REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN INVESTIGATION OF CODE SWITCHING INTO EFL YOUNG LANGUAGE LEARNER CLASSROOMS

Esra YATAĞANBABA

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2014

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN INVESTIGATION OF CODE SWITCHING INTO EFL YOUNG LANGUAGE LEARNER CLASSROOMS

Esra YATAĞANBABA

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2014

To the Directorship of the Institute of Social Sciences, Çukurova University

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

Chairperson: Assist. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM
(Supervisor)

Member of Examining Committee: Assist Prof. Dr. Gülden İLİN

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Ergün SERİNDAĞ

I certify that this thesis conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences. ...../...../2014

Prof. Dr. Yıldırım Beyazıt ÖNAL
Director of Institute

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÇOCUKLARIN SINIFLARINDA DÜZENEK DEĞİŞTİRME ÜZERİNE BİR İNCELEME

Esra YATAĞANBABA

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM
Haziran 2014, 188 sayfa

Bu tezde İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin ve İngilizce öğretmenlerinin İngilizceden Türkçeye yaptıkları düzenek değiştirme uygulamalarının detaylı olarak incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu çalışma Adana ve Denizli illerinde bulunan 2 farklı özel okulda gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmanın örneklemi anadili Türkçe olan 3 İngilizce öğretmeninden ve ortaöğretimde 5. Sınıf olan 75 öğrenciden oluşmuştur. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda üç orta seviye sınıf 2'şer ders saati olmak üzere video kamera ile kayda alınmıştır. Ders kayıtları çözümlenmiş ve düzenek değiştirme uygulamalarının gerçekleşip gerçekleşmediği, gerçekleşiyorsa ne sıklıkla görüldüğü, değiştirmelerin öğrenci tarafından mı yoksa öğretmen tarafından mı başlatıldığı, bu değiştirmelerin ne tür işlevlerinin olduğu ve son olarak da bu değiştirmelerin sınıf içi etkileşimde önemli bir yeri olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır. 20 öğrenci ve 3 öğretmenle yüz yüze yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmış ve bu görüşmeler içerik çözümlemesi yöntemiyle incelenmiştir. Bulgulardan elde edilen sonuçlar şunlardır: 1)hem öğretmenler hem de öğrenciler düzenek değiştirmişlerdir; 2) öğretmenler ve öğrenciler selamlama, ısınma alıştırmaları yapma, öğrenci kitabındaki alıştırmaları yapma, ödev kontrolü yapma, sınav sonuçları açıklama, ödevleri gözden geçirme, kelimeler ve yeni konuyla ilgili araştırma yapma, ödev verme ve dersi sonlandırma sırasında düzenek değiştirme kullanmışlardır; 3) en sık kullanılan düzenek değiştirme türü tümceler arası düzenek değiştirmedir; 4) öğretmenler en çok çeviri yapma, üstdil kullanma, eşdeğer kelimeyi bulma, yönergede bulunma ve sınıf yönetimi amaçları doğrultusunda düzenek değiştirmede bulunmuşlardır; 5) öğrenciler ise düzenek değiştirimini en çok üstdil kullanma, eşdeğer kelimeyi verme, konuya açıklık getirme isteminde, ders dışı

konuşmalarda ve çeviri yapmada kullanmışlardır; 6) görüşme analizi sonuçları öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin düzenek değiştiriminin dil öğrenmede faydalı bulduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Ancak öğretmenler sınıfta ana dilin yabancı dilin yerine geçmemesi gerektiğini ihtiyatla vurgulamışlardır. Bu çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular ışığında İngilizce öğretmenlerine, öğretmen yetiştirme kurumlarına ve Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na çeşitli önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğrenen Çocuklar, Sınıf İçi Etkileşim, Düzenek Değiştirme, Dil Öğreniminde ve Öğretiminde Ana Dil, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce

ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF CODE SWITCHING INTO EFL YOUNG LANGUAGE LEARNER CLASSROOMS

Esra YATAĞANBABA

Master of Arts, Department of English Language Teaching
Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM
June 2014, 188 pages

This thesis aimed to investigate code switching (CS hereafter) in interactive changes between teachers and secondary EFL learners from English to Turkish in detail. The study took place in two different secondary private institutions in the city of Adana and Denizli. In accordance with this aim, three intermediate level classrooms were recorded for two class hours via video camera. The recordings were transcribed and explored in order to see whether CS practices occurred in these classes or not, if they did, how often they took place, who initiated the switches, and what functions these code switches embodied between the students and the teachers and finally if these CS practices had an important role in terms of teacher-learner interaction or not. Face to face semi-structured interviews were held with three teachers and 20 students and these interviews were analysed through content analysis. The following results have been obtained from the data: 1) both teachers and students resorted to CS; 2) teachers and students used CS while greeting, doing warm-up, using student's book, checking homework, announcing exam results, reviewing homework and a grammar topic, playing games, practicing vocabulary and a new topic, working on notebook, doing worksheet activities, assigning homework and closing-up; 3) the most frequently used type of CS was found to be inter-sentential CS; 4) teachers resorted to CS with the translation, meta-language, asking equivalence, giving instruction and classroom management purposes the most; 5) students made use of CS mainly for meta-language, giving equivalence, asking for clarification, unofficial talks and translation; 6) the results of interview analysis showed that teacher and students find CS useful for language learning; however, teachers cautiously emphasized that L1 should not replace

L2 in classroom. In the light of the findings of this research, some suggestions were made to EFL teachers, teacher training institutes, and the Ministry of National Education.

Keywords: Young EFL Language learners, Classroom Interaction, Code Switching, the Use of L1 in Language Learning and Teaching, EFL

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my special appreciation and thanks to my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM. Without her assistance and dedicated involvement in every step throughout the process, this thesis would have never been accomplished. I would like to thank her very much for her support and understanding over these past three years.

I would like to thank Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ergün SERİNDAĞ and Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülden İLİN for their support, motivation, constructive and invaluable contributions to my thesis as the members of my examining committee.

I would like to express my gratitude to all academic staff from whose courses I learnt a lot and contributed to my professional and personal development as a candidade academician: Prof. Dr. Zuhal OKAN, Prof. Dr.Erdoğan BADA, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yasemin KIRKGÖZ, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cem CAN, Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülden İLİN and Assist. Prof. Dr. Abdurrahman KİLİMCİ.

I would also like to send my special thanks to the participants of this study, the EFL teachers, their students and the administrative staff who provided me with the opportunity for conducting this study at their schools.

I would like to extend special thanks to my family: my parents Ayşe and Hasan, and my sisters Emine and Fatma for their patience, love, sharing and understanding during my MA process.

Finally, I owe a special graditude to my husband who supported and helped me a lot from the very beginning of my MA studies. Without his love, patience and assistance, I could not have accomplished it. This thesis stands as a testimony to his unconditional love and encouragement.

To my little boy whose tiny existence in my body gave me encouragement and hope in this journey…

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CS: Code switching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

L1 & MT: L1 (first language) and MT (mother tongue) are used interchangeably in this study

L2: Second Language

MoNE: Ministry of National Education

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

TEYLL: Teaching English to Young Language Learners

YLLs: Young Language Learners

LIST OF TABLES

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

LIST OF APPENDICES

Page

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the background and purpose of the study, and gives a statement of the problem along with the research questions which were investigated in the course of the study. The significance of the study both in global and local contexts is explained, and the chapter finishes with the definitions of core terms used throughout the paper.

1.2. Background of the study

Steadily gaining prominence in today's globalized world, English is accepted as the *lingua franca*. This global status of the English language has made it the language of business, technology, science, the internet, popular culture, sports, and education for many countries around the world from Iceland to Argentina, and Turkey is not an exception among them.

Turkey's geopolitical and strategic position, her relationships with the European Union (EU) and Western countries, and also the need to keep abreast of changes in such fields as science, technology, trade, and communication have made it obligatory for Turkey to adopt English as the most important foreign language. English, having the official status of English as a foreign language (EFL), has been the only compulsory foreign language in Turkey for more than 90 years, while German and French have been offered as elective foreign languages.

Although the introduction of English into the Turkish education system dates back to the Tanzimat Period—which the Westernization movements stigmatized as renovation and integration to the modern, mostly Western world, (Kırkgöz, 2009)—English in our education system has undergone several changes and phases. These phases could be investigated in three periods: the major English Language Teaching

(ELT) curriculum reform in 1997, in which foreign language teaching started from Grade 4; the changes in the curricula of subjects like Mathematics and Science, along with the English language and the standardization of ELT education in order to conform to EU foreign language standards in 2005 (Ersöz *et al.*, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2009); and lastly, the lowering of the age at which students begin learning English to between six and six and a half (Grade 2) with the introduction of the 4+4+4 system into ELT primary education in Turkey in 2012 (Official Gazette, 2012).

As to the first phase, from 1997 to 2005, compulsory education had previously consisted of five years of primary schooling; this was increased to eight years, including three years of secondary education. With the education reform of 1997, not only was compulsory education in Turkey increased, but also major changes were employed in ELT (Gürsoy, Korkmaz & Damar, 2013).

The implementation of this drastic change lowered the age of foreign language learning to nine or ten. Therefore, compulsory EFL came to be taught to young language learners (YLLs) from the fourth grade on, and the learners started studying English in school at least two hours a week. In this curriculum, depending on the grade and type of the school, students used to learn English from two to eight hours per week. Students aged between 11 and 15 received two to four hours of English per week while four hours of English was allocated to the students who were between 15 and 17 years old (Haznedar & Uysal, 2010; İnceçay, 2012).

According to this curriculum, the aims for Grades 4 and 5 were mainly "raising pupils' awareness for a foreign language, increasing and promoting students' interest and motivation towards English language [sic], helping pupils' [sic] develop strategies, setting up dialogues and meaningful contexts for learning and establishing classroom situations with games so that students have fun while learning" (Kocaoluk & Kocaoluk, as cited in Kırkgöz, 2007). The objectives specified in this curriculum included expansion of the basic communication skills with integration of the four skills for Grades 6, 7, and 8. These objectives clearly show that with this curriculum reform, the aim was to increase the exposure of EFL YLLs to English.

The changes in 1997 were not only related to primary and secondary schools, but were also witnessed at higher education levels. Kırkgöz (2005) stated that one of the significant outcomes of these changes was to enhance the curriculum of education faculties in terms of quality both of teacher education and of courses offered at foreign language departments. The number of methodology courses was increased and the

duration of practicum in primary and secondary schools was extended. Moreover, the introduction of YLLs to EFL during their primary education created the need to include relevant courses at the undergraduate level in the ELT Departments. The *Teaching English to Young Language Learners* course was introduced into the curriculum in order to inform student teachers about the characteristics of EFL young language learners (Kırkgöz, 2005).

Despite the reforms and changes in the curricula and education system, there was dissatisfaction with the quality of the education, curricula, and resources provided by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) (Topkaya & Küçük, 2010). Several studies were conducted in order to canvass the attitudes of teachers toward the new curriculum (Büyükduman, 2001, 2005; Erdoğan, 2005; İnceçay, 2012; Mersinligil, 2002). All of these studies show that although teachers were content with the design of the curriculum, they were dissatisfied with the implementation of it. They expressed concerns about there being too many students in the classes, a lack of resources, insufficient training related to teaching English to YLLs, and too much content load in the books.

In response to these criticisms, MoNE decided to introduce a new curriculum movement in 2005 as a second phase (Topkaya & Küçük, 2010). Along with the changes in mathematics and science education, in the 2006-2007 school year, a second curriculum change in ELT programs was initiated for Grade 4 and up (Official Gazette, 2006, as cited in Topkaya & Küçük, 2010). The duration of high school was extended from three to four years. English lessons were proffered ten hours per week in the first year and four hours for the following years (Kırkgöz, 2007). The previous curriculum was revised in light of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) to give theoretical information and suggest new activities to the teachers of young language learners (Arslan, 2012). The new curriculum claimed to be more student-centered, task-based and process-oriented; learners and teachers were guided to collaborate in order to construct meaning together. The new program was based on Multiple Intelligence Theory along with the Constructivist Approach. Accordingly, instructional techniques were recommended for the use of various, task-based communicative activities, such as dramatization, student conversation, stories, games, chants, rhymes, and so on (Arslan, 2012).

The third and most recent phase is a drastic, top-down educational restructuring, as were the other two stages. This change extends the eight-year compulsory schooling

to 12 years by dividing it into three four-year stages: four for primary school, four for secondary school, and four for high school (Yavuz & Topkaya, 2013). Since the 2012-2013 academic term, English has been taught from Grade 2. From Year 2 to Year 4 of primary school, children participate in English lessons of 40-minute periods twice a week. Furthermore, from Years 5 to 8 (junior high school), children have English lessons of 40-minute periods, four times a week. Language learning basically entails the integration of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. All of these skills are focused on in the foreign language curriculum in the first stage of primary education in Turkey. Moreover, the English curriculum in Turkey is designed to be compatible with the Common European Framework, and portfolio assessment has been given priority in recent years (MoNE, 2012).

The aforementioned phases and changes in our education system concerning teaching English to Turkish EFL YLLs reflect the great tendency toward an earlier start in EFL learning internationally. In fact, the phenomenon of the trend towards early introduction of English into primary education is not new. The first introduction of English at the primary level was in the middle of the 1960s by UNESCO (Mersinligil, 2002). Since then, the number of countries introducing English or making it compulsory at primary levels has steadily increased (Enever & Moon, 2008). For instance, English became compulsory from Grade 5 in Japan in 2011; in several European countries, such as Sweden, Italy, Austria, Norway, and Luxembourg, English has been an obligatory subject at primary schools starting from the first grade (Eurydice, 2008). Thus, acquisition of a foreign language, particularly English in our case, has attracted a great interest both worldwide and in Turkey from the late 1900s up to today (Ersöz et al., 2006; Kırkgöz, 2007 & Kırkgöz 2009).

In the same vein, Yıldırım and Şeker (2004) mentioned that the common belief "younger is better" has led the teaching of English to expand into primary education around the world. With regards to this *the earlier, the better* belief, it would be useful to mention the hypothesis behind it. This is necessary in order to explain why the age factor is so important for the ones who advocate the "younger/earlier is better" philosophy.

Proposed primarily by Penfield and Roberts (1959) and later improved by Lennenberg (1967), the Critical Period Hypothesis plays an important role in language acquisition and second language learning (as cited in Johnstone, 2002). This assumption mostly stems from the belief that children are more open to learning new things and feel

less inhibited and anxious while learning and performing tasks than do adults. Johnstone (2002) stated that it will be impossible to have a native-like competence especially in pronunciation and intonation after the onset of puberty. In other words, children can learn languages best before they reach adolescence.

Having derived their motivations from the Critical Period Hypothesis, many countries have decided to adopt early language teaching policies at the primary level for several reasons including but not limited to: the future potential to engage in international business with proficient speakers, ensuring better job opportunities, economic advancement, parental pressure on governments, increased social mobility, and hope for a better life (Enever & Moon, 2008).

Despite all the changes made in the education policies in order to improve the quality of the EFL and proficiency level of YLLs at primary schools, several problems have occurred in both global and local contexts. There is a substantial body of research carried out to inform policy makers and teachers alike about the problems existing at primary schools regarding foreign language education (FLE) in different environments (Arıkan, 2011; Arslan, 2012; Cameron, 2003; Enever & Moon, 2008; Nunan, 2003; Kırkgöz, 2005, 2007, 2009; Kızıldağ, 2009; İnceçay, 2012; Seda & Erkan, 2012; Uysal, 2012; Yıldırım & Şeker, 2004).

With regard to the challenges faced while expanding ELT in teaching young children, Cameron (2003) argued that lowering the age of English learning is not sufficient on its own; rather, successful teaching requires making realistic decisions about teacher training, developing appropriate assessment tools for YLLs, and finally, a change in approach at the switch to secondary level.

Similarly, in his study Nunan (2003) presented the effects of English usage in many countries in the Asia-Pacific Region. The research illustrates the considerable influence of English as a global language on policies and practices in those countries. This impact leads to several challenges, such as age of initial instruction, too few English teachers with insufficient proficiency levels, and incongruity between curriculum rhetoric and pedagogic reality.

Moreover, Enever and Moon (2009) listed the problems experienced in countries where English teaching starts at the primary level. According to them, there are several issues to take into consideration for successful implementation of policies in different contexts. These issues are insufficient funding and institutional support, lack of age- and culturally appropriate materials, lack of continuing professional development (CPD)

facilities, top-down policy adoption, crowded classrooms, equity of access to English, low teacher proficiency, etc.

Considering the local context in Turkey, Arıkan (2011) aimed to identify the concerns of English teachers at primary schools. He administered a small-scale questionnaire regarding the self-reported needs of teachers and students. The findings of this study show that teachers need smaller classes, more technological devices, and a rich variety of print materials.

Correspondingly, Kızıldağ (2009) listed the problems experienced by English teachers at the primary level as lack of authentic language input; poor instructional planning; socio-economic challenges, like lack of parental understanding about the significance of learning a foreign language; institutional problems, such as not providing basic infrastructure and unwillingness of principals to solve problems; heavy workloads of teachers; crowded classrooms; and instructional drawbacks, for instance, busy curriculum, inappropriate materials, unrealistic learning goals, and lack of flexibility.

Given the implications of the studies cited above, the common challenges of Teaching English to Young Language Learners (TEYLL) experienced in foreign language (FL) contexts could be summarized as:

- *Classroom environment* (small, crowded classrooms);

- *Planning* (top-down policies, absence of sound curricula/syllabi, too few teaching hours, lack of equity and continuity across school phases, insufficient pre-and in-service education for teachers);

- *Provision of resources* (lack of technological means, internet access, appropriate language materials);

- *Learner-related issues* (negative learning habits, low proficiency levels, lack of motivation, insufficient school readiness, social background); and

- *Teacher-related issues* (teacher quality, pre-existing teaching methods, teacher-centered and form-focused instruction, heavy workload, heavy-reliance on L1).

Among the problems stated above, the use of English in primary EFL classrooms is one of the most significant. The literature has manifested a great deal of evidence both for and against use of the mother tongue (MT) (Alshammari, 2011; Edstrom, 2006; Carson & Kashihara, 2012; Cook; 2008; Kayaoğlu, 2012; Krashen, 2003; Lee &

Macaro, 2013; Levine, 2003; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Rolin-Lanziti, 2002; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Warford, 2007; Yıldırım & Mersinligil, 2000).

The role of the first language (L1) in EFL classrooms remains a topic of discussion: should it be totally banned or used judiciously (Al-Nofaie, 2010; Grimm, 2010; Meiring & Norman, 2002; Oguro, 2011) Whereas some claim that exclusive use of the target language (TL) is the best for optimal learning (Kraemer, 2006; Krashen, 2003; Moore, 2002; Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002), others support the view that L1 is a natural language facilitator and learning strategy, therefore it should be used purposefully. In other words, teachers should not use MT at the expense of optimal TL use (Cook, 2001; Çelik, 2008; Littlewoood & Yu, 2011; Polio & Duff, 1994; Raschka, Sercombe & Chi-Ling, 2009).

To start with, those who are against the use of L1 in FL classrooms ground their views in the fact that the teacher is the only source of comprehensible input in many EFL classrooms where the students and teacher share the same MT. In their view, teachers' and students' L1 should be avoided at all costs. This strong claim takes its source from several methods, specifically Direct Method, Audio-Lingual Method, Natural Approach, and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Bruhlman, 2012; Cook, 2001; Çelik, 2008; Meiring & Norman, 2002).

Borne out of a reaction to the Grammar Translation Method, the methods mentioned above have asserted that the L1 should be avoided when teaching grammar and vocabulary. Also, meaning making should be realized via a clear description and understanding of the context in the TL. For instance, in Direct Method a premium was placed on using the TL as a medium of instruction. Similarly, the Audio-Lingual Method is premised on the assumption that the structures and vocabulary should be provided through extensive repetition drills so the learners eliminate bad learning habits which are caused by the interference of L1 in the process of L2 learning (Çelik, 2008). Based on the principle of contextual language teaching and learning, Krashen and Terrel's (1983) Natural Approach endorses making the input comprehensible by using the TL in order to present and include linguistic and social context in the language classroom and denies seeing use of L1 as a valid strategy. Hence, L1 usage in foreign language classrooms has been regarded as deprivation of valuable input to learners (Cook, 2001).

In reference to input, Krashen pioneered the studies on the role of comprehensible input in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research (Holthouse, 2006). This

hypothesis basically asserts that availability of the comprehensible input to the language learner is the most important state in which language learning can take place. Moreover, the hypothesis puts forward the claim that a necessary (but not sufficient) condition, to move from stage i to stage i + 1 is that the acquirer understand input that contains i+1, where "understand" means that the acquirer is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message (Krashen, 2009).

Therefore, what is needed for learning to take place is to move one step further from our current level. Krashen (2009) identified four ways to support his claims about the Input Hypothesis. The first piece of evidence is the first language acquisition process in children. The Input Hypothesis is quite compatible with *caretaker speech.* According to him, the caretakers, be they parents or just any others around the child, modify the language they use up to her comprehension level. They talk *more simply* so as to be understood by the child. The structure of their language becomes more complex as she grows up.

The second bit of evidence comes from SLA: *simple codes*. Krashen (2009) maintained that SLA is like first language acquisition since it follows the natural order of acquisition as well. In addition to that, second language learners receive the same modified input as do children acquiring their mother tongue. Foreigner-talk and teacher-talk could be shown as an example for this. As native speakers adapt their language up to a foreigner's comprehension level, so does the language teacher for his students. However, the aims of these talks are different, namely, the first is for communication and the latter for both communication and language teaching.

The third way Krashen supported his hypothesis is again from SLA: *the silent period and L1 influence* (Krashen, 2009). The relationship between the silent period and input hypothesis is that the child becomes more and more competent in the second language by listening and understanding the language spoken around. Speaking ability only emerges after having sufficient competence via listening and understanding and it takes some time for the speaker to develop it, unlike adult learners and children in language classrooms. These learners are asked to produce pretty early in the second language before they have the syntactical competence to express themselves and, as a result of this, they resort to their MT.

Fourth and finally, Krashen (2009) regarded the use of L1 as both advantageous and disadvantageous, but claims the disadvantages are more serious in the long run. By switching to L1 the learner *outperforms* the task; however, L2 learning may not take

place in the developmental sequence. He attributes this to the fact that if the L1 and L2 of the learner are similar, the learner can receive the necessary input to produce sentences in L2 and this contributes to his L2 production. But if the L1 rule is not the same as that of L2, then errors may occur.

He summarizes his claims regarding the Input Hypothesis by emphasizing the fact that reliance on L1 can produce short-term learning, but it does not guarantee long-term learning. This inference can be dealt with by obtaining comprehensible input.

In a similar vein, Polio and Duff (1990) supported maximizing the use of TL in relation to comprehensible input. This study observed the amount of TL used by language teachers in FL classrooms and their attitudes towards the maximal use of FL. The rates of maximal FL use showed diversity from fifty-three to one hundred percent. In the "Implications" section, the authors made some suggestions concerning the utmost use of TL:

- *Make input comprehensible through verbal modifications:* repeat utterances, slow down the speed of the discourse, paraphrase, simplify syntax and vocabulary, use high frequency patterns and routines,
- *Make input comprehensible through nonverbal means:* use visuals and gestures to reduce L2-L1 translation, contextualize verbal material,
- *Have classes videotaped for self-evaluation,*
- *Establish an L2-only policy from the very beginning,*
- *Establish a brief period when teacher and students can use L1 to clarify material,*
- *Let the students speak when necessary,*
- *Stress that all language need not be comprehended,*
- *Explicitly teach and use grammatical items in L2,*
- *Provide supplementary material in L1.*

The abovementioned advice by Polio and Duff (1990) suggested that the use of L2 should start from the very beginning and be consistent throughout the term. However, they do not disregard the use of L1 when necessary in order not to cause any misunderstanding or resentment among students, but they put emphasize the importance of L2 use both for language-related and management issues.

While justifying the reasons against the use of MT in foreign language classrooms, not only hypotheses, methods, and approaches, but also theoretical

orientations should be taken into consideration (Bruhlman, 2012). Different SLA theories have greatly contributed to division between proponents and opponents of using L1 in classrooms. These orientations can be divided into two categories: interactionism and socioculturalism (Bruhlman, 2012).

Whereas sociocultural framework regards L1 as a valuable source of background knowledge to prepare learners for L2 input (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998), interactionist framework regards L1 as interference and claims maximal use of TL is the key to acquiring the second language. Interactionists assume that the classroom and the teacher are the only sources of TL for foreign language learners since they live in a monolingual environment. Accordingly, the use of L2 should be maximized as much as possible (Cook, 2001; Nation, 2003; Polio & Duff, 1990). Furthermore, Nation (2003) warned that too much reliance on L1 might cause the learners to lose their motivation for using L2.

Another argument put forward by the interactionists is that there is not a clear guideline showing when and how often to use L1 in EFL classrooms. If L1 is used inconsistently and non-judiciously, then its use cannot be justified in regards to pedagogy and SLA (Bruhlman, 2012; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). To put it another way, the reasons for using MT, the functions it embodies, greatly vary from one context to another. This argument is supported by the results of various studies which show different percentages of L1 use even within the same institution (Duff & Polio, 1990; Raschka, Sercombe, & Chi-Ling, 2009; Sarandi, 2013). These different results might be attributed to different policies, teacher and/or student beliefs, teaching context, personal variables, teachers' proficiency in TL, and teaching experience, to name a few (Inbar-Lourie, 2010).

For instance, Polio and Duff (1994) investigated instructors' linguistic practice at the tertiary level. The data were gathered from six different universities sharing similar characteristics. For example, all the students were native English speakers studying languages other than English in the first grade, all the instructors taught all four skills, and all but two teachers were native TL speakers. The findings demonstrate that the amount of TL use differed from one instructor to another. Whereas some instructors never made use of English while teaching the TL, some resorted to English up to 74.5% of the time. Also, the functions of L1 varied greatly among the instructors. These functions are vocabulary, grammar instruction, classroom management, indexing solidarity, translation, comprehension, and involving students in practicing TL.

The research by Warford (2007) revealed similar results in terms of L1 functions used in foreign language classrooms. A Foreign Language Teacher Talk Survey was administered to 27 K-12 teachers. The findings revealed that grammar explanation, disciplining, cultural explanation, quick translation, reminding of rules, general announcements, individual feedback on progress, transitions, checks for comprehension, and closure were the most common reasons for the use of L1.

As an example from a local Turkish context, Yıldırım and Mersinligil (2000) investigated the use of L1 both by the teachers and the students in EFL classrooms in the ELT Unit in Çukurova University. 24 teachers and 50 learners participated in the study. A questionnaire was administered to the participants. The questionnaire aimed to determine the attitudes of the participants towards the use of L1 in EFL classroom and their use of L1 in particular occasions. The results showed that Turkish is a contributing function in teaching and learning process; however, this should not lead to over-reliance on it since it might create a habit formation in the EFL classroom.

In addition, Kayaoğlu (2012) aimed to examine the theoretical and practical positions of English teachers regarding the use of first language in their classroom instruction in his study. A total of 44 teachers of English at the Black Sea Technical University participated in the study. The data were collected by administering a questionnaire containing 35 items and conducting an in-depth interview with 12 participants to gain more insight into the teachers' current classroom practices. The data gathered from the research suggest that in response to the question about their use of Turkish in foreign language classes, 91% of the participants agreed on the use of Turkish and 68% of the teachers stated that Turkish should be used "sometimes". Fully 97.7% of the instructors believed that their students grasp the grammatical instructions in Turkish better. The participants largely agreed with the idea that use of L1 for teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing is essential while it is not tolerable for listening and speaking activities.

Similarly, Sarandi (2013) examined Turkish instructors' perception regarding the role of Turkish in foreign language classes. First an open-ended questionnaire and then a five-point Likert questionnaire were administered to 46 English instructors working at a tertiary level institution in Istanbul. Sarandi's goal was to determine whether the instructors made use of L1 in their classes and, if they did, for what functions they used it. The results reveal that the instructors did not have identical views about use of Turkish. Out of the 46 instructors responding to the first questionnaire, five supported

the exclusive use of the TL for all classroom functions. On the other hand, other instructors were moderate concerning the incorporation of some L1 in their classes. They stated that despite the need for maximizing the TL use, under certain circumstances and for certain activities, some L1 use can help them with their teaching.

Studies carried out in diverse contexts and at various levels demonstrate that there is not a consensus on how much L1 should be used, what function it should perform in language classes, or whether these applications are really of help for second language learners in monolingual environments. Therefore, this incongruity seems to support the claims of advocates of a TL-only approach in EFL classrooms.

Although the English-only approach has been influential from second language learning theories to approaches, from language teaching policies to practices in classrooms around the globe, it is still debatable whether it should be encouraged or discouraged and there have been a vast number of studies advocating the latter (Butzkam, 2003; Cook, 2001; Kang, 2008; Lee & Macaro, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Moore, 2002; Nzwanga, 2002; Raschka, Sercombe, & Chi-Ling, 2009; Rolin-Lanziti, 2002; Thompson, 2006; et al.). They mostly ground their claims on sociocultural approach and the realities of language classrooms in different contexts. They allege that a TL-only attitude does not reflect either the actual practices of teachers or the teachers' and learners' beliefs. This claim was best expressed by Cook (2001): "*Naturam expelles furca, tamen usque recurret* which means 'like nature, the L1 creeps back in, however many times you throw it out with a pitch-fork'".

Unlike the interactionists who are against using MT in FL teaching, the supporters of L1 use in FL classrooms are guided by the sociocultural framework (Bruhlman, 2012). Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory describes learning as a social process. In other words, it is a theory about the development of human cognitive and higher mental functions, putting emphasis on the integration of social, cultural, and biological elements in learning processes and accentuating the role of sociocultural conditions in human cognitive development (Aimin, 2013). Thus the major theme of this framework is the role played by social interaction in the development of cognition (Williams & Burden, 1997).

According to Vanderheijden (2010), the extent to which L1 should be used, particularly by learners in EFL classrooms, can be treated effectively via Socio-Cultural Theory since it is a mediating tool with which we can communicate. Also, it can be used as a vehicle to complete tasks. Antón and DiCamilla (1999) maintained that use of MT

is helpful for language learning because it acts as a critical psychological tool enabling learners to construct effective collaborative dialogue in the completion of meaning-based language tasks by performing important cognitive functions (as cited in Vanderheijden, 2010).

In this regard, Butzkam (2003) defined the monolingual approach to teaching an FL as a "fundamental misconception". He maintained that we should re-build "the two-thousand year old" alliance between our MT and TL. He summarizes his attitude towards use of MT with a theory which he briefly stated thusly:

> Using the mother tongue we have learnt to think, learnt to communicate and acquired an intuitive understanding of grammar. The mother tongue is therefore the greatest asset people bring to the task of foreign language learning and provides a Language Acquisition Support System.

Apart from being a cognitive tool in the interaction processes, use of L1 provides other opportunities for both teachers and learners. According to Littlewood and Yu (2011), language teachers resort to learners' L1 in order to create constructive social relationships, to ensure comprehension while relaying complex meanings, to save time, and for classroom management. Explaining and analyzing grammar, initiating cross-cultural discussions, explaining errors, giving feedback, checking for comprehension, and reducing learners' anxiety are other functions of L1 in EFL classrooms (Inbar-Lourie, 2010).

Along similar lines, Oguro (2011) investigated the language choices made by teachers at an Australian university when communicating with their beginner-level students from six different language programs. Collected via online questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, the data reveal that the learners' anxiety about extensive classroom TL use impacts on the teachers' decisions to use the L1 or the TL at specific stages of a lesson. The reasons for using L1 with learners are affective conditions of students, communication of complex messages or content, increasing student participation, and saving time.

Furthermore, Moore (2002) investigated the roles and functions of L1 use in L2 classrooms. The functions of L1 (in that study, L1 is referred to as "code switching") are listed as: developing linguistic skills, transmitting subject content, and teaching concepts across cultural boundaries. Likewise, Meyer (2008) identified such functions of MT use in SL classrooms as cultural identity, classroom management,

comprehension checks, learner preferences, student requests for clarification, reducing language anxiety/affective function, triggering schema, consciousness raising, communication strategies, and CS. According to Meyer (2008), CS involves students replacing vocabulary items with terms from their L1 if they do not have sufficient vocabulary in the TL. CS could be used as a useful way of benefitting from the students' L1 to accentuate significant concepts and attract the students' attention if required.

To look at switching from L2 to L1 or L1 to L2 from the learners' perspective, Benthuysen (2007) reported Japanese ESL learners' attitudes towards MT use by their instructors. Data results suggest that students' attitudes differ depending on the purpose for which L1 is used and the native language of the instructor. According to those learners, instructors should switch to Japanese in order to explain complex syntactical rules of English rather than for classroom management and to give instructions. The results also show that native speakers of English are not expected to switch to Japanese as are English teachers who are Japanese.

The first thing that can be gathered from the above citations both for and against the use of L1, or CS, is that the data have shown a wide range of results in terms of the beliefs of teachers and students, and in the policies, theories, and approaches in use across different contexts. It is not possible to give preference to one over another since each side has strong justifications. In fact, there is a third viewpoint which acknowledges the significant role of L1 in FL learning, while at the same time emphasizing the need for maximal use of L2 in language classrooms.

Sampson's study (2012) could be given as an example of this. In his article, he describes the functions of CS in EFL classes at a Colombian language school. Two monolingual groups of Spanish-speaking adult learners studying general English at a private language school in Colombia were recorded. The learners' levels were upper-intermediate (CEF B2) and pre-intermediate (CEF A2). Two different levels were recorded in order to investigate if there is a link between proficiency level and number of CSs. The results demonstrated that learners at both upper-intermediate and pre-intermediate levels made use of CS for asking equivalence, meta-language, floor holding, reiteration, socializing, and L2 avoidance. The findings also revealed that the total number of CSs recorded at each level is the same. Therefore, it suggested that there was no relationship between the proficiency level of learners and number of CSs. As an implication of his study, Sampson (2012) expressed that the ban of L1 in EFL

classrooms could be harmful for the amount of communication and interaction taking place there. However, teachers should balance the current and future needs of their students. In other words, teachers should prepare their learners for non-L1 contexts and teach L2 coping strategies, for instance, paraphrasing, recasting, and simplifying the instructions.

On the basis of the literature given in order to introduce the background of the L1 or CS uses in communicative, immersion, and FL classrooms, it seems that optimal MT use provides some benefits for leaners, such as being a cognitive and meta-cognitive tool, a strategic organizer, and a scaffold for language development. Correspondingly, L1 aids learners holding a bilingual identity and thereby learning to function as bilinguals (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009, p. 183). Moreover, based on the literature published to date, Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) proposed that optimal CS practices will conclusively invite enhanced language learning and the development of bilingual communicative practices.

However, the specific details as to whether EFL teachers and secondary EFL students in the Turkish context make use of CS in classroom and, if so, how frequently and for what forms and purposes they resort to L1 (Turkish in this context) are still missing. Thus, to truly answer these questions of CS practices in secondary EFL classrooms, more research must be conducted. Therefore, the aspiration and the purpose of this study lie in the forms and functions of CS in secondary EFL classrooms along with whether these CSs of both parties contribute to teaching and to the learning environment. Furthermore, it is believed that with the aid of additional empirical research, not only EFL teachers but also EFL young language learners (YLLs) will be able to determine the role that CS plays/should play in their classroom and in their language learning.

1.3. Statement of the problem

A considerable amount of literature has been published on the use of CS in bilingual settings, ESL as well as EFL classrooms (Gardner-Chloros, McEntee-Atalianis, & Paraskeva, 2013; Kim, 2006; Li, 2008; Low & Lu, 2008; Riegelhaupt, 2000; Redinger, 2010; Saxena, 2009). During the past 30 years much more information has become available about the CS practices of bilingual speakers and of adult ESL and

EFL learners, especially at the tertiary level (Ahmad, 2009; Ellwood, 2008; Jingxia, 2010; Mirhasani & Mamaghani, 2009; Pei-shi, 2012; Van Der Meij & Zhao, 2010; Yao, 2011). In the local context, studies concerning the use of L1 or CS for adult learners have been carried out (Ataş, 2012; Bensen & Çavuşoğlu, 2013; Bilgin & Rahimi, 2013; Çelik, 2003; Şen, 2010; Üstünel, 2004).

These studies generally focus on teachers' attitudes or acts of CS at the secondary and tertiary levels. For example, Şen (2010) examined how exactly L1 is used by teachers at a high school to focus on form. After transcribing the instances of CS, teachers were asked why they thought their students used it. Similarly Bilgin & Rahimi (2013) investigated the functions, manner, reasons, and contributions of CS to the learning process of ELT from teachers' perspectives. Twenty teachers working at two Turkish universities were given a questionnaire with regard to their beliefs about acts of CS.

Furthermore, Bensen & Çavuşoğlu (2013) investigated the use of CS by teachers in EFL classrooms in the English Preparatory School of a private university in North Cyprus. Classroom interactions of four different teachers were recorded in order to identify the functions of CS. Follow-up playback sessions were held so as to reveal the perspectives of the teachers on their CSs. Another study conducted at university level by Üstünel (2004) attempts to describe how teachers make use of CS in ESL lessons. This study also reveals the students' responses to their teachers' CS acts and the impact of these acts on their use of TL.

In the same vein, but comparing two different proficiency levels at a Turkish university, Ataş (2012) analyzed the discourse functions and forms of CS used by learners and teachers in EFL classrooms in a case study. The researcher compared the amount of functions used by both parties at different levels. Another case study example investigating the amount of CS in EFL classrooms at a school of languages at a state university comes from Horasan (2014). The author recorded four classrooms consisting of 92 students and 8 teachers in terms of switch types, initiation patterns, and the discourse functions of CS, as well as the perceptions of the participants.

As to the studies concerning YLLs, they have become quite prominent in global settings as well. However, compared to the studies on adult learners, the amount of research about YLLs is sparse (Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Nagy & Robertson, 2009; Reyes, 2004; Qian, Tian, & Wang, 2009). Although there have been several studies with regard

to the CS practices of YLLs in an EFL environment in a global context, the number of studies carried out in the Turkish local context is quite limited (Elridge, 1996).

In his study Elridge (1996) focused on teachers' attitudes towards CS between Turkish and English in a secondary school context and provides some implications for teacher training. This piece of research is one of the pioneer studies designed for investigating the CS acts in late young learner classrooms in a Turkish setting, but from the perspective of the teachers, not that of the young EFL learners.

1.4. Purpose of the study

Deduced from the problems and available literature stated above, our study aims to fill a major gap, namely, the scarcity of studies in literature concerning Turkish EFL YLLs in the local context. The current research examines the languages chosen (English and Turkish) by young Turkish learners and their English teachers. Three secondary fifth-grade EFL classrooms were observed from the perspectives of both students and teachers.

The research aspires to determine whether students and teachers make use of CS in fifth-grade EFL classrooms and, if so, how frequently they code switch, what types of CS they use, when they resort to CS, what the functions of these switches are, and if the use of CS contributes to the teaching environment. In order to answer these questions: (a) relevant literature about CS in different contexts will be reviewed, (b) three different fifth-grade English lessons will be recorded, (c) recordings of these classes will be transcribed in order to identify CS instances, (d) in what circumstances these instances occur will be determined, (e) these instances will be evaluated in terms of types and functions, (f) semi-structured interviews will be administered to three English teachers and 20 students, (g) the responses of both students and teachers will be analyzed for content, (h) in light of the findings of this study some suggestions will be made to English language teachers, students, and policy makers with regard to use of CS in FL classrooms.

1.5. Research Questions

Conforming to the objectives and scope given above, this study explores the use of CS from teachers' and students' perspectives at two private secondary schools in the cities of Adana and Denizli. The following research questions constitute the basis of the current study:

1. Do students and teachers resort to CS in secondary EFL classrooms?
2. If so, how frequently do they code switch?
3. When do the students and teachers tend to code switch in general?
4. What types of CS do they use?
5. What are the functions of these switches?
6. And finally, does the use of CS contribute to the learners' language learning?

1.6. Significance of the Study

By taking the high status of English as an FL into account, this study has the potential to answer questions about the nature of classroom interaction between YLLs and teachers at Turkish EFL secondaryclassrooms, their beliefs with regard to CS, and, most importantly, actual practices of TL use in these classrooms.

