Teachers' Attitudes towards and

Practices of L1 Use in EFL Classroom

A Master's Thesis

by

Bahar Tunçay

The Program of

Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Bilkent University

Ankara

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To my mother and father,

for their love and support

this thesis is dedicated

Teachers' Attitudes towards and

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of

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by

Bahar Tunçay

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Thesis Title: Teachers' Attitudes towards and
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ABSTRACT

TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS
AND PRACTICES OF L1 USE IN EFL CLASSROOM

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January, 2014

This study explored teachers' attitudes towards their use of L1 in language

classrooms and their practices in terms of use of L1 both as a communicative and

methodological tool. The study was conducted with the participation of 120 teachers

teaching at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages, who were asked to fill

a questionnaire survey developed by the researcher. The questionnaire's focus was on

the teachers' attitudes and practices as a communicative tool and methodological

tool. While answering the practices parts, teachers were asked to take the lesson and

the level that they were teaching into account. The results of the quantitative analysis

revealed that the teachers mostly had negative attitudes towards the use of L1,

especially towards its use as a communicative tool; however, the teachers did not

believe that L1 had negative effect on L2 acquisition. They were in favor of L1 since

they believed that the learners did not have any other opportunity to access the target

language. Thus, they believed that they should interact with the learners in TL as

much as possible. This study implied that further research is needed to find out the

variables which affect the teachers code-choices in more detail and see the picture from the students' point of view.

Key Words: code-switching, teachers' attitudes, the use of L1 teachers' reported

ÖZET

ÖĞRETMENLERİN YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE SINIFLARINDA ANADİLİN KULLANILMASIKONUSUNDAKİ GÖRÜŞLERİ VE UYGULAMALARI

Bahar Tunçay

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü
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Bu çalışmada yabancı dil öğretmenlerini derslerde öğrencilerin ana dilinin kullanılmasına ilişkin görüşleri ve ana dili iletişime ve metoda yönelik kullanımları araştırılmıştır. Anadolu Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulunda çalışmakta olan 120 öğretmenin katılımıyla hazırlanan bu çalışmada öğretmenlerden araştırmacının hazırladığı anketi doldurmaları istenmiştir. Anketin odaklandığı konular öğretmenlerin ana dili sınıfta kullanmaları ile ilgili görüşleri ve uygulamalarıdır. Uygulamalarında hem iletişimsel amaçlı ve metoda yönelik uygulamaları sorgulanmıştır. Öğretmenlerden cevaplarken dersini verdikleri sınıfların seviyesini ve öğrettikleri becerileri göz önünde bulundurmaları istenmiştir. Bu nitel çalışmaların sonuçları öğretmenlerin ana dilin kullanılması konusunda negatif görüşleri olduğu yönündedir. Bunun sebebi ise ana dilin öğrencinin dil gelişimi üzerinde negatif etkisi olduğu düşünüldüğünden değil, öğrencilerin yabancı dil konuşacak daha farklı ortamlarının çok fazla olmayışından olduğu rapor edilmiştir. Bu yüzden sınıfta olabildiğince çok yabancı dil kullanılması gerektiğini

düşünmektedirler. Öğretmenlerin dil seçimlerine etken olan nedenlerin bulunması için bu konu üzerinde daha kapsamlı çalışmaya ihtiyaç duyulduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca konuya öğrencilerin bakış açısından bakan çalışmaların da gerekliliği ortaya çıkmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: dil geçişleri, öğretmenlerin tutumları, öğretmenleri ana dili kullanımları ile ilgili raporları

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

When speaking English, I may think in English, but only partially; the next moment, it flicks back to Chinese. Sometimes I get confused and the two languages merge – one on top of the other. I can hear myself speaking in English, but the substance seems to be in Chinese… It pains, distresses, and angers me not being able to fully express myself in another language (Zhengdao Ye, 2004, p.138 as cited in Pavlenko, 2011, p. 6).

This quote, from a, reportedly, fluent bilingual Chinese/ English speaker underlines the powerful presence of the mother tongue even in fluent bilingual speech. The important role that one's native tongue plays in all aspects of the user's life has never been argued. The strong view is that one's mother tongue affects all aspects of human behavior, and specifically that one's native language shapes perception, culture and thought. Currently, in a slightly less language biased view, researchers in linguistic relativity examine the interaction between thought, language and culture, and describe the degree and kind of interrelatedness of these one to the other (Boroditsky, 2003; Levison, 2013).

Since the native tongue is so influential in the total life of its users, applied research has further attempted to explore how the native tongue is best viewed with respect to learning an additional language. One view is that the leaners' first language is a source of distraction and even interference in second language learning and should be distanced from second language learning as much as possible. Another view holds that learning a second language parallels (or should parallel) the process

in learning of the native language and awareness of the learning process should consciously guide instruction and learning of L2. Still another view holds that the mother tongue has a role to play in support of second language learning by providing *scaffolding* guides for that learning.

What has become known as the *traditional view* holds that optimal learning of a new language is a result of exclusive use of that language in the classroom. Commercial Berlitz classes and Immersion classes in which school age learners are immersed in a second language are on-going examples of this principle in practice.

The Target Language (TL) - only camp primarily derives its reasoning from arguments that classroom L2 use by teachers provides the only useful linguistic models available for language learners, similarly, that the TL used by the teachers is, quantitatively, the main source of input for language learners (Turnbull, 2001). A similar line of argument holds that any teachers' use of the students' native language limits students' access to critical second language input (Ellis, 1984). This notion is captured in Krashen and Terrill's notion of *comprehensible input* as a required element in second language acquisition (Krashen & Terrill 1983). Accordingly, supporters of the TL-only camp point out that instead of switching to L1, teachers can make L2 more comprehensible by simplifying the language that they are using. Spokespersons for this camp also support the idea that understanding every single item in a communicative act is not necessary. Instead, the learner needs to be challenged to figure out the message from the context and the understood elements within it (Wolf, 1977; Wong-Filmore, 1985).

In contrast, others hold that the mother tongue is a useful tool that should be available to learners in second language classrooms. Cummins (2000 as cited in

Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009) suggests that judicious use of the native language of the learners can help teachers draw on more sophisticated tasks which challenge students' cognitive skills and help learner language to improve in return. Some researchers further support this view by theoretical arguments such as those taken from work on the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) owing to Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1978). Accordingly, scaffolding support from the L1 optimizes learners' position in ZPD where optimal learning takes place.

These competing views have been represented by various methodological labels and within various learning theories. Teachers have their own views of these issues, as do the institutions in which these teachers are professionals. These competing views lie at the core of local teaching decisions and form the grounds for this thesis.

In this study, the arguments and research supporting the instructional position of *Target Language Only* (TL-only) as well as the instructional position of *Bi-lingual Native Language as Useful* (Code-switching) will be reviewed.

This study first examines Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes towards their own use of Turkish, which is the native language of both the teachers and the students, in language classrooms. It also examines what their reported communicative and methodological practices are in lower level language classrooms and higher level classrooms. Reported use of mother tongue in second language teaching was almost exclusively limited to the domains of spoken interaction. Whether teachers had occasion to use mother tongue in support of other language skill areas, such as reading and writing, was also examined.

Background of the Study

The interest in and importance given to the role of the native language of learners (L1) in second language (SL) and foreign language (FL) learning have grown rapidly in recent years. Research studies of the use of first language (L1) in second/foreign language (L2) learning have turned towards several key issues such as what factors affect the use of L1, what the consequences of using L1 in L2 language classrooms are, and what some frequencies of use are. The results of most of these studies conducted in EFL contexts have revealed that despite policies that aim to prevent the use of the native language in second language classrooms, mother tongue appears to be widely used in classrooms by both the teachers and the students (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). Most proponents of the code-switching camp agree that target language input as provided in language classrooms has great value (Auerbach, 1991), and it should be maximized as much as possible (Turnbull, 2001). However, they reject the *blind acceptance* that language can best be learned by exclusive use of the target language (Auerbach, 1991; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). They feel that much pedagogical value is lost if teachers do not draw on the students' *cultural capital* - the existence and power of their native language (e.g., Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

It also appears, practically, that L1 use cannot be entirely suppressed on all occasions and in all situations. Although these studies continue to reflect strong teacher and administrator support for target language only classes, there are also equally strong advocates of code-switching in *minimal* and *judicious* ways in L2 classes. As the review of the literature will show, this latter group is increasing in size and influence (Forman 2008 p. 223). Both the TL-only camp and the code-switching camp ground their justifications in various theoretical and practical

arguments (Viakinnou-Brinson, 2006).

The study was conducted by looking at the perceived use and usefulness of the L1 (Turkish) of a group of university level bilingual Turkish teachers of English. The teachers were teaching English language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking and in higher and lower proficiency levels. Inevitably, one must consider the question of how Turkish teachers see their use of native language and whether they see it as effectively supporting their teaching of English since the broad set of possible uses of native language in foreign language classes, such as the *code-switching* practices, were referred as useful *scaffolding* devices (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). (Scaffolding will often be referred within this thesis. Unless indicated otherwise, scaffolding will refer to teachers' whole-class verbal interaction with students in a bilingual EFL context.)

Statement of the Problem

Recently, the theoretical debate over learners' first language use in second language classrooms has resulted in a considerable body of literature. The use of L1 as a methodological tool (e.g., Forman, 2012; Spada, Lightbown & White, 2005; White & Ranta, 2002; White, 1991, 1998; Lightbown, 1991) has been investigated by a number of researchers. The primary focus has been on cuing or correcting students' use of vocabulary and grammar in oral communication. However, there have been no studies conducted which examine the role of L1 as a methodological tool for teaching different skills independently. Besides, none of the studies examined whether there are differences or similarities in the instructors' comparisons of the two languages (target language and native language of the learners) while teaching different proficiency levels.

Furthermore, most of the studies were conducted in ESL settings and none of the studies to date have looked at code-switching in an EFL setting in a large scale and comprehensive study which examines teachers' attitudes and reported practices while teaching different skills in different proficiency levels. Despite the lack of strong evidence in the related literature to support a restriction on the use of L1 in language classes, many preparatory schools at universities in Turkey (and elsewhere) have institutionalized the TL-only policy and avoidance of L1 scaffolding (Levine, 2009). Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages (AUSFL) in Turkey has been one of the supporters of this policy, albeit not stated in its written policy. On the other hand, some teachers and students have given oral feedback by expressing the need for code-switching especially in lower level classes. However, because of the policies, some teachers either avoid using L1 in their classes or under-report its use.

This study aims to examine teachers' attitudes towards and reported practices in terms of the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms.

Research Questions:

1. What are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in EFL skills-focused classrooms?

2. What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

3. What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

4. What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

5. What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

Significance of the Study

Using the target language in the foreign language classroom as much as possible and providing students with access to high quality input is acknowledged as important (Ellis, 1994). However, a number of recent studies have generally reported positively on the focused use of L1 in scaffolding effective learning of L2 (e.g., Brooks & Donato, 1994). There is a lack of research, however, on the attitudes and practices of the teachers regarding the use of L1 in various skill areas and at various proficiency levels of second language instruction. Results of this study will contribute to the growing literature on the use of the native language in foreign language teaching classes.

It will further provide local input to administrators as to institutional policies directed at making the foreign language program more effective. It can help inform current teaching practices and the design of future teacher training programs.

The findings of this study may be especially helpful for the teachers who are instructing in lower level classes at Anadolu University or other Turkish institutes with similar EFL programs. These teachers can become more aware of the effective practices of instruction, which aim to facilitate scaffolding through the use of L2 – L1 code-switching in all of the various skill types.

Key Terms

Use of L1 for Communicative Purpose. Code-switching.

Use of L1 for Methodological Purpose. Comparing the components of the target language with the native language, such as comparing the word order of Turkish with the one of English.

Conclusion

In this chapter of the study, the overview of the literature regarding code-switching practices, their advantages and disadvantages, teachers' and policy makers' attitudes towards code-switching practices and the variables that affect teachers use or not use of L1 have been presented. The statement of the problem, research questions, and the significance of the study have also been discussed. The second chapter reviews the relevant literature in more detail. The third chapter presents the methodology of the study. The fourth chapter presents the analysis of the results of the study. In the last chapter, the findings are discussed in the light of the relevant literature, and pedagogical implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are presented.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter first gives a historical perspective of the use of L1 in language teaching. Next, code-switching will be defined and how it can function as a scaffolding tool will be examined. Moreover, the term *scaffolding* will be clarified. Later, the language skills will be overviewed. Then, before moving on to the role of L1 within the instructions given while teaching different language skills, the place of English in tertiary level education in Turkey, where this study was conducted, is explored. Finally, the relevant literature will be reviewed which will show the discussions between the code-switching and target language only camps by comparing the groundings of each camp and its base arguments for a better understanding of the process in the literature.

First Languages in Second Language Teaching:

Historical Perspective

There have been many theoretical and practical arguments both for and against the use of L1 in FL and SL contexts (Miles, 2004) which have resulted in continuing and heated debates in academic circles (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). Despite the surge of recent interest in this topic (e.g., G. Cook 2011; V. Cook 2003; Forman, 2012; Schmitt, 2008; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009), the arguments have a strong historical background in the second language educational literature (Brown, 2000).

Classical languages, dominantly Greek and Latin, had long been the

academic languages in many fields. After the 16th century, French, Italian and English–speaking countries began to assume a prominent place in the world and their languages, an important place in language learning. Largely because of political changes, classical languages began to lose their popularity. However, until the 19th century, the study of modern languages was still highly influenced by the methods of the traditional Latin-based educational system, built on study of grammar, translation and rhetoric. Sentences were translated from the target language into the native language L2 > L1 to provide illustrations of the grammatical system of the target language, with written material the core source for the language classes. Oral input or production had little or no significance. In the Grammar-Translation Approach, the native language was used both to communicate in the classroom and as a methodological tool that gave learners the chance to compare the grammar of the target language with that of their native tongue and analyze their similarities and differences (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In the mid-nineteenth century, however, criticisms of the Grammar-Translation Approach arose, and the need for oral proficiency was emphasized by many pioneers of alternative approaches (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The Grammar Translation Method came to be replaced with other methods, such as Gouin's Direct Method, the focus of which was oral communication and pronunciation (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The Direct Method supports the idea that language can best be learned in an environment in which exclusive exposure and practice activities should be conducted solely in the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

As previously noted, the Berlitz commercial language schools and more recently Total Immersion programs for school students have maintained a strong Target Language Only stance.

A major innovation in language teaching methodology in the mid-twentieth century became known as the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) having a strong base in structural linguistics and behavioral psychology. ALM likewise stressed a target language only usage and practice in the classroom. The American linguist William Moulton, in a report prepared for the 9th International Congress of Linguists in 1961, stated the linguistic principles on which language teaching methodology should be based: "Language is speech, not writing. . . . A language is a set of habits. . . . Teach the language, not about the language. . . . A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say. . . . Languages are different" (as quoted in Rivers, 1964, p. 5).

Auerbach (1993) states that there were strategic reasons supported by political and ideological movements in addition to pedagogical and linguistic ones that led to the proscription on the use of the learners' native language during this period. Pedagogical plans for having immigrants and colonials strive to speak like *native speakers* became the standard practice. The circulated doctrine, which was to underlie English language teaching, comprised five key tenets:

(1) English is best taught monolingually, (2) the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker, (3) the earlier English is taught, the better the results, (4) the more English is taught, the better the results, and (5) if other languages are used much, standards of English will drop (Phillipson, 1992, p. 185).

During the 20th century, there were also other reasons for the exclusive position of the TL in language classrooms. The high rates of migration, especially in the U.S. and U.K., forced educators to reconsider the methodologies in foreign language education. Classes tended to switch from smaller ones, which based their

methodology, at least in part, on translation, to larger ones in which students did not share a common native language (Haws as cited in Miles, 2004). L1 was no longer a communicative tool that teachers could rely on in language classrooms. As a result, L2 necessarily became the sole medium of instruction in foreign language classrooms.

