuses on teaching English at all levels and has several modules including teaching reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar, vocabulary, methodology in ELT, teaching English to YLs, assessment and evaluation and so on. The other route is studying BA in English Literature or American Culture and take an additional intense pedagogical formation course lasting from a few months to one year (covering fundamental aspects of teaching such as classroom management and introduction to teaching), and this is offered by several universities. In both cases, teacher candidates have to have a practicum to gain experience in teaching under the supervision of more experienced teachers. However, teaching practice is much shorter in pedagogical formation courses due to limited time, which leads to several discussions about the quality of such courses (Yildirim and Vural, 2014).

The ones who follow either path are qualified to teach English in primary and secondary education in Turkey. Therefore, English teachers working in primary schools are not specifically trained to teach YLs. ELT departments of the universities offer only one module (teaching YLs) to all teacher candidates regardless of at which level they will work in the future.

2.1.2 ELT in Turkish primary schools

Since 1997, when the Ministry of National Education (MONE) made a radical change in ELT, English has been taught as a compulsory subject to the fourth graders in primary schools in Turkey. Moreover, with another change in the legislation made by MONE (2006), the starting age of learning English was lowered, and students have started to learn it at the age of seven (the 2nd grade) since then (Kirkgoz et al., 2016). Currently, English is the only mandatorily taught foreign language at primary level in Turkey.

The curriculum for primary schools in Turkey highlights a communicative approach in ELT, underlining the importance of spoken language, particularly in grades two through to four (MONE, 2018). Rather than focusing on reading, writing and grammatical structures, the main emphasis is on the development of oral-aural skills with the inclusion of enjoyable activities (see Table 2.2 below). In line with this, MONE suggests that 2nd and 3rd graders do not have any notebooks. This is potentially compatible with Cameron's (2003) argument suggesting that YLs learn a new language effectively if they have fun. On the other hand, some studies report that some teachers still use a grammar-based approach especially for the fourth graders particularly in state schools (Kirkgoz, 2008) and teach English as a subject rather than as a language of communication (British Council, 2013). This is regarded as one of the main factors impeding students' learning speaking/understanding English successfully (ibid.).

Table 2.2 English Language Curriculum (2ⁿᵈ – 4ᵗʰ Grades) (MONE, 2018 p.10)

Levels/CEFR (Hours/Week)	Grades (Age)	Skill Focus	Main Activities/Strategies
1/A1 (2)	2 (7)	Listening and Speaking	TPR/Arts and crafts/Drama
	3 (8)	Listening and Speaking Very Limited Reading and Writing	
	4 (9)	Listening and Speaking Very Limited Reading and Writing	

For the successful implementation of the new curriculum mentioned above, MONE has clearly identified guidelines regarding the role of L1 in English classrooms in primary schools (MONE, 2018). It encourages teachers to use English for the medium of instruction as much as possible. Despite not prohibiting the use of L1 for teachers, it suggests that L1 should only be employed in necessary situations, for example, when giving complex instructions or explaining difficult concepts. It emphasises that "teachers are present in the classroom mainly for communicating in English" (MONE, 2018 p.12). In this regard, teachers are supposed to keep L1 to a minimum.

With regards to the new approach, the aims and objectives of each grade are described in detail. Among the central aims are to promote a positive attitude towards English, to raise students' interest, motivation and awareness of a foreign language, to set up meaningful learning activities for students, and to establish classroom situations in the context of games so that students can better learn English (Kirkgoz, 2007). In order to achieve these aims, performance-based assessment is implemented through portfolios rather than traditional written examinations in the second and third grade. Therefore, students first meet the basic written exams in the fourth grade. At the end of middle school, however, students have an important central exam named Transition from Primary to Secondary Education (TEOG), which is based on reading, grammar and vocabulary (oral skills not included). This is regarded as having a washback effect even at the primary level (Kılıçkaya, 2016). More specifically, TEOG exam seems to have a negative washback in that, although the intended skill in the curriculum

is oral communication in the L2, the focus of English classes is in line with the exam contents (Kılıçkaya, 2016) and this, in turn, may affect teachers' language choice. Teachers are more likely to prefer L1 to L2 as the medium of instruction to teach the intended language points to better prepare learners for the exam.

In order to investigate the implementation of the communicative oriented curriculum at primary schools, Kirkgoz (2008) conducted a longitudinal case study research with 32 teachers. She collected data through classroom observations and teacher interviews over the period of two years. The results reveal that participants' way of teaching was not in line with the curriculum which focuses on developing learners' oral-aural skills. It was found that they mostly used a "traditional language teaching style" with putting greater emphasis on explicit grammar teaching by using L1. An example of typical classroom routine of one participant is explained as follows (ibid., p.1870):

> A general way of opening the lesson for an eclectic-oriented teacher was by greeting and taking pupils' attendance, usually followed by presenting new language on the board and explaining the rules of the language and the grammar directly in L1. Then, s/he directed questions to many pupils, encouraging students to answer and participate in the lesson. The teacher usually continued with an activity, and finally s/he gave students homework.

It is also noteworthy mentioning that although all learners in primary education learn English, there is an inequality of access to English in general across different schools (Erkan, 2012) and particularly between urban and rural schools in terms of several aspects (Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe, 2005). Learners in urban areas have much more chance to engage with English out of the classroom through various ways, including access to the Internet, private courses and tourism depending on the location while the ones studying in rural schools are mostly deprived of such facilities. Thus, the only opportunity for rural learners to engage with English is an 80-minute English lesson every week. This might result in a difference in learners' proficiency (ibid.).

2.2 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. The previous chapter has provided brief information about the overview of the research, its purpose and contributions. The terminology used in this research has also been clarified.

This chapter has introduced the research context in general. This included an overall introduction to the education system in Turkey and ELT in primary schools.

Chapter three presents a selective overview of the relevant literature with regards to the use of L1 in L2 classes. Firstly providing brief information about the theoretical background of L1 use, it then presents empirical studies investigating various aspects of teachers' L1 use. In line with the common point of the participants who are teachers of primary school learners, characteristics of YLs are also elaborated in this chapter.

Chapter four outlines the methodological approach used in this research by first discussing the ontological and epistemological approach adopted. Detailed information is then given about data collection methods and procedure of data collection as well as analysis procedures. Participants, sampling and ethical considerations are also described in detail.

Chapter five is devoted to findings with regards to teachers' use of L1. The results are illustrated in line with the RQs.

Chapter six discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter by linking them with the previous literature and drawing on similarities and differences. Based on discussed points, some recommendations are provided for different stakes in education.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Chapter seven provides a conclusion to the study, summarising the pertinent research findings and identifying the limitations of this research as well as suggesting directions for future research particularly related to language choice in L2 teaching/learning.

Chapter 3 Literature review

This chapter reviews the literature regarding the use of L1 in L2 learning and teaching with a focus on the role of L1 in different methods and approaches in language teaching and the debate about L1 use in L2 teaching. It also presents empirical studies on this issue conducted in various contexts. In this regard, it aims to locate the present research in the context of the existing literature by particularly focusing on teachers' L1 use with YLs in L2 classrooms.

The chapter presents a detailed review of the literature about L1 use in L2 teaching and learning. However, given this field is quite extensive, it is necessarily selective, focusing on previous research that is most relevant to the current study. It comprises four main sections: Section 3.1 first elaborates what is meant with monolingual and bilingual approach, and then provides a brief summary of the history of language teaching in terms of L1 use. It also presents arguments for and against L1 use in each case, as well as a number of suggestions for actual classroom use of L1. The second section (Section 3.2) presents some empirical studies investigating various aspects of teachers' L1 use in terms of amount, functions and their attitudes towards it. In line with the common point of participants of this study, which is being YL English teachers, the next section (Section 3.3) elaborates the characteristics of YLs which might have an impact on teachers' L1 and L2 use in the course of teaching L2. A summary of the chapter is provided in the final section (Section 3.4).

3.1 The theoretical background of L1 use

This section presents the overview of the most prominent methods and approaches in language teaching over the centuries in terms of L1 use in order to gain a better understanding of how the issue of L1 use in L2 teaching has evolved over time. For more details of methods and approaches in language teaching and the role of L1, see, for example, Richards and Rodgers (2014), Copland and Ni (2018), and Hall and Cook (2012).

However, before proceeding to the methods of language teaching and their relationship with L1 use, it would be useful to elaborate what is meant with monolingualism and bilingualism in language teaching/learning as the main debate is between these approaches. According to Hall and Cook (2012 p.271), the assumption in monolingual approach is that

> a new language is best taught and learned monolingually, without use of the students' own language for explanation, translation, testing, classroom management or general communication between teacher and student.

The foremost concern of teachers is maximizing the amount of L2 use in order to expose learners to as much L2 as possible; therefore, L1 use should be discouraged or even banned in the course of language teaching/learning. However, the monolingual approach is criticised by several scholars. According to Cummins (2007), for example, the monolingual approach implicitly assumes that native speakers of L2 are the ideal teachers because of the authenticity of their language and immersion in the native culture, and that the aim of L2 learners is to attain native speaker proficiency. This has a negative effect on the role of non-native speaker teachers who are regarded less professional. From this viewpoint, Cook (2016 p.13) calls it as "monolingual bias" since a particular group of speakers of a language are deficient for some other group. Moreover, some view this approach as an ideology to protect the interests of English-speaking countries over other countries in which English is not used as the first language (Copland, 2018; Cummins, 2007; Hall and Cook, 2012). In this regard, although monolingualism is still prevailing in language teaching across the world, it is questioned more and more.

In contrast to the monolingual approach, bilingual language teaching is in favour of incorporating the language which is already known in L2 classes (Hall and Cook, 2012). It focuses on the facilitative role of L1 in L2 teaching from many aspects including cognitive, pedagogical and affective benefits. For example, according to bilingual approach, use of L1 can facilitate a reduction in learners' cognitive overload and therefore their anxiety by enhancing their understanding of L2 (Bruen and Kelly, 2014).

There are several arguments in favour of bilingual language teaching, which are elaborated in Section 3.1.3 below. There has been an increasing support for L1 use in L2 classes, but it seems there is lack of consensus on its effective use.

3.1.1 Review of different methods in terms of L1 use

With the dominant use of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the bilingual approach was the norm in second and foreign language teaching a few hundred years ago. L1 use was a common practice, and the emphasis was placed more on general intellectual development and discipline as well as on the development of an ability to read literature rather than listening or speaking (Bruen and Kelly, 2014; Cook, 2010). However, as a result of dissatisfaction with GTM due to its ignoring communicative skills in around mid- and late nineteenth century, the Reform Movement developed and the emphasis shifted towards spoken language (Cook, 2009). As a consequence of this shift, GTM was replaced by other methods, such as the Direct Method emphasising "the teaching of an L2 using that language (and only that language) as a means of instruction" (ibid. p113). A number of methods[3] focusing on communication have since developed such as the Audiolingual method, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-based Learning and Teaching (TBLT), and, and "methods era" commenced (Richards and Rodgers, 2014), although in practice GTM was (and is) still widely used in various countries such as Saudi Arabia (e.g. Assalahi, 2013), Japan (Howard, 2018) and Indonesia (Siregar, 2018). The common point among all these new methods was that, as Bruen and Kelly (2014) report, they generally embraced L2-only policy which advocates an almost complete avoidance of the use of L1 in the class, and views this as an optimum way of language teaching. Cook (2009 p.112) summarizes how these methods view L1 use as follows:

---

[3] There is a lot of discussion about these methods in terms of theoretical underpinnings, implementation and difference between each other (e.g. whether Task-based learning is a form of CLT or not). Whilst acknowledging that the issues are complex, details of the discussion are beyond the scope of this thesis, but see Richards and Rogers (2014).

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

> From the end of the nineteenth century onwards almost all influential theoretical works on language teaching have assumed without argument that a new language (L2) should be taught without reference to the student's first language (L1).

During the recent years, however, there has been a shift away from methods era toward a "post-methods era" which suggests an empowering of teachers who can draw on methods and strategies depending on contextual factors (Kumaravadivelu, 1994 p.27). In line with this, monolingual language teaching has been increasingly criticised, and both solid theoretical and empirical reasons have been put forward to challenge this approach, which are discussed below (Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001, 2005; Hall and Cook, 2012; Macaro, 2005). Referring to its facilitative role in the course of teaching L2, it is increasingly argued that there is a place for L1 in L2 classes, and therefore the recommendation is that language teachers use students' L1 cautiously or in a controlled or principled way (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Even more, some researchers have now gone beyond "cautious" L1 use and advocate a bilingual approach (e.g. Copland and Ni, 2018).

However, the debate is far from resolved and several justifications have been made by drawing on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories in favour of both monolingual and bilingual language teaching. These are discussed in the following section.

3.1.2 The Monolingual perspective

One of the justifications put forward for exclusive L2 use suggests that, as Ellis (2012) reports, L2 learning should be similar to that of L1 in that children acquire language naturally with the exposure to it. This type of learning leads children to become expert users of L1 so they should be exposed to a similar type and amount of L2 in order to acquire it. This argument, however, is not in favour of producing L2 environment exactly the same as L1, which might be argued as not possible in practice, but it essentially emphasises the importance of the quantity of L2 input in L2 acquisition. Therefore, according to this argument, it is necessary to "create an input-rich environment which provides learners with optimal opportunities for meaningful use of the target language ..." (Kim and Elder, 2008

p.167). Only in this way can the learners have the successful achievement of L2 as they do with their L1 acquisition. In this respect, language teaching should be conducted by using L2 extensively.

Probably the main justification for extensive L2 input in class is students' having limited opportunity to engage with L2 out of class, particularly in foreign language settings. More specifically, teachers' use of L1 reduces the amount of L2 input. Due to the fact that learners are deprived of valuable L2 input which is undoubtedly crucial to L2 learning, according to Ellis (2005, 2008), they are unable to acquire it efficiently. Similarly, Turnbull (2001) expresses his worry about the sufficient amount of L2 input and points out that teachers' L2 use is the main L2 source for students; therefore, it should not be limited by the use of L1. This is, according to Macaro (2001), believed to be the strongest of the arguments in favour of the English-only classroom and the main foundation of monolingual language teaching.

The argument of extensive L2 input is compatible with the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) which adopts a very strong position on the importance of L2 input and therefore posits L1 as having an inhibitor role in the course of L2 learning. This hypothesis similarly proposes a learning environment in which learners would be exposed to motivating and meaningful L2 input, and this input should be slightly beyond learners' linguistic competence but sufficiently comprehensible for them to understand. In this way, learners would be able to integrate the input into their developing language systems, successfully acquire their second language, and become competent users of L2 in much the same way as children acquire their L1.

The argument of exclusive L2 use also finds support from a number of early empirical studies (e.g. Carroll, 1975; Burstall, 1970; Wolf, 1977 (cited in Turnbull and Arnett 2002)) and more recent ones (e.g. Mahmoud, 2012; Moyer, 2006; Weitz et al., 2010). For example, investigating the effects of teacher's L1 (Arabic) use on 50 tertiary level students' L2 (English) achievement level, Mahmoud (2012) found that exclusive L2 use positively affects students' success rate while L1 use led to low

27

achievement among students. A pre-test and post-test were applied to a control and experimental group taught by the same English teacher. While exclusive L2 was used with the control group, limited L1 was employed with the experimental group for several purposes including an explanation of complex structures, translation of abstract concepts and resolving conflict and behavioural problems. Although t-test results of pre-test show that there is no significant difference (t=0.12), analysis of post-test reveals a significant difference between the means of both groups (t=2.49), which indicates that scores of the control group are considerably higher than the experimental group. Based on these results, the researcher suggests teachers to be trained to teach through the L2 itself without recourse to L1. However, one point worth noting about this study is that students' accounts towards L1/L2 use are not taken into consideration. This might be put as a limitation of the study considering several studies which found positive attitudes of students towards L1 use in the course of L2 teaching/learning (see Section 3.2.3 below).

It is also believed that the monolingual approach finds support from Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis which is also closely related to Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis in that both give great importance to comprehensible input in L2. The Interaction Hypothesis also puts emphasis on the interaction in L2 that promotes language learning when communication breakdowns arise, and learners try to overcome by "negotiating for meaning". In the case of communication problems, learners make some conversational modifications such as confirmation checks and clarification requests, and these strategies help the interaction progress and create comprehensible input. Considering the tenets of the Interaction Hypothesis, it is argued that only L2 should be used in the course of interactions even when the communication breaks down because "the opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency" (Ellis, 2005 p.219).

In addition, the argument of exclusive L2 use also finds support from arguments around the role of L1 interference on L2 learning. More specifically, as Brooks-Lewis (2009) reports, in order to be fully successful in the process of L2 learning, learners should keep the L2 and L1 as separate as possible

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

because the presence of L1 can impede L2 learning. In this regard, the argument is that L2 should be learned only through L2 with no link to L1 in order to prevent the negative influence of L1 in the course of L2 development. This argument is, in essence, dependent upon Lado's (1957) Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). According to this hypothesis, interference by students' L1 may be the main source of some errors made in the course of L2 learning.

A number of empirical studies report the negative influence of L1 on L2 learning arising from differences between L1 and L2. In a study with tertiary level students in Macao, for example, Mak (2015) found that L1 interference (Cantonese) was evident in students' L2 writing (English). Analysis of 200 pieces of L2 writings revealed that 80% of students' errors made in their writings were as a consequence of their L1. The researcher also had interviews with 30 students, and a great majority (70%) reported the negative effect of L1 on their L2 writing. Regarding the nature of this effect, the students mostly tended to do word-by-word translation by considering the structural and grammatical rules in their own L1, which resulted in producing wrong sentences in L2. This was more evident for less proficient students. Similarly, Perwisatari et al. (2015) conducted a study to investigate the role of L1 interference in L2 vowel production in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, where L1 is Javanese, and L2 is English. Having created two different groups, being a control group of 10 native English speakers and an experimental group of 20 adult L2 (English) learners, the researchers compared participants' production of a set of target monophthong words inserted in sentences. The results reveal significant differences between the two groups in terms of duration of vowels. More specifically, vowel durations of /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ʌ/ and /ʊ/ produced by the experimental group were considerably shorter compared to the control group. It was also found that L2 learners had a difficulty producing the correct duration of long vowels including /iː/, /ɜː/, /ɔː/ and /uː/, probably because these features are not prominently exploited in their L1.

Considering the results of such empirical studies, the arguments in favour of monolingual language teaching oppose L1 use in the L2 class due to its possible hindering role during L2 learning. If L1 is

precluded from L2 classrooms by means of exclusive L2 use, it is believed that students will not rely on L1 strategies or structures that might intrude in the L2 learning process. In this way, they will more likely be familiar with L2 without resourcing L1 and be more successful. However, as it is the case in the abovementioned studies, the interference of L1 on L2 learning mainly stems from the differences between two languages. From this viewpoint, interference should not occur (or occur much less) for the languages which have similar structures. In this regard, one might believe that L1 interference should be limited to certain structures which are different in L1 and L2. Considering this, it would be problematic to put forward a general argument in favour of exclusive L2 use in order to reduce the negative influence of L1 on L2 learning on all occasions.

3.1.3 The bilingual perspective

In contrast with the arguments in favour of exclusive L2 use in second/foreign language teaching, several opposing views have been put forward in favour of including L1. To begin with, there are several differences between L1 acquisition and L2 learning, so it is difficult to justify that both processes should be conducted in the same way (Cook, 2001). Contextual factors, for example, are not the same. The context of L1 acquisition (children's natural environment) is considerably different from the L2 learning context, which is mostly a classroom environment and somewhat artificial. The amount of exposure to the language is also another important difference between L1 acquisition and L2 learning, in that children are naturally exposed to L1 abundantly through their families and relatives all the time while L2 teaching/learning hours are much more limited, especially in EFL contexts.

In addition to contextual differences, children acquiring L1 and L2 differ in many aspects. L2 learners have the opportunity to draw on their already-acquired languages and compare both languages, depending on their age and learning experience, while this is not the case with L1 acquisition during which children either do not have knowledge of other languages (Cook, 2008) or acquire languages simultaneously. Moreover, children acquiring L1 have numerous distinctive characteristics different

30

from older L2 learners in terms of cognitive maturity and behaviour (Pinter, 2017), even though the ever-younger age at which children learn their L2 is reducing those differences (See Section 3.3 below). Further, although conscious motivation does not play an important role in L1 acquisition, which is a somewhat automatic process, it is a determinant factor in L2 attainment (Dörnyei, 2009). All these differences between L1 acquisition and L2 learning in terms of context, and individuals must be taken into account when considering L2 teaching.

It is pointed out by more and more researchers that the majority of children in the world are at least bilingual through both the formal and informal environment (e.g. school and family education). More specifically, two-thirds of the children in the world are raised in a bilingual environment which means they are exposed to more than one language simultaneously and develop competence (Copland, 2018; Creese and Blackledge, 2010; Crystal, 2003; Pinter, 2012). From this viewpoint, it is argued that teaching contexts should be similar to this environment, and L1 should be used in classes. For example, Copland (2018) argues that it might be a good practice to employ L1 in order for the learners to make meaning easier and even suggests bilingual activities that draw on both L1 and L2 use. In this regard, she believes that L1 use should be "normalised" in the classroom, similar to the outside world rather than treating it something to be always avoided (p.59).

The idea of keeping L1 and L2 separate and maintaining exclusive L2 use in the course of teaching/learning another language is therefore highly challenged from various viewpoints. Cummins (2005 p.588) criticises this idea by regarding it as a continuation of monolingual hegemony and argues that "we should free ourselves from these monolingual instructional assumptions…". Moreover, language learning is not simply adding a new language onto the previous one but creating "a complex overall system where L1 and L2 are inextricably tied together" (Cook, 2009 p.59). There is a constant interaction between two languages which are affected by one another through language transfer (Jarvis and Pavlenko, 2008). From this perspective, the idea of separating L1 from L2 over-simplifies complicated connections between two languages in learners' minds. Cook (2016) therefore

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

emphasises the impossibility of total separation of languages and puts forward an "integration continuum model" which suggests that both L1 and L2 are interdependent in multiple ways such as in phonology, syntax and lexicology. In this regard, confirming the impossibility of the separation of L1 and L2, Copland (2018 p.57) argues that L1 should be integrated into L2 classrooms. She explains it as follows:

> It is now understood that languages are not stored as different systems in the brain but together as part of one system (Birdsong, 2010). Given this fact, it seems odd that languages should be separated out in classrooms into L1 and L2 domains.

According to the bilingual argument, the idea of L1 interference as a source of all errors in L2 learning is also problematic because it ignores the positive impact of L1 on L2 learning, which is the strong form of CAH. CAH suggests two crucial points: (1) differences between L1 and L2 would be a good way for predicting some errors that students are likely to make, and (2) L1 can be efficiently exploited by means of positive transfer of L1 similarities into the L2 learning (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Specifically related to the positive transfer, Lado (1957 p.2) argues that students may both benefit from the similarities and have difficulty because of differences:

> The student who comes into contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his (*sic*) native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.

In contrast with the empirical evidence on the negative effect of L1 on L2 learning mentioned in Section 3.1.2 above (Mak, 2015 and Perwisatari, 2015), the positive influence of L1 on L2 learning is reported by several studies. In an empirical study investigating writing strategies of Chinese post-graduate students studying in an Australian university, Mu and Carrington (2007) found that students' L1 mostly positively affected their L2 writing. More specifically, out of eleven writing strategies determined by the researchers, students' drawing on their L1 had a positive effect for nine strategies such as genre awareness, planning strategies, evaluating and monitoring strategies, generating strategies, revisiting strategies. In genre awareness, for example, all participants transferred their L1

knowledge into L2 writing by actively comparing writing models in both languages and familiarizing themselves with the task genre in the L2. This strategy helped them to produce better writing assignments.

The results also revealed that L1 negatively affected only two strategies because of the difference between two languages (organising sentences and cohesive strategies). For example, participants usually made a mistake about the order of the clauses in a sentence (they put the subordinate clause before the main clause), which is probably as a result of negative transfer from their L1. In this regard, the researchers suggest that L2 writing strategies should be identified depending on positive and negative transfer, and L2 writers should be encouraged to use L1 for those that lead to positive transfer. Similarly, Brooks-Lewis (2009) conducted classroom-based research through anonymous written reports, questionnaires and interviews to find out university students' perceptions towards and experiences about L1 use in English learning/teaching in Mexico. The results indicate that incorporation of L1 enables students to compare and contrast between L2 and their previous knowledge in the L1 in terms of several aspects, including grammar points and vocabulary. Since the participants were adults and therefore had a certain level of knowledge on their L1, they stated that they had the ability to notice the similarities and differences between two languages (Spanish and English) and transferred this knowledge to the L2 learning process, which made the learning easier and helped them to understand better. Participants' existing knowledge particularly on L1 grammar was useful for them to comprehend L2 grammar since both languages have many similar structures. Therefore, they had a chance to build new concepts and rules in the L2 on their existing knowledge. In accordance with these studies, Ellis and Shintani (2014) convincingly encourage teachers to use L1 as "learners do indeed, in part at least, move from the known to the unknown" (p.246). From this viewpoint, L1 should not be seen as the main cause of errors, but as a communicative resource on which both students and teachers can draw in various ways.

In arguing for teachers' use of L1, Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter Hypothesis is also relevant. Although the relationship between language learning and anxiety is still debated (see Ellis and Shintani, (2014) for details), many believe that it has an important role to play in L2 learning (e.g. Scott and Fuente, 2008). According to this hypothesis, language learning is considerably influenced by some factors such as motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. More specifically, a better learning environment is more likely to occur for students if they have high motivation and a good self-image (Krashen, 1982). In order to increase these affective factors, students' anxiety levels should be low. In this respect, it is argued that teachers can use L1 for the purpose of reducing learners' affective barriers, especially the ones who have lower proficiency and are shy since they may refrain from expressing what they think or have great difficulty to understand what teachers say in L2 (Copland and Ni, 2018; Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Littlewood and Yu, 2011).

Several studies show a positive effect of L1 use on lowering learners' affective barriers. In addition to the role of L1 in positive transfer mentioned above, Brooks-Lewis (2009 p.233) also found that the teacher's inclusion of L1 "reduces [learners'] anxiety, enhances the affective environment for learning …". Some learners were stressed due to having possible understanding problems in the "alien territories of both the classroom and the foreign language" (ibid. p.224), while others had a feeling of fear of L2 speaking people. Some were also afraid of making mistakes in L2, which is somewhat a common problem, especially for adult learners. However, these were overcome with the help of the teacher's L1 use, particularly at the beginning of the course. Moreover, the teacher (native English speaker) talked about her own mistakes in the course of learning students' L1 (Spanish), which encouraged learners to learn English more willingly. Learners also associated the teacher's L1 use with her respecting their sociocultural issues including culture, values and identity by stating in the written reports that they feel at ease and build a better attitude towards L2 in the case of the teacher's L1 use.

Liao (2006) carried out another study with 351 Taiwanese junior college students to find out their beliefs about the effect of L1 and L2 on their class participation. One major finding is that students believed they were more active when L1 was employed in the class. Regarding the main reason for active participation, they stated that L1 use helps them learn L2 skills more easily and therefore enhance motivation to learn English. In contrast, they were reluctant to take part in the activities with exclusive L2 use due to feeling of low self-confidence and being nervous. What is interesting about the results is that compared to less proficient peers, more proficient learners were inclined to be more negative towards L1 use due to its inhibitor role in their L2 attainment. They believed that over-reliance on L1 use can sometimes be counter-productive by leading to negative transfer of L1 features to L2. On the contrary, less proficient learners reported that excessive L2 use is challenging for them, as they tended to feel exhausted and frustrated due to inability to understand. It suggests that learners' proficiency level has a possible role in their attitudes to L1 use in this research.

Further, Bruen and Kelly (2014), in an interview study with twelve tertiary level teachers and students in Ireland focusing on their attitudes towards L1 (English) use in L2 (Japanese and German) classes, found that judicious L1 use was supported by the participants particularly because of its role to create a relaxed classroom environment by facilitating a reduction in learner anxiety and cognitive overload. The results of this study and others mentioned above suggest that teachers' recourse to L1 has a positive influence on students' affective filter in the process of language learning, and in turn, they are more likely to learn L2 successfully.

In addition, it is believed that the use of L1 finds support from Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory (SCT). SCT puts emphasis on social interaction which has a crucial role to play in cognitive processes and individual development of knowledge. This interaction may occur by means of scaffolding which is a kind of "adult controlling" (Wood et al., 1976 p.90). During the scaffolding process, an adult (or an expert) helps a child or novice to achieve a goal or finish a task which is beyond his/her current level, and in this way, they may proceed further than they would on their own. From this point of view, L1

constitutes important scaffolding support between teachers and learners, and among learners themselves, for several purposes such as making the interaction more meaningful depending on learners' level of understanding, making the tasks and exercises easier for learners to understand, and in turn, they may learn L2 better. Echoing this, numerous studies (e.g. Bhooth et al., 2014: Sali, 2014; Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003) report the pedagogic benefits of L1 use (for example, enabling learners to move forward in linguistic goals, providing clearer explanations) particularly in learners' collaborative work both with teachers and each other. In this respect, recourse to L1 is regarded as "a normal psychological process that allows learners [and teachers] to initiate and sustain verbal interaction" (Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003 p.768). In an empirical study with 45 Yemeni EFL tertiary level learners conducted by Bhooth et al. (2014), for example, the findings show that L1 (Arabic) is used among learners as a learning strategy in pair/group works for translating new vocabulary, defining concepts, making clarifications and doing the tasks collaboratively. Although learners themselves are aware of the disadvantage of the excessive use of L1 for learning English and argue that there should be a limit for it, they acknowledge the benefits of L1 use as a scaffolding tool in the course of language learning.

It is unlikely that the debate about L1 and L2 use on the language classroom will be easily resolved because of numerous arguments for and against the use of L1 that have been put forward, as outlined above. An increasing number of researchers criticise monolingual language teaching in support of the inclusion of L1. However, there appears to be no consensus among advocates of the bilingual approach on when, how and to what extent teachers should employ L1. Although Spada (2007) warns teachers about using L1 efficiently, Scott and Fuente (2008), in an attempt to point out the efficient use, justifiably asks "What is the productive use of L1, and what is too much?" (p.100). It seems to be problematic to determine the "productive" or "efficient" use of L1 for all teaching settings due to the range of contexts. In this regard, Edstrom (2009) highlights that "decisions about L1 use are, in large part, inextricably tied to classroom circumstances and cannot be predetermined nor easily generalised

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

from one context to another" (p.14). Classroom circumstances here indicate numerous factors affecting teaching environments such as students' level, motivation, age, class size and curriculum. L1/L2 use with adult intermediate level learners, for instance, cannot or should not be the same with beginner level YLs considering the fundamental differences between two groups. Since these factors largely depend on specific contexts, there is unlikely to be a straightforward answer or a solution to what counts as the productive L1 use.

The focus in this chapter so far has been around whether to incorporate the use of L1 in L2 teaching in general regardless of learners' ages, as the debate is not exclusive to language use with YLs. Some of the most common justifications supporting both views in favour of monolingual and bilingual approach have been outlined. Lack of consensus around L1 use in the bilingual approach adds to the more debate and makes the issue more complex. Thus, there are a number of suggestions about how and when to use L1, and it is to these suggestions that I now turn.

3.1.4 Classroom use of L1

Numerous scholars express a variety of opinions and give general suggestions about limited use of L1 in L2 classes (see, for example, Cook, 2001; Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2005). However, general suggestions about "judicious L1 use" or "L2 use as much as possible" are criticised by Macaro (2005) who argues that these kinds of phrases are not sufficiently informative or particularly useful, especially for new teachers with lack of experience. In this regard, he mentions the necessity of an L1 pedagogy "which bases itself on a theory of optimality in L1 use – how and when does codeswitching best lead to language learning, learning how to learn, and to the development of communication skills?" (ibid. p.81). In response of this call, Littlewood and Yu (2011) propose a framework in order to integrate L1 in L2 classes in strategic and compensatory ways to achieve core and framework goals (see Table 3.1 below). While core goals refer to techniques and tasks to help students to comprehend L2, framework goals focus on creating a supportive environment for successful language learning. Strategic L1 use for

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

both goals relates to developing deliberate ways or "tactics" to employ L1 and thus enhancing learning environment regarding learning activities (e.g. clarifying the meanings of words, structures or utterances and progressive use of L2 with a base on L1) and affective factors (e.g. reassuring and confidence-building role of L1, L1 as a source of security and support). On some occasions, however, teachers might encounter unexpected issues in the course of teaching, and L1 might be used for compensatory purposes to help to learn (e.g. communication breakdown, students' having difficulty in understanding) and maintain class management (e.g. managing transitions between episodes and dealing with a classroom disorder to make the learning context more meaningful). The researchers also argue that teachers should move from compensatory use of L1 to strategic use as students are familiarised with the L2 in time and finally, develop L2-based strategies determinedly as they know their students better and gain more confidence.

Table 3.1 Littlewood and Yu's (2011) Framework for L1 use in L2 classes (p.70)

	Strategic use of L1	Compensatory use of L1
Core goals	Planned learning activities	An ad hoc crutch to help to learn
Framework goals	Affective and interpersonal support	An aid to classroom management

In order to employ L1 strategically and in a principled way, Cook (2001) also recommends some recent methods which actively create links between L1 and L2 such as the New Concurrent Method, Community Language Learning and Dodson's Bilingual Method. The New Concurrent Method which is similar to Littlewood and Yu's (2011) strategic use of L1, for example, suggests that teachers can make deliberate switches between the L1 and L2 depending on the particular situation when they think it is necessary to enhance learning for students. From this viewpoint, the classroom would be more similar to the outside world, where more than one language is spoken at the same time. Cook explains it as follows:

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

> Teaching English to Spanish-speaking children, the teacher can switch to Spanish when concepts are important, when the students are getting distracted, or when a student should be praised or reprimanded. Or the teacher may switch to English when revising a lesson that has already been given in Spanish. This method acknowledges code-switching as a normal L2 activity and encourages the students to see themselves as true L2 users, at home in both languages. Hence the language classroom becomes a real L2 use situation in which both languages are concurrent, not a pretend L2 monolingual situation (Cook 2001 p.9).

Although such methods and frameworks related to language use may be beneficial for teachers (especially less experienced ones) in deciding whether to employ L1 in particular situations, it should be borne in mind that they may over-simplify the complexity of the issue. For instance, one might argue that justified use of L1 in grammar teaching depends on several different factors such as students' level, their prior knowledge, their reactions, the nature of grammar topic and teachers' own L2 proficiency level. Teachers' L1 use may also depend on the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 in terms of grammar or other aspects. Such variables are also reported in several studies (e.g. Edstrom 2009; McMillan and Rivers, 2011). Considering the dynamic factors of language classrooms which may be very different from each other (even across different classes in the same institution not to mention different settings), it is problematic to produce a general theory or framework for all language learning contexts. Therefore, "there is no fast rule for what language to use…" (Edstrom 2009 p.15). For this reason, as McMillan and Rivers (2011) strongly argue, teachers should themselves decide on when, for what purposes and to what extent to employ L1 considering the immediate context of the classroom and the numerous factors that affect teaching and learning process.

While abovementioned researchers' suggestions are mostly related to the circumstances in which L1 should be used, Nation (2003) focuses on how to maximise L2 use by keeping L1 use limited. He recommends teachers to resort to L1 only when the content is beyond the learners' level, and learners have difficulty in grasping the meaning. He is mostly in favour of employing L2 in a planned and consistent way for what he describes as "high-frequency words and structures", which are the vocabulary items and sentences frequently used by the teachers such as instructions and classroom management (e.g. take out your books, get into pairs and be quiet). This may be a good opportunity

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

for the learners to be exposed to the L2 in the class if they have little or no chance to use it outside the classroom.

It is worth noting that suggestions from different researchers and frameworks as well as bilingual methods mentioned in this section do not enter to a lot of detail about when and how much L1 should be used, probably due to the existence of highly varied language teaching contexts. This might be a potential problem for teachers who may have difficulty in making decisions about employing L1/L2.

Having discussed the suggestions about classroom language use in general, the next section presents a number of empirical studies about L1 use in various contexts.

3.2 Empirical studies on teachers' L1 use

As already mentioned, the use of L1 in L2 classes is a contentious issue, and the debate has led to a large amount of empirical research. The majority of research has been conducted mainly in immersion programs (e.g. Bourgoin, 2014; McMillan and Turnbull, 2009; Swain and Lapkin, 2000), second language contexts (e.g. McManus, 2015; Macaro, 2009; Scott and Fuente, 2008; Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003), and some in EFL contexts (e.g. Bruen and Kelly, 2014; Song and Lee, 2019). Mostly conducted at higher levels including university and high school in various settings, a substantial proportion of these studies, as Hall and Cook (2012) argue, acknowledges the existence of L1 in L2 classes, and investigates various aspects of L1 use, including the amount and functions of L1 use from both teachers and students' perspectives. There are also some studies investigating other aspects such as the effects of L1 on students' L2 reading (Bourgoin, 2014), students' reactions to teachers' L1 use in the course of teaching vocabulary (Macaro, 2009), and the relation of teachers' language choice behaviours with their beliefs and attitudes (McMillan and Turnbull, 2009). An overview of recent empirical studies with their main focus as well as their level of context is provided in Table 3.2 below.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Table 3.2 An overview of empirical studies on L1 use

Empirical studies	Focus of the study — Amount of L1 use	Functions of L1 use	Attitudes towards L1 use	Reasons for L1 use	Level of the study
Al-Alawi (2008)	√	√	√	√	Secondary
Brooks-Lewis (2009)			√		Tertiary
Bruen and Kelly (2014)		√	√	√	Tertiary
Copland and Neokleous (2011)	√	√	√	√	Secondary
De La Campa and Nassaji (2009)	√	√		√	Tertiary
Edstrom (2006)	√	√	√	√	Tertiary
Grim (2010)		√			Secondary - Tertiary
Izquierdo et al. (2016)	√	√			Secondary
Kim and Elder (2008)	√	√		√	Secondary
Liao (2006)			√		Tertiary
Liu et al. (2004)	√	√		√	Secondary
Macaro and Lee (2013)			√		Tertiary - Primary
Mahmutoglu and Kicir (2013)			√		Tertiary
Mcmillan and Rivers (2011)			√		Tertiary
Meij and Zhao (2010)	√		√		Tertiary
Oga-Baldwin and Nakata (2014)	√	√			Primary
Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002)	√				Tertiary
Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008)		√	√		Tertiary
Sali (2014)	√	√			Secondary
Song and Lee (2019)			√		Pre-school
Storch and Wigglesworth (2003)	√	√	√		Tertiary
Wilden and Porsch (2020)		√		√	Primary

* They are ordered alphabetically.

Based on the focus of the research, the context diversity and relevance to the current study, a selection of empirical studies from Table 3.2 are explained in detail below.

3.2.1 Amount of teachers' L1 use

Several studies have been carried out in order to quantify teachers' L1 and L2 use, and it seems that the results greatly differ from each other. To begin with, De La Campa and Nassaji (2009), in a study examining and comparing the L1 utterances of one novice and one experienced teacher at a university in Canada across two classes over the course of 12 weeks, found that both teachers employed a small amount of L1 with no significant difference (average of 9.3% and 13.2% respectively) between them. However, there was considerably more difference between the experienced teacher's lowest amount of L1 in one of the classes and the novice teacher's highest amount (4.6% and 25.1% respectively). This shows that the amount of L1 use can vary according to individual lessons depending on various contextual factors. Moreover, Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie's (2002) results revealed similar findings, with lower fluctuations among the four tertiary level teachers in their study in terms of the average of their L1 use. Overall, teachers used relatively low amounts of L1, ranging from 0% to 18%. According to the researchers, the main reason for the low variation and amount of L1 use among participants is shared departmental traditions (institution policy on L1 use), similar materials and focus of the lessons, which was mostly listening. Activity type was found to be highly influential in the amount of L1 use. For example, while one participant used no L1 during listening activities, she used L1 extensively during teaching grammar points in order to give explanations.

Edstrom (2006) recorded her own classes and quantified her L1 use with 15 tertiary level students over the course of 24 sessions. Although she had predicted her L1 use at about 5-10%, she found that she employed L1 around twice as much as her prediction, with an average of 23%. She attributed the difference between her prediction and actual L1 use to two main reasons, one being the interactions with individual students in terms of help and support, where she frequently used L1, and the other being unnecessary L1 use or laziness. Despite a relatively low amount of L1 use in most of Edstrom's (2006) classes, it fluctuates widely across different sessions, ranging from 0% to 71%. Similar to Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie's (2002) results, Edstrom (2006) found her L1 use was determined by the

activities. Depending on the immediate context on different dates, she used L1 for outlining course requirements in the first lesson, clarifying administrative issues in another and explaining a new activity and describing a poorly photocopied diagram on a quiz. Interestingly, although it is generally expected that L1 use should decrease as students get more familiarised with L2 in time (as mentioned in Section 3.1.4 above), Edstrom's L1 use was much higher during the last month of her data collection compared to the first month (April: 42% and January: 18% respectively). As the researcher admitted, this might be due to changing her initial high expectations from students, who were not able to understand L2 use. Although self-recording and analysing L1 use can be considered as an important means of professional development in terms of language choice, it could be tentatively claimed that her teaching practice might deviate from usual teaching style since she is fully aware of what she would be looking for.

Another fluctuating use of L1 is reported by Liu et al. (2004) who conducted a study with 13 EFL teachers with various years of experiences (1.5-20 years) in different high schools in South Korea. The findings of this study revealed that teachers resorted to L1 in varying quantities between 40% and 90%. However, the researchers state that these figures would probably be even higher if a researcher weren't present due to the observer's paradox, considering prevalent L1 use in typical Korean classrooms. One interesting finding of this study is that, concurring with the result of Edstrom (2006), participants' average use of L1 (68%) was much higher than their prediction (42%). The researchers argued that students' low listening and speaking level might have caused teachers to use a high amount of L1 because students reported that they understood only 49% of teachers' L2 use in the class.

Kim and Elder (2008) also carried out a study with two teachers (three and 16 years of experience) at a middle school in New Zealand, and the amount of teachers' L1 use varied considerably between the teachers, being between 12% and 77%. One of the main reasons for this variation was the teachers' concern for not being understood by the students. While the less experienced teacher (teaching

43

Korean) was highly susceptible to students' inability to understand and switched back to L1 when this was the case, the more experienced teacher (teaching French) resisted switching in most cases. In other words, students' understanding was important for the less experienced teacher who was concerned about discouraging his students with high amount of L2 use, so he used much more L1 than the other participant. He was reluctant to challenge the students and immediately switched into L1 in case of students' having difficulty. According to the authors, this might be the main reason for the high variation in the amount of L1 use. Participants' L1 use was also affected by classroom-external factors and teacher-related factors. Regarding the former, due to limited teaching time and external exams which include L1 rubrics and translation tasks, both teachers focused on core curriculum content supported by L1 use rather than communicating in the L2. As for the latter, teachers' beliefs and experiences about language learning were found to be in parallel with their L1 practices. The less experienced teacher was sceptical about the effectiveness of extensive L2 use as a result of his own language learning experience previously while more the experienced teacher had a more positive view about it.