The current research is significant since it is expected to contribute to the literature about the CS acts of young EFL learners and their non-native teachers. Although CS studies based on secondary learners in EFL settings have increased for two decades, the number of studies is not at an expected level in order to draw general guidelines for purposive and effective CS uses in EFL environments like Turkey, where exposure to TL and opportunities to practice the language outside the classroom are quite limited (Corcoll, 2013; Gil, Garau, & Noguera, 2012; Hancock, 1997; Macaro, 2001; Mokgwhati & Webb, 2013; Then & Ting, 2011; Qian, Tian, & Wang, 2009). In addition, this study does not provide only beliefs or functions of CS from a unilateral perspective. Further, it encompasses video recordings of naturally occurring CSs of both teachers and students. These data are supported via semi-structured interviews in order to reveal students' and teachers' opinions about their resorting to L1.

Moreover, studies with regard to CSs in primary and secondary EFL classrooms are quite rare in the local context; therefore, more studies canvassing the YLs' actual interactions with their teachers and peers, along with their attitudes toward the use of L1 in English classrooms, are needed. Lastly, this investigation could play an awareness-raising role so as to develop students' and teachers' understanding of second language learning and teaching. Sert (2005) stated that although the use of CS is not favored by many, CS studies will provide us an understanding of switching functions between learners and teachers. He claimed that this "heightened awareness" could be conducive to better instruction or language learning. It is hoped that this study will give some insights to the teachers about eliminating or integrating CS into their classrooms and raise the learners' awareness about their use of L1 in the classroom.

1.7. Operational Definitions

In this study, the following terms should be considered in their meanings below:

Young language learners (YLLs): YLLs are between seven and 12 years old (Slatterly & Willis, 2001). YLLs who took part in this study were those at the age of 11-12 in the fifth grade at private secondary schools in Çukurova, Adana, and Merkez, Denizli.

Code switching (CS): Although there are several definitions of CS in the literature, the definition of Poplack (1980) will be adopted here. As such, it is basically defined as the alternation between two languages within a single discourse or constituent.

1.8. Limitations

Despite contributions of this study to the current literature, there are four limitations of this study. The first one is that few classes were observed and a relatively small number of classroom hours were recorded. Therefore, it is difficult to make generalizations about the nature of CS practices and what the general types and functions of CS are like in Turkey's EFL young learner classrooms. The second limitation is that the content of the recorded classes are different from one another. For

instance, while Teacher I covered grammar, Teacher II reviewed workbook exercises. Accordingly, the patterns of CS observed and recorded might have been shaped by the nature of the particular classroom practice. Third, CS functions and occasions of students and teachers could have directly been interviewed about specific excerpts taken from the transcripts. In other words, stimulated recall methodology could have been adopted. The participants' interactive thoughts and decisions could have been elicited by inviting them to ponder upon their decisions and concurrent thoughts about the scenes in the video recordings. Thus, the final question of this research whether CS contributed to the teaching environment could deservedly be answered with a more detailed and longitudinal knowledge about EFL classrooms in Turkey. Fourth, the video recordings might have been influenced by the observer effect. Since the video recordings were carried out by the researcher herself, and these recordings were made only once due to availability of the schools and participants, these factors could have affected the participants' behaviours at the time of recording.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, definitions and terminology associated with CS are given and discussed. Furthermore, concepts related to CS, different approaches to investigate it in different environments, and its types and functions are presented. This section ends with CS in young language learner EFL classrooms, which is the central aspect of this study.

2.2. CS: Terminology and Definitions

A considerable amount of literature has been published on CS since the study of CS has been on the spotlight for several disciplines and contexts which range from sociolinguistics and anthropology to discourse analysis and conversation analysis, from bilingual classrooms to EFL classrooms (Auer, 1988; Li, 2008; Sert, 2005; Milroy & Muysken, 1995; Nilep, 2006; Poplack, 1980). Due to its complicated essence and intersection at various interdisciplinary approaches, there has not been a consensus on definition of CS and related terms.

This definitional dilemma among scholars has been stated by many researchers who investigate CS in different contexts via different approaches, and each of them adopts a definition which fits their approaches and needs (Boztepe, 2003; Chan, 2007; Üstünel, 2004; van Dulm, 2007). Despite the fact that there was an initiative called 'Network on CS and Language Contact' to unify "terminological jungle" under one theme, the efforts to reach a consensus have never been successful (Yletyinen, 2004).

The earliest definition of CS belongs to Weinreich (1953) who defined it as switching from one language to another in accordance with appropriate changes in speech situation and described this phenomenon for a bilingual speaker (Redouane, 2005). In the same vein, CS is the alternate use of two or more languages by bilinguals within the same conversation (Milroy & Muysken, 1995). Poplack (1980) defined CS as "the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent". In

an earlier report, Poplack (1980) categorized CS by means of integration degrees of items from one language to the morphological, phonological and syntactic pattern of other language.

Another definition comes from Myers-Scotton (1989) who defined CS as the use of two or more languages in the same conversation without a marked phonological assimilation from one language to the other. On the other hand, from a structural perspective, Bokamba (1989) explained CS as the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two different grammatical systems (as cited in Van der Meij & Zhao, 2010). The structural perspective to CS focuses on *what* language alternations and regularities are behind these occurrences whereas the functional perspective addresses why certain alternations occur and the reasons and effects of CSs (Van der Meij & Zhao, 2010).

Halmari (2004) delineated the study of CS as the incorporation of two or more languages into the same *conversational episode*. Halmari (2004) stated that CS studies have acquired a legitimate status within the linguistics framework to a great extent, especially studies concerning bilinguals and their communities which have provided rich information for a) *syntacticians* interested in the universal properties of language b) *psycholinguists* dedicated to the organization of bilingual mind c) *sociolinguists* examining how the choice of code reflects distinct social constructs such as power and prestige d) *discourse analysts* as a discourse-organizational strategy and e) *pragmaticians* investigating interpersonal relations and conversation dynamics.

Therefore, it can be deduced from the definitions given above which CS and its constituents vary according to the framework and approach adopted by the researcher. However, not only the rationales but also the terms used for describing language alternation differ greatly from each other. In other words, while some researchers use the term CS-even the space between code and switching can be used or dropped- others use code-mixing or code alternation (Ataş, 2012; Boztepe, 2003; Sabec, n.d.; Yletyinen, 2004).

In the UNESCO Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems (EOLSS), Sabec (n.d.) asserts that even though CS is the most prevalent term used for describing the alternate use of two linguistic systems within the same conversation, there are also other terms, such as code-mixing, code-shifting, code-changing, code-alternation, language-mixing and borrowing. According to her, the difference stems from opposing theories and

models used by different scholars. She argues that there are two dichotomies existing first between CS, and code-mixing; and second, CS and borrowing.

2.2.1. CS vs. Code-Mixing

Although the terms CS and code-mixing have been widely used and discussed by many researchers in a variety of relevant fields like anthropology, sociolinguistics, philosophy and psycholinguistics, opinions are still "polarized" concerning definitions of them (Olumuyiwa, 2013).

In a recent publication, Poplack (2013) explained this polarization between CS and code-mixing by commenting on her seminal work on typology of CS as follows:

> What qualifies Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish Y TERMINO EN ESPAÑOL as the most heavily cited paper in the 50-year history of Linguistics? It did inspire a substantial and productive research tradition, but it has also generated recurrent and ongoing attacks. I'd like to reflect on why its main proposals have been so controversial, and what their current status is today. A remarkable fact is that despite 33 years of intense research activity since Sometimes was published, there is still no consensus on the nature or identity of even the major manifestations of language contact (codeswitching [CS] and borrowing [B]), let alone the linguistic conditions governing their use.

Poplack's comments on ongoing dichotomies regarding CS and related terminologies show that despite the fact that more than three decades have passed over her typology, the terminology of CS is still shrouded in mystery. Moreover, Li (2000) predicted that due to terminological problems in the field, no studies concerning CS will refrain from being unambiguous in terms of defining these two terms.

As to the definitions, Poplack (1980) defined code-mixing as combining two or more languages within a sentence whereas CS refers to switching between two or more languages at the clause level. By way of explanation, code-mixing occurs within sentences usually at the word level or idiomatic expressions while CS occurs across sentences (Shin, 2010). Correspondingly, Sridhar & Sridhar (1980) used the term code-mixing in order to describe intra-sentential switches whereas they reserve the term CS for inter-sentential alternations. Boztepe (2003) explicated that the reason for this differentiation is because only code-mixing necessitates the integration of the maxims of the two languages in the same discourse; however, if the structural constraints are concerned, the intra- vs. inter-sentential distinction can distinguish these two types quite

well. Thus, the use of either term chiefly depends on the individual, yet it creates "unnecessary confusion."

2.2.2. CS vs. Borrowing

There has been confusion among researchers regarding the definition of alternating between two or more languages as either CS or code-mixing for more than 30 years. This confusion has been experienced no less when it comes to making a distinction between CS and borrowing.

Tatsioka (2010) described borrowing or loanwords as the words which are taken from one language and used in another. Therefore, borrowing refers to lexical items only, and one-word items are borrowed from one language into another in general (Yletyinen, 2004). According to Pfaff (1979), borrowing might occur in the speech of monolingual speakers while CS requires a certain degree of competence in two languages. In other words, borrowings differ from CS in the way that they are used to fill lexical gaps by monolinguals while CS or code-mixing can be operated at every level of lexical and syntactical structure by bilinguals (Shin, 2010).

Similarly, Muysken (1995) defined borrowing as the embodiment of lexical elements of one language in the lexicon of another language (as cited in van Dulm, 2007). He states that there are three levels to discriminate in the process. First, a fluent bilingual embeds a word from A language into B. Second, the embodiment of this word is frequently used in the speech community and then the word becomes adapted to the rules of language B and with regards to phonology, morphology and syntax. Third, the word is completely accommodated into the lexicon of B language. In sum, a fully integrated word of foreign origin is regarded as one of language B's own words (Tatsioka, 2010).

In order to identify CS and borrowing, some views have been proposed. For instance, Poplack (1980) proposed three ways to distinguish these two concepts from each other: the adaptation of a word in the donor language into the recipient one in terms of phonology, syntax and morphology. On the other hand, Myers-Scotton (1993) claimed that the difference between CS and borrowing is not critical to analysing bilingual speech, and she does not regard CS and borrowing as two disparate concepts (as cited in Yletyinen, 2004).

As can be deduced from the definitions and claims given above, there is not an agreement on either CS and code-mixing or CS and borrowing concepts. Since the purpose of this study is to determine CS patterns and their functions in Turkish EFL YLL classrooms from teachers' and learners' perspective, the term CS will be used throughout the data analysis and discussion parts. However, the types of CS will be explained and used to interpret the data.

2.3. Approaches to CS

The motive to investigate CS requires the phenomena to be contemplated from different perspectives and approaches. Since CS utterances indicate speakers' underlying motivations for why, when and how they switch from one language to another, the issue has been approached from different spheres, such as linguistic, sociolinguistic and ethnographic (Ataş, 2012). Consequently, the researchers working in these different domains have proposed different typologies and approaches to analyse the utterances and the factors affecting them.

2.3.1. Sociolinguistic Approach to CS

Sociolinguistic approach to CS aims to unearth the reasons for the speakers' attempts to change the codes. In the groundwork of this perspective not only the underlying motives of interlocutors, but also the social factors surrounding these attempts are sought after. Gardner-Chloros (2009) identified three factors contributing to the form taken by CS in a particular instance. The first group of *factors* are described as independent of certain speakers and circumstances in varieties within a specific community, such as economic market forces, power relations, and prestige and covert prestige. The second group of *factors* involve an association of speakers with a variety of sub-groups, not only as an individual, but also as a member of these sub-groups. The attachment of the speaker to these sub-groups consists of the speaker's competence in each variety, his/her social networks and relationship, his/her attitudes and ideologies, and his/her self-perception and perception of others. The third group of *factors* are observed within the conversations where CS occurs. Pursuant to this group, CS is

crucial conversational property for interlocutors, providing many tools to arrange their discourse. In contrast, monolinguals do not have access to these tools (Gardner, Chloros, p.42-43).

In addition to the factors given by Gardner-Chloros (2009), Rezaeian (2009) listed other factors related with social elements such as gender, age, social class, ethnicity, race, and community size. These factors influence speakers' linguistic behaviours which compose an individual's heterogeneous language.

Apart from these factors, there are two major approaches directing CS studies from a sociolinguistic perspective. These approaches are Gumperz's (1982) "*we-code*" and "*they-code*" and Myers-Scotton's "*The Markedness Model*" (1993). Exploring the connections between language and identity from an interactional sociolinguistic perspective, Gumperz (1982, p.66) identified the languages as "*we-code*" and "*they-code*". The former characterizes the minority and in-group language and the latter refers to the majority language. While the relationship between the language and minority, namely "*we-code*", defines informal activities within an ethnic minority group, "*they-code*" is associated with more formal out-group relations (Ricento, 2005).

An extract given by Torras and Gafaranga (2005) illustrated one of the speaker's associating the social identity of another speaker with language choice (as cited in Gafaranga, 2005).

Extract 2

At a Scottish pub in Barcelona. A is the bar attendant and B is a customer.

1. A: hola (hi)
2. B: erm are you Scottish
3. A: no (.) I'm Irish
4. B: ah well
5. A: near enough
6. B: erm (.) I'll have (.) a Lagavulin

The extract demonstrates that speaker B enquires after the bartender's nationality and assumes that the bartender is Scottish. It might be deduced from the extract that the customer wants to know the bartender's nationality since if s/he is Scottish or Irish, then the language to be spoken will be in English. If not, then the speakers will continue to speak in Spanish as initiated by the bartender.

Another sociolinguistic approach to mention in this study is Myers-Scotton's "The Markedness Model" (1993). Myers-Scotton (1995) described CS as "the selection by bilinguals/monolinguals of forms from two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation." She claims that both structurally based and socially based considerations play a role in structuring CS utterances. Moreover, she acknowledges the contribution of social factors as well as structural ones in language change. Therefore, "The Markedness Model" is based on the premise that speakers make code choices at any linguistic level to adjust their interpersonal relationships, and this may involve social-group membership signals as well. Another premise is that humans are innately inclined to make use of CS as negotiations of "position". In other words, interlocutors use their linguistic choices as resources to index for others, their perceptions of self, and tools of rights and obligations between self and others (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

"*The Markedness Model*" proposes four maxims in order to explain the social motivation of CS in a "principled and parsimonious" way (Myers-Scotton, 1993). These are explained in the following:

1. *The Sequential Unmarked Choice Maxim:* This maxim refers to switching from one *unmarked code* to another when situational aspects change in the midst of an interaction in such a way that the *unmarked choice* changes.
2. *The CS as an Unmarked Choice Maxim: Unmarked CS* occurs when speakers wish to be affiliated with idiosyncrasies associated with more than one code used in their community. Myers-Scotton (1993) differentiated the *unmarked CS* from other types of CS in many different ways. For instance, compared to the situations where *marked CS* occurs, *unmarked CS* takes place in a more limited fashion. She explained the distinction between the two as *unmarked CS* typically occurs among bilingual peers in daily and in-group conversations; however, *marked CS* takes place in all types of interactions from very formal events to informal ones. The only requirement is that the speakers must be bilingual to a certain extent, and must be prompted to resort to a *marked choice*.

Myers-Scotton's (1993) CS research in Africa could be given as tailor-made examples to illustrate how this maxim operates. The excerpt given comes from Nairobi, Kenya where English and Swahili are both official languages. In this multi-ethnic urban area, these two languages have different attributions: English is equated with high-status in more formal contexts whereas Swahili is of its own prestige and refers to an "African" identity.

(2) First young man: Kweli BEER a-na-i-TAKE kwa HOURS tano
truly 3sG-PRoG-oar-takefo r five
'It's true, he was taking beer for five hours.'
Second young man: Huyu jamaa tu-li-po-kutana TOWN, jamaa a-li-kuwa
this person we-PAsT-when-met person he-PAsT-be
na STEAM hata u-ka-fikiria pengine a-na manzi huko.
with even yOu-CONSEC-thoughpte rhaps he-with girl there
Wapi, kumbe, STEAMy-a bure. Hata ku-ingia i-li-kuwa PROBLEMS.
nothing lo-and-behold cl. 9-of for-nothing even to-enter it-PAST-be
'When we met this guy in town, he had a lot of steam (anxiety). In fact we thought maybe he had a girl there [at the party waiting for him]. Lo and behold, steam for nothing. In fact to enter was problems (i.e. he had a lot of problems getting into the party).'

The words written with capital letters are examples of *embedded language*, in this case embedded language is English. On the other hand, Swahili represents the *matrix language*. Therefore, it could be concluded from the example that when speakers have social profiles embracing the identities related to two languages, and want to signal these identities, then CS might become their unmarked choice. While on the subject, it would be helpful to define *matrix language* and *embedded language* terms which are related to CS as well.

Also known as *base language*, *matrix language* basically addresses the dominant language while *embedded language* refers to the inserted language (Auer & Muhamedova, 2005). Therefore, *matrix language* could be identified as the first language of the speaker or the language in which the morphemes or words are regularly used in bilingual speech (Namba, 2000). There are some constraints to differ between *matrix language* and *embedded language.* These constraints underlie the premises of Matrix Language Framework by Myers-Scotton (1993), which will be explained in the linguistic approaches to CS part in detail.

3. *The Marked Choice Maxim:* Myers-Scotton (1993) defined CS as a *marked choice* as a strategy to change the social distance. These moves are implemented to increase social distance and express anger to direct the attention of the authority toward the code to which the switch is made. However, these

negotiations could be used to signal a less social distance too as in the excerpt given by Myers-Scotton (1993):

(4) Clerk (Swahili): Ee-sema.
'OK-what do you want?' (lit.: 'speak')
Customer: Nipe fomu ya kuchukua pesa.
'Give me the form for withdrawing money.'
Clerk: Nipe kitabu kwanza.
'Give me [your] book first.'
(Customer gives him the passbook.)
Customer: Hebu, chukua fomu yangu.
'Say, how about taking my form.'
Clerk: Bwana, huwezi kutoa pesa leo kwa sababu hujamaliza siku saba.
'Mister, you can't take out money today because you haven't yet finished seven days (sincethe last withdrawal).'
Customer (switching to Luo): KONYA AN MARACH.
'Help, I'm in trouble.'
Clerk (also switching to Luo): ANYALO KONY, KIK INUO KENDO.
'I can help you, but don't repeat it.'

The excerpt takes place between a clerk and client, and the *unmarked code* between the two is Swahili. However, the customer switches from Swahili to Luo, which is an ethnic group and also the name of this group's language, when he realizes that clerk is a Luo as well. This excerpt is a good example of one of the speaker's switch to the other code to create a less formal environment to attract the attention of the authority and get his transaction done.

4. *The Exploratory Choice Maxim:* It ascribes to less abstract exchanges in which an unmarked choice is not so discernible. Specifically, CS is used to propose one or more codes, each the unmarked index of a possible rights and obligations alignment with the interaction.

Among four maxims, Myers-Scotton (1993) regarded unmarked CS (2) and marked CS (3) as most relevant analysis; since she claimed that these two maxims reveal structurally motivated constraints on CS with socio-pragmatic motives. For these reasons, more detailed explanations and examples are given in order to illustrate the relationship between CS and *markedness* or *unmarkedness* in this study.

2.3.2. Conversational Approach to CS

Conversational Analysis (CA) is an ethnomethodological research which was developed by Sacks in collaboration with her colleagues Schegloff and Jefferson (1974).

CA basically aims to investigate the interactions as indicators of speakers' competencies in a sequential manner. Based on the premise that interaction is structurally organized and contextually oriented, CA puts great emphasis on sequentiality.

The CA perspective in CS research was augmented by Auer (1988). Auer (1988) based his research on naturally occurring everyday talk and institutional discourse. In one of his eminent works, Auer (1988) investigated the native language of Italian migrant children n Constance, West-Germany. He collected his data via recording their spontaneous and non-spontaneous speech while they were interacting with each other, the field workers and their parents. 19 children between 6-16 ages participated in this study. The audio and visual recordings obtained from these interactions were analysed on the basis of transcriptions. The primary question was: If the children switch from A language to B or vice versa so as to organize their linguistic activities, then what is the status attributed to these languages?

As a result of this investigation, two categories emerged from the data: *participant-related switching* and *discourse-related switching* (Auer, 1988). Principally, *discourse-related switching* refers to CS, which contextualizes some features of the conversation and makes a contribution to the discourse organization (Chan, 2007). However, *participant-related switching* denotes to CS indicating the speaker's preference as to whether the speaker avoids speaking the language in which s/he has limited competence (Chan, 2007).

Moreover, Auer (1988) mentioned the presence of a dichotomy between participants and discourse and he explains it as follows:

> In the organization of bilingual conversation, participants face two types of tasks. First, there are problems specifically addressed to language choice. A given conversational episode may be called bilingual as soon as participants orient to the question of which language to speak. Second, participants have to solve a number of problems independently of whether they use one or more languages; these are problems related to the organization of conversation in general, e.g. to turn-taking, topical cohesion, 'key' (in Hymes' sense), the constitution of specific linguistic activities. The alternating use of two languages may be a means to cope with these problems.

The quotation above shows that Auer (1988) explained the participant and discourse factors influencing the choice of CS with a sequential approach. In other words, the meaning and function of CS have to be interpreted within the context shaped by the participants on a turn-by-turn basis.

Auer (1995) argued that CS is essentially one of the different contextualization cues available to the speakers. Regarding CS as an index of language negotiation, Auer (1995) maintained that a deliberate analysis of CS is required to find the structural features which regulate the dynamic nature of a conversational event.

Another important figure investigating CS from a conversational analytic approach is Gumperz (1982). Gumperz defined the conversational CS as "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or sub-systems." (1982, p. 59).

Gumperz (1982) identified six basic discourse functions based on various CS studies carried out in different language contact situations, such as North India, Austria and the US: *quotation*, *addressee specification*, *interjection* (sentence filler), *reiteration*, *message* q*ualification*, *personalization versus objectivization*.

Quotation refers to CS from one language to another in order to mark a distinction between a direct and indirect speech in an utterance. In other words, CS can be determined either as a direct speech or as indirect speech. *Addressee specification* function describes when a speaker chooses another language different from the one spoken in the immediate environment in order to express his/her message to a specific addressee. *Interjection* can serve as a tag switching which is basically described as an insertion of a word in one language into a sentence in another language. It can serve as a sentence-filler as well. *Reiteration* function can be utilized to clarify or emphasize a message by the speaker. The speaker could also switch to another language to repeat what has been said in a different language. *Message qualification* takes place when a message is given in one language and then the speaker elaborates what has been said in another language. And finally, *personalization versus objectivization* function describes the extent to which a speaker engages or disengages from a message.

Gumperz (1982) argued that identifying and isolating functions of conversational CS is the primary step to take because these functions lead to categorizations with which one may interpret the data. However, he added that not only the identification of discourse functions, but also external factors which impact the speakers should be considered while analysing the discourse.

2.3.3. Linguistic Approach to CS

Poplack's (1980) *free morpheme constraints* and *equivalent constraints*, Myers-Scotton's (1993) *Matrix Language-Frame Model* (MLF), and Muysken's (2000) *insertion, alternation, and congruent lexicalization* concepts have shed light upon how to analyse CS or code-mixing in bilingual environments. These different models and constraints have approached CS from syntactic, morphosyntactic, and psycholinguistic aspects and presented several alternatives to explain CS in bilingual contexts. These researchers have especially focused on intra-sentential CS in order to explain the phenomena and have even regarded intra-sentential CS as an alternative to CS (Muysken, 2000).

Poplack has been one of the pioneers of CS studies approached from a surface structural perspective. Defining CS as "the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent", Poplack (1980) maintained that although functional components are the strongest constraints on the occurrence of CS, linguistic factors have an important role in this phenomenon as well. Thus, she claims that it is necessary to design a model which incorporates both functional and linguistic factors.

In her inspiring research, Poplack (1980) analysed the conversations of 20 Puerto Ricans residing in a bilingual community who demonstrated varying linguistic competence. She examined their CSs quantitatively. She found that not only fluent bilingual but also non-fluent bilingual speakers frequently attempted to switch codes, yet managed to sustain grammaticality both in L1 and L2. According to this study, fluent bilinguals tended to switch at different syntactic boundaries whereas non-fluent ones opted for switching between sentences, allowing them to participate in the CS more without hesitating to break a grammatical rule of either languages.

The instances of CSs by Puerto Rican residents generated two important constraints: *free morpheme constraint* and *equivalence constraint* (1980, 2001). *Free morpheme constraint* points out that the codes could be switched after any constituent in a bilingual's discourse on the condition that the constituent is not a bound morpheme and a lexical item (Chan, 2007). This constraint operates at all linguistic, but phonological levels (Poplack, 1980). Poplack (1980) gave two examples in order to explain how this constraint works.

(4) una buena exCUSE [eh'kjuws]
'a good excuse'
(5) *EAT - iendo
'eating

The example (4) shows that it is possible to come across such a segment in which the first syllable follows the Caribbean Spanish propensity to pronounce "s" before a voiceless consonant whereas the second syllable follows English phonological patterns (Poplack, 1980). She expressed that in segment (5) the Spanish form of "-ing" *–iendo* affixed to the English root 'eat' is not possible to observe if one of the morphemes do not phonologically conform to the home language.

Equivalent constraint is associated with switched sentences which are made up fragments of alternating languages, each of which is grammatical in the syntactical rules of either language (Poplack, 1980). In other words, the points in which the elements of L1 and L2 coincide should not violate syntactic rule of either languages involved. Poplack and Sankoff (1988) anticipated problems at switch points with languages which have different word order. For instance, there should not be switches between adjective and noun order in Spanish and English since the single word adjective placement in English is basically pre-modifying; and on the other hand, inherently post-modifying (as cited in Chan, 2007).

Moreover, Riegelhaupt (2000) enunciated that a CS cannot just occur at any place in a sentence. Rather, it needs to take place at appropriate places. Particularly, whereas nouns can be switched comparatively easily, other types of switches, such as adjectives and adverbs require specific conditions. Hence, it could be deduced from the explanations about the constraints that free morpheme and equivalent constraints feature specific conditions in order for CS to take place.

The MLF Model which was proposed by Myers-Scotton (1993) explains the asymmetrical relationship between the dominant language (i.e. *matrix language*) and the inserted language (i.e. *embedded language*). The model argues for a production-based scenario in which the basic constraints are at a more abstract level than surface phrase structure. By this argument, Myers-Scotton (1993, p. 485) claims that MLF contrasts with earlier research approaching CS in terms of surface features, such as matching word order between two different languages, or theoretically-based models which are

inspired by CS constraints with the contingencies posited for monolingual phrase structures within a Government/Binding framework.

Although the MLF Model claims to depart from earlier attempts to describe the relationship between the two varieties or languages, it is undeniable that it was influenced by psycholinguistic theories (Myers-Scotton, 1993). These three theories are a differential activation of base language and guest language of Grosjean (1988), and Garret's speech error study (as cited in Myers-Scotton, 1993) for the different retrieval process of closed and open class items, and lemmas in the mental lexicon linking conceptual information and grammatical function in Levelt's (1989) language production model (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

Devised to examine intra-sentential CS, MLF Model is fundamentally based on two distinctions: *ML (matrix language) vs. EL (embedded language*), and *the system morpheme vs. content morpheme* (Myers-Scotton, 1993). *ML vs. EL* hierarchy is explained with three types of constituents within intra-sentential CS:

1. ML islands are comprised exclusively of morphemes from the ML since these islands show internal structural dependency while meeting ML "well-formedness conditions" at the same time.

2. EL islands are formed entirely by EL morphemes; therefore, they must meet EL "well-formedness conditions".

3. And final type is the mix form of ML and EL constituents, which is comprised of two different patterns.

These constituents demonstrate that the two languages are of different and unequal roles. In other words, the ML is much more dominant compared to the EL, and its morphemes could move more freely within the structure (Myers-Scotton, 1993). Therefore, it could be concluded that the MLF Model constrains the role of EL with its system morphemes.

As to the *system morpheme vs. content morpheme* dichotomy, Namba (2000) explained that the distinction between *the content* and *system morphemes* is essential in identifying the ML. On the one hand, content morphemes, such as verbs, adjectives, nouns and some prepositions demonstrate semantic and pragmatic aspect as well as assign or receive thematic roles. On the other hand, system morphemes, for instance function words or inflections, state the association between content morphemes, and they do not receive or accredit thematic roles in contrast to content morphemes. The state morphemes are crucial in building grammatical frames. Therefore, while system

morphemes are employed only from the ML, content morphemes are acquired not only from the ML but also the EL in a bilingual syntactic structure.

Myers-Scotton (1993, p.487) proposed two principles in order to identify the ML in bilingual syntactical structures via this *content vs. system morphemes* distinction. These two testable principles are called *The ML Hypothesis.* These principles are the following:

1. *The Morpheme Order Principle*: According to this principle, surface morpheme must comply with the ML in ML+EL constituents.

2. *The system Morpheme Principle*: This principle requires all the 'externally relevant' system morphemes to come from the ML in ML+EL constituents.

Myers-Scotton (1993) suggested three properties to distinguish morphemes with regards to quantifying and assigning thematic roles to them. At this point, one could question why Myers-Scotton proposed principles to identify the ML rather than the EL. Therefore, she clarified the importance of the ML in the syntactical structure first by emphasizing its role in setting the sentence frame when CS takes place. Moreover, Myers-Scotton (1993) asserted that the identification of the ML is crucial and must be 'independently' determined. Second, since the ML can be labelled as the language which supplies comparatively more morphemes in a discourse in which the CS occurs than the EL does. According to Myers-Scotton (1993), these two factors contribute to the essence of the ML distinction in bilingual discourses.

Investigating CS with an intra-sentential focus, Muysken (2000) yielded a new perspective on the central aspects of the human linguistic capacity. Initiating with the question how a bilingual speaker can combine elements from two languages while processing mixed sentences, he introduced an extensive model of investigating the grammatical constraints of CS. In his model, he focused on intra-sentential code-mixing (he used it as an alternative to CS). Muysken (2000, p.3) claimed that the patterns of code-mixing are different from each other and indexes the basic structural constraints as: *insertion, alternation* and *congruent lexicalization*. The first term *insertion* is delineated by the insertion of a lexical item or entire constituents from one language into a structure from the other language. He illustrates this constraint with an example which an entire Dutch in which prepositional phrase is inserted into the matrix language, in this case: Moluccan Malay.

(1) kalau dong tukan bikin dong tukan bikin
When they always make they always make
voor acht personen dek orang Cuma nganga dang makan
for eight persons and then people only look they eat
'When they [cook], it is always for eight, people and then they only look at it, they eat…'

(Moluccan/Malay/Dutch/Huwaë 1992)

The second term, *alternation* refers to switching codes between turns or utterances at the points where alternation is affiliated with constraints with regards to compatibility or equivalence of two languages (Muysken, 2000, p.4). He stated that in some cases, "it seems that halfway through the sentence one language is replaced by the other." Therefore, the languages alternate as in the following Moroccan Arabic/Dutch example of Nortier (1990):

(4) maar 't hoeft niet li-'anna ida šeft ana…
but it need not be for when I-see I
'but it need not be for when I see, I…'

As can be seen in the excerpt, the speaker alternates from the A language to the B in the middle of the sentence. This change is observed in the grammatical structure and lexicon of both languages. The third term *congruent lexicalization* describes a situation where two languages have a grammatical structure in common, and this structure can be filled lexically with elements from either language (Muysken, 2000, p.6). .In other words, *congruent lexicalization* is grammatically unconstrained since the same grammatical structures are shared by two different languages, and words from both languages are inserted in a similar fashion (Chan, 2007).

Poplack's (1980) analysis of Puerto-Rican residents in terms of their CS provided valuable examples for *congruent lexicalization* (as cited in Muysken, 2000, p.6). The following excerpt exemplifies the fact that the fragments (A), (B), or (C) do not abide by the rules of the matrix language, but rather by rules commonly observed in both Spanish and English.

(9) (A) Why make Carol *sentarse atrás* (B) *pa'que* everybody
sit at the back so that
has to move (C) *pa'que se salga*
so that [she] may get out

Muysken (2000, p.10) mentioned a gradual shift from one base language to a shared structure and then to the other base language consecutively. In other words, a speaker with a limited proficiency in a home language might gradually move from *insertion* to *congruent lexicalization* and finally evolve into alternation if these three concepts are accepted as proficiency levels.

Although these approaches have been collected mainly from bilingual environments and they do not reflect the situation in EFL young language learner classrooms, which is the main concern of the present study, it is believed that these studies cited above will shed light upon the data collected for this study with regards to identifying CS structurally and determining their discourse functions. In a nutshell, these are highly crucial for interpreting the data at hand.

2.4. CS Typologies

Similar to the approaches which examine CS from different linguistic perspectives, CS typologies enable researchers to investigate its constituents in bilingual environments from different aspects. Besides different linguistic aspects, there is not a consensus about whether some typologies express their functions or types. For instance, whether Blom and Gumperz's categories should be considered as CS types or functions, or Muysken's (2000) classifications as CS category or function, remain vague. In this study, Blom and Gumperz's categories are described as CS types, and Muysken's classifications (i.e. *insertion, alternation, and congruent lexicalization*) are explained as constraints analysed from linguistic perspective. Apart from, Blom and Gumperz's categorization, Poplack's (1980a, 1987, 2013) typology (i.e. *inter-sentential switching, intra-sentential switching and tag switching*) is explained, since this study bases its CS categorization on her typology.

As a part of sociolinguistics perspective, *situational* and *metaphorical CS* concepts are suggested by Blom and Gumperz (1972). Carried out in a small town in Norway, Blom and Gumperz's ethnographical data revealed that the way the local people used the codes was both ordered and anticipated (1972). These code differentiation processes were grouped into two categories: *situational switching and metaphorical switching*.

Situational switching refers to the change in the alternation of code according to the setting, such as home, church, court etc., and the audience (family members, friends, teachers and so forth) (Chan, 2007). On the other hand, *metaphorical switching* could be described as the changes in the topic within the same conversation (Blom & Gumperz, 1972). For instance, interactions which took place between the clerks and residents in a community office demonstrated that while greetings and daily conversations occurred in the local dialect, Ranamål, the conversations about business transactions took place in Bokmål, the standard language (Blom & Gumperz, 1972).

Initiated as an opposition to earlier literature which describes the CS as deviant, random, and a sign of lack of linguistic competence, Poplack (1980) aimed to design a research which proves the opposite: CS is rule-governed in many aspects and a good indicator of bilingual competence degree. In her ground-breaking research among Puerto Rican residents in El Barrio, the US, she pointed to a necessity of forming a single model which integrates not only functional, but also linguistic factors into CS behaviours. Although Poplack (1980, p.585) acknowledged that functional factors are the strongest constraints on the occurrence of CS, in this study the researcher not only showed the role of functional factors prompting bilinguals to resort to CS, but also the linguistic factors' role in CS behaviours.

As a result of the CS occurrence analyses, Poplack (1980) grouped her findings into three: *inter-sentential switching, intra-sentential/intimate switching, and tag/emblematic switching*. *Inter-sentential* CS refers to the switches occurring at a clause or sentence boundary in which every clause or sentence is in a different language. According to Yletyinen (2004) this type of CS occurs between turns as well. Since it occurs between sentences or clauses, it requires the least integration. For *inter-sentential* CS, Yletyinen (2004) gave the famous title of Poplack's phenomenal study: *Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y terminó en Español.* (Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish and finish it in Spanish)

Intra-sentential CS takes place within a sentence and requires much more knowledge of L2 grammar to produce an utterance compared to *inter-sentential* CS which involves full sentences or larger segments (Poplack, 1980, p.605). Poplack (1980) maintained that in order to produce *intra-sentential* CS, the speaker must have sufficient knowledge of L2 grammar so that s/he can avoid ungrammatical sentences. Moreover, according to the results of her study, the speakers with the greatest ability to use both languages were the ones who preferred to use *intra-sentential CS* in their

conversations. The excerpt given below illustrates how it involves a high percentage of intra-sentential CS (Poplack, 1980, p. 589):

(7) b. He was sitting down EN LA CAMA, MIRANDONOS PELEANDO,Y (in bed, watching us fighting and)really, I don't remember SI EL NOSSEPARO (if· he separated us) or whatever, you know.

(43/412)

This example shows that using intra-sentential CS requires a good knowledge of two languages, since this type must comply with the syntactical structure of both languages. The last item in Poplack's (1980) typology is called *tag/emblematic CS*. *Tag switching* refers to the insertion of an item into a sentence or clause without violating any grammatical rules. This type requires the least competence in L2 compared to the first two, and it ranks at the bottom of the typology if it were likened to a scale. It might be due to the fact that tags can be moved freely because they do not have any syntactical constraints.

(8) a. Vendia arroz (He sold rice) 'N SHIT. (07/79)
b. Salian en sus c'arros y en sus (They would go out in their cars' and in their) SNOWMOBILES.

(08/192)

These two examples illustrate that *tag switches* are "less intimate" than *intra-sentential* ones. This is because no change will be observed in its syntactic structure, if they are removed from the current sentence. Also, the word place in these sentences can easily be changed without violating any syntactical rules of both base and embedded languages.

To conclude the typologies to CS, the figure given by Poplack (1980, p. 614) will be provided below to illustrate clearly how these types operate within sentences. In this figure, one can easily observe the extent to which each language exists within their boundaries.

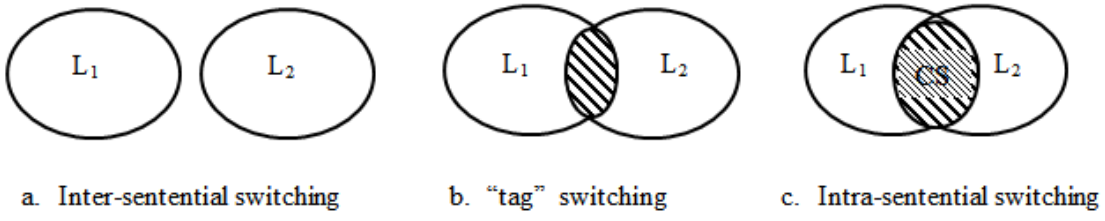

Figure 1. Representation of bilingual CS grammars

Representing inter-sentential CS, the separate circles demonstrate that there is no CS within a sentence, yet the two different languages occur in different sentences or clauses. The slightly intertwined circles illustrate the extent to which the effect of the *embedded language* (English) is restricted within the *matrix language* (Spanish). The highly intertwined circles describe the *intra-sentential* CS in which both languages exist within the same sentence.

2.5. Functions of CS

Various frameworks and types of analyses have been carried out in order to describe the functions of CS in diverse contexts. For these analyses, Gumperz's conversational CS (1982), Auer's (1995) discourse-related and participant-related CS, Canagarajah's (1995) micro- and macro-functions of CS in the classrooms are some examples of these analyses. As to the various contexts, each of them has presented its own functional approach for examining its particular CS data. For instance, in order to analyse pedagogic and discourse functions in the ESL and foreign language classrooms, Canagarajah (1995) determined micro- and macro functions, and Gumperz's suggested six discourse functions in order to analyse bilingual interactions (i.e. *quotation, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, message* q*ualification, personalization versus objectivization*) in North India, the US and Austria.

In this study, the functions of CS are divided into four groups: bilingual environments, language classrooms (EFL and ESL), adult EFL classrooms, and finally YLL EFL classrooms, which address the focus of this thesis.

2.5.1. Functions of CS in Bilingual Environments

The CS phenomena have long intrigued the researchers; the ones who have examined what triggers such attempts have approached the issue from different perspectives as mentioned in the section on approaches to CS. Investigation of this particular alternation is chiefly based on the question: *Why that, in that language, right now*? (Üstünel, 2004).

The researchers have primarily started to seek an answer to this question in bilingual environments (Auer, 1988; Blom &Gumperz, 1972; Halmari, 2004; Mclure, 1977; Milroy & Muysken, 1995; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Poplack, 1980; Skiba, 1997; Tarım, 2011). As a result of those attempts to explain interactions among bilinguals, a substantial body of knowledge has not only contributed greatly to understanding this language choice from a functional perspective, but also proved that contrary to what is believed, CS is not random and deviant, but grammatically constrained (Poplack, 2001).