In methodological circles in the late 20th century, commitment to ALM came to be replaced by a broader set of influences, which collectively came to be known as the Communicative Approach. One of the approaches of this movement, the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), strongly supported the idea of teaching a foreign language in *a natural way* by focusing on meaning and avoiding the use of L1 and comparisons of the grammars of L1 with the target language in language classes. The proponents who supported that L1 should be taken as a model based their claims on the L1=L2 learning hypothesis (Ellis, 1986; Krashen, 1981) by arguing that since the native language in a context in which only one language is used extensively, the target language of a learner can best be acquired in the same manner.

In distinction from the Natural Approach, another briefly influential language teaching method was known as Community Language Learning or as Counseling Language Learning (abbreviated CLL in either case) (e.g., La Forge, 1983). CLL is linked to a set of practices used in certain kinds of bilingual education programs and referred to as *language alternation*. In language alternation, a message/lesson/class is presented first in the native language and then again in the second language. Students know the meaning and flow of L2 messages from their recall of the parallel meaning and flow of L1 messages. Ideally, they begin holistically to piece together a view of the language out of these message sets. Thus, CLL is an instructional method in

which L1 and L2 are inextricably linked.

To sum up, several realizations of the two major contending schools of thought on second language teaching have been presented. One of the schools of thought has been characterized as use of Target Language only in the foreign language class and the other as native language use as appropriate in support of learning in the foreign language class. For some time, the Target Language Only position has dominated institutional policies in respect to foreign language learning and teaching. However, recently there has been an influential group of scholars in second language pedagogy, who have published strong attacks on this position and have represented alternative positions which belong prominently in the Code-switching/L1 plus L2 camp. Since the camp which support the use of code-switching primarily justifies its point of view by stating that code-switching contributes to scaffolding practices in language classrooms, the next sub-section will clarify the terms code-switching and scaffolding, and will describe the relationship upon which the code-switching camp mostly derives its arguments.

The Use of L1 for Scaffolding

Two terms that occur frequently in this thesis and in the relevant literature are scaffolding and code-switching. In the thesis they have restricted meaning as described below.

Code-switching

Code-switching is defined as the practice of selecting or altering linguistic elements so as to contextualize talk in interaction. This contextualization may relate to local discourse practices, such as turn selection or various forms of bracketing, or it may make relevant information beyond the current exchange, including knowledge

of society and diverse identities (Chad, 2006).

Before the 1970's code-switching was not considered to be a creditable issue worthy of further examination by the scholars who did not focus specifically on bilingual speakers, since mostly researchers supposed that the issue was a symptom of weakness of bilingual speakers' linguistic competence (Nzwanga, 2000). Bailey (2007) elaborates further by stating that:

> Frequent code-switching is seen by many monolinguals as a sign of linguistic
> and cognitive deficiency, by nativist groups as a rejection of incorporation
> into U.S. society, and by many academics as a sophisticated, agentive, and
> strategic way of negotiating social and political structures and meanings
> (Bailey, 2007, p. 49).

The notion of code-switching so as to *contextualize speech* points in the direction of the inquiries of this thesis. It suggests the use of code-switching as used to create a context for successful communication and a context for successful learning. Code-switching might be seen here as a search for the *Zone of Proximal Development*- the context in which the most effective learning takes place – which gives learners experiences that are within their zones of proximal development, thereby encouraging and advancing their individual learning.

Code-switching performs several functions. First, people may use code-switching to hide fluency or memory problems in the second language (but this accounts for about only 10 percent of code switches) (Gudykunst, 2004). Second, code-switching is used to mark switching from informal situations (using native languages) to formal situations (using second language). Third, code-switching is used to exert control, especially between parents and children (or teachers and

students). Fourth, code-switching is used to align speakers with others in specific situations (e.g., defining oneself as a member of an ethnic group). Code-switching also "functions to announce specific identities, create certain meanings, and facilitate particular interpersonal relationships" (Gudykunst, 2004, p. 185).

It is interesting to note that code-switching in the second language classroom can arise and be used in any of these functions. Most frequently, however, a teacher's use of a mother tongue in a second language classroom situation is for the purpose of *scaffolding*– to assist students in some aspect of learning or using the L2 which proves allusive or troublesome. It is in this sense that *code-switching* is most often used in this paper (for more details about code-switching see Appendix A). Code-switching here refers to the occasional classroom use of the more familiar native language to support learning of a second language.

However, as the discussion indicates, the use of code-switching in second language classes has been and continues to be controversial. The intent of this thesis is to assess the attitudes and practices of second language teachers with respect to code-switching in their own teaching.

Scaffolding

One of the aims of this study is looking at perceived use and usefulness of the L1 (Turkish) of a group of university level bilingual Turkish teachers of English in the teaching of the English language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Inevitably, one must consider if and how Turkish teachers see their use of native language as effectively supporting their teaching of English. The broad set of such of possible uses of native Turkish in English classes has been referred as

scaffolding.

The term *scaffolding* is metaphorically borrowed from building site construction and refers to a temporary structure holding men and materials in the erection of a building. In education, scaffolding has been defined both narrowly and broadly. It has been described as "assisted performance" and more explicitly as "all those active interventions…[which] allow the learner to gain explicit information at times where it can most usefully organize and guide practice" (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005, p. 259). In the general educational setting, scaffolds may include models, cues, prompts, hints, partial solutions, think-aloud modeling and direct instruction (Hartman, 2002). The term scaffolding has been applied to ESL in situations where local teachers use L1 so that connections can be made between "the knowledge acquired by students through the medium of their first language(s) and the knowledge of the school mediated through... the language of instruction" (Martin-Jones & Heller, 1996, p. 9).

Van Lier (2004) considers scaffolding as responding to a learner's readiness to learn "in the interstices between the planned and the unpredictable" (p.162). It is interesting to note that van Lier's *readiness to learn* conception of scaffolding is linked closely in his own and other's writings with Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

In van Lier's (2004) writings and elsewhere, these notions inter-relate with the more socially conscious fields of Social Constructivism, Sociocultural Theory and Ecological Linguistics. Analyses within these fields beyond the scope of the present paper are considered. Some summary thoughts about these terms are

presented (Appendix B) to clarify how the results of the study at issue appear to have some relevance to studies in these reaches.

According to Brooks and Donato (1994), the use of L1 contributes to learners' language. In their study, in which they analyzed speech data collected from eight pairs of third year high school Spanish learners through a two way information gap speaking task, and they examined the speech acts from a Vygotskyan perspective. Accordingly, Brooks and Donato (1994) stated that *metatalk* mostly occurs in L1, especially in the conversations of lower proficiency level language learners. The authors stated metatalk is essentially metacognition *out loud*. As a result, it is quite normal that the students discuss in this stage in their native language since talking about the talk itself, requires metacognitive skills which are semiotically constructed, primarily through language" (Brooks & Donato, 1994, p. 267), and expecting the processing of both linguistic and metacognitive skills together from especially lower level language learners can sometimes be utopic. Brooks and Donato did not suggest that code-switching necessarily happens when metatalk occurs, but indicated that code-switching is quite normal when cognitive, psychological and collaboration factors are taken into account (Brooks & Donato, 1994).

Like Brooks and Donato (1994), Antón and DiCamilla (1999) based their justifications on the cognitive principles of Vygotskian Collaborative Integrationist Approach in their research. Antón and DiCamilla (1999) examined 10 Spanish beginning adult learners' collaborative process in the oral pair works, how their target language and native language functioned in this process, and whether the use of L1 contributed their L2 production in a qualitative study. The data was collected

through audio recording and transcribing the conversations of the dyads, who fulfilled three written tasks which were informative in nature. The findings showed that from socio-cultural standpoints, L1 operated as a *scaffolded help* and had cognitive, collaborative and social functions, and from pedagogical perspective, it had a crucial role in group activities where L1 facilitated the conversations among the dyads in their evaluation and understanding the meaning and the relationship between the form and the meaning in their learning processes.

Swain and Lapkin (2000) found similar results and stated that L1 smoothens the progress of international interaction in collaborative tasks in their study conducted with 44 adolescent French immersion students where the students were asked to complete a story writing task in pairs. In both of these studies this application contributed to students' lexical acquisition in a metalinguistic sense.

Reyes (2004) considered code-switching practices among younger learners. The peer interactions of 20 seven-year-old and ten-year-old, mostly of Mexican heritage, except two who were Central Americans in second and fifth grades were observed and the sociolinguistic functions of code-switching were examined by comparing these two groups. The study was conducted over eight weeks through audiotaping ten hours of conversations during the lunch break in an elementary school in Oakland, California. The results revealed that older students switched codes more frequently and by using a wider range of code-switching types to accomplish different sociolinguistic functions. This indicated that there is no parallel between lack of the capability of language use and code-switching, supporting the finding of the studies which draw on its function as a tool to mediate communication during peer interaction.

The last study to be reviewed regarding Evans's project (2009) conducted

through asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) examining code-switching practices of 100 young FL learners. The data was collected over a period of four years and the participants, who changed each year, were either French students learning English or vice versa. The aim of the study was to examine the interaction of the students and whether they learned from each other. The results revealed that CMC provides students with a beneficial platform for practicing their target language since it provides natural bilingual context and contributes to student motivation; moreover, code-switching plays a crucial role in this kind of an application in terms of making the activity at issue more enjoyable, scaffolding and collaborative learning.

Like these extended studies, considerations of scaffolding see learning as being a social enterprise whether the social interaction is between peers in informal interaction or between learners and teachers in classroom settings. For all of these the timing and mode of interaction is critical as to whether the social interaction has a positive effect on language learning as an outcome.

Unless indicated otherwise, in this thesis scaffolding will refer to teachers' whole-class verbal interaction with students in bilingual EFL contexts. The study at issue examines the code-switching activities and whether the teachers think it has an influence on scaffolding in foreign language learning. While examining teachers' practices, each skill will be analyzed separately. Thus, the next sub-section will give the overview of language skills for a better understanding of how the teachers' code-switching practices can differ across skills.

The Role of L1 in Teaching Different Language Skills

These are sometimes grouped as Receptive vs. Productive Skills or as the

Oral Skills and the Written Skills.

Table 1

Categories of Language Skills

LANGUAGE SKILLS	*Productive Mode*	*Receptive Mode*
Written Mode	Writing	Reading
Oral Mode	Speaking	Listening

A number of scholars have resisted these divisions, arguing that reading is a creative act (e.g., Carroll, Devine & Esky, 1990) and that writing must be an implied conversation between author and reader (Robinson, 1987). Somewhat along the same line, thought has been given to the idea that in day to day life language *skills* are integrated – we respond to a telephoned request by sending a written memo; the news is read on the radio to which people listen, etc. Therefore, it might be said, language skills should be integrated in language instruction (e.g., Rodgers, 2002; Kumaradivelu, 1994).

However this may be, most instructional language program classes are organized by proficiency level and by specific skills. Sometimes the Big Four are supplemented by other nominal skills which are not necessarily given components of the Big Four. Thus, Rodgers (2002) discusses a program which comprised eight skills areas – Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking, Grammar, Vocabulary, Pronunciation and Conversation.

English Medium Instruction in

Tertiary Level Education in Turkey

The program at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages (AUSFL),

where this study was conducted, typically assigns teachers to one or more of the Big

Four skill areas and one of two student proficiency levels. Therefore, since the

purpose of this thesis was to determine whether teachers in AUSFL program reported

the use of L1 as an English teaching support as influenced by skills that they were

teaching and/or proficiency levels, the next sub-section will give some information

about the place of English in Turkey and how the perception of educators and

curriculum designers are in terms of code-switching to have a better understanding of

the context where the study was conducted.

> In Turkey English carries the instrumental function of being the most studied
>
> foreign language and the most popular medium of education after Turkish.
>
> On an interpersonal level, it is used as a link language for international
>
> business and for tourism while also providing a code that symbolizes
>
> modernization and elitism to the educated middle classes and those in the
>
> upper strata of the socioeconomic ladder (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998, p. 37).

According to the numbers reported by the Council of Higher Education in

2013, there are 103 state universities and 72 private foundation universities in

Turkey. One hundred and nineteen universities out of these 175 provide students with

English preparatory education and the medium of instruction in some departments as

is supposed to be English. The actual quantity or quality of English use in the

preparatory programs as well as the subject areas where English is the designated

medium of instruction is unknown (see Eldridge (1995) for an attempt to measure

degree of L1/L2 code-switching in a Turkish secondary school).

It is estimated in nominally English medium university situations the amount of L1 used varies from 0 to 100%. The Council of Higher Education in Turkey opened a program for improving the language proficiency of instructors before getting their tenure positions. However, since this policy was first applied in 2002 and is still quite new, the outcomes have not been reviewed as to effectiveness.

For most universities in Turkey, the English syllabi are Skill Based and Syllabus-driven based on CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) directives. Although there may be slight variations, the undergraduates who are required to take English education are also required to take the exams either set by the institution or announced to be equivalent to those set by the Council of Higher Education, such as TOEFL, UDS, or KPDS. Students who get a grade from any of these exams showing that they meet the standards of English language proficiency, can begin their undergraduate program. Those who cannot meet the standards are enrolled in a school or department of foreign languages and take the obligatory English language courses in order to fulfill the requirements.

When the regulations are taken into account, foreign language curriculum (as published by the Council of Higher Education, 2008), includes teaching the main grammatical principles of the language, building vocabulary knowledge, and providing students with satisfactory English language input to permit them to comprehend what they listen to and read adequately enough to succeed in their university studies.

Although "Turkey belongs to the Expanding Circle of nations, where English has no official status" (Doğaçan-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005, p. 253), the medium of instruction at most universities is nominally English. The number of English medium

universities is increasing constantly since offering English language education is a matter of prestige for the institutions in question.

Most of the schools of foreign languages mandate that English should be used exclusively in the language classroom. Using Turkish in instruction is seen as an indication of lack of confidence or competence in English on the part of the instructors.

This sub-section is followed with the research studies related to code-switching practices. The research studies in this sub-section are introduced by giving the overview of the justifications both TL-only camp and code-switching camp suggest to support their arguments.

Theoretical and Methodological Groundings TL-only Camp and Code-Switching Camp base their Argument

TL-only Camp

The TL-only camp mostly bases its support around some very strong claims. Cook (2001) (who does not necessarily support these claims) describes three main arguments. First, L2 can only be acquired in the same way as L1, with exclusive exposure to the TL. This argument supports Krashen's (1981) hypothesis of comprehensible input and natural order of acquisition. Since children acquire their first language by mere exposure to the TL, albeit sometimes in modified versions, and they end up with a perfect competence, adults should also be provided with a similar type of exposure in the process of their second language acquisition (Brown, 2007; Cook, 2001). These researchers highlight the importance of TL input for second language learning (Ellis,1994) and state that students who are exposed to TL input outperform in their learner language development, by supporting this idea with substantial evidence which verify that the quality of input and its frequency plays a

central role in language acquisition (Gass, 1997; Lightbown, 1991 as cited in Spada, 2007).

The second claim made by supporters of TL-only approach is that for successful L2 acquisition, L2 should be kept separately from L1. In other words, L1 should be used neither as a methodological tool nor as a communicative one for the sake of students' development in the target language. Basically, this theory leans towards contrastive analysis hypothesis (Lado, 1957 as cited in Spada, 2007), which suggests that using L1 has a negative effect on L2 acquisition. In this argument, according to Cook (2001), proponents of TL-only policy claim that negative transfer from L1 can lead to major problems such as focalizations in learners' language. Therefore, eliminating the use of L1, either by not comparing the grammar points of L1 with L2 or not providing students with translation, but instead by miming and defining the meanings of unknown vocabulary items and do modifications while addressing the learners, will help learners to build up a separate system in their minds for the second language in the long term. This view point is also based on the idea that the native language of the learner and the target language are in disconnected parts of the mind, thus for a better language acquisition they ought to be kept separately (Spada, 2007).

Finally, since classroom interaction is the only source of TL input for the students, students should be exposed to the target language exclusively (Krashen, 1982 as cited in Turnbull, 2001). This argument is the strongest one among these three and most of the studies that support the TL-only policy base their justifications on this argument. According to the proponents of this camp learners are mostly capable enough to guess meanings from contexts, and they do not need to understand every single word in a given context (F. Chambers, 1991; Halliwell & Jones, 1991;

MacDonald, 1993 as cited in Macaro, 2001).