Similar variations in L1 use are also reported by Copland and Neokleous (2011) who observed four middle school teachers working in private language courses in Cyprus and found that teachers employed L1 between 0% and 53%. Although the teachers believed that L1 use should be limited in L2 classes, they mostly used L1 extensively. In this respect, in line with the results of Edstrom (2006) and Liu et al. (2004) mentioned above, there is a contradiction between their beliefs and perceptions on the one hand and actual practices on the other. It was found that teachers' language switch was mainly driven by two factors, one being affective purposes (to create stress-free learning environment) and the other being cognitive aspect (switching into L1 in case of students' having difficulty in understanding). Thus, it seems that practical considerations play an important role in their L1 use.

As these studies show, teachers working in various settings have been found to use L1 in hugely varying amounts (between 0% and 90%). However, it should be noted here that various techniques are used to quantify L1 use in the abovementioned studies. More specifically, while some use time coding (e.g. Edstrom, 2006), others use word count (e.g. De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Liu et al., 2004). There are also some using the number of utterances in L1/L2 (e.g. Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Izquierdo et al., 2016). However, regardless of which method of calculation is used, the results still clearly indicate a wide range of L1 use and so confirm Copland and Yonetsugi's (2016) argument that in many classrooms "using two languages is an everyday reality…" (p.234). Further, they are in line with Widdowson's (2003) claim that L1 is an inevitable and natural part of classroom life. The variations in L1 use among teachers stem from several factors such as types of activities, teachers' beliefs, and students' level. However, the upper limit reported in these studies may be problematic because it is likely to "open the floodgates of L1 use" (Littlewood and Yu, 2011 p.64). On the other hand, there are contexts in which little or no L1 is being used. It might be problematic to compare the amount of L1 use of teachers across different contexts since it may be largely context-dependent. It is equally problematic to claim that lower amount of L1, say 10%, is better than 30%, or vice versa in terms of efficient L2 teaching. While very limited L1 use might be enough for high-level adult learners, much more L1 might be needed to teach L2 effectively to beginner level YLs who are considerably different from older learners due to their young ages (Section 3.3). It shows that the issue is a complex one and simply looking at the amount of L1 use may not tell us very much. In this respect, a number of scholars have studied in detail why teachers use L1, and it is to these studies that I now turn.

3.2.2 Functions of teachers' L1 use

Compared to considerable fluctuation in the reported quantities of teachers' L1 use, functions seem to be relatively more similar and constant. Although some functions are peculiar to certain studies (e.g. reprimand, classroom equipment), others are very common across different studies including instructions, explanations, questions, classroom management, building rapport, and feedback. Table

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

3.3 below shows functions of teachers' L1 use identified in various studies. It should also be noted that there are some minor wording differences between studies for some functions, and they are placed in the category that has the closest function (e.g. Grim's (2010) metalinguistic explanation in the function of explanation and empathy/solidarity in building rapport).

Table 3.3 Functions of L1 use across different studies

Functions \ Studies	Al-Alawi (2008)	Copland and Neokleous (2011)	De La Campa and Nassaji (2009)	Edstrom (2006)	Grim, (2010)	Izquierdo et al. (2016)	Kim and Elder (2008)	Liu et al. (2004)	Sali (2014)	Storch and Wigglesworth (2003)	Wilden and Porsch (2020)
Greeting								√			
Instructions	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Questions	√	√	√				√	√	√		
Explanations (e.g. vocabulary, grammar)	√	√		√	√	√		√	√	√	√
Giving information about activity			√					√		√	√
Classroom management	√		√		√	√		√	√		√
Feedback	√	√	√				√	√			√
Building rapport (e.g. jokes, chat)	√	√	√		√			√	√		√
Translation		√	√		√				√		√
L1-L2 contrast			√								√
Personal comment (e.g. comment on something in the book)			√								
Classroom equipment (e.g. utterances related to class materials)			√								
Reprimand		√									
Compensation for lack of comprehension (e.g. correcting students' inaccurate comprehension)				√							√

Not all of the functions identified in the studies above are used equally in the course of L2 teaching, and there are considerable differences between some of them in terms of frequency. Although Liu et al. (2004), for example, identified eight functions for L1 use, participant teachers employed L1 mainly for explaining grammar, text or vocabulary compared to other functions (512 L1 utterances for explanation but only two for greetings and 12 for class management). The differences can be at least partly attributed to students' lack of understanding of the teachers' L2 use, which was, as mentioned in Section 3.2.1, a common issue. In this regard, it seems that students' proficiency level has a determining role in the function of teachers' language choice as well as the quantity of its use. The functions of language choices of participants in Liu et al.'s (2004) study are in line with the results of another study conducted by Sali (2014) who examined L1 practices of middle school teachers in Turkey. She found that explaining aspects of English was the most widely used function (20%) which serves various purposes, including explaining grammar points, vocabulary and exemplifying. In contrast, the teachers used a small amount of L1 for several purposes such as praising (1%) and checking comprehension (3%).

Some studies investigated L1 functions based on comparisons of various features, including contextual factors and participant variables. Comparing the functions of teachers' L1 use in terms of their experience, De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) found that despite their similar amount of overall L1 use, there are significant differences between participants in the frequency of certain functions including translation, classroom management and personal comment. For instance, the less experienced teacher's L1 use for translation was almost twice that of the experienced teacher (41.8% and 21.6% respectively). Although personal comment was the second most frequent function for the experienced instructor with 20%, it was only 4.6% for the other participant. Stimulated recall sessions revealed that the experienced teacher more frequently used L1 for personal comment to enhance students' learning by acknowledging their efforts. It suggests that teachers' way of teaching highly affects their L1 use for certain functions.

Another study was conducted by Grim (2010) to find functional similarities and differences between eleven teachers based in two different contexts at different levels (eight tertiary level teachers and three high school teachers). Analysis of 15 hours of video and audio recordings revealed interesting similarities and differences. Although both groups of participants shared similar L1 usages for some functions, including empathy/solidarity and translation, their L1 use highly differed in class management and task instructions. Regarding the class management, which was a common problem in the observed classrooms in high school, teachers mostly used L1 for this purpose, while tertiary level teachers did not encounter any classroom disorder problems during observations so did not need to use L1. It is the same for L1 use for task instructions, which frequently occurred in all the observed classes in high schools, while no L1 was used for this purpose with tertiary students. The main reason for high school teachers to use L1 for this function is that, according to the researcher, they felt compelled to do so in order to help students to understand L2 instructions and carry out the tasks. In this regard, it could be claimed that contextual factors (particularly learners' proficiency levels) have a considerable impact on teachers' L1 use.

Wilden and Porsch (2020) conducted a survey study with EFL teachers and investigated 844 teachers' language choice between German (L1) and English (L2) in YL classes. The survey included 16 closed-ended questions (4-point Likert scale) and one open-ended question which specifically aimed to find out when and why L1 was used in L2 teaching. According to the results, teachers preferred L1 use for several functions, including explaining grammar and vocabulary, talking about L2, compensation of lack of students' comprehension, meta-cognitive talk, testing or assessment, and individual support. Among these functions, L1 explanation was the most common one, since the teachers felt to do so as a result of students' low level of understanding their L2 use. In this respect, they adopted a student-centred approach by placing learners at the heart of their decision-making processes for language choice. The most striking result of the study was the negative correlation between teachers' qualification and proficiency and language choice. In other words, it was found that participant

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

teachers with a higher professional qualification and proficiency tended to use L1 less often than the others who were less qualified and proficient. This suggests that teachers' proficiency and qualification level could be two other variables affecting L1 use.

The empirical studies presented so far show that, despite the academic debate whether to use L1 or not, a great majority of teachers working at different levels in various contexts use L1 in the course of teaching L2 for several functions including instructions, questions, feedback, explanation and building rapport. At the very general level, it seems that there are some similarities in L1 use in terms of the functions despite high variance in the amount. However, it was found that contextual factors have an important role in teachers' L1 use. In addition to these studies investigating functions and amount of L1 use, there are others examining attitudes towards L1 use, which are explained in the next section.

3.2.3 Attitudes towards L1 use

A number of studies have been carried out in order to investigate both teachers' and students' attitudes towards L1 use in L2 classes. To begin with, Meij and Zhao (2010) conducted a large scale study with 40 tertiary level teachers and 401 students in Chinese universities where exclusive L2 use is the official norm. Examining the attitudes towards L1 use, they found that, contrary to official policy, both students and teachers had a positive attitude toward teachers' L1 use. They regard the language classroom as a "compound bilingual space" (ibid. p.396) where both languages are used interchangeably. However, compared to teachers, students wanted even more L1 use despite teachers' frequent use of L1 which was seven times more than what they believed. In line with the previous studies revealing the difference between teachers' prediction and actual L1 use (see Section 3.2.1 above), it was found that teachers' actual L1 use was much more frequent than they believed. As the authors state, this discrepancy indicates that L1 is underestimated by the teachers and 'goes largely unnoticed' (ibid. p.407). Considering their actual L1 use which is far more than they believed,

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

one would wonder if they would still be happy with their L1 use if they knew how much it exceeded their beliefs.

Similar findings are reported by Mahmutoglu and Kicir (2013) who carried out a study with 25 Turkish tertiary level teachers and 105 students regarding their beliefs about L1 use. Analysis of questionnaires and interviews reveal that both teachers and students converge on the use of L1 on the condition that necessity arises particularly during the explanation of grammatical structures which might be challenging to teach/learn in L2. Yet their views differ in L1 use during teaching/learning other aspects of L2, including speaking, reading, listening and vocabulary. Although teachers believe that mostly L2 should be used while teaching these aspects, students are mostly in favour of L1 use. In this regard, compared to students, teachers expressed more worry about excessive L1 use and emphasised that it should be employed in a cautious way, reminding us of the recommendations mentioned in section 3.1.4.

Another tertiary level study was conducted by McMillan and Rivers (2011) who investigated attitudes of 29 native English teachers working in different departments in a Japanese university. According to the results, teachers appeared to be split up to two groups. While almost half of them believed that L1 should be employed both by teachers and students cautiously and selectively because of its facilitative role in L2 learning and teaching in various ways, the others had a negative attitude towards L1 use, arguing that L2-only approach gives students more chance to engage with L2 in limited L2 environments. The most striking result to emerge from the data is that the teachers who regard themselves as less proficient speakers of L1 (Japanese) were inclined to have more positive beliefs about L1 use. One reason might be that, as the authors state, teachers may relate their own learning of Japanese to students' learning of L2, and in turn, they may be more aware of students' needs.

Although teachers' positive attitude towards L1 use was commonly reported in the above studies, there is also some research revealing teachers' sense of guilt arising from the use of L1 in L2 classes

50

(Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Edstrom, 2006; Hall and Cook, 2012; Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2005). It appears that the main source of this feeling is the discrepancy between the perceived ideal way of teaching and their own practice of L1 use. Most teachers taking part in various studies are in favour of L1 use to some extent but wish to use it less (e.g. Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Macaro, 2005). Although the majority of teachers are not in favour of total exclusion of L1, they still view it negatively as "unfortunate and regrettable but necessary" (Macaro, 2005 p.68). By going beyond feeling guilty for using L1, some teachers are much more self-critical as they associate their L1 use with unprofessional teaching (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Therefore, teachers have a wide range of positive and negative attitudes towards L1 use.

The studies described above all focus on older learners, whereas the present study is focused on primary school teachers. Therefore, it would be useful to give some information on the two studies carried out in primary contexts (Macaro and Lee, 2013; Song and Lee, 2019).

In order to find out age-related attitudinal differences among South Korean students, Macaro and Lee (2013) conducted a large scale study of tertiary (311) and 12-year-old primary level students (487) and compared their attitudes and perceptions of teachers' L1/L2 use through interviews and questionnaires. Findings suggest that neither age groups were in favour of exclusive L2 use. However, it was found that older learners were more in favour of L2 instruction probably because of their previous experience of language learning and higher proficiency. Another reason might be that they were more aware of the importance of engaging with L2, as they were aware of the fact that they would more easily grasp teachers' L1 use but still preferred L2 use. In contrast, young learners mostly disagreed with teachers' L2 use due to feeling uncomfortable and concerned about lack of understanding. Thus, they were less willing to communicate in exclusive L2 classes. Results of the qualitative part of the study reveal that exclusive L2 use causes a problem of cognitive overload on children who are unable to understand teachers' speech. It may stem from children's limited amount

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

of linguistic knowledge and lack of cognitive maturity. The difference between children and older learners will be elaborated in Section 3.3 below.

Also focusing on children is a more recent study conducted by Song and Lee (2019), who investigated the effects of teachers' L1 use on 72 preschool children (ages 5/6) over the period of seven weeks. They randomly assigned the students to either L1/L2 and L2 only groups and applied pre- and post-tests to examine the effects of L1 use. According to the results, the students in the classes where L1 is used outperformed the others with L2-only use. In other words, teachers' intermittent L1 use was found to be more effective than exclusive L2 instruction for learners' vocabulary acquisition. As for the learners' attitudes towards teachers' L1 use, in line with the preference of younger participants in Macaro and Lee (2013) above, the vast majority of children preferred teachers' inclusion of L1 to some extent and disagreed with exclusive L2 use.

So far, this literature review has focused on the historical and theoretical background of L1 use, followed by empirical studies investigating various aspects of L1 use in different contexts and their relevance to the current study, including two focusing on the primary context. However, this thesis specifically aims to explore YL English teachers' L1 use, and it is, therefore, necessary to discuss a number of key characteristics of YLs that are likely to be relevant in understanding L1 classroom use at this level. For this reason, in line with the specific focus of the current research, the following section discusses a number of characteristics of YLs that may influence language use in primary classrooms.

3.3 Characteristics of YLs and language use

YLs have a set of characteristics different from older learners, which impact classroom practices and may, in turn, affect teachers' L1/L2 use. One of the most distinctive features is the source of motivation. Compared to teenagers or adult learners, it can be more difficult to extrinsically motivate YLs who may struggle to find the relevance of learning English (Cameron, 2003; Copland, Garton and

52

Burns, 2014; Garton et al., 2011; Moon, 2005; Slattery and Willis, 2001). They might not feel the need for learning English and therefore not be motivated, particularly in many settings where English is regarded as a foreign language, due to limited chance to meet it outside the class. Regarding this, they may ask interesting questions such as "Why do we learn English? What shall we do with it?" (personal experience). Their motivation is mostly intrinsic, dependent on the rapport with the teacher and enjoying the lesson. Moon (2005 p.31) explains the difference between adults and YLs in terms of motivation as follows:

> … for many young children, their main reason for liking English in the early stages is based on whether they like the teacher or the learning activities (Nikolov 1999). Parents and local education authorities take the decision that a child should learn English. By contrast, adults usually have very clear instrumental reasons for learning a language, e.g. to use the internet, for their job and so do most teenagers, e.g. to pass an exam, to listen to pop music.

Due to children's lack of instrumental motivation to learn English, it is emphasised by several researchers (e.g. Cameron, 2003; Moon, 2005) that YL teachers have an important task to make the lessons more appealing and motivate learners through several strategies. Probably the most common way is using enjoyable activities and games, which are, according to Cameron (2003), also expected to serve to improve learners' limited literacy skills. When learners are unable to understand teachers' L2 while organising these games, explaining the rules or running the lesson, L1 might be seen as an aid to proceed the lesson, which also should have a role of motivating them. This might enable learners to enjoy the lessons through active engagement and thus have a positive attitude, higher motivation and learn more efficiently. Building positive attitudes towards a new language at the early stages will have a positive impact on their language learning throughout their life.

Another distinctive characteristic of children is that they are inclined to be interested in meaning rather than form and will try to find and construct meaning (Cameron, 2001-2003; Enever, 2015; Moon, 2005; Pinter, 2017). Considering this aspect, it can be assumed that YLs can only pick up and learn a new language if the context is meaningful for them. Thus, lessons can be designed considering

53

this characteristic and, when necessary, use of L1 might be considered as justifiable in order to make the context more meaningful for children, which is also supported by the aforementioned empirical studies carried out by Macaro and Lee (2013) and Song and Lee (2019). This way of teaching can also help the children to feel more comfortable by decreasing the possible cognitive overload caused by teacher' L2 use. Shin (2006 p.6) specifically suggests that YL teachers employ L1 to make the context more meaningful as follows:

> Why not use L1? It is one quick, easy way to make a difficult expression such as "Once upon a time" comprehensible. After you quickly explain a difficult expression like that in L1, students will recognise the expression in English every time it comes up in a story.

Moreover, unlike adults, children are still learning their first language and becoming literate in it (Pinter, 2017). As a result, YLs, depending on their age, are unable to fully draw on their L1 in the course of learning L2, or to compare their L1 and L2. Nor can they analyse the language abstractly by comparing linguistic forms and patterns between two languages. They may have difficulty in grasping new concepts in L2 since their world knowledge is far more restricted compared to adults who are "better equipped to draw on a more sophisticated knowledge of the world and more advanced analytical skills in making sense of how the new language functions" (Enever, 2015 p.21). Teachers' use of L1 might be a beneficial tool to overcome or at least alleviate this possible difficulty by giving brief background information or giving explanations about the situation when children are stuck with the new structures.

Although children begin to develop the ability of logical reasoning in various areas of knowledge to some extent, they are able to do it only in their immediate context, which means that they cannot generalise their understanding to other areas (Pinter, 2017). In other words, they might struggle to apply what they learn in one context to another, depending on the situation. In order to illustrate this, Cameron (2003 p.107) provides her own experience while observing a Korean YL teacher:

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

> Her class was taught 'I like, I don't like' using the topic of food, with much practice of sentences such as 'I like pizza, I don't like hamburgers'. A few lessons later they encountered the question 'Do you like…?' but this time it was used, not with food, but with the names of their friends, e.g. 'Do you like Yong-Hee?' The children were horrified by this question, having associated the idea of liking with food and eating.

Recourse to L1 might be a practical solution for teachers in such situations, and it can be used as, what Littlewood and Yu (2011) call, "ad hoc crutch" by giving explanations and examples in which the structures can be used. As learners become more familiar with such kinds of cases specifically and with L2 more generally, and as their ability of reasoning develops in time, teachers may take into consideration learners' progress and adjust their language use accordingly.

Regarding their behaviours, children may not manage or regulate their behaviour and feelings because of their ongoing development, so they may behave in a way that cannot be predicted (Moon, 2005). For example, it is likely that they get angry or excited with no explicit reasons and cannot fully control themselves during the class. Moreover, as a result of the inability to regulate their behaviours, they may evidently demonstrate that they are bored and, in such cases, they may distract others and cause classroom management disorders (ibid.). Because of their young age, such discipline disorders may occur frequently, and L1 can be used to attract their attention which will also serve as a time-saver tool to quickly continue the lesson. Moreover, when students are not familiar with the teachers' L2 use for classroom management purposes especially during the early stages of language learning, it might be necessary for teachers to use L1 until students understand and learn L2 structures, which is a point emphasised by Reilly and Ward (2003).

However, in contrast to abovementioned views and recommendations in favour of L1 use with YLs, some characteristics might also be used to promote L2 use with YLs in L2 classes. For example, already having an innate desire to explore the environment through experiences such as touching and playing, YLs are generally good at learning L2 particularly when they actively engage in the activities and games (Cameron, 2003). According to Moon (2005), children mostly rely on experiential learning around until

the age of nine. Considering this characteristic of YLs, teachers could benefit from designing activities in which they use short instructions and phrases in L2 in meaningful contexts and learners will most likely learn these even without realising. Children can intuitively grasp the language through imitating their role models (teachers in this case) and copying the sounds and patterns in L2 through implicit learning (Pinter, 2011-2017). In this regard, teachers do not have to explicitly teach various aspects of L2 but use the language as an integrated part of the game and activity[4] so that learners incidentally learn it in the context. Moon (2005 p.31) explains it giving an example as follows:

> … if children follow instructions to make a mask and then use the mask to take part in a role play or drama, we can say that the activities they have been involved in support their understanding of the language used and, though they may not be consciously aware that they have been listening to language or using it in the role play, they may gradually start to acquire some of the language they are exposed to incidentally.

As a result of children's interest in meaning rather than form, they try to understand and make sense of what is going on around them by looking for visual and physical clues such as people's body language, gestures and face expressions (Moon, 2005). Considering this characteristic of YLs, Reilly and Ward (2003) recommend avoiding use of L1 by developing several strategies including using abundant gesture and body language while giving instructions, telling stories and singing songs. In other words, activities should be accompanied by actions, pictures and mimes for learners to grasp the meaning easier. Use of some other assistive tools such as puppets and dolls might be an effective way to make the context more meaningful for the learners.

In addition, Nation's (2003) suggestions regarding the use of L2 for the most frequently used words and structures (mentioned in Section 3.1.4 above) could be useful for learners to meet more L2 in the classroom. These might be the vocabulary items and sentences frequently used by the teachers such as instructions and classroom management (e.g. sit down, be quiet, look at the board, and listen to

---

[4] A great variety of games and activities have been provided in various sources including Copland and Garton (2012), Pinter (2017), and Reilly and Ward (2003).

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

me). Even if learners might have difficulty in understanding these instructions in the initial stages, they will most likely learn after some time when teachers are consistent in using such structures supported by body language and gestures.

In line with the different views and practices on L1 use explained throughout this chapter, it appears that language choice with YLs is also complicated as a result of different perspectives arising from several factors related to learners' characteristics. In terms of children's lack of instrumental motivation, inability to think abstractly and manage their behaviours in the classroom, L1 might be regarded as an assistive tool to facilitate teaching and learning L2. In contrast, it is also possible to employ L2 by making the teaching context more meaningful for the learners through engaging them in activities and games. The more active the learners become during L2 learning, the more likely they will learn L2 without realizing. Teachers' L2 use supported by body language and gestures might also help learners to better make sense of what the teachers say in L2. So, it seems that language choice depends on which perspective to adopt, what factors affect the teaching and learning process and how. In this regard, it is beneficial to investigate YL teachers' practices in detail to explore how young learners' characteristics are effective in teachers' language choice, which is somewhat under-researched issue. For this reason, this study sets out to fill the gap by exploring YL teachers' L1 use (for more detailed explanation of research aim and research gap, see in Section 4.1 below).

3.4 Chapter summary

Starting with a brief outline of the history of various language teaching methods in terms of L1 use, this chapter has given detailed information about the arguments for and against L1 use in language classrooms, and how these are related to various key theories and hypotheses. This was followed by some empirical studies on the amount and functions of teachers' L1 use as well as teachers' and students' attitudes towards L1 use in different contexts. To sum up briefly, the use of L1 is still debated, and it seems that this debate will not be resolved easily because of numerous claims made in favour

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

of and against L1 use. Both sides of the argument are justified by reference to different SLA theories. In line with the opposing viewpoints, empirical studies reveal contradictive results against and in favour of L1 use. Although monolingual language teaching has been increasingly questioned more recently, and L1 use is acknowledged in the majority of the abovementioned studies, there is a lack of consensus on when, how much and in what situations L1 should be employed for. Even if some recommendations have been made for teachers, there appears to be no fast rule on this issue due to the complex factors affecting the teaching environment. Probably because of the specific features of teaching contexts, the results of empirical studies seem to vary greatly in terms of amount, functions and attitudes towards L1 use. Despite the lack of consensus on L1 use, most theorists would now agree that L1 should at least be employed judiciously by considering contextual features and that the use of L2 may increase in time.

In line with the focus of this study, some information was provided regarding the characteristics of YLs which might have an impact on teachers' L1 use since they are different from teenagers and adults in terms of many aspects such as motivation, and cognitive and behavioural skills. It can be argued that these characteristics can lead teachers to use either language depending on general contextual factors and immediate context. Considering the complexity of the issue, this research investigates YL teachers' L1 practices to contribute to our knowledge on teachers' language choice.

The next chapter will be devoted to the discussion of the methodological approach used in the current study.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodological approach used for the present study. Initially presenting the research gap, aim of the study and the research questions, it discusses ontological and epistemological approach as well as the rationale for the choice of these approaches. After that, data collection methods are elaborated together with the procedure of piloting. Moreover, some information is provided about sampling and participants as well as the process of ethics followed in this project. Finally, data analysis procedures are explained in detail.

4.1 Research gap, research aims and research questions

As aforementioned in the previous chapter, as a result of the debate in favour of and against L1 use in L2 teaching/learning, a number of studies have been carried out on this issue in various settings. However, most of the previous research appears to be carried out in higher-level educational settings such as tertiary (e.g. Bruen and Kelly, 2014; De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Edstrom, 2006; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002) and secondary level (e.g. Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Grim, 2010; Izquierdo *et al.*, 2016; Liu et al., 2004). To the best of my knowledge, only a small number of studies focus on various aspects of L1 use at lower levels (e.g. primary: Copland and Yonetsugi, 2016; Macaro and Lee, 2013; pre-school: Song and Lee, 2019). Most likely due to the fact that English has relatively recently been introduced in primary schools throughout the world (Copland and Garton, 2014; Garton, Copland and Burns, 2011), it appears that there is a lack of empirical research carried out at this level. This is also voiced by several researchers (e.g. Izquierdo *et al.*, 2016; Sali, 2014) who call for more research investigating teachers' L1 practices in the course of teaching English to YLs.

As already stated in Section 1.2, this study aims to examine L1 practices of language teachers working in primary schools in Turkey. More specifically, it intends to investigate the amount and functions of teachers' L1 use and their motivations to employ L1 in the course of teaching English to young learners. With such aims in mind, the research questions are repeated here for ease of reference:

1. How much L1 do YL EFL teachers use in English classes?

2. For what functions do YL EFL teachers use L1 in English classes?

3. What are the underlying reasons for L1 use with YLs in English classes?

4.2 Ontological and epistemological positions

Prior to explaining the philosophical and methodological positions adopted in this study, it is necessary to clarify the basic terminology[5] related to research tradition, which is often inconsistent and complex due to terms being used interchangeably (e.g. Richards (2003) uses "tradition" for what Creswell (2013) calls "approach"). In line with Richards (2003), "philosophical assumption" or "paradigm" is used to describe ontological and epistemological positions in this study. "Research methodology" refers to a theoretically grounded position related to research methods used to investigate the phenomenon (ibid.), which is qualitative in the current research. As for the "research approach", the present research employs a case study approach, which is, according to Creswell (2013), one of the most common approaches used in qualitative research. The term "methods" is used for data collection methods which are classroom observations and interviews.

Considering the fact that "no research is value-free" (Bryman, 2016 p.34) and that the selection of specific research methods is affected by philosophical assumptions (Lincoln and Guba, 2000), it is preferable to begin by presenting some information about research philosophy. Researchers' ontological and epistemological perspectives inform the research philosophy. Ontology refers to "what is reality like, the basic elements it contains" (Silverman, 2013 p.111), and is concerned with whether "social entities should be considered as objective ... or social constructions" (Bryman, 2016 p.28). Epistemology deals with the status and nature of knowledge (Silverman, 2013), and indicates

---

[5] It is beyond the scope of this thesis to present a detailed discussion regarding the research terminology. For more information, see Killam (2013).

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

"the relationship between the researcher and that being researched" (Creswell, 2013 p.21). In this respect, it is beneficial to foreground the philosophical assumptions that were adopted for the current inquiry before outlining methodology.

Regarding the ontology, this study adopts a constructivist stance which puts emphasis on the "production of reconstructed understandings of the social world" (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005 p.184). In other words, findings are not discovered but created with the help of the researcher's interaction with what is being investigated and therefore, what is known about the world is the consequence of how it is constructed (Richards, 2003). For this reason, by focusing on a particular setting, the researcher can understand participants' characteristics in their specific contexts (Creswell, 2013). Rather than focusing on the essence of a real-world, the researcher's aim is to grasp "the richness of a world that is socially determined" (Richards, 2003 p.39). In order to understand this "richness", data collection should be conducted in the participants' natural environments where they live or work. In line with Creswell's and Richards' arguments, it seems to be plausible to adopt a constructivist position in this research as the intention is to understand teachers' L1 practices in their natural settings in detail by interacting with them. Moreover, taking this position should enable me to look for the complexities of individuals' views/practices about L1 use as there are, according to constructivism, multiple realities which change according to different individuals (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, as Bryman (2016) argues, a constructivist position is more appropriate for social science since it deals with humans and their real-life experiences. Similarly, I am interested in teachers' real-life experiences in their classrooms, so this position seems to be the most effective one in finding answers to the RQs of this inquiry.

As there are multiple realities depending on the individuals, according to the constructivist view, these realities need to be interpreted by the researcher, leading me to take an interpretivist epistemological position. It is regarded as an alternative to the orthodoxy of positivism and puts emphasis on the indigenous characteristics of humans which are different from objects of the natural sciences (Bryman,

61

2016). This distinctiveness of humans against the objects in natural sciences requires a different logic

of research in social sciences because people attribute meanings to their and others' actions, and act

depending on these meanings (Creswell, 2013). Thus, I believe that adopting an interpretivist angle

enables me to understand and interpret teachers' subjective meanings of social actions in their

specific contexts.

Several researchers (e.g. Denzin and Lincoln, 2005 and Dörnyei, 2007) suggest that

constructivism/interpretivism is inherently related to qualitative research. Considering this, the

current study employs qualitative research. Concurring with constructivism and interpretivism,

Bryman (2016) indicates a major feature of qualitative research as "a commitment to viewing events

and the social world through the eyes of the people [participating in the study]" (p.392). This is

consistent with the aim of this research which is investigating teachers' L1 practices and viewing these

practices and experiences from their own perspective. In addition, employing qualitative research is

suitable if the researcher should explore an issue and understand the context in-depth (Creswell,

2013) because it has traditionally been regarded as a good way to explore uncharted and new areas

(Dörnyei, 2007). In this respect, it appears to be a good choice to employ qualitative research because,

as aforementioned, the majority of the studies on the use of L1 have been conducted at upper-level

settings, so teachers' L1 practices within primary school settings appear to be a somewhat unexplored

area of research. Further, using qualitative research is a good way to gain "thick descriptions" of the

characteristics of individuals, their social and physical contexts (Richards, 2003). I believe obtaining

these descriptions helped me to explain the complex situations in which L1 is used.

According to Holliday (2007), thick descriptions are an important part of qualitative research and

necessitate two components which are network of interconnected data and discussion of how the

data work or inter-connect. The combination of these two parts is "in fact richer than the untouched

text of raw data … because it is placed, interconnected and given meaning within the argument of the

thesis" (ibid., p.18). This is what was done during the analysis process, seeking for explanations about

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

the issues related to L1 use, interpretation of the data and finally presentation based on the original data (interview and classroom extracts).

However, it should be noted that, unlike quantitative research which usually has more participants and employs descriptive and inferential statistics and therefore generalising the findings beyond the cases (Bryman, 2016), this is not the case in this study. The current study aims to understand five YL teachers' L1 practices in-depth rather than generalising the results or gaining a broader interpretation of the issue. This should not prevent, however, researchers and teachers from making comparisons between their contexts and benefiting from the findings for similar contexts.

4.2.1 Case study

The definition of case study is contradictory since it means different things to different people. While Stake (2005), for example, views it as "a choice of what is to be studied" rather than methodological choice (p.443), it means a methodology or a type of design in qualitative research for others (Creswell, 2013; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). There are some using it synonymously with qualitative research, while others argue that it can be quantitative (Dörnyei, 2007; Seawright and Gerring, 2008). According to Creswell (2013), it is

> … a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes" (p.73).

Similarly, Yin (2018 p.50) defines it as "an empirical method that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the "case") in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident". Richards (2003) emphasises that the focus in a case study should be on a particular unit or set of units.

Despite the difficulty in defining a case study, there is a consensus on its advantages of understanding the investigated phenomenon. It is regarded as an effective approach to gain rich or thick description and in-depth insights of a complex issue, and it enables the researcher to examine the interaction of interconnected circumstances and factors (Creswell, 2013; Dörnyei, 2007; Stake 2005; Yin, 2018). Further, it enables the researcher to explore the issue in detail and maximises the understanding by collecting data with the use of a variety of data collection methods (Creswell, 2013; Dörnyei, 2007).

According to Dörnyei (2007), cases might be people as well as programmes, institutions, organisations or communities. Within the field of TESOL, the case might refer to people such as teachers and learners or entities including institutions, programmes and events (Richards, 2003). However, defining a case is not always straightforward (Stake, 2005), and it might be a real challenge for the researcher to identify the bounded case (Creswell, 2013). While a teacher, for example, might be considered as a case, their teaching probably lacks boundary or specificity. Therefore, to constitute a case, a specific aspect of teaching should be specified, such as teaching vocabulary or use of a particular teaching method. Accordingly, Dörnyei (2007) emphasises that anything can serve as a case as long as it is specified and has clearly defined boundaries. Considering these remarks, the cases in this study are defined clearly as L1 practices of five EFL teachers working with YLs in Turkish primary schools.

Stake (2005) distinguishes three kinds of case study, which are intrinsic, instrumental and multiple (collective) case study. An intrinsic case study is used when the aim is to understand a particular case in depth. It is undertaken due to the researcher's intrinsic interest and the particularity or value of the case rather than that it represents other cases or illustrates a particular problem. As for the instrumental case study, it is intended to enable the researcher to provide insight into an issue and facilitates understanding of others by drawing on generalisation. The same focus is applied here as in the intrinsic case study; the case is still looked in-depth, and its context is scrutinised, but this is done as a result of external interest. Where there is less interest in one particular case, several cases are studied to investigate a phenomenon or general condition, and this is called a multiple case study. The

64

understanding of investigated cases helps a better understanding of a larger number of cases and to draw conclusions. According to Dörnyei (2007), it is, in one sense, an instrumental case study involving several cases.

Although this classification is useful in terms of considering the purpose of case study, the lines distinguishing the different types of case studies from each other are not always fixed, a point also acknowledged by Stake (2005). There might be some studies that do not easily fit into these categories or ones to be put into more than one category. To give an example, a researcher might simultaneously have several interests which are both general and particular, so it is problematic to classify this case study as intrinsic or instrumental. Or, the researcher's interest might shift from intrinsic to extrinsic as a result of emergent issues during data collection. Moreover, according to Yin (2018), since each case is the subject of their own fieldwork, they should be treated as a single case study until drawing findings and conclusions across the individual case studies. From this viewpoint, multiple case studies might also be regarded as single case studies.

Regarding the type of case study of the current research, it is regarded as a multiple case study because of the number of participants. It includes five EFL teachers working with YLs in different primary schools in Turkey. Although employing multiple case study can require more resources and time compared to a single case study, it has several advantages. The data from multiple cases is mostly regarded as more compelling, and therefore, multiple case studies are considered more robust (Dörnyei, 2007; Yin, 2018). Moreover, it allows us to make a comparison between the cases and make interpretations accordingly. It was therefore aimed to generate a more complete and richer picture of participants' language choice practices with the help of making comparisons among their similar and different characteristics.

The use of multiple sources of information enables to generate a sufficiently rich description in case study research approach; therefore, this study employs multiple data methods to collect data in order to examine YL teachers' L1 practices. Details of data collection methods are explained below.

4.3 Data collection methods

This study uses "triangulation", which is described by Denzin (2015) as "the application and combination of several research methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" (p.1). Although the emphasis is generally on combining multiple data collection methods through methodological triangulation, three more types of triangulation are identified by Denzin (2015) including investigator triangulation (more than one person examines the same situation), data triangulation (collecting data through different sources such as a person, space and time), and theory triangulation (examining the situation from viewpoints of different theories).

Although it is believed by several researchers that triangulation is a good strategy for validating the collected data (Creswell, 2013), the idea of validation is criticised since it resonates with quantitative research in that it assumes that the truth is objective and verifiable (Hood, 2009). This might also be problematic from the constructivist perspective, which puts emphasis on a constructed understanding of the social world rather than the objective reality which can never be captured (see Section 4.2 above). For this reason, triangulation should not be viewed as a confirmative or validating tool but a way for better understanding the issue in-depth (Denzin, 2015; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005) and revealing "both the complexity of the issue and apparently contradictory ways of viewing it" (Hood, 2009 p.81).

Among the four types of triangulation described above, this study employs methodological triangulation to investigate YL EFL teachers' L1 practices. More specifically, it comprises classroom observation, field notes and semi-structured interviews. The main rationale for using more than one method is the nature of the classroom environment. According to Dörnyei (2007), classroom settings

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

are rather complex environments as they are the combination of instructional (influences of students, teachers, teaching methods, tasks, curriculums) and social context (students' social place influencing their friendship, love, identity); therefore, using a single method may not be sufficient to fully grasp L1 practices. Although classroom observation, for example, enables the researcher to see teachers' L1 use in their natural environment, it might not help to find the underlying motivation or teachers' beliefs about it. Or, there might be other unobservable reasons or factors affecting their L1 use decision. There is no access to teachers' feelings about L1 use through observation. For this reason, another data collection method (interview in this case) might be a valuable way to delve into the issue in order to better understand it.

The methods used in this study are explained in the following sections below.

4.3.1 Observation

Observation is one of the two main data collection methods used in this research. It can be defined as the act of consciously noticing and examining participants' behaviours in detail (Cowie, 2009). The main rationale for the use of classroom observation is that it represents a primary source of information gathering to obtain naturally-occurring data in participants' natural environments (Gobo and Marciniak, 2016) rather than relying solely on self-report accounts. Considering the gap between teachers' self-reports and actual L1 use mentioned in several studies in Section 3.2 above, the data can be regarded as better reflecting their actual practices and the functions. In this respect, this method would seem to be a good choice, as I am interested in teachers' actual behaviour and experiences. Further, it is particularly advantageous in the field of Applied Linguistics because, as Cowie (2009) argues, it gives the researcher a valuable opportunity to uncover the routines, activities, values, beliefs and actual behaviours of teachers and students in an open and inductive way. It is also possible to collect the data about daily activities of which participants are not aware of (ibid.). By

taking into considerations these merits, classroom observation was used as one of the data collection methods in this research.

According to Hood (2009) and Creswell (2013), what is observed and hence results are affected by researcher's interpretation and bias. In other words, all researchers bring values to their studies in varying degrees regardless of quantitative or qualitative research. As it is the case in the other data collections methods used in this study (field notes and interviews), observations are "not accurate representations of reality", but they are constructed by researchers (Casanave, 2015 p.130). In this regard, it is acknowledged that although the results of this study are mainly based on participants' experience and accounts, they are filtered through my perspective and interpretation of the data.

As for the type of observation, this study used an unstructured observation. Compared to structured observation which requires concrete observation categories or observation protocol, this is more flexible by allowing the researcher to note down what is going on in the context depending on its importance and relevance to the RQs (Dörnyei, 2007). The main reason for using unstructured observation type was that I did not want to restrict myself as the researcher to the certain pre-determined observation protocol or to miss some points which might be crucial to describe complex classroom environment more clearly. The use of unstructured observations is also supported by Dörnyei (2007 p.179) who argues that structured observation "will fail to tell the whole story of classroom life regardless of how sophisticated an observation protocol might be". Considering this limitation, it was a better choice to use unstructured observation in this study.

Another point to consider as to observation was to establish my role in the classroom – whether to be a participant observer or complete observer (Richards, 2003). In the context of TESOL, a participant observer joins the activities in the class or school and becomes a member of the group while complete observer sits at the back as an outsider without interrupting the process and preferably takes notes (ibid.). Since my aim was to observe and understand teachers' L1 practices in their natural

68

environment without affecting the students and teachers' usual behaviours and context (or with minimised effect), I preferred being a complete observer during the observations.

Observational data in the current research is based on two different sources which are class recordings and field notes. Rather than using video-recording during observations, audio-recording was used as it was thought to be more convenient in terms of ethical issues and official permission. Moreover, audio-recording was much less intrusive for the participants than video-recording. It was a valuable source capturing every word of both teachers and students and therefore, a detailed portrait of the lesson. For the purpose of capturing clearer voice from participant teachers and students especially during busy times when their voices overlap (likely to be very common with YLs at times), I used two recording devices in each lesson (Olympus WS-853 and Philips DVD1110). While one of the devices was used with a clip-on microphone and carried by the teachers during the observed classes, the other was on my desk at the back. The use of two devices simultaneously provided much better quality audio data to work on, particularly to recognise students' voices while the teachers were away from them at the front of the classroom. In this regard, I used both sets of recordings interchangeably during data analysis in order to better understand some of the teacher-students and student-student conversations.

However, there were times when even two recorders were not enough to capture learners' voices. In fact, when learners spoke loudly all together (mostly during their favourite activities due to excitement), it was not possible to differentiate their voices. This was observed particularly in urban schools where class size was considerably bigger. However, this did not affect the quality of the teachers' voice thanks to the recorder with the clip-on microphone on them.

For the purpose of complementing observational data, field notes were taken during the observations. Field notes are "a form of representation, that is, a way of reducing just-observed events, persons and places to written accounts" (Emerson et al., 2007 p.353). Since they are reducing the complex

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

environment into more accessible accounts, they are naturally be selective, noting down what seems to be important and relevant to the research for the researcher. However, it should not just be considered as recording the facts, but it also involves the researcher's active interpreting and sense-making processes. From this standpoint, according to Casanave (2015), they should not be regarded as accurate representations of reality but constructed outcomes produced by the researcher.

According to Denscombe (2014), data collected by observation should be complemented by field notes, and these notes should include *inter alia*, information about the context and researcher's impressions about events, participants' and students' behaviours and mood. In line with this suggestion, these features and others that were felt to be affecting factors for teachers' language choice were recorded in the field notes. An example is provided in Appendix A. As Dörnyei (2007) argues, such data enabled me to remember what was happening during the observation and have a better understanding of the data during the process of interpretation and analysis of the data.

However, it is worth noting that observation has a significant limitation, namely, the "observer's paradox" which is the impact of the observer on the ones who are being observed (Richards, 2003 p.108). Unfortunately, classroom observers are often seen as "intruders who are inevitably obtrusive" (Dörnyei, 2007 p.190) so participants may not behave normally and may change their teaching style on purpose or without even realising, thereupon the researcher might collect invalid data. Although it is a real challenge to eliminate this effect completely, a number of precautionary actions were taken to alleviate it prior to data collection. First, rather than disclosing the specific aim of this study, it was more generally explained to the participants in order for them not to change their usual language choices. They were told that the aim of the research was understanding general classroom interactions in EFL classes in primary schools. Several studies mention teachers' underestimating or feeling guilty about using L1 in L2 classes and so they might use more L2 during observations (Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Liu et al. 2004; Meij and Zhao, 2010). Ethical considerations regarding this are elaborated in Section 4.7 below. Second, I emphasised to the teachers that no judgements or evaluation of how

70

they teach would be made and that focus of the study lies predominantly in their ordinary teaching practice. Further, assuring them anonymity and highlighting that only the researcher and supporting supervisor would have direct access to the data should have gone some way to minimising the problem. Moreover, the previous relationship between the researcher and participant teachers should have had some role to play in decreasing this negative effect.