In a bilingual community, people often switch from one language to another in their daily conversations. The use of CS is often regarded as a mirror reflecting the social or cultural identities of these people as well as a signal to a valuable strategy used by the speakers to achieve certain communicative goals. Therefore, the switch to a particular language in the bilingual discourse could be employed for various functions.

In his book *Life with Two Languages*, Grosjean (1982) provided a set of factors influencing speakers' language choices and functions of interaction related to these factors. The factors include language proficiency, language preference, socioeconomic status, age, sex, occupation, ethnic background, power relations. The functions in relation with those factors are *raising status, creating social distance, excluding someone*, and *requesting* or *commanding*. Some of these factors have been observed in many studies involving the ones referenced within this research as well.

An early study conducted by Mclure (1977) examined the formal and functional properties CS among Mexican-American children. CS was investigated in terms of code-mixing and code-changing. The functional types of CS were divided into two categories: *situational* CS and *stylistic* CS which took place in order to mark: *emphasis, focus, elaboration, clarification, attention attraction or retention, mode shift, topic shift,* and *addressee shift.*

In a similar vein, Muthusamy (2009) investigated the functions of CS among Tamil speakers at a Malaysian university. The students' interaction involved three language domains: Tamil, Malay and English. As a result of the data analysis, the functions of CS made by the speakers were grouped under nine topics: authority, communication, conceptual, emphasis, ethnicity, interlocution, lexicon, psychological and trigger. For communication, the speakers switched codes to ease communication, communicate more effectively, establish goodwill and support and exclude somebody from conversation. For emphasis, the speakers resorted to CS to capture attention, and

emphasize a point. For interlocution, the speakers code switched in order to appeal to the literate or illiterate, show identity with a group and address a different audience.

Tarım (2011) carried out a study following the everyday interactions of a peer group of second generation Turkish and Meshketian Turkish immigrant children in Arizona. The research mainly aimed to portray how the children negotiate identities and ideologies with their peers. The study combined methods of ethnography with talk-in-interaction. Children were observed during their naturally occurring peer interactions over one year, and then were interviewed in groups about using Turkish and English. The results of the study showed that children created specific domain associations for Turkish, for instance adult voicing and giving religious messages to each other while they used English to talk with their peers. Moreover, they code switched between English and Turkish in order to shift a new frame, to ask for help from one another for a school task, or sometimes to share a secret with their Turkish peers. Additionally, the children switched from English to Turkish in order *to practice their heritage language* and *to be able to communicate* with elder family members.

Sailaja (2011) investigated the use of Hinglish: CS between Hindi and English in famous Indian movies. After analysing some scenes from these movies, Sailaja (2011) separated the findings into the following sub-categories: vocabulary, set utterances, phrasel/clausal CS, discourse features, and pronunciation. At the discourse level, English was used as a strategy and enabled speakers in a higher position in order to exclude one of the other speakers.

Since CS is a way of communication occurring among bilingual speakers in bilingual or multilingual communities sharing the same language(s), it is highly possible to come across such interactions in every environment where bilinguals or multi-linguals are in contact. Classrooms, whether they be mainstream, bilingual, multilingual, ESL or EFL are no exception for CS phenomena. In other words, the following studies implemented in different contexts will demonstrate that CS is not only a mode of communication among bilinguals occurring bilingual environments, but also a concept which takes place in monolingual environments as well.

In the following section, a brief background of CS studies carried out in bilingual classrooms will be explained and the functions of CS used by students and teachers will be explained. In addition to bilingual classrooms in North America and other bilingual environments across the globe, immersion and ESL classroom examples will also be provided.

2.5.2. Functions of CS in Bilingual Classrooms

According to Mascía and Quintero (2010) CS is a matter which has prevailed in the literature on bilingualism for more than a century. Although recognized as a 'speech mixture' in the beginning, it has gradually come into prominence in various bilingual or multilingual context involving bilingual classrooms.

The research on CS has been devoted to its different aspects. The studies have preliminarily focused on the role of CS in young children developing their bilingualism (Arias & Lakshamanan, 2005; Mascía & Quintero, 2010; McClure, 1977; Tarım, 2011); on the social and linguistic functions of CS (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Gardner-Chloros, 2009; Myers-Scotton, 1995; Poplack, 1980). The trend has been followed by the CS studies concerning bilingual, multilingual classrooms as well as immersion language classrooms have appeared on the agenda for more than three decades (Ataş, 2012; Lin, 2013; Riegelhaupt, 2000).

Lin (2013) claimed that although bilingual CS studies take place in diverse contexts, the early studies which were conducted in North American settings are more quoted than other bilingual or multilingual environments. Lin (2013) grouped those settings into two main contexts: second language contexts (ESL classrooms) and bilingual education classrooms. The occurrence of CS in those contexts has generally investigated quantitative of L1 and L2 in the different types of activities and functions of the CSs.

One of the early studies belongs to Valdes-Fallis (1978). She investigated both teachers' and learners' CS patterns in a bilingual language classroom and categorized them into two: the ones used in response to external factors and those used for external factors. As a result of external and internal factors, Valdes-Fallis (1978) concluded that Spanish was used for giving instructions in class whereas English was preferred for classroom management.

As one of the pioneers of CS use in bilingual language classrooms, Milk (1981) focused on the CS patterns of a twelfth grade civics class in California. The author coded the lesson in accordance with basic pedagogical functions, such as *informative, directive, expressive, reply,* and *elicitation.* The findings of the study showed that English (L2) dominated the teacher's instructions (92%) and meta-statements (63%). On the other hand, a greater balance between L1 and L2 in other functions was

observed. Moreover, Milk (1981) explained how the bilingual teacher employed extensive switching between Spanish and English in an attempt to create humour, both as a means of creating solidarity and arousing students' interest.

Moreover, Guthrie (1984) carried out a comparative study of two teachers, one of whom is monolingual and the other bilingual teaching to American-Chinese students in an elementary school in California. As a result, five communicative functions were identified: translation, 'we code', classroom procedures and directions, clarification and checking for understanding.

Becker (2001) investigated the CS practices of 60 bilingual Mexican-American students in a story retelling activity. The students' story retelling was analysed in terms of structural linguistic, internal psycholinguistics, and external social factors. The results revealed that there was a positive correlation between code switched story retelling, oral language usage, and improved narrative skills. According to the data gathered from this study, teachers benefited from CS by enhancing students' verbal skills and reading development. In addition, code switched story-retelling allowed the students to gain experience with the linguistic, psycholinguistic, and social communicative aspects of two languages and to signal meaning by shifts in language.

Wona (2010) analysed the motivations and functions of CS through Korean-English bilingual conversations in a Korean heritage language classroom. Nine students participated in this study, and the data collected consisted of five 55-minute classroom recording. The interactions between the teacher and the students were audio and video taped. After transcribing the videos, the functions were identified. To complement the results gathered from the transcriptions a language background survey was administered to the students' parents. The findings suggested that the Korean-English bilingual children used CS to accommodate participants' language preference or competence as well as a communicative strategy to organize and structure their discourse, such as turn-taking, repairs, and side-sequences. Moreover, these bilingual children promoted learner-leaner interaction by resorting to CS with a view to organizing recasts, reiteration, or scaffolding for their peers. As discourse functions, turn-taking, preference organization, repair, side-sequences, requests, recasts, reiteration and scaffolding were used by both the teachers and the students.

As to the functions of bilingual CS outside North America, there has been a substantial body of research on CS practices in bilingual classrooms in diverse contexts. The studies reviewed are from such diverse locales and cultures as China, Pakistan,

Israel, Colombia, Hong Kong, South Africa, and Luxembourg. The reason for choosing such different contexts is not only to reflect how common this phenomenon is around the world, but also to show how it is perceived by teachers, students, and authorities.

Low and Lu (2006) explored the use of CS in the context of the students' and the teachers' home setting, school setting and leisure activities. The data were compiled from a questionnaire administered to 160 Hong Kong teachers and students. The results revealed that both the students and the teachers frequently used CS in the three contexts. The students used CS to demonstrate communicative competence in English, avoid embarrassment, ease tension and humour, emphasize a particular point, shorten the social distance, show familiarity with English rather than Chinese, and describe a concept which cannot be translated into another language. On the other hand, the teachers appropriated CS to create the sense of belonging, demonstrate their communicative competence in English, express accurately a concept in English, relieve tension and injecting humour, emphasize a particular point, and diminish social distance.

Vazquez (2009) identified and described the functions of CS and the inquiry about eleventh grade students' perspectives of CS from a bilingual school in Colombia. The data were investigated by semi-structured and informal interviews, audio-recordings, and field notes. The results showed that the students employed CS for 12 functions: to emphasize their message, highlight the important points in their message, say the equivalent of the words, maintain the conversation (floor-holding), clarify the message, transmit emotion, express indirect speech (quotation), reiterate the same message, demonstrate a tag/pet phrase, shift the topic, and indicate untranslatability. Apart from these functions, the participants also utilized CS for specific purposes: as a communicative strategy, compensation for lack of language, and as a means of humour.

Gulzar (2010) attempted to identify and explain the significance of the CS functions used by 406 teachers in Pakistan. The data collected via questionnaires at a cross-sectional level suggested that the teachers employed CS for: clarification, ease of expression, giving instructions effectively, creating a sense of belonging, checking understanding, translation, sociality, emphasis, repetitive functions, topic shift, and linguistic competence.

Uys (2010) focused on CS by teachers in multilingual and multicultural high school classrooms in the Northern Cape Province of South Africa. The study explored whether the teachers resorted to CS in the classrooms, and if so, what the functions of

these CS were. With these purposes in mind, the data were collected from four high schools during 13 lessons in total. 296 students in grades 8 to 12 and eight teachers participated in the study. The data were compiled from researcher observations and audio-recordings of lessons. The teachers adopted CS to explain and clarify subject matter, to build up learners' understanding of subject matter, assist them in interpreting subject matter, encourage them to participate in classroom discussions and answer the teacher's questions, to maintain social relationship, to create humour, to give general instruction to the students, to manage classroom, and reprimand learners.

Another multilingual and multicultural study comes from Luxembourg. Redinger (2010) investigated language attitudes and CS behaviour of both secondary school students and their teachers from a sociolinguistic perspective. A large-scale questionnaire was used to elicit both the student' and the teachers' language attitudes and behaviours, and an ethnographic investigation of classroom was adopted to identify CS instances of both parties. The findings were grouped into three broad categories: CS for curriculum access, CS for management of classroom discourse, and CS for interpersonal relations. CS for curriculum access could be divided into two as well: CS for clarification and metalinguistic purposes. The teachers clarified the content through exemplification, repetition, elaboration and re-explanation of a problematic subject matter. Also, the teachers benefited from metalinguistic explanations in order to clarify the subject matter and relay the message to the students.

In addition to using CS for curriculum access, the teachers employed it for managing the classroom discourse. In order to do this, the teachers opted for CS with the object of disciplining and praising, specifying a particular addressee, gaining attention and signalling a change in activity, giving instructions, and dealing with 'off-lesson' concerns.

The last function of CS in Luxembourgish classrooms was the arrangement of interpersonal relations. This function was narrowed down into two themes: humour and navigating between identities (e.g. acting as a teacher or a community member).

Qing (2012) examined the purposes and reasons of CS and how CS is used as a communicative strategy in a bilingual classroom in China. The data were collected through questionnaires, classroom observations, and structured interviews. According to the results, the teachers used CS to explain new grammar or vocabulary points, translate or elaborate the important message, create solidarity in the classroom, and engage students in communicative activities.

Schwartz and Asli (2013) investigated the language-teaching strategies employed in a bilingual Arabic-Hebrew kindergarten in Israel. In order to determine language-teaching strategies appropriated by the teachers, an ethnographic approach was adopted. The most frequently used strategy was found to be *translanguaging* which involved CS. Creese and Blackledge (2010) described this phenomena as the concurrent use of L1 and L2 as a realization of truly bilingual pedagogy; thus, this approach involves CS, which requires teaching two or more languages in parallel (as cited in Schwartz and Asli 2013). The results showed that inter-sentential and intra-sentential CSs were used by the teachers in terms of linguistic functions. *Translanguaging* was used as a strategy to teach children L2 efficiently, translate the unclear points, and encourage the children's active engagement with the activities.

2.5.2.1. Functions of CS in Immersion Classrooms

CS is a phenomenon which is widely discussed in immersion contexts in which the TL is the primary language of communication and instruction in the classroom (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). While describing French immersion context in Canada, McMillan and Turnbull (2009) stated that according to the policy makers, the use of L1 by students is regarded as a conflict with the basic assumptions of immersion programmes, which derive their pedagogy from the Direct Method. Thus, the teachers rarely allow the students to use their L1 for discussions or project work because the exclusive use of TL is crucial for improving learning in French immersion.

In their qualitative study informed by grounded theory and narrative inquiry, McMillan and Turnbull (2009) aimed to describe and explain teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards CS in French immersion classrooms. The results revealed that both teachers used the students' L1 to some extent over the first weeks of the courses, which is against Ministry's guidelines stating that immersion classes be conducted in the TL from the first day of classes. However, both teachers employed CS at that early stage to help students acquire the basics of the course in addition to promoting maximum comprehension and TL.

Another example comes from a corpus of CSs uttered by fifth graders in a dual immersion classroom (Potowski, 2009). In this study, the forms and the functions of 175 CSs produced by heritage (Spanish) and second-language (English) dual immersion

students. Based on the results, *intra-sentential* CS was found to be higher than *inter-sentential* CS, which indicated the language proficiency level of the students. As for the functions of CS in this study, they can be summarized as: for social, off-task turns, for lexical gap, discourse markers, vocabulary, translation, and repetition.

Pollard (2002) explored the effects and the role of bilingual and immersion on Spanish dominant students in two cities in the USA. The effects of CS on bilingual students and whether the subject matter can be discussed more effectively in classrooms in which CS is allowed and encouraged were examined as well. First and second grade bilingual classrooms in a public elementary school in Evanston, Illinois and a group of five Spanish-speaking fifth graders within an immersion classroom in a Bloomington, Illinois public elementary school participated in this study. These students were expected to accomplish subject matter in science and social studies through lessons and activities provided by the teachers. The data showed that the students often freely code switched between English and Spanish in order to communicate with their peers and teachers, convey information, and demonstrate their subject matter knowledge.

In a very recent study, Dorner and Layton (2014) explored how first grade students at SIES (Spanish Immersion Elementary School) employ multiple languages and discourses during classroom activities, and the ways in which they supported each other and their teachers in creating new discourses. The data consisted of weekly field notes and six hours of video from four months of participant observation. The analyses of the data suggested that teachers' structured, whole-group activities promoted the children's Spanish. On the other hand, small groups supported diverse language use. The students made use of CS with the object of *interacting*, *representing*, and *being*. To explain these three functions, *interacting* defines how languages are tied to specific social practices; *representing* describes language constructions from a particular perspective; and *being* refers to the language used for a particular audience and the language that is linked to one's own identity.

2.5.2.2. Function of CS in ESL Classrooms

CS is generally a mode of communication in bilingual contexts. Therefore, the CS studies which have been carried out have taken place in bilingual communities and ESL environments to a greater extent as compared to EFL contexts (Ataş, 2012; Lin, 1990;

Flyman-Mattson & Burenhult, 1999). ESL classrooms address the constellations in which L2 serves as both the medium of instruction and content of instruction. Thus, the learners are supposed to understand and communicate in L2 (Yletyinen, 2004). There are many countries where English is taught as a medium of instruction, and used as a medium of communication. Those countries are Singapore, Malaysia, India, Philippines, Ghana, South Africa, Hong Kong, Canada (also the L1 of the majority in the country),and the USA to name a few.

Lin (1990) attempted to determine why English language teachers alternate language from English to Cantonese or vice versa. In order to identify the underlying reasons, four English teachers' lessons from different secondary schools in Hong Kong were observed and recorded through a tape-recorder. The classroom interactions were transcribed to analyse when the teachers switched codes and why they did so. To analyse those interactions, CA approach was adopted. The results revealed that the teachers generally used CS when they taught grammar and vocabulary. As to the functions of those switches, they alternated languages to maintain classroom discipline, encourage response from students, talk to individual students, help weak students, and save time.

Also, Moodley and Kamwangamalu (2004) demonstrated how language alternation between English and isiZulu could be employed as a technique to teach English literature in an ESL classroom environment in South Africa which heralds 11 official languages. The experimental design was adopted to collect the data. The control group (39 students) was taught only by L1 (English) speaker in English; on the other hand, the experimental group (55 students) was taught both in English and isiZulu over seven weeks. The results showed that CS could be used as a strategy in a variety of purposes, including teaching literature, understanding the complex nature of characters and relationships, determining major themes, promoting emotional, social and moral values among learners, developing the learners' ability to think critically and creatively, inciting learners to make value judgements, and finally drawing learners' attention to discourse styles in various genres.

In addition, Ellwood (2008) reported the relationship between CS and identities in classroom peer group-talk among students from different backgrounds studying English in Australia. 40 hours of whole-class and small group-talks were recorded at intervals over a 13-week period. The analyses of student-students talks showed that the students frequently switched for three reasons: first, when they were frustrated with their own

ignorance and they wanted to align with the task; second when they were critical of the teacher's methods, knowledge or choice of topic; third, when they wanted to be associated as a global person. The study concluded that the analysis of the CS practices of the learners could be a way to pinpoint their identity concerns in language classrooms.

Furthermore, Saxena (2009) conducted a study concerning the role of CS in English-language and English-medium, which are intrinsically bi/multi-cultural and bi-multilingual environments. With this paper, the author investigated how monolingual ideologies and policies construct L1 as 'the linguistic other' in face-to-face interaction in English classrooms which are defined as 'English-only'. By assuming that CS could be used as a means of achieving pedagogical goals and relieving the tension against the use of "TL only", the study explored the role of CS in the construction and deconstruction of 'linguistic otherness'. Multi-layered analyses and ethnographic research based on the classroom and community contexts were employed; classroom interactions and students' and teachers' opinions about their language choices were transcribed. The findings of the paper demonstrated that CS practices enabled the negotiation of conflicting ideologies. Also, the study suggested that the acknowledgement of positive power, constructive resistance and the resource argument of L1 in English classrooms could cause the deconstruction of the negative connotation of 'the linguistic other'.

To provide another example, Lee (2010) investigated the attitudes of English language teachers working in secondary schools in Malaysia. The types and functions of CS appropriated by the teachers were determined via a survey questionnaire which required the teachers to indicate their attitudes, usage and opinions about CS. The findings revealed that most of the teachers favoured the use of CS in their classes. They employed CS in order to give instructions, give feedback, check comprehension, explain new words, explain grammar, help students feel confident and comfortable, explain the difference between L1 and L2, discuss assignments, tests and quizzes, save time, and explain administrative information.

Moreover, Magid and Mugaddam (2013) examined the role of CS in ESL classrooms in Sudan and Saudi Arabia. The study analysed whether CS extended the classroom interaction from the teachers' and lecturers' points of view. The data were collected from primary, secondary and college level ESL classrooms in Sudan and Saudi Arabia through audio-tape, questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The

findings indicated that CS was used extensively and purposefully by the teachers. The teachers used CS for explaining meaning and new vocabulary, conveying lesson content, guiding interpretation, illustrating grammatical rules, classroom management, and praising and encouraging students.

Last but not least, the use of more than one language within the same discourse or CS by ESL students at the tertiary level in a Malaysian context was scrutinized by Nordin, Ali, Zubir & Sadjirin (2013). The study aimed to address what ESL learners think about CS in ESL classrooms and when CS functions best for ESL learners in ESL classrooms. In order to collect data, a survey questionnaire which focused on the students' attitudes, usage and opinion towards CS in the classroom was administered to 45 students. The findings of the study demonstrated that the majority of the ESL learners had positive attitudes towards CS. Additionally, the ESL students believed that the use of CS facilitates their understanding the TL. The results also suggested that the use of CS is essential if the situation requires the use of L1 in the classroom to increase the learners to confidence in gaining experience in English. Furthermore, the ESL learners preferred the instructors to employ CS for giving instruction and feedback, checking comprehension, explaining grammar and between first and second language, and finally discussing assignments, tests, and quizzes.

2.5.3. Functions of CS in Adult EFL Classrooms

Classroom CS describes the alternating use of more than one linguistic code in the classroom by teachers and students (Lin, 2007). Although classroom CS studies have been diverse in second language contexts (e.g. ESL classrooms) and bilingual education classrooms (e.g. immersion classrooms), the CS studies in EFL classrooms are relatively new compared to bilingual ones. Since the 1990s, CS in EFL classrooms has become a focus of research influenced by developments in classroom interaction, SLA, teacher talk, conversational analysis, pragmatics and the ethnography of communication studies (Qian, Tian &Wang, 2009).

In the past three decades, the number of classroom CS studies in EFL contexts has risen. This is despite the fact that it has been assumed that learners resorting to the CS is detrimental to L2 learning process and that CS should be prevented in order to maximize the use of TL (Flyman-Mattson & Burenhult, 1999; Raschka, Sercombe &

Chi-Ling, 2009; Yao, 2011). Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2009, p. 131) attributed this popularity to the reconceptualization of EFL as a bilingual environment and thinking of students and teachers as "aspiring bilinguals". Therefore, not only bilingualism but also bilingual interaction between students and teachers in EFL classrooms has gained prominence as a research area. Apart from it, many authors have claimed that the use of L1 could be beneficial to learn L2 since L1 can function as a cognitive tool which helps in second language learning (Cook, 2001; Çelik, 2008; Littlewoood & Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff 1994).

CS studies in EFL classrooms have been carried out in all levels from kindergarten to the tertiary level. In these studies, the attitudes and beliefs of teachers and students have been investigated in addition to the CS functions of the teachers and students from linguistic and discursive perspectives (Amorim, 2012; Lin, 1990; Liu, Ahn & Baek, 2004). Compared to primary and secondary level EFL classrooms, there have been a multitude of studies concerning adult EFL learners. The following examples will clearly illustrate the CS phenomenon in adult EFL classrooms and illustrate the CS functions employed by adult learners and their teachers.

Hosoda (2000) examined the CS behaviour of a Japanese teacher in order to determine the functions of the teacher's CS in an EFL classroom at a business college in Tokyo. The data were collected via 60-minute video recorded classroom session and a consecutive audio- recorded session in which the teacher and the students discussed the video concerning the teacher's CS in the classroom. The functions of the teacher's CS were: explaining prior L2 utterances, defining unknown words, giving instructions, and providing positive and negative feedback.

In addition, Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han (2004) described CS practices in South Korean high schools. The data consisted of 13 English classroom recordings and surveys about the maximal use of English in class delivered to both students and teachers. The results indicated that the teachers used less English than their students and they anticipated beforehand. Also, as deduced from the video recordings, the teachers code switched to Korean for greeting students, giving directions or instructional comments, asking questions to check comprehension, explaining grammar, giving background information, managing students' behaviours, paying compliments to students, talking about personal things and telling jokes.

This study probes the learners' perceptions of their teachers' use of CS in EFL classrooms in Malaysia. Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) canvassed the relationship between

teachers' and learners' affective support, the relationship between teachers' CS and learners' learning success, and the future of CS in students' learning. A questionnaire consisting of 20 items on a 5-point Likert scale was administered to 257 English learners with low proficiency. The results revealed that the learners regarded CS as a positive strategy because it enables them to enjoy their learning by comprehending the teachers' input, to feel less stressed and become more comfortable to learn, and to focus on classroom practices and activities. Furthermore, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) found significant relationships between teachers' CS and learners' affective support and teachers' CS and learners' learning success. The authors strongly claimed that CS could be an effective means to help low proficiency language learners.

Different from the previous studies which were carried out at universities, this study took place at a language school in Iran. Mirhasani and Mamaghani (2009) mentioned the four characteristics of language proficiency: formal mastery, semantic mastery, communicative capacity, and creativity. The authors aimed to identify whether the use of CS enabled the learners to enter into the communication phase earlier than anticipated and acquire early oral proficiency. The study was carried out with 60 low intermediate students. Experimental and control groups were formed and the teacher randomly assigned the learners to both groups. Then the learners were asked to deliver a five-minute description of a picture. The speaking ability of both groups was tested via a pre-test. Next, all the subjects were given an oral test of a picture description. The participants in the control groups were not allowed to use their L1; however, the participants in the experimental group were able to use the L1 during these treatments. The treatments were repeated for 20 sessions. At the end of the term, a post-test was administered to the participants. After analysing the test scores, it was found that the participants in the experimental group had a considerably better performance in their speaking activities in comparison with the control group. As a result, Mirhasani and Mamaghani (2009) claimed that CS could be used to enhance the speaking skills of EFL learners.

In addition, Jingxia (2010) conducted an investigation in three Chinese universities to reveal the general situation of CS to Chinese, and aimed to test the positive role of L1 use in EFL classrooms. Focusing on the attitudes of both teachers and students towards CS functions, this study employed questionnaires and classroom recordings. The findings suggested that the majority of the students and teachers held a positive attitude toward CS. The participants regarded CS as a means to translate

unknown vocabulary items, explain grammar, and manage class. These results were in line with classroom recordings. The identified functions from the recordings were: translating unknown items, explaining grammar, managing class besides emphasizing important points, and expressing a stance of empathy or solidarity towards students.

In a similar vein, Yao (2011) investigated the teachers' and the students' attitudes towards CS employed by the teachers themselves in EFL classrooms in China. In order to collect their views, a four-section 20-item questionnaire was administered to both the students and the teachers at tertiary level. The results showed that not only the students but also the teachers had a positive view regarding CS in EFL classrooms. The teachers believed that CS could be used to access subjects, and explain grammatical points or lexical items, illustrate cultural points in text, elicit answers from students, attract students' attention, clarify instructions, and encourage students. Likewise, the students expected their teachers to employ CS for explaining cultural topics, and grammatical and lexical items. Also, they expected their teachers to encourage and support them in L1 more than the current situation.

Additionally, Amorim (2012) explored student-student interaction during a group work speaking activity to disclose the reasons for CS. The aim of the study was to demonstrate how EFL undergraduates switched from English to Portuguese to realize the pragmatic functions of those switches in relation to the students' language level. Recorded data displayed that the students appropriated CS to fill in lexical or grammatical gaps in the TL, negotiate language and meaning, manage the activity and the other participants, use L1 as a translation appeal, a mechanism to prompt and clarify information or counterbalance for perceived deficiencies, and finally to hold floor and manage turn-taking.

Chowdury (2012) inquired after the reasons that teachers had been using CS and the attitudes of both teachers and students towards CS in EFL classroom at a university in Bangladesh. Two sets of questionnaires were administered to both the students and the teachers. 20 EFL teachers and 37 undergraduate students participated in the study. As a result, the findings displayed that the teachers resorted to CS for ease of communication, making explanation, maintaining discipline, translating unknown terms, expressing solidarity, explaining grammar and vocabulary, and building rapport. The findings also showed that the majority of the students and the teachers expressed their positive attitude towards the use of CS in the classroom. The author concluded the research with a warning that although CS might be useful for low proficiency learners,

the teacher's uncontrolled and random use of CS could damage the second language learning process.

As can be seen in the examples reviewed above, the majority of the research took place at universities, colleges or language institutes. These studies generally involved not only the attitudes and beliefs of the participants but also the actual classroom practices acquired through audio or video recordings. In our immediate local environment, there have been several studies which have focused on the attitudes, beliefs or perception of the participants at the tertiary level in general. The studies have increased especially since the 2000s. Although the following examples do not illustrate the common perspective in Turkey, these studies provide insight into both the CS practices of the teachers and the students and their perspectives about the phenomenon.

Çelik (2003) examined the use of code-mixing as a technique to teach new vocabulary in an EFL classroom. 19 Turkish freshmen EFL teacher trainees (15 female, 4 male) took part in the study. The study involved three tasks. The first one was a listening task; the researcher told the students a story by inserting some vocabulary from the students' L1 on purpose. In the second task, the students discussed the reasons for traffic accidents in pairs. Even though the researcher did not ask them to use the newly learnt vocabulary items, the students used those new vocabulary items. The findings revealed that the use of code-mixing in teaching L2 vocabulary did not hamper the learning process, but for a few spelling mistakes. Çelik (2003) claimed that in classrooms where the L1 is shared by all the participants, code-mixing could be an effective technique to introduce new vocabulary.

Again from a university context, Üstünel (2004) investigated the language choices of Turkish ESL learners following the teacher's CS between Turkish and English in a language classroom at a Turkish university in İzmir. The research aimed to show how teacher-initiated CS could enlighten the systematic features of CS by examining the data from a CA perspective. Six beginner level English classrooms were recorded, transcribed and analysed in terms of turn-taking, adjacency pairs, repairs and preference organization. The results of the research demonstrated that the teachers used CS as a scaffolding technique to deal with procedural troubles, maintain classroom discipline, express social identity, translate into L1, deal with a lack of responses in the L2, provide a prompt for L2, elicit L1 translations, give feedback, check comprehension in the L2, provide meta-language information and encourage students to participate in the activities.

Likewise, Ataş (2012) explored the discourse functions of CS employed by teachers and students in EFL classrooms in a Turkish university. The study also investigated the forms of CS and compared the amount and the functions of those switches uttered by the participants in different language proficiency levels. (two advanced, two pre-intermediate, one intermediate classes) The transcribed data displayed that the forms of CS employed by the teachers and students were: discourse markers, insertion of lexical items phrases and sentences, Turkish equivalents of words or translations, tag switches, address terms, and 'do' construction and quotations. The researcher identified 37 functions and some of these functions were: disagreeing, referring to shared knowledge, extending, evaluating, exemplifying, inviting participation, explaining, eliciting checking for understanding, maintaining group identity, using 'do' construction and emphasizing. The results showed that the most frequently used form of CS was discourse markers. Finally, there was not a considerable difference among different language proficiency level with regard to the amounts and functions of CS.

In a similar vein, Bensen and Çavuşoğlu (2013) conducted an investigation into determining the CS acts of EFL teachers in English Preparatory School of a private university in North Cyprus from a sociolinguistic perspective. The classroom interactions of two bilingual, one native speaker of Turkish and one native speaker of English instructors were audio-recorded for eight hours in total. Subsequent to the recordings, play-back sessions were held with the instructors in order to delve into the teachers' perceptions regarding the use of CS in language classrooms. The data was analysed in terms of topic switch, affective function, and repetitive function. The results showed that all of the teachers, though in different quantities, made use of CS. The instructors resorted to CS to clarify the meaning, inform the student about the classroom rules, elicit prior learning, clarify a students' misunderstanding, clarify the meaning of this grammar point, explain the function of the grammar point, get feedback from a student, clarify the instruction, save time to keep up with the syllabus and soften the classroom atmosphere. The instructors held positive views for CS in general, but they stated that CS should be used carefully.

The final local study in adult EFL classrooms in Turkey within this review took place in two Turkish universities. Bilgin and Rahimi (2013) investigated the teacher perceptions of CS concerning its functions, manner, reasons and contributions to the language learning process. They held interviews with 20 (15 female and 5 male)

teachers of different nationalities in two Turkish universities. The instructors generally used CS for facilitating language learning, providing students with a more relaxing learning atmosphere, making a joke, making the content more comprehensible, translating unknown items, clarifying themes and instructions as well as using it as a warm up tool.

To conclude, the CS studies reviewed within adult EFL classrooms up to now illustrate that they all share commonalities in terms of classroom functions and teacher or students perspectives whether they took place in Turkey or in other countries. The most commonly used functions of CS are grammar or vocabulary explanations, translations, psychological effect of CS on learners, checking for comprehension, clarification, repetitions and classroom management. Moreover, the majority of the teachers and students agreed that CS is an efficient and useful technique for contributing to the language learning process. However, the number of the participants who were cautious about the quantity and frequency of CS used in EFL classrooms should be noted.

2.5.4. Functions of CS in YLL EFL Classrooms

TEYLL is a global phenomenon which urges many countries to lower the age at which children start learning English compulsorily. This trend emanates from the assumption that the more input the learners receive, the greater their language proficiency (Eurydice, 2012). Reflecting this extension as well as assumption, the research into TEYLL has dramatically increased. However, more studies have been carried out than the ones in the ESL and adult language learner contexts as stated in the previous section of this study. As Inbar-Lourie (2010) expressed that there is limited knowledge in relation to the linguistic practices of language teachers, and their beliefs about and implementation of L1 in YLL classrooms. In addition to what Inbar-Lourie stated, it is necessary to emphasize that not only is there limited knowledge about teachers' beliefs or actual practices in YLL classrooms, but also the knowledge about YLLs is quite restricted as well.

Before reviewing the articles concerning YLLs, it is useful to mention that the articles are divided as primary and secondary school levels in this section since the classification of education systems may differ from one country to another, or different

classifications could be given to the same grade in different countries. For example, the starting school age for primary school is five and a half in Turkey whereas this level begins between four and seven years of age in other countries according to The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) (UNESCO, 1997) (Eurydice, 2012) . Correspondingly, secondary school refers to fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades in Turkey while it might refer simply to secondary school or lower secondary school in other countries. Therefore, in order to avoid unnecessary confusion, the classification is arranged as primary school and secondary school. Also, in many studies, the use of L1 and CS are interchangeably used. Therefore, the following studies involve both CS and use of L1 aspects.

One of the earliest studies carried out at primary schools, Oduol's research shed light upon the underlying reasons for CS's occurence. Oduol (1987) analysed elicitation techniques and CS practices of teachers at two primary schools in Kenya. The transcriptions of audio recordings were examined in terms of sociocultural, pedagogical, socio-psychological, topic-related and competence-related elements. The results showed that the teachers employed CS for maintaining pupil participation in communication, clarifying and emphasizing some aspects, preventing misunderstanding, translating instructions, re-establishing communication, building rapport, tapping pupils' background information, and compensating for pupils' lack of language proficiency.

In addition, Martin (1999) focused on interactional practices which took place during the lessons in the two primary schools in Brunei Darussalam. In these schools, Malay is used as an institutionally-sanctioned language along with English which is employed to cover the lessons as well. The purpose here is to teach the learners how to use two languages to create contexts for understanding primary level lessons. The lessons were observed by the researcher for over a five-month period and they were audio- recorded for translation. The researcher also took field notes in order to record the non-verbal cues in the classroom. The results showed that the teachers' use of certain question types triggered the students' language choices. The teachers appropriated CS to lessen discontinuation between home and school, create a synergy in learning, provide contexts for meaning making, and contribute to the flow of the lesson.

This more recent study took place in South Korea. Kong (2008) aimed to describe and explain a non-native English teacher's practice of teaching English through English in an elementary school classroom. As a case study of a Korean elementary school, the study investigated the use of English in a fifth-grade EFL classroom. 38 students and

one EFL teacher participated in the study. The teacher's class was observed 14 times with non-participant observations of the author. The classes were audio- recorded and field notes were taken by the author. Following the observations, interviews were held with the teacher in order to enlighten the teacher's pedagogical belief system. In addition, the interviews were held with each student about their opinions on the teacher's language use. The findings of the study revealed that the teacher employed four modes of teacher talk: exclusive use of L1, exclusive use of TL, use of L1 immediately followed by TL equivalents, and the use of TL immediately followed by L1 equivalents. As to the functions of these modes of talk, these switched served as a compensation for the students' lack of language proficiency, a strategy to express how to perform tasks, clarification of instructions, a technique for classroom management, and a means of sustaining students' interest and motivation.

Another study which investigated the teacher's use of CS was carried out by Qian, Tian and Wang (2009) in a primary school with the participation of two EFL teachers within a six year project spanning between 2003-2009 initiated by a state university. This case study explored CS practices of EFL teachers in primary classrooms intentionally designed for informing the classroom interaction of YLLs. Consisting of 20 video recorded lessons, this case study covered lessons from grade one to four. In the data analysis process, the syntactical structures of CSs were identified in addition to pedagogic and social functions of them. The analyses displayed that both teachers employed more inter-sentential CS than inter-sentential of tag switching. The teachers' CSs served as a discourse strategy to promote classroom interaction and sustain efficient classroom management. The teachers used CS also for translating unknown linguistic items, clarifying unclear points, highlighting important points, establishing or re-establishing certain relationships with the students, strengthening solidarity or authority, encouraging or praising students and disapproving the students' performances or behaviours.

One other study investigating the use of L1 by the EFL teacher was conducted by Nagy and Robertson (2009). The study was concerned with how often the teachers used the TL (English) and the L1 (Hungarian), what functions were associated with the teachers' language choices, what factors affecting the teachers' language choices were, and finally how these factors interacted with each other. In order to answer these questions, Nagy and Robertson (2009, p.71) observed and audio- recorded two lessons of four teachers in four different schools. 12 lessons from grade three to six were

observed and recorded in total. The analyses of classroom transcriptions demonstrated that the language choices of both teachers were influenced by a number of external and internal factors. Internal factors were divided into learner-related, teacher-related and context-related aspects. Learner-related factors were age, ability, proficiency level, motivation, attitude towards the TL whereas teacher-related ones were professional experience, training, proficiency in the TL, self-confidence, beliefs about and attitudes towards the TL. Furthermore, context-related factors were listed as the stages in the lesson and the nature of the task or activity. On the other hand, external factors were elaborated upon as the curriculum, examination, expectations in the school, the attitudes of the head-teacher, colleagues, parents and the political context. By taking into these factors into consideration, Nagy and Robertson (2009) found that both teachers employed CS to ensure comprehension, translate new words, give instructions and encourage students to take part in interaction.

Moreover, Inbar-Lourie (2010) explored the language patterns of EFL teachers with different language backgrounds. Specifically, the study attempted to investigate the teachers' use of L1 in EFL YLL classrooms. Six EFL teachers working in Hebrew and Arabic medium schools participated in the study. The tools to collect data for this study were recordings, self-report questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results indicated that the teachers used CS mainly for facilitating comprehension, handling discipline problems, explaining grammar, introducing new concepts, providing the child with a sense of achievement, embedding information from other subjects, and encouraging and comforting the students.

Turning to the CS studies carried out at secondary schools, Eldridge (1996) pioneered CS studies in EFL YLL classrooms in Turkey. Eldridge (1996) investigated the relationship between the level of the student and his/her use of CS strategies, the general purposes and functions of these CSs and the participants' point of views with regard to CS. Participants aged between 11-13 at an elementary and lower intermediate level took part in the study. However, Eldridge (1996) neither mentioned the number of students or their grade nor the duration of the recordings though. The classroom interactions were audio- recorded and the researcher took noted 100 instances of CS. The analysis of these instances showed that the students resorted to CS for procedural matters or questions about English which were not related to the tasks. Moreover, the students employed CS with the following motivations: equivalence, floor holding, meta-language, reiteration, group membership, conflict control, alignment and disalignment.

According to Eldridge (1996) the results of this study implied that there was no relationship between the proficiency level of TL and the use of CS strategies. However, the developmental nature of CS should not be taken for granted since it might be detrimental to the second language learning process. Eldridge (1996) concluded that although CS strategies might be developmental and serve certain useful functions, overusing it might stop language development and cause fossilization. In other words, if the language acquired became a hybrid one, the learners could be restrained in interactions with the native speakers of the TL.

To conclude, this section ends with the most recent study investigating the L1 use of Turkish EFL teachers at three secondary schools in Turkey. Salı (2014) examined the functions of L1 from EFL teachers' perspective. The data involved 15 audio- recorded lesson hours and semi-structured interviews with participating teachers. The results indicated that all the teachers employed L1 to communicate the content of the lesson, regulate the classroom interactions, shift the focus of the lesson and build rapport with the students in general. Salı (2014) expressed that there were several factors influencing the teachers' choice of language. According to the accounts of the teachers, the students were at the heart of their decision-making in terms of using L1. The teachers reported switching from English to Turkish depending on learners' language proficiency levels, types of classroom activities, the emotional state of learners and the heavy focus on grammar in the language teaching system.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

Drawing on the discussions presented in Chapter I and Chapter II, this study was designed to gain insight into the following research questions:

1- Do students and teachers resort to CS in secondary EFL classrooms?

2- If so, how frequently do they code switch?

3- When do the students and teachers tend to code switch in general?

4- What types of CS do they use?

5- What are the functions of these switches?

6- And finally, does the use of CS contribute to the learners' language learning?