Wong-Fillmore (1985) echoes this sentiment by arguing that trying to "figure out" (p. 35) the message sent in the target language is a very important part of the language learning process. In her longitudinal qualitative study, Wong-Fillmore (1985) questioned the use of L1 in four limited English proficiency FL classrooms. The results reveal that teachers' use of TL greatly affected language learning. Wong-Fillmore (1985) stated that if the message is sent in the native language of the language learner, the learner will most probably ignore the target language. Carroll's (1975) longitudinal qualitative study which was conducted a decade before Wong-Fillmore's (1985) revealed similar results. The findings of the comparative and cross-national study showed that learner language is highly affected by the amount of the teachers' use of the target language and teachers' proficiency level. Wolf (1977) found similar trends whilst examining the U.S. data from Carroll's (1975) study. The results showed that L1 in classroom activities had a negative effect on learners' TL achievement. The results of these qualitative studies point to the idea that teaching exclusively in the TL has a positive relationship with the progress of the learner language. Besides, challenging students by not giving them access to L1 and providing them with exclusive TL input had a constructive influence on language acquisition.

There have been other studies conducted which support the exclusive use of TL as well. Duff and Polio (1990), in their qualitative study, focused on (1) how much TL was used in FL classrooms by observing and recording two hours of 13 tertiary level FL classes each of which sampled a different language's education, (2) students' perceptions of TL use by conducting a questionnaire, and (3) the classroom-external and to some extent the internal variables that can possibly affect teachers'

use of L1 and TL by conducting teacher interviews. TL use varied from 10% to 100% and the use of the TL was affected by departmental policy on TL use, formal training, lesson contents and objectives. Over 70% of the students claimed that most or all TL used by the teachers was understood.

Polio and Duff (1994) conducted a follow up study by examining the data from the six of the classes collected in the 1988-89 academic year at UCLA (Duff & Polio, 1990). In this qualitative study, the focus was more on classroom-internal variables, and the language use was examined in detail to investigate how and when teachers were code-switching. The most significant result of this study was the fact that mostly instructors were not aware of the extent to which they were actually using L1 in the classroom. The authors highlight that code-switching deprives learners of receiving valuable authentic input that can help them in dealing with real situations in natural environments. Moreover, Polio and Duff (1994) concluded that the lack of meaningful interaction in the classrooms was a significant reason behind students' insufficient use of the TL.

In order to find the relationship between teachers' code choice and particular pedagogical functions, Kim and Elder (2005), who actually support the optimal position –which supports that L1 can be used to some extend– especially in peer interaction despite their strong position in favor of teachers' using TL in language classrooms, conducted a cross-linguistic study at five secondary schools in Auckland, New Zealand with seven native speaker teachers of French, German, Korean and Japanese. The results indicated that although the teachers were native speakers of the target language, the use of the TL varied among the teachers and its use was not as maximized as was expected by the authors. The authors highlighted the fact that this situation comprised limitations for students to practice through meaningful

communications and turn input into intake through the invaluable input provided by the communicative tasks. The authors speculated that the factors for teachers' constrained TL use could be the type of lesson or teachers' beliefs and attitudes in terms of the use of TL in the language learning process. Thus, they addressed the need for a wide scale study which directly focuses on teachers' awareness on their code choices and different pedagogic functions that affect their code choices.

When student motivation and anxiety are taken into account, although Young (1990) and Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) suggested that there is a positive relationship between students' TL use and their becoming anxious in the classroom environment (as cited in Levine, 2003), Calvé (1993), MacDonald (1993), and Wong-Fillmore (1985) state that maximizing the TL in language classrooms affects learner motivation positively (MacDonald, 1993; Wong-Fillmore, 1985). The findings of Levine's (2003) anonymous internet-based questionnaire also revealed different results from Young and Horwitz *et al.*'s in terms of student anxiety. Levine (2003) conducted his study with 600 tertiary level foreign language students and 163 foreign language instructors obtain information about the estimated quantity of L2 and L1 use in the classrooms during that term, the participants' beliefs about the significance of L2 use, and the relationships between students' TL use and their anxiety levels. The results displayed that there is not a positive relationship between reported amounts of TL use and learner anxiety. However, there was a highly inverse relationship. Despite the fact that the results only give the chance to generalize the situation at university levels in the U.S., it may be assumed that there is a parallel between self-esteem and the use of L1. Yet, Levine (2003) draws on some factors, such as the unbalanced amount of teacher talking time and student talking time, and speculates that these or other variables may affected the findings. Levine (2003)

concludes by stating that there is a need for a more comprehensive study to identify the other factors as well.

In fact, none of these studies directly make association between the practice of code-switching and the assumed negative effects on the progress of target language. As stated above, both the proponents of maximal position and the ones who support optimal position agree that the use of target language contributes to the learner language (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). Hawks (2001) states that the strongest motivation for the exclusive use of TL is provided when students do not share the same native language in a classroom and Duff and Polio (1990) and Polio and Duff (1994) covered this issue in their articles, stating that all the instructors were native speakers of the TL and the results might have been different if they were non-native speakers. In ESL contexts especially, since there is not a common medium for communication, there would not be any use of using L1 either as a communicative or methodological tool, and this seems to be a quite significant function for relying just on the TL. Naturally, there are classrooms where the students share the same language, and sometimes the teacher shares the same language as well. The next section will describe the code-switching camp and explain how it supports its claim for the role of L1 in language classes.

Code-switching camp

The researchers who support not banning code-switching in language classrooms mostly base their support around six main arguments. First, code-switching enhances converting input into intake (Ortega, 2007). For this argument, the supporters of the code-switching camp state that providing students with extensive access of TL input not necessarily means that this input will turn into *intake* (Ellis, 1994; Gass, 1997; Turnbull, 2001). They even believe that excluding

students' L1 to increase exposure to the TL can lead to problems in language acquisition. When the lower proficiency level language learners are taken into consideration, these problems can be seen more clearly.

The second argument in favor of using the L1 maintains that learners' L1 should be treated as a resource (Cook, 2001), and code-switching is a natural outcome of a normal part of a conversation that takes place in multilingual contexts (Hagen, 1992). As stated previously, there may be many different variables that affect participants' code-switching practices and one of the categories that was defined by Auer (1998) was *participant/ preference related switches*. The participant/ preference related switches can be used by the teachers besides the learners, in a "heterofacilitative" manner (Nussbaum, 1990 as cited in Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005, p. 235), in other words, when the teachers believe that the subject will not clearly be understood by the learners if it is explained in the TL.

According to the TL-only proponents, L1 knowledge should not be integrated into the language classrooms. As stated previously, one of the justifications for this claim is that L1 does not exist in the same compartment in the learners' mind; however, this suggestion is not based on empirical supports (Spada, 2007). Spada (2007) explains this situation by giving evidence via the results of neurolinguistic (Obler, 1982), psycholinguistic (Harris, 1992), and linguistic (Romaine, 1982) studies. These studies reveal the fact that both of the languages exist in the same mind and they are intertwined so that the functions cannot be isolated. Cook (1997 as cited in Cook 2001, p. 407) draws on the situation by giving similar justification as stated below.

[…] two languages are interwoven in the L2 user's mind in vocabulary (Beauvillain & Grainger, 1987), in syntax (Cook, 1994), in phonology

(Obler, 1982), and in pragmatics (Locastro, 1987) […] meanings do not exist separately from the L1 meaning in the learner's mind, regardless of whether they are part of the same vocabulary store or part of different stores mediated by a single conceptual system (Cook, 1997b, p. 407)

Cummins (1991, 2001 as cited in Spada, 2007) draws on the overlap of the two languages by using the term *common underlying proficiencies*. Accordingly, L1 knowledge contributes to the L2 progress, especially in the case of minority language children in bilingual education programs (Ramirez, 1992 as cited in Spada, 2007, p. 280).

The third argument for L1 use is related with Macaro's (2009) implication to some extent that the use of L1 can facilitates student autonomy. The proponents of this camp support that adult language learners' needs and expectations are far more than being proficient in TL communication. Rather, to gain a critical eye and explore the L2 culture by being aware that the culture in question has a dynamic nature and by engaging their own culture and individual identity and gaining the ability to having control over both the L1 and L2 in their own ways is a more important concept in their language acquisition. (Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 2002; Levine, 2011; Liddicoat, 2005). By providing students with a platform to explore the new language and its culture *in their own ways*, students should have autonomy over the medium in the classrooms as well (Levine, 2011). As can be seen, learner awareness is an associated concept with student autonomy. A similar notion to awareness, albeit not equivalent, is based on *Noticing Hypothesis* (Schmidt, 1990) and recent studies suggest that it is an important concept in language acquisition. The results of Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain's (2005) study lead to the question whether the students should do the codes-switching acts purposefully as well, and Levine's

(2009) study answers this question by drawing on the distinction between *awareness* and *noticing*.

The fourth argument for L1 use is that code-switching can have a scaffolding effect in classroom interaction. For this argument, researchers mostly base their justifications on the cognitive principles of Vygotskian Collaborative Integrationist Approach.

The fifth argument is that it is supported that students should have the freedom to use their L1 since it is important when humanistic needs and social identities of the language learners are taken into account. Some authors considered the situation by taking humanistic needs (Auerbach, 1993, 1994; Harbord, 1999) and political identity and power relationships (Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992; Van der Walt, 1997; Wikeley, 1999) into consideration along with pedagogical ones. The empirical and non-empirical studies done taking these issues into account are mostly conducted in second language contexts and there are some arguments which are around unequal power relationship. Phillipson (1992) states that the exclusive use of L2, is a form of linguistic imperialism. Van der Walt (1997) echoes this argument by stating that ignoring the L1 of the language learners is also ignoring the associated culture. Horner and Trimbur (2002) call into question the TL only policy in language classrooms by drawing on the nationalistic and imperialistic roots of this policy (as cited in Levine, 2011).

Finally, it is suggested that a power relationship can also be seen among the teachers and the learners when one of the interlocutors (student) is in a less adequate position in expressing himself/ herself than the other one (teacher). Stables and Wikeley (1999) draw attention to the humanistic needs of the language learners and consider the situation from a sociological perspective. In their article, a project,

conducted in 1996, is mentioned in which students in the West of England were asked about whether they felt that modern foreign languages are important or not and why they liked or disliked them. The results were compared with a similar project done in 1984/5. Although there had been some changes in curricula and teaching approaches, the project revealed similar results. The student attitudes were quite negative much like in the earlier study. The findings revealed that one of the factors was power differentials between students and the teacher. Power differentials, in other words, the gap of competence of expressing themselves in the TL between teacher's and students' being too wide, may cause hindrance in communication and can have deleterious effects on students' motivation and involvement in the classroom activities.

There have been several studies conducted supporting the role of L1 either used as a methodological or communicative tool. An interesting example for L1 used as a methodological tool is Spada, Lightbrown and White's (2005) study which was done by conducting pre- and post-tests, which consisted of written and oral production and paper-pencil metalinguistic tasks, were conducted, and *meta-talk* interview regarding possessive pronouns were held right after the post-tests. Spada, Lightbown and White (2005) examined whether explicit instruction that included contrastive information about the L1 and L2 was more effective than explicit instruction without a contrastive component. They suggested that similarities between the first and second languages especially if the students share the same native language can be misguiding for the learners in language learning context. The two test groups received explicit instruction whereby the teachers also compared the focused structures of the target language with the students' native language. The two control groups also received explicit instruction, albeit without contrasting clues.

The, the results showed that the test groups, the groups, which received instruction on the possessive determiners, outperformed the control groups on tasks assessing the knowledge of this feature. It is inferred that the nature of the linguistic features could be the reason of the different results of the two groups who received instruction on different structures, since the misunderstood and therefore misused possessive determiner could have led to a possibly bigger communication breakdown when compared with a conversation where a question without inversion was used. Van Patten and Cadierno's (1993) *input processing instruction* illustrates this issue very well. Accordingly, VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) propose that by making changes in the internalized knowledge, the direction of focused instruction should be moved on the input processing where the actual form-meaning connection occurs.

Nzwanga (2000) conducted a study examining the quantity of the use of TL and L1 by both the teachers and the learners and categorized the functions of code-switching by examining fourteen hours of records. The data was collected by videotaping three intermediate level French courses by means of conversation analysis. Teachers in Nzwanga's (2000) study had negative attitudes towards using L1 in language classrooms. The results revealed that the use of L1 was quite limited by both the instructors and the students. However, although the use of L1 was not appreciated by the lecturers and its use was mostly avoided by them in the classes where communicative approaches were being used, sometimes its use was inevitable in some cases such as when students were doing pair or group work, during the extracurricular times, practicing a topic that requires high skills, explaining a teaching point, bridging communication gaps, and translating (Nzwanga, 2000, p. 109). As a result, Nzwanga (2000) concluded by emphasizing that L1 has a role in functioning both as a communicative and as a pedagogical tool in language

classrooms.

McMillan and Turnbull (2009) conducted a small scale case study to find two Grade 7 late immersion teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the teachers' use of the TL and L1 in late French immersions in Canada, their code-switching practices and the factors that contribute to these beliefs, attitudes and practices. The authors also wanted to examine the way in which the teachers' belief systems were formed. One of the teachers was a native speaker of the TL and the other one was a non-native speaker. The data were collected through one-on-one semi-structured interviews with each participant The results revealed that although both teachers preferred to switch to L1 over the course of the first weeks, in general, the teachers' use of L1 showed some variations. The authors also reported that teachers' bilingual identity, their experiences, and the manner in which they learned their second language had important effects on their beliefs and practices. The results found in this study supported the findings of studies that reported that judicious use of the L1 does not necessarily have students avoid using TL rather it can facilitate learners' comprehension and increase their TL production (Butzkamm, 1998; Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain, 2004; Macaro, 2005) and it supported the idea, as suggested by Macaro (2001), that trying to use TL-only can result with an overtly simplified language in the classroom, which also leads to work with the language in an extremely unnatural environment, actually against the nature of communicative approaches. The authors concluded by highlighting the fact that more research should be conducted which would examine the issues in question by drawing on the incomprehensiveness of the study.

Macaro (2009) conducted two studies examining whether code-switching played a role in the process of learner language, specifically, vocabulary learning

either in short term or long term. The subjects in the first study, which was a quasi-experimental one, were 159 16-year-old Chinese students who were learning English, and whose language proficiencies were found to be the same according to the school proficiency test. Students were provided with different texts in two different oral interaction sessions between the students and the teacher. Before the sessions, students took a pre-test of their perceptive vocabulary knowledge to identify the target vocabulary items. Macaro (2009) applied a counter balanced study design on two groups where the same teacher provided students with either second-language definitions or the first language equivalents. The third group, which was provided with both types of instructions in context, functioned as a control group. The results of neither the other immediate post test nor the two delayed post tests revealed significance. Thus, the author did not draw on any pedagogical implications, however, suggested that the type of information appeared to be insignificant and different kinds of instructions on vocabulary items (L1 or L2) could be given by taking classroom conditions into account.

The second study was also conducted in China in two universities. Like the previous one, it examined the effect of code-switching on learner language, albeit from a different perspective. It tried to discover what the students' *strategic reactions* were when they were exposed to teacher code-switching by using qualitative procedures. Strategic reactions were defined by Macaro (2009, p. 43) as cognitive and metacognitive processing in the working memory. The results showed that there was a complex relationship between L1 and L2 and the reasons for code-switching could not be explained just by drawing on the difficulties caused by the semantic structure of the lexicon. Although the findings of the two studies did not provide definite evidence that use of L1 contributes better to L2 vocabulary acquisition or L1

has the power of turning input into intake, Macaro (2009) states that there is no evidence which supports the opposite as well. Thus, more research should be conducted to find whether there is a parallel between them or not. In his suggestions, by drawing on learner autonomy, he proposed that code-switching should be considered as an alternative in language classrooms, especially when the learners request its use and they think that it is more beneficial for them in their process.