Although it is impossible to completely see whether these precautionary actions worked, it is possible to claim, by looking at the data, that the observer's paradox during classroom observations was at a minimum level. As mentioned in Section 5.2, participants' L1 use prediction in the first interviews and their actual use were mostly consistent with each other. They were mostly aware of their amount of L1 use prior to observations (not accurate predictions, though). None of the participants underestimated their amount of L1 use. In this regard, their language practices during the observations were mostly in line with what they said were their general practices, and the effect of my presence in the classroom was very low.

As for the number of observations, this study comprises a large amount of observational data. Each grade taught by each participant was observed for four lesson hours (40 minutes each) which took around two weeks (see Table 4.1 below). Therefore, the participants had some opportunity to become accustomed to the presence of an observer. Considering number of the participants (five teachers) and the classes they teach (the 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades), this study comprises 60 observations in total. Although I was aware that it would be difficult to handle such a large amount of data, it would help to generate more comprehensive and detailed results on L1 practices of the participants.

Table 4.1 Summary of observations

Grades / Participants (Pseudonyms)	2nd grades	3rd grades	4th grades	Total
Seda	4	4	4	12
Esma	4	4	4	12
Ayfer	4	4	4	12
Melek	4	4	4	12
Betül	4	4	4	12
Total	20	20	20	60

4.3.2 Interviews

As observing and recording a phenomenon does not necessarily enable the researcher to understand the underlying causes of what has happened (Dörnyei, 2007), it was necessary to use another method to collect data. For this reason, I used the interview as the second research instrument, which is probably the most widely employed method in qualitative research and regarded as "a good way to mine attitudes, beliefs and experiences of self-disclosing respondents" (Talmy and Richards, 2010 p.2).

Rather than using "two extreme" types of interviews classified depending on the degree of structure (structured and unstructured interview), this study employed semi-structured interview "… which offers a compromise between the two" (Dörnyei, 2007 p.136). More specifically, semi-structured interviews include a set of questions which serve as an interview guide in order to properly cover the key topics, while the participants still have "a great deal of leeway in how to reply" (Bryman, 2016 p.468). In this way, it is possible to bring out new ideas and allow the informants to elaborate on particular issues (Dörnyei, 2007; Richards, 2009). Furthermore, as Kothari (2004) argues, interviewees may have a chance to raise issues that have been overlooked or ignored by the researcher so using semi-structured interview should provide the opportunity for a more in-depth treatment of this issue.

A key point regarding interviews is an acknowledgement of the researcher's role or contribution to the production of data, which is often an overlooked issue in research studies (Mann, 2010; Rapley,

2001). Whatever the type of the interview and the degree of control, all interviews are unavoidably meaning-making ventures in which both interviewer and interviewee interact with each other and collaboratively construct knowledge (Garton and Copland, 2010; Mann, 2010). Although the researcher's role is much more limited in structured interviews through asking standardised questions, they have a more active role in less structured interviews, sharing their own ideas, feelings and experiences depending on the degree of control. It means that there exists social interaction in all interviews in which views, facts, stories and opinions are produced jointly (Mann, 2010). Thus, as Holstein and Gubrium (2004 p.140-141) note, rather than viewing the interviews "as a neutral means of extracting information" or "one-way pipeline for transporting knowledge", they should be regarded as "active interviews" in which "meaning is actively and communicatively assembled in the interview encounter" through the active participation of both interviewer and interviewee. In this respect, the interviewer's role in this participation should be expressed explicitly in order to help the evaluation of the results in a better way.

Considering this, I acknowledge my role and contribution as the interviewer in the current research. Despite mostly having short turns to ask questions, in line with Dörnyei's (2007) suggestion, I used several techniques such as probing for further information, clarification requests, confirming and backchannelling (See Appendix B for a sample interview transcript). I believe that these strategies enabled me to reach more detailed explanations regarding the teachers' beliefs and experiences about L1 use as well as effective contextual factors on language choice. Since the qualitative interviews are viewed as social interaction sites rather than mechanical turn-taking procedure through question-answer, I sometimes felt the necessity of expressing my feelings to show my empathy rather than just asking bare questions. I believe that this kind of behaviour encouraged the participants to elaborate more on their L1 use which is regarded as a source of guilt by several teachers in various studies including the current one (see section 3.2.3 above). It is also noteworthy mentioning that despite my efforts to best reflect participants' accounts, views, feelings and thoughts, they inevitably went

through my "lens" or "filter" (Yin, 2016 p.288) through interpretation in the analysis of the data, which is a necessary phase in order to report the results. Thus, as Holliday (2007 p.112) argues, it is undeniable to argue that qualitative researchers can be seen as "an architect of meaning".

In line with the participants' preference, interviews were conducted in Turkish. It is assumed that they chose L1 because they felt more comfortable and were able to express themselves more freely. Interviews were translated into English and transcribed externally by a Turkish native speaker colleague. They were then checked by the researcher in order to ensure accuracy and quality. (see Section 4.8.3 below for more details).

As shown in the Figure 4.1 below, the current research employed two interviews with each participant: a pre-observation interview and a post-observation interview which took place following completion of all the observations of each participant (see Appendix C for interview questions). Although both interviews comprised of a mixture of open and closed questions, I mostly used open questions in order to gain deeper insights about participants' L1/L2 use. With the help of open questions, participants were able to answer the questions in their own terms. However, it was sometimes necessary to use closed questions for checking or other purposes (e.g. Post interview: Do students want you to speak Turkish or English?).

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Figure 4.1 Data collection procedures
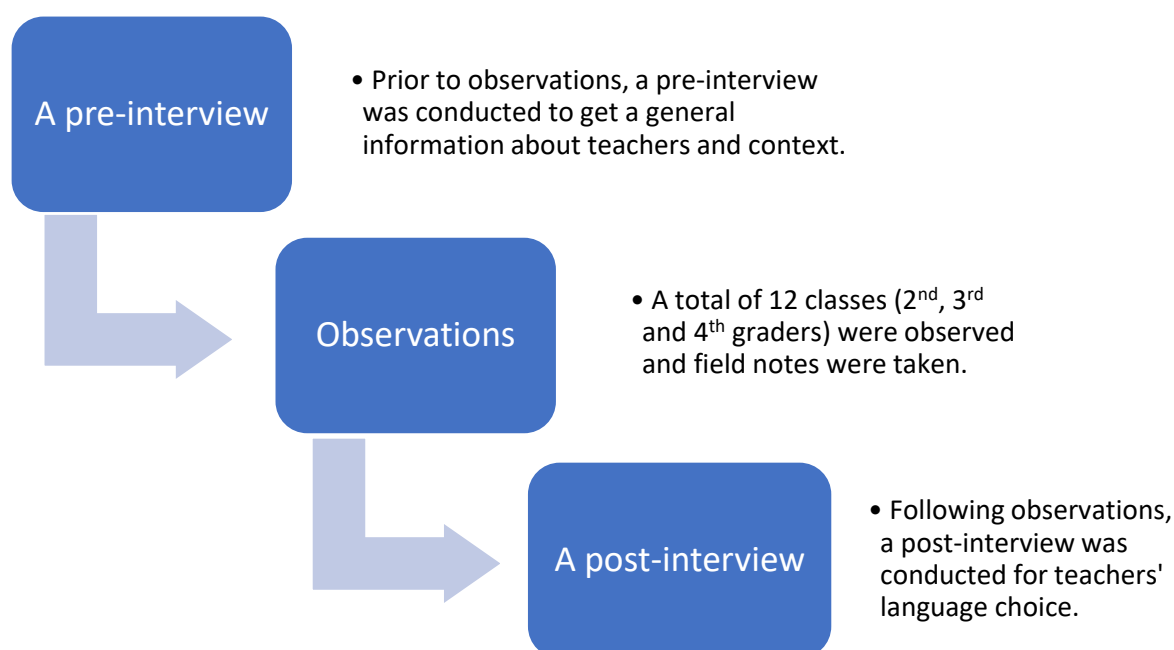
I used a principled approach in the course of preparing the format of both interviews. In order to enable the participants to feel at ease and "encourage them to open up" in the pre-interview (Dörnyei, 2007 p.137), I included some opening questions about several aspects including their university education, the journey of becoming a teacher and primary school choice. This was, what Richards (2003 p.56) calls, "a natural springboard for further questions" since it helped to build rapport between interviewees and me and to create a more friendly atmosphere in which they can talk freely about other questions. Following the initial questions were the contextual questions which aimed to get information about their school and classroom contexts. Contextual information and their views about it were beneficial in understanding the relationship between their L1 practices and contextual factors. Then came more specific questions about their thoughts about teaching in general and YLs more specifically as well as in-service training. Since they all had previous experience teaching older students, they explained the similarities and differences between working with different age groups. There was only one question put among other general questions regarding their L1/L2 choice in English classes. In this respect, it can be claimed that participants were not aware of the focus of the

study. In the final part of the interview, they were asked about their students' views and experiences about learning English. A closing question was asked in order to let them have a final say and cover any possibly missed point.

Although the main aim of the pre-interview was to obtain more general information about context, participants and learners, all the questions in the post-interview were specifically about participants' language choice. It comprised of different parts focusing on their experience on language choice, feelings and attitudes towards L1 use, and training on L1/L2 use. There were also a set of questions regarding learners' attitudes and experiences about teachers' L1/L2 use.

Post interviews also served as a stimulated recall session (namely, retrospective interview) which is a specific type of introspective method in which participants are asked about their thoughts about their behaviours during a previous task or event (Gass and Mackey, 2017). Stimulated recall sessions can be used as a complementary method and have great potential to enhance the richness of the data obtained through other methods (Baker and Lee, 2011). They are rather beneficial to gain insights about "unobservable mental processes such as thoughts, feelings, and motives … [by] helping the respondents to vocalise what is/was going through their minds when making a judgement, solving a problem or performing a task" (Dörnyei, 2007 p.147). They give participants an opportunity to construct a rich descriptive picture of their classroom practices. This is in line with a qualitative case study approach which places particular emphasis on "thick description" of the issue, a point already explained in Section 4.2.1 above. Namely, participants explain why they did what they did by elaborating the justifications and motives behind their decision-making process. In this regard, it enables us to gain access to the mental or internal processes of participants (ibid.). Considering these benefits, a number of questions were asked regarding their L1 use in specific situations towards the end of post-interviews.

During implementation, it is assumed that a tangible stimulus or reminder is used to help participants to recall and talk about their feelings and thoughts in the course of events or tasks. There might be several types of stimulus including written transcripts, visuals or audio-recording on which participants are expected to comment. Short extracts of the audio-recordings were used in this inquiry. I listened to the recordings prior to post-interviews and chose a number of examples of language switch to ask about. Having listened to their own voice, they elaborated their language switch they performed during the observed classes.

However, it should be noted that the time between the event (observation in this case) and stimulated recall is crucial in terms of data accuracy. In other words, it is ideal for keeping the interval between the observations and post-interviews as short as possible in order to ensure "data veridicality" which is participants' recalling their practices more accurately (Gass and Mackey, 2017 p.14). According to several researchers (e.g. Dörnyei, 2007; Gass and Mackey, 2017), it should not ideally exceed 48 hours. Considering this, post-interviews in the current research were conducted within two days following the final observation of each participant. For the purpose of convenience, instances of their L1 use from the latest lessons were chosen so that they would remember more clearly. It was still likely for participants not to recall a certain amount of information during this period. However, it was not feasible to conduct the interviews on the same day from both participants' and my perspective. The time of the interview was negotiated with the participants who offered the most suitable time for themselves. Two of them offered to do it in the lunch break or during an idle class on the same day of observation, but these would not be possible due to limited time. Moreover, it would take time for me to get prepared for the interview. I needed to listen to the recordings, note down the cases of language switch, and prepare the questions for the elaboration of the cases.

Although the stimulated recall session went well with the first participant (Seda) who answered the questions unhesitatingly, it was felt that the second participant (Esma) became a bit uncomfortable after a few questions and provided shorter answers. For this reason, the session was ended with no

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

further questions in order to help her feel at ease. Since her L1 use was observed as more common compared to Seda, it was believed that it might have stemmed from a sense of guilt of L1 use (as mentioned Section 3.2.3 above). Considering the other three participants' considerably more amount of L1 use than Seda and Esma (elaborated in Section 5.2), specific questions related to their language switch were not asked not to make them uncomfortable. Therefore, this study comprises stimulated recall sessions with only two participants.

4.4 Piloting research instruments

Although piloting is not obligatory, it is an important component of sound research (Denscombe, 2014) because of its key role in revealing any weaknesses of the study (Kothari, 2004), enabling the researcher to obtain high quality of outcomes by giving a chance to improve these weaknesses (Dörnyei, 2007), and seeing how well research instruments work well in practice (Bryman, 2016). Moreover, it is not always possible to predict emergent factors beforehand, particularly in qualitative studies (Janesick, 1998) so it is an opportunity to be aware of these and take precautions beforehand.

With these advantages in mind, I observed four beginner-level classes at a UK university in the second term of 2018 academic year. During my observations, I also took field notes but did not audio-record the classes. English was L1 and French was L2 in these classes, and it was taught by a native speaker of French. Although L2 and teaching context were different from the ones in this study, they were useful for practising my observational skills. By means of the preliminary study, I realised that I needed to improve my observation skills since what was happening in the classroom was mundane for me, probably because of my teaching background. According to Cowie (2009), it might be challenging for teacher-researchers to do observation in educational settings as a result of taken-for-granted behaviours and familiarity of the environment. Doing practice without taken-for-granted attitude was key to gain more awareness and to "make the familiar strange" (Holliday, 2007 p.13). In order to "access fascinating data by observing mundane settings" (Silverman, 2013 p.31), I paid particular

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

attention to what is going on in the classroom by questioning during piloting and honed my observation skills by acting like a stranger in a new situation.

In addition to preliminary observations in a different setting in the UK, I also conducted another pilot study with one of the participant teachers (Seda) in order to test all of data collection methods and my observation skills. This was a more realistic one, all data collection methods being used (observation, audio-recording, field notes and interviews) in the intended context. Piloting took place at the beginning of October 2018 and lasted for two weeks. The pre-interview was conducted at a mutually convenient time, and the observation schedule was negotiated on that day, depending on the participant's availability. And finally, the post-interview was conducted two days after the last observed lesson.

Although I initially intended to do only piloting with Seda and not include her in the main study, I decided to include her after seeing that piloting went well. The questions of pre and post interviews were proved to be well-prepared and expressed clearly in terms of wording as well as generating abundant information from the participant. Pre and post interviews lasted for around 100 minutes and 37 minutes respectively. Observations were also conducted meticulously in that I wrote detailed field notes about the context, teacher and students' behaviour as well as my interpretation about the events. The quality of the recordings was sufficient enough for the analysis, so interview and observational data collected from Seda were also included in the current research.

4.5 Sampling procedure

The current research employed a convenience sampling method which is a specific type of non-probability sampling (Silverman, 2013). According to Dörnyei (2007), it is the most commonly used method in social science. It is believed that the use of this type of sampling serves the aim of this inquiry which is to understand and elucidate participant teachers' language choice practices.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Although convenience sampling is criticised due to its lack of generalizability, it should be noted that this study does not aim to generalise the findings to a wider community but to gain an in-depth understanding of L1 use in particular cases. In this respect, as Perry (2011) argues, it does not lack purpose. Moreover, as stated in Section 3.2, it would be problematic to generalise the findings as to L1 use because of the considerable effect of specific features of classroom environments (Edstrom, 2009).

In this sampling method, I used my personal relationship and contacted my previous colleagues who were working in public primary schools in Turkey. When I was working as an EFL teacher, I met them during trainings and meetings which were regularly held to maintain high quality of teaching English across different schools in the same region. None of them was a colleague with whom I worked in the same school. In this regard, I did not have any specific information regarding their way of teaching or language use. The contact with the teachers started in February 2018. The main parameter for deciding on the participants was that they should be teaching English in a state primary school. After giving some information about the intended research including general purpose, the duration and methodology, I asked for their permission to observe and audio-record their classes and do interviews in the first term of 2019 academic year. I also told them that official and ethics permission would be obtained MONE in Turkey and Aston University. Of the 13 colleagues whom I contacted, five accepted to take part in the study (five teachers did not want to participate at all, two did not respond, and one was unwilling for the planned term of data collection). The main reason for some of the contacted teachers' unwillingness to participate in the research might be due to a common belief about classrooms in Turkey. Classrooms are viewed as teachers' and learners' private places and only education inspectors and head teachers can observe the lessons on the condition that they take permission from the teachers. Considering an outsider's visit to their classrooms and particularly the audio-recording tool that would be used in this research, teachers might have been hesitant to take part in classroom observations. However, I thought that five participants were enough to understand

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

and demonstrate teachers' L1 practices in detail. All of those who accepted to participate were working in different public primary schools located in a southwestern city of Turkey with various ages and teaching experiences. Moreover, they were all teaching 2nd, 3rd and 4th graders, which enabled me to examine L1 use based on different grades. Detailed information about participants is provided in the next section.

4.6 Participants

This study has five participants working as English teachers in various Turkish primary schools (pseudonyms: Seda, Esma, Betül, Melek and Ayfer). Reflecting the general gender distribution of primary school English teachers in Turkey, all participants are female with various teaching experiences ranging from three to 15 years (see Table 4.2 below). They are all native speakers of Turkish and graduated from different higher education institutions in Turkey. All of them have four years of BA degrees in ELT except for Ayfer who has a BA in English Literature and obtained additional pedagogical education later to become a teacher.

Table 4.2 Participants' profiles

	Gender	Teaching experience	Academic qualification and subject	Teaching context	Class size
Seda	Female	9	BA ELT	Urban	25-35
Esma	Female	15	BA ELT	Urban	31-40
Ayfer	Female	10	BA English Literature	Semi-urban	17-25
Melek	Female	3	BA ELT	Rural	14-15
Betül	Female	12	BA ELT	Rural	16-20

Participants of the current study work in three different contexts, which are urban, semi-urban and rural (Table 4.2 above). Seda and Esma are working in urban primary schools, each with more than 1000 students in total. In line with the crowded population of the schools, the class size is generally between 25 and 40 students. As for Ayfer, she is working in a semi-urban school context which is

located close to the city and consists of a mixture of students coming from urban and rural areas. The number of students in the observed classes was between 17 and 25. The last two participants, Melek and Betül, are working in small rural schools which each have a population of a few hundred students. Compared to observed urban schools, class size in these schools is considerably lower, ranging from 14 to 20.

Regarding the university education, they stated in the first interviews that they were generally satisfied with the education they had in terms of the support and guidance of instructors as well as classes. Regardless of at what level they would work in the future, they had a module related to teaching English to YLs in which they learned how to work with children and preparing materials and games for low age groups. They also did practicums in various contexts at different levels, which they found very useful in order to overcome shyness and gain experience prior to becoming a teacher. The language of instruction was English in the classes at the university, and they were encouraged to speak English during both teaching practice and learning. In order to improve her L2 during the second year of studying, Melek joined an Erasmus student exchange program and spent one term in a European country.

All but one participant (Seda) stated that they did not have any in-service training for language use in L2 teaching. In fact, they argued that any kind of general in-service training was not offered to them for a long time. Although they had difficulty in recalling the time of the last PD they received, Ayfer attended an event related to effective teaching methods five years ago, and Betül had one about materials design in the first year of her teaching experience, which was around eleven years ago. In contrast, Seda stated that she regularly attended several PD events about various topics, including L1/L2 use, and these were mostly organised by various private institutions.

4.7 Ethics

Ethical issues were paramount in this study since I met the participants face-to-face in school settings where there were also children. For this reason, as the British Education Research Association (BERA) emphasises, I followed a principled approach to ensure that any persons involved in the research were "treated fairly, sensitively, with dignity…" (BERA, 2011 p.5). In line with this principled approach, I obtained official permission from MONE for collecting data in primary schools in Turkey (See Appendix D). I also applied for the approval of the Ethics Committee at Aston University by explaining the ethical issues in detail (Appendix E). There were a number of points for me to pay attention to since this research would be conducted in primary school settings. I needed to get permission from various stakeholders of schools, including school administrators, pupils' parents as well as participants. For this reason, following the getting approval from the Ethics Committee, I asked for headteachers' consent for conducting research. Their informed consent form was provided in Turkish to ensure that they are fully aware of the nature of the study (see Appendix F). Moreover, although the focus of this study was teachers' language choice, and therefore their voice would be recorded, it was inevitable to audio-record children's voice and include them in the analysis. Considering their low age which was around 7-9, I needed to get permission from their parents or legal guardians. For this reason, an information sheet was sent to them, and informed consent was obtained from parents (Appendix G). These documents were provided in Turkish in order to make their rights and research details clear. Although written consent was not obtained from children themselves, it was explained to them that I would be present in some lessons and my aim was by no means judging or grading them but observing their teacher.

In order to observe and audio-record their classes, and do interviews, an information sheet was provided for the participant teachers of this study and informed consent was also obtained prior to data collection (Appendix H). It was ensured that they were aware of the general purpose and procedure of the research and in what contexts the results would be reported. Moreover, their privacy

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

and anonymity were emphasised. They were also told that although they volunteered to participate in this study, they had the right to withdraw at any stage during the research process. It was assured that their withdrawal would by no means affect their position negatively. The nature and procedure of the study and their rights were also told them verbally to ensure that they were fully cognizant of these.

However, rather than telling participants the specific aim of this research which is their L1 practices, I explained it more broadly and said that the aim was to understand classroom interactions in primary level classes. The main reason for explaining it more broadly is that, as Silverman (2013) warns, explaining the true rationale behind the research may influence participants' behaviours and affect the data collected. In other words, in line with what most of the participants expressed in the current research, teachers' feeling guilty of L1 use is frequently reported (e.g. Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2005) and participants could be inclined to use more L2 than usual during observations. As mentioned in Section 3.2.1 above, this was the case for one of the empirical studies in which participant teachers demonstrated higher use of L2 during observations probably due to observer's paradox (Liu et al., 2004). Considering the potential sense of guilt and observer's paradox which might lead participants to change their usual language choice practices, I disclosed the specific aim of this study after the observations and provided participants with a verbal and written debrief explaining the reason for this choice (Appendix I). I also emphasised that they still had the right to withdraw and that they could contact me or supporting supervisor should they had any concerns about this practice.

Explaining the research aim in general is also supported by BERA (2011) and Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) (2015) guidelines which suggest that this approach is acceptable as long as it is appropriately justified and that a full ethics review is conducted by the ethics committee. In line with these guidelines, I had a reasonable justification for this approach, and it was approved by the Ethics Committee at Aston University. And probably most importantly, participants were willing to continue taking part in the research after the disclosure of the specific aim.

84

In addition to the pre-determined ethical issues explained above, it is also important to pay attention to emergent situations in the field, which are sometimes impossible to predict in advance (Ryen, 2016; Silverman, 2013). Following the observation of a few classes of one of the participants (Melek), I had to change the schedule of the observations since she felt ill so had to take two weeks off. During this period, rather than talking about data collection with her, I sent her good wishes and observed the next participant after negotiating the time. Following her recovery, the observations continued.

Creswell (2013) warns researchers of paying attention to ethics not only during data collection but also in later stages. Accordingly, after fieldwork, all digital data were stored in a password-secured computer. Paper versions (consent forms and field notes) were securely kept in a locked cabinet to ensure participants' privacy and confidentiality. Moreover, in line with Dörnyei's (2007) suggestion, a summary of results regarding their L1 use was sent to the participants as a goodwill gesture.

4.8 Data analysis

4.8.1 Overview of data analysis

Although data in the current study were qualitatively collected through classroom observation together with field notes and semi-structured interviews, data analysis consists of a combination of qualitative and quantitative analyses. However, this study is still regarded as qualitative in nature since qualitative research is not necessarily conducted without the use of numbers (Bryman, 2016), and numbers can be used as a form of the supportive element of word-based accounts (Dörnyei, 2007). In a similar vein, Maxwell (2010 p.478-479) argues that inclusion of numbers does not inherently make the research mixed-method study and views it as legitimate and a useful strategy to complement the qualitative analysis process in many aspects such as an aid "to identify patterns that are not apparent simply from unquantified qualitative data and correctly characterise the diversity of actions, perceptions or beliefs".

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Analysis of observational data was conducted mainly in three stages which are: 1. identifying L1/L2 utterances, 2. quantifying the utterances to find the amount of L1 use and 3. determining for which function these utterances were used. As for the analysis of interviews and field notes, thematic analysis was conducted to explore potential themes regarding participants' L1 use in terms of their reasons and motivations behind L1 use. Nvivo 12 was used to analyse both observational and interview data. Details of data analysis are explained below.

4.8.2 Analysis of classroom observation

This study used utterances in order to identify teachers' L1 use because of the fundamental disadvantages of other methods, such as time coding and word count. Although time coding might give the accurate result of L1/L2 use in terms of the total length of time each was used, it might not ensure accurate results since teachers' pace and hence overall duration of L1/L2 use might differ in the course of saying the same sentence. They are likely to speak more slowly in L2 depending on their proficiency level. Regarding the word count, it is challenging to decide what to count as a word. Moreover, there are several differences between English and Turkish in terms of syntactic structure and morphology. For instance, in Turkish, one word with the suffix is used for more than one word in English such as possessive pronouns (Turkish: bilgisayar<u>ım</u>, English: <u>my</u> computer). Or, there is no definite article "the" in Turkish. For this reason, the number of words for the same sentence might be different in both languages and therefore using word count might give misleading results (e.g. Turkish: two words: Seni bekliyorum = English: five words: I am waiting for you).

4.8.2.1 Utterance coding

In line with the analysis procedure of several studies (e.g. Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Grim, 2010; Izquierdo et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2004), teachers' talk was broken down into utterances in order to find out the amount and functions of L1 used by the participants. The Oxford dictionary (https://www.lexico.com/) defines an utterance as "an uninterrupted chain of spoken or written

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

language", but it is necessary to identify the criteria to specify it since this is a broad definition that can be interpreted differently. According to Walsh (2011), several factors about form and structure should be considered in order to define an utterance. For example, it is problematic to associate an utterance with a sentence in spoken discourse since we do not often speak in full sentences in natural environments to convey a message. Thus, an utterance might be an uninterrupted part of speech ranging from a single word to a few sentences depending on the immediate context. The important point here is the fragments of language that serve a single purpose or carry a single message without being interrupted (Izquierdo et al., 2016; Macaro, 2013). In line with this, identification of an utterance in the current study was carried out by breaking down teachers' talk into a separate stream of speech serving a single purpose or carry a single message. During this process, the main function of the utterance was important, so when the function changed, a new utterance began. An illustration of how utterances were identified is provided in Extract 4.1 below. In this example, Betül is teaching family members to the 3rd graders through listening and writing activities. She first gives feedback to a learner's writing in the book, which is immediately followed by an instruction to another learner who is talking to other learners. Although the first utterance is said calmly to praise the learner's work, the second one which is related to classroom management is more aggressive way. Thus, each was counted as a separate utterance since the message and the tone are different in each case.

Extract 4.1[6]

> 24   T: Güzel olmuş. Yanındakine söyle konuşmasın. [It is good. Tell your friend not to speak.]

During the identification of utterances, the length was not considered as a determining factor. Thus, an utterance can be a word or several sentences in length. However, when a participant's L1 use was interrupted by a student or someone else, it was considered as one L1 utterance. If the participant

---

[6] The figure on the left of the utterance shows line number. L1 instances in classroom extracts are translated into English in square brackets. Please see transcription conventions in Appendix J below.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

continued using L1 after the interruption, it was counted as another L1 utterance. Teachers' switching into L2 was also considered as an interruption. Thus, in case of saying something in L1, then in L2 and then again in L1, this was counted as two L1 utterances. However, repeated L1 use for the same purpose, without interruption was counted as only one utterance. An example of L1 repetition is provided in Extract 4.2 as an illustration. When some learners are stuck in their desks at the back due to lack of space and start complaining about it, Seda gives similar instructions to the ones at the front for several times, as shown in line 104, and these instructions serve a single purpose, which is classroom management. Therefore, this is counted as one L1 utterance.

Extract 4.2

> 104   Seda: Gel biraz öne. Biraz öne itekle. Öne it sıranı. Öne it sıranı. [Come to the front a little. Push it to the front. Push your desk to the front. Push your desk to the front.]

Further, there were some instances which were difficult to classify, such as students' names as the whole utterance, or single non-word utterances (e.g. hmm, uh-huh, shh). Since these episodes have the same meaning in both languages, they were not included in the analysis. However, when they were used as part of the whole utterance, they were included in the analysis as part of the utterance. And finally, only participants' talk which was part of the lesson or addressed to students was included in the analysis. Their talk to intruders during the observed lesson such as school principals, parents or students from other classes were excluded because of the fact that this study focuses on teachers' L1 use in the course of teaching L2.

4.8.2.2 Functional categories

After listening to the class recordings repeatedly and breaking down teachers' talk into utterances, it was time to assign functional categories to the utterances to determine for what functions L1 was used by the participants. During this process, I was guided by some potential functions of L1, as I had some information about the findings of previous research, which clearly helped me to code the

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

utterances of this study. Considering this, in order to identify major functions, this study used a top-down coding or, namely, "elaborative coding", which is beginning "coding with the theoretical constructs from the previous study in mind" (Auerbach and Silverstein, 2003 p.104). This elaborative coding was based on the coding that had been used by other researchers (rather than one drawn by myself). Although the codes and categories in these previous studies were helpful for the identification of major categories, some categories used in the research presented in this thesis do not exist in the previous studies, since functions of L1 use highly depend on specific teaching contexts. In order to illustrate the difference between various contexts in terms of functional categories, an updated version of Table 3.3 which includes the final categories of the current study is presented in Table 4.3 below. For example, while L1 for reprimanding is used only by the participants in Copland and Neokleous's (2011) study, instruction in L1 is common for all studies, including the current one.

Table 4.3 Functional categories of L1 use across various studies*

Functions \ Studies	Al-Alawi (2008)	De La Campa and Nassaji (2009)	Copland and Neokleous (2011)	Edstrom (2006)	Grim (2010)	Izquierdo et al. (2016)	Kim and Elder (2008)	Liu et al. (2004)	Sali (2014)	Storch and Wigglesworth (2003)	Wilden and Porsch (2020)	Current study
Greeting								√			√	√
Instructions	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√
Questions	√	√	√				√	√	√		√	√
Explanations (e.g. vocabulary, grammar)	√		√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√
Giving information about activity		√						√		√	√	
Classroom management	√	√			√	√		√	√		√	√
Feedback	√	√	√				√	√			√	√
Building rapport (e.g. jokes, chat)	√	√	√		√			√	√		√	√
Translation		√	√		√					√	√	
L1-L2 contrast		√										
Personal comment		√										√
Classroom equipment		√										√
Reprimand			√								√	
Compensate for lack of comprehension				√								

*Ticked boxes refer to the categories existing in the study.

Although elaborative coding was used to identify the major categories shown above, this study includes a large number of fine-grained categories identified in a data-driven inductive approach. Thus, this study used a hybrid approach to assign functional categories to the utterances. It was felt that major categories derived from the literature were not sufficient to explain participants' L1 use in detail and hence achieve rich descriptions, so these categories were broken down into sub-categories based on participants' L1 practices following listening to the class recordings several times. Asking questions, for example, a commonly identified category amongst different studies including this one, was divided into four sub-categories which are display questions, referential questions, questions

related to class materials and clarification requests. Feedback, another common category across previous studies, was broken down into six functions. Fine-grained sub-categories of the current research can be regarded as the original contribution of this study to the existing body of literature as they were formed inductively based on the data following rigorous coding process.

It is believed that detailed categorisation enables better understanding and illustration of participants' L1 practices and enabling thick descriptions of the participants' L1 practices. To give an example, detailed categorisation enabled to reveal the amount of question types that teachers used, and it was reported that participants mostly used display questions to teach language points (see Section 5.3.4 below). Or, with the help of sub-categories of feedback, it was obvious that teachers were much more interested in what learners said rather than how they answered (7-19% content feedback vs around 1% form-focused feedback). Therefore, as a result of a detailed examination of L1 use patterns of participants, this study comprises a total of eight major and 24 sub-categories (Table 4.4 below).

Table 4.4 Functional categories of L1 use

Major categories	Minor categories	Examples[7]
Instructions	Class management	((While teaching greetins to the 2nd graders, some learners in the left row are talking to each other and Seda warns them)) Teacher: Bu küme çok konuşuyor. Susar mısınız? Sessizlik istiyorum. [This group is talking too much. Can you be quiet? I want silence. (Seda 2.4.25)
	Procedure	((At the beginning of the lesson with the 4th graders, Esma informs learners of what they will do by using L1)) Teacher: Hadi kelimeleri hatırlayarak başlayalım. [Let's start with remembering the words.] (Esma 4.3.6)
	Task instruction	((Melek instructs learners to read the words on the board altogether)) Teacher: Okuyun. Hep beraber okuyun! [Read it. Read it altogether!] (Melek 2.1.31)
	Homework	((At the end of the lesson with the 4th graders)) Teacher: Evde bunu bitirin, tamam mı? [Finish this part at home, alright?] (Betül 4.2.36)
Confirmation/ feedback	Content feedback	((Student showing her writing to the teacher)) Teacher: Aferin. Cok guzel olmus. [Well done. It is very good.] (Ayfer 3.4.26)
	Form-focused feedback	((Teacher gives feedback about a grammar mistake)) Teacher: 'Can' ile sorulunca 'can' ile cevap veririz. 'May' ile sorulunca 'may' ile cevap veririz. Sen hepsini ayni yapmissin. [We answer with 'can' if it is asked with 'can'. We answer with 'may' if it is asked with 'may'. You did them all the same.] (Seda 4.4.22)
	Echoing students' response	((Teacher repeats a learner's reply to her vocabulary question)) Teacher: What is this? Student 1: Sandalye. [Chair.] Teacher: Evet, sandalye. [Yes, chair.] (Esma 2.4.11)
	Rephrasing students' response	((Although a learner answers correctly to teacher's question about family members, teacher rephrases it by saying it more specifically probably learner's answer lacks accuracy)) Student 1: Bir taraftakilerin hepsi kız and diğer taraftakilerin hepsi erkek. [All the ones on one side are women, and the ones on the other side are men.] Teacher: Çok güzel! Sol taraftakiler erkek aile üyeleri, sağ taraftakiler ise bayan aile üyeleri. [Excellent! Family members on the left are male, the ones on the right are female.]
	Teacher's comment	((While doing exercises about numbers on activity book, the teacher encounters a challenging activity with full of mathematical calculations)) Teacher: Burası çok karmaşıkmış, bu bölümü geçelim. Matematik işlemleri ile alakalı. Bu kadarına gerek yok. [This part is very complicated. Let's pass it. It is related to mathematical operation. There is no need for it.] (Ayfer 3.3.6)
	Reaction to student question/request	((A 2nd grader reminds the teacher of the time towards the end of the lesson)) Student 1: İki dakika var. [Two minutes left.] Teacher: Tamam! [OK!] (Esma 2.1.36)

---

[7] The terms in square brackets are English translations. The double round brackets at the beginning of the extract give contextual information and the round brackets at the end show data sources. For example, Seda 2.4.25 means that this extract is from the 25th minute of Seda's 4th lesson with 2nd graders.

92

Table 4.4 (continued)

Asking questions	Display questions	((Following teaching family members to the 3rd graders, Melek asks questions to see if learners have understood it)) Teacher: Amca ne demek? [What does 'uncle' mean?] (Melek 3.3.13)
	Referential questions	((Following doing a self-evaluation activity at the end of the unit, the teacher asks learners about their results)) Teacher: Kim 15 puan aldı? [Who got 15 points?] (Esma 3.4.31)
	Questions related to class materials	((Whilst putting a USB flash drive to the smartboard at the beginning of the lesson with the 3rd graders, the teacher has a technical problem and asks learners about it)) Teacher: Neden görmüyor? [Why does it not connect?] (Melek 3.1.8)
	Clarification requests	((A 2nd grader shares a problem he has with the teacher but Betül wants clarification about it probably because she cannot understand it)) Student 1: Öğretmenim, ben yazmayı bilmiyorum. [Teacher, I do not know writing.] Teacher: Ne yazmayi bilmiyorsun? [What do you not know writing?] (Betül 2.1.32)
Explanation/ paraphrase	Grammar	((While teaching personal pronouns to the 3rd graders, the teacher makes a brief explanation to differentiate 'he' and 'she')) Teacher: Erkek aile üyelerinden bahsederken 'he' kullanıyoruz, bayan aile üyelerinden bahsederken 'she' kullanıyoruz. [We use 'he' while talking about male family members and 'she' while talking about female family members.] (Ayfer 3.4.20)
	Vocab	((The teacher directly says the Turkish meaning of a phrase in the first unit to the 4th graders)) Teacher: 'Sorry, not right now' üzgünüm şimdi değil demek. ['Sorry, not right now' means ...] (Seda 4.2.34)
	Pronunciation	((While taeching numbers to the 3rd graders, the teacher explains how to explain the pronunciation of number 13)) Teacher: /ðəˈtiːn/ değil, /təˈtiːn/ de değil. Dilimizi dişimizin arasına koyup peltek bir ses çıkarıyoruz. /θəˈtiːn/ diye söylüyoruz. [It is neither /ðəˈtiːn/ nor /təˈtiːn/. We put our tongue between our teeth and make a lisper sound. We pronounce it as /θəˈtiːn/.] (Ayfer 3.2.16)

Table 4.4 (continued)

Interpersonal relation	Humour	Student 1: Yerde pastel boya buldum. [I have found crayon on the floor.] Teacher: Ayy, ne yapacagiz şimdi? Yerde pastel boya bulmuş. Aman Allahim! [Oh, what shall we do now? He has found a crayon on the floor. Oh my God!] (Betül 3.4.29)
	Chat	((During a colouring activity)) Teacher: Köpeğinin rengi beyazdır belki. Beyaz mı? [Maybe, your dog is white. Is it white?] Student 1: Dalmaçyalı yapayım mı? [Shall I do dalmatian?] Teacher: Hadi yap bakalım. Farklı olsun seninki. [You can do it. Yours will be different.] (Betül 2.1.29)
	Empathy/solidarity	Teacher: Saçların çok güzel. Çok değişik olmuş. Kim karar verdi? Baban mı? [Your hair is very beautiful. It is very different. Who decided it? Your father?] (Seda 3.4.10)
	Affective/well-being	Teacher: Küstün mü Ali? Merak etme. Birazdan barışırsın. [Ali, are you offended? Do not worry. You will make peace soon.] (Melek 4.4.16)
	Encouragement	((One student is too shy to make body gestures whilst singing)) Teacher: Neden utanıyorsun? Ben kocaman kadınım ve utanmıyorum. Utanmana gerek yok. [Why are you ashamed? I am an old woman but not ashamed. There is no need to be ashamed.] (Esma 2.3.39)
	Politeness marker	((Following talking to an intruder during the class, the teacher apologies for the interruption and continues the lesson)) Teacher: Çocuklar özür diliyorum. (...) Hemen tahtadakileri defterinize yazın. Sonra bir etkinlik yapacağız. [I am sorry, kids. (...) Quickly write what is on the board in your notebook. Then, we will do an activity.] (Ayfer 4.1.4)
	Greetings	Teacher: Nasılsınız? Ahmet, nasılsın, iyi misin kuzum? [How are you? Ahmet, how are you, my kid?] (Ayfer 2.1.1)
Discourse markers		Teacher: Tamam. Şimdi (...) Geçen hafta sınıf eşyalarını öğrenmiştik. Bu hafta ... [OK. Now (...) We learned classroom objects last week. This week ...] (Ayfer 4.1.2)
Talking to themselves		Teacher: Kuzeni yazmamışım. [I did not write cousin.] (Betül 3.3.19)
Repetition/ Reinforcement		((Following teaching numbers, the teacher asks several questions)) Teacher: 58'i İngilizce kim söyleyebilir? [Who can say 58 in English?] (Betül 4.1.3)

It should be acknowledged that assigning functional categories to the utterances was a complex task since some utterances, as Walsh (2011 p.9) explains, sometimes have "multiple foci" and they "may be performing several functions at the same time". As a result of multi-functionality, there was some overlap between some categories, and it was possible to assign more than one category to some L1 utterances. In order to overcome this complexity, in line with Copland and Neokleous (2011), a category was assigned to each utterance according to what was felt to be its primary purpose and each utterance was only counted once. An example of L1 utterance serving more than one function is provided below (see Extract 4.3). Esma is working with the 2nd graders, and students are assigned to a drawing activity. When one of the students lets the teacher know that he has finished, Esma praises him. Although this utterance primarily aims to provide feedback to the student's performance (and coded as content feedback), it can also be coded as encouragement since it is an incentive for further activities.

Extract 4.3

112   Student 1: Bitti. [Finished.]

113   Teacher: Aferin, cok hızlısın. [Well done. You are so fast.]

Due to the difficulty of assigning categories to the utterances as a result of multi-functionality and possible "observer drift" which is researcher's drifting away from the original coding as a result of familiarity with the data (Richards, 2003 p.157), it was considered beneficial to test the codes externally. Therefore, this study applied inter-rater reliability, i.e. utterances being coded by two or more raters, to measure the degree of agreement (Armstrong et al., 1997). A colleague, who is a native Turkish speaker currently studying PhD in Applied Linguistics at a Turkish university, was asked to assign codes to the utterances of one lesson which was already coded (Betül's 4th lesson with the 4th graders). Following categorisation, the consistency between two raters (colleague and me as the researcher) was calculated and found that the coding was 83.23% consistent with each other (124 out of 149 utterances were coded the same). Detailed examination of categorisation of both raters

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

revealed that the most common difference was the categorisation of content feedback and reinforcement. When Betül gave feedback to the students, she sometimes repeated it several times, and this utterance was coded differently by the raters as either content feedback or reinforcement.

It is also worth mentioning that classroom recordings were not transcribed in full, which is believed to be not necessary as they were easily accessible in Nvivo whenever needed. Only a number of extracts, including L1 use, were transcribed by the researcher to explain related issues in the next chapter. The transcription conventions are provided in Appendix J.