This chapter presents detailed information about the research design, context of the study, selection of the participants, data collection tools, procedures and analysis carried out within the current study.

3.2. Research Design

Since this study aims to uncover first, whether students and teachers made use of CS or not, and if so, how frequently these CSs occurred, second, what the types and functions of these switches were and third, if these CSs by learners and students were of any contributions to the learning environment, both quantitative and qualitative research designs were adopted in order to reflect the detailed and rich descriptive data collected within this study. Thus, depending on the research questions quantitative and qualitative designs were used. Quantitative design was used in order to count the occurrences of CSs by teachers and students; on the other hand, qualitative design was adopted to meticulously analyse classroom interaction transcriptions.

3.3. Context of the Study

This study took place in the Çukurova district of Adana and Merkez district of Denizli during 2012-2013 Spring Semester.These two private secondary schools were chosen on the basis of permission granted by these schools. Due to ethical issues as well as the problems associated with getting teachers' and parents' consent for video recording, these schools were chosen after granting their permission via a letter of undertaking.

Since the current research is concerned with YLLs, the study was conducted with fifth grade EFL students and their teachers. Although these students have been exposed to English for more than four years, fifth graders were chosen purposefully because it was assumed that they have sufficient experience and language proficiency to express themselves and interact in English in the classroom.

3.4. Selection of Participants

The participants of this study were 75 fifth grade EFL students and three English teachers working with these students. The participants were selected from two private secondary schools in the city of Adana and Denizli where English is a compulsory school subject since first grade.

Convenience sampling was used to select the schools and teachers. The selection of the participants could be divided into two phases. In the first phase, the teachers and their fifth grade students were chosen after taking consent of school management and teachers taking part in this study at each school. In the second phase of data collection, 20 students, who were chosen on the basis of availability at the time when the data was collected, and three teachers were interviewed to gain deeper understanding of the quantitative data.

Table 1
Summary of the Teachers' Background Information and Their Classes

	TEACHER F	**TEACHER E**	**TEACHER S**
Age	40	36	32
Gender	F	F	M
Teaching experience	18	14	9
Experience with young learners	11	4	4
Educational background	MA	BA	BA
Content	Reading, listening, grammar	Reading, listening, grammar	Listening, grammar, throw ball game
Materials	Students book, workbook, worksheets, tape recorder, act out	Students book, workbook, worksheets, tape recorder	Students book, workbook, smart board, ball, act out
Size	**24**	**25**	**26**

Table 1 illustrates background information about teachers participating in this study. The table also demonstrates that all the teachers have teaching experiences for more than ten years and TEYL experiences for at least four years. The contents and the materials of the lesson recorded within the current research are presented in the table as well. The common materials used in these classrooms were the student's book, workbook, worksheets and tape recorders. As to the skills, listening, reading and grammar were largely observed in all recorded classes.

3.5. Data Collection Tools

The data collection tools used for this research were video-recordings and interviews. In order to obtain naturally occurring data, 270 minutes were recorded from three classes in total. Following the transcriptions and analysis of recordings, semi-structured interviews were held with three teachers and 20 students.

3.5.1. Video Recordings

As one of the observation techniques, video recordings have been increasingly used as primary data tools in second language environments (DuFon, 2002; Üstünel, 2004; Jingxia, 2010; Rahimi & Jafari, 2011). There are several reasons to choose video recordings in SLA environments and these positive aspects justify using visual recording as a primary data tool in the current study.

DuFon (2003) states that video recording can provide contextually richer data than audio recordings can. In addition, it can inform us about the nature of the activities. As this study focuses on CSs between the students and teacher, video recordings provided very detailed data about the nature of CSs. Moreover, video recording provides visual and audial information about the posture, gestures, and interactional cues of participants (DuFon, 2003).

This visual information helped the researcher to identify verbal messages correctly. Since the quality of sound due to the noises during recording process was not always good, visual data provided cues for disambiguation of verbal interactions. Furthermore, video recording allows the researcher to play back the recording repeatedly. While transcribing the data, each repeated view reveals a perspective missed in the previous transcription. Therefore, replayed data allows a means of comprehensive analysis.

However, these advantages should not mean that video recording is without limitation. For example, the information about the nature of events is limited to the video's content. In other words, one cannot be sure about the frequency or function of a specific act which is particularly observed. Yet, this drawback could be overcome via validating the data with other data collection tools. In this study, the elimination of this limitation was attemted by holding semi-structured interviews which could illuminate us about the rationale behind the use of CS by both teachers and students.

The primary data in this study were collected through video recordings. Before recording the whole class, a letter of undertaking was sent to school administrations. In this letter of undertaking, teachers, students and administration were assured that all of the parties, especially the videos of students and teachers involved in the recordings, would absolutely remain confidential and videos would not be made public except for thesis or academic publication purposes.

Once granting the permission, the steps proposed by Richards (2003, p. 177-178) were followed. First, explanations were roughly made regarding the rationale to record the lessons without being too specific about the focus of the study. Second, teachers were offered the opportunity to see the transcripts of the recorded lessons or not. Third, they were asked whether they would like to be informed about the findings of the study or not.

3.5.2. Semi-structured Interviews

Defined as a two-person conversation commenced by the interviewer with a specific purpose, interviews involve collecting data via direct verbal interaction between individuals (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Interviews may be held with several purposes which range from testing hypotheses to validating the results of a study with another method in order to investigate the respondents' motivations.

Besides distinctive purposes of interviews, there are many types of interviews from the most closed to the most open as well. The types of interviews might be named differently in some researchers' studies. For instance, McDonough & McDonough (2006) list them as: *structured, semi-structured and unstructured*. On the other hand, Richards (2003) describes interviews as *directive* and *non-directive*, which could be similar to *structured and unstructured* interviews of McDonough & McDonough (2006). Furthermore, Griffee (2012) indexes them as: *structured, semi-structured, group-formal, group-problem, ethnographic, life history, informal, conversation/eavesdropping*.

Since the current research aims to demystify both learners' and teachers' reasons for resorting to CS, semi-structured interview was regarded as the best option to explore participants' perspectives on CS. McDonough & McDonough (2006) express that despite having a structured framework, semi-structured interviews accommodate a greater flexibility regarding the organization of questions and more substantial follow-up responses.

Additionally, compared to structured interviews, semi-structured ones are regarded as closer to a qualitative paradigm since it entails denser interactions and more customized responses than pre-coded questions. In the same vein, Griffee (2012) maintains that standard semi-structured interview is probably the most commonly used

interview type in educational research since it incorporates pre-determined questions during the interview. With these in mind, a semi-structured interview format was adopted to support the data collected through video recordings. Correspondingly, different sets of questions were asked to teachers and students. The interviews were held in Turkish in order to refrain from any misunderstandings and anxiety.

In this study, after recording the lessons, three teachers and their 20 students were chosen for interviews. Semi-structured interview method was adopted to support and validate data collected from the video recordings in order to analyse the participants' perspectives on their use of CS in classroom interactions.

Since interviews involve interpersonal interaction and provide information about individuals' conditions, it is crucial to ensure that they are ethical (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). By taking ethical considerations into account, the informed consent of each participant was taken prior to interviews. Involving competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension elements, informed consent requires the consent of participant as its name suggests and the collaboration of interviewees (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Competence refers to responsibility and maturity of participants for taking correct decisions when they are introduced to information under investigation. In our case, since fifth graders are not mature enough compared to older learner groups and their teachers, they were asked to participate in the interviews voluntarily and given full information about the focus of the study. They were reassured that information gathered from the questionnaires would be used for research purpose only and this participation would not affect their English scores either negatively or positively whatsoever. Thus, both students and their teachers were fully informed about the focus of the interviews and they comprehended how they were expected to contribute to the study.

Similar to lessons, semi-structured interviews were recorded with the aim of analysing them via content analysis about which detailed information will be given in the data analysis procedures section.

The teachers' questions are:

1. Do you resort to code switching in your classes?
2. If so, how often do you code switch from English to Turkish?
3. When do you usually code switch?

4. Are your code switches on purpose or spontaneous?
5. For what purposes do you code switch?
6. For what purposes do you code switch the most?
7. What do you think about the use of CS in EFL YLL classrooms?
8. Do you think it contributes or hinders your students' language learning?

The interview questions of students are as follows:

1. Do you code switch from English to Turkish in English classes?
2. Why do you feel the need for switching from English to Turkish?
3. Do these switches contribute to your learning English or hinder it?
4. Does your English teacher switch from English to Turkish?
5. When does s/he code switch?
6. Does it contribute to your learning English or hinder it?

3.6. Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis procedures were designed in two stages. In the first stage, for the data obtained from video recordings, all the interactions between students and teachers were mainly transcribed in accordance with Jefferson's transcription conventions in Atkinson and Heritage (1984). Since the video recordings were transcribed without using a programme, pauses and silences were not exactly calculated. Instead, (.) was used for short pauses and (…) for long pauses. Therefore, in the first stage, the instances of CS were analysed using Poplack's (1980) categories of the types of CSs. Second, the functions of CSs used in both learners' and teacher' classroom discourses were examined.

In the second stage, content analysis was employed to the data acquired through semi-structured interviews. The same steps were followed to transcribe the interview data as in the transcription of video recordings process. In order to analyse the interview data, inductive qualitative content analysis was adopted. Dominant themes emerging from students' and teachers' responses to the interview questions with an explicit focus on the use of CS in English classroom were identified first. Second, the responses were coded under these themes. Third, the results of video recording analyses were combined

along with these codes in order to reveal the insights of learners and students about CS and its use in their teaching and learning practices.

3.6.1. Content Analysis

There are copious ways to analyse qualitative data and content analysis is one of these approaches. Simply described as the process of summarizing and reporting written along with verbal and visual data, content analysis is a strict and systematic set of procedures for exhaustive analysis, examination and verification of the written data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Content analysis is not only used for qualitative but also for quantitative purpose. Quantitative content analysis involves counting words, phrases and sentences and categorising them under different concepts. It has been used in mass communication so as to count textual elements, but it overlooks the semantic and syntactical cues ingrained in the text (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). On the other hand, qualitative content analysis has developed in anthropology, qualitative sociology and psychology. Quantitative and qualitative content analysis methods complement each other. In other words, they cannot be taught *mutually exclusively* since the former one is adopted for duration and frequency of certain forms within the data and the latter is employed in order to analyse *antecedent-consequent* patterns (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

In addition to these purposes, content analysis could be used in a deductive or inductive manner (Elo & Kyngas, 2007). The purpose of the research determines which approach to adopt for analysing the data. For instance, deductive content analysis is employed if a hypothesis is to be tested; or if there is previous knowledge about the topic whereas inductive content analysis is adopted if the categories are deduced from the data. In this study, inductive content analysis was used since no pre-set categories compiled from previous research on CS practices of YLLs were adopted. Also, the purpose was not to test any supposition, but to suggest new perspectives to the ELT environments with regard to students' and teachers' beliefs about their CS use.

In this study, although certain forms and their frequencies were determined in the first step of the analysis, qualitative content analysis was used in the following steps. The aim was to support the data with both quantitative and qualitative ways. As Weber

(1990) states the best content-analytic studies make use of not only quantitative but also qualitative approaches (as cited in Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

Qualitative content analysis has several advantages. Primarily, there is no observer's paradox since it focuses on linguistic and meaning in context at the same time. Additionally, it is systematic and verifiable. In other words, the codes and concepts in the text can be analysed and verified repeatedly since the transcribed data is in permanent form (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

The current study made use of inductive qualitative analysis. To investigate the data in detail, the video recordings of the interviews were transcribed. In the preparation process, the units of analysis were determined first. These units comprised of research questions and answers of the participants to these questions. Second, notes and headings were written down while reading the transcribed data and frequency of words was counted to create themes. Third, the data were analysed by means inducing themes out of the answers given to each question. By deriving themes out of the answers, it was aimed to present new insights from the accounts of teachers and learners through these generated themes.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the results in accordance with the research questions of the study. First, a brief summary of the analysed data is given. Second, the frequency of the students' and the teachers' CSs are presented. Third, the moments of CSs are identified. Fourth, types of CS are reported. Fifth, the functions of these CSs are presented. Finally, the use of CS in the classroom is analysed to see whether they contribute to the learning environment or not. The research questions of the current study are:

1. Do students and teachers resort to CS in secondary EFL classrooms?

2. If so, how frequently do the teachers and students code switch?

3. When do the students and teachers tend to code switch in general?

4. What types of CS do they use?

5. What are the functions of these CSs?

6. And finally, does the use of CS contribute to the learners' language learning?

4.2. A Brief Summary of the Analysed Data

The data collected via video recordings were manually transcribed (See appendix 1) according to Jefferson's Transcription conventions (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). Each transcribed lesson lasts approximately 45 minutes. Therefore, the transcribed data were received from six lessons in total: two lessons from three fifth grade EFL classrooms, added up to 270 minutes.

In the data analysis process, the transcribed data were quantitatively and qualitatively examined. Quantitative analysis of the transcriptions showed that all the teachers and their students made use of CS to varying extents. In an attempt to estimate the frequency of English and Turkish used by the teachers and the students in each

lesson, a frequency count of words in the lesson transcripts was carried out. Although the total speaking time might have been shaped by the nature of the activities presented, the frequency analysis was helpful to reach an understanding of the interactions. The following table illustrates the word counts of three teachers in detail.

Table 2
Frequency counts of words spoken by the teachers

Teachers	**TL**	**TL %**	**L1**	**L1 %**	**Total**
Teacher E	5139	99.4	29	0.6	5168
Teacher F	3199	72.5	1212	27.5	4411
Teacher S	2866	98.4	47	1.6	2913

The results in Table 2 demonstrate that Teacher E used the TL most compared to the other teachers. Also, the number of words in L1 was the lowest among other teachers. Although Teacher S did not use L1 a lot, the number of words uttered during the lesson was the lowest in comparison with the other teachers. Yet, as stated before, the difference might have stemmed from the types and duration of the activities in each classroom. Among the teachers, Teacher F used more words in L1 than other teachers.

Just as three teachers differed from each other with regard to their use of L1 and TL in their classroom discourse, the frequency of words used by the students in these classes varied from each other as well. Table 3 illustrates the frequency and the percentage of the words used by the students.

Table 3
Frequency counts of words spoken by the students

Students	**TL**	**TL %**	**L1**	**L1 %**	**Total**
Teacher E's students	1791	73.3	650	26.7	2441
Teacher F's students	925	54.0	781	46.0	1706
Teacher S's students	862	53.0	767	47.0	1629

Among the three groups, students in Teacher E's classroom used more words in TL than the other groups. Table 3 also shows that the students in Teacher S's classroom

did not use TL as much as the students in Teacher F's room. However, when the total of words is taken into account, this result might show that the nature of the interactions in Teacher E's and F's classes required more interaction between the teacher and the students. Also, when the students' and their teacher's use of L1 and TL are compared, there seems to be a correlation between the teacher's and the students' language choice. For instance, Teacher E used more words in English compared to other teachers. Similarly, her students used more words in English than other students. However, more detailed data analysis is required to see when and why the students and the teachers alternated languages. In order to analyse the nature of tasks and the interaction between the tasks and CS acts, the structural design of each lesson will be outlined in the next session.

4.3. CS Moments of the Teachers and the Students

Since all the teachers' lesson content and activities differed from each other, the moments when CS was employed by both the teachers and learners were investigated by determining the structure of each lesson. The structures of the lessons were identified by referring to the video recordings and transcriptions. First, the structure of each lesson was identified according to the activity type. Second, CS instances were tabulated for each teacher classroom by counting the number of words used by the students and the teachers in English and Turkish. The purpose of this tabulation was to determine the amount of time spent for each type of activity and compare three classrooms in terms of CS moments. Thus, two tables were prepared to illustrate the CS instances. Table 4 demonstrates the number of words uttered in English and Turkish by the teachers whereas Table 4 shows the CSs of the teachers in three classrooms.

Table 4

Teachers' use of words in English (TL) and Turkish (L1) according to types of activities

Activity types	**Teacher E**				**Teacher F**				**Teacher S**			
	TL	**%**	**L1**	**%**	**TL**	**%**	**L1**	**%**	**TL**	**%**	**L1**	**%**
Greeting	31	0.60	-	-	45	1.02	-	-	10	0.34	-	-
Warm-up	311	6.0	-	-	223	5.05	-	-	222	7.62	5	0.17
Use of students book	1631	31.6	2	0.03	948	21.4	759	17.2	1973	67.7	36	1.23
Homework check	-	-	-	-	231	5.2	103	2.3	-	-	-	-
Exam results announcement	-	-	-	-	91	2.06	2	0.04	-	-	-	-
Reviewing homework	-	-	-	-	744	16.8	27	0.61	-	-	-	-
Reviewing a grammar topic	-	-	-	-	153	3.46	100	2.26	-	-	-	-
Playing a game	-	-	-	-	193	4.3	-	-	118	4.05	6	0.20
Vocabulary practice on smart board	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	89	3.05	-	-
Oral practice of new topic	1035	20.0	2	0.03	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Work in notebooks	344	6.6	25	0.48	124	2.8	47	1.06	-	-	-	-
Worksheet practice	1759	-	-	34.1	385	8.7	125	2.83	415	14.2	-	-
Assigning homework	-	-	-	-	14	0.31	10	0.22	26	0.89	-	-
Close-up	10	-	-	0.19	48	1.08	39	0.88	13	0.44	-	-
Total		**5150**		**100.0**		**4411**		**100.0**		**2913**		**100.0**

The analysis of the moments when English and Turkish were used in these three English teachers' classrooms revealed that TL and L1 were used primarily during greeting, warm-up activities, use of student's book, homework check, exam results announcement, reviewing homework, reviewing a grammar topic, playing a game, vocabulary practice, oral practice of new topic, work in notebooks, worksheet practice, assigning homework, and close-up moments.

Table 4 clearly shows that the difference in percentages of overall L1 and TL use by the teachers derived from the structural design of the lessons and the activity types. When the classrooms of these three teachers were compared, all the teachers used English the most while practising the exercises on student's book. Although the proportions of TL use differed from each other, the majority of TL use by the teacher took place in those moments. Table 4 also demonstrates that all the teachers used worksheet activities in their classrooms, and the use of TL followed a high trend at those times. Especially, Teacher E made use of TL the most while covering worksheet activities compared to both other activities in her classroom and other teachers' allocation of TL in their classroom. Similarly, Teacher S made use of English during worksheet activities.

However, it should be noted in this table that the activities and the time allocated to those activities differed from each other and some activities, such as homework check or reviewing a grammar topic which did not take place in all classes. To give an example, Teacher F spent a great deal of time on reviewing homework and as a result, TL was used 16.8% in her lesson. What is interesting in this table is that while Teacher F used the TL the most during the activities in student's book, the percentage of L1 (17.2) use by her was also the highest in contrast with other teachers. Moreover, these three teachers used English and Turkish during worksheet activities, which were one of their common practices. Whereas Teacher E and Teacher S did not resort to L1 during those activities, Teacher F employed it nearly by 2.8%.

Compared to the other teachers participating in this study, Teacher E used the TL the most. Teacher E used English for worksheet practice by 34.1 %. On the other hand, the proportion of English used during the activities in student's book was 31.6% and it was followed by 20% for oral practice of a new topic. Also, it could be seen Table 4 that Teacher E used very few words in L1 at those times. The use of L1 by Teacher E was quite limited in her classroom, and she resorted to CS while she was checking and explaining the grammar notes in students' notebooks. She asked them to take notes

when she introduced the present perfect tense to the students on the board. While the students were taking notes, they asked some questions to get certain points clarified about the new topic. Therefore, she used L1 in order to explain those points to the students at those moments.

Although it might stem from the amount of teacher talk and the nature of the activities, the number of words used by Teacher S both in English and Turkish were almost half of those used in the other teachers' classrooms. One reason for this is that the students in Teacher S's classroom spent a great deal of time on listening and silent reading exercises. The students also did some worksheet exercises; therefore, not a lot of interaction took place between the teacher and the students. Similar to Teacher E, Teacher S used less L1 than Teacher F. Teacher used English primarily when he covered the exercises in the student's book. Though the proportions greatly differed, Teacher S used the majority of his TL while carrying out the activities in the student's book.

As for Teacher F, she used TL the most for the activities in student's book by 21.4%. Also, she used English for reviewing homework by 16.8%. However, what is of interest about her use of TL and L1 in Table 4 is that while she used the TL more than L1 during all the activities, her use of Turkish was quite high especially for the student's book activities in contrast with the other teachers.

While analysing the CS moments, not only the teachers but also the students' use of L1 and TL were investigated according to the activity types as well. Table 5 demonstrates the students' use of English and Turkish in these three different classes in terms of frequency and percentage. The number of words spoken in TL and L1 by the students in the table illustrates that the teachers spoke more than their learners. Also, not surprisingly, the students resorted to L1 more than their teacher. The following table demonstrates the frequency and percentage of TL and L1 use by the students in a detailed fashion.

Table 5

Students' use of words in English (TL) and Turkish (L1) according to types of activities

Activity types	**Teacher E's students**				**Teacher F' students**				**Teacher S's students**			
	TL	**%**	**L1**	**%**	**TL**	**%**	**L1**	**%**	**TL**	**%**	**L1**	**%**
Greeting	14	0.57	-	-	7	0.41	1	0.05	8	0.49	-	-
Warm-up	39	1.59	4	0.16	83	4.8	10	0.58	111	6.8	63	3.8
Use of students book	766	31.3	135	5.53	248	14.5	72	4.22	621	38.1	521	31.9
Homework check	-	-	-	-	7	0.41	108	6.3	-	-	-	-
Exam results announcement	-	-	-	-	4	0.23	44	2.5	-	-	-	-
Reviewing homework	-	-	-	-	384	22.5	201	11.7	-	-	-	-
Reviewing a grammar topic	-	-	-	-	90	5.2	32	1.8	-	-	-	-
Playing a game	-	-	-	-	2	0.11	32	1.8	46	2.8	151	9.2
Vocabulary practice on smart board	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	37	2.2	8	0.49
Oral practice of new topic	532	21.7	159	6.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Work in notebooks	165	6.7	99	4.0	6	0.35	53	3.1	-	-	-	-
Worksheet practice	301	12.3	219	8.9	87	5.0	164	9.6	39	2.3	4	0.24
Assigning homework	-	-	-	-	-	0.41	7	-	-	-	20	1.22
Close-up	4	0.16	4	0.16		0.41	57	3.34	-	-	-	-
Total		**2441**		**100.0**		**1706**		**100.0**		**1629**		**100.0**

Table 5 clearly shows that the majority of the interaction between the teacher and the students took place while doing the activities in student's book. Similar to the teacher's use of TL during the activities in the student's book, the students in these three classrooms used English the most compared to the other activity moments. While the students in Teacher E's classroom made use of it by 31.3%, Teacher S's students resorted to TL by 38.1 %. However, what is striking in Table 5 is that although the use of TL by the students in Teacher S's classroom is higher than the other groups, the L1 proportion is extremely high as well (31.9%). Moreover, Table 5 illustrates that the students in Teacher F's classroom spent a lot of time on speaking in Turkish during the homework review. Even though the students made use of TL by 22.5%, they resorted to Turkish by 11.7%. Additionally, while playing games, the students used more Turkish words than English ones. Therefore, it might be deduced from Table 5 that the students made use of MT more than the TL on many occasions.

To illustrate, Teacher F's students used Turkish by 6.3% and very few English words during homework check activities (0.41 %). In addition, the amount of Turkish words (5.0 %) used by those students during worksheet practices was almost two times higher than the amount of English words (9.6 %). However, this tendency was not observed in Teacher E's classrooms. Her students always tended to use TL during all the activities in contrast to the students in other classrooms. When the number of words spoken by Teacher E's students is taken into consideration, those students used Turkish more during worksheet practice in comparison with the other activities. In a similar vein, those same students resorted to Turkish while they were taking notes in their notebooks.

When Table 4 and Table 5 are compared, one of the most notable findings to deduce from them is that there is a correlation between the teacher's and students' use of TL and L1. In other words, the teacher's use of TL influenced the students' language choice. For instance, Teacher E and her students used less Turkish in their interactions in comparison with other classrooms. Or at times when Teacher F used Turkish more, her students were inclined to resort to their MT. This assumption could be validated by comparing the moments when TL or L1 was used by both the students and their teacher. For example, Teacher F used a fair amount of Turkish (5.2%) while she was checking homework, and accordingly her students resorted to Turkish by 6.3%. Also, the relationship between the students' and the teachers' use of L1 and TL during worksheet

practice could be a good example of how both parties influenced the language choice of each other.

Furthermore, it should be noted that the high proportion of TL use during the student's book activities and homework reviews should not mislead us since those activities mainly involved questions and short answers. In other words, they were controlled activities of grammar and vocabulary; therefore, the students were not required to produce real communication among their peers and teacher. According to the transcripts the moments when CS took place, it was noticed that the activities which were carried out in the three classrooms did not trigger students' creativity since they were quite mechanical and controlled on many occasions. However, it does not mean that there were not any productive and creative activities. For instance, the students in Teacher F's classroom were asked to imagine a party in which the questions and answers would participate as "guests". During this activity, students were quite creative and productive, yet despite the initiations of the teachers in English, they kept on interacting with their peers and teacher in Turkish. Similarly, in another creative game about space food, the students in Teacher E's class came up with highly interesting words; however, they asked the teacher to translate the inventive space food words into English. The following excerpt is an example for this:

Excerpt 1 (Teacher F)

191. T: OK (.) they will eat space food (.) Have you ever eaten space food? (x2) What is a space food?

192. S1: → *Göktaşı hamburgeri.*
(Meteor hamburger)

193. *T:* →*Göktaşı hamburgeri.* Yeah (.) but it maybe rough.
(Meteor hamburger)

194. S2*:* →*Bence süper olur*!
(I think it would be super)

195. S3: uuhhhm (…) →*şey* (.) star:: star salad
(well)

196. T: Star salad, OK. So?

197. S4: Sand::: eehhmm (…) sand rice

198. T: Sand rice, OK (.) interesting.

199. S5: →*Sand rice ne?*
(What is sand rice?)
200. T: →*Kum pilav* (.) Do you think it'll be delicious?
(sand rice)

To conclude this section, it was widely observed in the data that the teachers mainly used English during many activities throughout their lessons; and that they did not resort to CS unless they were asked for help by the students. They used Turkish when they were reviewing a topic or explaining an activity in the student's book to a great extent. On the other hand, the students in three groups primarily used Turkish in almost all activities, especially while doing the exercises or playing games which involved great competition among students. The students used English only in those moments when they were required to complete a controlled activity, give short answers to the questions or responding to the greetings and farewells in the close-up section.

4.4. Types of CS in the Classroom

As explained in Chapter 3, Poplack's (1980) typology, which consists of *inter-sentential* CS, *intra-sentential* CS, and *tag-switching* was applied to the data. At this stage of analysis, first, the types of CSs were identified, second, the frequency of each CS type was determined and compared with regard to students' and teachers' classroom discourse. Moreover, answers such as only "No," "Yes," "Teacher," "Hocam/Öğretmenim" (teacher) were not counted as a type of switching unless they occurred within a clause, phrase or sentence in this study. Those words were regarded as *habitual expressions* which were not meaningful language productions (Malik, 1994). Finally, this analysis and categorization served as the starting point to determine the CS functions of both parties in young EFL classrooms within this study.

4.4.1. Inter-sentential CS in the Classroom

To remind, *inter-sentential* CS takes place between clauses, sentences, or turns. It was observed that not only teachers but also students widely used this type of CS during their interactions. It was the most frequently used CS type found in the data. Table 6

clearly illustrates the frequency of inter-sentential CS employed by the teachers and the students in three different young EFL classrooms:

Table 6
The frequency of inter-sentential CS

Inter-sentential CS					
Teacher E	**Students**	**Teacher F**	**Students**	**Teacher S**	**Students**
4	81	111	177	7	116

As can be deduced from Table 6, in comparison with the other two teachers, both Teacher F and her students extensively used *inter-sentential* CS in their classroom discourse. While the students in Teacher S's classroom employed this type of CS 116 times, the students of Teacher E used it less compared to the students in other groups. In the following example, Teacher F checks the homework and one of the students is not sure about which pages are included.

Excerpt 2 (Teacher F)

121. T: You don't understand that part. ((She's checking the homework one by one)) OK, what about the other pages? (…) Oki doki (…) I see some parts are missing.

122. S: → *Hocam?*

(Teacher)

123. T: Yes? (.)

124. S: →*Burası da mı vardı?*

(Is this part included, too?)

125. *T:* →*Vardı.* (.) *6. ünitenin hepsi vardı.*

(It was. The whole sixth unit was included)

The excerpt is an example of inter-sentential CS between turns. In line 121, Teacher speaks in English, and then in line 122 the student initiates the conversation by addressing her 'Hocam' (Teacher) in Turkish. Although that attempt was not accepted as CS, it prepared the following extension by the student. Despite that attempt, the teacher keeps on speaking in English despite the student's attempt in Turkish. The student takes the turn again and asks his question in Turkish, and the teacher responds to his question in Turkish as well. The following example shows that inter-sentential CS might also occur within one turn.

Excerpt 3

366. T: OK (.) so what will you eat, what will you listen, what will you wear? (…)
→*Haydi, hemen parti oluşturalım*
(OK, let's form a party now)
367. S1: →*Hocam cevapların eşi sorular olsun*
(Teacher let questions be the partners of the answers)
368. S2: I will wear a dress.
369. T: dress? (.) What colour is dress?
370. S3: →*Dress değil* (.) I will a trousers.
(not a dress)

In the example, Teacher F asks the students to imagine a party. The teacher also wants them to decide what they will eat, drink and wear at the party. In line 366, it could be seen that the teacher initiates the questions in English first, and then waits for the reactions of the students for a few seconds. Then, she switches from English to Turkish to emphasize her point. In turn, the student makes a suggestion about the party in response to the teacher's invitation. After that, another student takes the turn in English and mentions her clothing. This self-selection is followed by the teacher's extension. However, the student switches from English to Turkish quickly, and then switches to English again within the same utterance. These two examples show that CSs could occur within the same turn or across the turns. In order to interpret these attempts, pauses between the turns will be helpful. Since the pauses are good indicators showing whether the interlocutor alternates between the codes on purpose or randomly. For instance, in line 366 Teacher F waits for a few seconds before CS from English to Turkish, or S3 in line 370 waits for one second to search for the word she looks for finishing her sentence although she does not pay attention to the mistake she makes with "a trousers".

4.4.2. Intra-sentential CS in the Classroom

Intra-sentential CS takes place within a clause or sentence. Poplack (1980) stated that *intra-sentential* CS requires a lot of integration of both languages. In other words, this is the integration of the matrix/base language, which is the dominant language in

the environment in which the person lives and embedded language, which is English in this study. This requirement generally holds true for bilingual people, but this study shows that not only bilingual students but also FL learners could employ it too. Although *intra-sentential* CSs are not used as frequently and complex as bilingual speakers do, they are employed by young EFL students in EFL classrooms as well.

Table 7
The frequency of intra-sentential CS

Intra-sentential CS					
Teacher E	**Students**	**Teacher F**	**Students**	**Teacher S**	**Students**
5	6	1	14	2	2

Table 7 illustrates the number of intra-sentential CSs occurring in the three classrooms. Among the teachers, Teacher E used intra-sentential CS the most. However, when the students in the three different groups are compared, the ones in Teacher F's classroom used it more than the other groups. The following example shows how students ask for clarification about a grammar topic. Teacher E asks the students to practice a 'have you ever…?' question. Then, a student self-selects and makes comments about lying in Turkish. After that, another student corrects her mistake by inserting an English clause in her sentence. The teacher gives feedback on her correction by repeating the correct answer, but then another student takes the next turn and tries to clarify a misunderstanding. St4 intervenes and explains what his friend means and this turn causes Teacher E to code switch quickly from English to Turkish. However, she instantly switches to back English after listening to the student about what he had meant.

Excerpt 4 (Teacher E)

522. T: No, I have never told a lie before or (.) Yes, I have
523. St1: →*Bunu söyleyerek de yalan söylüyor. Herkes*
(She tells a lie by saying this, too). (Everybody)
524. T: [Yes, you are lying.]
525. St1*:* → *[yalan söylüyor]*
(everybody is lying)
526. St2*:* → *Yes, I have diyecektim.*
(I was about to say: Yes, I have)
527. T: Yes, I have.

528. St3*: →No, I never yazsak olmaz mı?*
(Isn't it possible if we write: No, I never?)

529. St4*: →Teacher siz orda "No I have never yazıyorsunuz ya!"*
you are writing "No I have never there!")

530. T: *=Efendim?*
(Sorry?)

531. S*: =→orda I haven't yazsak olmaz mı?*
(Is it OK if we write I haven't there?)

532. T: Yep. It's OK (.) Have or has plus

533. Ss: V3 ((in chorus))

534. T: Great.

The following example was recorded in Teacher S's classroom. In this example, Teacher S reminds students of what he said previously and keeps on explaining it in English. Then, he switches to Turkish, but he does not translate the question. Rather, he inserts the whole sentence into a Turkish sentence and then goes on in English.

Excerpt 5 (Teacher S)

324. T: For example, remember what I said. I said (.) Chinese is a very easy language and he said (.) I don't agree with you. →*Sordum* (.) (I asked) Do you agree with me? *diye*. I don't agree with you. I think Chinese is a very difficult language (…) OK.

325. St1: →°*Ne söyleyeyim?*° (…)
(What shall I say?)

326. T: For example, talk about your favourite sport. You say for example (.) it is the best sport in the world.

327. St1: I think the best sport is (…)

328. St2: Football!

329. T: Hush!

Moreover, it is observed that the structure of the sentence is more similar to English syntax because a verb is not generally used in the beginning of the sentence in Turkish syntactical structure. So to speak, a proper sentence structure could be "Benimle aynı fikirde misin diye sordum*"* in Turkish: "I asked if you agreed with me" However, he starts the sentence with a verbal clause-the translation of "I asked." This might lead us to notice the importance of pauses occurring during the interaction among

the interlocutors. The pause after CS "*Sordum* (.)" could demonstrate that the teacher stops for a very short time on purpose after switching from English to Turkish because he might wish to emphasize his message to the students by shifting from English to Turkish and back to English. He might signal his desire to continue the interaction in English by switching at the same time.

4.4.3. Tag Switching in the Classroom

Tag switching defines the insertion of an item into a sentence or clause without violating any grammatical rules. According to Poplack (1980) this type necessitates the least competence in L2 in comparison with the first two types. It might be explained due to the fact that tags can be moved freely because they do not have any syntactical constraints.

Table 8
The frequency of tag switching

Tag switching					
Teacher E	**Students**	**Teacher F**	**Students**	**Teacher S**	**Students**
-	40	16	7	3	11

Table 8 illustrates that the students in all groups made use of tag switching to a varying extent. The students in Teacher E's classroom extensively used *tag switching* during their interactions. The majority of these tag switches involve the insertion of certain words, such as "Hocam" (Teacher), "Teacher," "yes", "no", or the insertion of an English word into a Turkish sentence while students were asking for the translation or equivalence of the word.

Excerpt 6 (Teacher E)

212. T: Maybe he wants to play basketball. OK (.) what kind of room is that? Is it in a mass? (…) It's in a mass. In a mass?
213. Ss: Yes
214. T: It's really untidy, dirty. (.) What kind of room is that?
215. St1: →Çatı katı.
216. T: It's an attic maybe. Is it tidy or untidy?

217. Ss: Untidy

218. St1: →*Teacher çatı katı değil mi?*

(isn't it attic?)

219. T: Maybe it's a garage.

220. Ss: Yes.

In the excerpt given above, Teacher E and her students describe a picture in the student's book. The teacher and students try to guess what kind of room it is. The teacher asks students what kind of room it is and whether the room is in a mess or not. St1 self-selects and takes the turn in order to makes a guess about the room. The teacher gives feedback about the answer in English on the contrary to the student's code choice. Then, St1 inserts "Teacher" to have his answer confirmed by the teacher as to whether it is a correct guess. Once again, the teacher gives feedback on his initiation in Turkish. The following example shows similarity to the previous one in terms of the teacher's choice of code. In the preceding one, the teacher ignores the student's response in Turkish and responds in English. Teacher E continues her attitude towards switching from English to Turkish by answering the student's attempts in English. Also, it could be observed in this excerpt that the students might insert a discourse marker into their utterances.

Excerpt 7 (Teacher E)

562. T: If you want (.) you can take two and pass the rest one. Selin help me please.

563. St1:Teacher

564. T: I can't hear you. Yes, Oktay I am listening.

565. St1*: →Arttı bir tane.*

(There is one more)

566. St2*: →Çok büyük.*

(Too big)

567. T: Hurry up.

568. St3*: →Büksek olur mu?*

(Is it OK if we fold it?)

569. T: Hurry up.

570. *St4: →Teacher bana gelmedi.*

(I haven't received it)

571. T: Be patient.

572. *St5: →One minute, buradan gelir.*
(One minute, it will come from here)
573. T: Quickly.
574. *St4: →Ama bir tane*
(but just one)
575. T: Take one (.) This is yours (.) And Orkun, it is yours. What is your question? (.) Orkun what is your question?

In line 563, St1 tries to attract the teacher's attention by calling her as "Teacher." Following this, Teacher E responds to him in English. After drawing the teacher's attention, he expresses his problem with the worksheet delivered by other students. After that, another student states his problem with the size of the worksheets in Turkish as well, and the teacher gives a response in English again. This exchange continues until St5 because he inserts a discourse marker unlike his peers. Another discourse marker frequently used by the students is "şey" (well). There is a good example in the following:

Excerpt 8 (Teacher F)

203. T: Biscuits (.) OK space food (…) Would you like to eat space food?
204. Ss: No:::.
205. T: [Nooo]
206. St1: → *Ne güzeldir*
(How nice it must be)
207. St2: →*Şey* (…) *yıldız tozu.*
(Well, star dust)
208. T: →*Yıldız tozu*, maybe
(Star dust)
209. St3: uuhhhm (…) *şey* star:: star salad
(well)
210. T: Star salad (.) OK. So?
211. St4: Sand (.)eehhmm (…) sand rice
212. T: Sand rice (.) OK (.) interesting.

In Excerpt 8, Teacher F asks whether they would like to eat space food. Then, students make fun of it and make up space food names. In line 207, St2 uses *şey* to

come up with a space food name and hold the floor to maintain the conversation whereas St3 uses *şey* to gain time and produce a phrase in English.

It could be deduced from these examples that since the participants are not fluent speakers of the TL, they resort to CS quite often. Therefore, their CSs do not involve long and complex sentences or clauses, they are generally made of up single insertion of TL words into sentences in Turkish, or responses given entirely in their MT despite the teacher's initiation in the TL. As to the teachers, Teacher E did not insert any words into either code, and similarly Teachers S employed *tag switching* rarely whereas Teacher F used it 16 times.

Excerpt 9 (Teacher F)

352. T: Who will they meet? And next one. What? (.) OK Yeşim.
353. St1: What will film win?
354. T: No (.) what film will win? OK (…) What film will win?
355. St1: What film?
356. T: No, →*bir dakika* (…)
(Just a moment)
357. St1: What will film win?
358. T: Ahhh! The film will win an Oscar. OK (.) what will the film win? OK.
359. St1: Yea:::

In this example, the students try to make questions about the passage in the student's book. There is a disagreement about the structure of the question between the students and the teacher because the answer given in line 353 does not sound correct for the teacher. Then, Teacher F pauses for a few seconds and inserts a discourse marker "bir dakika" to think about the correct question. After that, St1 takes the turn and repeats her question again and at that instant Teacher F realizes the correct answer and confirms the St1's answer. What is striking in this excerpt is that despite the teacher's alternation from English to Turkish, the students did not switch codes as they do throughout the data in general. Also, Teacher F does not sustain CS in order to clarify the mistake she did, and returns to English. This might be due to the fact that when the students make a mistake and if the teacher is not sure about comprehension by the students, s/he might resort to the student's MT to clarify the misunderstanding which is highly observed in the current data as well. However, if the students do not code switch,

the teacher might regard it as understood by the students and so, there is no need to code switch.