Liddicoat (2003) draws on another perspective of the study's sociological aspect by describing culture as a dynamic practice which is different from national culture. Here, the individual and the reaction of the individual to the society and building the culture of the self are emphasized. Fuller (2009) conducted a study in Germany which revealed quite interesting results in terms of the relationship between code-switching and social identity. The data collection for this study took place in Berlin, Germany in a dual immersion context with the participation of 65 learners whose mother tongue was either German or English, who were nine to eleven years old and taking education in fourth and fifth Grades. Around 100 hours of small group and pair work interactions were recorded. The results indicated that certain codes were correlated with certain tasks, activities or the interlocutors. Moreover, the practices of code-switching were associated with social identity which was related with the context per se. In other words, it helped the learners to create an image and in turn a dual identity, such as being both an American and a German. The author speculated that the situation would be similar in second or foreign learning contexts and learners were also code switch for organizing conversations besides creating social identities.

Ellwood (2008), like Fuller (2009), draws on the identity related and social factors of code-switching in language classrooms. In her observation study which she

conducted in an English language program at a university in the U.S. and an intercultural communication setting with the participation of 15 international exchange students and four language teachers, Ellwood (2008) sought to find the correlations between code-switching and identities and whether the functions of code switching were the same when students' practiced the code-switching behavior with their peers and their teachers. Along with more idiosyncratic identities, the results of the code-switching data indicated dichotomies between students' aligning themselves to the role of *good student* and the tasks which they were required to complete for not *losing face* in the social environment and their violating these norms in support of their "classroom resistance" for manifesting their criticisms against some aspects, such as their roles in the class, teachers' methods or knowledge and the topics taught in the course (Ellwood, 2008, p. 544). Ellwood associated the latter act with their age and their being more critical when compared with younger learners. When the former act is taken into account, it was assumed that the students aligned through code-switching for understanding and clarifying the task or the instructions. The third most salient identity Ellwood (2008) stressed was students' wish to be appreciated for their international personalities. Ellwood drew on the fact that there might be many different reasons for a learner to code switch so not only the "normative role[s] of student[s]" (p.554) should be considered but also the "fluidity and idiosyncrasy of identity" (p.554) should be considered while examining the code-switching act through the lenses filtering identity issues.

When different approaches so far are considered, it can be clearly seen that both camps which either support TL-only or code-switching have strong justifications for supporting their arguments. With the start of the communicative movement the use of L1 was also strictly criticized and the argument about

exploitation of the use of L1 (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) started. However, later another discussion started that *code-switching* is practically in the nature of communication and trying to avoid its place in the language classroom is more than unrealistic (Cook, 2001). As a result, a wide theoretical debate started in the language learning community about which instructional method, TL-only or code-switching, is more affective in the development of the learner language.

Abovementioned studies examined the use of L1 considered socio-cultural and/ or pedagogical perspectives. The focus of some studies have been the practices of L1 and L2 uses in the classrooms, functions of choices, the variables that affect the choices and are affected by the choices, and students' and/ or teachers' attitudes towards different code-choices in language.

However, to my concern, the studies conducted so far have not focused on the specific types of lessons, although the importance of the type of the lessons was briefly reviewed in certain studies (Kim & Elder, 2005). Moreover, teachers' practices and attitudes were not examined by taking into account the higher and lower levels in different skills. This is a valuable study since these factors are examined in detail by means of qualitative analysis. Moreover, to my concern, the methodological use of L1 is only examined in grammar instructions; however, in this study its use in different skills is examined in detail.

Researchers who either support TL-only or code-switching have reasonable and strong justifications in terms of pedagogical, sociological, or psychological principles. Yet, as Macaro (2001) and Turnbull and Arnett (2002) stated, to date, there is relatively little empirical evidence. Levine (2003, p. 344) explicates the reason for the limited amount of studies by drawing on "the amount or nature of TL versus L1 use upon which to make sound pedagogical and policy decisions" (Levine,

2003, p. 344).

Despite the lack of evidence to support the restriction of the use of L1 in the language classes, from the feedback of colleagues teaching at different universities in Turkey, the researcher realized that universities in Turkey primarily adopt a TL-only policy. Regardless of the fact that there is evidence for the benefits of using L1 in some situations, the use of L1 in language classes is a matter of loosing prestige for the language instructors. Although there may be different factors that affect teachers to choose switching to L1 (such as the students' metacognition that are in process in especially metatalks, their language proficiency levels, task or utterance difficulties, time shortage, students' attitudes towards the culture of the target language, their efforts to protect their social identities and imbalanced power-relationship caused by teachers' preferring TL-only, and the nature of the task), mostly it is considered to be a question of the teachers' proficiency levels not being high enough for using L2 extensively or their indolence. The study will turn the attention to examining what the teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 and practices in their language classrooms.

Conclusion

In this chapter first, the historical perspective of using L1 in language learning was presented. Code-switching was defined and the relationship between codes-witching and scaffolding was examined. Thereafter, the role of L1 in teaching different languages was examined. Later, the place of English in tertiary level education in Turkey was discussed. Finally, the relevant literature was reviewed by describing (1) the grounding of TL only camp and giving studies supporting its point of view, and (2) the basis of code-switching camp and again giving examples of the studies supporting this camp.

In the next chapter, the research methodology is presented by giving detailed information about the setting, participants, instruments, and data collection, and a general explanation about the quantitative data analysis procedures to examine teachers' attitudes towards using L1 in language classrooms, and their practices.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of the study was three folded: (1) to investigate EFL teachers' attitudes towards their use of Turkish in EFL classrooms, to examine their reported practices in regard to their use of Turkish in their classrooms while teaching different (2) skills and (3) language levels. The research questions addressed in the study were as follows:

1. What are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in EFL skills-focused classrooms?

2. What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

3. What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

4. What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

5. What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

This chapter outlines the methodological procedure for the study by presenting the setting, participants, instruments, and the procedure of the data collection.

Setting

This study was carried out at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages (AUSFL), Eskişehir, Turkey in the spring semester of the 2010-2011 academic year. AUSFL has two departments, the Basic Languages Department, in other words, the department for preparatory school, and the Modern Languages Department, the department for obligatory or elective language courses given in the departments. The Basic Languages Department, which is the research context, is responsible for teaching English, German and French for preparing the students to survive in their departments with regard to their language proficiency and academic language skills. While German and French preparatory classes serve only the School of Education, the English classes offered by the Basic Languages Department serve over 2000 students enrolled in many departments at the university. In this program, a skill-based approach is used for teaching English. The skills are provided by means of four courses: writing, grammar in context, speaking-listening and reading in the current curriculum and course hours depend on the proficiency levels of the students. The proficiency levels of the students are determined by means of a placement test that is administered at the beginning of both the fall and the spring terms. According to their placement test scores, students are placed in one of the five levels: Beginner (only offered in the fall semester), Elementary, Lower Intermediate, Intermediate, and Upper Intermediate, and in the spring term, they are placed in Elementary, Lower Intermediate, Intermediate, Upper Intermediate and Advanced levels. If they score 70 or above in either the fall or spring term they have the right to choose not to study in the preparatory school and go on their education in their respective departments. However, if they choose to attend the classes in the preparatory school, they are required to fulfill the prerequisite for passing to their departments.

The medium of instruction in the departments varies at Anadolu University depending on the departmental policies of each department, as well as the professors who teach in those departments and their proficiency levels. Some departments use English as a medium of instruction, and these departments require their students to have the passing grade that is 70 in AUSFL in an English language proficiency exam before taking classes associated with their majors. The students can either submit a petition to the administration of the School of Foreign Languages for being transferred to their department by being obliged to have a passing grade from the proficiency test registered by the AUSFL or an official test, such as UDS (University Proficiency Exam), KPDS (Civil Servants Proficiency Exam), TOEFL® (Test of English as a Foreign Language) until they graduate, or they can study one to four semesters in the School of Foreign Languages by being exclusively integrated in their language process and try to get a passing grade during that time. If they cannot obtain a passing grade after this period, they are transferred to their departments in any case, but they need to have a passing grade before their graduation can be accepted as graduates of that department. On the other hand, for the departments in which the medium of instruction is Turkish, a passing grade in the English proficiency exam is not compulsory. For these students this program is optional, and if they want to go to their faculties, they need to submit a petition to the administration in AUSFL at the end of the first or second semester for being transferred to their departments. These two conditions depend on the policy of the departments.

Participants

One hundred and twenty of 130 EFL teachers working in the Basic Foreign Languages Department participated in the study. The ones who did not participate

were either on leave for personal issues, such as for maternal leave or military service, or were native speakers of the TL. In other words, they were instructors who did not know Turkish well enough to use it for scaffolding in their classrooms. The methodology of the study is comprised of one path: collection and analysis of *questionnaire data* collected through a teacher survey. The participants varied according to their gender, experience, educational backgrounds and the skills and levels they were responsible for when the study was conducted. Table 2 presents the demographic information about the participants who completed the questionnaire.

Table 2

Demographic Information about the Participants

Skills/Levels	Gender		Years of Experience					Education			Total
	Female	Male	0-5	6/10	11/15	16/20	21+	BA	MA	PhD	
Reading											66
Higher	9	4	2	5	4	-	2	6	7	-	13
Lower	41	12	17	19	10	6	1	38	15	-	53
Writing											67
Higher	12	5	1	8	4	1	3	10	7	-	17
Lower	37	13	23	14	9	3	1	37	13	-	50
Listening/Speaking											62
Higher	9	4	2	5	5	-	1	7	6	-	13
Lower	38	11	13	14	17	2	3	28	19	2	49
Grammar											69
Higher	8	5	1	5	5	-	2	6	7	-	13
Lower	40	16	6	23	17	5	5	31	23	2	56

Instruments

Questionnaire

Table 3

The Layout of the Questionnaire

Sections	Frameworks
I. Background Information	experience, education, the courses and levels that the participants instructed
II. Attitudes towards the Use of Native Language in Language Classrooms (19 questions)	***comprehensible input, the natural order hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, institutional factors, image, turning input into intake, cognitive skills, mediation tool, authenticity, cognitive and metacognitive development, scaffolding, collaboration, social interaction, social and psychological needs, social/political identities, power relationship/ideological reasons
III. A. *Communicative Practice in terms of the Use of Native Language in Language Classrooms (14 questions)	****grammar and reading, writing, listening and speaking skills, warm up, preparation, practice, production and post production stages, feedback, error correction
III. B. **Methodological Practice in terms of the Use of Native Language in Language Classrooms (14 questions)	****grammar and reading, writing, listening and speaking skills, definition and explanations, strategies

Note: *use of L1 in language classrooms in a single utterance or conversational exchange to facilitate the conversation; in other words, code-switching, **comparing L1 and L2 (e.g., grammar, organization, vocabulary, meaning, etc.) to make the students familiar with the target components, ***frameworks created by examining the bases both code-switching camp and TL-only camp grounds its arguments, ****the skills and practices done in each skill constructed the frameworks of the subsections in this part of the questionnaire.

In the process of preparing the questionnaire, first an effective framework (see Table 3) was developed. For this, the research problems were examined and the key variables in the research were brainstormed. Next, the empirical and non-empirical studies which supported the use of L1 (Appendix C) and which were against code-switching (Appendix D) were identified for preparing the questionnaire items. Later, the statements of the second part of the questionnaire (II. Attitudes

towards the Use of Native Language in Language Classrooms) were designed by taking both the positive and negative attitudes revealed in the literature into account.

In this study, the aim was examining two variables and whether they were influential in the teachers' code-switching practices. The first aim was to find whether students' being in lower proficiency level or higher proficiency level affected teachers' code choices and the second aim was to examine whether the skills that the teachers were teaching determined their use or non-use of L1.

Elementary and lower intermediate classes compromise the lower levels. Beginner groups were not included since the questionnaire data was gathered in the second semester, and in this semester in AUSFL beginner programs are not provided. The higher proficiency levels consist of intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced levels. The reason for this categorization is the fact that according to the description of the currently allotted curriculum in this institution the students are expected to reach intermediate level in two semesters, so the boarder is considered to be intermediate level.

The variables that affect their practices in terms of the use of L1 were identified by taking the research questions into account (Figure 1).

Figure 1
Outline for Examining the Variables
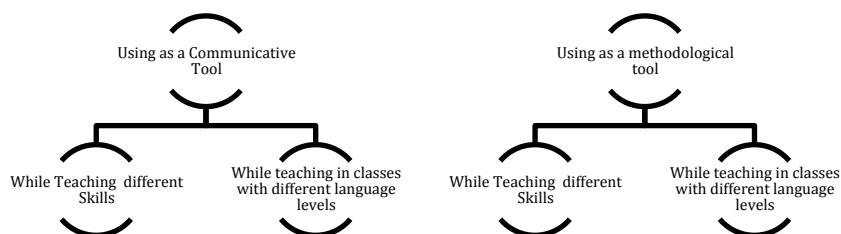
Following this procedure, the researcher designed questionnaire items by using the attitudes revealed in the literature (Appendix C and D). For creating a questionnaire pool, the suggestions of 19 language instructors who were teachers at 16 different universities in Turkey (Anadolu University, Fatih University, Yıldız Technical University, Hacettepe University, METU, Gazi University, Cumhuriyet University, Celal Bayar University, Dicle University, Pamukkale University, Zonguldak Karaelmas University, Osmangazi University, Erciyes University, Kocaeli University, Akdeniz University and Uludağ University) were taken. Since the items were translated into Turkish, the language of the items became much more complicated; therefore, as all teachers were proficient in English language, the items were designed in English.

In preparing the questionnaire format, the most difficult part was keeping it simple and reader friendly because there were three different sections, one of which had two subsections. Besides, in the last section, which had two subsections, the participants would be asked to concentrate on only one skill that they were instructing and state both the skill and the proficiency level of the learners. The layout changed five times and the layout of the last version (Appendix E) is given in Table 3 and described above.

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of *demographic information*. The gender, experiences and educational backgrounds of the participants and the courses that they were responsible for were asked in this part. The participants were given participant numbers and the names of the participants were kept anonymous in the interest of confidentiality.

The focus of the second section was respondents' *general attitudes* towards the use of L1 in language classrooms in an EFL setting. In this section, teachers were asked to answer 19 questions about their attitudes regarding the use of L1 in language classrooms by choosing the best answer among the four-point Likert scale that ranged between *Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree*. The meanings of seven items in this questionnaire were in the opposite direction to the remaining of the questionnaire, so they were reverse coded through the Social Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 before analyzing the data quantitatively by means of the same software.

In all the scales, it was decided to eliminate the middle items since these items (*neutral* in this section – *sometimes* in the *Practices Section*) would have provided vague data. Thus, the teachers' would either have a positive or a negative stand. Moreover, the researcher wanted to prevent the possibility of the respondents' using the middle category for *avoiding making a real choice* or for *not spending much time on their decision* (Dörnyei, 2003).

In the third section, teachers were asked to report their communicative and methodological practices in terms of their use of L1 in their language classrooms by choosing the best answer among the four-point Likert scale that ranged between *Never* and *Always*. Accordingly, this section was compromised of two sub-sections.

In both sections, teachers marked the courses and the level of the learner language that they were teaching during that semester at the beginning of the questionnaire. The teachers were then asked to mark the alternative that best corresponded to their practices in the scale (never/almost never/ almost always/always) by taking the courses and levels that they had marked into account. They were asked to consider only one of the language levels if they were teaching a

course in more than one level in a skill. This was done for being able to formulate statistical comparisons among teachers of higher and lower language level students.

The first sub-section was designed to find whether the teachers were switching codes (using L1 as a communicative tool) and if they were switching, it was aimed to find how frequently and in what kind of activities they were switching from English to Turkish. This section consisted of 14 items and specific columns were provided for each course (reading, writing, speaking/listening, and grammar). Teachers were asked to fill in the column(s) by taking into consideration the courses that they were teaching that semester.

The second sub-section aimed to find whether teachers were comparing L1 with L2 in different skills and different practices with the intention of facilitating their teaching, in other words, their practices were based on methodological concerns. The design of this section was the same as the previous one and this section also consisted of 14 items. However, since the methodology of each skill would show some differences, some rows for some questions were blurred in each skill (Appendix E). In both sections a four-point Likert scale that ranged between *Always* and *Never* was used.