4.8.3 Analysis of interviews and field notes

In order to analyse the data from interviews and field notes, this study employed thematic analysis, which is one of the most common approaches used in qualitative research (Bryman, 2016). Thematic analysis is an effective method to identify, analyse, organise describe and report themes found in a dataset (Nowell et al., 2017). More specifically, the analysis procedure followed the principles and key elements of "Framework", which is a general strategy for assisting thematic analysis (Bryman, 2016). For the Framework method, Ritchie and Spencer (2002) identified five key analytical stages which are familiarisation, thematic framework, indexing, charting, and mapping and interpretation. Since it involves "a systematic process of sifting, charting and sorting material according to key issues and themes" (ibid. p.177), it enabled the display of ideas visually, and the development and interpretation of them more easily.

Especially during this part of the analysis, NVivo 12 provided great convenience and was very useful in many aspects, including easy indexing and coding options as well as displaying the data visually. However, several researchers (e.g. Denscombe, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007) have a caveat regarding the use of analytical tools since they might be regarded as "a quick and easy fix for the task of analysing

96

qualitative data" (Denscombe, 2014 p. 281). It is the researcher who should still decide the codes and find connections in data, which I was aware of during the analysis process.

Data analysis started with the familiarisation with the data which is gaining an overview of the richness, depth and diversity of material collected and immersion in the data by using several methods including listening to audio-recordings, transcription, translating and reading transcriptions (ibid.). For the purpose of convenience and saving time, interviews were initially transcribed and translated into English externally by a colleague who is a PhD student in Applied Linguistics in Turkey and familiar with the research procedure. He is a native Turkish speaker who has knowledge about the culture and language as well as fluent in English and has experience of teaching English in Turkey. These characteristics are believed to affect the translation process positively in terms of understanding and transferring the interviewee's accounts more accurately.

Full translations and transcriptions were done for all ten pre- and post- interviews. Since achieving conceptual equivalence between different languages through translation is a challenge (Choi et al., 2012), non-literal translation rather than word-to-word translation was conducted. By doing so, it was aimed to convey the meaning in maximum level and increase readability without sacrificing the essential features.

Following obtaining the transcripts from the colleague, translations were checked to ensure they are in accordance with the intended message from the interviewees. This was conducted by reading the translations and listening to the audio-recordings more than once. During the review of interviews, I also took notes, highlighting the patterns and recurrent themes (see Figure 4.2 for the screenshot of the notes). These are called memos in NVivo and helped to identify key issues, concepts and themes across participants and construct a thematic framework in which they can be classified and sifted by drawing on research questions, interview topics and emergent issues raised by the interviewees. Then, the themes within the textual data were indexed (it is called nodes in NVivo) and categorised according

97

to different indexes to see the similarities and differences among participants. In other words, as Ritchie and Spencer (2002 p.182) explain, raw data were "lifted from their original context and rearranged according to the appropriate thematic reference." And finally, the key characteristics of the data were charted, and explanations were sought to these accounts.

Figure 4.2 Notes in NVivo

Memos				Q Search Project	
Name	/ Codes		References	Modified On	Modified By
Demographic information		0	0	28/01/2019 15:03	ST
External Factors affecting teaching		3	3	28/01/2019 15:02	ST
L1 use justification - first interview		2	13	28/01/2019 15:23	ST
Motivations of L1 use		7	26	05/02/2019 00:22	ST
Why and When L2		2	7	28/01/2019 15:54	ST

As a result of the detailed examination of textual data, 25 final themes were determined based on the highlighted statements and the questions asked in the interviews. In line with the categorisation of interview questions (see Section 4.3.2), some of the final themes are experiences with YLs, feelings and beliefs about their L1 use, factors affecting teaching and language choice practices, university education and PDs regarding L1 use, and learners' experiences and attitudes towards English lesson and teacher's language use in the classroom (see Figure 4.3 below for a screenshot of the themes).

Figure 4.3 Final themes

Some of the final themes were also divided into categories depending on the participants' answers.

For example, as shown in Figure 4.4 below, since teachers mostly mentioned challenges and rewards

of working with YLs regarding their experiences in primary schools, the theme of "experiences with

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

YLs" (highlighted in the below figure) consists of two categories which are "challenges" and "rewards". This way of categorisation provided convenience to see the similarities and differences across the participants and a better understanding of the data.

Figure 4.4 Categories of final themes

It was also possible with the help of NVivo to see the accounts related to both the categories and themes across different participants. This function provided me with great convenience to see the similarities and differences, make comparisons and draw conclusions about their teaching practices and language choice. For example, as shown in Figure 4.5 below, the participants stated several factors affecting their teaching and in turn language choice, and this was organised in one page to easily see after coding the accounts as "Factors affecting teaching".

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Figure 4.5 Accounts across participants
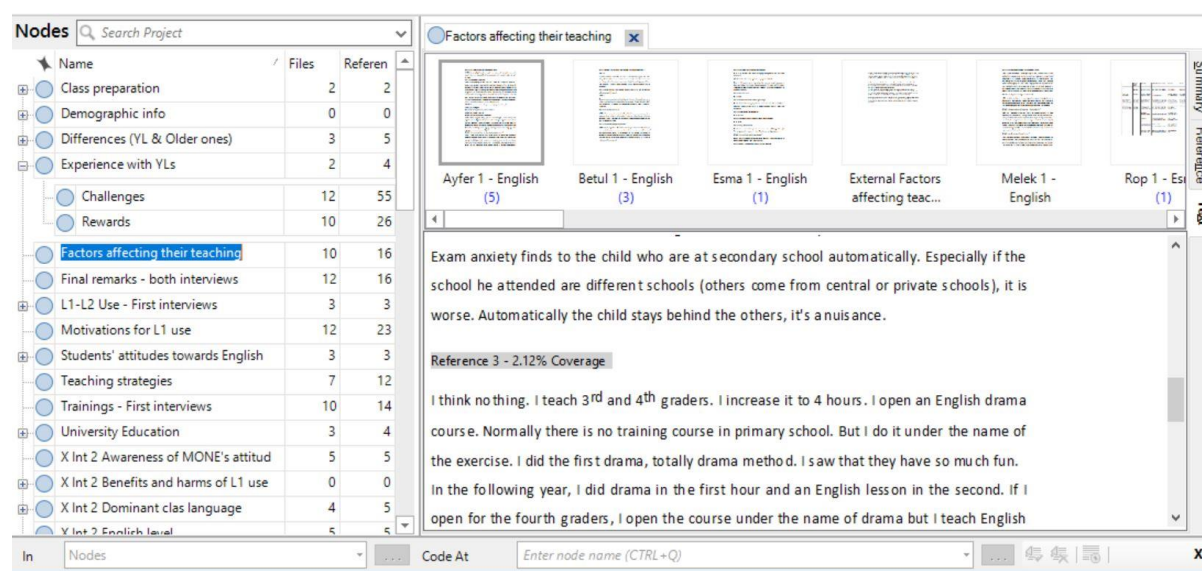
The interview extracts categorised depending on such themes and categories were used to explain the issues related to L1 use. It should be noted that, for the purpose of convenience and avoiding any possible confusion that might arise from classroom extracts, interview extracts are abbreviated in the next chapter (Chapter 5). For the first interview extract, for example, IE5.1 is used, and IE5.2 represents the second interview extract.

4.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed the methodology used in this research study. Presenting the research gap and research aims as well as research questions, it provided information about the ontological and epistemological stance adopted in the current study. It then elaborated data collection methods and the procedure followed for piloting and sampling of participants. Following this, it discussed the ethical issues which were considered as paramount throughout the research process. Finally, it elaborated how the observational and interview data were analysed.

The next chapter reports the results regarding teachers' L1 practices.

Chapter 5 Findings

5.1 Introduction

As aforementioned, this study aims to find out YL English teachers' L1 practices through pre and post interviews and classroom observations. More specifically, the main focus is the amount and functions of teachers' L1 use as well as their motivations to employ L1 with YLs. At this point, a reminder of the RQs would be beneficial for the purpose of convenience. The RQs of this study are as follows:

1. How much L1 do YL EFL teachers use in English classes?

2. For what functions do YL EFL teachers use L1 in English classes?

3. What are the underlying reasons for L1 use with YLs in English classes?

This chapter presents the findings in three main themes which are supported with both classroom and interview data (interview extracts are numbered as IE5.1, IE5.2, etc.). The names of the students presented in the extracts are all pseudonyms. A summary of L1 use of each participant is provided at the end of the chapter

5.2 Amount of teachers' use of L1

As mentioned earlier in Section 4.8.2, in order to find the amount of L1 use, utterances from classroom observations were determined and coded if they were used L1 or L2. The number of L1 utterances was divided by the total number of the L1/L2 utterances in order to find participants' overall percentages of L1 use. The analysis revealed that all of the participants used L1 during the observed lessons, although the amount varied. It can be seen from Figure 5.1 that there is a huge variation between teachers' amount of L1 use. More specifically, it ranges from 24% to 84% of total utterances. This great range could be, as mentioned in Chapter 3, due to impact of distinctive classroom variables such as teachers and learners' proficiency level, class size, teachers' experience, the content of the

lesson, and school context. Although these variables are closely related to teachers' motivations to employ L1, which will be elaborated in Section 5.4, some will be explained later in this section.

Figure 5.1 Amount of L1/L2 use summary
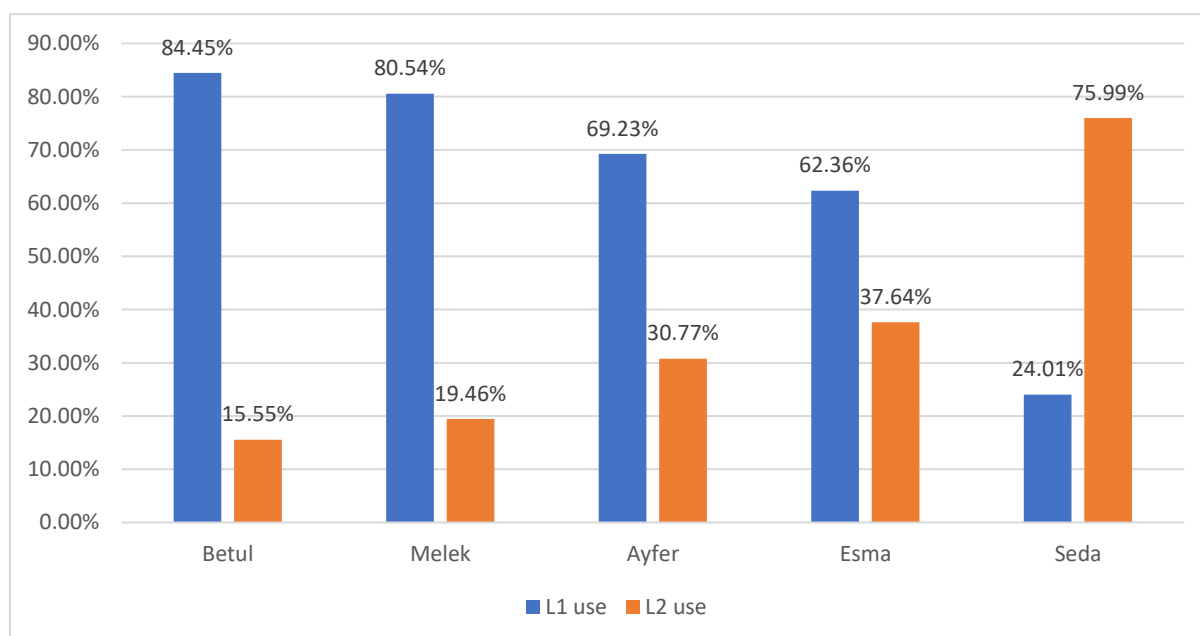
Similar to the variation across different participants, the amount of L1 use varies greatly across different lessons taught by the same teacher. Table 5.1 illustrates individual variation across lessons. The table is quite revealing in several ways. First, variation across individual lessons seems to depend on the participants. While the gap between the lowest and highest amount of L1 use is very big for some (Seda: around 9% vs. 53% and Esma: around 36% vs. 85%), it is much smaller for the others (Betül: around 80% vs. 95% and Melek: around 70% vs.92%). In terms of this finding, it can be said that the participants with less overall use of L1 have higher fluctuation across individual lessons. Second, it can be seen from the table that there are fluctuations across different grades taught by the same teacher, but more interestingly, the amount changes in different lessons with the same grade. For example, Ayfer used around 46% of L1 with the 3rd graders in the first observed lesson while it was around 80% in the third one. The difference in this specific example is highly likely because of the focus of the lesson. The learners played a simple game in which they stayed seated and raised their hand

103

according to instructions. As the instructions were short and simple, and learners were already familiar with it, it is believed that Ayfer did not have to employ much L1. However, the focus was entirely different in the 3rd lesson. She checked the homework she gave previous week at the beginning of the lesson during which she provided feedback to the learners in L1. She also used L1 to deal with the classroom management issues arose while individual support to some learners. Then, she made a quiz to assess learners' knowledge on numbers. She used many procedural and task instructions in L1 to get learners to prepare the quiz paper from a blank sheet (not a pre-prepared quiz). The instructions were generally related to distributing the sheets, writing a title, colour of the pen (the same question from learners several times), instructing them to write questions, explaining each section and dealing with disciplinary issues caused by the ones who finished earlier than others. Considering the difference between the two lesson, it can be said that the focus of the lesson in this case was highly influential.

Table 5.1 Amount of L1 use for each lesson

Participants / Classes	Betül		Melek		Ayfer		Esma		Seda	
	L1 %	L2 %	L1 %	L2 %	L1 %	L2 %	L1 %	L2 %	L1 %	L2 %
2.1*	92.4	7.6	70.3	29.7	77.5	22.5	66.8	33.2	29.5	70.5
2.2	84.4	15.6	90.4	9.6	60.8	39.2	85.0	15.0	28.3	71.7
2.3	87.5	12.5	86.1	13.9	63.9	36.1	73.5	26.5	26.0	74.0
2.4	78.2	21.8	76.1	23.9	85.2	14.8	65.4	34.6	27.9	72.1
3.1	80.9	19.1	78.0	22.0	45.5	54.5	35.5	64.5	8.6	91.4
3.2	81.3	18.8	72.0	28.0	61.3	38.7	63.3	36.7	10.2	89.8
3.3	79.8	20.2	84.1	15.9	80.2	19.8	64.2	35.8	15.4	84.6
3.4	83.7	16.3	78.6	21.4	75.0	25.0	62.1	37.9	30.8	69.2
4.1	94.8	5.2	73.6	26.4	70.6	29.4	54.4	45.6	20.1	79.9
4.2	86.5	13.5	84.0	16.0	87.5	12.5	59.1	40.9	23.7	76.3
4.3	82.7	17.3	90.0	10.0	56.1	43.9	50.5	49.5	22.0	78.0
4.4	86.0	14.0	91.6	8.4	98.8	1.2	72.3	27.7	52.7	47.3

  * The figures on the left show classes and observation numbers. For example, 2.1 represents the first observed lesson of the second grades.

Probably the most distinct variation in Table 5.1 above is between the lowest and highest amount of L1 in individual classes across participants (Seda's L1 use of 9% with the 3rd graders vs. Ayfer's L1 use of 99% with the 4th graders). As De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) argue, this suggests that L1 use highly

depends on individual classes, and only comparing the averages of L1 use from different participants might yield distorted results. Considering the gap between the lowest and highest amount, it can be said that this study has a more fluctuating result than the previous research mentioned in Section 3.2.1 above (De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu et al. 2004).

Comparison of teachers' actual L1 use with their self-report reveals that they are consistent with each other. In response to their amount of L1 use in the first interview, some teachers preferred not to give a certain amount prediction (Esma and Melek) but only stated that they use L1 more than L2 in their lessons (actual amount: 62% and 81% respectively). Seda stated that she almost never used L1 while she was working in high school previously, but it is sometimes inevitable to use it with children in order to solve major classroom management problems or when they have great difficulty in understanding what she says in L2. However, she stated that she tries to keep it at a minimum by using body language very often. In fact, she only used L1 for 24% of her utterances. As for Ayfer and Betül, they gave an approximate amount of L1 use (80% and 90-95% respectively) which is apparently more than their actual use (69% and 84% respectively). In this regard, they over-estimated their L1 use. It can be said that, although participants were unable to precisely estimate the total amount of their L1 use, they were somewhat aware of which language they used in general. In terms of participants' awareness about their L1 use, this study differs from the previous ones (see Section 3.2 above) which found that teachers underestimated amount of actual L1 use (Edstrom, 2006, Liu et al. 2004; Meij and Zhao, 2010). While the discrepancy between her prediction and actual use might be regarded small in Edstrom's (2006) study (5/10% vs.23% respectively), it was much higher for the participants of Liu et al. (2004) (42% vs.68%). Therefore, one might argue that L1 use is unnoticed in these studies, which is not the case in the current one.

5.2.1 Participants' attitudes towards L1 use

Although participants were aware of their L1 use, it appears from the interviews that most of them were not happy with it. In other words, they wanted to reduce L1 use or did not want to use it at all. In this regard, they felt guilty about employing L1 regardless of the amount. This sense of guilt was also addressed in a number of studies in which teachers were stuck between employing and not employing L1 (e.g. Copland and Neokleous 2011; Littlewood and Yu 2011; Macaro 2005). However, due to various practical reasons that lead them to use L1 (these will be elaborated in Section 5.4), the teachers in this study argued that they have to use it. In this regard, four of the five participants were regretful about their L1 use regardless of the amount. For example, when asked how she feels in case of L1 use, Esma expressed her feelings as follows:

> IE5.1
>
> [I feel] Guilty [when I speak Turkish]. … I am aware that my classes are the only opportunity for children to be exposed to English. … However, this is what I can do. (Esma int. 2)

Esma in the above extract appears that she is aware of the monolingual arguments about the importance of L2 input for successful L2 attainment (in Section 3.1.2 above). She regarded the school as the only chance for learners to engage with English so believed that she had to use more L2 for learners in the class. However, she believes that L1 is sometimes necessary for facilitating L2 teaching as long as it is not used excessively. She used an interesting comparison for L1:

> IE5.2
>
> … first language should be like the salt on a meal. We should use it neither too much nor too little. (Esma int. 2)

Expressing the guilt of excessive L1 use implicitly, Betül provided a possible solution for employing more L2 with learners. She believes that the constant use of L2 might be useful for learners to get used to and understand it ultimately. However, she regarded the practical issues as barriers for more L2 use.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

IE5.3

I know that there is a failing in terms of English speaking. ... I know that I need to say something in English repeatedly and students will understand it sooner or later. However, it does not happen in practice. (Betül int. 2)

Although Seda used the lowest amount of L1 in this study, she too was disappointed with her L1 use. She was much stricter towards L1 use and believed that L1 should not be used at all in L2 classes since teaching English is different from teaching other subjects.

IE5.4

I feel bad. This is not normal at all. In this sense, there is no difference between being a Turkish or philosophy teacher and English teacher. I chose this as a job, so how can I enjoy speaking Turkish in English classes? I think there is no benefit of speaking Turkish apart from solving serious problems. (Seda int. 2)

Melek was also disappointed with her L1 use, but she went one step further by associating L1 use to the incapability of English teaching. She suspected herself being an unsuccessful language teacher because of her excessive use of L1.

IE5.5

Speaking Turkish [in English lessons] disturbs me a lot. ... When I speak Turkish in the class, I feel like I am a Turkish or social sciences teacher. I feel that I cannot do my job properly. (Melek int. 2)

The above extracts share a common point that participants mostly had negative feelings about L1 use in L2 classes. They view it as a source of guilt, a sign of failure and inadequacy. This might be due to their university education which imposes monolingual approach and gives little or no value to L1 use. Although they were previously told that L2 should be taught through exclusive or near exclusive L2 use, they are not able to manage it in practice so feel unhappy. This might be regarded as detrimental to their well-being due to negative effects stemming from the discrepancy between their ideal and actual language use.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

In contrast to other teachers taking part in this research, one participant (Ayfer) argued that she is happy with L1 use. She focused on the facilitative role of L1 and argued that she teaches better with L1 use. However, she cautioned on the amount by not giving a certain amount:

IE5.6

It is very normal for teachers to speak L1 in the class. However, if the class language is completely L1, this is a problem. When I say certain things in L1 and students understand, I become happy. In this case, I can understand that students have understood it with the help of L1. (Ayfer int. 2)

It is apparent from the above extract that Ayfer is in favour of a bilingual approach, which is not the case with the other participants. It is likely that the difference stems from their graduation or what they were exposed to at the university – she was a graduate of English Literature in which translation is regarded as normal. Therefore, she is probably more comfortable with L1 use than others. However, the others studied ELT which favours monolingual approach so they were exposed to exclusive L2 use. In response to the question related to her university education, Melek explained the university policy on language use as follows:

IE5.7

We were not allowed to speak Turkish in classes at the university. It was the same while we were doing teaching practice in the internship. … The lecturers were guiding us to speak English.

5.2.2 Factors affecting amount of L1 use

According to the results, there is a clear distinction between urban and rural schools in terms of the amount of teachers' L1 use. As aforementioned, two teachers (Esma and Seda) worked in urban schools, and they used considerably less L1 compared to the ones working in rural schools (Betül and Melek) (Figure 5.1.). L1 use of Ayfer, who worked in semi-urban school, is between these two groups. Although this study only concerns a small number of teachers and so no generalisation is possible, the question as to whether and how the urban/rural distinction may affect teachers' L1 use is potentially interesting. Teachers stated in the interviews that students' ability to understand them is noticeably

better in urban schools. One of the possible reasons is, according to the participants, that learners have more facilities to engage with English after the school such as English courses and private lessons as well as films/cartoons in English. Moreover, their parents are generally more literate, often with a good foreign language background, so learners have a chance to get support from them. For this reason, learners are mostly better at understanding what teachers say in L2, so teachers do not have to use as much L1 as rural teachers do. Melek expressed it as follows:

IE5.8

Families in urban schools are more literate and conscious. They know the importance of English. However, here, families say that it does not matter if their children know English or not. They are living on trade, husbandry, and agriculture. I met some of the families, and they think so. However, in urban schools, families encourage their children to learn English. Accordingly, students listen to their teachers carefully. Unfortunately, this is not the case here. (Melek int. 2)

Betül also agreed with Melek on the difference between rural and urban schools in terms of families' awareness by adding the facilities that might have a positive effect on urban students' English level.

IE5.9

… level of students here is lower than the ones in the city centre who are more vigilant and use the Internet, travel, go to the cinema, and their parents are more literate. (Betül int. 2)

The above quotes belong to the participants working in rural schools. They focused on two contextual factors preventing them from using more L2 in the class, one being families' education level and attitudes towards English as a subject and the other being lack of facilities for learners to engage with English out of class. Similar arguments came from one of the urban teachers who was happy with working in her school because of students' levels and families. She stated it as:

IE5.10

… parents are literate and conscious about bringing up their children well. There are lots of students willing to learn. I get the result of what I am working for. It is very enjoyable to work here. (Esma int. 1)

Ayfer had similar arguments about lack of family knowledge of foreign languages. However, in order to solve this problem, she started a project named "My mother knows English" together with seven other schools in different regions of Turkey. As a part of this project, she started an English course for mothers with limited/no foreign language knowledge on a volunteer basis. It was a two-day course per week and free of charge (government pays the expenses). Her primary aim was to involve families in the language education process during which children would be able to get support from their parents out of class and therefore would not solely depend on limited lesson hours at school. She argued that it attracted families' attention to English, and in turn, students became more interested. As a result, she received very positive feedback from both parents and their children as well as the school principal.

In addition to teachers' self-reports regarding the advantages of urban schools, a number of cases were observed about children's high competence in English in urban schools. An example is presented in Extract 5.1 below.

Extract 5.1

21   T: What is <u>father</u> in Turkish?

22   S1: Ali.

23   T: Yes, Ali is <u>my father</u> =

24   S2: = Annem Okulistiği açtığında, bir video vardı. Orada /ˈfɑːðə/ böyle diyorlardı. Sonunda /r/ söylemeden. [When my mom was teaching me this on Okulistik (an interactive website), they said it like /ˈfɑːðə/, without saying /r/ at the end.]

25   T: Nasıl diyorlardı? [How did they say it?]

26   S2: /ˈfɑːðə/ diyorlardı, sonundaki /r/ yi söylemeden. [they said /ˈfɑːðə/ without saying /r/ at the end.]

27   S3: Öğretmenim, çünkü İngilizler sonundaki /r/yi pek kullanmıyor. [Teacher, because the British do not generally use the /r/ at the end.]

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Here, the teacher (Esma) is working with the 3rd graders (8 years old), and the focus is vocabulary related to family members. After teaching the topic, Esma is asking the meaning of some vocabulary items as a reinforcement activity (line 21). She pronounces 'father' as /ˈfɑːðər/ rather than /ˈfɑːðə/ (lines 21, 23), which might be considered as a slight pronunciation error for a non-native speaker. However, a student notices it and interrupts the teacher by saying that it should be pronounced without emphasising /r/ sound at the end (lines 24, 26). Even more interestingly, another student supports his friend by generalising it to other situations (lines 27). It is unlikely that students learned this at school since they are correcting the teacher's pronunciation error. It is a clear evidence of parental support (line 24) and also shows that they engage with English out of school, which positively affects their understanding of teachers' L2 use, and in turn, teachers can use more L2 compared to rural schools. This kind of example was not observed rural schools where, according to participants, students mostly depended on what they learned in a 80-minute English lesson per week.

Another example is provided below in order to show the difference between urban and rural schools in terms of learners' competence in and familiarity with English (Extract 5.2). After singing the alphabet song with the 2nd graders and writing it on the board, Ayfer asks a question about whose alphabet it is by using L1, but this leads no answer from the learners (line 21). After some pause, one learner gives an unexpected answer by saying that it belongs to another class in the same school, rather than that it is the English alphabet. This shows that he is very new in English with limited background.

Extract 5.2

    21   T: Bu bizim alfabemiz degil. Peki kimin alfabesi olabilir? [This is not our alphabet. Who does it belong to?]

    22   S1: 3-B'nin (alfabesi). [3-B's alphabet.]

Although it does not affect the percentage of L1 use, it is worth mentioning that participants' total number of utterances in both the L1 and L2 are very different depending on rural and urban schools.

The utterance counts of urban teachers (Seda and Esma) are considerably higher than rural teachers (Melek and Betül) (more than double in some cases) (Table 5.2). The teacher working in a semi-urban school is right in the middle (Ayfer). In this regard, there seems to be a hierarchical increase in utterance counts from rural to urban schools. This could be due to urban teachers' fast-paced way of delivery of the lessons because of the higher level of learners mentioned above. Another possible explanation, maybe more importantly, might be the use of writing activity by the teachers in rural schools. Melek and Betül frequently gave students writing tasks related to the topic of the lesson, and this took considerable time during which teachers were mostly quiet, waiting for the students to finish. Although the tasks were not big in terms of the amount of writing (e.g. writing ten country names together with Turkish meanings), they sometimes took around 15 minutes for students to finish. Considering the lesson time in primary schools in Turkey is only two 40 minute lessons a week, this is a substantial amount of time devoted to writing. They took even more time for the 2nd graders who learned reading and writing skills in L1 only recently. Moreover, most of the younger children were less able to prepare writing materials quickly compared to 3rd and 4th graders (e.g. taking out notebooks from bags, sharpening pencils, etc.). Although communicative skills are emphasised at primary level by the Ministry of Education (limited writing for 3rd and 4th graders and no writing at all for 2nd graders), the writing was predominantly used by especially rural teachers. For example, Betül even did a writing activity during which 2nd graders wrote four greeting sentences for five times (good morning, good afternoon, good evening and good night) and it took around 20 minutes which was half of that lesson.

Table 5.2 Utterance counts according to school context (rural/urban)

School type	Participants	L1 use	L2 use	Total
Rural	Melek	1113	269	1382
Rural	Betül	1260	232	1492
Semi-urban	Ayfer	1169	521	1690
Urban	Seda	703	2225	2928
Urban	Esma	2263	1366	3629

Rural teachers' main motivation for having more writing activities could be related to Betül's previous arguments about lack of L2 facilities and materials for the students in rural areas (IE5.9 above). They might be considering compensating this disadvantage by having more writing materials for students to self-study and revise after school. Betül explained that she gives particular importance to the writing activities in order for students to have written materials to study:

> IE5.11
>
> There has been no written exam in the educational program for a long time (for the 2nd and 3rd graders). I must get them to write, though. Without the (written) material, I can't do it. There must be (written) materials in children's hands. (Betül int. 1)

Analysis of the amount of teachers' L1 use in terms of students' grades shows a mixed result. Whilst it might be expected that L1 use would decrease in higher grades as students' familiarity with L2 increases, it can be seen from Figure 5.2 that this is not the case. There is no linear change in L1 use between grades.

Figure 5.2 Teachers' L1 use in terms of grades

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.
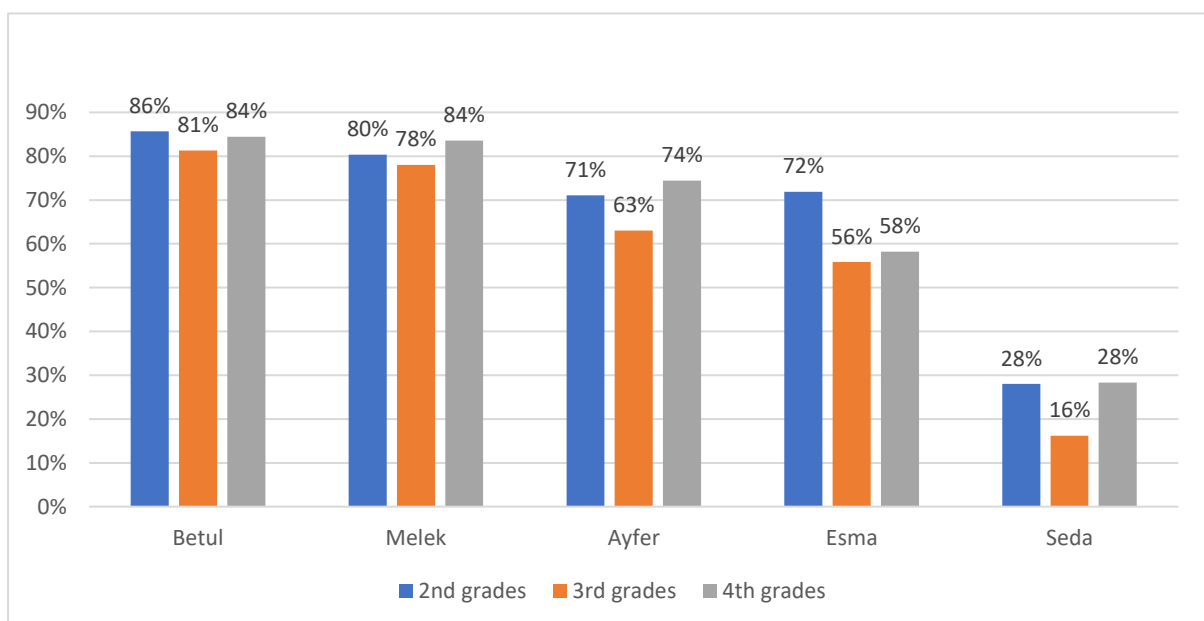
Despite the mixed results across grades, two participants (Ayfer and Betül) stated that they sometimes use more L1 for the 2nd graders because they are new to the subject. One of the main reasons, according to Betül, is that they met English for the first time only a few weeks prior to the data collection, so they are not familiar with the language. Due to being unfamiliar with the subject, they sometimes become shy (as mentioned in IE5.12 below) and therefore need a mixture of L1 and L2 or sometimes more L1 as a transitional period from L1 to L2.

> IE5.12
>
> No difference among levels. ... But for the 2nd graders who are a little bit more shy, I use more L1 with them. (Betül int. 2)

Ayfer explained another reason for more L1 with the 2nd graders as their unfamiliarity with her as the English teacher. For the 2nd graders, their main teacher is the classroom teacher whom the students are with most of the time and they only see their English teacher for 80 minutes once a week. They even call Ayfer "English teacher" rather than saying only teacher. According to Ayfer, this shows that other teachers, including the English teacher, are not as close as the classroom teacher for the 2nd grades. Therefore, she believes that using L1 rather than exclusive L2 might help to build a good rapport between her and learners. Ayfer explains her experience with the 2nd graders as follows:

> IE5.13
>
> … they say: "You're not my teacher, you're my English teacher." Their main teacher is the classroom teacher, I'm the English teacher. … The real teacher is the classroom teacher. I am only an English teacher for them. (Ayfer int. 1)

Two participants (Esma and Seda) also stated that they use more L1 with the 2nd graders due to their lower age (see IE5.14 and IE5.15 below). Compared to older learners, the 2nd graders are less able to use their cognitive skills or manage their behaviours, and this is an important factor for them to use more L1. This can also be seen from Figure 5.2 above that Esma used a considerably higher amount of L1 with 2nd graders (72% vs 56% and 58%). This is also the case for Seda who used more L1 for 2nd graders than 3rd graders (28% and 16% respectively). However, whilst it might be expected that there

114

would be an inverse proportion between the amount of L1 and the grade from this perspective, Figure 5.2 shows that this is not the case.

In response to the question regarding her L1 use with different grades, Esma explained the highest amount of L1 use for the 2nd graders as follows:

> IE5.14
>
> I use it (Turkish) most with the second graders because I can't use English for anything else other than the objectives and the topic. They learn and get used to most of the things like instructions as they move forward to 3rd and 4th grades though. They begin guessing what I say (in English) so the amount my English use increases in the third and fourth grades. (Esma int. 2)

Despite the high amount of L1 use with younger learners, it can be seen from the above extract that Esma is aware that this is a temporary situation which will be solved as students will grow and familiarise with English in time. Similar statements were also given by Seda who believes in using more L2 as students will get more mature:

> IE5.15
>
> Second graders are used to doing everything with instructions and maybe because of their age, it seems to me that I speak more Turkish with the second graders to help them to control themselves, especially for class management. When it comes to higher levels, because their behaviours are more mature, and they are more used to the education system, I also get used to using more L2. (Seda int. 2)

What is striking about the figures in the Figure 5.2 is that it is common for all participants that they used slightly less L1 for the 3rd grades compared to 2nd and 4th grades, (this is more noticeable for Ayfer and Seda). When asked about their L1 use across grades, they mostly pointed to the particular characteristics of specific classes that affect their L1 use. Therefore, they adjust their amount of L1 use according to specific cases which are unique in each class. For this reason, it is not likely that L1 use can be generalised in terms of grades in most cases.

As shown in IE5.12 above, Betül already stated the class variables as the main determinant factor in her L1 use and a specific case related to the 2nd graders. Similarly, Ayfer emphasised distinctive characteristics of classes that affect her L1 use but not grades as follows:

> IE5.16
>
> It depends on the variables affecting the class rather than grades. For example, one 3rd grade is much better than the other, and this affects my L1 use. If the class is calm, listens to the teacher, can catch what I say, it means more L2. (Ayfer int. 2)

Melek expressed a specific characteristic of the 3rd graders that she believes increases her L1 use:

> IE5.17
>
> I use L1 for 3rd graders mostly. They have big problems in terms of understanding, and they are very active. (Melek int. 2)

However, although Melek said in the above extract that she used the highest amount of L1 with the 3rd graders, the figures in Figure 5.2 do not support this. According to the table, she used the least L1 with the 3rd grades compared to the 2nd and 4th grades (78% vs. 80% and 84% respectively). She might be mistaken due to the fact that use of L1 across grades is close to each other. Or, she is likely unaware of her L1 use in terms of grades.

What is the most interesting about the data regarding L1 use across grades is that there is an increase in participants' L1 use with the 4th graders (Figure 5.2 above). Although a decrease would be expected from what participants say about less L1 with higher level learners (IE5.14 and IE5.15), the figures indicate a curve across the graders so are not in line with their statements. The difference between these figures and interview extracts suggest that Esma and Seda might not be aware of this increase. One possible explanation for relatively more L1 with the 4th graders is that it is stemming from the content of the lessons, which is more challenging compared to lower levels. Therefore, teachers might not want to add more challenge for the students by using L2. Melek argued that she uses more L1 with older learners due to reasonably more challenging language and grammar points in their curriculum.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

IE5.18

Especially with older learners, my L2 speaking decreases when I need to teach a topic. For example, I have to teach in Turkish to explain the details of making sentences to 4th grades. And where to use these sentences. (Melek int. 1)

In terms of L1 use with the higher level students, Esma explains the effects of multiple factors on her L1 use, placing particular emphasis on the role of exam (IE5.19 below). She feels the necessity of L1 to teach the intended points in the curriculum and better prepare learners for the exams they will take in the middle school. This is also closely related to washback effect of the exams which focus on grammar, vocabulary and reading but not oral skills (see section 2.1.2 above).

IE5.19

I have to take into consideration several factors such as the materials I have, students' limited time, so I am forced to speak Turkish. I am constrained. I want to do lots of things, but I have a curriculum to finish, students have exams. If students make many mistakes on these exams, reactions arise from different stakeholders. For this reason, a common way to make everyone happy is first language use. (Esma int. 2)

This section presented findings regarding teachers' amount of L1 use. Results show that all participants employed L1 to a varying extent. This variation stems from class variables, the most effective of which seems the be learners' level, behaviours and background. In this regard, specific characteristics of classes prevailed in the L1 use variation. In contrast, results did not show any linear change in teachers' L1 use in terms of students' grades. Instead, there is a curve in the amount of L1, decreasing with the 3rd graders and increasing with the 2nd and 4th graders. The main reason for using more L1 with the 2nd graders is to build good rapport, to give them some time to get familiarized with the L2 as they are new to L2. As for the use of L1 with the 4th graders, content of the lesson, which is more challenging compared to lower levels, leads teachers to use more L1. Focusing on teaching the intended language points for learners to be successful in the exam in the middle school also seems to be another factor increasing L1 use with the 4th graders. Although participants had a rough idea of the overall amount of L1 they used, they mostly felt guilty regardless of the amount of their L1 use. They argued that it is necessary to use it due to practical issues, including learners' being children. Only one participant felt

117

the opposite and was happy with L1 use. This might be as a result of her graduation of English Literature in which translation is regarded as normal. The results also indicate that the school setting has an effect on L1 use in terms of learners' competence in the L2 and families' awareness. The teachers working in urban schools used considerably less L1, possibly due to learners' engagement with the L2 out of school.

5.3 Functions of teachers' L1 use

This section explores the functions of teachers' L1 use in YL classrooms. Before proceeding, it is important to remember that this study used utterance-coding rather than other methods such as counting time or words in order to find out amount and functions of L1/L2 use (see section 4.8.2). For this reason, a function may be realised by a one-word utterance or a few sentences in one utterance, and these were coded in the same way regardless of how long the utterances are.

Results reveal that participants of this study used L1 for a variety of functions. As shown in Figure 5.3 below, they used it for eight main categories: instructions, asking questions, explanation, interpersonal relations, feedback, activities, talking to themselves and discourse markers. Although each teacher used L1 for at least one function, the amount varied considerably, with the main uses being for instructions, asking questions and feedback in general. More specifically, these three main categories represent more than 90% of the total L1 utterances (52.3%, 22.3% and 17.3% respectively). These are followed by two other functions which are interpersonal relation and explanation/paraphrase (4% and 2.3% respectively). And finally, the least L1 was used for discourse markers, talking to themselves and repetition/reinforcement (less than 1% each).

Figure 5.3 L1 use for main categories

Figure 5.3 L1 use for main categories
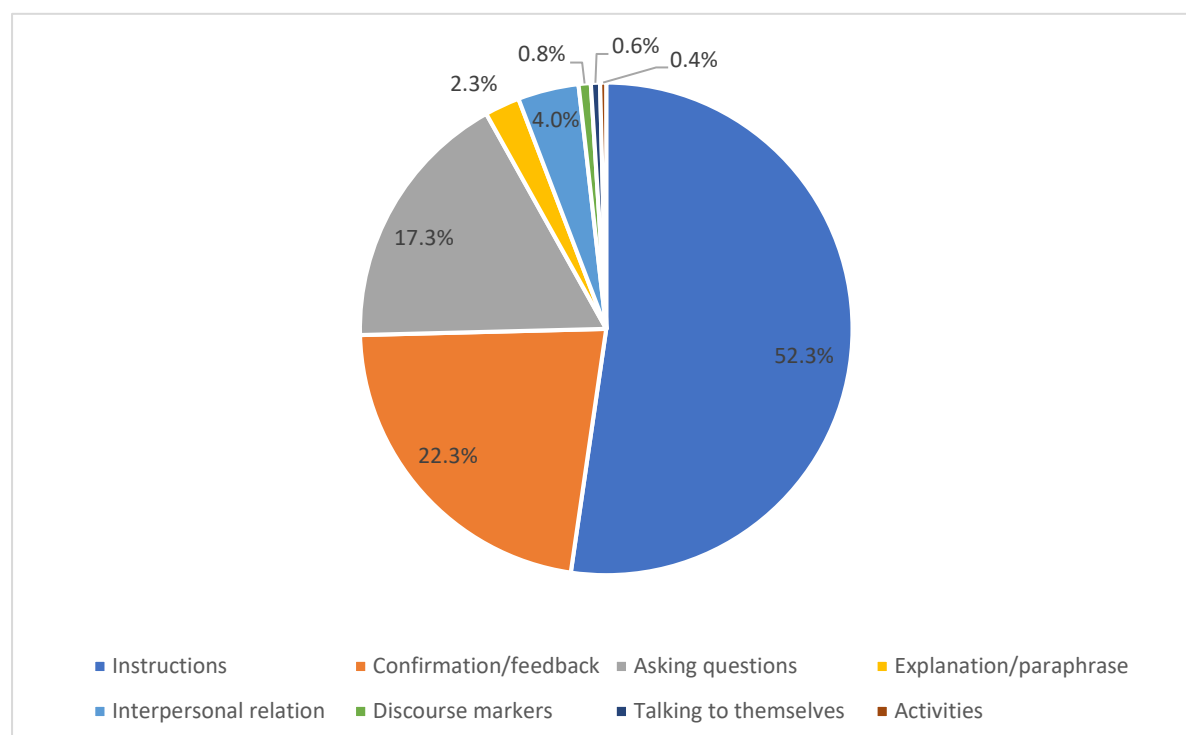
A more detailed analysis reveals several similarities and differences in the amount of L1 use in terms

of main categories among participants. One of the most striking aspects of the data is the similarity in

the L1 use for instructions. As shown in Table 5.3 below, participants' L1 use varies slightly, ranging

between 51.9% and 53.4%. This variance is considerably less compared to other categories which have

more fluctuations depending on the participants. For example, the amount of Seda's L1 use for

confirmation/feedback is considerably less than the other participants' L1 use for the same function.