The examples above show that it is possible to come across Poplack's (1980) CS typology in this data. Both the teachers and learners used CS to a varying degree in the classroom discourse. The examples also demonstrate that the structural design of the lessons, the participants' code choice whether they be learners or teachers, and the pauses are influential in identifying the occurrence of CS. Therefore, there is one more step left to analyse the acts of CS in young EFL classrooms within this study. The focus of the following section is to report the functions of CSs employed both by the teachers and learners in terms of student and teacher discourse.

4.5. Functions of CS in the Classroom

This section aims to give an account of CS functions by young EFL learners and English teachers. With this purpose in mind, the transcribed data gathered from classroom video recordings were analysed to identify CS functions in terms of student discourse and teacher discourse. For each classroom, the functions and frequencies of CS employed by the participants were determined and tabulated in a descending order. Then, detailed analyses of these functions were provided by comparing three fifth grade young EFL classrooms which took part in this study.

However, it should be noted before moving onto the detailed analyses, the identification of each CS act and explaining its function was quite difficult since alternative interpretations could be made. This problem has often been cited in the literature as well (Eldridge, 1996; Ferguson, 2009; Rasckha, 2009; Lin, 1990). For instance, Lin (1990) maintained that there are some problems regarding the reliability and validity of the CS functions. Specifically, Lin (1990) mentioned that there has not been an exhaustive coding scheme which includes all the functional categories up to now. In addition to this, there has not been a consensus on the assignment of verbal behaviours to those functional categories. Namely, even if there is an agreement on the categories, there might be different interpretations of the same codes. Similarly, Eldridge (1996) stated that analysis of CS might be problematic because many switches might be either multi-functional or open to deduce various explanations from the data. Furthermore, Rasckha (2009) listed the difficulties arising from the coding schemes. For

example, the locus and the duration of CS might affect its function. Also, the triggering effect of the previous speaker has a role in the function of CS uttered by the next speaker. Moreover, translation could be interpreted either as a tool to clarify misconceptions or a sub-function of repetition purpose.

These problems have been encountered while analysing the current data as well. While assigning categories to the functions, the researcher had similar difficulties since the functions were open to multiple interpretations. However, the elimination of this obstacle was attempted by analysing the video recordings in detail. The video recordings enabled both auditory and visual cues for the researcher to interpret the CS functions. Also, the functional categories were cross-checked by the supervisor of this research and the researcher in order to provide more reliability. The following sub-section aims to illustrate the functions of CS employed by the teachers within this research in detail.

4.5.1. Teachers' CS Functions

In this sub-section, the functions of the teachers are analysed and exemplified with excerpts taken from the transcribed data. The functions of the three teachers are illustrated in the same table in with a view to comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences in three fifth grade young EFL classrooms. Table 9 illustrates both the frequency and functions of CS in descending order.

Table 9
The Frequency of CS Functions by Teachers

CS Functions by Teachers					
Teacher E	**Frequency**	**Teacher F**	**Frequency**	**Teacher S**	**Frequency**
making explanations	2	translation	19	translation	5
changing the topic	2	meta-language	16	giving instructions	3
giving information	1	asking equivalence	13	giving equivalence	2
-	-	giving instructions	13	asking equivalence	2
-	-	classroom management	10	message clarification	1
-	-	unofficial interactions	8	correcting mistakes	1
-	-	checking exercises	6	changing the topic	1
-	-	affective function	6	-	-
-	-	making explanations	6	-	-
-	-	message clarification	6	-	-
-	-	grammar review	5	-	-
-	-	confirming	4	-	-
-	-	changing the topic	4	-	-
-	-	assigning homework	4	-	-
-	-	correcting mistakes	3	-	-
-	-	checking homework	2	-	-
-	-	procedural explanations	2	-	-
-	-	checking comprehension	1	-	-
-	-	correcting pronunciation	1	-	-
-	-	signalling a humorous	1	-	-

As can be seen from Table 9, the functions of CSs greatly vary from each other. Although there are some functions, such as giving instructions, giving and asking equivalence, and changing the topic in common, there are far more functions which are not shared by all the teachers. The analysis of the teachers' CS functions revealed that translation was found to be the most commonly used function used by the teachers (13 times). In the current data, both Teacher F (19 times) and Teacher S (five times) used translation function whereas Teacher E did not make use of it in her discourse. Translation was followed by meta-language function for 16 times in the current data. Asking equivalence was the third most commonly used CS function in the present data. While Teacher F used asking equivalence function for 13 times, Teacher S resorted to CS for that purpose for twice in his discourse.

Giving instructions was another frequently used CS function in this study. It was used 13 times by Teacher F while Teacher S made use of it for three times. Also, classroom management was a quite frequently used CS function found in the present research. It was used by Teacher for ten times. Unofficial interactions were another frequently used CS function in the data. Teacher F used this function for eight times in her discourse. In addition to these functions, checking exercises and affective functions were used six times in the current study. Making explanations is another function used by all the teachers in this study. It was used for eight times in total.

Furthermore, grammar review and confirming were used five times by Teacher F in the present research. Changing the topic is another CS found in the teachers' discourse in common. It was used seven times as a CS function in total. Correcting mistakes was a CS used by Teacher F three times and Teacher S once in this study. Checking homework and procedural explanations were found to be CS functions each used twice by Teacher F in this research. Additionally, making explanations was found to be a CS function used by Teacher E for twice. Lastly, there are four CS functions used by the teachers only once in the data. These CS functions are: checking comprehension, correcting pronunciation, signalling a humorous situation and giving information.

When the variety and the number of these functions are compared, Teacher F used CS by far the most. Teacher F used CS for translation, meta-language, asking equivalence, giving instruction, classroom management, unofficial interactions, checking exercises, affective function, making an explanation, grammar review, message clarification, confirming, changing the topic, assigning homework, correcting

mistakes, checking homework, procedural explanations, checking comprehension, correcting pronunciation, and signalling a humorous situation. While Teacher E employed CS for making explanations, changing the topic, and giving information, Teacher S made use of CS with the purpose of translation, giving instruction, asking and giving equivalence, message clarification, correcting mistakes, and changing the topic. In the following sub-sections, the discourse functions of the teachers are described and exemplified via inserting excerpts from the transcribed data. These discourse functions are examined in light of transcripts and video recordings in order to correctly interpret the data.

4.5.1.1. Translation

Translation is one of the very common functions observed not only in the teachers' discourse, but also in the students' discourse. Translation function was found to be used by the teachers for 24 times in total. The primary purpose of the translation function observed in the current data is to benefit the teachers by repeating or clarifying the message. Most of the time, these attempts are aimed to elicit the correct answers from the students. The excerpt below is a good example of this purpose:

Excerpt 10 (Teacher F)

415. T: They'll stay in a big hotel. Not hotel. Orhan? Orhan you're speaking. Yes, number four? Who will see them?

416. St1: He will see them

417. T: [No]. He will see them? →*Kim görecek onları* (…) A very important-

(Who are going to see them?)

418. St2: →*Öğretmenim*, a film maker-

(Teacher)

419. T: uhuh (…) A very important…

In this example, Teacher F code switches to elicit the correct answer from St1. However, it should be noted that the teacher instantly switches to English, but she is interrupted by another student giving the correct answer. It is also noticeable that St2 initiates with discourse marker *öğretmenim* (teacher) and gives the correct answer in English. The similar attempts are widely observed in the data.

4.5.1.2. Meta-language

Meta-language could be described as the comments and evaluations about tasks in L1 while the tasks are carried out in L2. According to Elridge (1996), learners tend to perform the task in the TL, but statements about the tasks should be done in MT. In this study, the use of meta-language was quite common especially among Teacher F and her students. It was used 16 times in the current data. Although the students in Teacher E and Teacher S's classroom, these teachers did not resort to CS with this purpose. The following excerpt is taken from Teacher F's classroom:

Excerpt 11 (Teacher F)

765. T: OK, good. So (.) you know space station (.) space ship (.) alien. Do you know the famous alien ET?
766. Ss : Ye:::s
767. St1: Mr. Spock!
768. T: ET? ET or MR. Spock?
769. St2*:* →*ET kim?*
(Who is ET?)
770. T: →*ET ünlü uzaylılardan birisi.*
(Et is one of the famous aliens)
771. St3: →*Uzaylı biri*
(an alien)
772. T: →*Bilmiyorsunuz* (.)
(You don't know)
773. St3: →*ET film değil mi hocam?*
(Is ET a film, isn't it teacher?)
774. T: →*Evet uzay filmi,* sci-fi.
(Yes, space movie)

In this excerpt, Teacher F and the students discuss the vocabulary list of the next lesson. The teacher gives an example about the word "alien" and gives some cues about the film, but apparently some students do not know about that film. Then, St2 asks who ET is and this CS leads Teacher F to code switch from English to Turkish and give information about the character. Following this, St3 holds the floor and comments on the character. At that moment, the teacher realizes that most of the students are not

aware of ET and prepares to change the topic. However, St3 continues to make comments about the film and Teacher F confirms his comment, but switches to English again. This excerpt is only one of the examples which corroborates with Eldridge's comments about the students' tendency to comment on tasks in their MT (1996).

4.5.1.3. Asking Equivalence

In the present study, it was observed that both teachers and students resort to CS to convey the meaning of a word by inserting its equivalent in Turkish into the sentences. This function was observed for 15 times in the data. The teachers ask the meaning of the words sometimes in English or Turkish, and the students directly explain the meaning of the word or phrase by giving its equivalent in Turkish.

Excerpt 12 (Teacher S)

522. T: OK, do you agree with me?

523. St1: Do you ag(…)agree with me ? ((mispronounces it))

524. ((students laugh))

525. T: Agree, agree. OK, yes anyway. Go on, yes.

526. St2: Teacher!

527. T: You're right. What's the meaning of you're right? You are right. You are right (.) you are right →*ne demek?*
(what does it mean?)

528. St2: →*Haklısın.*
(You're right)

Excerpt 12 demonstrates that Teacher S tries to convey the meaning of "you are right" and repeats the phrase to make sure that the students understand what it means. Despite asking the meaning of it in English and using the phrase repetitively, he code switches after a short pause. Following this alternation, St2 gives the equivalence in Turkish. This excerpt illustrates that if the teacher alternates the code, the students are more likely to switch the code as well. Throughout the data, similar occurrences are observed. In other words, although the teachers ask the equivalents in English, the students always prefer to explain the meanings of words or phrases in Turkish.

4.5.1.4. Giving Instructions

Using Turkish with the purpose of giving instructions is a prevalent function observed in this study. Both Teacher F and Teacher S made use of CS while clarifying their messages or repeating their instructions in Turkish in order to ask any activities be done. Giving instructions was used 16 times in this study in total. In the following example taken from Teacher F, an L1 switch is used to emphasize the urgency of finishing the exercise. Some of the students did not do their homework at home, and since there is not much time left to finish all the exercises on time, Teacher F instructs her students to finish the activity in five minutes. Again, it is noteworthy that the students code switch in response to the teacher's alternation.

Excerpt 13 (Teacher F)

487. T: →*Sen benim kitabımı alıyorsun. Hemen tamamla. Bir ve ikiyi (.) Uhhh it's cold. ((she closes the window))*

(You take my book. Finish it immediately. One and two)

488. S*: →Hocam, iyi iyi!*

(Teacher, it's good)

489. T: →*Yapmayanlar için bir beş dakika hemen bir ve iki (.)şurdaki tabloyu tamamla.* This is your planet.

(Five minutes for the ones who haven't done it, now one and two finish the table there)

490. S: →*Bunu ne yapacağız?*

(What are we going to do with that?)

4.5.1.5. Classroom Management

It is not rare to use L1 in language classrooms for maintaining discipline and organizing activities (Chowdury, 2012; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Lin, 1990; Üstünel, 2004). Moreover, CS helps the teachers regulate classroom interactions (Kong, 2008; Magid & Mugaddam, 2013; Qian, Tian & Wang, 2009; Valdes-Fallis, 1978). Classroom management was used ten times in this study. Teacher F employed CS for reprimanding and warning the students. Excerpt 14 illustrates that she warns one of the students to be more responsible about doing his homework.

Excerpt 14 (Teacher F)

467. T: →*Ceza vermiyorum, kızmıyorum da ama bu ödev konusunda, ödev konusunda biraz daha… Eve yazayım mı sayın veli ödev yapılmamış diye*

(I don't give punishment, I'm not mad at you, but about this homework issue, some more … Shall I write dear parent, homework hasn't been done?)

468. Ss: No:::!

469. St1*: →Öğretmenim ben yaptım*

(Teacher, I did it)

470. T: No (.) → *o zaman ödevler yapılıyor.*

(then, homework will be done)

In Excerpt 14, Teacher F checks the homework assigned in the previous week. While she is checking the homework, she notices that some students did not do their homework. In order to warn them, Teacher F reminds them that if they do not pay attention to this issue, a notification paper will be sent to their parents. As can be seen in the excerpt, Teacher F code switches to warn the students about their homework, and interestingly, the students reply to her in English in line 468. Moreover, this CS instance could be regarded as a threat to the student as well. However, whether it be reprimanding or warning, Teacher F's purpose is to take this unwelcome behaviour under control by using the student's L1.

4.5.1.6. Unofficial Interactions

Unofficial interactions could be described as attempts which are not directly related to the task or lesson. Originally coined by Canagarajah (1995), these interactions are composed of the moments when the students interact with each other during group work or the teachers use CS to discuss off-task issues. In the current study, it was used eight times. Both the teachers and learners made use of CS for this function to talk about extra-pedagogical tasks, such as assigning the students for duty during the break-time or commenting on some parts in an activity which are not relevant to the task demands. The following excerpt is about the assignment of students on duty during the break time.

Excerpt 15 (Teacher F)

503. T: →*Nöbetçi*?

(The person on duty?)

504. St1: →*Hocam en son ben olmuştum.*

(Teacher, I was on duty the last time)

505. St2*: →Hocam ben olabilirim.*

(Teacher, I could be on duty)

506. T*: →En son kim olmuştu?*

(Who was on duty the last time?)

507. St3: →*Benle Asmin.*

(Me and Asmin)

508. T: *İrem ve Berke)*

(İrem and Berke)

509. St4: Ya:::! ((the students are pleased with the teacher's decision))

510. T: →*Nöbetçisiniz hayatım* (.) you are on duty. So, I'm writing your names.

(you are on duty honey) On duty, İrem and Berke.(OK, →*ne oldu?*(…)

(what happened?)

→*Hayır herkes kendi sorumluluğunu bilecek, biliyorsunuz nöbet tutmak oldukça önemli.*

(Everybody should take his own responsibility, as you know being on duty is really important)

Teacher F asks the students who were the latest people on duty to determine the new pair for this responsibility. However, one of the students are not pleased with her decision, but she ignores them and announces the pair on duty in Turkish. After that, Teacher F switches back to English, but after a few sentences she code switches to Turkish in order to understand what is going on in the classroom. When the video recording is analysed to identify what is happening at those moments, it is realized that the couple on duty pull face at the teacher. As Teacher F understands why they pull a face, she explains the importance of taking responsibility. In order to convey this message, she code switches to the students' MT.

4.5.1.7. Checking Exercises

One of the functions of CS employed by the teachers is checking exercises. This CS function was only observed in Teacher F's classroom and used six times in her discourse. Teacher F checks students' answers while she walks around the desks and corrects their mistakes either in their notebooks or the student's book. The following example shows that one of the students does not follow Teacher F's instructions, and the video recording revealed that he is on the wrong page. When Teacher F notices that the answers are wrong, she code switches and explains the correct answer. Then, she realizes that there are some unclear points among some students about the activity. After correcting some answers, she explains how to do the rest of the exercise.

Excerpt 16 (Teacher F)

499. T: →*Bak daha hangi sayfadayız. Bunlar olmamış, it is he it is it olmaz. Burası boş kalmış. Arkadaşlar?* (..) *Kim ne yapacağım diyor?* (…) *Tamam. Victor'ın nesi? Coconut'ı* (…) *Tamam yaz adını ondan sonra cinsiyetine göre yazacağız. Hah* (…) *Bonzo ve Nipper olduğuna göre ikisinin hindistan cevizi.* ((The teacher monitors the students' answers in work book))

(Look which page we are on. These are not OK, it is not "he" it is "it". Here is empty. Friends? Who is asking what to do? OK. Victor's what? His coconut. OK, write his name and we are going to write it according to gender. As they are Bonzo and Nipper, it's their coconut)

4.5.1.8. Affective Function

The findings also revealed that L1 was used for affective function in this study. It was used as a CS function by Teacher F only. Teacher F made use of it six times in the current data.

Excerpt 17 (Teacher F)

576. T: Are you alright?

577. St1: →*Evet öğretmenim.*

(Yes teacher)

578. T: →*Tamam kapat camı. Gel, istiyorsan hemşireye git.*

(OK, close the window. Come, go to the nurse if you like)

579. St1: →*Özür dilerim öğretmenim.*

(I'm sorry teacher)

580. *T: →Hayır üzülmene gerek yok. Çok canın mı yandı noldu? Git elini yüzü yıka gel o zaman. Duvara mı çarptın? Tamam tamam bir şey olmaz*

(No, you don't need to be sorry. Did it hurt a lot, what happened? Go and wash your face. Did you hit the wall? OK, OK, it's OK)

581. St1: ((He starts to cry))

582. T: →*Erkek adamsın sen, hadi. Elini yüzünü yıka hadi elini yüzünü yıka gel çabuk.*

(You are a man, come on. Wash your hands and face quickly)

The excerpt given above illustrates a situation in which the student needs the teacher's help. Teacher F sees from the student's face that there is something wrong because he hits his head on the window. She attempts to learn whether it hurts or not and advises him to go to the nurse if he is not OK. After that, he apologises and feels sorry for that, but the teacher consoles him and explains there is nothing to be sorry about. This example clearly shows that L1 plays an important role in language classrooms although using TL is quite significant in SLA process.

4.5.1.9. Making Explanations

Making explanations was found to be one of the functions used by the teachers in the current study. This function was observed by the teachers for eight times in total. This function might coincide with the clarification or translation of certain points. However, it is labelled as making explanations function since the functions, such as clarification and translation are more readily interpreted in the current data. The following excerpt illustrates the moments when Teacher E explains the meaning of a word in context.

Excerpt 18 (Teacher E)

522. T: Any questions? Yes Alp.

523. St1*: →Niye present kullanılmış?*

(Why is present used?)

524. T*: →Uhmm (…) Çünkü burada hediye anlamında kullanılmamış, tamam?* OK

(Because it is not used in the meaning of a gift here, OK?)

525. St2: Perfect?

526. T: →*Şu anı anlatıyor da ondan. Perfectin de mükemmelle bir ilgisi yok.* You asked the same question yesterday, right? Did you ask the same question on Monday?

(That's because it tells about now. Perfect doesn't have anything to do with perfect/great)

527. St2: →*Teacher perfect şey mi demek?*

(does perfect mean ...?)

528. T: Again and again. Wonderful, very good.

529. St2*:* →*Burdaki anlamını diyorum.*

(I mention the meaning here)

530. T: ((she ignores his question))

In this part of the lesson, Teacher E gives information about "the present perfect tense". One of the students is curious about the meaning of the word "present". As can be seen from Excerpt 18, St1 cannot relate the meaning of the word as a noun with the tense aspect. Although the teacher starts the dialogue in English, she switches to Turkish with the purpose of making an explanation. Then St2 intervenes and asks the meaning of "perfect", but Teacher E realizes what he means and makes a differentiation between the tense aspect and noun. After that, she switches back to English; however, apparently St2 is not satisfied with the answer and switches to Turkish. This time Teacher E ignores his question and directs her attention to the next exercise.

4.5.1.10. Grammar Review

There are several studies identifying grammar review or grammar explanation as a CS function from the teacher's discourse perspective (Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004; Bensen and Çavuşoğlu, 2013; Jingxia, 2010; Chowdury, 2012). In this study, grammar review function was used for five times. There are instances in which grammar review is carried out as a discourse function in this study as well. The example is taken from Teacher F's classroom:

Excerpt 19 (Teacher F)

153. T: →*Ne hatırlıyoruz?* (...) *Bir hatırlayalım mı?* (…) Yes (…) for predictions (.) *gelecek zaman* and for the decisions. OK (.) Ayben?
(What do we remember? Shall we remember it?)
154. St1: will →*kelimesini karar vermeden yaptıklarımızda kullanırız* (.) *yani plansız.*
(We use "will" for the things we do without making a decision, that is, for unplanned things)
155. T*: →Plansız (.) OK. O anlık* OK, yes? Ali Emre?
(Without planning. Spontaneously)
156. St2: Hocam →will kelimesini o anda
157. T: [will →*kelimesini*] OK will (word)
158. St2: will →*o anda aklımıza gelen- Mesela şöyle örnek vermiştiniz*
(crossing our mind at that moment) (For instance, you gave an example)
159. T: uhuh

Teacher F asks whether the students remember anything about "will future", which was covered in the previous week. She starts speaking in Turkish and waits for a few seconds, and then she switches to English and gives cues. Then, she waits for a very short time and switches back to Turkish to involve students and switches to English again. Despite her CS, St1 takes the turn and explains the tense in Turkish. In line 155 Teacher F emphasizes the last words in Turkish and switches to English to invite another student. St2 takes the turn and explains it in Turkish as well. This turn-taking structure demonstrates that the teacher's attempt in the MT is reciprocated by the students as well despite her switches to English.

4.5.1.11. Message Clarification

There are a couple of instances in the data in which the teachers need to code switch to convey the message much more clearly. This function was observed for seven times in the current data in total. Taken from Teacher S's classroom, Excerpt 20 illustrates the moments when Teacher S announces that they are not going to have picnic today, but they can schedule it for next week. He tries to explain that they can have a picnic not with other groups, but on their own. When Teacher S realizes that the students do not really follow what he says, he code switches to Turkish to clarify the

meaning of "as our class" and immediately switches to English after that. However, this CS is followed by a student initiation. St1 takes the turn to ask for clarification but another student intervenes and explains the teacher's message. Teacher S confirms this clarification and repeats his message again. Excerpt 20 shows that Teacher S code switches to Turkish in order to make the message clear, but the students do not feel satisfied with it. They alternate codes to ask for clarification and explain the message to their peers.

Excerpt 20 (Teacher S)

522. T: OK, unfortunately, we are not going for a picnic, but
523. St1: =No=
524. T: =next week we schedule a picnic, OK, we have a picnic ourselves as our class, OK? =
525. Ss: Yes
526. T: as our class? →*Sınıf olarak, yani bizim sınıf,* OK. Yes, but next week
(As a class, that is our class)
527. St1: = →*dördüncü ders mi?*=
(fourth hour?)
528. St2: →*Haftaya*
(Next week)
529. T: Yes, we can do it next week. We can have a picnic altogether.

4.5.1.12. Changing the Topic

In the current data, changing topic function describes the instances when the teachers change the direction of the topic and put an end to it. The teachers made use of this function for seven times in this study. Also, the teachers in this study code switched not to dwell upon the questions of the students any longer but to continue with the task. In excerpt 21, St1 tries to remember whether perfect and present particle are the same things or not. Apparently, St1 means present participle but he uses a wrong word, but Teacher E understands what he means by present particle. However, St1 attempts to insist on particle, but Teacher E interrupts him and switches to Turkish to not dwell on the name of the tense and change the topic.

Excerpt 21 (Teacher E)

522. St1: Mrs. Güçlü, perfect (…) uhmm (…) →present particle değil miydi?
(Wasn't it present particle?)

523. T: You mean progressive?

524. St1: No, particle-

525. T: -Present perfect tense- →*Konunun adına çok takılmayın istersen.*
(Don't dwell on the name of the subject if you like)

4.5.1.13. Assigning Homework

The use of CS for assigning homework is one of the relevant functions occurring in FL classrooms. There are a couple of studies determining assigning homework as a CS function (Eastmen, 1992; Edmonson, 2004; Moreira, 2001). It was used as a CS function by one of the teachers in the current study for four times. In this study, Teacher F made use of CS in order to give assignments to the students at the end of the lesson. In Excerpt 22, Teacher F announces the homework in English; however, after a couple of seconds, she switches from English to Turkish in order to make sure that the message is correctly received by the students. Her switch is followed by an answer by St1, but this CS does not show us whether St1 understood the instruction in English or responded to the teacher's CS. Teacher F continues to give details about the assignment and inserts a tag (student's book) into her utterance. This habitual expression continues with instruction in Turkish. There is no further reaction towards the teacher's CS because this instance happens after the bell rings. However, it should be noted that Teacher F's CS could be interpreted with clarifying the message function as well, but it is preferred to label it as assigning homework in this study because clarifying the message function is observed in many other instances and those clarifications do not specifically involve any homework-related aspect.

Excerpt 22 (Teacher F)

923. T: Don't forget your homework (…) →*Yarının ödevi neydi?*
(What was the homework for tomorrow?)

924. St1: →*Hocam ben yapmıştım*
(I did it teacher)

925. T: →*Sayfa altmış altı altmış yedi*. Student's book. →*Bak buraya ödevi yazıyorum*.

(page 66, 67) (Look, I'm writing homework here)

→*Ödevi not al.*

(Take note your homework)

4.5.1.14. Correcting Mistakes

Correcting mistakes was found to be one of the functions used by the teachers in this study. This function was employed by the teachers for four times in total. Correcting mistakes could be interpreted as giving feedback to the students' performances or responses. Since every reaction of the teacher to the student's responses might be labelled as positive or negative feedback, in this study correcting mistakes is specifically labelled as a distinct function demonstrating how the teachers correct the students' mistakes and which code they choose for this.

Excerpt 23 (Teacher S)

529. St1: last...last week.
530. St2: k (...)key değil mi?
(Isn't it k?)
531. T: Yes.
532. St2: Kite
533. T*: Kite →dendi*
(Kite is said)
534. St2: Kind
535. T: Kind, OK.

Excerpt 23 demonstrates the interactions between the students and Teacher S during a word game. According to the rules of the game, one cannot say the word which is uttered by someone else before, so the students are required to come up with a different word for each turn. In the example, Teacher S code switches in order to express that mistake, but before that, St2 code switches to be sure about the word uttered by his peer. Teacher F confirms his clarification in English. However, the teacher replies to St2's CS in Turkish to express that the student makes a mistake by saying the same word. After that, St2 finds another word starting with k and Teacher S confirms his answer by switching back to English.

4.5.1.15. Checking Homework

In this study, only Teacher F made use of CS for checking assignments. She made use of it for twice. It is observed in the current data that while she is checking the exercises in the assignment, she gives feedback in Turkish. Apart from checking their homework, Teacher F expresses her anger as well because some students did not do their homework, and as far as is understood from the transcriptions, it is not the first time that some of them did not do homework. In the following excerpt, Teacher F admonishes the students and clarifies what she expects from them.

Excerpt 24 (Teacher F)

129. T: →*Evet, defterin de yok. Eve yazı yazacaktık.* (Yes, you don't have your notebook, too. We were supposed to write a note for home). Alright.Yes, homework. *Şimdi bu ödev yapılmış olmuyor. Arkadaşlar şu ödev konusuna bir açıklık getirelim mi?* (Now, this homework isn't accepted to be done. Friends, shall we make the homework issue clear?)

130. S: *Hocam* (inaudiable)

(Teacher)

131. T*: →Bir saniye, şunu demek istiyorum bir bakın bakalım eğer mesela burada şu var:* Who see them? *Sen buraya böyle böyle bir şeyler yazıyorsan bu ödev yapılmış olmuyor, ödev nedir? Sen anladın mı, pekiştirebiliyor musun? Yani ben bu yazıyı görünce ödevini yapmış kabul etmiyorum, anlaştık mı? Ha yapamıyorsan hiç yapma, öğretmenim anlamadım de. Tamam, buraya bir açıklık getirelim, yazılar korkunç. OK, evet yazılıda bazılarınızın yazılarını okumada cidden güçlük çektim, yazılar (...)* OK?
(Hang on a second, I want to say this: let's have a look at this. For example, here it reads: Who see them? If you write things like these, this homework is not accepted to be done, what is homework? Did you understand it? Did you consolidate it? Well, when I see such a hand-writing, I don't accept your homework, clear? If you don't do your homework, then don't do it at all, and say: I didn't understand it, teacher. OK, let's make it clear here. The handwritings are horrible. OK, I really had difficulty in reading some exam papers, handwritings)

In excerpt 24, Teacher F explains that she does not accept the way the students did their homework. According to her, the students did their homework just for sake of doing it since the writings are illegible at all. This excerpt could be interpreted as an

admonishment function). However, similar instances during homework check are observed in Teacher F's classroom, and apart from these moments she resorted to CS by criticising and admonishing students for classroom management and disciplinary issues. Therefore, these instances are defined as the homework check function in the current study.

4.5.1.16. Procedural Explanations

According to the transcriptions, it was found that one of the teachers made use of CS for explaining the procedures. This function was employed by her for twice in the present study. In excerpt 25, Teacher F assigns some exercises to be done in the classroom and as homework for the other day. In line 584 St1 translates what Teacher F says in English. Although in line 585 Teacher F initiates her sentence in English, she abruptly stops and code switches from English to Turkish. This switch might seem to serve a translation purpose. However, the following sentence indicates that Teacher F not only clarifies her message but also gives information about the activity procedure. Interestingly, St1 responds to this switch in Turkish and then switches back to English.

Excerpt 25 (Teacher F)

583. OK (.) page 66 and 67. So we're doing 9th and 10th exercise right now. The rest is your homework for tomorrow.

584. St1: →*Yarının ödevi!*

585. T: So, the rest is- →*Şimdi 9 ve 10'u yapıyoruz burada. 10'da uzayla ilgili bir şarkımız da var onu dinleyeceğiz*- (Now, we are doing 9 and 10 here. We have got a song about space on page 10 and we will listen to it)

586. St1: *Evet*, yeah yeah yeah

(Yes)

587. T: OK, so song time (…) →*9-10 şimdi yapıyoruz diğerleri yarına.*

(We're doing 9 and 10 now and the others for tomorrow)

588. Ss: →*Ödev!*

When the video recording of this group is analysed, it is observed that after seeing that the students have some trouble with understanding her instructions, Teacher F code switches and explains what she instructed. After that, Teacher F gives

instructions in English, yet the students keep on murmuring to each other. As a result, Teacher F switches to Turkish to inform the students about the procedure again. Students' exclaiming "ödev" demonstrates that they understand what they are supposed to do as a next step.

4.5.1.17. Checking Comprehension

The findings of this study show that one of the teachers made use of CS in order to check comprehension. This CS function was used only for once. Teacher F resorted to CS to check whether the students understand what they are supposed to do. To check comprehension, she asks if they understand what she instructed a few seconds ago. After pausing for a while, recognizing they do not comprehend well, she asks "anladık mı?" (did you understand?) to be sure that they do. Then, she expresses that they were required to do it at home. After that, she code switches again to carry out the task; however, after pausing for a few seconds, she gives prompts to the students in Turkish. This switch is followed with another CS until the teacher is not sure whether they pay attention to her. In order to check this, she changes codes and clarifies what she asks for again.

Excerpt 26 (Teacher F)

445. T: OK, thank you. Write about your future. OK, where will you go? Who will you go with? Who will you meet? Where will you live? What will you do? OK, I want you to answer these questions about your future. OK? (…) →*Anladık mı?* (.) →*Normalde yapmış olmanız gerekiyordu ödev olduğu için.* (Do you understand? As it was a homework, you should have done it already) →*Şimdi* (Now) (.) where will you go? (…) → *Geleceğinizi düşünün.* (Think about your future) →*Sınıfta sorduk değil mi 2020'de nerede olacaksınız.* (We asked in the class that where you would be in 2020) First one where will you? I will go to America, London, Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir or I will stay in Adana. OK (.) Who will you go with? I'll go with my friend, with my family, my wife, my husband. →*Dinliyor muyuz?* (…) (Are you listening?) →*Geleğinizle ilgili neler planlıyorsunuz*? (What are you planning for your future?)

Excerpt 26 could be good example in terms of showing many switches within only a minute. It is seen from her frequent CS that the teacher is not really sure whether

her message is understood clearly. In order to check their comprehension, she often resorts to CS. Therefore, this excerpt might prove that teachers make use CS for checking understanding as well.

4.5.1.18. Correcting Pronunciation

Correcting pronunciation is another function which is observed in this study. This function was found only for once. In this study, although all the teachers corrected the pronunciation mistakes of the students, only Teacher F did it in Turkish.

Excerpt 27 (Teacher F)

648. T: Doubt, →*arkadaşlar buradaki b'yi söylemiyoruz*. (guys, we don't pronounce b here) I doubt it. OK doubt not, doubt. So (.) no it is OK. Listen and order the verses of the song.

Excerpt 27 is taken from Teacher F's classroom. It shows that she code switches to correct a mispronounced word. After explicitly correcting and calling attention to it, she switches back to English and gives instruction for the next exercise. Although this excerpt shows that EFL teachers code switch to correct the students' pronunciation, there is no proof to show uptake. In other words, the data do not illustrate whether the student who mispronounced the word "doubt" could pronounce it correctly or not after this CS; it is not possible to see it in the recording.

4.5.1.19. Signalling a Humorous Situation

Teachers might benefit from humour to create a more relaxed and fun environment since learning in such an environment could motivate the students to stay involved in the activities. In this study, one of the teachers made use of this function for once. Teacher F code switches to create humour by attracting the students' attention in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 28 (Teacher F)

801. St1: Knife. ((mispronounces it))
802. T: Is it knife?
803. Ss: Knife ((correct pronunciation))

804. T: [Knife] OK. So this is fork, this is spoon and if i can draw a knife (…) → *Şöyle ilginç bir knife çizelim.*
(Let's draw an interesting knife)
Knife, fork and spoon. Plate is there. You see the plate.
805. ((students laugh))

In line 801, St1 mispronounces the word "knife" and Teacher F echoes his wrong pronunciation. Following this question, the students utter the correct pronunciation. As far as is understood from the video recording, St1 gets upset with the peer correction, and then Teacher F tries to create a humorous situation. By doing so, she inserts the word "knife" as a tag and code switches to make fun with her drawing on the board. Thus, excerpt 28 shows that CS is used to create a fun atmosphere and signal a humorous situation by EFL teachers in YL classrooms.

4.5.1.20. Giving Information

Excerpt 29 shows that CS could operate as giving information about an extra-curricular activity. This function was observed for once in this study. Observed in Teacher E's classroom, Excerpt 29 illustrates a dialogue between Teacher E and three students. In this dialogue, the students practice the "have you ever…?" structure by asking questions to each other. St1 asks to St3 if he has ever been to Waldes, the capital of Liechtenstein, before. Teacher E wonders where it is and asks this to St1. St1 code switches to explain where it is. Not responding to his CS, Teacher E continues to ask where it is exactly since apparently she does not know that it is a European country. St1 understands her question, but interestingly responds to her question in Turkish again. Then, St2 self selects himself and makes a guess. After that, Teacher E directs the question to the intended speaker. However, St1 takes the turn and brags about his question because he states that it is a place that he has not heard of before. Teacher E ignores his boasting and directs her gaze towards St3 who wonders if there is a plane that flies to this country. This time Teacher E code switches and replies to the student's question in Turkish by saying that there must be.

Excerpt 29 (Teacher E)

522. T: Where is that?

523. St1: Waldes

524. T: Where is that?

525. St1: → *Öğretmenim Lihtenştayn diye bir ülke var.*

(Teacher, there is a country called Liechtenstein)

526. T: It is (…) where is that? (…) It is in America (.) where?

527. St1: → *Öğretmenim Almanya civarlarında bir ülke.*

(Teacher it is around Germany)

528. T: So it is in

529. St2: =Netherlands=

530. T: [Germany] OK. Have you ever been there?

531. St3*:* No.

532. St1: Teacher → *adını bile duymadığı bir yer.*

(It is a place he hasn't even heard about)

533. T: No never. Kaan?

534. St3: Teacher → *oraya uçak var mı?*

(Is there a plane going there?)

535. T: → *Vardır canım.*

(There must be honey)

With this last excerpt, the CS functions of the teachers are exemplified and explained in detail by benefiting from both transcriptions and the video recordings. For the next section, the same procedure is applied and the students' CS functions are illustrated in minute details.

4.5.2. Students' CS Functions

This sub-section reports on the CS functions of the students in EFL YL classrooms within the current study. The CS functions of the students in three different fifth grade classrooms are illustrated in Table 10. Table 10 demonstrates the frequency and functions of CS in descending order.

Table 10
The frequency of CS Functions by Students

CS Functions by Students					
Teacher E's students	**Frequency**	**Teacher F's students**	**Frequency**	**Teacher S's students**	**Frequency**
meta-language	28	meta-language	35	meta-language	29
giving equivalence	24	asking for clarification	16	unofficial interactions	14
asking for clarification	16	giving equivalence	15	translation	13
asking for grammar explanation	10	attracting attention	12	asking permission	8
attracting attention	9	unofficial interactions	11	giving equivalence	8
asking for confirmation	4	lexical compensation	8	helping a peer	8
peer talk	4	showing disagreement	7	asking for performance notes	7
teasing a peer	4	making an excuse	5	peer talk	7
lexical compensation	3	requesting	5	making suggestion	6
asking permission	2	peer talk	4	asking for help	4
requesting	2	asking for grammar explanation	3	asking for confirmation	3
showing disagreement	2	asking permission	3	lexical compensation	3
translation	2	complaining	3	requesting	3

Table 10
The frequency of CS Functions by Students (Continue)

asking for help	1	signalling a humorous situation	3	asking about procedure	2
complaining	1	making suggestion	3	asking equivalence	2
peer correction	1	asking about procedure	2	attracting attention	2
giving an example	1	explaining grammar rules	2	showing disagreement	1
helping a peer	1	peer correction	2	asking for clarification	1
making a joke	1	self-correction	2	floor-holding	1
-	-	translation	2	signalling a humorous situation	1
-	-	volunteering	2	-	-
-	-	teasing a peer	1	-	-

According to Table 10, there are 30 CS functions used by the students in these groups. Although the majority of the functions are in common in all groups, there are a few distinct functions, such as floor-holding, self-correction, explaining grammar rules, volunteering, and making a joke. Among the functions, the most frequently used CS function was found to be meta-language which describes the talk in MT while carrying out activities in TL (92 times in total). Moreover, giving equivalence was found as a CS function by the students. This function was seen 47 times in all the groups in the present study. Asking for clarification is another CS function which was extensively used by the students in this study. It was used for 33 times in total. Unofficial interactions was used as a CS function in the students' discourse as well. It was used by Teacher S and Teacher F's students for 25 times in total. Attracting attention is a CS function which was used in all the groups. This switch was used by the students for 23 times.

Translation is a function which was used in all the classes within this study. There are 17 occasions observed on which this CS function occurred in the present data. In

addition, lexical compensation was observed 14 times whereas asking for grammar explanations and asking permission CS functions were counted 13 times for each. Showing disagreement and requesting functions were also observed in the data. Both functions were observed 10 times in the present research. Furthermore, helping a peer and making suggestions CS were counted for nine times respectively.

Peer talk is one of the functions utilized by the students in this study. This function was observed for eight times. Additionally, asking for performance notes and asking for confirmation are the CS functions found seven times in the current research. Also, the results produced by this study revealed that CS functions, such as teasing a peer, making an excuse, asking for help were found for five times. Furthermore, there were four instances from signalling a humorous situation, complaining, and asking about procedure CS functions in the data.

Another function related to peers is peer correction. This function was observed for three times in the present research. Asking equivalence, explaining grammar rules, self-correction, and volunteering were found as CS functions in this study. These functions were observed for twice for each. Finally, the least frequently used CS functions observed in the current data were floor-holding, giving an example, and making a joke. These functions were employed by the students only for once.

4.5.2.1. Meta-language

The use of CS for meta-language purpose was observed both in terms of the teachers and students in this study. There are many instances in which the students and teachers communicate among each other about how to do the tasks or exercises or simply to comment on the issues in the present study. This function was noted for 92 times in the data. Excerpt 30 could be a good example to illustrate the comments of the students on the picture on the student's book.