Data Collection Procedures

The pilot study for the questionnaire was conducted on the 7th of March, 2011 with five MATEFL students who were teaching at different universities in Turkey and five teachers, who had either an MA or a PhD degree in ELT, and who were teaching English during that semester in AUSFL, Modern Languages Department. The participants in the pilot study were asked to write comments on the

questionnaire about what they liked and what not, the reasons and to write give some suggestions. Based on the received feedback, some changes in the organization of the questionnaire were made for making the questionnaire more reader-friendly (e.g., the instructions were simplified a couple of times since the message was already quite complicated to understand, and the format was changed so that it could take less space and would look more reader friendly). The questionnaires were distributed to all 120 language instructors who were teaching in the Basic Languages Department during that term. The questionnaires were administered and collected between the 14th and 18th of March, 2011. Prior to analyzing the questionnaire, the items were tested for reliability. The results of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient are given in Table 4. These results reveal that the items in the teachers' questionnaire are reliable.

Table- 4
Reliability Analysis of the Scales Used in the Study

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
	PART 2 (Attitudes)
Attitudes	.80
	PART 3 – A (Communicative Practices)
Reading	.99
Writing	.99
Listening/Speaking	.99
Grammar	.99
	PART 3 – B (Methodological Practices)
Reading	.98
Writing	.99
Listening/Speaking	.98
Grammar	.99

Data Analysis Procedure

In this study, the quantitative data gathered via the questionnaire were analyzed by means of SPSS version 11.5. The data collected from the questionnaire

to find EFL teachers' attitudes and in what ways they report using the L1 when teaching different skills and levels were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Tests of normality were employed to see if the data were normally distributed, and the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests (Appendix F) showed that the data in any of the sections were not normally distributed. Thus, for the sections of the questionnaire either the results of the non-parametric tests or descriptive statistics results were reported.

All the questions in the questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive or inferential statistics. SPSS Version 11.5 was used to compute the measures of central tendencies and measures of variables of all the Likert-scale questions. To compare teachers' communicative and methodological practices Mann-Whitney U Test was used in order to see whether there was any significant difference between teachers' use of L1 in lower and higher levels when the skills they were teaching were taken into account. To answer the second research question, the findings related to the attitudes of the teachers were calculated by using descriptive statistics.

The results obtained from the analysis of questionnaires are presented in two sections below. In the first section, the attitudes of teachers towards code-switching and using target language only were examined via analyzing the related parts in the questionnaire data. The questionnaire results were presented by using descriptive statistics. Later, the interpretations were presented along with the descriptive statistics results.

In the second section, analysis of the questions related with the teachers' use or non-use of L1 as a communicative or methodological tool in their classrooms is

provided to compare whether there were similarities or differences between their tendencies when the language levels of the learners were taken into account. For getting more precise results, the lower and higher levels were compared in different categories. The categories were created according to the skills the teachers were teaching, namely, speaking & listening, reading, writing and grammar (see Table 5).

Table 5
Categories in the Questionnaire

	Reading	Writing	Listening/Speaking	Grammar
(Communicative Use of L1)				
	Higher Levels	Higher Levels	Higher Levels	Higher Levels
	Lower Levels	Lower Levels	Lower Levels	Lower Levels
(Methodological Use of L1)				
	Higher Levels	Higher Levels	Higher Levels	Higher Levels
	Lower Levels	Lower Levels	Lower Levels	Lower Levels

Conclusion

In this chapter, general information was given concerning the purpose, setting, participants, instruments, procedure for data collection, and data analysis of the study. In the next chapter, the results obtained from the questionnaire data will be presented and analyzed.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This study examined how teachers at Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages (AUSFL) perceive the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms through investigation of teachers' attitudes and practices in terms of using Turkish in their EFL classrooms.

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in EFL skills-focused classrooms?

2. What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

3. What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

4. What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

5. What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

Teachers' Attitudes towards the use of L1 in EFL Skills-focused Classrooms

The questions in Section Two of the questionnaire aimed to investigate teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in ELT classrooms in general. The section was comprised of 19 questions in total.

The questions are presented in three categories: (1) teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in general, (2) attitudes about the learners' progress, and (3)

attitudes related with humanistic needs. In the first category, teachers' general perception about the use of L1 was examined. In other words, what they thought about code-switching and comparing L1 with L2 were investigated. Moreover, teachers were asked whether they thought that students had bias against teachers who used L1 in language classrooms.

Table 6

Teachers' Attitudes towards the use of L1 in general

	n	S-D %	D %	A %	S-A %	M	SD
1. (Reversed item) Teachers should only use the target language in their classrooms.	120	5%	34.2%	54.2%	6.7%	2.63	.69
7. (Reversed item) Comparing English with Turkish causes confusion among the students.	120	5.8%	31.7%	57.5%	5%	2.62	.68
12. Using only English is challenging for the students.	120	2.5%	15.8%	71.7%	10%	2.89	.59
15. (Reversed item) If the teachers use Turkish in the classroom, students have doubts about the teachers' English proficiency.	120	-	27.5%	53.3%	19.2%	2.92	.68

Note: *n*= number of participants; S-D= Strongly Disagree; D= Disagree; A= Agree; SA= Strongly Agree; *M*= Mean Score

Questions 1, 7, 12, and 15 in Section Two inquired about teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in general (see Table 6). According to the data, mostly the teachers seem to have negative attitudes towards the use of L1. However, the distribution of the responses to these statements shows that the percentages of the *maximal position* (Agree that TL should be used) are much higher than the more *virtual position* (Strongly agree that TL should be used) (Macaro, 2009).

More than half (60.9%) of the teachers showed negative attitudes towards teachers' code-switching in their language classrooms, as supported by the distribution of responses to question 1. Fifty four percent of the teachers agreed and

6.7% strongly agreed with the statement that suggests that only the TL should be spoken by the teacher in the classroom (*M* = 2.63, *SD* = .69). On the other hand, there is a great difference between the percentages of the teachers who agreed and strongly agreed with this statement. This finding may be interpreted to mean that the SFL teachers are generally positive about using primarily the TL in language the classroom.

The responses given to question 7 also support that teachers mostly prefer not to use of L1 in their classrooms. The question asks if comparing English (TL of the learners) with Turkish (L1 of the learners) can cause confusion among the learners. Five point eight percent of the teachers responded strongly disagrees and 31.7% disagree with the statement whereas 57.5% of the teachers agree that it can cause confusion among the students (*M* = 2.62, *SD* = .68). However, the percentage of the teachers who strongly agree, albeit a little, is less than the percentage of the ones who disagree. This might be related to the ambiguity caused by the statements' being too general. What teachers understand by the expression *confusion* may be different from each other.

Seventy two percent of the teachers agree and 10% strongly agree with the statement (*M* = 2.89, *SD* = .59) "using only English is challenging for the students". This data support the related literature which suggests that learners' being challenged while they are trying to figure out the message is more important than understanding every single item in a message (Wolf, 1977; Wong-Filmore, 1985).

Among the statements that ask for the teachers attitudes towards the use of L1 in general, maybe the most straightforward one was statement 15 which asked the teachers whether they think that if teachers use Turkish in the classroom, students have doubts about the teachers' English proficiency level. None of the teachers strongly disagreed with this statement; however, 27.5% disagree that talking in the native tongue of the learners may threaten the prestige of the teacher in the classroom. On the other hand, more than half (72.5%) of the teachers either agree or strongly agree that, for a better image, the teachers should convey the communication in TL ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 68$).

The general impression is that teachers are in favor of the classroom languages' being in the TL; however, the results show that most of the teachers who support the use of TL only maintain a maximal stand - which supports that only the TL should be used- rather than a virtual one - which supports that in some situations (which will be demonstrated in the forthcoming subsection) code-switching can help learner language.

In the second category, whether teachers thought that the use of L1 in language classrooms affected learner language either positively or negatively was investigated. As stated in Chapter two, TL-only camp strongly supports that using L1 in language classroom has negative effects on learner language. However, code-switching camp suggests that none of the findings is inconclusive in terms of the harmful effects on learner language. Moreover, it suggests that code-switching may contribute to the learners' language learning process. The second part investigates teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in terms of the learners' progress and whether they think that L1 has a negative or positive effect on learner language.

Table 7
Attitudes about the Learners' Progress

	N	S-D %	D %	A %	S-A %	M	SD
2. (Reversed item) Switching to Turkish in their classroom has negative effects on the progress of the learner language.	120	*3.3%*	*15.8%*	70.8%	10%	2.88	.62
9. Being exclusively exposed to English input does not guarantee their acquisition.	120	8%	20.8%	63.3%	15%	2.93	.62
10. Learners' native language should be treated as a resource.	120	8%	21.7%	69.2%	8.3%	2.85	.56
16. (Reversed item) If teachers use Turkish and English for giving instructions, students will wait for the Turkish translation and they will not pay attention to English.	119	24.4%	51.3%	21%	3.4%	2.03	.77
17. (Reversed item) Using only English helps students learn the language faster.	120	7.5%	41.7%	49.2%	1.7%	2.45	.66
19. Comparing English with Turkish facilitates language acquisition.	120	3.3%	30.8%	62.5%	3.3%	2.66	.60

Note: n= number of participants; S-D= Strongly Disagree; D= Disagree; A= Agree; SA= Strongly Agree; *M*= Mean Score

Questions 2, 9, 10, 16, 17 and 19 served a different purpose (see Table 8); they aimed to investigate whether teachers use or do not use L1 for the sake of the progress of the learner language and language acquisition. In response to question 2, 70.8% of the teachers agreed and 10% strongly agreed that switching to Turkish has negative effect on learners' progress (*M*=2.88, *SD*=.62). On the other hand, in response to question 9, 63.3% of the teachers agreed, and 15% strongly agreed that using only TL does not guarantee language acquisition as well (*M*=2.93, *SD*=.62). Similarly, in response to question 10, 69.2% of the teachers agree and 8.3% strongly agree that L1 can be used as a resource (*M*=2.85, *SD*= .56). In contrast to question

two, these results indicate that although they are in favor of using only the TL, mostly they think that using the L1 does not guarantee their language acquisition of English.

A quite interesting result is question 16's result. Fifty-one percent of the teachers disagree and 24.4% strongly disagree with the item that indicates students wait for the Turkish instruction and do not pay attention to the previously given English instruction if always English instructions are translated (*M*= 2.03, *SD*= .77). This finding, when the previous ones are also taken into account, may imply that the SFL teachers are likely to give the instructions in TL either followed by the Turkish translation or not. Again, this may show that teachers think that using L1 does not have negative effect on the progress of the learner language. Nevertheless, that they support the use of TL should be noted.

The results of research question 17 displays that the percentages of the teachers who agreed (50.9%) that using only the TL accelerates learning are quite close to the ones who disagreed (49.2%) (*M*=2.45, *SD*=.66). This may be caused by the statements' being general. Thus, different scenarios might be in the teachers' minds while answering this question. This can also be caused by the teachers' personal differences and backgrounds since these effects can differentiate what they understand by the term *fast* in terms of language acquisition. Actually, this is a very interesting result when the fact that the numbers of the teachers who are teaching in lower level language classes being in excess of the ones who are teaching in higher level language classrooms are taken into account. The finding may suggest that either the teachers can interpret the process of different levels quite well or there is a serious problem. In other words, if the second case is valid, most probably the institution does not take learners' proficiency levels foregrounded while arranging

the loads of the schedules.

Another very interesting result is the one of question 19. Sixty-two point five percent of the teachers agree that comparing L1 with TL facilitates language acquisition. On the other hand, only 30.8% disagree with the same statement ($M=$ 2.66, $SD=$ .60). This may show that although teachers do not support the use of L1 for communicative purpose in their language classrooms, they may sometimes use it for methodological purposes.

In the last category of this part of the questionnaire, teachers' were asked whether the use of L1 was necessary when the learners' humanistic needs were taken into consideration, such as how the use of L1 affected learners' motivation or anxiety level. Moreover, whether teachers thought that using only L1 could be perceived as a threat by the learners when the learners' culture and social identity are taken into account was examined.

In this category, whether the use or non-use of L1 affected the relationships of the teachers and the learners and whether switching codes was perceived as a normal process by the teachers were also investigated. In other terms, since both the learners and the teachers shared the same L1, whether switching codes was seen inevitable by the teachers, and whether they thought that ignoring the existence of L1 could have a negative effect on the language learning process as code-switching camp supports, were asked.

Table 8

Attitudes Related with Humanistic Needs

	n	S-D %	D %	A %	S-A %	M	SD
3. If the teachers speak only in English, the students will be demotivated.	118	3.4%	38.1%	53.4%	5.1%	2.60	.64
4. If the teacher does not switch from English to Turkish, students will feel that their social identity is not respected.	119	21.8%	64.7%	11.8%	1.7%	1.93	.63
5. Using only English makes students anxious.	119	1.7%	22.7%	67.2%	8.4%	2.82	.59
6. Using only English widens the gap between the students and the teachers.	120	6.7%	42.5%	45.8%	5%	2.49	.70
8. (Reversed item) If the teacher uses Turkish, the students will be demotivated.	120	2.5%	68.3%	23.3%	5.8%	2.78	.59
11. Code-switching is a natural part of a conversation that takes place in a multilingual context, so it is very normal to switch from English to Turkish in the classroom.	120	-	7.5%	73.3%	19.2%	3.12	.51
13. Ignoring the native language of the learners is also ignoring their culture.	120	19.2%	55.8%	21.7%	3.3%	2.09	.73
14. Using Turkish sometimes to express themselves better in the class is a humanistic need of the students which should be respected.	120	1.7%	8.3%	73.3%	16.7%	3.05	.56
18. Ignoring the native language of the students and using the target language exclusively is a kind of linguistic imperialism.	119	15.1%	62.2%	17.6%	5%	2.13	.72

Note: n= number of participants; S-D= Strongly Disagree; D= Disagree; A= Agree; SA= Strongly Agree; M= Mean Score

The aim of questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 11, 14, and 18 in the questionnaire was to reveal the participants' opinions about use of L1 for the humanistic needs of the students (see Table 9). In response to question 3, 58.5% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that switching to Turkish has not a negative effect on learners in terms of motivation (*M*=2.60, *SD*=.64) and the reverse coded item asking the same

question supports the finding (*M*= 2.78, *SD*= .59).

These findings reveal that most of the teachers have students who have difficulty in, especially, doing oral communication in their classrooms. This may be one of the variables determining teachers' code-switching although they support the exclusive use of L1 in language education.

On the other hand, when the topic in question is anxiety, 75,6% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that using only the TL can cause anxiety among the learners (*M*= 2.82, *SD*= .69). These results also support the idea that teachers believe that learners fear using the TL in the classroom. This may be caused by many variables; however, students' learning the language in the EFL context and not having much opportunity to practice outside of the classroom seem to be important factors. Besides, when the English language education in high-schools is taken into account, it is quite normal that the learners feel anxious while trying to practice at university. In Turkey students have to take multiple-choice exams for being accepted to the universities. Thus, students mostly focus on structure and vocabulary knowledge and are not familiar with productive skills or listening practices.

In response to question 4, 86.5% of the teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed that not using the L1 will threaten the learners' social identity (*M*= 1.93, *SD*= .63). The same group of teachers seems to have the same inclination in their responses to statement 13. In response to the statement, 55.8% of the teachers disagreed 19.2% strongly disagreed with the statement saying that using only the TL means ignoring the culture of the learners (*M*= 2.09, *SD*= .73). Actually, in the literature these kind of cases, where the students feel threatened when their social identity is neglected, are mostly seen in second language education classrooms. In

the context at issue, where the teachers and the learners are sharing the same L1, it looks quite normal that the teachers do not see using only the TL as an action which can be misunderstood by the students when social identity and culture are taken into account. Although the last statement, statement 18, in this group is a whole other issue when compared with the previous ones, the reason of teachers' disagreeing with this statement seems to be similar with the ones of the statement 4 and 13. This statement suggests that ignoring the use of L1 is a variation of linguistic imperialism. 62.2% of the teachers disagree and 15.1% strongly disagree with this statement (*M*= 2.13, *SD*= .72). This may be because Turkey has never being a colonial country and the reason of individuals' learning and teaching English might have had mostly economical reasons. This may suggest that, when the setting of the study is taken into account, teachers' using L1 in language classrooms is not related with social, cultural and political issues, or the sensibilities of the students caused by these issues.