More specifically, she used L1 approximately 15% while the others used between 20% and 25%. In

contrast, her L1 use for asking questions is considerably more compared to most of the others (except

for Esma who used the same amount). In this regard, whilst instruction was the most common function

of L1 use with least variation across all participants, Seda differed from the other participants in that

she used more L1 for asking questions than confirmation/feedback. This is possibly due to her more

common way of teaching through question-answer, which increases her L1 use for this category. From

this perspective, it can be tentatively said that participants' L1 use for a certain category might be

affected by their teaching styles which are unique in some aspects. More detailed explanation supported by classroom and interview data will be provided regarding L1 use for these categories in sections 5.3.2, 5.3.3 and 5.3.4 below.

Table 5.3 Overview of L1 use for functional categories

Main categories	Sub-categories	Ayfer		Betül		Melek		Esma		Seda	
		Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %
Instructions	Task instruction	52.7%	17.3%	52.2%	35.6%	53.4%	22.7%	51.9%	29.2%	52.6%	19.8%
	Procedure		23.8%		11.9%		18.7%		12.7%		17.2%
	Class management		10.9%		4.5%		10.4%		9.6%		14.5%
	Homework		0.7%		0.2%		1.6%		0.4%		1.0%
Confirmation / feedback	Content feedback	23.8%	17.2%	24.8%	19.1%	20.2%	12.2%	23.3%	10.6%	15.1%	7.1%
	Form-focused feedback		0%		0%		0%		0%		0.3%
	Echoing students' response		0.8%		1.8%		2.9%		2.7%		0.3%
	Rephrasing students' response		0.3%		0.2%		0.5%		2.4%		0.1%
	Teacher's comment		1.3%		1.0%		1.6%		3.0%		3.3%
	Reaction to student question/request		4.3%		2.8%		3.1%		4.6%		4.0%
Asking questions	Display questions	12.1%	4.4%	15.6%	11.2%	16.7%	13.6%	20.2%	19.5%	20.2%	17.1%
	Referential questions		2.4%		1.2%		0.9%		0.3%		2.1%
	Questions related to class materials		3.3%		2.2%		1.5%		0.3%		1.0%
	Clarification requests		1.9%		1.1%		0.6%		0.1%		0%
Explanation/ paraphrase	Grammar	1.1%	0.1%	2.9%	0%	3.2%	0.1%	2.0%	0.3%	2.6%	1.9%
	Vocab		1.0%		2.1%		3.0%		1.7%		0.7%
	Pronunciation		0.0%		0.8%		0.1%		0.0%		0.0%
Interpersonal relation	Humour	7.5%	2.1%	2.9%	0.3%	4.0%	0.5%	1.6%	1.1%	7.8%	1.6%
	Chat		0.6%		0.6%		1.6%		0.0%		0.1%
	Empathy/solidarity		0.8%		0.2%		0.5%		0.2%		1.0%
	Affective/well-being		1.6%		0.8%		0.7%		0.1%		1.7%
	Encouragement		1.7%		0.9%		0.6%		0.2%		3.3%
	Politeness marker		0.6%		0.2%		0.1%		0%		0.1%
	Greetings		0.2%		0%		0%		0%		0%
Discourse markers		1.6%	1.6%	0.9%	0.9%	1.4%	1.4%	0.2%	0.2%	0.6%	0.6%
Talking to themselves		1.1%	1.1%	0.2%	0.2%	0.4%	0.4%	0.6%	0.6%	0.4%	0.4%
Repetition/Reinforcement		0.1%	0.1%	0.6%	0.6%	0.7%	0.7%	0.1%	0.1%	0.7%	0.7%

* The figures in the first column under each participant represent L1 use for main categories and the ones in the second column represent L1 use for sub-categories.

Another interesting aspect of the data is the participants' L1 use for explanation/paraphrase, which ranges from 1.1% to 3.2%. Although the main reason for L1 use for this major category arises from vocabulary explanation for four participants, it is different for Seda who mainly used L1 to explain grammar (1.9%, 13 utterances out of 702). Although she emphasised that grammar is not taught explicitly at the primary level, she sometimes felt the need to teach it due to the presence of some language points in the curriculum, and so used L1 for very basic structures (e.g. explaining the difference between 'a' and 'an'). She was observed to use L2 initially to see if she would be successful to teach the topic. However, after some effort, when students were unable to understand, she explained it in the L1. A good illustration of this is provided below. However, note that only key classroom extracts are provided for the sake of brevity.

Extract 5.3

45   T: <u>A</u> pencil, <u>an</u> office, <u>a</u> pencil, <u>an</u> office. OK! Yes! Vowel and consonant. a, e, i, o, u. OK?

…

49   T: What are the differences between these two words? (.) Neden buraya 'a' ve 'an' koydum? [Why did I put 'a' and 'an' here?]

50   S1: Çünkü biri canlı varlık, diğeri cansız varlık. [Because one of them is living being, the other is non-living.]

51   T: Hayır! [No!]

…

54   T: 'a' nın olduğu yerde ilk harf sessiz, gördünüz mü? 'an' in olduğu yerde ilk harf sesli. Demek ki sesli olunca 'an' geliyormuş, sessiz olunca 'a' geliyormuş. Bu kadar, tamam mı? [If there is 'a', the first letter is consonant, you see? The first letter is vowel when there is 'an'. So, it means that 'an' is used if it is vowel and 'a' if it is consonant. That is all, OK?]

In this specific instance with the 2nd graders in Extract 5.3 above, Seda is teaching the difference between the articles 'a' and 'an'. She first provides a number of examples in English supported with visuals on the board in order for learners to understand it inductively (line 45). She then explains the rule in the L2, which is determined by the sound following these articles if they are consonant or vowel.

122

In the meantime, learners are quiet, probably trying to understand what she says in the L2. She asks a question to check if they understand it (line 49). An interesting point here worth mentioning is that she first asks the question in L2 and immediately switches into L1 without giving them enough time to understand the L2. In the present context, such use might be attributed to priority to ensure that students understand the question, and she receives an answer from them rather than aiming to maximise L2 use. Although one of the students is willing to answer, he is unable to produce a correct answer, probably confused by another language point which is personal pronouns (he, she and it) that they have learned those days (line 50). Having tried some more questions and not getting the right answer, the teacher seems to notice that students have difficulty in understanding the topic and as a final solution, she explains it in L1 (line 54).

Another striking result to emerge from the data is that there is a great variance in the L1 use for interpersonal relations among participants. Ayfer and Seda used more L1 than the other participants (around 8% vs around 2-4%). Within this main category, there are three dominant sub-functions which are humour, affective/wellbeing and encouragement. Participants believe that it is necessary to build a good rapport with learners in order for them to like the teacher and English and therefore learn better. Otherwise, they might be discouraged and have a prejudice against English. Moreover, it is not rare that some learners may be unexpectedly offended by teachers' behaviours towards them (especially 2nd graders). This was observed during classroom visits. An illustrative example is provided in Extract 5.4 below. Here, Seda is working with 2nd graders (7 years old) and asking display questions about the topic by using L2. After some time, she notices that one student is very sad and puts her head on the desk. When she asks the reason in L1 (line 19), the student explains that she cannot answer the questions because of the teacher's not noticing her (line 20). The teacher interrupts her by accepting it and softens her by behaving affectively using the L1 (lines 21 and 23). The teacher continued teaching following the conversation, intermittently allowing this student to speak, and the student was observed to be both happy and more willing to answer the questions. This kind of

problem might be considered a common issue in crowded classrooms (35 students in this case), and

it seems that teacher's L1 use for affective purposes solved it quickly (it took only around 20 seconds).

Extract 5.4

> 19   T: Neden böyle yapıyorson? [Why are you doing like this?]
>
> 20   S1: Parmağımı kaldırdığımda bana hiç izin= [When I raise my hand, you never let me=]
>
> 21   T: =Tamam! Bundan sonra sana söz hakkı vereceğim, tamam mı? [=OK! From now on, I will let you say. Is that OK?]
>
> 22   S1: Hı hı! [Hu hu!]
>
> 23   T: Ben seni çok seviyorum, tamam mı (öğrenciyi öpüyor)? [I love you so much, OK (kisses the student)?]

Some examples and some interesting aspects of L1 use for some of the minor categories and functions

were explored above. As aforementioned, participants used L1 for a variety of functions, but

particularly for three main functions, which are instructions, confirmation/feedback and asking

questions. Before examining the main functions of L1 use in detail, the next section will give examples

from the five lesser used categories of explanation/paraphrase, interpersonal relation, discourse

markers, talking to themselves and repetition/reinforcement.

5.3.1 Lesser used minor functions

Participants rarely used L1 to explain or paraphrase some concepts including grammar, vocabulary

and pronunciation, which were created as sub-categories. Each of these are illustrated below.

Regarding the grammar explanation, Ayfer briefly explained the difference between personal

pronouns to the 3rd graders (Extract 5.5).

Extract 5.5

> 20   T: Erkek aile üyelerinden bahsederken 'he is' ile başlıyoruz. Kız aile üyelerinden bahsederken 'she is' ile başlıyoruz. [We start with 'he is' while talking about male family members. We start with 'she is' while talking about female family members.

Participants also used L1 to explain vocabulary items. In the example below (Extract 5.6), the 4th graders are revising the numbers, and Betül attracts their attention to number twelve by explaining the letters in it.

Extract 5.6

> 19   T: 12 yazarken hem normal 'v' hem 'w' var. [While writing the number 12, there are both 'v' and 'w'.]

The last minor category of L1 use within explanation is pronunciation. Participants mostly used repeat after me activity to reinforce the pronunciation in L2, but still needed L1 explanations at times. In the example below (Extract 5.7), following the reinforcement activity with the 4th graders, Melek makes a short explanation about the pronunciation of 'USA'.

Extract 5.7

> 24   T: The USA. 'u', 's' ve 'a' harflerini İngilizce okuyoruz. [The USA. We pronounce the letters 'u', 's' and 'a' in English.]

The second lesser used category is interpersonal relations, which consists seven minor functions including humour, chat, empathy/solidarity, affective/well-being, encouragement, politeness marker and greetings. Examples for each of the sub-categories are provided below.

The example below is from one of Seda's classes with the 2nd graders (Extract 5.8). A student wants the teacher to use a microphone to talk to them (they previously did another activity with a microphone) and the teacher makes a joke about it.

125

Extract 5.8

> 17   T: Ama benim sesim çok güzel zaten (.) Küstüm. Küstüm ben sana. Ne yapacağız şimdi? [But my voice is already beautiful. I am offended. I am offended with you. What shall we do now?]

The following chat was initiated by one of the 2nd graders at the beginning of the lesson and Melek continued the conversation for a short time.

Extract 5.9

> 1   S: Öğretmenim, ben seni 3-A'da gördüm. [Teacher, I saw you in 3-A class.]
>
> 2   T: Ben de seni gördüm 3-A'da. Ne yapıyordun orada? [I too saw you in 3-A class. What were you doing there?]
>
> 3   S: İngilizce dersi işliyordunuz. [You were teaching English.]
>
> 4   T: Sen ne yapıyordun? [What were you doing?]
>
> 5   S: Ben de kapıdan izliyordum. [I was watching you at the door.]

An example about L1 use for empathy/solidarity is presented below. In response to a student's complaint about one of their classmates in the 3rd grades, Betül praises the child.

Extract 5.10

> 8   S: Öğretmenim, Selim dersle ilgilenmiyor, bize bakıp duruyor. [Teacher, Selim is not following the lesson, but staring at us.
>
> 9   T: Selim'in saçı güzel, olmasa da olur. Tarz. (.) Saçın öyle olsun, İngilizce öğrenmese de olur. [Selim's hair is beautiful, that is not a problem. Fashionable. (.) You do not have to learn English if you have such hair.]

It was observed that teachers sometimes used L1 to solve some issues related to students' well-being. As shown in the example below, one might argue that L1 use in such cases is a justified choice. Here, Esma directly uses L1 to deal with an unexpected situation in which a student was hurt in the 3rd grade during the lesson (probably as a result of a fight between students). This is closely in line with

Copland's (2018) argument of focusing on the children rather than the production of language items and valuing them.

Extract 5.11

> 5   T: Ne oldu Ali? Ne oldu? Yanıma gel. [What happened, Ali? What happened? Come here.]
>
> 6   S1: Veli vurdu herhalde. [I think Veli hit him.]
>
> 7   T: Çok mu ağrıyor? Yalnız gidebilir misin lavoboya? Gitmek istiyor musun lavoboya? Kendin gidebilir misin? [Is it hurting a lot? Can you go to toilet alone? Do you want to go to toilet?]
>
> 8   S2: Hıhı. [Uh-huh.]
>
> 9   T: Ağrın geçmezse öğretmenler odasında Enes öğretmenin var, ona git, babanı arasın. Tamam mı? [If the pain still continues, go to teachers' room. Enes teacher is in there. He can call your father.]

Teachers also used some L1 to encourage students in general or for certain activities. At the very beginning of the first observed class with the 2nd graders, Seda encouraged students to be active in the lesson. She occasionally used similar utterances to encourage learners across different grades.

Extract 5.12

> 2   T: Bakalım bugün ödülleri kim alacak. Merak ediyorum. (.) Kim alacak? [Let's see who will take the prizes. I am wondering. (.) Who will take?]

According to the results, L1 was also used for politeness markers such as expressing gratitude or apology to the students. They are decontextualized instances which counted as separate utterances. Ayfer in the below example thanks one of students for the pen she offers to her to put a star (as a prize) on students' written works in the 2nd grades.

Extract 5.13

> 28   T: Teşekkür ederim Fatma, bende var. [Thank you Fatma, I already have one.]

127

With regards to greetings, participants mostly used L2 to greet students. This might be because of that students understood teachers' L2 greetings and continued the conversation correctly. Ayfer is the only one who used L1 for this function (a total of two utterances). She greets the 2nd graders using L1 at the beginning of the lesson.

Extract 5.14

1   T: Nasılsınız? Ahmet, nasılsın, iyi misin kuzum? [How are you? Ahmet, how are you, "kuzum"?]

It is worth noting at this point that the word "kuzum" in the above extract cannot be exactly translated into English. Despite having a similar meaning of "my kid", it carries a much more caring meaning, which is an indication of how affectionate Ayfer is towards the learners. Use of this word has a possible positive effect on building a good rapport with the learners through L1 use and in turn they might have positive attitudes towards the teacher and English.

Discourse markers is another main category for which L1 was used by different participants. When it was a part of an utterance without a pause between them, it was not counted as a separate utterance. However, participants sometimes had a long pause between the discourse marker and another utterance, or said the discourse marker in L1 but the following utterance in L2. In such cases, they were counted as separate utterances. An example is provided below from one of Seda's classes with the 2nd graders.

Extract 5.15

6   T: Evet! Hadi bakalım! One, two, three. Come here! Come, come come. [Yes! Here we go!]

Although rarely used, talking to themselves is an interesting category for which L1 is used. Depending on the immediate context, teachers said loudly what they thought. In order words, they thought aloud.

128

Here is an example from Ayfer's class with the 2ⁿᵈ graders. She notices that has forgotten to write a letter on the board and says it aloud.

Extract 5.16

> 20   T: Aaa! 'Q'yu unutmuşum. [Aha! I forgot 'q'.]

The last lesser used category is repetition/reinforcement. Participants used L1 for this purpose to reinforce the language point they taught. An example from Esma's class with the 3ʳᵈ graders is provided below. Following teaching the topic, she asks several questions to the students to reinforce what they have learned.

Extract 5.17

> 6   T: Ne işimize yarıyordu 'who'? Ne soruyordu 'who'? [What is 'who'? What is 'who' asking?]
>
> 7   S1: Kim. [Who.]
>
> 8   T: 'He' ne için kullanılıyordu? [What do we use 'he' for?
>
> 9   S2: Erkekler için o. [He for male.]
>
> 10   T: 'She' ise? [What about 'she'?]
>
> 11   Ss: Kızlar için. [For female.]
>
> 12   T: Bir tane de 'it' vardı? [There is also 'it'?]
>
> 13   Ss: Hayvanlar ve cansızlar için. [For animals and non-living things.]

This section illustrated the lesser used categories by providing classroom extracts from the observation of different participants. The following sub-sections will elaborate the main categories for which L1 is used (instructions, confirmation/feedback and asking questions) and discuss them in more detail.

5.3.2 L1 use for instructions

Comprising four sub-functions which are class management, procedure, task instruction and homework, instruction is the most widely L1 used main category by all participants. More specifically, as abovementioned, participants' L1 use ranges from 51.9% to 53.4% for this category and this shows that approximately one out of two utterances in L1 was used to give instructions (see Table 5.4). Similar to participants' L1 use in general, frequencies of the sub-functions vary greatly. All of these functions (except for homework due to low use of L1) are explained in detail below respectively.

Table 5.4 L1 use for instructions

Main and sub-categories		Ayfer		Betül		Melek		Esma		Seda	
		Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %
Instructions	Task instruction	52.7%	17.3%	52.2%	35.6%	53.4%	22.7%	51.9%	29.2%	52.6%	19.8%
	Procedure		23.8%		11.9%		18.7%		12.7%		17.2%
	Class management		10.9%		4.5%		10.4%		9.6%		14.5%
	Homework		0.7%		0.2%		1.6%		0.4%		1.0%

Out of the four sub-functions, task instruction is the one for which all but one of the participants (Ayfer) used L1 most frequently. The amount of L1 use for this minor function changes depending on the participant, ranging from around %17 to 36%. Two illustrative examples from different participants are provided below.

Extract 5.18

> 27   T: Son kez şu kelimeleri içimizden tekrar edelim. Hepsini okuyun içinizden.
> [Let's repeat these words silently for the last time. Read them all silently.]

In the above extract, following teaching a number of adjectives to the 3rd graders and doing a reinforcement activity through repeat after me, Esma instructs learners to read the words by

themselves probably to help them to associate the pronunciation of the words with their spelling. Learners understand the instruction right away and do what the teacher says.

Extract 5.19

> 28   T: Listen, listen to the song. Repeat and have a look. Look at your worksheet. OK? (...) Çocuklar, hem dinleyin, tekrar edin hemde worksheetlerinize göz atın. Hadi bakalım. [Children, listen and repeat while looking at your worksheets. Let's get started.]

Here, Seda is working with the 2nd graders and the focus of the lesson is the alphabet. She is preparing the learners for the listen and repeat activity and first gives the instruction in L2. Probably due to not receiving a positive reaction from the learners, she translates the instruction into L1 to ensure that they fully understand what they are supposed to do in the activity.

According to the participants, one of the main reasons for the prevalent L1 use for task instruction could be learners' young age. Teachers stated in the interviews that since learners are only children, they need to be guided at every step and often need repeated instructions. This causes the teachers to give frequent instructions in a lot of detail. When asked about her experiences with YLs, Melek compared YLs and older learners in terms of using L1 for instructions as follows:

> IE5.20
>
> I feel more comfortable with older students as I think I am better understood by them. However, when I give an instruction to the children, I give a few more instructions to make sure that they understand me right. In secondary school, I say it straight, just once and mostly in English. In primary school, I repeat it many times in Turkish. (Melek int. 1)

In line with Melek, Ayfer also argued that frequent instructions in the L1 occur due to children's inability to deduce meaning based on the context. She stated that although giving common classroom instructions in the L2 sometimes works, she does not agree with the use of L2 to give new or more complicated instructions with which students are not familiar. The main reason for this is due to

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

children's inability to use cognitive skills to generalise or deduce meaning, unlike older learners. She

expresses the necessity of L1 use for more complicated and new instructions as follows:

IE5.21

There is no problem in the secondary school; even if they do not understand, there is no problem. They deduce it based on the context, but younger age groups cannot do it. They know some basic things such as 'be quiet, sit down'. However, for new things, I have to use Turkish. (Ayfer int. 1)

Similarly, according to Esma, younger learners need much more guidance and instruction in every step

compared to older learners, which is the main reason for her frequent instructions in L1. She also

justifies her L1 use for instructions due to learners' lack of skills, including guessing and commenting:

IE5.22

The students in secondary school try to guess. There is no such thing in primary school. It is whatever I give them, I mean I spoon-feed them…. They cannot do anything other than whatever they learn besides the instructions. There is no guessing, no ability to comment. (Esma int. 1)

In addition to teachers' reports in the interviews, classroom observations revealed a number of

illustrative examples of the use of L1 to compensate for learners' mistakes stemming from their lack

of cognitive skills. The following example is from one of Melek's lessons with 2nd graders, one of whom

misinterprets the instruction (see Extract 5.20 below) (student's name is pseudonym). It is the

beginning of the term, and most of the 2nd graders are meeting English for the first time in their life.

The teacher teaches them how to introduce themselves with a few basic sentences (e.g. Hello, hi, my

name is, I am fine, etc.) and then wants learners to introduce themselves one by one (line 89). One

student makes a mistake, probably because of being confused by the structures she has learned (line

90), but she introduces herself with the support of the teacher (lines 91, 92). Having listened to

teacher's instruction to the previous learner, another learner then says the same sentence without

changing his friend's name (line 93). In fact, he only says what the teacher instructs, 'Say only I am

Emine' in line 91, and what he says is literally right. However, it is apparent that he is unable to

interpret the instruction depending on the situation and adapt the sentence according to his own specific case, which is corrected by the teacher by using L1 (line 94).

Extract 5.20

89   T: Herkes tanıtsın kendini bana. [Introduce yourself to me.]

90   S1: Hello, I am fine, Emine.

91   T: 'Fine' yok, 'fine' iyiyim demek. Sadece 'I am Emine' diyeceksin. [Not fine. Fine means good. Say only 'I am Emine'.]

92   S1: I am Emine.

93   S2: Hello, I am Emine.

94   T: Emine yerine kendi adını söylemen gerekiyor. [Say your name instead of Emine.]

The above extract might be regarded as a nice example of children's lack of analytical skills in language learning, which is, according to Pinter (2017), a common characteristic due to their young age. They learn a new language in chunks in a holistic way without breaking it down in more detailed parts or paying attention to smaller parts, which seems to play some role in teachers' decisions about language use. In the specific example above, L1 serves a beneficial scaffolding tool to elicit the right answer from learners.

The second widely used sub-function within instructions for participants' L1 use was procedure. For example, in the classroom extract provided below (Extract 5.21), Melek manages the transition between the first and the second lesson with the 4th graders. She uses L1 completely for this.

Extract 5.21

37   T: Çocuklar, bu ünitemizin sonuna geldik, zil çalmak üzere. Diğer ders yeni üniteye geçeceğiz. Yeni ve eğlenceli bir konu. Ülkelerimizi göreceğiz. [Children, we have finished this unit. The bell is about to ring. We will start the new unit next lesson. It is a new and enjoyable topic. We will learn countries.]

133

L1 use for such transitions between lessons and activities was observed in the other participants' classes. However, one of the most dominant reasons for the frequent use of L1 for procedural purposes was probably the learners' missing materials. It was observed that it was very common for learners to forget to bring their lesson materials to the class (e.g. coursebook, activity book, notebook, and even pencils). They sometimes even forgot to take their materials out of their bags and the wardrobes during the lesson and waited to be instructed to do so. Although it was observed in almost all the classrooms regardless of learners' grades and contexts of the schools, this problem was observed to be relatively more common in rural schools. This could be, as explained in section 5.2, related to lack of learners' families help and support in rural schools by not helping their children for preparation of materials for the next day or checking their school bags.

When this problem occurred, teachers mostly dealt with it by using L1 to overcome it and start or continue the lesson quickly. Some common solutions were changing the seat of the students who did not have books, giving them a book of others, and lending them a pencil, etc. Although teachers mostly used L1 in case of these kinds of procedural issues, some tried to use L2 initially, but, after several trials, they switched into L1 due to students' lack of understanding.

A brief example is provided below regarding the switch from L2 to L1 to solve issues related to lesson materials (Extract 5.22). In this example, Seda is working with the 4th graders and instructs learners to write what is on the board in their notebooks (line 126). However, she notices that one student stares at her without writing. Following the questions regarding the materials in L2, the student is quiet as if he was not aware of what to do. When Seda asks the question in L1, the student shows the notebook in the bag, gets it out and starts writing (line 127).

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Extract 5.22

> 126   T: Write quickly! Write quickly! Take your pencil! (…) Where is your pencil? (.) Where is your pencil? Why don't you open your notebook? (.) Defterin nerede? [Where is your notebook?]
>
> 127   S1: Burada. [Here.]
>
> 128   T: Açsana! [Open it!]

Probably in order to avoid such problems related to students' lack of understanding, the primary choice of other participants was L1 use rather than L2. They argued that their main aim is to focus on the learning objectives in the curriculum, and they have limited time for it. For this reason, other classroom aspects, including instructions and procedural language in the L2 become of secondary importance and so they directly use L1 without trying L2 first. This is confirmed by three participants (Melek, Betül, Esma) in the interviews. One extract from Betül is provided below (more extracts about target-oriented teaching can be found in Section 5.4 below).

> IE5.23
>
> Since I focus on the goals (objectives), I use Turkish; I use English only in the main activities related to the topic. (Betül int. 2)

The above interview extract summaries Betül's use of L1 in her lessons. Considering the time constraint and the topics provided by MONE, she prefers what we might call target-oriented teaching with L1 use for procedural issues rather than L2. This was also observed in one of Esma's lessons during which she was teaching a number of vocabulary items (antonyms of adjectives) to 3rd graders (Extract 5.23 below). After she asks some questions to check students' comprehension, students want to play a game related to the vocabulary they have learned (line 154). Despite their insistence (line 156), Esma denies it by explaining the necessity of teaching-related topics for that day (line 157). It shows that she is driven by the curriculum because of which she feels that she needs to restrict the activities.

Extract 5.23

> 154   Ss: Öğretmenim, kelime oyunu oynayalım mı? [Teacher, shall we play word game?]
>
> 155   T: Onu haftaya yapalım mı? [Can we do it next week?]
>
> 156   Ss: Öğretmenim, lütfen! [Teacher, please!]
>
> 157   T: Bu konuyla alakalı başka şeyler öğretmem gerekiyor. Yeter bu kadar tekrar, öğrendiniz zaten. [I have to teach other things related to this topic. This is enough reinforcement, you learned it already.]

Classroom management was another sub-function within instructions for which participants used L1 in varying amounts. Below is an example from Seda's class with the 2nd graders (Extract 5.24). When learners start talking to each other, she first tries to manage the discipline using L2, but classroom disorder continues. She then switches into L1.

Extract 5.24

> 19   Sit down! Shh! Be quiet! (.) Ödüller gitti. Bu konuşanlar ödülü kaybetti. [No more rewards. The ones talking have lost their rewards.]

Regarding the main reasons for classroom management issues, observations revealed a variety of reasons related to learners' characteristics as children that caused the teachers to use L1. In line with what Pinter (2017) argued about children, it was observed that some learners got easily bored depending on the type of activity and expressed their feelings of boredom obviously. Or, in contrast, they sometimes got very excited during the competitive games and winning was vital for them, so the teachers had to calm them down with the use of L1. It was also common for some learners in different contexts to get easily distracted by their classmates or for other reasons, and teachers warned them. Learners also complained to the teachers about disputes between themselves and their classmates or even an event about something else. Or they sometimes got more distracted towards lunch break because of feeling hungry and explicitly showed this. Moreover, due to the learners' limited concentration span, management issues increased towards the end of the lesson, which affected

teachers' L1 use. As an illustrative example, during the last 15 minutes of the second lesson with 4th

graders, Esma warned the learners several times because of noise, chatting among themselves and

not listening to her. The main difference between her previous and later classroom management

styles is that although she rarely and briefly warned the learners like in the first example below (Extract

5.25), she did it more angrily using longer expressions and admitting that it is becoming more and

more difficult to maintain the discipline towards the end of the lesson (Extracts 5.26 and 5.27).

Extract 5.25

242   T: Yaslan arkana! (.) Dik otur! Hadi güzelce izleyelim. [Sit back! (.) Sit straight! Let's watch nicely.]

Extract 5.26

323   T: Geliyorum yanınıza az kaldı. Tadını kaçırdınız. Sürekli sohbet ediyorsunuz. Şuna bak! Bir daha uyarmayacağım. Güzel otur! [I am coming to you soon. You are becoming spoilt. You are constantly talking to each other. Look at this! I will not warn again. Sit nicely!]

Extract 5.27

373   T: Beni dinlemiyorsunuz. Sesinizi bastiracağım diye boğazım ağrıdı. [You are not listening to me. I have a sore throat in order to suppress your voice.]

In addition to classroom management issues stemming from learners' distraction and boredom, it was

also observed that learners' overtly expressing their feelings might be another reason for teachers L1

use for maintaining discipline. Two examples of disciplinary issues (due to students' anger and over-

excitement) are provided below (Extracts 5.28 and 5.29). In Extract 5.28, while Esma is teaching the

greetings to the 2nd graders in a question-answer way, two students from the back of the class start

arguing. One of them comes to the teacher and angrily complains about what his desk mate has told

him. At this moment, the lesson is interrupted for a short time, and Esma gets angry too. She is not

only angry for the interruption but also for student's saying the inappropriate word loudly. They continue the lesson following the teacher's warnings.

Extract 5.28

> S1: (sinirli bir tavırla) Öğretmenim, bu bana şerefsiz dedi! [(in an angry way) Teacher, he called me dishonest!]
>
> T: Offf! O öyle dedi diye sen de sesli söylemek zorunda değilsin. Yaslan arkana! Dik otur! [Phew! You do not have to say it loudly! Sit back! Sit up straight!]

Another example regarding L1 use for class management stems from students' over-excitement (Extract 5.29). Shortly after starting the 2nd lesson with the 4th graders, Melek intends to introduce a new game as a follow-up activity for the vocabulary they have learned. As soon as she shows the game on the smartboard and talks about the rules, students start shouting altogether, standing up and raising their hands with great excitement (line 129). Without knowing the rules of the game, they want to play it immediately. Although Melek tries to calm them down in the first instance in a polite manner (line 130), some students are still unable to manage their excitement and want to play, and this finally causes Melek to angrily warn them (line 131, 132).

Extract 5.29

> 129   Ss: Öğretmenim ben yapayım! Ben yapayım! Ben yapayım! [Teacher, let me do it! Let me do it! Let me do it!]
>
> 130   T: Kimse bir şey yapmayacak. Sakin! Anlatmadan nasıl olacak? [No one will do it. Calm down! How will you do it if I do not explain it?]
>
> 131   Ss: Hocam! [Teacher!]
>
> 132   T: Bir anlatayim gözünü seveyim bir anlatayım! [For god's sake! Let me explain it.]

In addition to the abovementioned characteristics of children, such cases can be related to Dörnyei's (2007) argument about the classroom as a complex environment with more than one issue happening simultaneously. Melek here tries to reinforce the topic through a game, but a classroom disorder

occurs. Probably with the aim of continuing the activity and thus teaching without wasting time, she deals with this classroom management issue in L1.

A striking point related to classroom management is that Betül used considerably less L1 compared to other participants (less than half - see Table 5.4 above). There might be several reasons for this, such as small class size, the difference between the other participants' way of discipline and Betül's perspective on class discipline which was very flexible towards students. It was observed that she was tolerant to those who behaved against classroom rules. One apparent feature that distinguishes her from the other participants was that she mostly did not warn the learners who did not raise their hands to speak or answer her questions. Even if some students talked to each other without permission, she mostly them ignored so long as they did not obstruct the lesson. Moreover, it was observed that her learners were generally quiet and did what their teacher said without causing any trouble during the lessons. Therefore, she did not use as much L1 as other participants.

Observations also revealed that classroom management issues were triggered by certain types of activities. It was observed that learners were more inclined to talk to each other or walk around the class while the teachers were checking others' homework and giving feedback individually. They behaved similarly while the teachers were individually supporting the students falling behind others. Maybe they were bored, and it was an opportunity for them to enjoy the time (even if for a few minutes) while their teacher's interest was somewhere else. When this was the case, teachers mostly used L1 to discipline the students. For example, in the third lesson with 2nd graders, Esma decided to check the homework she gave the previous week. While she was checking learners' sheets individually by going to each desk and giving feedback which lasted around six minutes, some students stood up and wandered around the class while others started talking to each other. She used L1 for several times to keep some students quiet and seated (12 out of 34 L1 utterances for class management). In other words, she approximately used 35% of total L1 utterances for class management during the whole lesson in only around six minutes during checking learners' homework. A classroom extract is

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

provided below regarding Esma's L1 use to discipline some learners in the same lesson during her individual feedback/support to the other learners. She notices the disciplinary problem and warns them, which summarizes the situation.

Extract 5.30

> 16   T: Bu sınıf çok konuşuyor ama, çok dolaşıyor, çok gürültü yapıyor. Kızlar neden ayaktasınız? [But this class is talking too much, wandering around too much, making too much noise. Girls, why are you standing?]

Classroom teachers' discipline strategies also had an influence on how students behaved during English classes, which in turn affected participants' L1 use for classroom management. Some participants stated in the interviews that students spend much of their time with their classroom teachers (a point explained in Section 2.1.2 above) and they become familiar with their teachers' management strategies. This might sometimes contradict with their own styles. The most common contradiction was explained by Ayfer, who stated that some classroom teachers want their students to come to teacher's desk in order to check and give feedback on their writing or what they have done in the activity rather than visiting the students' desks one by one. The possible reason for classroom teachers checking students' work at teacher's desk is that it is easier for them as they do not have to visit students' desks one by one. Since students learned it in this way, they are inclined to do the same in English classes, too. However, Ayfer reports that she does not prefer it and warns students to keep seated and wait for her, as she feels uncomfortable with the classroom disorder it causes. She explains it as follows:

> IE5.24
>
> With older age groups (middle school learners), I read/explain the instruction to them, and they do it. If any of them have any difficulties, I go and help them. In younger groups (primary school learners), they always come to you ask something. This is a waste of time, a total waste of time. We also have a conflict with classroom teachers. Most classroom teachers check the homework at their own desk. The children take their notebook and go to teachers' desk. The teacher checks the homework there. I say to them "don't come to me, don't walk around in class".

140

> Because I really feel uncomfortable. Kids are popping everywhere like a corn. So, this is a trouble with the younger age group.

Despite not being as common as in Ayfer's lessons, this was also observed in the other participants' lessons. The illustration of this case in terms of its proportion might be useful to emphasise its importance. In the last observed class with the 2nd graders, Ayfer used L1 for classroom management purposes for 13 times and the great majority of this (nine of them) was due to learners' coming to the teacher for feedback on what they drew on the book related to the vocabulary items they learned. In other words, 69% of Ayfer's L1 use for classroom management in this lesson stemmed from this reason which was highly likely the result of the contradiction between her and the classroom teacher's different practices. It is believed that some classroom extracts would be useful to illustrate this kind of L1 use for classroom management. Despite several warnings to stay seated, learners keep coming to Ayfer to show their drawing, so she warns them repeatedly.

Extract 5.31

> 6   T: Gelmeyin artık, ben gelip bakacağım birazdan. Tamam mı? Bana getirmenize gerek yok. [Do not come here anymore, I will come and check them. Is that OK? You do not have to bring them to me.]

Interestingly, only around one minute after the above warning, while Ayfer is checking another learner's work, she gives another warning to students to keep seated and wait for her to come.

Extract 5.32

> 8   T: Tamam, siz gelmeyin, ben geleyim artık. Gelmeyin çocuklar. Gelmeyin, bitiriyorum işimi. [OK, do not come anymore, I will come. Do not come, kids. Do not come, I am almost done here.]

This situation kept continuing for some time while Ayfer was checking students' work individually. It is hoped that such L1 use will decrease as learners familiarise themselves with Ayfer's style in time and customise their behaviours according to different teachers.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

5.3.3 L1 use for Confirmation/feedback

Confirmation or feedback is the second widely L1 used main category with around 22% in general. This wide use of L1 for this category might be attributed to participants' way of inductive teaching by eliciting answers from learners while teaching a new topic rather than using explanations. Therefore, they provided feedback to learners' responses whether they were correct or wrong, as illustrated in the example from the last observed lesson of Esma with the 2nd graders (Extract 5.33).

Extract 5.33

> 154   T: 'Picture' ne demek? [What does picture mean?]
>
> 155   S1: Sokak. [Street.]
>
> 156   T: Hayır. Ne demek? [No. What does it mean?]
>
> 157   S2: Mahalle. [Neighbourhood.]
>
> 158   T: Hayır. Resim demek. [No. It means picture.]

Compared to instructions, this category has more sub-functions (content and form-focused feedback, echoing and rephrasing students' response, teachers' comment and reaction to student question/request). Results reveal that participants' L1 use varied greatly in and across these sub-functions (see Table 5.5 below). Since all participants' L1 use for content feedback is far more than the other sub-functions in this category, only this sub-function will be explored in detail below, although an example of each of the other sub-functions is given for illustration.

Table 5.5 L1 use for confirmation/feedback

Main and sub-categories		Ayfer		Betül		Melek		Esma		Seda	
		Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %
Confirmation/ feedback	Content feedback	23.8%	17.2%	24.8%	19.1%	20.2%	12.2%	23.3%	10.6%	15.1%	7.1%
	Form-focused feedback		0.0%		0.0%		0.0%		0.0%		0.3%
	Echoing students' response		0.8%		1.8%		2.9%		2.7%		0.3%
	Rephrasing students' response		0.3%		0.2%		0.5%		2.4%		0.1%
	Teacher's comment		1.3%		1.0%		1.6%		3.0%		3.3%
	Reaction to student question/request		4.3%		2.8%		3.1%		4.6%		4.0%

An example of form-focused feedback is provided from one of Seda's class with the 4th graders. She gives an individual learner feedback on the auxiliary verbs 'can' and 'may'.

Extract 5.34

> 22   T: 'Can' ile sorulunca 'can' ile yanıt veririz. 'May' ile sorulunca 'may' ile yanıt veririz. Bak! Bu neyle sorulmuş? 'May' ile. Tamam. 'Can' ile sorulunca neden 'can' ile yanit vermiyorsun? [We answer with 'can' if the question is asked with 'can'. We answer with 'may' if the question is with 'may'. Look! What is this question asked with? With 'may'. OK. Why do you not answer with 'can' when the question is with 'can'?]

As for the use of L1 to repeat students' response, an illustrative example from one of Melek's classes with the 4th graders is provided in the Extract 5.35 below.

Extract 5.35

> 15   T: Ne soruyormuş bu? [What is this asking?]
>
> 16   S1: Nerede? [Where is it?]

143

17	S2: Sen nerelisin? [Where are you from?]
18	T: Sen nerelisin. [Where are you from.]

Participants also rarely used L1 to rephrase students' responses. For example, in Extract 5.36, after dividing family members into two groups based on their gender on the board, Ayfer asks the 3rd graders the difference between these two groups. Following getting several wrong answers, one student answered it correctly (line 20), and Ayfer rephrases it more loudly and precisely (line 21) probably for other students to hear it.

Extract 5.36

19	T: Bir daha alabilir miyim? Yüksek sesle ve ayağa kalkar mısın? [Can you say it again? Loudly and can you stand up?]
20	S: Bir taraftakilerin hepsi erkek, diğer taraftakilerin hepsi kız. [The ones on one side are all male, and the ones on the other side are all female.]
21	T: Çok güzel! Sol taraftakiler erkek aile üyeleri, sağ taraftakiler ise bayan aile üyeleri. [Excellent! Family members on the left are male, the ones on the right are female.]

Another sub-category for L1 use is teachers' comment. In the example (Extract 5.37) taken from a colouring/cutting activity related to greetings in Betül's class with the 2nd graders, she expresses what she thinks about a student's cutting a certain part of the sheet and leaves the decision to the student.

Extract 5.37

14	T: Bunları kesince içeriye doğru bükülüyor. Çok çirkin oluyor. O yüzden karar veremedim. [If you cut them, they fold inward. It does not look good. Therefore, I could not decide.]

The last minor category for which the participants used L1 within the major category of confirmation/feedback was answering students' questions or requests. An illustrative example is presented below. In one of the classes with the 3rd graders, students are assigned to solve a crossword puzzle related to the words they have learned. Esma answers one of students' question by using L1.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

> 29   S: Yukarıdan aşağıya oluyor mu? [Can we do it from top to bottom?]
>
> 30   T: Hepsi, hepsi var. [All, all of them.]

In contrast to the abovementioned sub-categories within confirmation/feedback, participants used much more L1 for content feedback. A closer inspection of the table shows that participants' L1 use for content feedback ranges from 7.1% to 17.2%. It is apparent that two participants (Ayfer and Betül) used far more L1 than others for this function. This could be because of the frequent support of students individually in the L1 as well as the whole class. It was observed that some students in their classes in particular had difficulty in doing certain activities and needed the teacher's help, or some were unable to produce correct answers. In such cases, the teachers dealt with these students in L1 very often in order to support or point out their mistakes. An example from Betül's class with the 2nd graders regarding individual support is provided below (Extract 5.39).

Extract 5.39

> 12   T: Bakayım. İngilizce olarak yazacaksın tamam mı? Aferin sana! Hilal, anlatın mı tatlım? Şimdi, bak, televizyonun İngilizce'sini arıyoruz. Arayalım. Bakalım. Hımm (Kitabın sayfaları arasında arıyorlar). Tamam. Şunu bul. Balonu bul. Neredeydi balon? Şuradan bulabilirsin. Neredeydi? Neredeydi? (Arıyorlar) Evet! Bak! Eksik olan harfleri belirle, buraya yaz. Aklında tutabilirsin değil mi? Hangi harfle başlıyormuş mesela? 'B' harfi. 'B' ile başla. [Let me look. You will write in English, OK? Well done! Hilal, did you understand, dear? Now, look, we are looking for the English meaning of television. Let's look for it. Let's have a look. Hmm (They are looking for it through book's pages). OK. Find this. Find the balloon. Where is the balloon? You can find it here. Where is it? Where is it? (Looking through pages) Evet! Look! Identify the missing words, write them here. Can you keep them in your mind? What is the first letter? Letter 'b'. Start with 'b'.]

In the first observed lesson of the 2nd graders, Betül teaches a few vocabulary items (television, balloon, judo, kangaroo and panda), which is followed by a small writing activity in which learners are expected to write the words under the pictures by copying the words from the book. Although some learners say that they have finished the task, one student is still struggling with completing it. While

checking learners' activity sheets one by one, Betül notices the learner, gives feedback on what he has already done and helps him find the words in the book by using L1. It was observed that the learner was quiet during teacher's guidance. One might argue that L1 use in this specific example is justified as it possibly helps the learner overcome possible stress stemming from falling behind others.