Excerpt 30 (Teacher F)

748. T: So what is a space station? What is a space ship? Alien? Sleeping bed, plate, OK. Are you ready?

749. St1: →*Çocuğa bak* ((students look at the illustrations on student's book))

(Look at the child)

750. T: Are you ready?

751. St2: →*Hocam şurada çocuk takip ediyor, ayrılmış gibi görünüyor.*
(The child follows there teacher, it seems as if he has left)
752. T: ((she ignores the comments))

As can be seen in the excerpt, the picture catches St1's attention and he shows it to his peer. Although in line 750 Teacher F asks them if they are not in the TL, St1 and St2 keep on making comments about the picture. St1's remarks are followed by St2's prophecies about the possible actions of the child in the picture. St2 wants to attract the teacher's attention, but Teacher F does not pay any attention to the students and focuses on the following exercises. Excerpt 30 illustrates that the students in the current study tend to talk about the tasks, whether they be on worksheets or the student's book, in Turkish. This attempt is sometimes reciprocated by the teacher or sometimes not as in this example.

4.5.2.2. Giving Equivalence

Giving equivalence is the second most frequent CS function used by the students. It was used for 47 times in the current study. However, it should be noted that these functions are triggered by the questions of the teachers themselves. Since the students are asked the direct translation or the equivalents of words and phrases, they are accustomed to give the counterparts in Turkish. In other words, the students are expected to give the counterparts or translations of the words in Turkish.

Excerpt 31 (Teacher S)

27. T: OK (.) has anybody brought something home- made? (…) Home- made?
28. St1*:* →*Şey (.) ıvır zıvır mı?*
(well) (snacks?)
29. St2: *Hmm* (…) →*evle ilgili bir şeyler?*
(something to do with home?)
30. St3: →*Ev yapımı*
(Home-made)

T: Yes (.) home-made.

In Excerpt 31, Teacher S asks the students whether they brought something to eat for the picnic to be held in the afternoon. Then, Teacher F specifically asks if they have

anything home-made. After waiting a couple of seconds, he realized that the students do not understand what he means by home-made food. This time he asks the students to give the meaning of the word in Turkish. The students try to make some deductions with reference to home. Finally, St3 find the correct meaning and his answer is confirmed by Teacher S in TL.

4.5.2.3. Asking for Clarification

As stated before, it is observed that the students in this study are inclined to use Turkish for almost all the initiations except for mechanical activities. In the current study, the students asked questions for clarification for 33 times. The students code switch while talking about the tasks, giving equivalents or asking for clarification as in Excerpt 32. This excerpt shows that the students make use of CS even for simple classroom language phrases they must have learnt up to now.

Excerpt 32 (Teacher S)

143. T: No, OK good. Do the third one. What did you have for the dinner?
144. St1*:* → *[yazacağız değil mi?]*

(We are going to write it, aren't we?)

T: →*Yazıyorsunuz çocuklar* (.)Write down (.) don't look at me (.) What did you have for the dinner?

(You are writing guys) Read (.) read the answer please

Excerpt 32 is taken from Teacher S's classroom. In the example, the students go over the exercises in the workbook and most probably they are required to check their answers and write the correct versions if they make a mistake as a part of their classroom routines. In order to check whether they are required to write this time as well, St1 asks if they will write the answers or not. Teacher F responds to this CS in Turkish, but continues to give instructions in English subsequent to a very short pause. Thus, St1's question to clarify the requirements is made clear by the teacher.

4.5.2.4. Unofficial interactions

The interactions do not only revolve around the tasks or activities carried out related to TL practice in EFL classrooms. There are other interactions, such as unofficial interactions or extra-curricular topics discussed among the students and the teacher. In this study, these actions are labelled as unofficial interactions and they were observed for 25 in the transcriptions. Excerpt 33 exemplifies these off-task interactions which took place in Teacher S's classroom.

Excerpt 33 (Teacher S)

57. St1: →*Verelim mi ödevimizi?*
    (Shall we submit our homework?)
58. T: No, we will do practice (2x)
59. St1*:* →*Hocam arkası kaldı.* ((he points out a paper))
    (Back page is left, teacher)
60. St2*:* →*Öğretmenim ilk sınavların sonucu açıklandı mı?*
    (Are first exam results announced, teacher?)
61. T: I don't know.
62. St2: →*Öğretmenim seviye sınavı açıklandı mı?*
    (Teacher, is placement test announced?)
63. T: ((he ignores))
64. St2: →*Ama iki hafta sonra açıklanacaktı.*

In Excerpt 33, Teacher S wants to initiate the exercises in the workbook, but St1 and St2 ask different questions ranging from assignments to a placement test. For the first question about the assignments, the teacher responds to St1's CS in TL. For the second question about an unfinished worksheet, he does not answer it. For the third question about the exams, he reciprocates to St2 in TL as well, and for the last question about the placement test he prefers to ignore it despite St2's objection in Turkish. As a result, this example clearly shows that the students prefer to use Turkish for unofficial moments despite the teacher responding to them in English, or they understand what the teacher says in TL.

4.5.2.5. Attracting Attention

This function is quite interesting because the motives behind this CS might not very clear and understandable all the time. In some cases, the students were eager to hold the floor or show off either with their performance in the class or for other off-task issues. In this study, this function was observed for 23 times. However, in Excerpt 34, it is not clear why St feels the need to announce that Joss Stone is her aunt's friend. The previous and the following interactions are analysed in order to interpret why St1 resorts to CS, but no cues are found to explain its reason. The only possible interpretation of this excerpt might be that he wants to attract Teacher E's attention because after his comment, Teacher E laughs at him.

Excerpt 34 (Teacher E)

1157. T: Just do it (.) yes you are right honey (.) No no (.) student books (.)Page seventy-one. Ready?

1158. St1*: →Hocam* (.) *Joss Stone benim halamın arkadaşı.*

(Teacher (.) Joss Stone is my aunt's friend)

1159. T: ((She laughs)) Exercise

In the previous lines, Teacher E wants to change the topic and move on to exercises in the student's book, but some students do not want to work on it. She says that they do not say anything and they should just open the book. After that, in line 1158 St1 mentions the friendship between her aunt and Joss Stone. Therefore, this irrelevant attempt is defined as a way to distract the teacher's attention to something else.

4.5.2.6. Translation

Using CS for translating an item or a sentence into MT was a common practice in EFL classrooms examined in this study. In this study, this function was observed for 15 times. In Excerpt 34, Teacher E reviews exercises in the student's book and tries to convey the meaning of a question in line 325. St1 translates the first part "whose," but apparently he does not know what "dad" means. Then Teacher E uses "father" to clarify the meaning. Therefore, St1 understands the question and translates it to show that he comprehends it.

Excerpt 35 (Teacher E)

325. T: Whose dad?
326. St1*:* →*Kimin*
(Whose?)
327. T: Whose dad? Whose father?
328. St1*:* →*Kimin babası.*
(Whose dad)
329. T: Dad isn't a name, OK?
330. ((Students laugh))

4.5.2.7. Peer Talk

In the present study, the students made use of CS while they were talking among each other. This function was labelled as peer talk and it was used by the students for 15 times in the current study. Taken from Teacher S's classroom, Excerpt 36 might be representative for this function:

Excerpt 36 (Teacher S)

713. T: This is your homework ((he erases some parts in the vocabulary list on the smart board))
714. St1: →*Daha da kalın* ((he means type font))
(thicker)
715. St2: →*Buraları yapmayacağız*
(We won't do these parts)
716. St3*:* →*Hayır ondan değil. Hoca biz oradan bakmayalım diye siliyor.*
(Not because of this. He cleans the board for us not to look at it) ((He means the wordlist on the smart board))

This excerpt might prove that the students do not regard TL as a vehicle to communicate with each other. It is quite understandable because they know that they can communicate well in their MT, so they do not feel that the TL is a necessity. Although the TL is highly used by Teacher S in this class, the students do not use it apart from mechanical exercises.

4.5.2.8. Lexical Compensation

The use of CS by asking the equivalent of the words in Turkish is another function employed by the students. This function was observed for 14 times in this study. In this study, the students resorted to Turkish to compensate their lack of lexical proficiency in the TL.

Excerpt 37 (Teacher S)

9. T: You (.) take it and bring it at the end of the class. I'll check it at the end of the class (.) OK? Yes (.) how is it going? What have you got for the picnic?
10. St1: Uhm (…) Chips
11. T: Chips for the picnic. You (.) what have you got for the picnic?
12. St2: Uhm (...) → *Börek ne demekti?*
    (What does bun mean?)
13. T: Bun
14. St2: Bun yeah.

In Excerpt 37, Teacher S asks the students what they brought for the picnic organized in the afternoon. St1 manages to say what he brought, yet St2 does not know the equivalent of "börek" (bun) in English. After pausing for a few seconds, he asks the help of the teacher and code switches to learn the word. Teacher S gives the equivalent and St2 code switches again to answer the question. This example shows that the students might use CS as a strategy to remedy their lack of proficiency in the TL. Moreover, St2's alternation of code in line 14 is a proof to show that some students benefit from L1 and use it as a strategy.

4.5.2.9. Asking for Grammar Explanation

Both the teachers and students made use of CS for explaining or asking about grammar topics. This function was employed by the students for 13 times in the present study. In Excerpt 38, Teacher E covers present perfect tense and the students do the exercises on student's book. In line 350, St1 asks how to make a negative in present perfect tense despite the answer given by the teacher in line 349. St1's CS is not

reciprocated with a CS by the teacher. Instead, the rule to change the sentence into negative is explained by her in TL.

Excerpt 38 (Teacher E)

349. T: I haven't watched new stars, great.
350. St1*: →Hocam olumsuzda?*
(Teacher, what about negative?)
351. T: [haven't, I haven't watched] V3 again. Be careful. I haven't watched new stars.

4.5.2.10. Asking Permission

This function was utilized by the students for 13 times. The very short excerpt given below demonstrates that the students use their MT even for simple and basic classroom language expression. Interestingly, in line 699 St1 inserts "teacher" into the beginning of the phrase, yet continues in Turkish. This insertion could be interpreted as a habitual expression because this one and other similar tags are widely observed in the data. Also, when the proficiency level of this classroom, which is stated as intermediate by the teacher, is taken into account, it sounds impossible that St1 does not know how to ask permission when he is late for the class. The following excerpt might be representative for this function:

Excerpt 39 (Teacher E)

699. St1: *→Teacher girebilir miyim?*
(may I come in?)
T: Come in. Berke?

4.5.2.11. Requesting

In this study, the students made use of CS for making a request. Requesting function was used for ten times. Excerpt 40 takes place between Teacher E and St1. Teacher E asks the students to complete the exercises on present perfect on student's book. St1 requests the teacher to slow down since she cannot follow the teacher and take notes at the same time. However, Teacher E seems to ignore her request and continues with other questions and answers. In line 763, St2 cannot follow the correct

answer as well and code switches to be sure about the answer. Teacher E does not alternate the code despite the students' attempts. Thus, St1's CS strategy serves as a requesting function.

Excerpt 40 (Teacher E)

761. T: Has it started, yep right. Has the match started? Selena? Mom and dad the tickets arrived.

762. St1: Teacher →*yavaş ilerleyelim.*
(let's move slowly)

763. St2: Have they arrived tickets *mı?*
(Is it have they arrived tickets?)

764. T: Try again. Their tickets have arrived.

4.5.2.12. Helping a Peer

In this study, the students used CS for helping each other as well. This function was observed for nine times in the present study. In Excerpt 41, Teacher S wants the students to answer the question "Was it good?" Teacher S addresses the question to a student and tries to convey that he is required to answer it. The addressee does not understand what he is supposed to do. St2 intervenes and volunteers to take the turn. However, Teacher S continues to explain his instruction by repeating it three times. After that, St2 intervenes again and code switches to help him understand the instruction. This attempt helps St1 and after a brief hesitation he correctly answers the question. Yet, Teacher S echoes his answer to show that the answer is not complete, and then St1 gives the complete and correct answer.

Excerpt 41 (Teacher S)

280. T: [I went to a basketball match] Good (.) was it-

281. St1: ((remains silent, puzzled))

282. St2: → [*öğretmenim!]*
(teacher!)

283. T: give and answer, give another answer. Was it good? (…) You know (.) answer the question.

284. St2: → *Sen onun sorusuna cevap ver.*
(You answer his question)

289. T: Was it good?

290. St1: Uhm (…)Yes
291. T: Yes?
292. St1: it was

Excerpt 41 demonstrates that although it is not desirable to convey the message by translating it into MT, it might help to reach the correct answer. In this example, Teacher does not code switch to clarify his message or help him understand it, but a student does it to help his peer. As a result, this attempt helps St1 give the correct answer.

4.5.2.13. Showing Disagreement

The students made use of CS for showing their disagreement about in this study. This function was observed for nine times in the data. In Excerpt 42, Teacher S wants to review the assignment in the workbook. However, there is a disagreement about the pages. The students discuss exactly which pages are included in the assignment. Some students express it in English, but some of them use Turkish to discuss the pages. Teacher S listens to the discussions and does not object to the students. However, in line 79 St1 objects to his peers and expresses the missing parts. After seeing that, Teacher S does not let the discussion go longer. Therefore, the discussion ends with Teacher S's shifting the attention to the activity itself, not to the pages discussed. This excerpt illustrates that the students use their MT to discuss a topic or show their disagreement. However, it should be noted that this attitude should not be generalized for all the students in interactions. Although they insert habitual expression, such as "hocam" (teacher) to their utterances, they prefer using the TL. Therefore, it could be concluded that personal preferences do have an impact on the students' actions.

Excerpt 42 (Teacher F)

71. St1: →*Hocam* seventy-six
    (Teacher)
72. St2: No four!
73. St3: →*Otuz sekiz*
    (Thirty-eight)
74. St4: seventy-seven

75. T: Yes.
76. St4: OK.
77. St1: Seventy-six
78. St4: →*Hayır* (.) seventy-seven
(No)
79. St1*:* →*Hayır* (.) *buraları yapmadık.*
(No, we didn't do them)
80. T: OK (.) anyway

4.5.2.14. Making Suggestions

The findings revealed that making suggestions was used as a CS function by the students. This function was utilized by the students for nine times in the current research. Excerpt 43 demonstrates an instance in which a student makes a suggestion to the teacher. Teacher E writes some notes about present perfect on the board after orally practicing it. In line 574, St1 recommends that the teacher underline that part. However, Teacher E reacts to St1's suggestion in the TL. This excerpt shows that the students attempt to express their recommendations in their MT and do not regard the TL as a vehicle for conveying them.

Excerpt 43 (Teacher E)

576. St1: Teacher (.)→*kırmızı içine alsanız daha iyi olurdu*. ((He points at the notes on the board))
(it would have been better if you had circled it in red ink)
577. T: Thank you. Ready?

4.5.2.15. Asking for Performance Notes

Asking for performance notes function was employed by the students for seven times in this study. This function has not been encountered in any other studies concerning CS in EFL or ESL classrooms. The situation might not unique to the classes which were observed within this study; however, it has not been addressed as a CS function before. This function could be interpreted as meta-language or unofficial

interaction by other researchers, but it is defined as an asking for performance notes function because this function does not fully meet both of these functions. It is not defined as meta-language because it is not about the organization of the task. It is not defined as unofficial interactions either because it is not totally irrelevant to the task.

Excerpt 44 (Teacher S)

293. St1: →*Hocam* plus?
(Teacher)
294. St2: →*Hocam* how many plus? ((Students get pluses for every correct answer))
(Teacher)
295. St3: Five
296. St4: Two
297. T: Five to Ibrahim, Asım, two to you and two to you, both of them, two to you , two to you
298. St2: I?
299. T: No. Five to you and two to you.
300. Ss: Tututututu. ((they laugh))
301. St2: →*Kaç verdiniz hocam?*
(What is my score teacher?*)*
302. St3*:* →*Beş beş*
(Five, five)
303. St4*:* →*Hocam kaç aldım?*
(What is my score teacher?)
304. St5*:* →*Hocam ben?*

(Teacher me?)

Excerpt 44 demonstrates that the students in Teacher S's classroom want to learn how many pluses they received as a reward for their performances during the activities. It could be inferred from the students' questions that giving a plus is a classroom routine to reward and motivate the students. Also, it is seen that it has turned into a habit for the students. Excerpt 41 shows that CSs of the students are ignored by Teacher S most of the time and he only responds to these switches twice. However, some students still do not feel satisfied with his answer in English and continue to ask what their score is. It could also be inferred from the excerpt that the students could not follow what Teacher S said in English and repeatedly ask about their pluses in Turkish to be sure.

4.5.2.16. Asking for confirmation

The findings obtained from the current research revealed that the students made use of CS to ask for confirmation and seek approval from their teachers. There were seven instances in which the students utilized this function in the study. Teacher E and Teacher S's students resorted to CS in these moments whereas Teacher F's students did not utilize it in their discourse. The following excerpt is taken from Teacher E's classroom. Excerpt 45 might be a good example for this function:

Excerpt 45

463. T: And what is the day?
464. Ss: Friday.
465. T: Great.
466. St1: Women's Day.
467. T: It is Friday today. OK, so this is the title. Present
468. St2: = perfect=
469. T: = yeah =
470. St3*: Yazalım mı?*
(Shall we write?)
471. T: Yes, you can (.) You can take note with me

Excerpt 45 describes the moments on which Teacher E asks the students to write the date before they start taking notes in their notebook. In line 470, St3 does not seem to be sure whether they are supposed to write the notes on the board or wait. In fact, Teacher E asks the date to signal that they should start taking notes, yet apparently St3 needs confirmation from the teacher.

4.5.2.17. Making an Excuse

The findings of the present study revealed that the students resorted to CS for making an excuse. This function was observed for five times in the data. In excerpt 45, Teacher F comes across a problem while she is checking the students' homework. She realizes that some of the students did not do the assignment. Teacher F code switches to warn the students about the consequences in case they do not fulfil this requirement (See Excerpt 14). Teacher F's CS is reciprocated by the students to make an excuse. St1 makes an excuse by asserting that he did not know the homework. This utterance

encourages the other students. They base their excuses on the other exams they had to take in the previous week. However, in line 476, St3 confesses that Teacher F had told them which pages they were responsible for. Thus, it could be concluded from Excerpt 46 that the students negotiate with each other and the teacher, and they resort to CS for making excuses.

Excerpt 46 (Teacher F)

470. T: No (.) →*o zaman ödevler yapılıyor.*
(then the homework will be done)

471. St1*:* →*Hocam bilmiyorduk.*
(Teacher, we didn't know it)

473. St2*:* → *Evet.*
(Yes)

474. T: →*Nasıl?*
(How?)

475. St1: *51, 52 olduğunu bilmiyorduk. Hem sınava hazırlanıyorduk.*
(We didn't know 51 and 52 were homework. Also, we were getting prepared for the exam)

476. St3*:* →*Hoca demişti.*
(Teacher had said it)

477. T: →*Peki, peki.*
(Alright, alright)

4.5.2.18. Asking for Help

The results obtained from the present study showed that the students employed CS for asking for help from their teachers. This CS function was observed five times in the present data. In the following excerpt, Teacher F lets the students listen to a dialogue and fill in the blanks. However, the students find some parts difficult and talk about it among each other. When Teacher F realizes the problem, she tries to assure the students that there is nothing to worry about because they can listen to it. The teacher's offering for help is reciprocated by the students' assistance request in Turkish. After the teacher's assurance, St1 and St2 express their problems to ask for help.

Excerpt 47 (Teacher F)

622. ((Students listen to the dialogue and fill in the blanks)) ((Students murmur about the listening track and express their concerns over some parts))

623. T: OK (.) don't panic. I know you didn't understand (.) so let's listen to it again. OK (.) listen. So (.) do you need to listen to it again?

624. St1*: →Öğretmenim ben dörtle beşi anlamadım.*

(I didn't understand exercise 4 and 5 teacher)

625. St2*: →Hocam ben son ikiyi bulamadım.*

(I couldn't find the last two, teacher

4.5.2.19. Teasing a peer

The findings acquired from this study showed that the students made use of Turkish to tease a peer. This function was observed five times in the current study. In three of the classes, it is observed that the students used CS to point out a funny situation or make fun of each other. Excerpt 48 is a good example of this function.

Excerpt 48 (Teacher E)

546. T: Do you mean like that? ((She writes the sentence on the board))

547. St1: *Hmm (.)→öğretmenim şimdi anladım.*

(now, I got it teacher)

548. St2: *→Oktay sen zaten İngilizce konuşsan şaşardım.*

(Oktay, I would have been surprised if you had spoken English)

In the excerpt, it is seen that St1 is unsure about a grammar topic. As a reminder, the first part of this excerpt was given as a grammar explanation function in teacher's CS functions section. This excerpt demonstrates that St1 expresses that he understands the example written on the board by Teacher E. Then, as a reaction to St1's statement in Turkish, St2 says to him that if he had spoken in English, he would have been surprised. Thus, it could be deduced from Excerpt 48 that the students are aware of the necessity of using English in the classroom. However, they use Turkish instead of English. Also, it is surprising that St2 criticises St1 for not speaking in English, by expressing himself in Turkish. Excerpt 48 might also show that the students tease each other by bragging about speaking in English. As the video recording shows the researcher, the facial

expression and tone of voice of St2 clearly shows that he shows off to the teacher and his peers by criticising St1, but doing it in Turkish is pretty ironic.

4.5.2.20. Asking about Procedure

According to the findings acquired from the transcriptions the students resorted to CS to ask about the procedure. The aim of this switch is to be informed about how many times they are going to listen to the activity. This function was observed for four times in this study.

Excerpt 49 (Teacher S)

537. T: OK (.) hush (.) OK (.) listen
538. St1*: →Kaç kere dinleyeceğiz hocam?*
(How many times are we going to listen to it, teacher?)
539. T: [Are you ready?]
540. Ss: Yes::!

Excerpt 49 is taken from Teacher S's classroom. The students are informed that they will listen to a track and fill in the blanks. However, Teacher S does not tell them how many times they are going to listen to it. In line 544, St1 code switches and asks about the procedure. Teacher S seems to ignore this question. This example proves that some students do not regard TL as a way of communicating about classroom procedures.

4.5.2.21. Complaining

The findings obtained from the current study revealed that the students employed CS to complain about the issues with which they were not pleased in the classroom. This function was observed for four times in the data. In Excerpt 50, taken from Teacher S's classroom, the students play a word game. In this game, the students are required to find a word beginning with the last letter of the previous word uttered by another student. As the games might be quite competitive, the students compete to be the fastest to find the word. In this example, the students use CS to complain about a friend. According to St1 and St2, St3 whispers the word to his team mate, but St3 denies

it. Then, St1 suggests the teacher to lower the opponent team's point, but apparently St3 keeps on whispering to his team mate because St1 complains about him again. This excerpt shows that the students use CS as a strategy to complain about each other.

Excerpt 50 (Teacher S)

541. St1: →*Hocam Hasan söylüyor ya!*
(Hasan is saying it, teacher!)
542. St2*:* →*Hasan söylemesene!*
(Hasan stop saying it!)
543. St3*:* →*Öğretmenim söylemedim!*
(I didn't say it teacher!)
544. St1*:* →*Puan düşün hocam.*
(Lower their point teacher)
545. Ss: →*Hadi:::!*
(Come on!)
546. St1*:* →*Hasan ya söyleme!*
(Hasan, don't say it!)

4.5.2.22. Signalling a Humorous Situation

The results gathered from this study showed that the students made use of CS for pointing out humorous situations. This function was observed for four times in the present research. Excerpt 51 demonstrates that Teacher F code switches to ask the equivalent of washing machine in English. St1 confuses the washing machine and dish washer and St2 gives the wrong answer as well. By inserting a habitual expression St3 makes a wrong guess as well. Teacher F's negative answer is followed by the correct answer of St4. Although St4 gives the correct answer, St5 claims that the correct word is dishing washing. Realizing this situation, St6 coins a new word by drawing a similarity between dish and diş (tooth). Excerpt 51 illustrates that the students make use of MT to play with language and make fun of it.

Excerpt 51 (Teacher F)

826. T: Which is used for doing the dishes? (…) →*Bulaşık makinası neydi?*
(What does washing machine mean?)

827. St1: dishing washing

828. St2: washing machine

829. St3: →*Hayır hocam* (.) machine washing

(No teacher)

830. T: No!

831. St4: Dishwasher

832. T: Dishwasher

833. St5: [Dishing washing]

834. St6: →*Dişim* washer ((he laughs out loud))

(My tooth)

4.5.2.23. Peer Correction

The findings acquired from the present study revealed that the students utilized CS to correct their peers. Peer correction function was found for three times in the data. In Excerpt 52 the students in Teacher F's classroom are involved in the questions in the student's book. Teacher F asks them to count how many boys and girls there are in the picture. St1 says there are four boys, but St2 intervenes and gives the correct answer in TL. However, after a very short pause, St2 corrects the mistake by making an explanation in Turkish. This attempt could be interpreted in two ways: first, St1 corrects St2 and explains why the answer is wrong to the other peers; second, St2 corrects his peer to prove to the teacher that he knows the right answer.

Excerpt 52 (Teacher F)

522. T: OK (.) Males and females (.) Boy and girls (.) How many boys (.) how many girls are there Ece?

523. St1: four boys

524. St2: No:::! Three boys (.)→*Monika'yı erkek zannetti.*

(He thought Monika was a boy)

4.5.2.24. Explaining Grammar Rules

The results of the current research revealed that the students used CS for explaining grammar rules. This function was observed for twice in the data. Teacher F reviews will future in the classroom and asks the students what they remember about it. St1 takes the turn and gives examples. However, the example he gives for the future tense is not correct. The phrasal verb is not correct as well. Teacher F corrects his mistake, and he repeats the correct version. After this repetition, he pauses for a few seconds and alternates the code to explain the grammar rule.

Excerpt 53 (Teacher F)

160. St1: →*Üşüdüm*

(I feel cold)

161. T: [For example, I feel hot now]

162. St1: I feel hot now

163. T: and I will take it off ((teacher takes off her overall)), so I can do it, yes.

164. St1: Turn, turn on the::: the window

165. T: uhuh (…) turn on the window? (.) Open the window.

166. St1: open the window (…) →*Hocam yani bir anda aklımıza gelen plan programa gerek olmayan.*

(Teacher, I mean it comes to our mind and doesn't require any plans)

This switch could be interpreted as a lack of TL proficiency as well. This assumption is based on the length and frequency of the sentences in TL and MT. Since the complexity of sentence structures in MT and TL are compared, the sentences in TL are generally concise or consist of the drill exercises, but the sentences in MT are far longer than the ones in TL. However, Excerpt 53 is defined as grammar explanation function because if CS is viewed from the total exclusion of MT perspective, then all the switches could be regarded as a lack of TL proficiency. However, assigning different functions to CS enables us to read between the lines and see the turns and interactions from different perspectives.

4.5.2.25. Self-correction

Using CS as a self-correction device is not very common function in this study. This function was used by the students for twice. The example is taken from Teacher F's classroom.

Excerpt 54 (Teacher F)

368. St1: I will wear a dress.
369. T: dress? (.) What colour is dress?
370. St1: →*Dress değil* (.) I will a trousers
(Not a dress)
371. T: I will wear trousers.
372. St1: and I will wear a t-shirt.
373. T: uhuh (.)

Teacher F asks the students to imagine a party and plan what they will eat, how they will go to party, and how they will get dressed. In line 368, St1 states that she will wear a dress. Then, Teacher F tries to extend her utterance by asking the colour of it. After, that St1 self corrects herself in Turkish and subsequent to a very short pause, she says that she will wear trousers. What is striking here is that although she self corrects what she means to say, she makes another mistake by using a plural noun with a determiner. Realizing this mistake, Teacher F corrects it by repeating the correct sentence, and St1 adds that she will also wear a T-shirt. This excerpt shows that the students, specifically in this study, do not self correct themselves and go back to the TL. It is widely observed that the students use English while doing exercises or giving answers to the drills. In other words, they do not express themselves further as in line 372.

4.5.2.26. Volunteering

Volunteering for doing the exercise or reading a text out loud is a popular CS function employed by the students in the current study. Volunteering function was observed for twice in the data. In these moments, the students generally used habitual expressions, such as "Teacher, me! or Hocam (teacher) ben, lütfen (please)!" to initiate

a sentence. Or, as can be seen in Excerpt 55, the students ask for permission to do the exercise. The following example could be interpreted as an asking for permission function; however, St1 does not actually ask for permission to read the exercise. Instead, he wants a chance from the teacher and he does so eagerly.

Excerpt 55 (Teacher F)

310. T: and thank you. Now look at Monica's future. Monica's future, my future. Ok, who is reading it? In the future-

311. St1: *=Okuyabilir miyim hocam?=*

(Can I read it teacher?)

312. T: Can I?

313. Ss: ((laughter))

314. T: Can I read it?

315. St1: Can I read it?

In line 311, St1 volunteers for reading the exercise, but Teacher F warns him about asking it in English. Then, Teacher F repeats the sentence he should use in this situation. After that, it is seen in line 315 that the teacher's corrective feedback for the appropriate rule to ask for a permission to participate works and St1 takes up the feedback.

4.5.2.27. Asking equivalence

The findings gathered from this study showed that the students used CS for asking the equivalents of the words. Although it is not as frequently as giving equivalence function, it was observed for twice in the present research. The representative example is as in the following:

Excerpt 56

356. St1*: Pahalı neydi?*

(How do you say expensive?)

357. T: Better, better. OK, go.

358. St1: I think Lamborghini better than the Ferrari.

359. St2: Teacher! ((Students raise hand to give an answer))

360. T: And ask them.

361. St1: Do you agree?

Excerpt 56 is taken from Teacher S's classroom. This excerpt illustrates that St1 does not remember the equivalent of "pahalı" (expensive) in English and asks it to the teacher. Instead of giving the equivalent of the word, Teacher S proposes another word which St1 can use in his sentence. This excerpt shows that the students might not remember simple adjectives and resort to L1 to compensate their lack TL vocabulary.

4.5.2.28. Giving an example

The results acquired from the present study suggested that the students resorted to CS to give an example. This function was observed for only once in the data. In the following excerpt, it is shown that the students use CS for giving examples as well. In Excerpt 56, Teacher E goes over the words in the student's book. The activity is about musical instruments and the students are asked to match the pictures with the instruments. St1 gives the correct answer, and the teacher confirms her as well. Then, St1 gives iPhone as an example because it ends with phone as well.

Excerpt 57 (Teacher E)

1301. T: [Are you ready?] Ceren, what is the first one? What is the name of that instrument?
1302. St1:xylophone
1303. T: Xylophone? Yep (.) it is called a xylophone.
1304. St1*: →iPhone gibi*
(like iphone)

4.5.2.29. Floor-holding

Eldridge (1996) and Sert (2005) describe floor-holding as a mechanism which is employed to avoid gaps during an interaction. It might be used to compensate for a lack of TL proficiency or not losing face in front of teacher and peers. Also, it is generally used when a word or phrase in TL cannot be recalled by the language learner. The student continues to communicate in his/her MT to fill in the gap until the item in TL is accessed. In this study, floor-holding function was observed for only once. The following excerpt is taken from Teacher E's classroom:

Excerpt 58 (Teacher E)

424. T: Uhmm (…) did you cook omelette? Did you make an omelette?
425. St1: Yes.
426. T: OK (.) thank you.
427. St1*: →Anneler gününde yaptım.*
(I did it on Mother's Day)
428. T: = On Mother's day, OK=
429. St1: Happy Mother's Day.

In Excerpt 58, Teacher E asks if St1 made an omelette or not and after receiving her answer, Teacher finishes the conversation by not asking any further questions. However, St1 wants to keep on chatting about it because she states that the omelette was prepared on Mother's Day. St1 hardly finishes her sentence when Teacher E gives the Turkish equivalent of the phrase. Then, St1 responds to the teacher's feedback and says the phrase in English. This excerpt is one of the good examples showing how the teacher's corrective feedback is taken up by the student.

4.5.2.30. Making a Joke

Making a joke was used as a CS function by the students in the present study. In the current data, there was only one occasion on which the students resorted to CS for making a joke. Excerpt 59 is taken from Teacher E's classroom:

Excerpt 59 (Teacher E)

290. T: I am sorry, I am sorry. Uhmm (…) yes you are right. Ben can play the guitar.
291. St1*: →Evet ben gitar çalabiliyorum.*
(Yes, I can play the guitar)
292. T: No (.) it is the name. Ben
293. ((Students laugh))

As the excerpt shows, Teacher E and her students do the exercises in the student's book. In the exercise, there is a character called "Ben" and St1 makes a joke about it since "ben" is the counterpart of "I" in Turkish. The students laugh about this joke, yet Teacher E thinks that St1 misunderstands the name "Ben" and corrects his mistake. However, the video recording shows the opposite. In other words, St1 laughs when he

utters the statement in line 291. Therefore, he utters this sentence on purpose and this attempt could be identified as a joke function.

4.5.3. Findings from Interviews

In order to analyse the qualitative aspect of the study, three EFL teachers and 20 EFL YLLs were interviewed. Different sets of interview questions were prepared for the teachers and the students. The interview questions for the teachers were:

1. Do you resort to code switching in your classes?
2. If so, how often do you code switch from English to Turkish?
3. When do you usually code switch?
4. Are your code switches on purpose or spontaneous?
5. For what purposes do you code switch?
6. For what purposes do you code switch the most?
7. What do you think about the use of CS in EFL YLL classrooms?
8. Do you think it contributes or hinders your students' language learning?

There were less interview questions for the students. While the teachers' interviews did not include any questions about the students, there was a question regarding the use of CS by their teacher. The interview questions for the students were:

1. Do you code switch from English to Turkish in English classes?
2. Why do you feel the need for switching from English to Turkish?
3. Do these switches contribute to your learning English or hinder it?
4. Does your English teacher switch from English to Turkish?
5. When does s/he code switch?
6. Does it contribute to your learning English or hinder it?

The wordings of the questions did not change according to the participants in order to not lead the students to the expected results. To analyse the data in detail, the video recordings of the interviews were transcribed. While analysing the interview data, the units of analysis were determined first. Second, notes and headings were written down while reading the transcribed data, and the frequency of words was counted to create themes. Third, the data were analysed by means of inducing themes out of the

answers given to each question. However, themes were not created for each interview question because for some questions, only frequency analysis could be carried out. For instance, the first question for teachers "Do you resort to CS in your classes?" required "Yes" or "No" answers, or the fourth question "Are your CSs on purpose or spontaneous?" did not involve a lot of details from which to derive themes. Apart from these similar questions, each theme which emerged from the responses was exemplified via a representative extract from the transcribed data.

The interviews were also analysed with a view to answer the sixth research question "Does the use of CS contribute to teaching environment of secondary EFL classrooms?" The attitudes of the students and the teachers and the classroom performances were taken into account to determine whether CS contributes to the learning environment and whether the participants regard it as a contribution or hindrance.

6.5.3.1. Findings from Teacher Interviews

When the first question "Do you resort to CS in your classes?" was asked to the three teachers, all of the teachers expressed that they made use of CS in their classes. Below are the examples which are representative of this question:

Excerpt 60: "Yes, I sometimes do, but I usually avoid using the native language in class." (Teacher S)
Excerpt 61: "Yes, I do of course." (Teacher F)
Excerpt 62: "Yes, I resort to code switch in my classes." (Teacher E)

The excerpts given above show that all the teachers resort to CS in their classes. Differently from other teachers, Teacher S stated that he sometimes uses CS but avoids using the MT. The teachers' views got more clarified with the answers given to the following questions. The second question was "If so, how often do you code switch from English to Turkish?" revealed the attitudes towards CS in a clearer way.

Excerpt 63: "Occasionally. Twice or three times in a lesson time." (Teacher S)
Excerpt 64: "When necessary, it also changes according to the level of the students' knowledge. If they are really good, rarely, but if they are weak students, then usually." (Teacher F)

Excerpt 65: “When necessary, and it depends on the level of my students mostly.” (Teacher E)

The response of Teacher S corroborates his actual classroom practice. As can be deduced from the transcriptions in the previous sections, Teacher S used CS in very few instances. Teacher F’s response corroborates her actual classroom practice as well. Teacher F based her decision on the proficiency level of the students. Her response could be summarized as “The weaker the students, the more CS will be used”. Similarly, Teacher E expressed that she makes use of CS when necessary. According to her, this decision depends on the TL proficiency level of the students.

When the third question “When do you usually code switch?” was analysed, the three teachers mentioned different moments in which they resort to CS in their classrooms. The following excerpts illuminate their responses:

Excerpt 66: “When they have difficulty in understanding the instructions especially when they lose their attention, when they are distracted; furthermore I when I want to praise or motivate them.” (Teacher E)

Excerpt 67: “I code switch from English to Turkish especially when I teach some complicated grammar rules and the vocabularies which I can’t teach with flash cards or body gestures.” (Teacher S)

Excerpt 68: “When I see that the kids do not comprehend what I say, I code switch. Especially, presenting a new topic that is totally strange to them.” (Teacher F)

Teacher E reported that she resorts to CS to clarify the instructions, draw the students’ attention, and praise them to increase their motivation. On the other hand, Teacher S uses CS to explain difficult grammar rules and vocabulary for which he cannot convey the meaning with flash cards or gestures. Teacher F prefers CS to help the students comprehend the topics, especially newly introduces ones. Question four aimed to reveal whether the teachers’ CS was on purpose or spontaneous. The response of all the teachers to the fourth question was in common: on purpose. What differed from each response were the motives behind this purposefulness:

Excerpt 69: “I do this on purpose. I mean, when I see that desperate look in their eyes, I use their MT deliberately. Due to the fact that my main target is to make them love and use English, I never insist on using English all the time if they do not understand what I'm talking about.” (Teacher E)

Excerpt 70: “On purpose. I ask ‘Do you understand me?’ if the answer is ‘no’ I code switch.” (Teacher F)

Excerpt 71: “It is exactly on purpose.” (Teacher S)

As can be seen from Excerpt 69, Teacher E purposefully code switched so as not to lose the students’ interest in English. She emphasized the importance of comprehending what she is talking about. She expressed that her main goal is to have them like English and motivate them to feel so. As she stated, she uses the MT ‘deliberately’ not to lose their interest in loving and using English. In a similar vein, the student comprehension of what she is talking about is crucial for Teacher F to code switch on purpose. On the other hand, although Teacher S stated that he code switches ‘exactly’ on purpose, he did not give further information until the fifth question which was aimed to determine the specific purposes of CSs.

Question 5 is “For what purposes do you code switch?” According to their accounts, the teachers code switch for making an explanation, teaching grammar and vocabulary, making clarification and helping for clarification. Excerpts are given in the following:

Excerpt 72: “I use Turkish while talking about grammar rules and teaching vocabulary (when it's impossible to make them guess the meaning- such as some abstract nouns)” (Teacher E)

Excerpt 73: “To make explanation when it is necessary.” (Teacher S)

Excerpt 74: “To be clear and to be understood by the students.” (Teacher F)

When the teachers’ accounts are compared to their classroom performances, it is observed that their beliefs and performances are consistent with each other. For instance, Teacher E used CS in few instances, and those moments were composed of grammar explanation and clarification of some words. Similarly, Teacher S used CS for clarifying his instructions. Compared to the other teachers, it is observed that Teacher F resorted to CS more. As stated in Excerpt 74, the use of CS for comprehension and clarification purposes was found in her class transcriptions as well.

Question 6 was designed to address the teachers’ preferences in a more specific manner. The sixth question is “For what purposes do you code switch the most? According to the interview transcriptions, Teacher F and Teacher S use CS specifically for making clarification and enabling the students to comprehend the topic. However,

Teacher E indicated her general attitude towards using CS instead of specifying the purposes. The excerpts are the following:

Excerpt 75: “To be honest, I prefer using English even at break times or in the garden but the situation can be different in class, as an English teacher you know you should use English not their MT. But this is not so easy while teaching beginners, so my students love English first and they should prefer hearing and using English when they are ready.” (Teacher E)

Excerpt 76: “To be understood by the students.” (Teacher F)

Excerpt 77: “To make some subjects clear and more understandable.” (Teacher S)

Teacher F and Teacher S prefer to use CS for similar purposes. Both teachers resort to CS to help the students comprehend the subject matter and make it more clear. On the other hand, Teacher E stated that although she prefers using English even outside the classroom, it is not easy to avoid using MT while teaching English to YLLs. Instead of listing her specific purposes, she mentioned her general attitude towards the use of CS.