Item 6 states that using only the TL can act as barriers to the communication between the learners and the teacher. The percentages of the teachers' responses who agree (50.8%) with the statement are nearly on a par with the ones who disagree (49.2%) (*M*= 2.49, *SD*= .70). Similar to the 17th statement, in this statement the percentages of the agree parts and disagree ones were not expected to be so close since the number of the teachers who were teaching in lower levels were much higher. This result can be caused by the item's being related with humanistic needs so with personal differences. Since the students were in similar age groups, their needs and expectations may show similarities when humanistic needs are at issue.

Item 11 grounds its theory of bilingual contexts in everyday life. Seventy-three point three percent of the teachers agree and 19.2% strongly agree with this statement. The result may indicate that although these teachers support the exclusive

use of TL in language classrooms, they seem to be in favor of the idea that if the interlocutors in a conversation share the same L1 and L2, it is quite normal to switch from one language to the other one time to time. On the other hand, they may support the exclusive use of TL because of the learners' not having the chance of finding many other English speaking contexts rather than the language classroom in Turkey.

The same group of teachers seems to have the same inclination in their responses to statement 14.

In response to the statement, 90.0% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that students should have the option to talk in their mother tongue in case they have difficulty expressing themselves (*M*= 3.05, *SD*= .56).

In order to answer the second, third, fourth and fifth research questions to gain deeper insight into the practices of the teachers, first the communicative and then the methodological uses of each skill were analyzed independently. In each section below the researcher first presents the teachers' L1 practices for communicative purpose, and then, she presents their practices based on methodological concerns. The between group factors are teachers who teach lower language level students and the ones who teach higher language level ones.

Teachers' Reported Communicative Practices regarding the use of L1 while Teaching Different Skills

This part of the questionnaire investigated whether teachers' code-switching practices changed while teaching different skills.

Table 9

Teachers' Communicative Practices in Terms of the Use of L1

	Reading			Writing			Listening/Speaking			Grammar		
	Mdn	*IQR*	*n*	*Mdn*	*IQR*	*n*	*Mdn*	*IQR*	*n*	*Mdn*	*IQR*	*n*
Higher Level	2.07	.47	13	2.14	.61	17	1.50	.68	13	2.21	.32	13
Lower Level	2.21	.57	53	2.29	.64	50	2.00	.57	49	2.46	.63	56

Note: *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range; *n*= Number of the Participants

When the code-switching practices while teaching different skills were examined (Table 9), it was seen that in grammar lessons teachers switch to L1 in both lower level and higher level classes more when compared to the other skills. There may be different reasons for this result. The education, as stated before, in Turkey has a very explicit and form focused structure, so one of the reasons can be the students' needs and expectations.

Another issue is all of the teachers who participated in the study were non-native English speaker teachers whose first language was Turkish. In Turkey, although recently the syllabi are tried to be changed into communicative ones, for a very long time they were more structure oriented and teachers preferred direct instructions in their classrooms. This means that sometimes, although the language teachers think that providing students with TL-only input may be the best for their learner language, they cannot change their understanding of instructions because of their background.

There may be other reasons as well, such as teachers' trying to save time. The schedule of AUSFL is very heavily loaded. It is an intensive program where teachers sometimes expect students to pass about four levels in two semesters.

Because of the nature of the grammar course (e.g., giving more instructions than in the other skills) teachers may be more comfortable while teaching grammar

in Turkish. Moreover, student anxiety may be other reasons for changing codes; however, the most possible ones are *learners' expectations* and *time limitation*.

Going back to Table 9, it shows that listening and speaking classes are the least L1 using classes both in lower levels and in higher levels. The reason for this can be student motivation, classroom environment, or the teachers' attitudes in speaking & listening classes. In other words, teachers may be more flexible and tolerant to errors and mistakes, and they may be meaning focused in these classes which encourages the students to communicate with them in L2. In return, this increases the teachers' use of L2.

Another interpretation is that, maybe, the teacher talking time is more than the student talking time, which would not be appreciated especially in language classrooms. However, the teachers were asked to report how much they use L1, so there is not clear evidence that students talk in English as well.

Another reason can be the nature of listening and speaking skills and their practices. In the other skills there is mostly a constant teaching-learning process. Students want to understand a grammar point or how to write an essay exactly. They sometimes need guidance while answering reading comprehension questions or have difficulty in learning the reading strategies. In these cases, the teacher may need to get support from L1. On the other hand, in speaking learners are not fully aware that there is a learning-teaching process.

The nature of listening and speaking evaluation is also quite different from the other skills. Although the learners are expected to remember the grammar points, vocabulary, or organization of paragraphs, etc. while being tested in grammar, reading or writing, they are not expected to remember anything stated in the

classroom while being tested in listening or speaking. Practice is the key point in these skills, and most probably, teachers act in the classes accordingly.

Although reading is a receptive skill and writing is a productive one, the median scores of reading and writing are surprisingly close to each other. The reason may be caused by both of them being in written mode, and because of this, by the discussions being parallel in the classrooms. Actually, written tasks are mostly supported with reading materials and vice versa. As a result of this, the applications conducted in both skills are probably very similar to each other.

On the other hand, teachers' practices show that, especially in reading skill, teachers' use of L1 in lower level classrooms is much more than in higher level classrooms. The reason for this result may be the difficulty of the instructions, such as while teaching reading strategies, or the teachers' focusing on the input rather than the output since it can be challenging for the students in lower proficiency level to focus on both of them at once.

For more insightful analysis, see Appendix G- J. The results of the communicative practices of the teachers of each skill are also examined by finding each item's Median Score, Mean Score, Interquartile Range and Standard Deviation both in lower and higher level language classes (Reading: Appendix G, Listening & Speaking: Appendix H, Writing: Appendix I, and Grammar in Use: Appendix J).

Teachers' Reported Communicative Practices regarding the use of L1 while Teaching different Proficiency Levels

This part of the questionnaire examined whether teachers' code-switching practices changed while teaching different proficiency levels.

Table 10

Teachers' Communicative Practices in Terms of the Use of L1

	Reading	Writing	List.& Speak.	Grammar
Higher Proficiency Level	*Mdn*= 2.07	*Mdn*= 2.14	*Mdn*= 1.57	*Mdn*= 2.21
	IQR= .47	*IQR*= .61	*IQR*= .66	*IQR*= .32
Lower Proficiency Level	*Mdn*= 2.21	*Mdn*= 2.29	*Mdn*= 2	*Mdn*= 2.46
	IQR= .57	*IQR*= .64	*IQR*= .57	*IQR*= .63
Mann-Whitney U	*U*= 284.5	*U*= 286	*U*= 160	*U*= 192.5
Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)	*p*= .332	**p*= .045	**p*= .015	**p*= .008
Effect Size	*r*= -.12	*r*= -.25	*r*= -.31	*r*= -.27

*p (two tailed)<.05

Table 10 shows the results of the Mann-Whitney U Test. Moreover, descriptive statistics for both the communicative and the methodological results of each class (speaking & listening, reading, writing and grammar) were computed, including the calculations for means, medians and interquartile ranges.

When the use of L1 with the purpose of communication in reading skill is examined, it is seen that there is not a significant difference in the teachers' practices who were instructing higher proficiency levels (*Mdn* = 2.07, *IQR* = .47) and the ones who were instructing lower proficiency levels (*Mdn* = 2.21, *IQR* = 57), (*U* = 284.50, *p* (two-tailed) = .332), and the median scores are identical (*r* = -.12).

On the other hand, there are medium effect sizes in writing (*r*= -.25), in listening and speaking (*r*= -.35) and in grammar skills (*r*= -.32). When the teachers' communicative practices in higher proficiency writing classes (*Mdn* = 2.14, *IQR* = .61) and lower proficiency ones (*Mdn* = 2.29, *IQR* = .64) (*U* = 286, *p* (two-tailed) = .045) are compared, it can be seen that there is significant difference. Furthermore, the results of the higher proficiency listening and speaking classes (*Mdn* = 1.50, *IQR* = .68) and lower proficiency classes (*Mdn* = 2.00, *IQR* = .57) (*U* = 161, *p* (two-

tailed) = .006) show that there is significant difference as well. When the grammar classes are compared, it can be seen that the results of higher proficiency grammar classes (*Mdn* = 2.21, *IQR* = .32) and the lower proficiency ones (*Mdn* = 2.46, *IQR* = .63) (*U* = 192.50, *p* (two-tailed) = .008) display significant difference like the results of writing and listening & speaking classes.

The reason for these results may be both higher and lower level students having difficulty in reading comprehension tasks. Since mostly reading tasks are more difficult than the listening tasks the students may have difficulty in each level. Because of this, the students may need support in L1.

On the other hand, when the median scores of both higher and lower reading skills are compared with the ones of writing and grammar, L1 used in reading classes can be observed to be less than writing and grammar. Thus, the results may also have shown that not only in higher level language classes but also lower level ones teachers mostly avoid using L1 and try to communicate in L2.

For more insightful analysis, see Appendix G (for reading), Appendix H (for listening & speaking), Appendix I (for writing), and Appendix J (for grammar in use).

Teachers' Reported Methodological Practices regarding the use of L1 while Teaching Different Skills

In this part, whether the level of comparison - between L1 and L2- of teachers while teaching different skills differed or not was examined.

Table 11

Teachers' Methodological Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Different Skills

	Reading			Writing			Listening/Speaking			Grammar		
	Mdn	*IQR*	*N*	*Mdn*	*IQR*	*N*	*Mdn*	*IQR*	*N*	*Mdn*	*IQR*	*N*
Higher L.	2.40	1.10	13	2.27	.95	17	2.38	.88	13	2.60	1.05	13
Lower L.	2.60	.60	53	2.55	.95	49	2.50	.68	49	2.70	.60	56

Note: *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range; *N*= Number of the Participants

When teachers' practices of comparing L1 with L2 while teaching different skills are examined, again it is seen that in grammar lessons, teachers use L1 as a methodological tool in both lower level and higher level classes more when compared to the other skills. The first reason for this result may be again students' expectations of explicit instruction or teachers' feeling the need of familiarizing students with the new structure buy illustrating a structure they already know. Teachers may feel safer while comparing the two languages as well.

These findings may have resulted from the nature of the skills, in other words, the complicity of the instructions, students' demands, or institutional factors. Basically, the variety of the schedule loads of each skill and the parallelism between the course contents and the components of the final exams constitute institutional factors. Although every skill has an important weight in language acquisition, it appears to be that the students' demands for more explicit clarification may arise when the students share the opinion and attitude that they will be affected by the consequences of not fully understanding the topics while being instructed in some specific skills. These factors seem to be the reasons for the median for the teachers' use of L1 in lower language level grammar classes for being the highest (*Mdn* = 2.46, *IQR* = .63).

The results of the methodological practices of the teachers of each skill are also examined by finding each item's Median Score, Mean Score, Interquartile Range, Standard Deviation both in lower and higher level language classes. For more detailed information see Appendix K (for reading), Appendix L (for listening and speaking), Appendix M (for writing), and Appendix N (for grammar in use).

Teachers' Reported Methodological Practices regarding the use of L1 while Teaching different Proficiency Levels

This part of the questionnaire tried to find whether the level of comparison - between L1 and L2- of teachers changed while teaching higher and lower levels.

Table 12

Teachers' Methodological Practices in Terms of the Use of L1

	Reading	Writing	List.& Speak.	Grammar
Higher Proficiency Level	*Mdn*= 2.4	*Mdn*= 2.27	*Mdn*= 2.3	*Mdn*= 2.6
	IQR= 1.1	*IQR*= .96	*IQR*= .9	*IQR*= 1.05
Lower Proficiency Level	*Mdn*= 2.6	*Mdn*= 2.55	*Mdn*= 2.5	*Mdn*= 2.7
	IQR= .6	*IQR*= .96	*IQR*= .69	*IQR*= .6
Mann-Whitney U	*U*= 328	*U*= 394.5	*U*= 255.5	*U*= 322.5
Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)	*p*= .782	*p*= .747	*p*= .484	*p*= .523
Effect Size	*r*= -.03	*r*= -.04	*r*= -.09	*r*= -.08

p (two-tailed)<.05

When the methodological use of L1 between higher language level reading classes (*Mdn* = 2.40, *IQR* = 1.10) and lower levels (*Mdn* = 2.60, *IQR* = .60) (*U* = 328, *p* (two-tailed) = .789), between higher level writing classes (*Mdn* = 2.27, *IQR* = .95) and the lower ones (*Mdn* = 2.55, *IQR* = .95) (*U* = 394.50, *p* (two-tailed) = .749), between higher level listening and speaking classes (*Mdn* = 2.38, *IQR* = .88) and the lower levels (*Mdn* = 2.50, *IQR* = .68) (*U* = 291.50, *p* (two-tailed) = .640), and between higher language level grammar classes (*Mdn* = 2.60, *IQR* = 1.05) and

lower ones (*Mdn* = 2.70, *IQR* = .60) (*U* = 322.50, *p* (two-tailed) = .523) are compared, no significant results are found. The median scores are similar in reading (*r* = -.003), writing (*r* = -.004), listening and speaking (*r* = -.006) and in grammar (*r* = -.008).

Interestingly, he measures of central tendency and variability show that the use of L1 for the purpose of comparing the languages is higher in lower levels: reading (*Mdn* = 2.60, *IQR* = .60), writing (*Mdn* = 2.55, *IQR* = .95), listening and speaking (*Mdn* = 2.50, *IQR* = .68), and grammar (*Mdn* = 2.70, *IQR* = .60). It is assumed by the researcher that making comparisons between two languages require higher skills. On the other hand, it appears that these kinds of comparisons may help teachers in clarifying a topic in lower proficiency levels. This may be caused by the fact that teachers find it more effective when there is a part in the instruction which addresses a common understanding among the students.

In most of the higher levels the median scores do not exceed 2.50: reading (*Mdn* = 2.40, *IQR* = 1.10), writing (*Mdn* = 2.27, *IQR* = .95), and listening and speaking (*Mdn* = 2.38, *IQR* = .88), which appears to be caused by the fact that the students' linguistic and metalinguistic skills were high enough to understand the nature of the language without making comparisons. On the other hand, only the median score of grammar exceeds 2.50 (*Mdn* = 2.60, *IQR* = 1.05), which appears to be caused by the fact that the structures of all languages have a more concrete nature, which facilitates making comparisons. And these comparisons may help the teachers save time in the heavy load of the grammar schedule.

For more insightful analysis, see Appendix K (for reading), Appendix L (for listening & speaking), Appendix M (for writing), and Appendix N (for grammar in

use).

Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of the analysis of data obtained from a questionnaire. These data were related to the teachers' attitudes towards and approaches to L1 use in language classrooms.

AUSFL-SFL teachers seemed to have negative attitudes towards the use of L1 in language classrooms. The reason for their supporting the exclusive use of TL may be lack of adequate context for the learners to have access to TL in Turkey rather than the language classroom. Thus, although teachers agree that L1 can function as a learning tool, teachers' acting as a tool to access the L1 may have a bigger impact in the language learning classroom. These results are supported by the teachers' reports that they were using L1 in their classrooms, especially in lower proficiency level language classrooms. When the attitudes of the subjects were examined, it could be assumed that there were other reasons like the students' being anxious of talking in the public in TL and code-switching's being normal actions in a conversation where both interlocutors share the same L1 and L2. Teachers also support the idea that learners should have the opportunity to express themselves in their L1 if they really need to.

Although teachers believe that L1 should not be used in the classroom as a communicative tool, they support the idea of using it as a methodological one. This may be caused by the teachers' educational background, the language level of the students, or the heavy load of the schedules in this institution. However, whatever the factors are, the teachers' use of L1 does not exceed 2.50 median score, which means that there is parallelism between the teachers' attitudes and practices. Moreover,

there are similarities of the use of L1 as a methodological tool when the teachers' use

in higher level language classrooms are compared with the lower ones.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

This study was conducted with the participation of 120 EFL teachers in the Basic Foreign Languages Department of Anadolu University. It aimed to explore teachers' attitudes towards their use of L1 in language classrooms. The contexts where the teachers were using L1 as communicative and methodological tool and where they were not using it were also investigated by comparing their practices in four different skill-focused EFL classrooms.