Regarding the differences between learners, Betül stated that it is very common for particular students to fall behind because of their lower age compared to their peers (families decide children's school start age from five to six). For this reason, they need more support which in turn increases her L1 use. During a classroom activity in which students were tasked with a writing activity, she approached me during observation and explained it as follows (for the sake of brevity, it is summarised):

> IE5.25
>
> Some parents want their children to start school earlier so that they can take advantage of starting life earlier. Even if it is too early for those children, they are insistent and do not listen to teachers or school principles' objections. Those children have great difficulty in understanding and can never achieve the same as their peers. This is not only in English but also in other subjects. (Betül class conversation)

In addition to Betül's argument about age difference among learners, it was observed that learners often made mistakes, particularly in writing and pronunciation. Regarding the former, it might be due to the fact that learners (especially lower level learners) had just learned the basic things in writing in their own language, and they were still developing. Therefore, it might be difficult for them to write in a new language which they were unfamiliar with. As for the latter, they were inclined to pronounce L2 vocabulary as it is spelt. This might stem from the difference between the two languages in that words are pronounced as they are written in Turkish. Although teachers had reinforcement activities (such as 'repeat after me') in order to teach the correct pronunciation, learners still had mistakes. In this case, teachers used L1 to provide feedback.

A short feedback on one of the 2nd graders' mispronunciation of a word (Extract 5.40). Here, a learner at the back is talking to her classmates loudly and pronounces the word 'cake' wrong (line 26). Ayfer hears it and provides the correct pronunciation to the learner (line 27) who then repeats it (line 28).

Extract 5.40

> 26   S: 'Çake' ne ya? (/tʃake/ olarak telaffuz ediyor) [What is 'chake'? (pronounces as /tʃake/]
>
> 27   T: 'Çake' ne kızlar? 'Çake' ne demek? (.) Onun telaffuzu /keɪk/. [What is 'chake', girls? What does 'chake' mean? (.) It is pronounced as /keɪk/.]
>
> 28   S: /keɪk/

Participants also frequently provided content feedback in L1 to praise learners' correct answers and good performance in a task or activity which also has an important effect in the high amount of L1 use for content feedback. This encouraged both the praised learners and others for participating in the activities and building self-confidence. This is closely related to 'affective filter' which is, according to Krashen (1982), important in successful learning.

An example of feedback for praising children is provided below. 2nd graders are assigned with a colouring task related to the alphabet and Ayfer is walking around the class to check how them. When she sees one of learners' work, she likes it and praises her both verbally and puts a star on her sheet.

Extract 5.41

> 23   T: Güzel olmuş. Aferin. Bir yıldız vereyim sana. [You did well. Well done. Let me give you a star.]

5.3.4 L1 use for asking questions

As mentioned in the previous section, participants of this study frequently used the inductive teaching method by asking questions to elicit answers from the learners rather than using explanations. For this reason, the most frequently used question type was display questions (see Table 5.6 below). L1

use for asking display questions ranged from 4.4% to 17.1% among participants and similar to L1 use in general, there is a great variance in this function.

Table 5.6 L1 use for asking questions

Main and sub-categories		Ayfer		Betül		Melek		Esma		Seda	
		Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %	Main %	Sub %
Asking questions	Display questions		4.4%		11.2%		13.6%		19.5%		17.1%
	Referential questions		2.4%		1.2%		0.9%		0.3%		2.1%
	Questions related to class materials	12.1%	3.3%	15.6%	2.2%	16.7%	1.5%	20.2%	0.3%	20.2%	1.0%
	Clarification requests		1.9%		1.1%		0.6%		0.1%		0.0%

Before elaborating L1 use for asking display questions, an example is given for the other types of questions below.

An example of L1 use to ask referential questions is provided below. In a lesson with the 3rd graders, Seda notices a teddy bear by the window during a writing task and asks students who it belongs to. Although she uses L2 for several trials (lines 55, 57, 59), students are unable to understand the question most probably because they do not know the meaning of 'whose'. Since they fail to predict the answer in a trial and error way (lines 56, 58, 60), the teacher finally uses L1 which helps the students understand immediately and answer the question (lines 61, 62). The teacher rephrases and confirms students' answer by translating it into L2 (line 63).

Extract 5.42

55   T: Whose is it (teddy bear)? Whose?

56   S1: Oyuncak ayı. [Teddy bear.]

57   T: Whose? Whose is it?

148

58   S2: Oyuncak! [Toy!]

59   T: No, no! Whose is it?

60   S3: Ayı! [Bear!]

61   T: Yeah! Whose? (.) Kimin? [Whose?]

62   Ss: Sınıfın! [Class's!]

63   T: Oh, OK! It belongs to the class.

Teachers also used L1 to ask questions about class materials. A short example from one of Esma's lessons with the 2nd graders provided in the Extract 5.43 below.

Extract 5.43

41   T: Klimanızın kumandası nerede? [Where is the remote control of your air conditioner?]

42   S: (Pointing to the remote control)

The last question type for which L1 was rarely used is clarification request. Participants could not understand learners' response or question (or written works) and so wanted them to clarify it. An example from Melek's lesson with the 3rd graders is provided below. A student asks a question to the teacher regarding the personal pronouns, but Melek does not understand it and wants him to clarify the question (line28)

Extract 5.44

27   S: (Kişi zamiri 'she' işaret ederek) Şu, 'he' ile niye değişiyor? [(pointing to the personal pronoun 'she') Why is this replaced with 'he'?]

28   T: Hangi 'she, he'? [Which 'he, she'?]

29   S: 'She' ve 'he' değişiyor ya erkeklerde ve kızlarda. ['She' and 'he' changes for the male and female?]

30   T: Dedim ya, kural, değişiyor. [As I said before, it is a rule.]

In contrast to the above-illustrated question types, participants mostly used L1 to ask display questions. Although this type of teaching was common among all participants, language choice changed depending on the participants and immediate context. Their language choice can be classified into three groups; (1) directly using L1 without trying L2 first, (2) using L2 and immediately switching to L1 without waiting to see if the learners understand or vice versa (instant translation), and (3) using L2 initially and switching into L1 in case of students' misunderstanding or inability to understand teacher's L2 use (delayed translation). Although participants did not stick to one strategy all the time and their L1 choice differed depending on the immediate context, it was observed that the first type (direct L1 use) was used considerably more by the participants with the highest amount of L1 during observations (Betül and Melek). It is this function that at least partly explains their greater L1 use overall.

An example of how direct L1 use works is provided below (Extract 5.45). Here, Esma is teaching the 2nd graders 'this' and 'that' demonstratives and she asks the Turkish meanings of the structure (line 43) and gets the students to say the other demonstrative (line 45). Asking the difference between these two words (line 47) produces a vague answer from the students (line 48). Therefore, she asks it another way to ensure that students learn it right (line 49) and finally gets the desired answer (line 50).

Extract 5.45

43   T: Ne soruyordu bu 'What is this'? [What is asking 'What is this'?]

44   S1: Bu ne? [What is this?]

45   T: Bir tane de bunun arkadaşı vardı. O neydi? [It has a friend. What is it?]

46   Ss: That.

47   T: Arasındaki fark neydi? [What is the difference between these?]

48   Ss: Uzak, yakın! [Far, near]

49   T: Hangisi yakın? [Which one is near?]

50   Ss: This.

It can be seen from the Extract 5.45 above that the dialogue continued smoothly, and there was no communication breakdown between the teacher and students. This was probably due to the teachers' use of L1 to ask questions which positively affected students' understanding and in turn their answering without hesitating. In the end, the teacher achieved the aim, which was teaching the demonstratives to students by getting the right answers from them.

As for the instant translation from L2 to L1 or vice versa, it was observed that all but one of the participants (Betül) switched into another language in various amounts without a pause. There might be several reasons for this type of language switch. Since it is an instant translation, it unlikely to depend on learners' understanding of the teachers' L2. However, it might be due to the teacher's beliefs that learners don't know the meaning of particular structures or vocabulary items, so they switch into L1 before the possible communication breakdown happens. Or teachers might want to familiarise learners with particular vocabulary items by using both languages one after the other. Here is an example of an instant switch of a participant (Seda) who is working with the 3rd graders who have learned the vocabulary related to family members and are now doing an exercise in the way of question and answer (Extract 5.46). For the fifth question, Seda first uses L2 and then directly switches into L1 and finally L2 again after giving a few seconds pause (line 35). Although it is not possible to know whether the learners would understand her L2 use without translation into L1, it seems that they understand it and give the correct answer (line 36). Unlike her instant translation for this question, she uses L2 entirely for the next one without switching into L1 (line 37) and learners are able to give the correct answer (line 38). However, their understanding of the teacher's question in line 37 does not necessarily mean that they would understand the one in line 35 without translation.

Extract 5.46

35   What about fifth one? Bes? [Five?] (...) What about fifth one? You?

36	S1: Mother.
37	T: Yes, mother. What about sixth one? What about sixth one? You?
38	S2: Father.
39	T: Yes, father. Good.

When asked specifically about the instant switch above during the last part of the second interview (stimulated recall session), Seda was unable to remember it. However, looking at this from a broader perspective and taking into consideration the whole activity might give us a possible explanation. Seda's language use during the whole activity appears to have a pattern to it in terms of learners' familiarity with the ordinal numbers. There were ten questions, and she asked the students each one in order by using ordinal numbers and expected them to answer (e.g. What about second one?). Although she used delayed translation for the first three questions following learner's inability to understand or answer, she entirely used L2 for the ones which had similar to ordinal versions (the fourth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth). She might have noticed this and directly translated the fifth question in order not to have a similar failure of understanding, like in the first three questions. This is a good example of how teachers may constantly adjust their use of L1 and L2 according to the context and the moment-by-moment unfolding of the on-going interaction.

It was also observed that some participants tried L2 to ask questions several times but reverted back to L1 due to students' lack of understanding. An illustrative example is provided below (Extract 5.47). In a lesson with the 3rd graders, the focus is vocabulary items related to family members in the second unit named 'My family', and Ayfer is trying to elicit the meaning of 'family' by giving and showing the pictures of family members on the board. Although she asks the question twice in L2 with support of pictures and body language and allows students some time to think (lines 83 and 85), they are unable to give the correct answer and keep silent (lines 84 and 86). The teacher finally uses L1 (line 87), which helps the students understand and answer the question without hesitation (line 88). The teacher confirms students' answer in L1 (line 89).

Extract 5.47

> 83   T: This is grandfather, grandmother, father, mother, cousin. These are all my family. <u>My family</u>. Family?
>
> 84   Ss: (No response)
>
> 85   T: OK! Mother, father, grandmother, brother, sister. All are my family. Family?
>
> 86   Ss: (No response)
>
> 87   T: 'Family' ne demekmiş? [What does family mean?]
>
> 88   Ss: Aile. [Family.]
>
> 89   T: Aile. Bunlar hepsi benim ailem. [Family. These are all my family.]

Regarding the students' inability to understand Ayfer in the Extract 5.47 above, Walsh (2011) argues that communication breakdown is very common in second/foreign language classes and one of the most common reasons is students' lack of vocabulary knowledge. Being aware of this problem, the teacher tried to help students with the use of L1, which solved the communication problem.

This section examined in detail the findings on the functions of participants' L1 use. It was found that participants used L1 for a variety of functions mainly for giving instructions, confirmation/feedback and asking questions which represent slightly more than 90% of total functional categories. Using Turkish for explanation/paraphrase, interpersonal relation, discourse marker, talking to themselves and repetition/reinforcement was considerably less common during the observed lessons.

A number of interesting findings also emerge from the data. Similar to their amount of L1 use explained in the previous section, participants' L1 use varied greatly both within and across different functions which shows that each participant has a unique way of using L1 in their classes. Their L1 use was greatly affected by a variety of factors, including students' level of English and characteristics such as their age. Other factors observed were the types of class activities and even classroom teachers' way of discipline as well as the curriculum that makes some teachers adopt target-oriented teaching through L1 use to save time. It was also found that teachers' way of teaching (eliciting answers from

153

students) was highly influential for their L1 use in terms of asking questions and giving feedback. Existence of mixed-ability classes was also another factor to affect teachers' L1 use. These issues will be discussed further in the next section and in Chapter 6.

5.4 Motivations behind teachers' L1 use

This section presents the findings about participants' motivations for employing L1 in their classes with YLs. The results are mainly based upon teachers' self-reports in the pre and post-interviews, and these self-reports are supported by classroom extracts where appropriate. Some of the reasons for L1 use have already been described in the previous sections to support the discussions around the amount and functions of L1 use. This section therefore brings together the reasons in order to give a more detailed and in-depth view of each teacher's motivations for using L1.

Participants of this study stated five main reasons for employing L1, including students' level, target-oriented teaching, saving time, particular language points, and L1 use with no explicit reason. Although they did not share all the reasons, as shown in Table 5.7 below, there is an agreement on learners' level as an influential factor in using L1. This was followed by saving time, teaching specific points and L1 use with no explicit reason on which four participants stated to be effective in their L1 use. Following the curriculum was stated by three participants. Each of these reasons will be addressed below respectively.

Table 5.7 Main reasons for L1 use

	Students' level of proficiency	Achieving target curriculum	Saving time	Teaching specific points	No explicit reason
Ayfer	+		+		+
Melek	+	+	+	+	+
Betül	+	+	+	+	
Esma	+	+	+	+	+
Seda	+			+	+

5.4.1 Students' proficiency level

According to interviews, the most common reason for why teachers employ L1 in the classroom is children's inability to understand what teachers say in L2. Participants emphasised that they switch into L1 when children have difficulty, or they think that children would have difficulty.

When asked about the reasons for L1 use, Betül argued that her L1 use is mainly due to students' low understanding level:

> IE5.26
>
> Students' ability is a factor making me speak L1. (Betül int. 2)

Ayfer had similar argument regarding students' inability to understand L2 use:

> IE5.27
>
> Every year, I start the term with a determination to speak English, but later on, it dies because they do not understand. (Ayfer int. 1)

Esma argued that students' level is a determinant factor in her L1/L2 choice, and she feels the necessity of L1 use in order not to scare or discourage students from English because they met English for the first time only recently:

> IE5.28
>
> Language level of learners is the main reason. They are at the very beginning. Their foreign language proficiency is very low. Therefore, I must use Turkish. (Esma int. 2)

Both Melek and Seda focused on downsides of excessive L2 use in terms of lack of understanding:

> IE5.29
>
> Mostly, I try to use L2 in the class, but students get stuck when I use it much…. When they get stuck, I switch into L1. (Melek int. 1)

5.4.1 Students' proficiency level

> IE5.30
>
> I sometimes resort to L1 when students are not able to understand because of too much English use. (Seda int. 2)

It is worth mentioning at this point that Melek and Seda's arguments are very similar in that they both mention learners' inability to understand them as a result of too much L2. However, this similarity is not reflected in the amount of overall L1 use. More specifically, as mentioned in Section 5.2 above, there is a big difference between the amount of their L1 use (around 81% and 24% respectively). In this regard, it might be argued that their views towards 'much L2 use' are not the same. Or, alternatively, Seda still continues to use L2 as much as possible by pushing the limits of learners' understanding while Melek is discouraged by lack of understanding her L2 use which is expressed in IE5.31 below.

Regarding her preference of L1 over L2, Melek shared a milestone that fundamentally affected the language choice.

> IE5.31
>
> In my previous school, I was mostly speaking English especially with the 4th graders and they were successful. I once taught a specific language point in English but realized the following week that they had understood it wrong. I regretted teaching it in English. I thought that they had understood it right from their reaction, but it was not the case. What I learned from this was that I need to use Turkish to teach important points so that they would have a sound basis. (Melek int. 2)

Regarding students' low understanding level, Ayfer and Melek regarded it as a discouraging factor for them to use the desired amount of L2. Both teachers argued that they enthusiastically want to speak English prior to class. However, they cannot manage it fully due to the difficulty students encounter which also affects the classroom environment negatively and prevents teaching. For this reason, they lose their motivation to use L2 and switch into L1. They expressed it as follows:

IE5.32

Every year, I start the term with a determination to speak English, but later on, it dies because they do not understand. (Ayfer int. 1)

IE5.33

… before coming to class, I hope to speak English and give some instructions accordingly. However, I cannot get anything positive from the students – they stare at me blankly. (Melek int. 2)

It can also be concluded from the abovementioned extracts that the main factor in students' inability to understand their teachers' L2 use is low proficiency level. The majority of students only recently encountered English for the first time in their life so it may be still challenging for them to sufficiently comprehend it as a different language (particularly 2nd graders who had been learning English for only a few weeks at the time of interviews). They also might not encounter it around where they live (particularly rural schools), which is a typical situation in a country like Turkey where English is learned as a foreign language.

In addition to the interviews, observations revealed that students' lack of understanding was a common reason for the participants to switch into L1. In some cases, although teachers insisted on using L2, repeated what they said for several times, used graded language, and supported their talk with gestures and body language, some students were not able to grasp the meaning and kept silent without reacting or answering. This shows that they struggled to understand teachers' L2 talk, so teachers felt that they had to use L1, not only for these specific cases but also for others afterwards. Some classroom extracts showing the use of L1 because of students' lack of understanding due to their low proficiency level are provided below.

Extract 5.48

> 21   T: Open your homework. Have a look at the headlines. Unit one. Classroom rules. Numbers. Classroom objects. OK? (.) Yes, open. (…) Don't look at my face, baby. Don't look at my face. Bana bakmayın. Bana niye bakıyorsunuz? [Don't look at me. Why are you looking at me?]

157

In this specific example with the 4th graders in Extract 5.48 above, Seda gives some instructions to students to open their books and look at the related page at the beginning of the class. She also holds the book in her hand by showing the related page. However, most of the students are unable to understand the teacher and stare at her blankly rather than doing what she says. Although the teacher repeats the same sentence twice, students still fail to understand it and Seda switches into Turkish.

The following is another similar example from the same context.

Extract 5.49

> 98   T: How many students are there in this class? How many? How many students are there in this class? How many students? One, two, three, four (...) Kaç öğrenci var? [How many students are there?]
>
> 99   S1: 29 öğrenci var. [There are 29 students.]
>
> 100   T: OK. Yes.

It can be seen from the abovementioned extract that Seda asks a question in L2 but does not get any answers from students. Repeating it for several times appears to be not working. Neither does giving example answers to her question (one, two, three) since students probably do not know the meaning of "how many". After repeating it for several times, she stops using L2 and switches into L1. Once she does it, students are able to answer without hesitating. Similar switches were observed during the observation of other participants. For example (student's name is pseudonym):

Extract 5.50

> T: Berrin (.), come here. Take your notebook (...). Come here huh? Berrin, stand up. Come here huh?. Come, come (.). Berrin, come (.). Notebook, take your notebook (.). Yes, come here (...). Berrin, defterini de alıp buraya gel. [Berrin, take your notebook and come here.]

In this specific example of L1 switch in Extract 5.50 above, Ayfer points to a student and calls her to the board with her notebook in order to check her writing in the notebook. She uses L2 for the first a

158

few trials, but the student gets confused and makes several attempts without being sure - pauses first, stands up and goes towards the board without taking her notebook. Apparently, she does not understand what the teacher says, so she tries to do it by trial and error according to the teacher's reaction. Teacher's use of body language (waving hand and pointing to notebook) and saying it several times does not work, and she finally switches into L1.

Teachers' switch into L1 in the abovementioned extracts is most likely due to students' inability to understand as a result of the low level of English proficiency. Teachers' L1 use also stems from learners' being stuck with simple procedural issues which are not related to English but may be related to lack of socialisation into the school setting. Several cases from different participants were observed related to the colour of the writing on the board while learners were copying it in the notebook. This was explained by one of the participants who stated that colour of the board marker might be a problem for the learners so they ask whether they should write it in black or red in their notebook in just the same way as the teacher does on the board. For this reason, using L1 seems to be the best and quickest solution to overcome these kinds of problems for the participants. An illustrative example is provided in Extract 5.51 below from a grade 3 class (for the sake of brevity, only key extracts are provided).

Extract 5.51

81 T: Kağıdın başına 'quiz' yazın. Adınızı yazmayı unutmayın. [Write 'quiz' at the top of the sheet. Do not forget to write your name.]

82 S1: Hocam kırmızı kalemle mi yazalım? [Teacher, shall we write in red?]

83 T: Farketmez. Çok önemli değil. [It does not matter. It is not very important.]

84 Ss: ((they are discussing the colour of the pen))

85 S2: Kırmızı kalemle mi yazacağız siyahla mı? [Shall we write in red or black?]

86 T: Hayır, hiç farketmez. Baslığa gerek yok, defter gibi düşünmeyin bunu. [No, it does not matter. There is no need for a title. Do not think of it like a notebook.]

…

91 S4: Kırmızıyla mı yazacağız siyahla mı? [Shall we write in red or black?]

92   T: Farketmez, hangisiyle yazmak isterseniz yazabilirsiniz. [It does not matter. You can choose whichever you want.]

In Extract 5.51 above, Ayfer decides to do a short quiz to check students' understanding of the topic after teaching numbers to the 3rd graders. Dividing blank sheets into two and giving each half to the students, she instructs them to write the title and their names in the sheets with demonstrating it on the board by writing it in black (line 81). However, students are confused by the lack of instruction (colour of pen/pencil), and one of them asks the teacher about which colour to use but receives no definite answer (lines 82, 83). Having a discussion among themselves does not help to solve the issue, and another student tries again to get a specific colour, which ends up with the same result (lines 84, 85, 86). After some time, the cycle continues exactly in the same way as previous ones (lines 91, 92). These continuous questions regarding the colour of the title might be due to the need for guidance in every step of the lesson for learners. Or alternatively, it could stem from the contradiction between what Ayfer does (writing the title in black on board) and what students already learn with the help of classroom teacher (probably writing the title in red or in a different colour). They are unable to judge logically and appear to hesitate to follow either teacher's practices, and therefore ask the same question repeatedly. Although Ayfer's L1 use in this example might also be classified as saving time (overcoming the colour issue and get the learners to write quickly), it is caused by learners' indecisiveness and lack of autonomy.

5.4.2 Achieving target - curriculum

Another reason leading the teachers to employ L1 is their target-driven way of teaching. Three participants stated that they focus on achieving the target, which is teaching the allocated language points in the curriculum for each day by using either language. This target is determined by MONE, and teachers are expected to teach/finish these within the allocated timeframe. For this reason, they simply prefer using more L1 rather than using L2, which takes more time and necessitates more endeavour. In this way, they give priority to language targets, and using L2 in the class becomes of

160

secondary importance. Betül justified her L1 use about target-driven teaching in both pre and post interviews as follows:

> IE5.34
>
> ... my aim is to teach the target topic [language item] of the day. That is all. Unfortunately, creating an atmosphere of teaching English is of secondary importance. What I want is to teach the topic and students understand it and say it in a dialogue. (Betül int. 1)
>
> IE5.35
>
> My aim is not to teach students to speak but to teach them the topics that the state gave us. (Betül int. 2)

The above extracts reveal that teaching pre-determined language topics to learners is the primary aim of Betül. Similarly, Esma justified her target-focused teaching explaining several constraints focusing on the exam students have to take a few years later in middle school. She believes that it is easier for the students to be successful in the exam if she uses L1 with them. As previously mentioned in 5.2.2 above, she expressed the role of exams in her L1 use:

> IE5.36
>
> I have to take into consideration several factors such as the materials I have, students, limited time, so I am forced to speak Turkish. I am constrained. I want to do lots of things, but I have a curriculum to finish, students have exams. If students make many mistakes on these exams, reactions arise from different stakeholders. For this reason, a common way to make everyone happy is first language use. (Esma int. 2)

What is implied in the above extract is that although stakeholders such as families and school principals do not have a direct effect on Esma's language choice in the classroom, they indirectly lead her to use L1 since they focus on students' success in the exam. Esma thinks that she needs to use L1 for learners to be successful in the exam and make the stakeholders happy.

Melek also argued that L1 use is more convenient to teach the topics within the specified time period because of time constraint, which is a big problem for her.

161

... Moreover, I have a target to achieve. I only have two hours which is not enough
to achieve it. (Melek int. 2)

It is apparent from the above extracts that the target-driven approach is closely related to time
constraint, so it is elaborated below.

5.4.3 L1 use for saving time

According to some participants, limited time of English classes is an important factor in using more L1.
They emphasised that they only have two 40 minute classes per week which is not enough to reach
the targets by using L2, and these two classes are mostly on the same day. Therefore, students
encounter English once a week and forget it very often until the next week's lesson. This makes
teachers do a thorough revision of what they have taught in the previous week and reduces the time
for the next topic. Therefore, they feel the necessity of L1 use more often to move forward more
quickly. In addition to the extracts in section 5.4.2, this issue was raised by several teachers who
complained about insufficient teaching time.

IE5.38

Maybe 2 hours is enough for central schools [urban schools]; it is not here because
students do not remember what they have learned previous week because of a
lack of revision. Therefore, I need to do revision in the first hour and teach target
topic in the second, and this is not enough for me. (Melek int. 2)

IE5.39

2 hours per week is not enough to create an English atmosphere ... There should
be at least 6 hours of English class. (Betül int. 2)

By 'English atmosphere', Betül means an English classroom in which English is exclusively taught
through itself. She believes that this is an effective way for learners to understand teachers' L2 more
easily and to improve speaking skills. She gives an example of 'ideal English atmosphere' from her own
daughter who is studying at a private institution where she has 24 hours English lessons every week,
and the teachers and students are always supposed to speak English during the lessons. Due to the

162

time constraint in the school she works, however, she argues that she is realistic about what she can do in two hours per week and only aims to teach ten units determined by the MONE within the whole year rather than creating an English speaking environment.

IE5.40

My daughter has been going to private school since nursery school, and they have 24 hours of English. There is an English atmosphere there. She engages with English. Speaking Turkish is strictly forbidden, even in the nursery school. Even if she wants to drink water, she has to ask for it using English. Otherwise, she cannot have it. She has a very good level of English now. (Betül int.2)

However, although Ayfer agreed with the other participants on the inadequacy of teaching time, it seems that she found a practical solution in her own way. She had taken an in-sessional drama course previously, and with the help of attendance certificate to this course, she was allowed to start an after-school course to teach English through drama. During this two-hour drama class, she argued that she had a chance to do revision about what she taught in the previous classes. This also enabled students to remember what they had learned in the main class more easily, and therefore Ayfer felt more comfortable with achieving the target. Although the official English class is two forty minute classes in primary schools in Turkey, the students in this school luckily have four English classes per week. According to Ayfer, this is a great opportunity for students.

IE5.41

Two lesson hour is certainly not enough, but I also have two hours of extra English drama with 3rd and 4th grades, which is great to support what I teach in the main English classes. (Ayfer int. 1)

It should be noted that extra two-hour drama lesson is not a common opportunity for all learners in different schools as the teachers have to take a training and certificate and then necessary permission to start such a course. In this regard, it entirely depends on teachers' extra effort on it.

5.4.4 L1 use for particular language points

Another reason for using L1 is teaching particular language points (topics). Four participants (Betül, Melek, Esma and Seda) stated that they employ L1 to explain details of a specific language points in order to ensure that students do not misunderstand them. They argued that YLs' literacy and cognitive level is very low, and it may be challenging to expose them to L2 with more complicated and confusing sentences which may, in turn, may discourage them from learning English. For this reason, they adjust their L1/L2 use according to the difficulty of the topic of the lesson or students' familiarity. The following extracts explain the issue:

> IE5.42
>
> My L1/L2 use is affected by students. Moreover, the difficulty of the topic that I need to teach. If it is new and difficult, I cannot use L2. I also cannot use L2 to teach the details/rules of the topic because I sometimes need to make complicated and long sentences. (Melek int. 2)
>
> IE5.43
>
> While teaching a particular topic, I use L1 mostly. (Betül int. 2)

Melek also argued that she uses more L1 with older learners due to reasonably more challenging language and grammar points in their curriculum.

> IE5.44
>
> Especially with older learners, my L2 speaking decreases when I need to teach a topic. For example, I have to teach in Turkish to explain the details of making sentences to 4th grades. And where to use these sentences. (Melek int. 1)

An example of classroom extract regarding L1 use for this purpose is provided below (Extract 5.52). In this example, Melek is working with the 3rd graders and introducing the personal pronouns (he, she and it) which is regarded one of the most challenging language points for Turkish learners of English due to there being only one third person personal pronoun ('o') in Turkish. Probably being aware of this, she directly uses L1 without first trying it in the L2 in order not to confuse learners.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Extract 5.52

> 95   T: İkisi de 'o' anlamında. Kız olursa 'she', erkek olursa 'he' diyoruz. 'O benim annem, o benim babam, o benim kız kardeşim' cümlelerini şimdi beraber kuracağız. [They both mean 'he/she'. If it is female, we say 'she', if male we say 'he'. We will make sentences like 'she is my mother, he is my father, she is my sister'.]

Similarly, Ayfer simply used L1 to explain a difference between two languages, which she probably thought confusing through L2 use (Extract 5.53). More specifically, while teaching family members to the 3rd graders, she points to lexical differences in family terms. Learners appear to understand it as they nodded after the explanation. Although this may be regarded as a simple explanation in L1, one may argue that L2 use in this case is unlikely to enable learners to understand the difference easily.

Extract 5.53

> 230   T: Bizim dilimizde bazı akrabalık isimleri İngilizce'den daha fazladır. Biz her bir akrabamız için farklı bir terim kullanırız fakat İngilizce'de öyle değil. Mesela İngilizce'deki 'aunt', bizdeki 'hala' (babanın kız kardeşi) ve 'teyze' (annenin kız kardeşi) anlamına gelir. Aynı şekilde, 'uncle' için biz iki kelime yani, 'amca' (babanın erkek kardeşi) ve 'dayı (annenin erkek kardeşi)' kullanırız. [There are more family terms in our language compared to English. We use a different term for each family member, but it is not the case in English. For example, the meaning of 'aunt' in English is 'hala' (father's sister) and 'teyze' (mother's sister) in our language. Similarly, we use two words for 'uncle', namely, 'amca' (father's brother) and 'dayı' (mother's brother).]

5.4.5 L1 use for no explicit reason

Most L1 use in the data could be categorised as carrying out a particular function and found an explicit explanation in the teachers' justifications for their L1 use. However, detailed examination of observations revealed that teachers also switched into L1/L2 with no obvious reason in some cases. Whilst speaking in either language, they switched into the other mostly in inter-sentential level and continued the interaction. However, it should be noted that this type of switch is not the same as delayed or instant translation mentioned in Section 5.4.3 above. For instant/delayed translation, participants provided exact or similar meaning in the other language while in this language switch,

they continued the utterance in the other language without translation. Various examples coming from different settings are shown below. In Extract 5.54, for example, one of the students is very willing to do the activity with the teacher, so he is raising his hand by shouting with excitement (line 15). Ayfer recognises and calls him to the board in L2. Despite starting the utterance in L2, she continues it by using L1 (line 16).

Extract 5.54

15   S1: Teacher, ben ben ben! [me, me me!]

16   Ayfer: Yes, come. Bir tane de senden alalım. [Let's do it with you, too]

In the Extract 5.55 below, after greeting students in L2 at the beginning of the lesson, the teacher continues using L2 by saying the page number. However, she uses L1 without any pause for students to confirm it (isn't it?) and translates it into L1 afterwards (twenty-six).

Extract 5.55

110   Melek: How are you?

111   Ss: I am fine, thanks, and you?

112   Melek: Fine. Sit down (...). Yes (.) Page twenty-five, six. Twenty-six. Değil mi sayfa? [the page, isn't it?] Twenty-six. Yirmi altı. [Twenty-six.]

In the last classroom extract related to L1 use for no obvious reason (Extract 5.56), Seda gives students homework at the end of the lesson, but she uses a mixture of both languages while giving homework. Different from other extracts, she also switches language in intra-sentential level while saying the name of the book (Marathon plus dört) as well as inter-sentential (Unit one. Bitir!).

Extract 5.56

Seda: Homework (.) Ödev (…) Maraton plus dört (the name of exercise book). Unit one. Bitir! [Homework. Marathon plus four. Unit one. Finish!]

166

In the extracts above, teachers' switch into L1/L2 was not categorised as a specific reason since there was no evident reason for them to switch. They sometimes did it without having any pause between switches, so it was like a fast process for them without even realising. Since there was no pause, it was unlikely that they switched due to students' lack of understanding. It could be argued that these kinds of switches occurred to ensure that students understand it immediately. Or, they could be a natural result of being a bilingual speaker. When asked about a specific case of an instant switch into L1, one of the participants (Seda) explained it during the stimulated recall part of the post-interview as a result of excitement and being a native speaker of Turkish.

> IE5.45
>
> In fact, this is involuntary. It sometimes happens. I did not do it deliberately. I am sometimes aware of it. It may be because of the excitement of the moment or being a native speaker of Turkish. I even did not notice it whilst saying, but after listening to it, I noticed it. (Seda int. 2)

Another participant emphasised that language switch inevitably occurs due to the complex nature of the classroom environment which necessitates more than one factor to be taken into consideration such as instructional (e.g. tasks, teaching methods, curriculum), managerial (e.g. class discipline) and social context (Dörnyei 2007). Thus, dealing with these factors could be more important than consciously deciding to use L2 or L1 in certain circumstances, and she sometimes used either language without paying attention. She also argued that such switches could stem from unplanned use of L1/L2. When asked about one of her L1 use in the stimulated recall session, she explains the fast switches by giving examples in classroom management as follows:

> IE5.46
>
> It depends on my mood. For example, when I feel that class management is getting difficult, I use more L1 for everyone to hear that I say "well done" to someone. Or when I feel angry that class discipline is not good and think about what to do with this class, I cannot think of English at that time. I say whatever comes to my mind without thinking. Also, the use of L1/L2 is not planned for me, so I am not aware that I say it in either language. However, the more the students go away from the lesson, the more L1 I use. (Esma int. 2)

167

It is also worth mentioning that there appears to be a common point between the abovementioned extracts (IE5.45 and IE5.46). Both participants stated that their unconscious language switch might be due to the change in their mood. More specifically, excitement might cause Seda to use two languages interchangeably, and the same for Esma when she is angry. Their mood is probably affected by what is happening in the classroom, which might also be affected by other factors (e.g. students' mood). For this reason, echoing what is stated previously, L1 use is a complicated issue and affected by multiple factors which combine in many ways depending on both immediate and the general context in which L2 is taught.

Regarding the classroom variables affecting teachers' L1 use, other participants expressed various factors. Melek, for example, stated in the second interview that she bases her L1/L2 choice on the immediate context with a focus on learners' reaction to her L2 use (previously mentioned in Extracts IE5.29 and IE5.33) while Ayfer's L1 use is affected by the time of the lesson (whether it is early in the morning or afternoon) which has an impact on learners' mood. In this regard, it might be argued that some factors have an indirect impact on language choice (the time of the day → learner's mood → L1/L2 use). She explains it as follows:

> IE5.47
>
> No planning (of L1/L2 use). It totally depends on the mood of children. I use more L2 with morning classes because they are still sleepy and listen to me as well as not being tired yet, but with later classes, I use more L1 because the main aim is to control the class rather than using L2. (Ayfer int. 2)

This section elaborated the main motivations for why participants employed L1 with YLs. The results show that participants of this study had five main motivations for L1 use, including students' level, curriculum, saving time, teaching particular language points and L1 use for no explicit reason. However, according to the results, the student factor is the most common reason to employ L1 due to their low proficiency level in L2 and characteristics as YLs. Interestingly, while some participants tried to be sensitive towards students in order not to discourage them from English by using English

168

very often, others were discouraged by students' lack of understanding L2 use and therefore used L1 in their classes. It was also found that participants' and learners' moods might sometimes lead them to use L1.

5.5 Summary of participants' L1 use

The highest amount of L1 was used by Betül who used around 84% of L1 during the observed classes. Her L1 use might partly be affected by abundant individual support to the learners to whom she (together with Ayfer) gave more content feedback than other participants. The total amount of L1 might be viewed as excessive by those who are in favour of limited or judicious L1 use (Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001; Ellis and Shintani, 2014; Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Although the actual amount was in line with her self-report, she felt guilty of the high amount since she wanted to use more L2. In fact, she was aware of what she considered the ideal solution, which is being insistent on L2 use until learners understand it, but she was unable to implement it due to practical difficulties. According to her accounts, the most influential factor for her excessive L1 use was low proficiency level of learners who lacked facilities to engage with English out of school as a result of living in rural areas. Considering other constraints including limited teaching time (80 minute per week) and the necessity of teaching pre-determined language topics (by MONE), she gave more importance to achieving educational goals and "creating an atmosphere of teaching English [through maximum L2 use] was secondary importance". It appears that she viewed use of L1 as a solution to overcome these constraints. However, one might wonder whether there would be different ways to cope with practical difficulties other than excessive L1 use by attending trainings on language use as she had not attended any trainings for more than a decade at the time of data collection. In this way, she could have opportunities to improve L1/L2 practices and develop strategies by reflecting on her own language use.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Despite being a little lower compared to Betül, Melek also used high amount of L1 use with YLs (around 80%). Being the most disappointed participant with L1 use, she regarded herself as an unsuccessful language teacher in terms of language use as a result of associating excessive L1 to being unprofessional. She emphasised the role of working in a rural school where learners' L2 level is considerably lower than the ones in urban schools due to learners' lack of engaging with L2 and family support. She employed even more L1 with the 4th graders, which she justified with the presence of more challenging language and grammar points in the curriculum. However, she stated that L1 use with YLs was a necessary tool to make herself clear, particularly related to instructions, as they needed frequent and repetitive guidance as a result of their young age. In fact, after realizing that learners had understood a language point entirely wrong in an exclusive L2 class, she chose to use more L1 with YLs to ensure that they understood what she said correctly. She was also discouraged by learners' lack of understanding her L2 use. Therefore, although her desire was to employ less L1, she actually used high amount of L1 considering the learners' level and small age.

Ayfer was somewhere in the middle of the other participants in terms of amount of L1, using around 69% L1 overall. What was the most interesting about Ayfer's L1 use was the fluctuation across individual classes, which was much higher than the others (ranging from as low as 46% to as much as 99%). The main reason might be focus of the lessons. She used more L2 during teaching the language points through L2 activities such as songs, reinforcement (repeat after me) and the games learners were already familiar with, while she almost always used L1 to give instructions during craft activities that needed detailed instructions, and more complicated games with which learners needed more guidance. Thus, activity type was an influential factor on her language choice. Compared to other participants, she had a more positive attitude towards use of L1 and viewed it as a facilitator in L2 teaching, and therefore, was happy with her language choice. Apparently, she was in favour of a bilingual approach, which was likely to be a result of being a graduate of English Literature in which use of translation is regarded as normal. She believed that use of L1 was inevitable with YLs particularly

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

for giving instructions and guiding them as they were unable to deduce meaning based on the context. Learners' inability to understand her L2 use was another factor for her to employ L1 as she was discouraged with it. For Ayfer, L1 also served an effective way to enable learners, particularly the 2nd graders, to become familiarised with herself as a teacher and English as a language, and hence, building rapport with them. Use of L1 was also observed to be common for improving interpersonal relationship between her and children. From this viewpoint, it can be argued that she regarded L1 as a beneficial tool to help learners have good attitudes towards L2.

Regarding Esma's use of L1, the overall amount was around 62% during the observed classes. Drawing an interesting comparison between L1 use and "the salt on a meal", she emphasized judicious use of L1 in L2 teaching. She was well aware of the monolingual and bilingual arguments in that she gave credit to the facilitative role of L1 in L2 teaching, but at the same time, she did not ignore school's role as an important opportunity for learners to meet English. Although she was not happy with her actual amount since she employed more than she desired, her L1 use was considerably lower than the some participants (Betul and Melek). One factor leading her to use less L1 could be learners' being more able to understand her L2 use due to higher level of English (compared to rural learners) as they had chance to engage with English out of school and got support from their families who mostly had knowledge of foreign languages. She stated that she was happy with learners' and families' interest in English. In terms of L1 use across different grades, she used more L1 with the 2nd graders compared to 3rd and 4th grades as they were less able to understand her L2 use due to their younger age. She stated that she had to spoon-feed them with abundant instructions in L1 about what to do, since their cognitive abilities such as guessing and commenting are still developing. 2nd graders' being less able to manage their behaviours was another factor increasing amount of her L1 use for class management. As for her L1 use in general, she argued that she was constrained to use L1 by several factors such as learners' level, age, limited teaching time and pre-determined language points to teach. She also felt the necessity of use of L1 for learners to better understand the topics so that they would be successful

171

in the exam in the middle school (TEOG). Thus, different stakeholders including learners, families and school principals would be happy and she would avoid any possible reaction. From this perspective, it can be argued that stakeholders and TEOG exam had an implicit effect on Esma's L1 use.

Seda employed the lowest amount of L1 among the five participants, with around 24% overall. The amount decreased to as low as around 9% in some classes, which was quite in line with what she predicted about her L1 use. Seda was in favour of exclusive or near exclusive L2 use in L2 teaching and stated that she had almost never used L1 in high school previously. However, it was sometimes inevitable to use L1 with YLs in order to facilitate learning and solve major problems. It was also a beneficial tool to resort to when learners got stuck and there was no other choice. This was the most distinctive way of her teaching in that she pushed the limits of learners' understanding by using as much L2 as possible. It was observed that she rarely used L1 directly without trying L2 first. Having tried L2 use repeatedly with support of body language and gesture, she used L1 as a last resort. It was highly likely that she managed to keep L1 use at minimum with the help of professional development sessions. Unlike others who did not have a PD for a long time, she attended several trainings related to various aspects of teaching including L1 use in L2 classes. In this regard, it could be argued that she had great opportunity to improve her language use and develop strategies. Interestingly, despite keeping the amount at minimum, she too was disappointed with L1 use. It shows that she was much stricter towards L1 use in L2 classes. She used more L1 with the 2nd graders compared to the 3rd graders as they needed to be instructed more often probably as a result of their younger age. She also elicited answers from learners more often, which was reflected to amount of her L1 use for this purpose. In this regard, her way of teaching had some role to play in her L1 use. Building a good rapport with learners through L1 use was also important for her as she (together with Ayfer) used noticeably more L1 for interpersonal relation than other participants.

5.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the L1 practices of five participants in terms of amount, functions and motivations. The findings show that, compared to their amount of L1 use which varies greatly depending on the various specific contextual factors, the functions are more stable, mainly focusing on three major categories: instructions, feedback and asking questions. It was also found that they mostly feel guilty of their L1 use regardless of the amount but use it because of practical reasons and constraints such as limited time and achieving curriculum. Their L1 use is highly affected by specific classroom variables, mainly being the characteristics of learners as a result of being children – low proficiency level and inability to manage their behaviours.

The next chapter will discuss the pertinent findings by linking them to the literature.