When the seventh and the eighth questions “Do you think it contributes to classroom environment or hinders language learning?” and “What do you think about the use of CS in YLL classrooms?” were asked to the teachers, they all mentioned that CS is necessary, but the teachers should be careful about the amount of it. The relevant excerpts are the following:

Excerpt 78: “It is sometimes necessary. It contributes to class environment as long as it is used very limited. To me, we shouldn’t use it if there is another way to teach the subject.” (Teacher S)

Excerpt 79: “Using Turkish, but rarely, can be a contribution to teaching. I think that an English teacher should use English mostly. And I resort to CS when I really need to and I don't feel guilty for this, because my first aim is to make them want to learn English.” (Teacher E)

Excerpt 80: “Yes, it is necessary otherwise you can lose the kids’ attention .They may give up listening to you if they do not understand you. The frequency of CS is important. The teacher should it when necessary not all the time. It is a contribution.” (Teacher F)

In the light of the findings acquired from the teachers’ interviews, the main theme emerging from these excerpts is that CS is a contribution to the classroom environment.

However, the consensus among the teachers is that its use should be limited. Teacher S expressed that it is sometimes necessary for the classroom, but apparently he does not favour it much because he believes that if there is another way to teach the TL, MT should not be used. Likewise, Teacher E stated that the use of CS could be a contribution to the classroom environment, yet it should be rarely used. According to her account, she believes that an English teacher should primarily use the TL. However, she added that she does not feel guilty when she resorts to CS since her main goal is to have the students like English. Moreover, Teacher F thinks that CS assists the teacher in maintaining the students' interest. She restated her concern about the comprehensibility of her instructions and topic presented to the students. Yet, she also mentioned that the frequency of CS is crucial and the teacher should not constantly code switch.

The responses of the three teachers to the interview questions demonstrate that they resort to CS when necessary. They primarily use CS for teaching complicated grammar topics or vocabulary with which they experience difficulty in conveying the meaning through mimes, gestures and visuals. They also agreed on the fact that although CS could contribute to teaching and learning, there should be a limitation on its usage.

Since the participants in the teachers' interviews are limited to the teachers who took part in this study, not many common themes emerged from the responses. As mentioned earlier, some questions involved a very short answer. Therefore, the interpretations were made by giving the responses of the teachers in excerpts. However, given that the number of students is much more than the teachers, several themes were identified and tabulated for the rest of the interview questions.

6.5.3.2. Findings from Student Interviews

When the first interview question "Do you code switch from English to Turkish in English classes?" was asked to 20 students, 65% of the students said that they "sometimes" code switch from English to Turkish in the classroom (n=13). Also, 15% (n=3) of them said "yes, mostly", 10% (2) said "yes, frequently", 10% (2) said "yes, rarely". Below are examples which can be representative for these responses:

Excerpt 81: "Yes, sometimes I do it when I don't understand a word."
Excerpt 82: "Sometimes. I speak Turkish if I don't understand teacher."

The second interview question "Why do you feel the need for switching from English to Turkish?" is more revealing in terms of identifying the reasons of CS by the students. As seen in Table 12, there are three main themes emerging from the current data.

Table 11
Students' Views about the Need to Use CS

Themes	***f***	***%***
asking for clarification	22	81.5
asking questions	3	11
lack of TL proficiency	2	7.5
TOTAL	**27**	**100**

According to the results gathered from students' responses, asking for clarification was observed to be the most common theme as a reply to this question. Cited for 22 times by the students, this theme involves asking the meaning of an unknown word, understanding the teacher's instructions, understanding sentence structure of English, and asking for correct pronunciation functions. The second theme obtained from the results of the student interviews is asking question. This theme was cited for three times. The students expressed that they use L1 as a vehicle to ask questions to the teacher. The last theme observed in the student interviews is lack of TL proficiency. It was cited for twice by the students. The students stated that they feel the need to code switch if they cannot express themselves in the TL. Representative excerpts are the following:

Excerpt 83: "I code switch when I cannot express myself what I mean in English."
Excerpt 84: "I code switch from English to Turkish if I don't know the equivalents of the words in English."
Excerpt 85: "If I don't understand my teacher, I use Turkish."

When the third interview question "Do these switches contribute to your learning English or do they hinder it?" was asked to the students, 19 students regarded the use of CS as a contribution to their learning English whereas only one student clearly indicated it as a hindrance. The students who stated that CS contributes to their learning English based their opinions on four themes. 52.6% of the students maintained that CS

contributes to their vocabulary learning whereas 26.3% of them purported that their CSs help them understand their teacher much better. Additionally, 15.7% of the students claimed that CS enables them to compensate their lack of TL.

Table 12
Students' Views about their own CS

Themes	***f***	**%**	**Themes**	***f***	**%**
contribution			**hindrance**		
vocabulary learning	10	52.6	thinking in Turkish	2	66.6
understanding teacher much better	5	26.3	risk of forgetting English	1	33.4
compensation for the lack of TL proficiency	3	15.7	-	-	-
feeling better	1	5.4	-	-	-
TOTAL	**19**	**100.0**	**-**	**3**	**100.0**

On the other hand, two of the students who were among the ones regarding CS as a contribution their learning English, explained that although CS contributes to their learning, it might lead them to think in English. According to these students, "thinking in English" might undermine their English. The student who viewed CS as a hindrance stated that if he often code switches, he might forget English. Representative excerpts are the following:

Excerpt 86: "It contributes because I can understand the teacher."
Excerpt 87: "It contributes to my learning new words when I ask the meaning of the words to the teacher."
Excerpt 88: "I think it is a hindrance to my learning because I might forget English."

Table 13
The Students' Views about their Teacher's CS

Themes	***f***	**%**
sometimes	16	80
rarely	4	20
TOTAL	**20**	**100**

The fourth question "Does your English teacher switch from English to Turkish?" was asked to the students to gain insight into their teacher's CS practices in classroom.

Table 13 demonstrates that 80% of the students think that their teacher "sometimes" code switches. On the other hand, 20% of them expressed that their teacher "rarely" resorts to CS. The following excerpts represent their responses:

Excerpt 89: "He sometimes code switches, but not much."
Excerpt 90: "She rarely code switches, when we don't understand."

Table 14
The Students' Views about When the Teacher Code Switches

Themes	***f***	***%***
teaching grammar	10	42
making clarification	6	25
teaching vocabulary	6	25
classroom management	2	8
TOTAL	**24**	**100**

The fifth question "When does s/he code switch?" was designed to identify the occasions of the teachers' CSs from the students' perspective. Table 14 demonstrates that there are four themes gathered from the students' responses. For instance, 42% of the students stated that their teacher resorts to CS to teach grammar. On the other hand, 25% of the students expressed that their teacher code switches when s/he clarifies ambiguous points emerging in the classroom. 25% of the students stated that their teacher code switches when s/he teaches vocabulary. Lastly, 8% of the students maintained that their teacher uses CS to manage the discipline and classroom order. Representative examples are the following:

Excerpt 91: "Yes, especially when covering a new grammar topic."
Excerpt 92: "He code switches to silence the other students and maintain the discipline."
Excerpt 93: "She code switches when we do not understand her."

Table 15
The students' Views about whether their Teacher's CS is a Contribution or Hindrance

Themes	***f***	**%**	**Themes**	***f***	**%**
contribution			**hindrance**		
grammar learning	7	50	negative effect on fluency	1	100
vocabulary learning	7	50			
TOTAL	**14**	**100.0**		**1**	**100.0**

The results obtained from the sixth question "Does it contribute to your learning English or hinder it?" are shown in Table 15. According to Table 15, out of 20 students only one of them regarded the teacher's CS as a hindrance to his learning English. This student expressed that the teacher's CS might impact on his fluency in English. Furthermore, 19 students viewed their teacher's CS as a contribution to their learning English. The ones who maintained that CS is a contribution to their learning English proposed two themes: grammar learning and vocabulary learning. Illustrative examples are the following:

Excerpt 94: "It contributes because I can understand learn English words better."
Excerpt 95: "It contributes. We can understand grammar topics better."
Excerpt 96: "It hinders if the teacher frequently uses it. It will affect our fluency."

Having presented the results of the data analysis, the findings are analysed in light of research questions in the next chapter. After the analysis of the findings, implications and recommendations are provided in the following sections.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

The present study involved both quantitative and qualitative research attributes which were used to investigate the following research questions:

1. Do students and teachers resort to CS in secondary EFL classrooms?
2. If so, how frequently do they code switch?
3. When do the students and teachers tend to code switch in general?
4. What types of CS do they use?
5. What are the functions of these switches?
6. And finally, does the use of CS contribute to the learners' language learning?

This chapter presents the discussion of the results with regard to the previous studies. The findings of each research question are elaborated and the study is concluded with pedagogical implications and suggestions for further studies.

5.2. Do the Students and Teachers Resort to CS in Secondary EFL Classrooms?

The findings of the present study demonstrate that both the teacher and the students made use of CS in EFL YLL classrooms within this study. Various studies have shown that CS is used in EFL classrooms on different proficiency levels and grades (Canagarajah; 1995; Gulzar, 2010; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Lee, 2010; Rahman, 2013; Uys, 2010). For instance, while Uys (2010) focused on CS by teachers in multilingual and multicultural high school classrooms in the Northern Cape Province of South Africa, Inbar-Lourie (2010) attempted to investigate the teachers' use of L1 in EFL YLL classrooms. The present study was carried out on the secondary level in an EFL environment and its results are consistent with another study carried out in another secondary EFL environment in Turkey. In his study, Eldridge (1996) found that not

only the students, but also the teachers used CS at varying rates. This study confirms that both the students and the teachers employed CS at varying rates as well.

Also, there are some differences between the teachers and students in terms of code choice. While the students mostly switched from English to Turkish, the teachers employed CS from Turkish to English and from English to Turkish. This result is in line with Yletyinen's study (2004). In her study, the students operated in CS mainly from English to Finnish, and similarly the teachers used it from English to Finnish and from Finnish to English.

Moreover, one another study demonstrates that the three different teachers and their students used CS to a varying extent depending on the activity type. This finding is in agreement with Lin (1990), and Nagy and Robertson's (2009) findings, which showed that the use of CS was greatly influenced by the type of activity used in the classroom. One of the reasons for this influence is that the type of activity determined the extent to which the TL use in the context is formulaic, mechanical or communicative. The authors stated that there was a big difference in the number of words used in TL and L1 according to the activity type in their study. Thus, this distinction showed that some activities required more CS than others.

5.3. If so, how Frequently do the Teachers and Students Code Switch?

There is a considerable amount of studies investigating the extent to which the students and teachers used CS in their instructions. (Duff & Polio, 1990; Edstrom, 2006; Guthrie, 1984; Levine, 2003; Macaro, 2001). The common trend arising from these studies is that these studies have shown great variability in terms of the occurrence of L1 and TL. For instance, Duff and Polio (1990) showed that TL was frequently used by the teachers in comparison with the students. On the question of how frequently the teachers and students code switched, this study revealed that the teachers used TL more than the students did, which corroborated Duff and Polio's results (1990). For instance, Teacher E employed TL at a rate of 99.4% and Teacher S used it 98.4% of the time in her instructions whereas their students' rates of TL were 73.3% and 53.0% respectively. However, in contrast with her colleagues, Teacher F utilized TL at a rate of 72.5% in her discourse. Although this rate was lower than the other teachers, Teacher F used TL more than her students during interactions (54.0%).

In addition, there are some studies that showed the TL and L1 use variation among the teachers who teach a FL to the students with the same proficiency level and grade (Duff & Polio, 1990; Erin & Storch, 2012; Kim &Elder, 2005). For example, Erin and Storch (2012) investigated the teachers' use of L1 in two French FL intermediate classes at two Australian universities. The findings revealed that the amount of L1 use varied greatly between two teachers of intermediate-level French courses. In the present study, similar results were acquired from the analysis of TL and L1 frequency. Even though a major difference was not observed between Teacher E and Teacher S in terms of the occurrence of TL in their discourse, there was a great variation between these two teachers and Teacher F. Especially, the variation between Teacher E (99.4%) and Teacher F (72.5%) was striking because these two teachers work at the same institution with the students in the same grades. This difference might be interpreted in two ways: first, the teacher's attitude and beliefs towards the use of TL and L1 might impact his/her language choice; second, the external factors, such as the proficiency level of the students, types of activities and materials might be influential in the occurrences of TL and L1 in the classroom.

5.4. When do the Students and Teachers Tend to Code Switch in General?

The findings of the present study showed that the teachers and students used CS during greeting, warm-up activities, the use of the student's book, homework check, exam results announcement, reviewing homework, reviewing a grammar topic, playing a game, vocabulary practice, oral practice of new topic, work in notebooks, worksheet practice, assigning homework, and close-up moments. From the teachers' perspective, while the majority of the interactions took place in TL during the use of the student's book for all the teachers, most of the L1 use was observed in those very same moments. Also, the teachers exclusively used TL in the greeting episode. In addition, the teachers mainly used TL during warm-up activities. This finding is in agreement with Greggio and Gil's study (2007). In their study, the authors reported that the teachers kept CS at a minimum level during warm-up activities. In a similar vein, Hobbs (2010) found that the teachers generally used TL for formulaic questions and answers during warm-up activities. Apart from warm-up activities, all the teachers mainly used TL during

worksheet activities. Teacher E and Teacher S used TL only in those moments whereas Teacher F used L1 along with TL.

The majority of the instances observed in the present data reveal a similarity with Nagy and Robertson's (2009) study. The common CS instances for both studies are greeting, the use of student's book, assigning homework, playing a game, warm-up and close-ups. In both studies, the teachers primarily used CS with the student's book. The teachers mainly used TL at those moments. Also, the participants used only TL in greeting instances in both studies. This result might show that the students and teachers did not encounter any difficulties since those instances were formulaic and understood by the students without causing them to code switch. When the students' interactions during those moments were analysed, it was observed that most of the interaction between the teachers and students took place in TL while they were using the workbook and doing worksheet exercises. Most of the interaction was carried out in TL, but this did not prevent the students from using their L1 as well. Therefore, these instances might suggest that the majority of the TL use by the students was observed during those guided activities via formulaic expressions.

5.5. What Types of CS do they Use?

The results of this study suggest that the teachers and students used three types of CS: *inter-sentential CS, intra-sentential CS, and tag switching*. Among these three types, *inter-sentential* CS turned out to be the most salient type of CS. When the three groups are compared, the most commonly used CS is the *inter-sentential* type. Moreover, the comparison of the three teachers with regard to CS types revealed that *inter-sentential* CS remained in first place.

The present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that *inter-sentential CS* is a common type employed in EFL classroom by both the teachers and learners. For instance, Jingxia's (2010) study in three EFL classrooms in Chinese universities showed that the teachers used *inter-sentential CS* pattern (55%). This pattern was followed by *intra-sentential CS* (28.3%) and *tag switching* (16.7%) respectively. Similarly, Rahimi and Jafari (2011) reported that *inter-sentential CS* was applied most frequently. The students and teachers used this type of CS for translating,

giving equivalents of sentences, expressions and proverbs along with unofficial and humorous situations.

In addition, Shujing (2013) carried out this research in ESP classrooms of three universities in China. The results showed that the teachers employed *inter-unit/inter-sentential* CS mostly between turns and units for different reasons. In a similar vein, Qian, Tian, Wang (2009) conducted a small-scale study of CS between Chinese and English in primary English classrooms for analysing classroom interaction of EFL YLLs. According to the results of this case study, the teachers used *inter-sentential CS* (82%) predominantly. On the other hand, *tag switching* (2%) and *intra-sentential CS* (16%) were used on few occasions. A similar result is observed in Qing's (2010) study as well. The findings illustrated that 77.5% of the CS instances took place across sentence boundaries. In line with the present study, these results might suggest that inter-sentential CS is a common CS type used in EFL classrooms.

Additionally, Rezvani and Rasekh (2011) investigated the CS practices of four EFL teachers in a language school. Consisting of field notes and transcriptions of audio-recordings, the data demonstrated that *inter-sentential* (79%) CS far outweighed the *intra-sentential* (18%) and *tag switching* (3%).

Therefore, both the findings of this study and the literature indicate that the students and teachers used *inter-sentential CS* the most in comparison with other types. The studies also demonstrate that *tag switching* is the least used type among them. It might be inferred from these findings that CSs generally occur across sentences and between turns. Also, it might be deduced from the findings that especially the students made use of *inter-sentential* CS because it is easier for them to express themselves or answer questions in their MT when they cannot express themselves in the TL. In other words, inter-sentential CS might help them hold the floor. Another inference could be made about the relationship between the students' TL proficiency and type of CS. Poplack (1980) maintained that *intra-sentential CS* occurs when the speaker is not fluent in the TL because it requires the grammatical integration of both languages. On the other hand, inter-sentential CS and tag switching do not require TL proficiency since these types remain at clausal or lexical level. The findings of the present study are consistent with Poplack's (1980) claims in terms of learner proficiency. The data showed that the majority of the CS took place across sentences and between turns. The investigation of turns demonstrated that the students opted for Turkish for their interactions among their peers and teacher. Also, CS instances did not involve complex

structures combining the syntactical properties of English and Turkish. Moreover, *tag switching* examples were found to be mostly the *habitual expressions*. As a result, it could be concluded that the students and teachers in turn made use of extensive *inter-sentential CS* in their classroom discourse. The students' CS attempts could be described as a sign of lack of TL proficiency. Correspondingly, the teachers code switched to conform to their students' needs and continue the interaction in the classroom.

5.6. What are the Functions of these CSs?

In this study, the functions of CS were analysed as functions in teachers' discourse and functions in students' discourse. The findings showed that most of the CS attempts were related to course content (translation, asking equivalence, giving instructions, making explanation, message clarification etc.). Despite this majority, the teachers used CS for other purposes, such as unofficial interactions, affective function, and signalling a humorous situation as well. As for the students, they mainly code switched from English to Turkish for content-related issues, such as meta-language, giving equivalence, asking for clarification, translation, asking for grammar explanation, lexical compensation, etc. However, the students used CS for other purposes like unofficial interactions, attracting attention, teasing a peer, signalling a humorous situation, complaining, etc.

One of the main findings of this study demonstrates that the students used CS much more than the teachers did. It could be observed by looking at both the number of CSs performed by the teachers and students and the variety of these CSs in their discourses. This might result from the fact that even though the teachers used TL most of the time, the students chose Turkish for the majority of interactions apart from the exercises in student's book and workbook. Therefore, it could be concluded that English was used for mechanical exercises and Turkish was used for unofficial interactions in which real communication took place. This finding is in line with Ataş's (2012) study. In his study, the author investigated the functions of CSs employed by the teachers and students at the tertiary level. The findings of that study showed that the teachers and students preferred to speak Turkish in *real communication* situations when the participants' talks were not about the tasks or content.

Another finding from this study is that the teachers used CS for translating unknown words and phrases, or the sentences in a reading passage. Considering the examples in the data, it might be inferred that the teachers used CS because they sensed the linguistic insecurity of the students. To be able to continue the interaction the teachers switched codes and clarified certain points by utilizing the students' MT. This finding is similar to many other studies in the literature. For instance, Guthrie (1984) carried out a comparative study of one monolingual and one bilingual teacher in an elementary school. As a result, the author found that whether they were monolingual or bilingual, both teachers made use of CS for translation purposes. Similarly, Potowski (2009) investigated the use of CS among the bilingual language learners. The analyses of the data revealed that the students employed CS for translation of the unknown elements in the tasks. Translation function was not only observed in bilingual environments. On the contrary, they were found in EFL environments as well. Üstünel's (2004) study showed that the teachers used Turkish to translate unknown items and also used CS to elicit L1 translations. In addition, the study by Amorim (2012) suggested that the EFL learners used L1 as a translation method to clarify information and compensate for the lack of TL proficiency.

Apart from translation, the teachers employed CS for meta-linguistic explanations in the current study. They resorted to Turkish in order to comment on the issues related to the task or give some information about certain elements in a task. A possible interpretation for this might be attributed to the students' lack of TL proficiency. Since the students could not express themselves in the TL, the teachers felt obliged to code switch. Another interpretation might be that although the students know that the instruction language is English, they prefer to express themselves in Turkish because they know that their teacher and peers speak Turkish and thus do not feel the necessity to use the TL. Also, the fact that they were not reminded to speak English in the classroom by their teacher might encourage their disposition to speak Turkish most of the time. In accordance with the present results, the previous studies demonstrated that the teachers used CS for giving meta-linguistic explanations. For example, Rasckha, Sercombe and Chi-Ling (2009) investigated the use of CS by EFL teachers as a strategy. The findings revealed that the teachers used CS for commenting, evaluating and talking about the task. Similarly, the teachers in Üstünel's (2004) study used CS for

providing meta-linguistic information to encourage student participation in the activities.

Another important function used by the teachers was giving instructions. In the present study, one of the teachers used CS extensively for giving instructions. The teacher employed CS to clarify her messages and communicate her instructions clearly so that the students could understand what they were supposed to do. Therefore, it might be inferred from the reasons behind this function that the students' lack of TL proficiency led the teachers to code switch to their L1. While alternating the codes, the teachers might have thought that their CS could help the students to understand the instructions and complete the tasks. In accordance with the present results, previous studies demonstrated that one of the most commonly used CS functions was giving instructions. For example, Gulzar (2010) identified the significance of the CS functions used by 406 teachers in Pakistan. One of the common functions used by those teachers was giving instructions in the students' MT. The teachers in the study stated that they code switch to clearly convey their instructions to the students. Moreover, Redinger (2010) investigated the language attitudes and CS behaviour of both secondary school students and their teachers from a sociolinguistic perspective. As a part of the classroom management, giving instructions was found to be one of the common CS functions used by the teachers. In addition, Greggio and Gil (2007) examined the use of English and Portuguese in interactive exchanges between the teachers and learners in EFL classrooms. The classification of the CS moments showed that CS was used for giving instructions during interactive exchanges between the students and teachers. Likewise, Hosoda (2000) examined the CS behaviour of a Japanese teacher in order to determine the functions of the teacher's CS in an EFL classroom at a business college in Tokyo. The results showed that one of the primary CS functions of the teachers was giving instructions in the students' MT. The results of these studies along with the current research demonstrate that EFL teachers use CS in order to convey their messages directly and clearly.

Classroom management is another salient CS function used by the teachers in this study. When the transcriptions of the present study were analysed, it was noticed that the teachers benefited from L1 with the purpose of maintaining discipline and warning the students about their unwelcome behaviours. A similar result is observed in Canagarajah's (1995) study. Similar to the present study, the teachers in Canagarajah's research used CS for disciplinary issues and admonishing students about their unwanted

behaviours. In addition, Salı (2014) examined the functions of L1 in three Turkish EFL classrooms in a secondary school in Turkey. The findings demonstrated that as a part of managerial function, the teachers used L1 to manage the disciplinary problems.

Along with the previous studies, the current study suggests that CS is used to as a means of dealing with disciplinary problems, admonishing the students or sustaining an effective classroom environment in a more general sense. However, these studies raise the question of whether L1 or TL should be used for maintaining classroom discipline. For example, Kang (2013) mentioned two points of view with regard to the potential advantages and disadvantages of L1 in EFL classrooms. One point of view regards the use of L1 as detrimental to the SLA process by basing their claims on the insufficient input in TL reality in most of the EFL environments. The second opinion about the use of L1 is more tolerant because it is believed that L1 could be effectively used for sustaining discipline and order in the classroom. The findings of the current study show that the students used Turkish for the majority of their interactions. When their attitudes are taken into account, perhaps it would be better for the teachers to use TL as much as possible. By doing so, the teachers should emphasize that TL is a vehicle to communicate rather than a subject to be learned in the classroom. All in all, TL could be used to motivate the students or be helpful to solve some problems in the classroom; however, this should not prevent the students from negotiating meaning in the TL environment and could lead to an avoidance of using English as a means of classroom communication.

Asking and giving equivalence in MT is another function which was widely used CS function in the present data. This function was observed with two of the teachers participating in the study. When the content of the activities in both classrooms was analysed, it was recognised that the teachers preferred Turkish to explain the words which they could not describe by mimes and gestures. However, on some occasions, it was noticed that the teachers did not even try to give the equivalent of a word by using mimes and gestures. In the observed classes, vocabulary teaching involved short and direct translations of the words. This study produced results which corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous work in this field (Lin, 1990; Çelik, 2003; Jingxia, 2010; Chowdury, 2012; Qing, 2012). The common point of these studies is that L1 was used to introduce new vocabulary.

There are possible explanations for this result. One explanation might be that the teachers were aware of the proficiency level of their learners and for that reason, they

wanted to compensate for their lack of TL proficiency by resorting to their MT. Also, it might be inferred that the teachers gave the direct translations of the words for the sake of time-efficiency. Covering all the topics in the curriculum within a limited time and preparing the students for SBS (placement tests for the students at primary and secondary level) places a great burden on many teachers as well. These facts might have had an impact on the teachers who took part in this study.

Apart from the major findings mentioned above, there are many other functions used by the teachers in this study. These functions are unofficial interactions, checking exercises, affective function, making an explanation, grammar review, message clarification, confirming, changing the topic, assigning homework, correcting mistakes, checking homework, procedural explanations, checking comprehension, correcting pronunciation, and signalling a humorous situation. The majority of these functions are in line with previous studies (Ataş, 2012; Canagarajah; 1995; Eldridge, 1996; Greggio & Gil, 2007; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Yletyinen, 2004). The comparison of the results of these studies with the current one shows that CS cannot be completely avoided in EFL classroom. It should be accepted that L1 is a reality, especially if it is shared by the teacher as well since the participants are aware that even if they do not use the TL, they will be understood by the other party. This awareness might lead the participants to deliberately resort to CS. As a matter of fact, the participants clearly expressed in the interviews that they use CS on purpose; in other words, since they know that they have another means to maintain the interaction apart from the TL, they do not hesitate to use it when necessary. However, one critical point should be highlighted here: using CS when necessary is actually shrouded in mystery. Since the notion 'necessary' is quite relative and very context and conditions bound, it is highly difficult to justify it.

This study not only investigated the CS functions in teachers' discourse but also the functions in students' discourse. The analyses of the data revealed that the students mainly code switched for meta-language, giving equivalence, asking for clarification, unofficial interactions, attracting attention and translation. The results also showed that although the teachers' CSs comprised content-related issues to a great extent, the students resorted to CS for social reasons more compared to accessing course content. This result is not in line with Ataş's (2012) study in terms of the students' reasons for CS. In his study, the students mostly code switched for accessing course content; however, in the present study the students resorted to CS for social reasons, such as

attracting attention, teasing a peer, unofficial interactions, complaining, making a joke, etc.

Although the majority of the functions are in common with the ones in the teachers' discourse, there are some functions which are exclusive to the students' functions. These peculiar functions are attracting attention, asking for confirmation, peer talk, teasing a peer, asking for help, asking permission, requesting, complaining, helping a peer, peer correction, making a joke, showing disagreement and volunteering. There is also a function which is special to this study as far as the researcher is concerned. This function is asking for performance notes in Turkish. In the beginning of the lesson, Teacher S's students wanted to be informed about their performance scores and repeatedly asked their teachers about them. This function might suggest that the students did not use TL as a vehicle for communication for off-task issues. In other words, the students used CS exclusively for tasks in English and unofficial interactions occurred in Turkish.

The majority of the functions observed in the current study are consistent with the findings of earlier studies. For instance, Eldridge's (1996) study demonstrated that the students employed CS with the following motivations: equivalence, floor holding, meta-language, reiteration. As in Eldridge's (1996) study, the students used CS primarily for equivalence of words and meta-language purposes. However, there is a dissimilarity between these two studies: Eldridge (1996) found that most of the CSs were related to the course content, but in the present research, the students code switched more for social reasons than the course content.

The functions found in this study accord with the research by Yletyinen (2004), who examined the CS functions of teachers and students in a Finnish context. The findings of the study showed that the students code switched to ask for equivalence in English, unofficial interactions, helping a peer and requesting help. In the present study, the students used CS for these purposes as well. Moreover, the findings of the study by Greggio and Gil (2007) showed that the students used CS to fill a linguistic gap, and provide equivalent meanings in L1, translate vocabulary, ask about grammatical structures, and clarify understanding.

The findings of the study show that CS is a readily available and applied strategy for teachers and students in classroom interaction. Also, CS is a convenient resource for EFL contexts in which the students and teachers share the same language. Moreover, the findings of the present study suggest that CS is an acknowledged practice and not

regarded as an undesirable attitude by the teachers. This can be deduced from the attitudes and practices of the teachers in this study. The teachers allowed their students to use CS and did not warn their students to use English only in the classroom.

In addition, the results show that it was more common for the teachers and students to code switch from English to Turkish than the other way around. This might suggest that the teachers used English as a means of instruction and the students used it during the activities. However, Turkish was used to overcome communication difficulties between the teacher and students. In sum, English and Turkish have different pedagogical and linguistic functions in EFL classrooms under the present investigation.

5.7. Does the Use of CS Contribute to the Teaching Environment of Secondary EFL Classrooms?

The last research question of whether the use of CS contributes to YLLs' language learning was investigated by asking the students' and teachers' opinions about CS in the classroom. The semi-structured interviews revealed that the teachers agreed upon the necessity of CS, yet they emphasized the fact that the quantity of CS use is crucial. The teachers regarded CS as an aid to attract the students' attention and motivate them to learn English as also suggested by Inbar-Lourie (2012), Jingxia (2010), and Salı (2014). For instance, Inbar-Lourie (2012) examined the use of L1 by EFL teachers in a primary school. The teachers were asked to reflect on their use of L1. The teachers recognized the L1 as a helpful tool in teaching in that particular group and did not regard it as a shortcoming. Similarly, the teachers in Jingxia's study expressed that CS to Chinese is a good strategy and an efficient way to teach English. Also, Salı's (2014) research on the L1 use of EFL teachers in a secondary school suggested that the teachers made use of L1 for various reasons. They reported that using L1 has a pedagogical value, therefore they had positive views on it. The teachers in this study related this necessity issue to the conditions that emerged in the classroom and believe that the classroom conditions determine the need to use L1.

When the question whether their teacher's CS contributes to their English or hinders it was asked to the students, 95% of them expressed that CS contributes to their learning English. The ones who regarded it as a contribution emphasized the need for their teachers' use of CS especially when explains grammar, gives equivalents of new

vocabulary, explains sentence structure and translates unknown items or ambiguous sentences. Only one of the students expressed that the use of Turkish would hinder his proficiency and impact on his fluency. There are several studies which investigated the attitudes of the students towards the use of CS in the classroom (Ahmad, 2009; Amorim; 2012; Nordin, Ali, Zubir & Sadjirin, 2013). The students in Amorim's study reported that using Portuguese is a positive common asset. Also, most of the students acknowledged CS as functional and useful. In a similar vein, Nordin, Ali, Zubir and Sadjirin (2013) examined the reactions of ESL learners towards CS in the classroom setting. The students stated that they hold positive attitudes towards CS because it enables them to facilitate their understanding TL. Moreover, the results showed that the use of CS is necessary when the situation requires the use of L1 in the classroom.

5.8. Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The present study confirms previous findings and contributes additional evidence that suggests the use of MT is a reality in EFL classes (Butzkam, 2003; Cook, 2001; Kang, 2008; Lee & Macaro, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Moore, 2002) It is not something that the teachers should avoid at all costs, but it is something that they should not use overdose. A balance should be sought between the use of MT and TL. In line with the results of this study some suggestions are made for teachers, teacher training institutes and MoNE.

To start with teachers, teacher action research should be encouraged among EFL YLL teachers as a part of professionalism. Action research should be introduced to both novice and experienced teachers via university-school partnerships or experienced volunteer teachers and teacher trainers. By promoting action research, the teachers should be encouraged to analyse their classroom discourse to identify at what points their communication with the learners should be improved. By so doing, teachers would have the chance to observe their classrooms and diagnose the problematic areas in their communication with the learners. This self-evaluation would motivate not only the teachers but also the learners since each diagnosis or solution would be specific to their immediate language learning environment. Moreover, the teachers should design specific classroom strategies which will be in conformity with the curriculum and the needs of their learners. For instance, if we assume that the teacher wants to determine

the communication breakdowns or increase the use of TL in his/her classroom, s/he could develop communication strategies by conducting action research in his/her classroom. An action research could provide useful means to identify the problems, develop and test specific solutions for the teachers.These specific strategies or solutions to solve the problem, such as teaching paraphrasing to the students instead of giving translation of the sentences or creating dialogic interactions rather than question-answer drills should be deliberately taught to the students. Also, not only the teachers, but also the students should be involved in this identification and improvement process. For example, the students can monitor and record their classroom interactions with their peers and teacher. Monitoring could be carried out by using video-cameras or voice recorders. Subsequent to this monitoring, they could observe their classroom performance and comment on it with their teacher and peers. It is believed that watching themselves and their peers and talking about their interaction could be a fun activity besides attracting their attention to English lessons. Thus, they will be a part of this research and contribute to their own learning as well as increase their language learning motivation.

Additionally, EFL YLL teachers could promote risk-taking behaviours among language learners. To put it more specifically, the students could be reminded that making a mistake is a part of the language learning process and they should not avoid it. Also, the students should be explicitly taught to respect each other when one of them makes a mistake. This might create a more relaxed and less competitive environment which would eventually increase the language learner's motivation. Furthermore, YLLs should be encouraged to play with the language. As stated by Scott and Ytreberg (1991), playing with language is a prevalent act in L1 development and this natural learning should be tapped in second language learning process as well. The students should be allowed to coin new words or sounds. This opportunity might be fun for YLLs and lower their FL learning anxiety. An activity in this nature was observed in one of the classrooms observed in this study. These creative moments were observed to be very enjoyable for both the teacher and the learners. Therefore, letting the students experiment with the language could be entertaining as well as motivating for language learning.

In addition, the teachers can integrate technology to engage the language learners in the learning process. Technology can create an environment in which the student could interact with authentic TL and communicative content. Creating interactive and

authentic communication could be a big problem in environments which the students' exposure to TL is quite limited. Technology might provide various opportunities for the students in these environments. For instance, exposure to TL could be a problem for highly monolingual environments. In this case, the learners might take part in online activities which they cannot rely on their MT. They could access to the materials in TL easily and free of charge. In addition, the students are able to produce the language she/might not have in an EFL classroom thanks to the facilitative function of technology. For example, the students have the opportunity to repeatedly do the exercises on an online source; however, in real classroom environment the students may not have this opportunity due to time constraints of the teacher and size of the classroom. In addition to this, EFL YLLs could be introduced to the phrases or vocabulary via authentic technological tools they might not find in their textbooks. Therefore, their vocabulary set could improve with the exposure to authentic language use. The online tools might range from cartoons to EFL videos which teach language items in a real-life situation. When the digital natives' interests in technology and online tools, such as games, cartoons, TV shows is taken into account as an advantage, teachers should benefit from it both during and after the lesson. This would decrease the dependency on the textbooks and raise the motivation level as well. To sum up, these aspects of technology not only provide the learners authentic input but also help increase language learning motivation among the learners. However, it should be noted that the teachers' guiding could be helpful for EFL YLLs and their parents in terms of providing effective and practical online tools because they might not choose appropriate materials up to their proficiency level. Also, each online tool or asynchronized material could not provide sufficient authentic input for the learners. Therefore, the teacher's responsibility lies in the provision of effective and appropriate authentic material.

In addition, the teachers could build a professional community in which they can share their ideas about the use of MT and TL in the classroom. They can collaborate with their colleagues and students about their classrooms' needs in terms of TL use. For instance, EFL YLL teachers might visit their colleagues' classes and give feedback about their use of TL in the classroom. Or the teachers and parents could collaborate with regard to encourage the students to actively take part in language learning process and provide resources which they can benefit from the outside of the classrooms. Apart from this, the administrators and teachers could work on the resources which the school can or cannot provide to the students for language learning. These simple actions are

valuable for identifying the needs of the teachers and students with regard to the promotion of TL in the environments where TL is limited to the activities in the text books. As an example to this, the present study showed that the majority of the interactions occurred during the use of student's book and workbook. There was not any discovery learning which is quite valuable for YLLs observed in the study under scrutiny. This shows the reason why the students avoided speaking English apart from mechanical exercises. In this sense, professional communities could be helpful to raise both teachers and students' awareness in the maximization of TL. These communities could be organized at a local level or national level. By establishing a network to disseminate teacher's ideas and experiences, professional communities would enable the stakeholders to meet and discuss about the potential problems or solutions for the use of TL in EFL classrooms. Organizing such communities should be promoted by the administrative staff of the schools on a local basis or MoNE itself on a national level. The wider these networks, the more data could be gathered via for reflecting the actual picture of classroom practices and needs in terms of L1 use in Turkish EFL YLL classrooms.

Furthermore, the teachers should adapt their discourse to the pedagogic discourse. In other words, the teachers should modify their speech in terms of phonology, word choice, and syntax. Scarcella and Oxford (1988) described the characteristics of this specific register are as higher pitch, exaggerated intonation, short sentences, repetitions and recurrent use of questions. So to speak, teacher talk should be simpler, more concise and pronounced more slowly. Likewise, Cameron (2001) stated that it is not easy for children to talk about language because YLLs do not have the access to meta-language as older learners do. Therefore, EFL teachers should adapt his/her language to make explanation about grammar or discourse. To put it more concretely, it should be noted that words are not sufficient for EFL YLLs. The activities should involve movement and senses. Lots of visuals and objects should accompany these activites. By so doing, teachers do not have to resort to the learners' MT all the time. Instead of switching to the students' MT, teachers should demonstrate what they want the students to do. It is supposed that this would decrease the translation of instructions into L1. Also, mimes and gestures should be included in teachers' instructions and explanations. It should be remembered that just as facial expressions and body movements accompany our speech in L1, these clues should be used in teaching TL as well. In addition, as an alternative to CS from English to Turkish to convey our instructions, classroom language charts could

be prepared and used from the beginning of the term. These charts would enable peripheral learning for EFL YLLs. Pictures should be used on these charts so that the students can easily remember what each instruction means. These charts could be prepared with the participation of students as well. The teacher could make an agreement with the students for obeying the rule to use the TL as much as possible in the classroom. The charts remain as a constant visual reminder for the learners. Therefore, this joint participation could motivate the learners to use it and take the ownership of the responsibility to obey the rules of the agreement. Apart from classroom language charts, teachers could keep CD-ROM portfolios to analyse their and keep the record of their pedagogical discourse. They could record their classroom discourse and work on the recordings afterwards. These CD-ROMs could easily be stored and used for later analysis purposes. It is believed that keeping digital portfolios via CD-ROMs would enable the teachers to analyse and make appropriate adaptations to their pedagogical discourse not only on the short term but also on the long term.

The teachers should not only adapt their discourse to YLLs' discourse level but also they should take their FL learning characteristics into account. Cameron (2001) summarized these characteristics as *active meaning construction, need for space for language growth, emphasis on noticing and attending, internalized language development, experienced-based FL learning* (p.19-20). For *active meaning construction,* the teachers should design language tasks up to the level of the students so that they can make sense of the language presented to them. In other words, the teachers should not speak with a discourse used in grammar books. As to *need for space for language growth,* the teachers should benefit from routines and scaffolding for effective and permanent language learning as suggested by Cameron (2011). The YLLs need extra help for noticing and attending the new FL aspect compared to older language learners. Thus, teachers should pay more attention to the YLLs' noticing and understanding the new aspect. Via *internalized language development,* the YLLs learn the TL by interacting with their peers and teachers. For this reason, the teacher's use of TL, the amount of TL, and his/her monitoring other students' TL use are quite important factors which makes up the YLL's immediate FL learning environment. Regarding *experienced-based FL learning,* an EFL teacher is responsible for providing meaningful exercises to the YLL. For instance, if the EFL teacher constantly switches back to the learners' MT, s/he does not provide sufficient and effective language opportunity to the language learner. As a result of this, the learner cannot possess any meaningful

experience in the TL. These features show that EFL teachers have a significant role in introducing the TL and helping the language learner to cultivate his/her language experiences.

The suggestions above are also parallel with the teachers' opinions taking part in this research. They are well aware of the fact that TL should be the vehicle to teach to students how to communicate in a FL, and also some students expressed this view along the interviews as well. Moreover, these strategies do not mean that the role of L1 in language learning process is obsolete and useless, rather it conveys that maximizing use of TL is beneficial in the language learning process since it requires learners' to solve problems themselves; it requires learners to get motivated and see TL as a routine.