This chapter will answer the research questions given in Chapter I by summarizing the main findings of the questionnaires. The similar and different points of the findings of this study and the earlier research will be reviewed. First, the general results will be presented by answering the research questions one by one, and the results of the study will be analyzed and compared with relevant literature. In what ways this study supports the findings of previous studies and in what ways they differ from previous findings will be explored. After the discussion of findings, the pedagogical implications of the study will be presented. Finally, the limitations of the study will be asserted and suggestions will be made for further research.

Results and Discussion

This section will answer the research questions of this study and interpret the findings in light of relevant literature.

Research Question 1: What are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in EFL skills-focused classrooms?

The participant teachers answered the second part of the questionnaire for this research question. The attitudes of the teachers were categorized in three topics by

taking the relevant literature into consideration.

The results for the first research question indicated that EFL teachers in Turkey mostly have negative points of view in terms of using L1 in language classrooms. However, although most of the teachers supported the non-use of L1, the results indicated that they mostly disagree rather than strongly disagree that L1 can be used in language classrooms. These results are similar to Nzwanga's (2000) study which revealed that although teachers had negative attitudes towards the use of L1 in language classrooms, it was inevitable to use it sometimes both as a methodological and communicative tool. This also supports the theory of Ellis (1984), Krashen and Terrill (1983), Polio and Duff (1994) and Turnbull (2001) who suggest that TL used by the teacher in language classrooms is the main source of input for language learners and any teachers' use of the L1 limits students' access to critical second language input. However, the findings of the teachers' views seem not to support that using L1 in language classrooms comprises limitations for students to practice through meaningful communications and to turn input into intake (Kim & Elder 2005) or using L1 has a negative effect on L2 acquisition (Cook, 2001; Spada, 2007).

The most revealing finding from the analysis of this part of the data was that teachers did not have strong bias against the use of L1. Besides, they agreed that the use of L1 is a natural outcome when the interlocutors share the same L1 and L2. This result supports Hagen's theory (1992) that code-switching is a natural outcome of a normal part of a conversation that takes place in multilingual contexts. This result also supports Brooks and Donato's (1994) indication that codes-witching is quite normal when cognitive, psychological and collaboration factors are taken into account.

The second part of the questionnaire also investigated teachers' attitudes towards the use or non-use of L1 when learners' progress is taken into account. The findings reveal that although teachers were in favor of using the TL only in their classrooms, they did not think that the use of L1 has negative effects on learner language. This result contributes not only to the justifications of TL-only camp (e.g., Ellis, 1984; Krashen & Terrill, 1983; Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull, 2001) but also the code-switching camp since most proponents of the Code-switching camp agree on the idea that target language input as provided in language classrooms has great value (Auerbach, 1991), and it should be maximized as much as possible (Turnbull, 2001). However, the teachers reject the *blind acceptance* that language can best be learned by exclusive use of the target language (Auerbach, 1991; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

However, the results indicated that teachers mostly disagreed with the idea that learners do not pay attention to the English instructions if they follow their Turkish translation. This result refutes Lado's hypothesis (1957 as cited in Spada, 2007) which claims that L1 has negative effect on L2 acquisition. Another interesting result was that although teachers support that TL only should be used in the classrooms, the percentages of the side that supported the idea and the ones that were against the idea that using only L1 accelerates the process of language acquisition were quite similar. This result may be another proof of the fact that teachers were not in the point of view that L1 has negative effect on L2 acquisition. Besides, the results also showed that methodological use of L1 was preferred more when compared to the communicative one.

In general, the results of the second part of the questionnaire indicated that teachers were mostly in favor of the use of TL in their classrooms. However, they did not have the idea that the use of L1 slows down the process of L2 acquisition, or has any other negative effects on the learner language. Moreover, teachers found the methodological use of L1 advantageous in their language classrooms.

The third part of the questionnaire aimed to investigate what teachers' attitudes were towards the use of L1 in terms of humanistic needs. This part comprises of three subsections: (1) emotional needs, (2) sociological needs, and (3) political needs.

The results indicated that emotional needs also play an important role in switching from TL to L1. In terms of the learners' motivation, teachers mostly believed that learners could be demotivated when not switched to L1 regardlessly lower level language learners or higher ones. This can be a result of lack of oral practice during the in-class hours and students' having no opportunity to practice outside of the classroom. This finding indicates that the learners do not have enough self-confidence while expressing themselves orally even though they are higher proficiency level language learners. Thus, this finding supports Young's (1990) and Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's (1986) suggestion that there is a positive relationship between the learners' use of TL and anxiety while it confutes the hypothesis of Calvé (1993), MacDonald (1993), and Wong-Fillmore (1985) which suggests that using TL improves motivation.

On the other hand, when social identity and political needs are topics at issue, although there are rather strong claims in the literature (Auerbach, 1993; Harbord, 1999; Phillipson, 1992; Van der Walt, 1997; Wikeley, 1999) supporting that code-

switching functions a socio-political tool, in this study the results indicated that these topics were the less important ones for the teachers while choosing codes. This is most probably because of the context differences between the studies in the literature, which were done in second language contexts and the study in question, which was done in Turkey, a foreign language context. Thus, because of the socio-political structure of Turkey and the teachers' being non-native speakers of the TL, social, cultural or political concerns are not at issue for teachers to switch from TL to L1.

Research Question 2: What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

The results of communicative practices indicated that except for the reading skills, all the other skills have significant differences when teachers' practices in lower proficiency level language classes are compared with the higher levels. This may have been caused by the nature of the skills. Since the reading skill mostly requires more sophisticated vocabulary knowledge when compared with the other skills, and also requires knowing some strategies, which may be difficult to acquire, in both lower and higher, teachers may have needed to change codes in similar amounts.

In terms of communicative practices there are significant differences of the teachers' use of L1 when their reported L1 use in lower level language classrooms and higher level language classrooms are compared in speaking-listening, writing and grammar classes.

For the speaking and listening classes this result can be caused by the difficulty of the instruction of the tasks. In higher levels, most probably it is easier

for the learners to understand the tasks even though they are given in TL; however, for the lower levels this may be confusing and time consuming.

When the writing skill is taken into account, the feedback sessions can be one of the reasons of the significance between the results. The higher levels are of course more capable of producing the language and receiving the message. However, since the aim of the teacher is to give feedback and make sure that the learner understands it, s/he may choose to give the written and oral feedback in writing classes in L1. Thus, teachers might have a *heterofacilitative* manner while giving feedback (Nussbaum, 1990 as cited in Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005). In other words, when the teachers believe that the learners will not clearly understand the subject, and it is explained in the TL. Besides, teachers may find giving the instructions in Turkish much more time saving.

In both of the productive skills, scaffolding may have been foregrounded by the teacher while switching from TL to L1 since the same teachers reported that they were against the use of L1 in the second part of the questionnaire. However, the fact that students' need for scaffold increases when their proficiency level is lower seems to be a very important factor in changing codes in productive skills.

The last lesson which was examined was Grammar in Context. The reason for the significant result in this lesson may be that the instructions' being more difficult to understand for the learners in the presentation part. Moreover, students' being young adults and their being in need of explicit and analytical instructions, simplifying the language may not be very helpful in this stage. These findings support Macaro's (2001, 2005) hypothesis that trying to simplify the TL can sometimes result with overtly simplified message which is not enough to express the

original message, and adult learners expect to gain a critical eye on the TL structure and they want to have control over the language that they use.

The data revealed that teachers mostly switch codes in grammar classes and the least in listening and speaking classes. There is no study conducted so far which this finding can refer to since none of the studies compared teachers' use of L1 in different language skills. However, what can be inferred from the literature is that students expect their teachers to give explicit instructions and if it is provided with meaningful contexts and tasks, explicit instruction in L1 can be very informative as well (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993).

While teaching grammar both the teacher and the students want to be sure that the topic is understood. This may be related with the requirements of the exams. In pop quizzes, midterms and finals the exam questions which test grammar knowledge oblige full grammar competence. Thus, a student who understands a grammar point properly can score high points in the related parts in an exam. However, in skills especially in speaking and listening, the learners can see the results of their studies much later. More practice is needed, so instead of giving explicit instructions teachers may think that giving TL input and trying to motivate learners to produce in TL more in their language classrooms is more important.

Although reading is a receptive skill and writing is a productive one, skills have quite similar activities. The reason for this finding may be the fact that reading activities are nearly every time supported with writing activities (e.g., post reading activity, summary, or book review) and writing activities require every time a reading passage (e.g., a model text or comprehension task for pre-writing). Consequently, the

activities done in writing and reading classes supposed to be quite similar. The focus may change, but not the instructions so much.

Research Question 3: What are the teachers' reported communicative practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

The most significant results were of listening and speaking, p (two-tailed)=.006 and writing, p (two-tailed)=.008. In productive skills, teachers tend to be more strict in using only L2 in their language classrooms; on the other hand, they may be more flexible while teaching lower level language learners. This finding may support the theory that there is a positive relationship between students' TL use and their becoming anxious in the classroom environment (Levine, 2003; Horvitz, Horvitz & Cope, 1986; Young, 1990 as cited in Levine, 2003).

According to Anton and DiCamilla (1999), Evans (2009), Jones and Heller (1996), Reyes (2004) and Swain and Lapkin (2000), code-switching can act like a scaffolding tool in language classrooms. The finding of the third research question may support this claim as well. Lower level language learners need more collaboration and co-operation (Levine, 2011), so scaffolding by code-switching may also help these learners to regulate the individuals' mental processing.

Research Question 4: What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different skills?

Similar to the results in research question four, which asked whether there were differences in code-switching practices while teaching different language skills, grammar is the course where L1 and TL are compared the most. The reasons for using L1 should be quite similar to the ones that were explained in the second research question.

On the other hand, comparing two structures helps to improve learners' analytical skills and help them to gain a critical eye. As Cullumins (2000 as cited in Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain 2009) stated, judicious use of L1 can help the teachers to draw on more sophisticated tasks which can challenge students' cognitive skills and help them improve their TL.

Research Question 5: What are the teachers' reported methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different proficiency levels?

The findings revealed no significant differences in any of the skills between the practices in lower and higher language classrooms.

Moreover, the results indicated that these teachers' reported use L1 as a methodological tool more than communicative tool in all levels and all skills. However, the results also revealed that although there may be factors which lead teachers to prefer different code choices in their classrooms, mostly they do not favor the use L1 either methodologically or communicatively. Since there is no study done so far which looks at the use of L1 as a methodological tool in different levels and since the results of the statistics indicated that there was no significant difference, the generalizations might not give correct information. In general, although not supported with significant results, according to the descriptive results, teachers seem to make use of L1 methodologically more frequently than communicatively.

Pedagogical Implications

The analysis of the data and the findings of the study suggest some pedagogical implications for the instructors, administrators and test developers. One of the main findings is that teachers mostly believed that TL should be used exclusively in language classrooms. Teachers reported that using only the TL

contributed to the learner language (Ellis, 1984; Krashen & Terrill, 1983; Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull, 2001). On the other hand, the results reveal that there were some factors affecting teachers' code choices. Teachers might think that L1 should be treated as a resource (Cook 2001), L1 may contribute to the learner language (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Evans, 2009), students' humanistic needs should be respected (Auerbach, 1993, 1994; Fuller, 2009; Liddicoat, 2003; Macaro, 2009), etc. Accordingly, either solutions for decreasing these factors should be found or code-switching should be done by being more aware of its purpose through training both the teachers and the learners so that code-switching can be used as a *scaffolding tool* and *support the learner language*. These suggestions support the hypothesis of Levine (2009) suggesting that code-switching acts should be done purposefully and consciously both by the teachers and by the students so that it raises awareness and noticing. Teacher training units in foreign language departments may provide teachers with training by taking the learners needs both in different language levels and while being taught different language skills into account.

Despite being useful as a scaffolding tool, code-switching needs to be used carefully since in an EFL context, such as Turkey, learners do not have many opportunities to access TL outside of the language classroom (Ellis, 1984; Krashen & Terrill, 1983; Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull, 2001). One of the striking implications emerging from the present study is that both as a communicative and as a methodological tool teachers reported that in grammar classes, L1 was used the most. This finding may be caused by the way the learners' grammar knowledge is tested or the learners' being used to Turkish instructions in grammar classes. Thus, it is assumed that further research is needed to find the reason of teachers' preferring L1 in grammar classes more, and accordingly, find a suitable solution for using TL more

in their grammar instructions. If the learners' demand for using L1 is caused because of the way their grammar knowledge is tested, maybe before trying to change the approach of teaching (from Grammar-Translation Method to Communicative Approach) and giving instructions, the way of testing should be changed since tests have been very effective motivators for the students. Testing units in language institutions can search for alternative testing styles which may help to reduce the anxiety level of the learners caused by evaluation so that the learners may focus more on process rather that the product.

If the students want teachers to give the grammar instructions in Turkish because they are used to Turkish instructions, especially in grammar lessons and if the problem is caused by the students' understanding of learning a foreign language, it is estimated that teacher trainers, teachers, and testing units should co-operate with other disciplines, such as education psychology to change the attitudes of the learners towards grammar instructions given in TL.

Another implication about code-switching could be that students might be encouraged when the teachers use L1 when the learners humanistic needs are the topic at issue (Auerbach, 1993; Gudykunst, 2004). In this way, the students can overcome their anxiety by speaking in their native language.

To sum up, the code-switching could be of great benefit to (1) lower level EFL students since it helps to save time, especially if the schedules are heavy loaded (Cook, 2001), (2) give instructions while teaching grammar since learners' comprehending a grammar point of another language, especially if the learners are lower level language learners, can be quite difficult for both the learners and the instructors (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), (3) have a better communication with the

learners in informal contexts and when the need for psychological support rises (Gudykunst, 2004), (4) draw on more sophisticated tasks which can challenge learners' cognitive skills and help them improve their TL (Cullumins, 2000 as cited in Turnbull & Dailey O'Cain, 2009), and (5) lower level language since it can act like a scaffolding tool (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999). However, teachers' and learners' being aware of the reasons for their practices seems to be very important. L1 should not be over-used in language classrooms since especially in EFL contexts learners do not have much opportunity to access the TL. Thus, first the teachers need to be trained, and then the students can be trained to use L1 in their language classrooms purposefully. Moreover, the curriculum needs to be more flexible; thus, teachers may not switch to L1 to save time and energy. Furthermore, testing needs to be more process based rather than product based. Hence, learner anxiety can be minimized.

Limitations

There are a number of limitations of the study. The first limitation of the study is about gathering information on the teachers' attitudes and practices only through a questionnaire, which lacks open-ended questions. This type of question is helpful to gather information as to overall attitudes apart from selected responses. After completing the questionnaires, the teachers were not interviewed as well. If some teachers from different proficiency levels had been interviewed, some of the reasons for their various answers could have been clarified, shedding light on their attitudes. The interviews conducted with teachers would provide more insights into the findings of the study. Moreover, the reason of the gap between teachers' attitudes and their reported practices could be identified by giving more vivid results.

Second, students were not included in this study; therefore, the study only gives the opinions of teachers. If students from different proficiency levels had also

been administered the questionnaires, there would have been a chance to get a better idea of the research focus of the study and to compare the results of the students with those of their teachers.

The gap of the numbers between the teachers who were teaching lower levels and the ones who were teaching higher levels was another limitation that prevented strict generalizations. Of course, the situation in the institution per se could not be changed; however, if more subjects from different schools were involved, the numbers may be more equal, and as a result of this, more generalizations could be done with the gathered data. Thus, the study's representativeness to other Turkish universities or to EFL settings beyond Turkey would be higher.

The teachers were asked to choose the level that they were teaching only in the practices part, but not in the attitudes part. This was another limitation. If the teachers were asked to consider only the higher or lower proficiency level while answering the attitudes part, not only descriptive statistics would be used but also test results could be displayed. Thus, the difference between the teachers who were teaching lower levels and higher levels could be compared.

Finally, this study reveals the results obtained from only one university in Turkey, so it does not reflect the attitudes of tertiary level teachers in Turkey. If another study with more institutions involved is carried out, the results may give a better understanding of what teachers believe about the use of L1 in their English classes. The results of such a study can be even compared with those of another country with EFL context, and this may greatly contribute to the relevant literature by adding another perspective to the field.

Suggestions for Further Research

A number of areas can be suggested for further research in the light of the findings and limitations of the study. To begin with, it could be replicated with a larger number of participants at different institutions. This replication could be varied in terms of the levels the teachers are teaching so that the representativeness of the sample would be higher.