Chapter 6 Discussion

This chapter aims to bring together the pertinent findings, discusses how they fit in the existing body of knowledge as well as comparing the findings with the previous studies. In line with the order of the results presented in the previous chapter, it discusses the related issues in three main sections which are amount of teachers' L1 use, functions of L1 use and underlying motivations for L1 use. Implications of this research are provided at the end of the chapter.

6.1 Amount of teachers' L1 use (RQ1)

The first RQ aimed to identify the amount of YL EFL teachers' L1 use in Turkish primary schools. As previously mentioned, this was achieved by observing 60 classes from five teachers working in different schools and meticulously examining the utterances used in L1 and L2. The results of this study show a number of similarities with previous studies, but also some important differences, which may be due to the peculiarities of the primary school setting. The results confirm Widdowson (2003) and Copland and Yonetsugi (2016) in that use of L1 is an inseparable and important component of L2 classes for the participants of this study. At this most general level, therefore, the study indicates that actual L1 use in primary classes is similar to higher levels (Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Edstrom, 2006; De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009) despite the academic debates around mono- and bilingual language teaching.

Despite lack of a commonly accepted amount of L1 use, participants' L1 use (particularly the upper limit of 84%) might be regarded as excessive by some, particularly those who are in favour of judicious L1 use (Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001; Ellis and Shintani, 2014; Littlewood and Yu, 2011). It also seems to contradict with teachers' pre-service education and MONE's language choice policy, which suggest a minimum amount of L1 for teachers in L2 classes in Turkey. However, although participants mostly

have similar beliefs in terms of "judicious" L1 use, they feel it necessary to use L1 for practical reasons, considering contextual factors, the most influential of which is learners' level of understanding.

Detailed analysis reveals that there is a high fluctuation in the amount of L1 use, ranging from 24% to 84%, which is also reported in the previous studies (Edstrom, 2006; Liu et al., 2004). Even a higher fluctuation was found between the lowest and highest amount of L1 in individual classes across participants (Seda's L1 use of 9% with the 3rd graders vs. Ayfer's L1 use of 99% with the 4th graders). According to the participants of this study, classroom variables are the main determinant factors in the amount of L1 use. Teachers take into consideration several factors to use L1, including learners' behaviours (IE5.16), feelings and emotions (IE5.12), and understanding of L2 use (IE5.17). The focus of the lesson also plays an important role in the decision-making process. They use more L1 when they think that the language items they intend to teach are challenging for learners to understand in L2 (IE5.42, IE5.43 and IE5.44). Therefore, they base their decision of using L1 on the immediate context, which is influenced by many factors.

Furthermore, it was observed that teachers' decision to use L1/L2 is affected by activity types and learners' familiarity with these. For example, Ayfer played games with the 3rd and 4th graders in the observed classes, but the amount of L1 use changed considerably (around 46% and 88% respectively) (see table 5.1 above) probably due to the nature of the games and learners' familiarity. Being already familiar with the game, the 3rd graders were required to sit and raise their hands to speak, so Ayfer was able to manage it with a few simple instructions in L2. However, she used L1 to introduce a new game to the 4th graders as they were not familiar with it. She also used L1 to deal with disciplinary issues which frequently occurred since learners moved around whilst playing the game. Therefore, although games were played in both classes, L1 use with older learners was almost twice as much as that of with younger ones because of combinations of various factors such as learners' familiarity with the game, their behaviours and nature of the game.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

The variation in the amount of L1 use across participants may also be attributed to the difference between the proficiency level of learners in rural and urban schools. Urban teachers employed less L1 probably due to learners' relatively higher ability to understand their L2 talk as a result of access to more facilities to engage with English (courses, private lessons and films). They also get support from their families who often have a good foreign language background, which is, according to participants, less likely to occur in rural schools. Therefore, rural teachers feel it more necessary to adjust their language and use L1 for learners' better understanding. The distinction between rural and urban learners' level of English was observed in several cases illustrated in the previous chapter (Extracts 5.1 and 5.2). Although further research is needed, the impact of being in rural or urban school is potentially an original finding that differentiates this study from the previous ones focusing on teachers' L1 use in primary schools. The differences between rural and urban schools may be an indication of the effects of inequality of access to English, which is mentioned in Section 2.1.2 above.

Although there is no linear change in the amount of L1 across grades, results show a curve in that participants used more L1 with the 2nd and the 4th graders than the 3rd graders. According to interview data, participants' more L1 use with the 2nd graders can be explained with their aim to familiarize learners with L2. They argue that 2nd graders are very new to L2 (data collection was carried out at the beginning of the academic term), so do not want to discourage by using excessive L2. With regards to higher amount of L1 use with the 4th graders, the presence of relatively challenging language points seems to play an important role. Participants want to form a sound basis for the exam in the middle school, which focuses on reading, grammar and vocabulary, so teach the intended language points by using L1. In this regard, although their L1 use is higher both with the 2nd and 4th graders, the reason behind this practice is different.

With regards to how teachers feel about their amount of L1 use, they had a mix of attitudes, although all used it to varying extents. Viewing it as a positive recourse in successful L2 teaching rather than an impediment to avoid, Ayfer was happy with the amount of her L1 use, while others had much more

negative feelings, stating that they ideally want to use much less L1 (not exclusive L2 though). Interestingly, Seda, who used the lowest amount of L1 with 24%, was still very self-critical in the same way those with much higher L1 use are since her ideal language teaching is through exclusive or near-exclusive L2 use. According to her, it is the use of exclusive L2 that differentiates teaching L2 from other subjects. Therefore, she gives little value of using L1 in L2 teaching. The most self-critical participant was Melek, who associated her excessive L1 use with being unsuccessful as a language teacher. Although she is not in favour of exclusive L2 use at all, she feels like a subject teacher rather than an English teacher due to her excessive L1 use, so doubts teaching English successfully. Their negative feelings about L1 use could be attributed to university education and MONE, both of which are in favour of L2 use as the language of instruction. This is possibly the prevailing attitude in ELT, outside academic circles, which still advocates the L2-only classroom. Hall and Cook (2012 p.297) call it as "entrenched monolingualism in ELT" which puts pressure on teachers to avoid L1 use. However, considering several factors affecting learning and teaching process, they become stuck between their beliefs about teaching mainly through L2 and practical reasons which, according to participants, necessitates L1 use. In the second interview (IE6.1 below), Melek explained the discrepancy between what they learned at the university in terms of language choice and what they feel that they have to do in primary schools.

> IE6.1
>
> The final year of the university was devoted to internship and we focused on speaking English all the time. All the lesson plans were in English, too. In fact, everything was in English. This is what we learned at the university. We were guided accordingly. However, it is completely different after starting actual teaching in real life. Although we were able to apply our university education in practice during practicum as they were middle and high schools with high level learners, this is currently not the case in primary schools. I am in contact with my classmates who also work in rural primary schools, and we all agree that we cannot apply what we learned at the university in real life.

The above extract shows that Melek was exposed to monolingual approach at ELT programme at the university. This is likely the source of her (and the other ELT graduates too) beliefs about ideal language

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

teaching through exclusive or near exclusive L2 use. However, they feel disappointed or guilty of inability to put their beliefs into practice. In order to ease teachers' sense of guilt by decreasing the contradiction between ideal language choice and the actual practice, a number of suggestions are provided in Section 6.4 below.

In terms of teachers' negative feelings about L1 use in L2 teaching, the study is similar to previous studies reporting teachers' sense of guilt arising from L1 use (Copland and Neokleous 2010; Edstrom, 2006; Hall and Cook, 2012; Littlewood and Yu 2011; Macaro, 2005). In the case of Copland and Neokleous (2011), teachers were critical of the amount by showing discomfort and regret, while teachers' views were much more negative in Littlewood and Yu (2011) since they associated L1 use with being unprofessional (as Melek did in this study). Macaro (2005 p.68) briefly explains the source of feeling guilty as teachers' viewing L1 as 'unfortunate and regrettable but necessary', which resonates with the attitudes of the teachers in this study. Such feeling may be harmful to teachers' well-being, so this should have important implications in order to overcome it.

6.2 Functions of teachers' L1 use (RQ2)

As previously explained in Section 4.8.2, major categories were designed with the help of previous studies which served as priori to build the ones for this study. However, minor categories were designed inductively based on participants' L1 practices since it was felt necessary to break down the major categories in order to better illustrate L1 practices. In fact, fine-grained categories were very beneficial to provide thick descriptions of participants' L1 practices such as type of the questions they asked in L1 and how they gave feedback to individual learners and to the whole class. This fine-grained analysis enabled a more detailed and in-depth understanding of L1 use and represents an original contribution to the literature, and they could be beneficial for future studies investigating L1 use.

This study comprises eight major and 24 sub-categories in total. Participants used L1 for mainly three major categories, which are instructions, confirmation/feedback and asking questions. These categories represent approximately 92% of the overall amount of L1.

Although teachers' use of L1 for the three main functions is commonly reported in the literature, there are several potentially important differences revealed by the more fine-graded categories used in this study. Task instructions, for example, is a function for which teachers frequently used L1 across various studies (Copland and Neokleous, 2011; De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Edstrom, 2006; Grim, 2010; Izquierdo, 2016; Sali, 2014). Teachers provided several justifications to employ L1 for task instructions such as to quickly engage with and practice using L2 without wasting time (De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009), to increase task efficiency and help the learners having difficulty in understanding L2 instructions (Sali, 2014), and to enable learners to clearly comprehend what they are supposed to do in the task (Grim, 2010). However, its use is found to be more frequent in the current research compared to previous work. This is likely to be a result of the younger age of the learners, which necessitates, according to the teachers themselves, frequent and clear guidance at every step and repeated instructions which are more efficiently given in the L1 (IE5.21 and IE5.22). Teachers also feel it necessary to use more L1 in case of new or relatively more complicated instructions in order to maintain the smooth running of the activities or tasks in a limited time. In this regard, L1 seems a useful tool for them to overcome learners' potential lack of understanding, which was often observed in different classes (Extract 5.22).

Similarly, although teachers working with older learners in different contexts use L1 for procedure to varying extents ranging from around 6% (in the case of Sali, 2014) to 8% (in the case of De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009), this function is more common for the participants of this study (an average of 17% approximately). The main reason is regarded as learners who would tend to be less socialised into school procedures and therefore need more instruction. Dealing with missing materials by using L1 was observed a common practice among teachers, which is less likely to be encountered with older

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

learners who are expected to be more aware of lesson-running procedures. Therefore, learners' young age is potentially an influential factor in teachers' L1 use for procedure. However, L1 use for procedure could potentially decrease over time as learners get familiarised with the procedures.

Teachers' L1 use for procedure also seems to be affected by a concern with getting on with the lesson, which is likely to lead teachers to favour L1 over L2 in this case. They mostly used L1 without trying L2 first, and this was observed to be very common among participants. Considering the frequent occurrence of procedural problems related to missing materials and the time constraint they argued they had, it can be said that the use of L1 provided convenience to continue the lesson quickly.

The use of L1 for classroom management is particularly interesting. The teachers in this study differed in the way they dealt with classroom management. The tighter the control they tried to keep over the class, the more they used L1 to manage the discipline (ranging from 5% to 16%). Age is likely to be a key factor in classroom management and therefore in the use of L1 to maintain it. Grim (2010) encountered no classroom management issues in a tertiary context, while high school teachers (Grim, 2010; Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu et al. 2004) had numerous disciplinary problems and so used L1 frequently for this function. Classroom management issues are even more likely to occur with YLs due to their characteristics as children (Pinter, 2017) including limited concentration span (Extracts 5.25, 5.26 and 5.27) and easy distraction or expressing their feelings overtly (Extracts 5.28 and 5.29). Although Nation (2003) is in favour of L2 use for frequently used structures of classroom management (as mentioned in Section 3.1.4), Cook (2001) supports managing discipline through L1 rather than L2 and argues that it is more efficient due to instant comprehension and a sign of being serious about discipline. However, if teachers are using L1 for a number of different functions, the sense of seriousness could be lost. Working towards marking a clear contrast to the use of L1 for discipline and other language use is likely to have a greater impact.

The use of L1 to give feedback is also a common finding across studies including this one (Al-Alawi, 2008; Copland and Yonetsugi, 2011; De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu et al., 2004). However, it was revealed with the help of the fine-grained categories that the teachers in this study were more focused on giving feedback on the content of learners' production, rather than on the form. Depending on the immediate context, they sometimes gave individual feedback as well as to the whole class for their verbal and written output by particularly giving praise and encouragement. It is likely that this is as a result of the learners' young age, to boost their self-confidence and motivation to learn L2, but there is a question over whether L1 is the most effective way of carrying out this function, or whether it could be done in the L2 supported by intonation and positive body language.

Where corrective feedback was given, the specific difficulties that learners had might have some role to play in teachers' use of L1. It was observed that some aspects of L2, such as writing and pronunciation, were particularly challenging for some learners. This difficulty might stem from the difference between two languages, so although teachers often did reinforcement activities in L2, they sometimes corrected learners' mistakes by using L1, at times drawing explicit attention to the contrasts.

Probably as a result of their use of inductive teaching method through question-answer sequences, teachers also frequently used L1 to ask display questions. In this way, they kept the learners active and increased learner involvement in the class. L1 use for asking questions is similar across studies (Al-Alawi, 2008; Copland and Neokleous, 2011; De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Sali, 2014). For example, L1 is used in display questions to increase learner engagement (Sali, 2014; De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009), for comprehension checks (De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009) and for translation when learners were not able to understand L2 questions (Liu et al., 2004). Therefore, L1 questioning practices appear to be similar across levels, although teachers' practices in this study differed from direct use of L1 to translation from L2 to L1 due to learners' lack of understanding the L2 questions. It was observed that

question-answer sequence mostly flowed smoothly in case of direct L1 use (Extracts 5.17 and 5.45) compared to L2 questions which sometimes caused communication breakdown (Extract 5.47). Thus, L1 questioning practices provided convenience for both teachers and learners in terms of smooth flow of communication.

6.3 Motivations behind teachers' L1 use (RQ3)

The third RQ aimed to identify the teachers' underlying reasons for employing L1 in the course of L2 teaching, and the findings are mainly based on interview data. Findings reveal five salient factors leading teachers to use L1, which are learners' proficiency level, achieving the target, saving time, particular language points and L1 use for no obvious reason. Some of these have already been mentioned in the previous sections in this chapter.

The reasons the teachers give for using L1 are, on the whole, similar to previous research. The most influential factor is learners' level which is, according to participants, too low to maintain a high amount of L2 use. They emphasised that they switch into L1 when children have difficulty, or they think that children would have difficulty. Although Chambers (1992) argues that L1 use due to this reason is as an underestimation of learners' L2 ability, learners' low proficiency level is commonly reported in the literature as a reason for L1 use (Bruen and Kelly, 2014; Copland and Neokleous, 2011; De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Edstrom, 2006; Hall and Cook, 2012; Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu et al., 2004). However, the learners in this study are YLs, and most have little or no prior language learning experience, a factor that teachers take into consideration when using L1. Therefore, the teachers place greater emphasis on learners' motivation and affective needs, not wanting to cause anxiety or discourage them by too much L2 use at the beginning of their English journey. Similar to what Sali (2014 p.316) found with middle school teachers in Turkey, teachers of this study appear to "place the learner at the heart of their decision-making processes for L1/L2 use". They also view early stages of

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

primary school as a transition period for familiarising learners with English by using both L1 and L2, a point also suggested by Reilly and Ward (2003).

However, teachers' view of the transition period is not supported by the analysis of the amount of L1 across different grades, which shows mixed results rather than a linear change. Although classroom variables are influential in L1 use, it could be supposed there would be a lesser amount of L1 with upper-level learners as they get more familiarised with L2 based on the idea of transition from L1 to L2, but this is not the case in this study (Figure 5.2). It suggests that teachers' implementation of transition might not be in line with how they think about it so they might need help to improve their way of conducting the transition period. However, in order to ascertain whether overall L1 use diminishes as grade increases, a more longitudinal study would be needed as data were collected in a short time period in the current one.

In addition to interviews, observations reveal that learners' lack of understanding is a determinant factor in teachers' L1 use. Teachers sometimes reverted back to L1 when learners failed to understand their L2. In this regard, they used it as a last resort to proceed the lesson following repeated use of L1 (Extracts 5.48, 5.49 and 5.50). However, there were times when teachers directly used L1 without experiencing learners' failure, probably due to assuming that learners would have difficulty in understanding their L2. Participants explained it as a discouragement arising from learners' low proficiency level. Their enthusiasm for L2 use decreases as a result of learners' failure to understand it, and this leads them to feel guilty of not being able to use more L2. They might need support to overcome such difficulties, which is explained in the following section.

In line with the previous research (De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Kim and Elder, 2008; McMillan and Rivers, 2011), achieving targets and saving time are found to be two other reasons leading teachers to use L1 in L2 classes. Being closely related to each other, these factors appear to put pressure on teachers to more quickly cover the language items by using L1. Regarding the target-oriented teaching,

183

teachers are supposed to teach the language topics which are determined by MONE within the allocated timeframe, and this forces them to focus on the targets rather than language choice in the classroom. Learners will be asked about these topics in the exams in middle school, and teachers feel responsible for covering them all for learners to be successful. Since L2 use takes more time to teach the intended topics in case of learners' lack of understanding, the teachers choose L1 to reach the targets more easily. As for the time constraint, they have only 80 minutes of English per week, which is not enough for them to meet the targets by using L2. In this regard, using L1 seems to be more practical in terms of saving time.

Another factor affecting teachers' L1 use is the presence of particular language points which might be challenging and confusing to teach in L2. These topics might be basic grammar points and vocabulary items as well as differences between two languages. According to the participants, there are relatively challenging topics in the 4th grades, which is the possible explanation for the general increase in L1 use for this grade across the participants. Considering the complexity level of the topics, participants use L1 for learners to successfully comprehend what they intend to say.

And finally, different from previous studies, an interesting finding emerged from the data. Teachers switched between L1 and L2 with no observable reason. In such occurrences, teachers continued the utterances using a different language without a pause between the switches. In fact, as Seda and Esma explained, they were not aware of such uses of L1 themselves, which implies that L1 use is sometimes an unconscious process depending on several factors affecting the classroom setting. Being bilingual might have some role to play in this as using either language is natural for them. Or, this might stem from the classroom environment, which comprises multiple aspects including instructional (e.g. tasks, teaching methods, curriculum), managerial (e.g. class discipline) and social context (Dörnyei, 2007). Teachers are supposed to take into consideration these factors simultaneously, and their conscious language choice might sometimes stay in the background. This is quite in line with the findings of Copland and Neokleous (2011) which reveal that teachers' language choice is complex, depending on

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

multiple factors, including their cognitive processes. In this regard, despite the lack of obvious reasons for teachers' L1 use, they use L1 based on complex decisions as a result of unobservable cognitive processes.

As mentioned in this section, participants stated several practical reasons to employ L1. Despite having similar justifications, their L1 practices differed greatly particularly in terms of amount. The most noticeable difference was between others and Seda who used much less L1 with YLs. Considering this, one might argue whether it would be possible to overcome the practical constraints by finding different solutions rather than easily using L1. Attending PD sessions especially about language use, for example, could be beneficial for teachers to develop L1/L2 strategies based on their context. Or, as Ayfer did, it might be a good practice to offer additional English classes to learners to overcome time constraint. However, it must be noted that this study investigated the issue in a short period of time, so it is a kind of snapshot of the teaching contexts. A longitudinal study would be better to capture more detailed variables affecting teachers' L1 practices.

To recapitulate this chapter, teachers used a noticeable amount of L1 to varying extents for various functions, considering contextual factors including learners' young age and motivation, the focus of the lesson, curriculum and time. Whilst some of these factors are likely to be global and common to teachers in many countries, many will be local, and depend on country-specific factors. Still others will depend on individual teachers, their way of teaching, learners and individual classes. Learners' young age makes L1 use even more complex by adding more variables to teachers' decision-making process on language choice. Teachers take into consideration multiple factors simultaneously, evaluate these and decide to use whichever the best language depending on the immediate context. While the use of L2 sometimes dominates, for example, in case of being a role model in L2, reinforcement activities or familiarising learners to L2, they feel it necessary to use L1 by considering many other variables, and they constantly make the decision of language choice by weighing pros and cons of each choice. Given the complexity of the factors involved and the individual variation found in this study, it is

185

questionable to attempt to establish basic principles (as Littlewood and Yu's (2011) framework for L1 use), let alone one-size-fits-all principles, that could act as any sort of guidelines for L1 use since specific variables come together in unique combinations for each context, each teacher and even each class taught by the same teacher. These findings have important implications for teacher education and development. Therefore, based on the discussed points so far, a number of recommendations are provided in the next section.

6.4 Recommendations

Firstly, as discussed previously, participants of this study mostly feel guilty about employing L1. This likely stems from their previous teacher education and MONE's guidelines, both of which suggest minimum or no L1 use in L2 classes. Considering the recent growth in favour of bilingual language teaching, it would be a better practice to support teachers make more informed language choices rather than imposing the minimum L1 use (or any certain amount). Teachers need to be made aware of their L1 use and given opportunities to reflect on it and the reasons for it, which may involve challenging teachers' current practices. Reasons for using L1, such as to give instructions in order to save time and ensure the smooth running of the lesson, given the pressure to cover the syllabus, may be sensible in the given context. Using L1 to praise children for their answers may seem less justifiable. For this reason, teachers should be offered awareness-raising training, which could be done through a range of ways, including action research (Burns, 2010) and peer observation (Bailey, 2006). In action research, for example, teachers can "adopt an investigative stance towards their own classroom practices" (Burns, 2009 p.290). More specifically, as Nunan (2018) explains the procedures, they can identify the problem (e.g. excessive L1 use for a specific function), think about a possible solution and implement it, collect post-intervention data, reflect on the process and share their experiences with others. They can do this in certain or all classes to overcome the dilemma of L1/L2 use and reach their own solutions and conclusions. This way of practice has a high potential to improve their language choice, help them use either language more confidently and become more autonomous in language

186

teaching. With regards to peer observation (for developmental purposes rather than evaluative in this case), teachers might have a great opportunity through cooperative learning by observing one another's lessons, build awareness and gain new ideas about L1/L2 use by discussing about their actual experiences. However, a number of issues need to be identified in advance in order to make the observations effective. For example, observations should be non-judgemental, carried out on a voluntary basis, and the focus of the observation should be agreed beforehand (Josh, 1999). Although time is one of the biggest problems for teachers, it is highly likely that they will get great satisfaction from both ways of professional development especially when they work collaboratively with other colleagues to share new ideas and insights.

Secondly, since it seems that there is no right or wrong answer regarding the L1 use in general and that teachers' language choice highly likely varies from context to context, it would be best to have pre-service teacher education programmes that help teachers be aware of the possibilities of both L1 and L2 use across the language functions. These trainings could include awareness-raising activities such as presentation of the debate around L1/L2 use and samples of classroom videos and extracts about language choice as well as discussion activities based on the specific cases. Thus, teachers can make informed decisions and develop principles that are suitable for the context in which they find themselves and that will best contribute to learning in their classrooms. In this way, as Kumaravadivelu (1994) and Macaro (2005) put it, it would be possible to empower teachers in terms of developing teaching strategies on language choice depending on contextual factors.

Thirdly, the teachers in this study recognised the need for a transition from L1 to L2 as the children develop familiarity with the L2. However, their language choice practice seems not to be aligned with their beliefs since the amount of L1 use does not decrease with upper grades. Therefore, support for teachers in transitioning to a balance in L1 and L2 language use should be included in in-service teacher education. Teachers should be encouraged to attend these trainings as most of them have barely taken any training recently.

Finally, teachers stated that use of L1/L2 is not generally part of pre-service teacher education which only suggests the language of instruction should be mainly L2 in L2 classes. According to Hall and Cook (2012 p.297), this is "entrenched monolingualism in ELT" which is still a common belief among institutions across the world. However, discouraging teacher candidates from L1 use is like what Turnbull and Dailey-O'cain (2009 p.183) call as "sweeping this complex topic under the carpet" which, as stated above, leads them to have negative attitudes towards L1 and puts pressure on them as they are not aware of language choice strategies. Therefore, prospective teachers should be offered a more flexible approach in terms of L1 use. In this way, they could be more confident in using L1 in order to successfully teach L2 rather than viewing it as unfortunate.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

This study set out to investigate YL teachers' L1 practices in English classes in Turkish primary schools. More specifically, by looking at their actual classroom experiences, it examined to what extent and for what functions teachers use L1 in L2 classes. It also explored the underlying motivations to use L1 in the course of teaching English to YLs.

Analysis of teachers' talk revealed that use of L1 is an important component of L2 classrooms for the participants who used it in every observed lesson to varying extents. Depending on several contextual factors, including learners' level, motivation and focus of the lesson, a considerable fluctuation was found across teachers. Among these factors, participants state that learners' level played the most important role in their L1 use. However, they generally felt guilty of using L1 as they would ideally want to use less L1.

Although a large number of categories were identified in teachers' talk, it was found that participants of this study used L1 to a large extent for three major functions; instructions, feedback and asking questions. The most commonly L1 used sub-functions were task instructions, procedure, classroom management, content feedback and display questions. Learners' young age was found to be influential, especially for L1 use instructional purposes. According to participants, use of L1 provided great convenience for a smooth running of the activities, overcoming procedural issues stemming from learners' unfamiliarity with the school procedures, and dealing with disciplinary issues which were observed to be common in the observed classes.

Overall, teachers gave a number of reasons which explicitly led them to use L1; namely, learners' proficiency level, achieving targets, saving time and particular language points. Learners' proficiency level was found to be a key factor shared by all participants who take into consideration learners' young age, affective needs and motivation.

7.1 Limitations

One of the limitations of this study is the sample size. The study comprises a total of five participants who work in state schools in one country; therefore, it is not generalisable to a wider community. Considering the diversity of teaching contexts across the world, the findings can differ in other contexts. However, as stated in section 4.5, the aim of the study is not to generalise findings but an in-depth understanding of teachers' L1 use. Collection of substantial data served this purpose and enabled to examine L1 practices in this particular context and answer the RQs thoroughly.

Another limitation is the time of data collection. Data were collected at the beginning of the school year when 2nd graders were just starting to learn English, and higher grades had just returned from long summer holidays. This might have affected teachers' L1 use, particularly in terms of a high amount of L1 as learners were not fully familiarised with English.

Due to practical reasons and scope of this research, this study focused entirely on teachers' perspectives and their L1 practices with YLs. Views on L1 use might not be the same as different stakeholders who are learners, policymakers and teacher trainers. Therefore, the results should be evaluated considering this factor.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the study provided insights in YL English teachers' L1 practices in particular contexts in a certain period of time. It might be useful for other teachers, particularly less experienced ones, to make a comparison between their practices and the results of this study considering the contextual factors and make informed decisions on L1 use.

7.2 Suggestions for future research

It would be useful to conduct a longitudinal study over the school year to investigate whether the teachers' L1 practices change as the children become more familiar with English. This would enable to gain a fuller and deeper understanding of the teachers' L1 use. Moreover, it is likely to help to plan

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

PDs and policy on teachers' language use in L2 classes. In this way, teachers would be more informed about L1 use and improve their practices.

Moreover, future research can examine the use of L1 in L2 classes from various perspectives by taking different discourse analytical approaches such as conversation analysis (Markee, 2000) and interactional sociolinguistics (Hymes, 1977). In terms of interactional sociolinguistics angle, for example, it would be useful to see how disruptive L1/L2 use can be and the effects of L1/L2 use on classroom interaction. Such research is needed on this issue to shed light on language choice in L2 teaching/learning in different settings, help the teachers in a better way and thus create more learning opportunities for learners.

It would also be interesting to get YLs' perspectives on L1 use and listen to their voices, actively involving them in research and getting their "unique insights", a point also emphasised by Pinter (2018 p.413). They might provide valuable perspectives on L1 use by complementing teachers' views. It would also be possible to compare their views and take necessary precautions for teachers' future practice.

To conclude, L1 use in L2 teaching/learning has recently attracted considerable attention in favour of L1 use and the majority of empirical studies, including the current one, confirm teachers' use of L1. However, because of the complexity of the issue, more research including various perspectives with diverse designs is needed to improve L2 teaching practice by providing insightful recommendations.

191

References

Al-Alawi, T. M. (2008) Teachers' beliefs and practices about the use of the L1, In Borg, S. (Ed.), *Investigating English language teaching and learning in Oman* (1-9). Muscat: Ministry of Education, Oman.

Anderson, J. and Lightfoot, A. (2018) Translingual practices in English classrooms in India: current perceptions and future possibilities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-22.

Armstrong, D., Gosling, A., Weinman, J. and Marteau, T. (1997) The Place of Inter-Rater Reliability in Qualitative Research: An Empirical Study. *Sociology,* 31(3), 597–606.

Assalahi, H. M. (2013) Why Is the Grammar-translation Method Still Alive in the Arab World? Teachers' Beliefs and Its implications for EFL Teacher Education. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 3(4), 589–599.

Auerbach, C. and Silverstein, L. B. (2003) *Qualitative data: An introduction to coding and analysis*. New York: NYU press.

Bailey, K. M. (2006) *Language teacher supervision: A case-based approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Baker, A.A. and Lee, J.J. (2011) Mind the Gap: Unexpected Pitfalls in Doing Classroom Research. *Qualitative Report*, 16(5), 1435-1447.

Bhooth, A., Azman, H., and Ismail, K. (2014) The role of the L1 as a scaffolding tool in the EFL reading classroom. *Procedia-social and behavioral sciences*,*118*, 76-84.

British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2011). [online] Available at: https://www.bera.ac.uk/researchers-resources/publications/ethical-guidelines-for-educational-research-2011 (Accessed: 15 May 2019).

Bourgoin, R. (2014) The Predictive Effects of L1 and L2 Early Literacy Indicators on Reading in French Immersion. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 70(3), 355–380.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

British Council (2013) *Turkey National Needs Assessment of State School English Language Teaching*. Ankara: Mattek.

Brooks-Lewis, K. A. (2009) Adult learners' perceptions of the incorporation of their L1 in foreign language teaching and learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(2), 216–235.

Bruen, J. and Kelly, N. (2014) Using a shared L1 to reduce cognitive overload and anxiety levels in the L2 classroom, *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(3), 368–381.

Bryman, A. (2016) *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burns, A. (2009) Action research and second language teacher education. In J. Richards and A. Burns (Eds.) *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (289-297). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Burns, A. (2010) *Doing action research in English language teaching: A guide for practitioners*. New York: Routledge.

Butzkamm, W. (2003) We only learn language once. The role of the mother tongue in FL classrooms: death of a dogma. *The Language Learning Journal*, 28(1), 29–39.

Cameron, L. (2001) *Teaching languages to young learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univerisity Press.

Cameron, L. (2003) Challenges for ELT from the expansion in teaching children. *ELT Journal*, 57(2), 105–112.

Casanave, C. P. (2015) Case Studies. In Paltridge, B. and Phakiti, A. (Eds*.) Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource* (119-135). London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Choi, J., Kushner, K.E., Mill, J. and Lai, D.W. (2012) Understanding the language, the culture, and the experience: translation in cross-cultural research, *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* 11(5), 652-665.

Cook, G. (2009) Foreign language teaching. in Baker, M. and Saldanha, G. (Eds.) *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (112–115). New York: Routledge.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

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

Cook, V. (2001) Using the First language in the classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), 402–423.

Cook, V. (2005) Basing Teaching on the L2 User. In Llurda, E. (Ed.) *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession* (47–61.) Boston, MA: Springer.

Cook, V. (2009) Multilingual Universal Grammar as the Norm. In Leung, Y. I. (Ed.) *Third language acquisition and universal grammar* (55-70). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Cook, V. (2016) Premises of multi-competence. In Cook, V. and Wei, L. (Eds.) *The Cambridge Handbook of Linguistics Multi-Competence* (1-25). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cook, V. (2008) *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Hodder Education.

Copland, F. (2018) L1 in the primary classroom – some considerations. *IATEFL TEYLT Worldwide*, 2, 56-60.

Copland, F. and Garton, S. with Davis, M. (Eds.) (2012) Crazy animals and other activities for teaching young learners. London: British Council and BBC. Available at: https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/crazy-animals-other-activities-teaching-young-learners

Copland, F. and Garton, S. (2014) Key themes and future directions in teaching English to young learners: Introduction to the Special Issue. *ELT Journal*, 68(3), 223–230.

Copland, F., Garton, S. and Burns, A. (2014) Challenges in Teaching English to Young Learners: Global Perspectives and Local Realities. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(4), 738–762.

Copland, F. and Neokleous, G. (2011) L1 to teach L2: Complexities and contradictions. *ELT Journal*, 65(3), 270–280.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Copland, F and Ni, M. (2018) Languages in the young learner classroom. In Garton, S. and Copland, F. (Eds.) *The Routledge Handbook of Teaching English to Young Learners* (138-153). Oxon: Routledge.

Copland, F. and Yonetsugi, E. (2016) Teaching English to Young Learners: Supporting the Case for the Bilingual Native English Speaker Teacher. *Classroom Discourse*, 7(3), 221–238.

Cosh, J. (1999) Peer observation: A reflective model. *English Language Teaching Journal,* 53(1), 22-27.

Cowie, N. (2009) Observation. In Heigham, J. and Croker, R. A. (Eds.) *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction* (165–181). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Creese, A. and Blackledge, A. (2010) Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The modern language journal,* 94(1), 103-115.

Creswell, J. W. (2013) *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Crystal, D. (2003) *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. (2005) A Proposal for Action: Strategies for Recognizing Heritage Language Competence as a Learning Resource within the Mainstream Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal,* 89(4), 585-592.

Cummins, J. (2009) Multilingualism in the classroom: Pedagogical Considerations. *TESOL Quarterly*, 43(2), 317–321.

De La Campa, J. C. and Nassaji, H. (2009) The amount, purpose, and reasons for using L1 in L2 classrooms. *Foreign Language Annuals*, 42(4), 742–759.

Denscombe, M. (2014) *The Good Research Guide*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Denzin, N. K. (2015) Triangulation. *The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Sociology.* 1-6.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2005) Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative

Research. In Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Doğançay-Aktuna, S and Kiziltepe, Z. (2005) English in Turkey. *World Englishes*, *24*(2), 253-265.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009) *The Psychology of Second Language Acquisition* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) (2015). [online] Available at:
https://esrc.ukri.org/files/funding/guidance-for-applicants/esrc-framework-for-research-ethics-2015/ (Accessed: 16 May 2019).

Edstrom, A. (2006) L1 Use in the L2 Classroom: One Teacher's Self-Evaluation. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(2), 275–292.

Edstrom, A. M. (2009) Teacher reflection as a strategy for evaluating L1 / L2 use in the classroom. *Bablylonia*, 1(9), 12–15.

Ellis, R. (2005) Principles of instructed language learning. *System*, 33(2), 209–224.

Ellis, R. (2008) Principles of Instructed Second Language Acquisition. *CAL Digest*, 12, 1–6.

Ellis, G. (2014). 'Young learners': clarifying our terms, *ELT journal*, *68*(1), 75-78.

Ellis, R. and Shintani, N. (2014) *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. London: Routledge.

Emerson, R. M., Rachel, I. F. and Shaw, L. L. (2007) Participant Observation and Fieldnotes' In Atkinson, P., Coffey, A., Delamont, A., Lofland, J. and Lofland, L. (Eds.) *Handbook of Ethnography* (352-368). London: Sage.

Enever, J. (2015) The Advantages and Disadvantages of English as a Foreign Language with Young Learners. In J. Bland (Ed.) *Teaching English to young learners: Critical issues in language teaching with 3-12 year olds* (13-29). London: Bloomsbury.

Enever, J. and Moon, J. (2010) A global revolution? Teaching English at primary school'. Paper delivered for British Council Seminars. Available at http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/seminars/ a-global-revolution-teaching-english-primaryschool (accessed on 05 Jan 2020).

Erkan, S. S. S. (2012) Problems of English language instruction in primary in Turkey and their suggestions. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 46, 1117-1121.

Garton, S. and Copland, F. (2010) I like this interview; I get cakes and cats!': the effect of prior relationships on interview talk. *Qualitative research,* 10(5), 533-551.

Garton, S., Copland, F. and Burns, A. (2011) Investigating global practices in teaching English to Young Learners. *British Council*, 11(1), 35–68.

Garton, S. and Kubota, R. (2015) Joint colloquium on plurilingualism and language education: Opportunities and challenges, (AAAL/TESOL). Language Teaching, 48(3), 417–421.

Gass, S.M and Mackey, A. (2017) *Stimulated Recall Methodology in Applied Linguistics and L2 Research.* New York: Routledge.

Gobo, G. and Marciniak, L. T. (2016) What is Ethnography?. In Silverman, D. (Ed.) *Qualitative Research* (103–120). London: Sage.

Grim, F. (2010) L1 in the L2 Classroom at the Secondary and College Levels: A Comparison of Functions and Use by Teachers. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 7(2), 193–209.

Hall, G. and Cook, G. (2012) Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, 45(3), 271–308.

Holliday, A. (2007) *Doing and Writing Qualitative Research.* London: Sage.

Holstein, J. A. and Gubrium, J. F. (2004) The active interview. In Silverman, D. (Ed.) *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice* (140-161). London: Sage.

Hood, M. (2009) Case Study. In Heigham, J. and Croker, R. A. (Eds.) *Qualitative Research in Applied*

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Linguistics: A Practical Introduction. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 66–90.

Howard, A. M. (2018) Teaching English for Pre-Service Teachers: Principles and Practice Activities. *The Language Teacher*, 42(2), 9–12.

Hughes, A. (2003) *Testing for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hymes, D. (1977) *Foundations in sociolinguistics: An ethnographic approach*. London: Tavistock.

Izquierdo, J., Martinez, V. G., Pulido, M. G. G., and Zuniga, S. P. A. (2016) First and target language use in public language education for young learners: Longitudinal evidence from Mexican secondary-school classrooms. *System*, 61, 20–30.

Janesick, V. (1998) The dance of qualitative research design: Metaphor, methodology, and meaning. In Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (35–55). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Jarvis, S. and Pavlenko, A. (2008) *Crosslinguistic influence in language and cognition*. New York: Routledge.

Kılıçkaya, F. (2016) Washback effects of a high-stakes exam on lower secondary school English teachers' practices in the classroom. *Lublin Studies in Modern Languages and Literature*, 40(1), 116-134.

Killam, L. (2013) *Research terminology simplified: Paradigms, axiology, ontology, epistemology and methodology*. Sudbury, ON: Laura Killam.

Kim, S. H. O. and Elder, C. (2008) Target language use in foreign language classrooms: Practices and perceptions of two native speaker teachers in New Zealand. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 21(2), 167–185.

Kirkgoz, Y. (2007) English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementations. *RELC Journal*, 38(2), 216–228.

Kirkgoz, Y. (2008) A case study of teachers' implementation of curriculum innovation in English language teaching in Turkish primary education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(7),

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

1859–1875.

Kirkgoz, Y., Celik, S. and Arikan, A. (2016) Laying the Theoretical and Practical Foundations for a New Elementary English Curriculum in Turkey : A Procedural Analysis. *Kastamaonu Education Journal*, 24(3), 1199–1212.

Kothari, C. (2004) *Research methodology: methods and techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.

Krashen, S. D. (1982) *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994) The postmethod condition:(E)merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL quarterly*, 28(1), 27-48.

Lado, R. (1957) *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press.

Liao, P. (2006) EFL Learners' Beliefs about and Strategy Use of Translation in English Learning. *RELC Journal*, 37(2), 191–215.

Lin, A. (2013) Classroom code-switching: Three decades of research. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *4*(1), 195-218.

Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (2000) Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions and Emerging Confluences. In Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research (*163–188). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Littlewood, W. and Yu, B. (2011) First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 44(1), 64–77.

Liu, D., Ahn, G., Baek, K. and Han, N. (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.

Long, M. H. (1996) The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In Ritchie,

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

W. and Bhatia, T. (Eds.) *Handbook of second language acquisition* (413–468). San Diego: Academic Press.

Macaro, E. (2001) Analysing Student Teachers ' Codeswitching in Foreign Language Classrooms : Theories and Decision Making. *The modern Language Journal*, 4(85), 531–548.

Macaro, E. (2005) Codeswitching in the L2 Classroom: A Communication and Learning Strategy. In Llurda, E. (Ed.) *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession* (63–84). Boston, MA: Springer.

Macaro, E. (2009) Teacher Use of Codesswitching in the Second Language Classroom: Exploring "Optimal" Use. In Turnbull, M. and Dailey-O'Cain, J. (Eds.) *First Language Use in Second and Foreign Language Learning* (35–49). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Macaro, E. (2013) Overview: Where should we be going with classroom codeswitching research?. In Barnard, R. and McLellan, J. (Eds.) *Codeswitching in University English-Medium Classes: Asian Perspectives* (10-23). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Macaro, E. and Lee, J. H. (2013) Teacher language background, codeswitching, and English-only instruction: Does age make a difference to learners' attitudes?. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(4), 717–742.

Mahboob, A. and Lin, A. M. (2016). Using local languages in English language classrooms. In Renandya, W. A. and Widodo, H. P. (Eds.) *English language teaching today: Linking theory and practice* (25-40). New York: Springer.

Mahmoud, S.S. (2012) The Effect of Using L1 (Arabic Language) in the L2 (English Language) Classroom on the Achievement in General English of Foundation Year Students in King Abdulaziz University. *Sino-US English Teaching,* 9(12), 1733-1738.

Mahmutoglu, H. and Kicir, Z. (2013) The Use of Mother Tongue in EFL Classrooms. *LAÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi,* 4(1), 49-72.

Mak, N. L. (2015) An Investigation of L1 effects on Macao Cantonese English learners in their English writings. *Journal of Modern Education Review*, 5(3), 253–260.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Mann, S. (2010) A critical review of qualitative interviews in applied linguistics. *Applied linguistics,* 32(1), 6-24.

Markee, N. (2000) *Conversation analysis.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Maxwell, J. A. (2010) Using Numbers in Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(6), 475–482.

McManus, K. (2015) L1-L2 Differences in the Acquisition of Form-Meaning Pairings in a Second Language. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 71(2), 155–181.

McMillan, B. A. and Rivers, D. J. (2011) The practice of policy: Teacher attitudes toward "English only", *System*, 39(2), 251–263.

McMillan, B.A. and Turnbull, M. (2009) Teachers' use of the L1 in French immersion: revisiting a core principle. In M. Turnbull and J. Dailey-O'Cain (Eds.), *First language use in second and foreign language learning* (15-34). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Meij, H. V. D. and Zhao, X. (2010) Codeswitching in English Courses in Chinese Universities. *The modern Language Journal*, 94(3).

Ministry of National Education (MONE) (1997) *Foreign Language Teaching Regulation*. [online] Available at: http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/18868_0.html [Accessed 01 May 2020].