The teacher's self-confidence is quite important to make use of TL in language classroom because teacher's attitudes and practices affect learners' tendency to use it TL or not to a great extent. Teachers should relate it to her/his professional development since the teacher is the only role model in highly monolingual environments like Turkey. Thus, teacher's self-confidence and attitudes towards TL will definitely affect learners' motivation in FL learning. Perhaps, at this point, more research should be carried out in order to identify teacher beliefs about the use of TL and MT. Teacher's self-confidence and attitudes towards professional development in terms of maximizing TL in EFL classrooms would reveal many things about the nature and success of the classroom interaction and communication.

As to the teacher training institutions, there should be a Teacher Action Research and Classroom Discourse Analysis course at an undergraduate level. At least, these two courses should be included in teacher training curriculum since they are crucial in teacher's professional development. Trainee teachers or practicing teachers should get accustomed to monitor their classrooms from an outside perspective by using a video camera or simply asking a colleague to do so, localize their problems and find specific solutions to solve them. Also, they could be encouraged to keep journals. These journals would be helpful to promote their reflective thinking skills since they provide the teachers an insider perspective. It is assumed that these courses would be helpful for the teacher's continuing professional development starting from the pre-service training to life-long learning of teachers.

The findings of this study might also provide some implications for MoNE. Until quite recently, MoNE did not emphasize the use of L1 in YLL classrooms (MoNE, 2013). Although promotion of TL in a communicative manner has been always

emphasized, the presence of MT in FL classrooms and the extent to use it was not mentioned before. The Head Council of Education and Morality published a learning model for English between 2nd and 8th grades (MoNE, 2013). In this model, principles and descriptors of CEFR are closely followed. Also, special emphasis is put on the language proficiency of learners and the use of English. It indicates that the students should be supported to become active language users and they should achieve communicative competence at the end of this programme. Moreover, this programme characterizes the language learning environment in terms of L1 with the following communicative features:

1. Communication is carried out in English as much as possible;

2. Students are taught to value their MT and feel validated in using it as needed while they move forward on their journey in English;

3. L1 usage is not prohibited or discouraged, but it should be employed only as necessary (i.e., for giving complex instructions or explaining difficult concepts);

4. Teachers are present in the classroom mainly for communicating in English (and, if necessary, in Turkish).

These features show that MoNE appreciates the presence of MT in classrooms and does not strictly forbid it. However, all the items given above prove that TL use is highly encouraged and Turkish is tolerated when the use of it is "really necessary". Therefore, the findings of this study could suggest that more in-service training programmes or introductory seminars should be organized for the practicing teachers and trainee teachers in collaboration with local universities or teacher training institutions to shed light upon the major issues concerning the implementation of this new programme prepared by the Head Council of Education and Morality. Also, clearer guidelines should be provided to clarify the "really necessary" use of MT in EFL classrooms. Apart from seminars and in-service training programmes, an online teacher support system/network should be organized. In this system, the teachers should be able to reach any content related to effective instructional strategies, motivating students to use TL, effective classroom discourse, action research, and any other areas they find useful for their professional learning. Distance learning facilities, webinars, updated MoNE notices should be shared on this system besides the ministry's official webpage. Online forums where teachers can share their concerns and opinions with regard to TL or MT use should be added to this network as well. Thus, nation-wide concerns can be

shared with the ministry authorities in a fast and non-direct manner via this system. Additionally, this online system could also help the EFL YLL teachers working in remote rural areas who do not access to the seminars and training sessions. Online courses to promote the use of maximal TL could be organized on this network, and for the ones who finish these courses successfully could be certified by the ministry. An increase in EFL teachers' salary could be used as an incentive to motivate the teachers to obtain these certificates.

Finally, MoNE should not force the EFL YLL teachers to cover the whole curriculum. The ministry should allow for more flexibility in the choice of EFL materials at schools. The pressure on EFL YLL teachers to finish all the activities within a unit does not leave a room for free activites, such as drama, role-plays, songs, chants, games which are quite crucial for second language learning in EFL YLL classrooms.

5.8. Recommendations for Further Studies

This research contributes to the claim that L1 use mainly results from lack of L2 proficiency, but it should be kept in mind that there should be more longitudinal studies to investigate whether it is really to do with lack of TL competence or other variables, such as classroom environment, level of exposure to TL, attitude, motivation, quality of the curriculum and materials, teacher attitudes and qualifications. These aspects could be investigated with different groups of the same level of proficiency for a longer period, perhaps an entire term.

Moreover, replication studies should be carried out in order to ensure that the present results are valid and reliable. By applying the same methods to different participants in other contexts, the results of the current study could be validated. By doing so, the previous results might inspire new research of CS in different EFL environments.

Last but not least, CS attempts of teachers and students should be explored further in order to see whether they create more efficient and long lasting classroom interactions which will pave the way for more advanced TL proficiency for EFL YLLs in the long term. Teachers and learners should realize the power and role of MT in FL learning and benefit from it when it is necessary, but the key issue is to not turn it into

an obstacle by overusing it and letting it impede the language learning process. In this sense, teachers have more responsibility than students in terms of consciousness -raising and helping students see the MT not as a life jacket by ignoring students' over reliance on it, but creating meaningful tasks and increasing the use of L2 in EFL classrooms.

REFERENCES

Ahmad, B. H. (2009). Teachers' code switching in classroom instructions for low English proficient learners. *English Language Teaching*, *2*(2), 49-55.

Ahmad, B. H., & Jusoff, K. (2009).Teachers' code switching in classroom: Instructions for low English proficient learners. *English Language Teaching, 2*(2), 49-55.

Aimin, L. (2013). The Study of Second Language Acquisition under Socio-Cultural Theory, *American Journal of Educational Research, 1*(5), 162-167. doi:10.12691/education-1-5-3

Al-Nofaie, H. (2010). The attitudes of teachers and students towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms in Saudi public schools: a case study. *Novitas-Royal (Research on youth and language), 4*(1), 64-95.

Alshmmari, M.M. (2011). The use of mother tongue in Saudi EFL classes. *Journal of International Education Research*, *7*(4), 95-102.

Amorim, R. (2012). Code switching in student-student interaction; functions and reasons!, *Revista de Estudos Linguísticos da Univerdade do Porto, 7,* 177-195.

Antón, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 54*, 314-342.

Arıkan, A., Letters, F., & Languages, W. (2011). A Small-scale Study of Primary School English Language Teachers' Classroom Activities and Problems, (1990), 306–310.

Arias, R., & Lakshmanan, U. (2005). Code Switching in a Spanish-English Bilingual Child: A Communication Resource. *Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism*, (pp. 94–109), Sommerville: Cascadilla Press.

Arslan, R. Ş. (2009). Bridging the Gap between Policy and Practice in Teaching English to Young Learners : the Turkish Context. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 32,* 96-100.

Ataş, U. (2012). *Discourse Functions of Students' and Teachers' Code Switching in EFL Classrooms: A Case Study in A Turkish University.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Atkinson, J.M., J. Heritage, eds. (1984) *Structures of Social Action: Studies in Conversation Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Auer, P. (1988). A conversation analytic approach to codeswitching and transfer. In M. Heller (Ed.), *Codeswitching: Anthropological and sociolinguistic perspectives* (pp. 187-213). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Auer, P. (1995). The pragmatics of code switching: A sequential approach. In L. Milroy & P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker two languages: Cross-disciplinary perspectives on code switching* (pp. 115-135). New York: Cambridge University Press

Auer, P., & Muhammedova, R. (2005). Embedded language and matrix language in insertional language mixing: Some problematic cases. *Italian Journal of Linguistics, 17*(1), 35–54.

Becker, R. (2001). Spanish English code switching in a bilingual academic context. *Reading Horizons, 42(*2), 99-115.

Bensen, H., & Çavuşoğlu, Ç. (2013). Reasons for the Teachers' Uses of Code switching in Adult EFL Classrooms*, *Hasan Ali Yücel Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 20* (2), 70-82.

Benthuysen, V., R. (2007). Code switching: Instructor Use of L1 in ESL Classrooms. *Journal of Bunkyo Gakuin University, 2,* 95-105.

Bilgin, G., P. & Rahimi, A. (2013). EFL Teachers' Attitude toward Code Switching: A Turkish Setting, *International Journal of Linguistics, 5* (5), 1-13. doi: 10.5296/ijl.v5i5.4043

Blom, J. P., & Gumperz, J. J. (1972). Social meaning in linguistic structures: code switching in northern Norway. In J. J. Gumperz, & D. Hymes (Eds.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Bokamba, E. G. (1988). Code-mixing, language variation and linguistic theory. *Lingua, 76,* 21-67.

Boztepe, E. (2003). Issues in code switching: competing theories and models. *Working Papers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, 3*(2), 1-27.

Bruhlmann, A. (2012). Does the L1 have a role in the foreign language classroom ? A review of the literatüre. *Tesolal web journal, 12,* 55–80.

Butzkamm, W., & Journal, L. L. (2003). We only learn language once . The role of the mother tongue in FL classrooms : death of a dogma. *Language Learning Journal, 28,* 29–39.

Büyükduman, F. (2001).*The opinions of primary school teachers of English on the syllabus of English as a second language in primary school fourth and fifth grades*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Yıldız Teknik University, İstanbul.

Büyükduman, F.(2005). İlköretim Okulları İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Birinci Kademe İngilizce Öğretim Programına İlişkin Görüşleri. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Egitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 28,* 55-64.

Cameron, L. (2003). Challenges for ELT from the expansion in teaching children, *ELT Journal*, *57*(2), 105–112.

Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching Language to Young Learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1995). Functions of code switching in ESL classrooms: Socialising bilingualism in Jaffna. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 6*(3), 173-195.

Carson, E., & Kashihara, H. (2012). Using the L1 in the L2 classroom : The students speak, *The Language Teacher, 36*(4), 41-48.

Chan, C., Y. (2007). *Code switching in the Hong Kong Content Subject Classroom-A Building Block or a Stumbling Block to English Language Acquisition?* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of Leicester, Leicester.

Chowdhury, N. (2013). Classroom Code Switching of English Language Teachers at Tertiary Level: A Bangladeshi Perspective. *Stamford Journal of English*, *7*, 40–61. doi:10.3329/sje.v7i0.14462

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education* (6th Edition). London: Routledge Falmer.

Cook, V. (2001b). Using the first language in the classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *57*(3), 402-423.

Cook, V.J. (2008), *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. (4th ed.) London: Hodder Educational.

Corcoll, C. (2013). Developing children ' s language awareness : switching codes in the language classroom. *International Journal Of Multilingualism, 10 (1),* 37–41. doi:10.1080/14790718.2011.628023

Creese, A. & Blackledge A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: a pedagogy for learning and teaching. *Modern Language Journal 94*, 103-115.

Çelik, M. (2003). Teaching vocabulary through code-mixing, *ELT Journal*, *57*, 361–369.

Çelik, S. (2008). Opening the door: An examination of mother tongue use in foreign language classrooms. *Hacettepe.Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 34*, 75-85.

Dorner, M., L. & Layton, A. (2014). ¿Cómo se dice?" Children's multilingual discourses (or interacting, representing, and being) in a first-grade Spanish immersion classroom. *Linguistics and Education, 25*, 24-39. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2013.12.001

Duff, P. A. and Polio, C. G. (1990). How Much Foreign Language Is There in the Foreign Language Classroom? *The Modern Language Journal, 74*, 154–166. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1990.tb02561.x

DuFon, M., A. (2002). Video Recording in Ethnographic SLA Research: Some Issues of Validity in Data Collection. *Language Learning and Technology, 6*(1), 40-59.

Eastman, C. M. (1992). Codeswitching as an urban language contact phenomenon. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 13*, 1-17.

Edstrom, A. (2006). L1 Use in the L2 classroom: One teacher's self-evaluation. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *63*(2), 275–292.

Ellwood, C. (2008). Questions of classroom identity: What can be learned from codeswitching in classroom peer group talk? *Modern Language Journal*, *92*(4), 538-557.

Elo, S. and Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 62*, 107–115. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04569.x

Eldridge, J. (1996). Code switching in a Turkish secondary school. *ELT Journal, 50*(4), 303-311.

Enever J., Moon J. (2010). A global revolution? Teaching English at primary school. *Paper presented for* British Council Seminars. *Retrieved May 30, 2014, from* http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/seminars/a-global-revolution-teaching-english-primary-school

Erdoğan, V. (2005). *An evaluation of the English curriculum implemented at the 4th and 5th grade primary state schools: the view of the teachers and the students.* Unpublished Master's Thesis. Mersin University, Mersin.

Ersöz, A., A. Cakir, P.T. Cephe, B.G. Peker, N. Ozkan, C. Buge and D. Ozmen 2006 English Language Curriculum for Primary Education (Grades 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8).

Eurydice. (2008). Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe: 2008 edition. Retrieved May 30, 2014, from http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/about/eurydice/documents/KDL2008_EN.pdf

Eurydice. (2012). Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe: 2012 edition. Retrieved June 26, 2014, from http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key_data_series/1en.pdf

Flyman-Mattson, A., & Burenhult, N. (1999). Code switching in second language teaching of French. *Working Papers 47*, 59-72.

Gafaranga, J. (2005). Demythologising language alternation studies: Conversational structure vs. social structure in bilingual interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics, 37*(3), 281-300.

Gardner-Chloros, P. (2009). *Code switching.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gardner-Chloros, P., McEntee-Atalianis, L., & Paraskeva, M. (2013). Code switching and pausing: an interdisciplinary study. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *10*(1), 1–26. doi:10.1080/14790718.2012.657642

Garton, S., Copland, F., & Burns, A. (2011). Investigating global practices in teaching English to young learners. In British Council (Ed.), *ELT research papers 11-01*. London: British Council.

Gil, M., G., Garau, M., J. & Noguera, J., S. (2012). A Case Study Exploring Oral Language Choice between the Target Language and the L1s in Mainstream CLIL and EFL Secondary Education. *Revista de Lingüística y Lenguas Aplicadas, 7*, 133-145.

Greggio, S. & Gil, G. (2007). Teacher's and learners' use of code switching in the English as a foreign language classroom: A qualitative study. *Linguagem & Ensino, 10*(2), 371-393.

Griffee, D., T. (2012). *An Introduction to Second Language Research Methods: Design and Data.* Berkeley: TESL-EJ Publications.

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.

Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with Two Languages: An Introduction to Bilingualism.* Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Grosjean, F. (1988). Exploring the recognition of guest words in bilingual speech. *Language and Cognitive Processes, 3*(3), 233-274.

Gulzar, M. A. (2010). Code switching : Awareness about Its Utility in Bilingual Classrooms, *32*(2), 23–44.

Gumperz, J. J. (1982). *Discourse strategies.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Guthrie, E. (1987). Six Cases in Classroom Communication: A Study of Teacher Discourse in the Foreign Language Classroom. In Lantolf, J. & Labarca, A. (eds.), *Research in Second Language Learning: Focus on the Classroom.* Norwood: Ablex

Gürsoy, E., Korkmaz, Ş.,Ç. & Damar, E., A. (2013). (2013). Foreign Language Teaching within 4 + 4 + 4 Education System in Turkey : Language Teachers' Voices. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 53/A, 59-74.

Halmari, Helena. (2004). Code switching patterns and developing discourse competence in L2. In Boxer, Diana & Andrew D. Cohen (Eds.). 2004. *Studying speaking to inform second language learning*. (pp.115-144). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Hancock, M. (1997). Behind Classroom Code Switching: Layering and Language Choice in L2 Learner Interaction. *TESOL Quarterly, 31* (2), 217-235.

Haznedar, B. & Uysal, H.H. (2010). *Handbook for Teaching Foreign Languages to Young Learners in Primary Schools*. Ankara: Anı Publications.

Hobbs, V., Matsuo, A., & Payne, M. (2010). Code switching in Japanese language classrooms: An exploratory investigation of native vs. non-native speaker teacher practice. *Linguistics and Education*, *21*(1), 44-59.

Holthouse, J. (2006). The role of the mother tongue in EFL classrooms. *Gaikokugokyoiku Forum 5*, 27-37.

Horasan, S. (2014). Code switching in EFL classrooms and the perceptions of the students and teachers. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 10*(1), 31-45.

Hosoda, Y. (2000). Teacher Codeswitching in the EFL Classroom. *JALT Journal, 22* (1), 69-93.

İlköğretim ve Eğitim Kanunu ile Bazı Kanunlarda Değişiklik Yapılmasına Dair Kanun. (2012). *T.C. Resmi Gazete*, 28261.

İnceçay, G. (2012). Turkey's foreign language policy at primary level: Challenges in practice. *ELT Research Journal, 1*(1), 53-62.

Jingxia, L. (2010). Teachers' Code switching to the L1 in EFL Classroom. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, *3*(1), 10–23. doi:10.2174/1874913501003010010

Johnstone, R.M. (2002). Addressing 'the age factor': some implications for languages policy. *Guide for the development of Language Education policies in Europe: From Linguistic Diversity to Plurilingual Education*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Retrieved May 30, 2014, from http://m.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/Garnet%20BC%20version.pdf#page=36

Kayaoğlu, M. N. (2012). The Use of Mother Tongue in Foreign Language Teaching from Teachers ' Practice and Perspective Öğretmen Uygulama ve PerspektifindenYabancı Dil Öğretiminde Anadil Kullanımı. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *32*, 25–35.

Kırkgoz, Y. (2005). English language teaching in Turkey: Challenges for the 21st century, in G. Braine (Ed.), *Teaching English to the world: History, curriculum, and practice* (pp. 159-175). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementations. *RELC Journal, 38*(2), 216-228.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Globalization and English language policy in Turkey. *Educational Policy, 23*(5), 663-684.

Kizildag, A. (2009). Teaching English in Turkey : Dialogues with teachers about the challenges in public primary schools. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education, 1*(3) 189-201.

Kim, E. (2006). Reasons and Motivations for, *Issues in EFL, 4*(1), 43–61.

Kim, S. H. & Elder, C. (2005). Language choices and pedagogic functions in the foreign language classroom: A cross-linguistic functional analysis of teacher talk. *Language Teaching Research, 9*(4), 355–380.

Kang, D. (2008). The classroom language use of a Korean elementary school EFL teacher: Another look at TETE, *Science Direct*, *36*, 214–226. doi:10.1016/j.system.2007.10.005

Kraemer, A. (2006). Teachers' use of English in communicative German language classrooms: A qualitative analysis. *Foreign Language Annals*, *39*(3), 435–450.

Krashen, S.D. & Terrell, T. (1983). *The Natural Approach*, New York:Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (2009). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Retrieved May 30, 2014, from http://www.sdkrashen.com/content/books/principles_and_practice.pdf

Lee, W. (2010). *Codeswitching as a Communicative Strategy in a Korean Heritage Language Classroom*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. San Diego State University.

Lee, J. H., & Macaro, E. (2013). Investigating age in the use of L1 or English-only instruction: Vocabulary acquisition by Korean EFL learners. *Modern Language Journal, 97*(4), 887-901.

Levine, G. (2003). Student and instructor beliefs and attitudes about TL use, first language use, and anxiety: Report of a questionnaire study. *Modern Language Journal, 87*(3), 343–364.

Li, D. C. S. (2008). Understanding mixed code and classroom code switching: myths and realities. *New Horizons in Education, 56*(3), 75-87.

Liebscher, G., & Dailey-O'Cain, J. (2005). Learner code switching in the content-based foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 89*(2), 234-247.

Lin, A. M. Y. (2013). Classroom code switching: Three decades of research. *Applied Linguistics Review, 4*(1), 195-218. doi: 10.1515/applirev-2013-0009

Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2014). Teaching : First language and target language in the foreign language, *Language Teaching, 44* (1)64–77. doi:10.1017/S0261444809990310

Liu D, Ahn G., S, Baek K., S. & Han N., O. (2004). South Korean high school English teachers' code switching: Questions and challenges in the drive for maximal use of English in teaching. *TESOL Quarterly 38*(4), 605-638.

Low, W.,M. & Dan, L. (2006). Persistent Use of Mixed Code: An Exploration of Its Functions in Hong Kong Schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 9* (2), 181-204.

Inbar-Lourie, O. (2010). English only? The linguistic choices of teachers of young EFL learners. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 14*(3), 351-367. doi: 10.1177/1367006910367849

Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing student teachers' code-switching in foreign language classrooms: Theories and decision making. *The Modern Language Journal, 85*(4), 531-548.

Magid, M. E. M., & Mugaddam, A. H. (2013). Code Switching as an Interactive Tool in ESL Classrooms. *English Linguistics Research*, *2*(2), 31–42. doi:10.5430/elr.v2n2p31

Malik, L. (1994). *Socio-linguistics: A study of code switching.* New Delhi, ND: Anmol Publications Pvt. Ltd.

Martin, P. W. (1999). Close encounters of a bilingual kind : interactional practices in the primary classroom in Brunei. *Int. J. of Educational Development, 19*, 127–140.

Huerta-Macías, A., & Quintero, E. (2010). Code switching, Bilingualism, and Biliteracy: A Case Study. *Bilingual Research Journal, 16* (3), 70-90.

McDonough, J., & McDonough, S. (2006). Research Methods for English Language Teachers. London: Arnold.

McClure, E. (1977). Aspects of code switching in the discourse of bilingual Mexican-American children. In M. Saville-Troike (Ed.), *Linguistics and anthropology* (pp. 93-116). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

McMillan, B., Turnbull, M., 2009. Teachers' use of the first language in French immersion: Revisiting a core principle. In Turnbull, M., Dailey-O'Cain, J. (Eds.), *First Language Use in Second and Foreign Language Learning*. (pp.15-34). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Meiring, L. & Norman, N. (2002). Back on target: repositioning the status of target language in MFL teaching and learning. *Language Learning Journal, 26*, 27-35.

Mersinligil, G. (2002). *İlköğretim dört ve beşinci sınıflarda uygulanan İngilizce dersi öğretim programının değerlendirilmesi (Adana İli Örneği).* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Fırat Üniversitesi, Elazığ.

Meyer, H. (2008). The Pedagogfical Implication of L1 Use in the L2 Classroom.

Milk, R. (1981). An analysis of the functional allocation of Spanish and English in a bilingual classroom. *California Association for Bilingual Education: Research Journal, 2* (2), 11-26.

Milroy, L., & Muysken, P. (Eds.). (1995). *One Speaker, two Languages: Cross-disciplinary perspectives on code switching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mirhasani, A. & Jafarpour-Mamaghani, H. (2009). Code switching and Iranian EFL Learners' OralProficiency. *Journal of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Literature, 1*(2), 21-31.

Moodley, V., and Kamwangamalu, N.M. (2004). Code switching as a Technique in Teaching Literature in a Secondary School ESL Classroom. *Alternation, 11*(2), 186-202.

Mokgwathi, T., & Webb, V. (2013). The educational effects of code switching in the classroom – benefits and setbacks: A case of selected senior secondary schools in Botswana. *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 44 (3), 108-125. doi: 10.1080/10228195.2013.839734

MoNE. (2012). *National Education Statistics: Formal Education 2012-2013.* Retrieved May,30,2014,from http://sgb.meb.gov.tr/istatistik/meb_istatistikleri_orgun_egitim_2012_2013.pdf

Moore, D. (2002). Case Study Code switching and Learning in the Classroom, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism , 5*(5), 279–293.

Moreira, M. A. R. (2001). *The mother tongue in the foreign language classroom of the great Florianópolis region: a study of state school teachers' perceptions.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, Santa Catarina.

Muthusamy, P. (2009). Communicative functions and reasons for code switching: A Malaysian perspective. *Language & Society, 5,* 1-16.

Muysken, P. (2000). *Bilingual speech: A typology of code-mixing.* Cambridge & New York: Cambridge University Press.

Myers-Scotton, C. (1989). Codeswitching with English: Types of S witching, Types of Communities*. World Englishes*,8 (3), 333-346.

Myers-Scotton, C. (1993). *Duelling languages: Grammatical structure in codeswitching.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Nagy, K., & Robertson, D. (2009). Target Language Use in English Classes in Hungarian Primary Schools. In M. Turnbull & J. Dailey-O'Cain, *First Language Use in Second and Foreign Language Learning* (pp.66-86). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Namba, K. (2000).What is code switching? Retrieved May 30, 2014, from http://yayoi.senri.ed.jp/research/re10/Namba.pdf

Nation, P. (2003). The role of the first language in foreign language learning. *The Asian EFL Journal, 5*(2).

Nilep, C. (2006). "Code switching" in sociocultural linguistics. *Colorado Research in Linguistics, 19*(1), 1-22.

Nordin, N.,M., Ali, F.,D.,R., Zubir, S.,I.,S.,S., & Sadjirin, R. (2013). ESL Learners Reactions towards Code Switching in Classroom Settings. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences, 90*, 478-487.
doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.07.117

Nortier J. (1990). *Dutch-Moroccan Arabic Code switching among Moroccans in the Netherlands*. Dordrecht: Foris.

Nunan, D. (2003). The Impact of English as a Global Language on Educational Policies and Practices in the Asia-Pacific Region*. *Tesol Quarterly*, *37*(4), 589-613. Retrieved May 30, 2014, from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.2307/3588214/abstract

Nzwanga, M. (2000). A study of French-English codeswitching in a foreign language college teaching environment. (Electronic Thesis or Dissertation). Retrieved May 30, 2014, from https://etd.ohiolink.edu/

Oduol, C. B. (1987). *Some Evidence for the Role of Elicitation and Code switching in English in the Medium Schools in Kenya.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of Aston, Birmignham.

Olúmúyìwá, T. (2013). The Use of Code Switching/Code Mixing on Olúsẹ́gun Mímíkò's Political Billboards, Oǹdó State, South-West Nigeria, Studies in Literature and Language, 6(1), 26-34.
doi: 10.3968/j.sll.1923156320130601.2033

Oguro, S. (2011). Using the target language in beginner-level classrooms: The influence of learners ' affective state on teachers ' practice. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL, 6*, 1-19.

Pfaff, C. W. (1979). Constraints on language mixing: intrasentential code switching and borrowing in Spanish/English. *Language, 26*, 291-318.

Polio, C., & Duff, P.A. (1994). Teachers' Language Use in University Foreign Language Classrooms: A Qualitative Analysis of English and Target Language Alternation. *The Modern Language Journal, 78* (3), 313-326.

Pollard, S. (2002). The benefit of code switching within a bilingual education program. *Honors Projects*, 1-17. Retrieved May 30, 2104, from http://digitalcommons.iwu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1002&context=hispstu_honproj

Poplack, S. (1980). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish Y TERMINO EN ESPAÑOL: Toward a typology of code switching. *Linguistics, 18*(7/8), 581-618.

Poplack, Shana. 2001. Code switching (linguistic). In Smelser, N. & Baltes (Eds). *International encyclopedia of the social and behavioral sciences* (pp.2062-2065). Elsevier Science Ltd.

Poplack, S. (2013). The second decade (1973–1983). *Linguistics, 51* (Jubilee), 11–14. doi:10.1515/ling-2013-0039

Potowski, K. (2009). Forms and functions of code switching by dual immersion students: A comparison of heritage speaker and L2 children. In M. Turnbull & Miles & J. Dailey-O'Cain (Eds.), *First Language Use in Second and Foreign Language Learning* (87-114). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Qian, X., Tian, G., & Wang, Q. (2009). Codeswitching in the primary EFL classroom in China – Two case studies. *System, 37*(4), 719–730. doi:10.1016/j.system.2009.09.015

Qing, X. (2012). A Tentative Analysis of Code switching in College Bilingual Education. *Cross-Cultural Communication, 8*(4), 30-33.

Rahimi, A., & Jafari, Z. (2011). Iranian Students ' Attitudes towards the Facilitative and Debiliative Role of Code switching ; Types and Moments of Code switching at EFL Classroom, *The Buckingham Journal of Language and Linguistics*, *4*, 15–28.

Raschka, C., Sercombe, P., & Chi-Ling, H. (2009). Conflicts and tensions in codeswitching in a Taiwanese EFL classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *12*(2), 157–171. doi:10.1080/13670050802153152

Redinger, D. (2010). *Language attitudes and code switching behaviour in a multilingual educational context: The case of Luxembourg.* Unpublished Master's thesis. University of York, York.

Redouane, R. (2005). Linguistic Constraints on Codeswitching and Codemixing of Bilingual Moroccan Arabic-French Speakers in Canada, *Proceedings of the 4th*

International Symposium on Bilingualism, ed. James Cohen, Kara T. McAlister, Kellie Rolstad, and Jeff MacSwan, 1921-1933. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press.

Rezaeian, F. (2009). *Structural and Social Aspects of Codeswitching among Iranian/Canadian Bilinguals*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Simon Fraser University, Burnaby.

Rezvani, E., & Rasekh, A., E. (2011). Code switching in Iranian Elementary EFL Classrooms: An Exploratory Investigation. *English Language Teaching, 4*(1), 18-25.

Ricento, T. (2005). Considerations of identity in L2 learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (895-911). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Richards, K (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Riegelhaupt, F. (2000). Codeswitching and Language Use in the Classroom. In Ana Roca (Ed), *Research on Spanish in the US.* (pp.204-217). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press.

Rolin-lanziti, A. J. (2002). Justifying selected uses of the learners first language in the foreign language classroom within communicative language teaching, *Setting the Agenda: Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies in Higher Education Conference*, *24*, 2624–26.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E.A. and Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn taking for conversation. *Language 50*(4), 696-735.

Sailaja, P. (2011). Hinglish: code switching in Indian English. *ELT Journal*, *65*(4), 473–480.
doi:10.1093/elt/ccr047

Sali, P. (2014). An analysis of the teachers' use of L1 in Turkish EFL classrooms. *System, 42*(1), 308-318.

Sampson, A. (2011). Learner code switching versus English only. *ELT Journal, 66*(3), 293-303.
doi:10.1093/elt/ccr067

Sarandi, H. (2013). The Use of Turkish in English Preparatory Schools : Where is the Balance? *Anthropologist, 16*(1-2)*16*, 325–335.

Saxena, M. (2009). Construction & deconstruction of linguistic otherness: Conflict & cooperative code switching in (English/) bilingual classrooms. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique, 8(*2), 167-187.

Schwartz, M., & Asli, A. (2014). Bilingual teachers' language strategies: The case of an Arabic–Hebrew kindergarten in Israel. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 38,* 22–32.
doi:10.1016/j.tate.2013.10.013

Scott, W. &Ytreberg, L. (1991). *Teaching English to Children*. Harlow: Longman.

Shin, S.,Y. (2010). The functions of code switching in a Korean Sunday School. *Heritage Language Journal, 7*(1), 91-116.

Skiba, R. (1997). Code switching as a countenance of language interference. Retrieved May 30, 2014, from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Skiba-CodeSwitching.html.

Seda, S., & Erkan, S. (2012). Problems of English language instruction in primary in Turkey and their suggestions. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences ,46,* 1117–1121.
doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.258

Sert, O. (2005). The functions of code switching in ELT classrooms. *The Internet TESOL Journal, 6*(8). Retrieved May 30, 2014, from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Sert-Code\nSwitching.html

Shujing, W. (2013). Teachers' CS in the ESP Classroom in China. Studies in Sociology of Science, 4(4), 16-22.
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.3968/j.sss.1923018420130404.2847

Slatterly, M., & Willis, J. (2001). *English for primary teachers*. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Sridhar, S. N., & Sridhar, K. (1980). The syntax and psycholinguistics of bilingual code-mixing. *Canadian Journal of Psychology, 34*, 407-416

Şen, Y. (2010). L1 use in English as A Foreign Language Classrooms in Turkey*, *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Dergisi, 10* (2), 162-171.

Tarım, Ş.,D. (2011). *Turkish Immigrant Children's Code switching Practices: Constructing Language Ideologies and Identities in Interaction*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of California, California.

Tatsioka, Z. (2008). Code switching and English Loanwords in the Greek Media. *NewcastleWorking Papers in Linguistics, 14*, 129-144.

Then, D., & Ting, S. (2011). Researching code switching in teacher classroom discourse : Question- ing the sufficiency of informant reports. *The International Journal - Language Society and Culture, 33*, 8–18.

Thompson, G. L. (2006). *In the Foreign Language Classroom: A Qualitative and Quantitative Study of Language Choice*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. The University of Arizona, Tucson.

Topkaya, E., Z. & Küçük, Ö. (2010). An evaluation of 4 th and 5 th grade English language teaching program, *Elementary Education Online, 9*(1), 52–65.

Turnbull, M., & Arnett, K. (2002). Teachers' uses of the target and first languages in second and foreign language classrooms. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 22*, 204-218.

Turnbull, M. & Dailey-O'Cain, J. (2009). *First language use in second and foreign language learning.* Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.

UNESCO (1997). *International Standard Classification of Education: ISCED 1997*, Paris: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Uys, D. (2010). *The functions of teachers ' code switching in multilingual and multicultural high school classrooms in the Siyanda District of the Northern Cape Province*. Unpublised Master's Thesis. Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch.

Üstünel, E. (2004). *The sequential organization of teacher-initiated and teacher-induced code switching in a Turkish university EFL setting.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Newcastle upon Tyne.

Valdés-Fallis, G. (1978). *Language in Education: Theory and practice: Code switching and the classroom teacher*. Arlington, VA: Arlington Center for Applied Linguistics.

Vanderheijden, V. (2010). Is That English I Hear Over There ? Rethinking the Prohibition on L1 Use in Foreign Language Learning. *TPFLE, 14*(1), 3–17.

Van Der Meij, H., & Zhao, X. (2010). Codeswitching in English courses in Chinese universities. *Modern Language Journal, 94*(3), 396-411.

Van Dulm, O. (2007). *The grammar of English-Afrikaans code switching: A feature checking account*. Utrecht: LOT Publishing.

Vasquez, P., J. (2009). *Eleventh Graders' Perspectives and Functions of Code Switching in a Bilingual School*. Unpublished Undergraduate Thesis. Universidad Technologica de Pereira, Pereira.

Yao, M. (2011). On Attitudes to Teachers' Code switching in EFL Classes. *World Journal of English Language, 1*(1), 19-28.

Yavuz, A., & Topkaya, Z., E. (2013). Teacher Educators' Evaluation of the English Language Teaching Program: A Turkish Case. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 7*(1), 64-83.

Yıldırım, R., & Mersinligil, G. (2000). Use of mother tongue in ELT classes: When and why? *Çukurova University Social Sciences Institute e-Journal, 6*(6), 131-142.

Yıldırım, R. & Şeker, M. (2004). An Investigation into Turkish Teachers' Awareness of Teaching English to Young Learners. Paper Presented at First International Language Learning Conference 2004 (ILLC), University Sains Malaysia, Malaysia.

Yletyinen, H. (2004). *The functions of codeswitching in EFL classroom discourse*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä.

Warford, M. K., & College, B. S. (2007). L1 vs. L2 in the Foreign Language Classroom : New Findings. *The NECTFL Review 60*, 50–67.

Weinreich, U. (1953). *Languages in Contact*. The Hague: Mouton

Weng, P. (2012). Code switching as a strategy use in an EFL classroom in Taiwan. *US-China Foreign Language, 10*(10), 1-10.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zhang, Y., & Wildemuth, B. (2009). *Thematic content analysis*. In B. Wildemuth (Ed.), Applications of Social Research Methods to Questions in Information and Library Science Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

APPENDICES

Appendix A. Transcription conventions

1,2,3…	number of utterances
T	teacher
St1, St2…	number of students whose names are not known in a conversation
Ss	students
( )	unintelligible word
(word)	translation of words and sentences
((word))	comments by the transcriber
-	cut off the current sound
:	lengthened sound
→	indication of the lines of interest in the transcript (CS moments in this study)
[	beginning of the overlapped talk
]	at the end of overlapped talk
°	quieter than the surrounding talk
=	latched utterances
(.)	short pauses
(…)	long pauses

Appendix B. Letter of Undertaking for Schools

T.C.
ÇUKUROVA ÜNİVERSİTESİ EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ
ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞI

BÜRO :
SAYI :
KONU :

ADANA
ÖZEL ÇUKUROVA BİLFEN OKULLARI MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE
...../...../201.....

ADANA

15/02/2013

Çukurova Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Yüksek lisans tezimi "Çocuklarda sınıf içi dil etkileşimi" üzerine yapmayı planlıyorum. Bu çalışma dahilinde ortaöğretim 5. sınıf öğrencilerinin İngilizce derslerini yürüten 2 (iki) öğretmeninizin 2 (iki) ders saatini işitsel ve görsel olarak kaydetmek istiyorum. Bu öğretmenlerle ve her sınıftan 5 (beş) öğrenci ile elde edilen verileri paylaşma ve doğrulama amacıyla görüşme yapmak istiyorum.

Mart 2013'te idarenizce ve öğretmenlerinizce uygun görülen tarihlerde yukarıda bahsedilen kaydı ve görüşmeleri yapabilmem hususunda gereğini arz ederim.

Esra YATAĞANBABA

ADRES:

Üçtutlar Mah. Ahcılar 13. Sk.

Özer Sitesi B Blok 26/9

Merkez/ÇORUM

GSM:

0090 5375989297

Uygun görülmüştür
Nihat Bayrak DEKİN

Yüksek Lisans Tez Danışmanı

Yard. Doç. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM

T.C.
ÇUKUROVA ÜNİVERSİTESİ EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ
ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞI

BÜRO :
SAYI :
KONU :

ADANA
...../...../201.....

ARAŞTIRMANIN GERÇEKLEŞTİRİLMESİNE İLİŞKİN TAAHHÜTNAME

ARAŞTIRMA SAHİBİNİN	
Adı Soyadı	Esra Yatağanbaba
Bağlı Bulunduğu Kurum/Üniversite	Çukurova Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Araştırmanın Konusu	Çocuklarda sınıf içi dil etkileşimi
Araştırmanın Başlangıç Tarihi	Mart 2013
Araştırmanın Bitiş Tarihi	Mart 2013

1- Yukarıda belirtilen araştırmanın eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerini engellememesi açısından kayıt işlemini belirtilen tarihler arasında tamamlayacağımı,

2- Araştırma sırasında ~~ver~~ toplama amacıyla sadece video kayıt cihazı kullanacağımı,

3- Araştırma sırasında kaydedeceğim hiçbir görüntüyü herhangi bir yerde araştırma haricince kullanmayacağımı ve hiçbir şekilde kimseyle paylaşmayacağımı taahhüt ederim.

Taahhüt eden
15/02/2013
Esra YATAĞANBABA

uygun görülmüştür.
Nihal Barut Pekin

Yüksek Lisans Tez Danışmanı
Yard. Doç. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name : Esra YATAĞANBABA
Date of Birth : 28.03.1987
Place of Birth : Adana
Work Place : Hitit University
Home Address : Üçtutlar Mah. Ahcılar 13. Sk. Özer Apt. 26/9
Merkez/ Çorum / Türkiye
E-mail : esraerdogan@hitit.edu.tr

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

2011-2014	**(MA)**	Çukurova University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, Adana
2005-2009	**(BA)**	Çukurova University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, Adana
2001-2005		İncirlik High School, Adana

WORK EXPERIENCE

2010- Present	English Instructor, Hitit University, Çorum, Turkey
19/01/2010-05/05/2010	Comenius English Language Assisstant, Turin, Italy

PROCEEDINGS

1. F.J. García Rodríguez, T. Kümbül, J. Mendoza Jimenez, E. Yatağanbaba. (2013). A whole world outside home: Factors attracting Erasmus students and their effects on intercultural competence, language learning, economy and tourism. *Proceedings of EDULEARN13 Conference*, 3726-3734.

2. ERDOĞAN, E. & KUTLU Ö. (2012). A case study: Attitudes of ESP Students towards CALL. *The 3rd Black Sea ELT Conference Book of Proceedings*, 69-74.

3. YOLERİ, S. & ERDOGAN, E. (2012). Current educational policies and trends in teaching English to young learners around the globe. *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Research, 14a,* 774-779.

4. ERDOĞAN, E., & TUNAZ, M. (2012). Determining External and Internal Demotivating Factors among Young Learners at Pozantı Regional Primary Boarding School. *Frontiers of Language and Teaching, 3,* 147-160.

CERTIFICATES

1. The art of writing a scientific paper, Elsevier, 2012.

2. Teacher Training Workshop by British Council, 2012-2013.