Ministry of National Education (MONE) (2006) *Foreign Language Teaching Regulation*. [online] Available at: http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/26184_1.html [Accessed 01 May 2018].

Ministry of National Education (MONE) (2018) *Foreign Language Teaching Regulation*. [online] Available at: http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=327 [Accessed 03 Mar 2020].

Moon, J. (2005) *Children Learning English*. Oxford: MacMillan.

Moyer, A. (2006) Language Contact and Confidence in Second Language Listening Comprehension: A Pilot Study of Advanced Learners of German. *Foreign language annals*, *39*(2), 255-275.

Mu, C. and Carrington, S.B. (2007) An investigation of three Chinese students' English writing

strategies. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 11(1), 1-23.

Nation, P. (2003) The role of the first language in foreign language learning. *Asian EFL Journal*, 5(2),
1–8.

Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E. and Moules, N. J. (2017) Thematic Analysis : Striving to Meet
the Trustworthiness Criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 16, 1–13.

Nunan (2018) Teacher research in second language education in Xerri, D. and Pioquinto, C. (Eds.)
Becoming research literate: Supporting teacher research in English language teaching (7-12).
Sursee, Switzerland: ETAS.

Oga-Baldwin, W. Q. and Nakata, Y. (2014) Optimizing new language use by employing young
learners' own language. *ELT Journal*, *68*(4), 410-421.

Perry, F. L. (2011) *Research in applied linguistics: Becoming a discerning consumer*. New York:
Routledge.

Perwitasari, A., Klamer, M., Witteman, J. and Schiller, N.O. (2015) Vowel duration in English as a
second language among Javanese learners. *Proceedings of the 18th International Congress of
Phonetic Sciences (ICPhS 2015)*, 2–5.

Pinter, A. (2011) *Children learning second languages*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Pinter, A. (2012) Teaching young learners. In Burns, A. and Richards, J. C. (Eds.) *Pedagogy and
Practice in Second Language Teaching* (103-111). Cambridge: Cambridge Univeristy Press.

Pinter, A. (2017) *Teaching young language learners*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pinter, A. (2018). Research issues with young learners. In Garton, S. and Copland, F. (Eds.) *The
Routledge Handbook of Teaching English to Young Learners* (411- 424). Oxon: Routledge.

Rapley, T.J. (2001) The art (fulness) of open-ended interviewing: some considerations on analysing
interviews. *Qualitative research,* 1(3), 303-323.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Reilly,V. and Ward, S.M. (2003) *Very young learners.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2014) *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, K. (2003) *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Richards, K. (2009) Interviews. In Heigham, J. and Croker, R. A. (Eds.) *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction* (182–199). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Ritchie, J. and Spencer, L. (2002) Qualitative data analysis for applied policy research. In Bryman, A. and Burgess, R. G. (Eds.) *Analyzing qualitative data* (173–194). London: Routledge.

Rolin-Ianziti, J. and Brownlie, S. (2002) Teacher Use of Learners' Native Language in the Foreign Language Classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 58(3), 402–426.

Rolin-Ianziti, J. Varshney, R. (2008) Students' views regarding the use of the first language: An exploratory study in a tertiary context maximizing target language use. *Canadian modern language review*, 65(2), 249-273.

Ryen, A. (2016) Research Ethics and Qualitative Research. In Silverman, D. (Ed.) *Qualitative Research* (31–48). London: Sage.

Sali, P. (2014) An analysis of the teachers' use of L1 in Turkish EFL classrooms. *System*, 42(1), 308–318.

Scott, V. M. and Fuente, M. J. (2008) What's the Problem? L2 Learners' Use of the L1 During Consciousness-Raising, Form-Focused Tasks. *The modern Language Journal*, 92(1), 100–113.

Seawright, J. and Gerring, J. (2008) Case selection techniques in case study research: A menu of qualitative and quantitative options. *Political research quarterly*, 61(2), 294-308.

Shin, J. K. (2006) Ten helpful ideas for teaching English to young learners. *English Teaching Forum*, 44 (2), 2-13.

Silverman, D. (2013) *Doing qualitative research*. London: Sage.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Siregar, R. (2018) Grammar Based Translation Method in translation teaching. *International Journal of English Language and Translation Studies*, 2(6), 148 – 54.

Slattery, M. and Willis, J. (2001) *English for primary teachers: A handbook of activities and classroom language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Song, D. and Lee, J. H. (2019) The use of teacher code-switching for very young EFL learners. *ELT Journal,* 73(2), 144-153.

Spada, N. (2007) Communicative Language Teaching: Current Status and Future Prospects. In Cummins, J. and Davison, C. (Eds.) *International handbook of English Language Teaching* (271–287). New York: Springer.

Stake, R. (2005) Qualitative Case Studies. In Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (443-466). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Storch, N. and Wigglesworth, G. (2003) Is There a Role for the Use of the L1 in an L2 Setting?. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), p. 760.

Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (2000) Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language teaching research*, 4(3), 251-274.

Talmy, S. and Richards, K. (2010) Theorizing qualitative research interviews in applied linguistics. *Applied linguistics,* 32(1), 1-5.

Turnbull, M. (2001) There is a Role for the L1 in Second and Foreign Language Teaching, But…. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(4), 531–540.

Turnbull, M. and Arnett, K. (2002) Teachers' Uses of the Target and First Languages in Second and Foreign Language Classrooms. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 204–218.

Turnbull, M and Dailey, O'Cain, J. (2009) Concluding Reflections: Moving Forward. In Turnbull, M. and Dailey-O'Cain, J. (Eds.) *First Language Use in Second and Foreign Language Learning* (182-186). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978) *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Walsh, S. (2011) *Exploring Classroom Discourse Language in Action, Oxon: Routledge.*

Weitz, M., Pahl, S., Flyman Mattsson, A., Buyl, A. and Kalbe, E. (2010) The Input Quality Observation Scheme (IQOS): The nature of L2 input and its influence on L2 development in bilingual preschools. *Bilingual preschools*, *1*, 5-44.

Widdowson, H. G. (2003) *Defining issues in English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wilden, E. and Porsch, R. (2020) Teachers' self-reported L1 and L2 use and self-assessed L2 proficiency in primary EFL education. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 10(3), 631-655.

Wood, D., Bruner, J.S. and Ross, G. (1976) The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of child psychology and psychiatry,* 17(2), 89-100.

Yıldırım, İ. and Vural, Ö. F. (2014) Problems related with teacher training and pedagogical formation in Turkey. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 3(1), 73-90.

Yin, R. K. (2018) *Case study research and applications: Design and methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
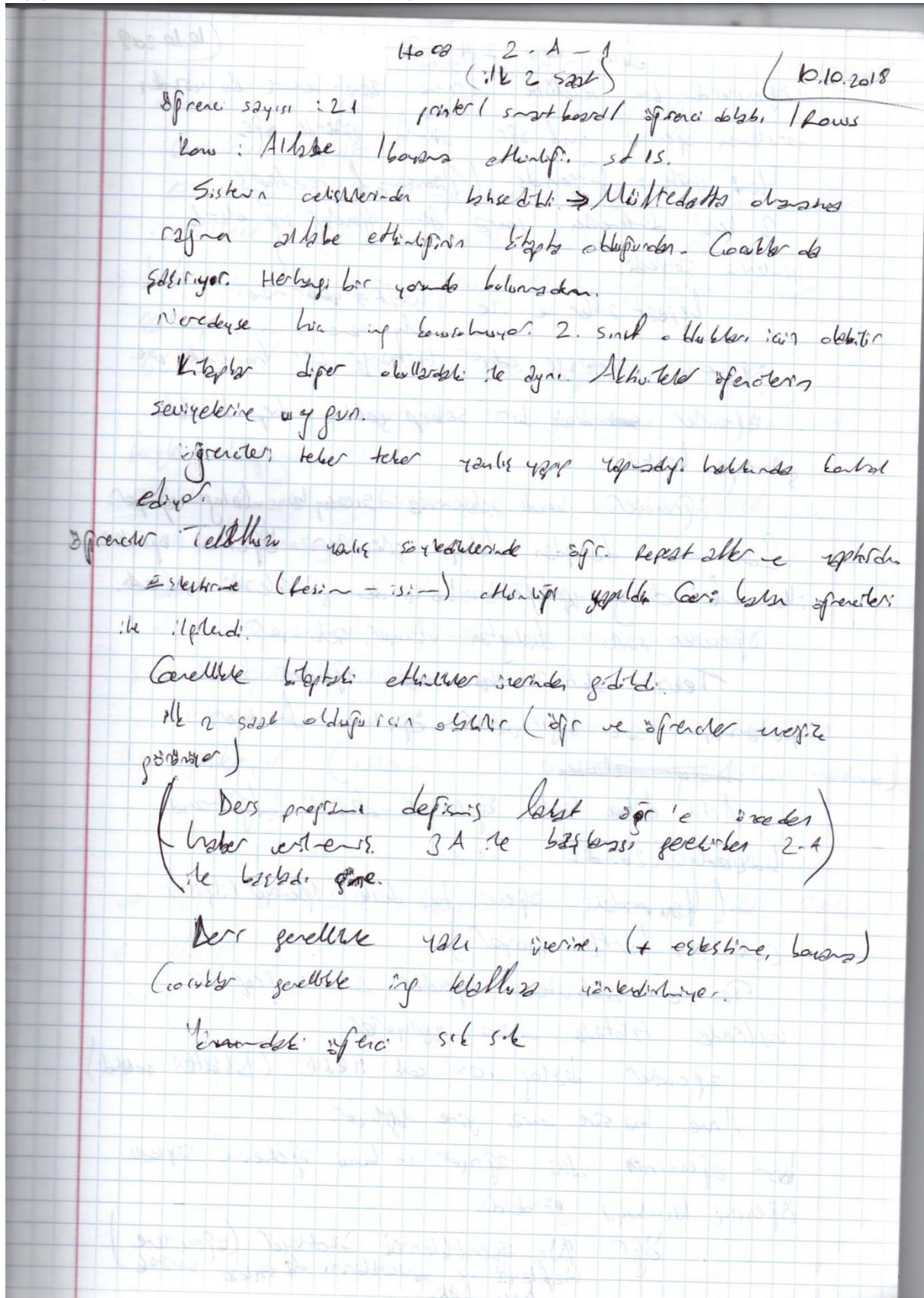
206

Mevcut: 15

Selamlaşma

ÖL ⟹ öğrenciler hemen silecekleri açıklıyor.

ÖL ⟹ ödev kontrolüne başladı. Hoca birer birer
yapıyor. Başka bir öğr. "Hatır hocasının" dizle
bağıdan ödevini göstererek

Öğrencilere +, ±, − atlıyor ödev kitaplıklarına göre

Eleştiri: Atlan öğrencinin sesi çıkmıyor. Bir öğrenci
kendisine eleştiren öğrenciye üzgün üzgün (biraz da
endişeli) bakıyor.

Öğrt. sesini kontrol ederken bazı öğr. arkadaşlarının işlerine
bakıyor.

Öğrt. mektuplu varlıklarını girdi ve doğru bir şekilde
yazmaları için öğrencileri uyardı.

⟹ Sınıf hareketlenmiş

Repeat after me.

Pronunciation (whole class) sıkıntılı olunca, birer birer
yaptırıyor.

Öğrt. öğrencilerin en ufak direnişlerini, yaramazlığına
kızıyor.

Özellikle tablsllurk bayır öğr. gösteriyor

ÖL ⟹ Adresbum okudu.

ÖL ⟹ Bir toplaş prosesi öğrenime ekine, iyi ülke olur.
Öğrenciler henüz üye işlerini öğrenmiş. Evde
sadece yapmışlar fakat öğrenememiş.

Mevcut: 29   Hoca L - A - S   6.11.18

2 dk serit beste
inf sekmeyere
Yine How are you? ve değişik cevaplarla başladı.
Sone takeovers
Çocuklar toplanma çalışıyor.
Bilgi veriyor.
Bu sınıfta 2 suriyeli cam... vardınar olan.
① Oyuna başlıyorlar. (illerle ilgili boys & girls yarışıy)
Açıca daha pismedi. Öğrenciler yapmak ... istiyor.
Oyun öğretici (soru cevap + öğrencinin alması geliyor tekellüz)
                ilke millet # hayat

Öğrenciler ilk başta biraz görüpeseler de oyunu, şim—di
gayet istekli bir şekilde oynuyorlar, parmak kaldırıyorlar.
Aslında anlamak inf. öğrenmekten ziyade yer. Sınıfta
bir yarışın gelmiş; istemek için uğraşıyorlar. Hangi
grup doğru yaparsa diğerinin bir uzuvunu siliyor ve
bu da öğrencilerin hoşuna gidiyor. (şekil ...)
Oyun renkli... kapandı.
1-(örtana ...)
Geçerli soru. (I can ...) Öğrenciler de uygulamalı
yapıyor. Çok mutlu görünüyorlar, pek ses
çıkacak diye endişeleniyor hoca.
Can'lere giriş yaptılar.

di—b (öğretmek için teklif yaptı.)
Birçok diode uyguladıktan sonra tekrar bir
soru.
Çocuklar hızlı diziliveriyor.

İlk başta sınıfı kontrol için hazırlıyor. Tahtayı hazırlad.
Daha sonra activity instruction ın Eng. (TC olarak tek tek
öğrencilere sorarak)

(Listen circle from book.

Çocuklar işe dikkat. Bazı öğrenciler birbirine bakarak yardım
alarak yapıyor. Öğr. dürdüererek uyarıyor.

Kaçar öğrencilerin velileri geldi ve biraz sinirliydi.
Ders biraz bölündü. middle yönlendirdi. Şimdi öğrenciler birer birer
tahtaya gelip circle yapıyorlar, yanlış yaparken arkadaşlarına
dönüttürüyor öğr. Aktivite esnasında sınıf kontrolü için
sürekli TC konuşuyor.

Öğrenciler bir arkadaşları yanlış yaptığında gülme gülümsüyor-
lar. Öğr. bunu engellemeye çalışıyor.

Şaka arada bir zaman TC konuşuyor.
Ayrıca telaffuz sıkıntısında (13) TR (değişik)
bir şekilde çalışıyor).

Çalışıyor (yapmak istemeyen bir öğrenciyi encourage etmek
son TC. (az öğrenci uşre de yapmak istemedi)

→ Yine başka bir veli geldi (gel-eval (kaçan öğrencilerin)
            worksheet dağıtılıyor (kitap ve defterler kaldırılıyor)
II. activity dağıtıyor (şaka yollu, ilgi çekmek için)
            unscramble the numbers (yazılı ski)
instructionlar TC.

→ Yine başka bir veli geldi, öğrencinin çıktısını almak için.
Aktivitere devam. Bazı öğrenciler birlikte yapıyor, bazıları
ise kitaplarına gizlice bakarak yapıyorlar. Yine de
yanlış yapıyorlar bazıları. Arada bir hand kaldırıp
belli cevap vermerceme. Doğru vermeyince devam ediyorlar

Appendix B – Sample interview transcript

The second interview with Esma

INTERVIEWER: I have had a lot of fun in your classes. So, you have prepared quite original things for activity. And I would like to congratulate you.

ESMA: Thank you. I really need such kind of encouragement.

INTERVIEWER: Really, it is so great to be able to do such activities in such crowded classrooms. Congratulations! It was really very good. Now, I will ask you a few questions about the use language use in classes. Which language do you usually use?

ESMA: Turkish. It is mostly Turkish.

INTERVIEWER: OK, can I ask why?

ESMA: It saves time. We do not have enough time. It takes a lot of time to explain words in English, but I say it directly in Turkish.

INTERVIEWER: Is this the main reason?

ESMA: Yes, it is.

INTERVIEWER: OK, do you have any other reasons?

ESMA: I do not exactly understand what is in the child's mind unless I say it in Turkish. For example, I put a picture, a visual and try to explain the word 'to walk' through visual but learners may understand 'to jump', 'eyebrows' or 'eyes'. Therefore, I speak Turkish and see what they understand. That is a criterion to use Turkish.

INTERVIEWER: I understand. OK, what about L1 use for classroom management such as 'sit down, stand up, go'?

ESMA: These sound like a game to them. Therefore, first language should be certainly used for managing the class.

INTERVIEWER: Can we talk about the factors that affect your Turkish speaking, both internal and external factors?

ESMA: The factors (.) Language level of learners is the main reason. They are at the very beginning. Their foreign language proficiency is very low. Therefore, I must use Turkish.

INTERVIEWER: Alright, can you talk about the factors outside the classroom?

ESMA: In fact, I have never encountered anything like it. Nobody or nothing out of class intervenes in my language use in the class.

INTERVIEWER: So, are you free to use either language?

ESMA: Yes, I am.

INTERVIEWER: Do you know the attitude of the Ministry of National Education on this issue?

ESMA: As far as I know, it suggests in the new curriculum that instructions, etc. be given in English. But first language should be like the salt on a meal. We should use it neither too much nor too little.

INTERVIEWER: ((laughing)) Nice wording!

ESMA: Yes, there is some necessity, but how much depends on the context.

INTERVIEWER: OK, do you plan to use English during the lesson, or is it spontaneous?

ESMA: I plan the language structures, words etc. that are needed to be taught in a unit. But I do not plan anything else. It is sometimes in Turkish and sometimes in English depending on the particular situation. I do not actually have a plan to use that much Turkish and that much English. I plan it in terms of goals.

INTERVIEWER: I understand. OK, if we think of it on a class basis, in which classes can you say that you use Turkish more?

ESMA: I use it (Turkish) most with the second graders because I cannot use English for anything else other than the objectives and the topic. They learn and get used to most of the things like instructions as they move forward to 3rd and 4th grades though. They begin guessing what I say (in English) so the amount my English use increases in the third and fourth grades. When I say 'hot' ((with body language)), for example, the kids guess that the room is hot even if they do not know the meaning. Therefore, I use Turkish with the second graders most

INTERVIEWER: What about the guessing with the second graders?

ESMA: They have no language learning background so I use the least English with them.

INTERVIEWER: What do you feel when you speak Turkish in classes?

ESMA: Guilty. ((laughing))

INTERVIEWER: In a word?

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

ESMA: Yes. I am aware that my classes are the only opportunity for children to be exposed to English. They do not watch cartoons with English subtitles. They do not repeat at home what they learn at school. It is the only place (the classroom) that they can take language input. And here I speak in Turkish! In fact, I am the only source. I must teach in English. It is just two hours. The more English, the better it is. However, this what I can do.

INTERVIEWER: Are you in a dilemma?

ESMA: Of course, but the biggest problem is lack of time. If I had 6 hours of English class instead of 2 hours, lots of things would change. My English use would increase. What can I do in just 2 hours? I am in a rush. The biggest problem is time (lack of time).

INTERVIEWER: Do you think that the use of Turkish is natural or something that should be avoided in English classes?

ESMA: It is not something that needs to be avoided. I sometimes need it. The learners are not babies. They already know a language. It seems to me useful to teach a new language by drawing on the previous one, but there should be a balance.

INTERVIEWER: What benefit or harm can this have to the students when you use Turkish in English classes?

ESMA: They become less exposed to the target language in the limited time. This is the harm. The benefit is that I become sure that they learn the structures and they learn in a correct way. I used less Turkish, especially at the beginning of my teaching career. The child says, for example, what can you do? But they do not know what it means. When I say its meaning in Turkish, they understand it immediately. Therefore, it seems to me much better to teach their meanings in Turkish at the beginning. They say it in English, answer but they do it mechanically, without knowing what it means. This is not beneficial.

INTERVIEWER: Have you ever had any pre-sessional or in-sessional training on the use of Turkish or English?

ESMA: In-service training (.) No.

INTERVIEWER: What about university education?

ESMA: I do not remember something like 'you should use that much Turkish and that much English in the classes. I learned it through my experiences. It is learnt by trying, experiencing, and doing.

INTERVIEWER: Did you get any suggestions about it?

ESMA: As far as I remember, no. But I learn something through online seminars.

INTERVIEWER: When did you go to university?

ESMA: 2000-2005.

INTERVIEWER: How many years have you been teaching in primary school?

ESMA: 5 years.

INTERVIEWER: Did you teach secondary graders when it was elementary school?

ESMA: I taught fourth graders.

INTERVIEWER: For how many years?

ESMA: Since the beginning of my teaching experience.

INTERVIEWER: What do students think about your speaking of English or Turkish?

ESMA: If I speak English constantly, then they think 'what is happening?'. They get demotivated. We do not understand anything, they complain. At this point, it is necessary to stop (speaking English) and wrap it up.

INTERVIEWER: OK, do they want you to speak English when you speak Turkish?

ESMA: Sometimes, rarely. However, I suppose that these are externally affected. They rarely say 'This is English class, why do we speak Turkish?' They much more frequently say 'Teacher, I don't understand English, what are you talking about?'.

INTERVIEWER: Does this affect you?

ESMA: Yes, of course. Because the more I increase the amount of English use, the less children understand. I try to adjust the dose. It depends on the language level of the students or classes.

INTERVIEWER: OK, in your opinion, do the students learn English better when a teacher speaks English or Turkish?

ESMA: I think of Turkish in this way: After teaching the language structure, topic or vocabulary (by using Turkish), the rest can be done with English. For example, for 'can', I explain it in Turkish as 'it is used to say my ability'. The rest can be English.

INTERVIEWER: What do you think about your level of English?

ESMA: Probably it decreased to beginner in primary school ((laughing)). I can say somewhere medium.

INTERVIEWER: From one to six?

ESMA: Four.

INTERVIEWER: Now, we will listen to a few recordings. Each for 10-15 seconds. Your records in class. I would like to ask you some questions about them. (…) For example, this is with the second graders. ((Listening to the recording)

ESMA: I did not hear anything. I only heard 'ready'.

INTERVIEWER: You said 'Ready? Hazır mıyız?'. Here, why did you need to translate it into Turkish?

ESMA: These are second graders, I guess. I wanted them to get used to 'ready'. It will then be 'Are you ready'. ((laughing)).

INTERVIEWER: Do you mean step by step?

ESMA: Yes, step by step. First, they will say 'Yes' when they hear 'Ready?'. Then, they will hear 'Are you ready?' and say 'Yes, I am'. Then, I will prepare the next one slowly.

INTERVIEWER: This is a strategy you say?

ESMA: Yes (.) because if I directly say 'Ready?', they look at my face blankly.

INTERVIEWER: OK, you sometimes praise students, which is great, I think. Like 'well done, very good'. You say them sometimes in English and sometimes in Turkish. Why?

ESMA: It depends on my mood ((laughing)). For example, when I feel that class management is getting difficult, I use more L1 for everyone to hear that I say 'well done' to someone. Or when I feel angry that class discipline is not good and think what to do with this class, I cannot think of English at that time. I say whatever comes to my mind without thinking. Also, the use of L1/L2 is not planned for me so I am not aware that I say it in either language. However, the more the students go away from the lesson, the more L1 I use.

INTERVIEWER: There is another recording. (.) This is from the second graders. Instructions like 'run, sit down'. ((listening to the recording)) You switched into Turkish here. Another one here. ((listening to the recording))

ESMA: This is probably because the kid didn't understand.

INTERVIEWER: She probably said 'I do not have a grandmother'.

ESMA: No, not that but she probably looked at me blankly when I said 'Who is your mother?' So, I had to (switch into Turkish).

INTERVIEWER: I see the reason for why you translated. She looked at you blankly and then you translated it. Because she did not understand you. Well, how does it progress? I mean you switch to Turkish from English. Can you elaborate it, please?

ESMA: I feel that the child is drowned due to English at that moment, she did not understand anything so I did not say 'sit down' in English in order not to put more pressure on her. She may be demotivated and unwilling to do anything if I say something repeatedly in English. There occurs a wall between her and English. Then, she thinks that 'I don't understand English'. Therefore, I stop English there (and speak in Turkish).

INTERVIEWER: We have the last recording. As I mentioned before, you generally use English when you teach something, and Turkish in the rest. This is about it. ((listening to the recording))

ESMA: I will give instructions so I must (use Turkish). Now, if I say this in English like 'look at the map, find the city', they will not understand. Time will be wasted with body language. So, I said it directly in Turkish.

INTERVIEWER: Ok. Is there anything you want to say about using English or Turkish in English classes?

ESMA: I am aware that the more English, the better it is. However, we have crowded classes. I have to take into consideration several factors such as the materials I have, students' limited time, so I am forced to speak Turkish. I am constrained. I want to do lots of things, but I have a curriculum to finish, students have exams. If students make many mistakes on these exams, reactions arise from different stakeholders. For this reason, a common way to make everyone happy is first language use.

INTERVIEWER: You said the more English, the better it is. How can this be achieved?

ESMA: More time. Flexible curriculum.

INTERVIEWER: Is the curriculum too difficult for children?

ESMA: No, it is not. The content is easy for children, but there are lots of things to teach. We need much more time!

INTERVIEWER: Anything else?

ESMA: That is all for me.

INTERVIEWER: Alright, thank you very much.

Appendix C – Interview questions

First interview questions

Topic	Questions
Opening Questions (teachers' background)	Tell me about how you became English teacher?
	What about your pre-service training?
	How did you decide to work at primary level?
Context (factual questions)	Tell me about your current context?
	What levels do you teach currently?
	How many hours do you teach English for each level (and also in total)?
	How many students are there in each class on average? (What do you think about this)?
Teachers' thoughts about teaching young learners	How does it feel to teach English to children who first meet English in your class?
	Tell me about the rewards and challenges of teaching English to young learners?
	In your opinion, what are the differences and similarities between teaching English to children from 7 to 10 ages and secondary level students from 11 to 14 ages?
Teachers' experiences	How do you prepare lessons? What are your considerations? What are the most important factors in planning a lesson for young learners?
	How do you choose the topics to teach? (What do you take into consideration?)
	Which language do you use mostly in the class? (How do you decide to use English or Turkish? What do you use Turkish for? What do you use English for?)
	What kind of activities and techniques do you use in classroom? What factors do you think most influence the way you teach? (any stakeholders such principles, families, colleagues?)
In-service training questions	What kind of activities do you do in order to improve yourself as a teacher? What factors influence you to do these activities?
Learners' experiences, attitudes and opinions	How do your students feel about learning English? (Do you think that they have prejudice against it?)
	Tell me about their experiences in learning English in the class? (Do they easily learn it or have a difficulty?)
	What do you think about students' English level when they finish primary school?
Closing question	Would you like to add anything else about your experiences, feelings, thoughts on teaching English to children?
	Thank you for your answers

Second interview questions

Topic	Questions
Teachers' experiences	Which language do you think you mostly use in the classes? Turkish or English?
	How do you decide to use Turkish? What are the general reasons for using Turkish? Can you give some examples?
	Tell me about what factors affect your use of Turkish? In what ways? (stakeholders?) (What is the manner of Minsitry of National Education on this issue? Do they suggest you to use either language?)
	Do you plan to speak Turkish or English in specific situations before the class or do you decide extemporally? Can you elaborate it please?
	In which grades (second, third or fourth) do you use Turkish more? What might be the reasons of this?
Teachers' feelings and attitudes	Can you talk about your feelings while using Turkish in the class? (Do you think that it is natural or something that should be avoided of?)
	In your opinion, what are the possible benefits or drawbacks of using Turkish to the students?
Training on L1 use	Have you ever had any pre-sessional or in-sessional training on the use of first language before? What about your university education?
Students' attitudes and experiences	What do students think about your use of Turkish? (Do they want you to speak Turkish or English?)
	In your opinion, do the students learn English better when you speak English or Turkish? Could you elaborate on it please?
Specific experiences of teachers	I would like to ask you some questions regarding the specific situations I have observed in your classes. In .... class, you used Turkish in this ... situation. You said ... to one of the students. Could you tell me the main reason? Does it happen frequently?
Closing question	Would you like to add anything else regarding the use of Turkish in specific or in general?
Thank you for your answers and participating in my research.	

Appendix D – Data collection approval

T.C.
MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI
Yükseköğretim ve Yurt Dışı Eğitim Genel Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 64243970-150.02-E.9682194   17.05.2018
Konu : Serdar TEKİN

BAKANLIK MAKAMINA

İlgi: a) Serdar TEKİN'in yurt içi danışmanı ███████████████████ görüş yazısı.
   b) Londra Eğitim Müşavirliğinin 22/03/2018 tarihli ve 5997582 sayılı yazısı.

   1416 sayılı Kanun kapsamında Bakanlığımız hesabına Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli Üniversitesi adına İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanında İngiltere'de doktora öğrenimi gören Serdar TEKİN'in 01/10/2018-09/12/2018 tarihleri arasında ██████'de alan çalışması yapmak istediğine dair talebi ilgi (b) yazı ile teklif edilmiştir.
   İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanında doktora öğrenimi gören Serdar TEKİN'in ilgi (a) yazı ile yurt içi danışmanının da uygun görüş bildirdiği dikkate alınarak; ██████ İlinde 01/10/2018-14/10/2018 tarihleri arasında ██████ İlkokulu'nda, 15/10/2018-28/10/2018 tarihleri arasında ████████ İlkokulu'nda, 29/10/2018-11/11/2018 tarihleri arasında ████████ İlkokulu'nda, 12/11/2018-25/11/2018 tarihleri arasında ████████████ İlkokulu'nda ve 26/11/2018-09/12/2018 tarihleri arasında ██████ İlkokulu'nda yapacağı alan çalışması ile ilgili olarak geliş-dönüş uçak bileti ücretlerinin ve ulaştırma giderlerinin tamamı ile tez çalışmalarının gerektirdiği malzeme ücretlerinin kendisi tarafından karşılanması kaydıyla Türkiye'de alan çalışmasında bulunmasına izin verilmesini Olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Fatih KUZU
Daire Başkanı

O L U R
<..>

Bülent ÇİFTCİ
Bakan a.
Genel Müdür

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

Appendix E – Aston University ethics approval

Aston University
Aston Triangle
Birmingham
B4 7ET
0121 204 3000

Date: 24th September 2018

School of Life and Health Sciences

Dear Dr Sue Garton (Student: Serdar Tekin)

Study title:	First language practices of English teachers working in primary schools in Turkey
REC REF:	#1304

Confirmation of Ethical Opinion

On behalf of the Committee, I am pleased to confirm a favourable opinion for the above research based on the basis described in the application form, protocol and supporting documentation listed below.

Approved documents

The final list of documents reviewed and approved by the Committee is as follows:

Document	Version	Date
Participant information sheet	2	10/09/2018
Consent form	3	17/09/2018
Ministry of National Education Letter (64243970-150.02-E.9682194)		17/05/2018
Consent Form Head Teacher	3	24/09/2018
Debrief Sheet	3	25/06/2018

With the Committee's best wishes for the success of this project.

Yours sincerely

Dr Nichola Seare
Chair of the University Research Ethics Committee

219

Appendix F – Consent form for head teachers

CONSENT FROM HEAD OF SCHOOL

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a doctoral student at Aston University, UK and carrying out a research project looking at general classroom interactions in English classes in Turkish primary schools. My name is Serdar Tekin and this is my doctoral project. As part of this project, I will be working with some English language teachers and observing how they teach in their classrooms.

I would very much like to work with one of your teachers, as I believe he/she is considered to be an excellent teacher.

The aim of this project:

The purpose of this study is to look at general classroom interactions of English teachers in primary schools.

Procedures:

I, as the researcher, will visit your school and the teacher will be asked to:

•   participate in pre-observation and post observation interviews, which will be audio-recorded arranged at a mutually convenient time.

•   allow the researcher to observe the lessons arranged at a time to suit the teacher, with plenty of notice. The classes will be audio-recorded and the researcher/observer will also take field notes.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. The teacher's decision whether or not to participate cannot affect his/her current or future relations with the school or other institutions.

Confidentiality:

Only the researcher and supporting supervisor can have access to the data. They are required to maintain confidentiality regarding the identity of the school and of staff and pupils as far as possible. Results of this study may be used for research, publications, or presentations at conferences. If the teacher's individual case is discussed, her/his identity will be protected by using pseudonyms, rather than their names or other identifying information. Only the name of the country and city the school is situated in will be given.

All data will be stored on password-protected computers accessible only to the researcher or, in the case of hard copies of documents, in locked filing cabinets in the researcher's university office.

Parental Consent

Since students' voices will be inevitably recorded during observation, I, as the researcher, will also obtain consent from the parents or guardians of all the children in the class. If you agree to this study being carried out in your school, please sign the form below.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact the relevant persons using the details below.

Researcher: Serdar Tekin
Email: tekins@aston.ac.uk
Supervisor: Dr Sue Garton, Lecturer
Email: s.garton@aston.ac.uk
Room 736 Main Building Aston University
Aston Triangle Birmingham B4 7EJ
Secretary of the University Research Ethics Committee: Jon Walter
Email: j.g.walter@aston.ac.uk
Telephone: 0121 2044665

Thank you for your cooperation.

As the Head teacher of _____ (school name),

•

	INITIAL BOX
I grant my permission for the researcher named above to attend my school and work with one of the teachers by interviewing and observing him/her.	
I consent to the researcher named above using any of the data gathered during in the observations.	
I fully understand that the data will be kept completely confidential, and will be used only for the purposes of the research study.	
I agree that the School will distribute Participant Information Sheets and Consent Forms to parents on behalf of the researcher.	

_____   _____

Head's Name (printed) and Signature   Date

Appendix G – Information sheet and consent form for parents

![Aston University logo]

PARENT INFORMATION SHEET

Project title

Classroom interactions in English classes in Turkish primary schools.

What is the purpose of the study?

The aim of this research is to gather information about classroom interactions in English classes in Turkish primary schools. The main focus on the way in which teachers interact with children in English classes. It is believed that understanding these interactions will enable us to gain useful insights about teaching a foreign language to children in Turkey.

Invitation

Your child's English teacher has accepted to take part in this research and she will be audio recorded in class and observed by the researcher. Your child is also invited to join the study and have his/her interactions with the teacher recorded. Please take time to read the following information carefully and let me know if anything is unclear or if you would like more information

What will happen to my child if I give permission?

After your permission, the researcher will join some classes for around 2 weeks, sit in a convenient place and observe the classes without the intention of interrupting teaching/learning. He will be taking notes during observations. He will also audio-record teacher's voice and your child's voice when he/she speaks. In this respect, you may;

1. allow your child for full participation, or
2. allow the class to be recorded but your child's voice not to be used in the data analysis.

Please note that the class will be not be recorded or included in the study if you are unwilling to consent either option above.

Are there any potential risks in taking part in the study?

It is believed that there will be no potential risks or discomfort that might affect your child in a negative way.

Is it obligatory to take part in this study?

Participation is completely voluntary. If you choose not to take part, your child's class will not be recorded or included in this study. Moreover, your child can withdraw from the study at any time.

Will my child's taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Your child's taking part will be kept completely confidential. No personal data (name, school, etc.) will be disclosed.

What you will need to do is to;

- allow me to audio record certain classes

- allow me to observe certain classes and take notes

- allow me to transcribe the audio recording

- allow me to analyse the transcription

What happens to the data?

- digital versions of the data (audio files, transcription) will be stored in a secure place in a separate, password protected file by the researcher

- paper versions of the data will be kept securely by the researcher

- the only people to have access to the data are the researcher and the supervisor

- digital recordings and any personal data will be destroyed as soon as possible after transcription and verification. It is also possible that the results will be presented at academic conferences and journals. However, all data will be anonymised.

What if I have a concern about the study?

If you have any concerns about anything to do with this study, please speak to the research team and we will do our best to answer your questions. Contact details can be found below.

If the research team are unable to address your concerns or you wish to make a complaint about how it is being conducted then you should contact the Aston University Director of Governance, Mr John Walter, at j.g.walter@aston.ac.uk or telephone 0121 204 4869.

Contact details:

Researcher: Serdar Tekin

Email: tekins@aston.ac.uk

Supervisor: Dr Sue Garton, Lecturer

Email: s.garton@aston.ac.uk

Room 736 Main Building Aston University
Aston Triangle Birmingham B4 7EJ

If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a

consent form.

Classroom interactions in English classes in Turkish primary schools.

<u>PARENT CONSENT FORM</u>

<u>Name of researcher: Serdar Tekin</u>

		Initial box
1	I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet (Version 2, dated 10/09/2018) for the above study.	
2	I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	
3	I understand that my child's participation is voluntary and that s/he is free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason.	
4	I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, presented at academic conferences and journals, s/he will not be identified and personal results will remain confidential.	
5	I understand that full participation means my child's voice during the classes will be audiotaped, transcribed, and analysed.	
6	I understand that the researcher will take notes during the observation.	
7	I understand that digital recordings and any personal data will be destroyed as soon as possible after transcription and verification.	

Permission for the child to participate in research

As the parent of …………………………………………..(child's name):

	Please initial next to either A or B	Initial box
A	I allow my child to fully participate this research.	
	OR	
B	I allow the class to be audio recorded but my child's voice not to be used in the data analysis.	

_____ _____   _____

Name of parent   Date   Signature

Appendix H – Information sheet and consent form for participants

INFORMATION SHEET

<u>Project title</u>

General classroom interactions in English classes in Turkish primary schools.

<u>Invitation</u>

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether you want to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what your participation will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Please let me know if anything is unclear or if you would like more information.

<u>What is the purpose of the study?</u>

The aim of this research is to gather information about general classroom interactions in English classes in Turkish primary schools. It is believed that understanding these interactions will enable us to gain useful insights about teaching a foreign language to young learners.

<u>Why have I been chosen?</u>

You have been contacted via mutual colleagues as you are currently working as an English teacher in a primary school. If you accept to participate, you will be one of four research participants.

<u>What will happen to me if I take part?</u>

Once you accept to take part, the researcher will contact you in order to prepare a schedule for data collection. Data collection will be in two steps, being classroom observations and interviews. Both observations and interviews will be audio recorded. Further, the researcher will attend the audio recorded classes to take field notes. However, he will not intend to intervene your teaching, nor to make judgements or criticisms. His only aim is to understand the interactions in the class. Please note that the time of the classroom observations and interviews will be negotiated based on your decision.

It is intended that 4 lessons will be observed for each grade (grades 2, 3 and 4), being total of 12 lessons. Moreover, an interview will be done before and after observations, being 2 interviews in total. It is anticipated that both observations and interviews will last 2-3 weeks.

Are there any potential risks in talking part in the study?

It is believed that there will be no potential risks or discomfort that might affect you in a negative way.

Do I have to take part in this study?

Participation is completely voluntary, if you choose not to take part, you may do so. Moreover, you can withdraw from the study at any time, and if you do so, any data relating to you will not be part of the research.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Your taking part will be kept completely confidential. No personal data (your name, school, etc.) will be disclosed.

What you will need to do is to;

- allow me to audio record your talk in certain classes

- allow me to observe your certain classes and take field notes

- allow me to do interviews with you and audio record our conversation during the interviews

- allow me to transcribe the audio recording

- allow me to analyse the transcription

What happens to the data?

- digital versions of the data (audio files, transcription) will be stored in a secure place in a separate, password protected file by the researcher

- paper versions of the data will be kept securely by the researcher

- the data may be published, but all participants will be anonymised

- the only people to have access to the data are the researcher and the supervisor

- digital recordings and any personal data will be destroyed as soon as possible after transcription and verification. It is also possible that the results will be presented at academic conferences and journals. However, all data will be anonymised.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

Once the dissertation arising from this research has been completed, a brief summary of the findings will be made available by the researcher upon application. It is also possible that the results will be presented at academic conferences and journals. However, all data will be anonymised.

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.

<u>What if I have a concern about the study?</u>

If you have any concerns about anything to do with this study, please speak to the research team and we will do our best to answer your questions. Contact details can be found below.

If the research team are unable to address your concerns or you wish to make a complaint about how it is being conducted then you should contact the Aston University Director of Governance, Mr John Walter, at j.g.walter@aston.ac.uk or telephone 0121 204 4869.

Contact details:

Researcher: Serdar Tekin

Email: tekins@aston.ac.uk

Supervisor: Dr Sue Garton, Lecturer

Email: s.garton@aston.ac.uk

Room 736 Main Building Aston University
Aston Triangle Birmingham B4 7EJ

If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form.

Aston University

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

<u>Project title:</u> General classroom interactions in English classes in Turkish primary schools.

Name of researcher: Serdar Tekin

		Initial box
	I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study.	
	I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	
	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my legal rights being affected.	
	I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.	
	I understand that my voice during the classes will be audiotaped, transcribed, and analysed.	
	I understand that the researcher will take field notes during the observation.	
	I understand that digital recordings and any personal data will be destroyed after the transcription process, and transcribed data will be kept during the researcher's PhD during which they will be presented in the final dissertation as well as at academic conferences and journals.	

_____   _____   _____

Name of participant   Date   Signature

_____   _____   _____

Researcher   Date   Signature

Post-study debrief sheet

Project Title: First language practices of English teachers working in primary schools in Turkey

First of all, I would like to thank you for participating in my study, the full title of which is First language practices of English teachers working in primary schools in Turkey

As you can see from the title, the main purpose of my study was to examine for what functions teachers use first language in the course of teaching a foreign langauge. Moreover, it aimed to find out teachers motives for using the first langauge. I believe that the study is improtant because there has been a debate among researchers on teachers' use of first language and this study can contribute to that debate.

When I first approached you, in order not to affect your teaching style, I explained my study in very general way and gave you a brief idea about the purpose. As the study is completely non-judgemental, this way enabled me to avoid making you too self-conscious or worried about your L1 use. It also enabled me to gain a more unbiased understanding of your first language practices. I also want to highlight again that I will not judge or criticize your first language practices by any means.

Your participation in this study is greatly appreciated and I believe will help us to reach a better understanding as to how first language use can help English learning. If you have any concerns about how you were provided with information before you agreed to join the study, please feel free to

contact me, Serdar Tekin, at tekins@aston.ac.uk or my supervisor, Dr Sue Garton (s.garton@aston

.ac.uk).

If you would be interested in obtaining a copy of the results once the study is complete, then please

do contact me at the above email address. If you have a more general interest in this area of research,

you may also wish to consult the following references:

Hall, G. and Cook, G. (2012) 'Own-language use in language teaching and learning', Language Teaching,

45(3), pp. 271–308.

Bruen, J. and Kelly, N. (2014) 'Using a shared L1 to reduce cognitive overload and anxiety levels in the

L2 classroom', The Language Learning Journal, 45(3), pp. 368–381.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Appendix J – Transcription conventions

This transcription code is adopted from Richards (2003 p.173-174).

T: Teacher

S1: Student one

S2: Student two

Ss: Students

Transcription Code	
[ ]	English translation
=	Latched utterances
/	Interruption
(.)	Micropause
(…)	Untimed pause
(( ))	Other details
( )	Researcher's comment
Underlined	Emphasis

S.Tekin, PhD Thesis, Aston University, 2020.