In terms of attitudes towards using L1 in language classrooms, studies also concerning learners' attitudes could be conducted. The method of exploring attitudes could be diversified by adding interviews, open-ended questionnaire items, or other qualitative analysis methods.

The results of teachers' reports in terms of their comparing L1 with TL display that there are not significant differences between the lower levels and higher levels in any of the courses. However, teachers use L1 for comparative purpose (methodological use) more than for code-switching (communicative use). Some pilot groups can be provided with language comparison instructions and if the results display that it has positive effects on learner language, L1 and TL comparisons can be integrated to curricula, textbooks, activities, etc. On the other hand, if the studies reveal that it has negative effects, teachers can be informed accordingly and precautions against its use in language classrooms can be taken.

Since there is no current curriculum for code-switching and L1 and TL comparison practices in Turkey, a needs analysis could be conducted. Thus, significant criteria for the selection, implementation and integration of code-switching could be determined in terms of institutions, teachers and students. Relevant training needs could also be explored.

The effectiveness of code-switching and L1-TL comparison could be investigated through pre- and post- test applications in different levels and while teaching different skills. This could give some information about the need to switching codes in language classrooms as well.

Teachers and learners attitudes and practices could be investigated through an international online survey, which would ask the participants to answer open-ended questions to some given situations. This kind of a study would give the opportunity to see the situation per se both from the teachers' perspective and from the students' one. Moreover, this kind of a study would enable the researcher to collect data from various L1 speakers who learn different foreign languages. Thus, the study could contribute different fields, such as sociolinguistics and nero-linguistics and help to understand how social factors and brain functions affect the act of code-switching.

Conclusion

This study investigated the teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in EFL classrooms and their communicative and methodological practices regarding the use of L1 while teaching different levels in different skills. Data analysis indicated that teachers sometimes feel they have to use L1 in their communicative practices although they do not find it appropriate. Teachers tend to use L1 especially in lower levels, and there is less tendency to switch to L1 in upper levels. As for methodological practices, teachers teaching at both lower and upper levels think that it is acceptable to use L1 in their classes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Code-switching

Code-Switching: Scholars mostly describe this term as: (1) the systematic, alternating use of two or more languages in a single utterance or conversational exchange, and the systematic use of linguistic material from two or more languages in the same sentence or conversation (Levine, 2011). Myers-Scotton (1989) calls the first definition as *Extrasentential* and Li Wei (2000) as *Intersentential* code-switching, and the second definition is called as *Intrasentential* by Myers-Scotton (1989).

There are three models of code-switching (Levine, 2011) which try to explain code-switching and the reasons that cause this social action: *(1) Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model* (Myers-Scotton, 1993), *(2) The Interactional Approach* (Auer, 1998) and *(3) The Rational Choice Model* (Myers-Scotton, 2002).

Rights and obligation (RO) sets (marked codes) represents code-switching that is caused by "situational factors, standing for the attitudes and expectations of participants towards one another" (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 84). Myers-Scotton (2002) emphasizes that marked code-switches are naturally caused by external factors.

Unmarked RO sets (unmarked codes) of code-switching can be caused by any situational factor during any particular conversation (Myers-Scotton, 1993). According to Myers-Scotton (2002) unmarked code-switching strongly substantiates the current situation.

External constraints: One of the three filters, which are used by speakers for making *rational* code-choices, proposed by Myers-Scotton (2002) that are constituted by socially related and pragmatic factors

Internal constraints: The second group of filters (Myers-Scotton, 2002), which are *micro-aspects* in a conversation, such as *organization factors*.

Rationality at work: The third filter where the speaker does "cost benefit analysis" (Myers-Scotton, 2002, p. 208) and considers every factor before making his or her code-choice.

Appendix B: Sociocultural Theory and Ecological Linguistics

Sociocultural Theory: Sociocultural Theory (SCT), also called by some scholars *Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT),* has its sources in the philosophies of L.S. Vygotsky (VanPatten & Williams, 2007, p. 201). VanPatten and Williams (2007) explain this theory by stating that SCT suggests that the mental functioning of the individuals is a *mediated process*. By the primary means of mediation there is a connection created between the individuals' physiological aspects and socio-culturally produced contexts and artifacts (Swain, Linnear& Steinman, 2011), and, indeed, language is described as one of the culturally developed artifacts which is influential in the changing of the individual's cognitive functioning.

In terms of understanding SCT and its connection to second language acquisition (SLA) in more depth, it is essential to clarify what is meant by the terms *mediation, private speech, regulation,* and *zone of proximal development (ZPD)* which are germane to the concept of SCT. According to SCT, all behaviors practiced by individuals are operated and organized by *material/concrete artifacts (tools)* and *symbolic/abstract artifacts (signs)* and both of these artifacts have mediating functions between the social and the individual (Swain et al., 2011). Tools are *externally oriented* and signs, such as cultural artifacts are *internally oriented* (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 55 as cited in Swain et al., 2011). Cultural artifacts that provide mediation among mental and social activities comprise numbers, art, music, and for the most significant and dominant language (VanPatten& Williams, 2007, p. 205). VanPatten and Williams (2007) point out that mainly *private speech,* or, *self-directed speech* is the mediator in using language in regulation of cognitive functioning. Swain *et al*. (2011) define this mediator as "speech that is social (intermental) in origin and form but psychological (intramental) in function" (p. 152).

Taking the first language acquisition into account, VanPatten and Williams (2007) define the

term *regulation,* a form of mediation, as the process of a child's cognitive development through the interaction with social environment and their access to communicative tasks. Wertsch (1979 as cited in McCaffery, 1994) draws on three periods in this development: (1) *object-regulation*, (2) *other-regulation*, and (3) *self-regulation.*

In second or foreign language acquisition the functioning of other-regulation plays an important role since it draws on assistance, directions and *scaffolding,* which was first mentioned by Wood *et al* (1976 as cited in Swain *et al.*, 2011). In this regulation, the language is produced and problems are solved, albeit with assistance. While in the period of self-regulation language functions as a mediator which organizes behavior (Swain *et al.*, 2011). However, Swain *et al.* (2011) point out that the other-regulation and self-regulation are not stable (p.76) and even the proficient speakers of the language need guidance and help from others on occasion.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which is defined by Vygotsky (1978 as cited in Levine, 2011) as the distance between the level that a learner is supposed to reach without being provided with any guidance and with the level that he or she can reach when supplemented with guidance by a superior peer. As a result of this, the concepts scaffolding and collaboration play crucial roles in ZPD.

Levine (2011) points out that code-switching can function as a tool for scaffolding for clarification and learning. Conducting a case study in two language classes examining what codes were used in each class, which codes were chosen while speaking to different interlocutors, who was controlling the classroom discourse and what contexts were observable, Levine (2011) reported that although each class was different in many ways there were some common points which were shared by all language classes. The results, which draw on the importance of scaffolding, were that using L1 facilitates learning by providing students with a discussion about the linguistic and metalinguistic concepts, by having them talk about these issues either via in-class discussions or in group discussions. VanPatten and Williams (2007) draw on the importance of L1 in L2 learning by

stating that according to SCT, whilst L1 *forms* have a limited effect on the acquisition of the second or foreign language, L1 *meanings* play an all-encompassing role in target language acquisition. This is explained by stating that L1 is not only a communicative tool but also a major mediator that regulates the individuals' mental processing.

Ecological Linguistics: While there were other scholars who developed approaches to language learning by grounding their ideologies on SCT or language ecology, according to Levine (2011) what makes van Lier unique in the academic circle is that he made the nexus of the theory and the theory's application into practice. Van Lier (2004 as cited in Levine, 2011) claims that language teaching and language learning should be considered by taking *ecological* variables into account.

The four tenets of this *ecological perspective* that Levine (2011) suggests as the most crucial ones for language choice are: (1) meaningful language is produced in a complex system within a complex network. In this system not only sound, word, clause, intonation, kinesics, and background information are closely linked with each other but also they are linked with physical, social and symbolic worlds and lack of any of the components in this system may cause with ambiguity and lack of intended meaning, (2) language learning cannot be elucidated by just examining the visible cause and effect relationship since there are other social and contextual variables that may have effects on learner language and that should be examined in more detail in order to understand the learning process, (3) there is a close connection between *activity* and learner language and providing this connection and moving the activity to higher and more complex levels *affordance ,* as van Lier describes, a notion which can be provided with scaffolding, and (4) the reality that language classrooms are a part of the *real world* like any other social context should be emphasized.

The relationship between ecological linguistics and code choice in language learning is that, first, the learning process is not stable rather it is dynamic and complex, and is closely related with the contiguous symbols around the learner. In this highly complex system where the layers of

meaning and ecology are significantly important, the role of L1 cannot be underestimated since it is very much interwoven not only with learners' comprehension and interpretation system, but also with the ecology, or the social surroundings of the learner (Levine, 2011).

Second, since the process of learner language should not be based on a superficial cause and effect relationship by examining only a narrow set of variables and should rather be examined by taking different dimensions into account, the notion of first language cannot be ignored in the complex system of learner language. Indeed, the use of L1 and code-switching are very imperative dimensions for understanding learners' acquisition or non-acquisition (Levine, 2011).

The third tenet is in a close relationship with ZPD and Vygotskian notion *prolepsis,* which is considered to be one of the most important "cultural mechanisms" and the "origin of development" (Daniels, Cole & Wertsch, 2007, p.166). Prolepsis is mostly defined as "seeing" a future event that has not finished its development and "treating" this event as if it has happened, and the concept is called the "ideal form" which has its origins from Pluto's theory of ideas (Daniels *et al*., 2007, p.166). There are two types of prolepsis: *heteroprolepsis,* in which the individual takes help and guidance, and *autoprolepsis*, when one *sees* it by him or herself (Daniels, *et al*., 2007). While explaining this tenet's relationship with code-choice, the important concepts are ZPD and *heteroprolepsis* since they justify that choosing different codes is a creative aspect of learner language which induces production and creates a space in which learners can develop.

Lastly, since language classrooms are a part of the real world like any other social context, the authenticity of the communication that happens in the classroom may vary like it does in any social context where the speakers are bilingual. Expecting the speakers who share a common native language to speak only in the target language may be for the sake of their development, albeit unnatural and unrealistic.

Appendix C: Positive Attitudes towards the use of L1 in the Literature

There can be a positive relationship between the native language and the second or foreign language acquisition of a language learner.	(Boroditsky, 2003; Levison, 2013)
There is positive relationship between students' TL use and their becoming anxious in the classroom environment.	(Levine, 2003; Horvitz, Horvitz & Cope, 1986; Young, 1990 as cited in Levine, 2003)
Judicious use of L1 can help the teachers draw on more sophisticated tasks which can challenge students' cognitive skills and help them improve their TL.	(Cullumins, 2000 as cited in Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain 2009)
Much pedagogical value is lost if teachers do not draw on the students' L1.	(Auerbach, 1991; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009)
Since the learners select and alter linguistic elements while switching codes, this practice can help contextualize talk in interaction.	(Chad, 2006)
Frequent code-switching is seen "by many academics as a sophisticated, agentive, and strategic way of negotiating social and political structures and meanings".	(Bailey, 2007, p. 49)
Code-switching can act like a scaffolding tool in language classrooms.	(Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Evans, 2009; Jones & Heller, 1996; Reyes, 2004; Swain & Lapkin, 2000)
The use of L1 contributes to learners' language.	(Brooks & Donato, 1994; Evans, 2009)
Code-switching enhances converting input into intake.	(Ortega, 2007)
Learners' L1 should be treated as a resource.	(Cook, 2001)
Both L1 and L2 exist in the same mind and they are intertwined so the functions cannot be isolated.	(Cook, 1997 as cited in Cook, 2001; Cummins, 1991, 2001 as cited in Spada, 2007; Harris, 1992 as cited in Spada, 2007; Obler, 1982 as cited in Spada, 2007; Ramirez, 1992 as cited in Spada; Romaine, 1982 as cited in Spada, 2007; Spada, 2007)
L1 can facilitate learner autonomy.	(Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 2002; Levine, 2011; Liddicoat, 2005; Macaro, 2009)
Students should have the freedom to use their L1 since their humanistic needs should be respected.	(Auerbach, 1993, 1994; Fuller, 2009; Liddicoat, 2003; Harbord, 1999)
Students should have the freedom to use their L1 since their socio-political identities should be respected.	Auerbach, 1993; Ellwood, 2008; Fuller, 2009; Horner & Trimbur, 2002 as cited in Levine 2011; Liddicoat, 2003; Phillipson, 1992; Van der Walt, 1997; Wikeley, 1999)
When the situation is considered from a sociological perspective, using only L2 can cause power differentiation between learners and teachers.	(Wikeley, 1999)
Using L1 can help turning input into intake.	(Van Patten & Cadierno, 1993)
Trying to use TL-only can result with an overtly simplified language.	(Macaro, 2001; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009)
Teachers may switch codes to prevent unbalanced amount of teacher talking time and student talking time	(Levine, 2003)
Code-switching is used to mark switching from informal situations (using L1) to formal situations (using L2)	(Gudykunst, 2004)
Code-switching is used to exert control (e.g., between teachers and students)	(Gudykunst, 2004)
Code-switching is used to align speakers with others in specific situations (e.g., defining oneself as a member of an ethnic group)	(Gudykunst, 2004)
Code-switching "functions to announce specific identities, create certain meanings, and facilitate particular interpersonal relationships"	(Gudykunst, 2004, p. 185)

Appendix D: Negative Attitudes towards the use of L1 in the Literature

Maximizing the TL in language classrooms affects learner motivation positively	(Calve, 1993; MacDonald, 1993; Wong-Fillmore, 1985)
Using L1 in language classrooms comprises limitations for students to practice through meaningful communications and to turn input into intake	(Kim & Elder, 2005)
Using L1 has a negative effect on L2 acquisition (e.g., negative transfer and focalization)	(Cook, 2001; Spada, 2007)
TL used by the teacher in language classrooms is the main source of input for language learners and any teachers' use of the L1 limits students' access to critical second language input	(Ellis, 1984; Krashen & Terrill, 1983; Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull, 2001)
Instead of switching to L1 teachers need to communicate only in L2 since this will challenge the students to figure out the message from the context	(F. Chambers, 1991; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; MacDonald, 1993 as cited in Macaro, 2001; Wolf, 1977; Wong-Filmore, 1985)
TL can only be learned in the same way as L1. In other words, only TL input should be given and comparison of the grammars of L1 and L2 should be avoided	(Ellis, 1986; Krashen, 1981)
"Frequent code-switching is seen by many monolinguals as a sign of linguistic and cognitive deficiency"	(Bailey, 2007, p. 49)
Frequent code-switching is seen "by nativist groups as a rejection of incorporation into U.S. society"	(Bailey, 2007, p. 49)
Comparing the similarities of L1 with the ones of L2 can be misguiding for the learners in language classrooms	(Spada, Lightbrown & White, 2005)
People may switch codes to hide fluency or memory problems in L2	(Gudykunst, 2004)

Appendix E: Questionnaire

Language Teachers' Attitudes, Practices and Variables

That Affect their Practices in Terms of the Use of L1

I would like to ask you to help me by answering the following questions. This survey is conducted for my MA thesis at Bilkent University. This is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. The results will be kept strictly confidential. I am interested in your personal opinion. Please answer as honestly and thoughtfully as possible since only such answers will lead to the success of this research.

Thank you very much for your help.

Bahar TUNÇAY

I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Name: _____ (0-10, 10-20, and20+)
2. How long have you been working as an EFL teacher? 0-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 20+ ☐
3. Education: BA:_____ MA: _____ PhD: _____
4. What courses are you teaching this semester and at what level? For the courses you teach, put a check in the appropriate boxes. If you are teaching the same course at different levels please consider only one of them while answering the questions in part A and part B in section III.

LEVELS / *SKILLS*	Elementary	Lower Intermediate	Intermediate	Higher Intermediate	Advanced
Reading					
Writing					
Listening/Speaking					
Grammar					

II. ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE USE OF NATIVE LANGUAGE IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Put a check in the box that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Please take into consideration your GENERAL attitudes towards using the native language in language classes, NOT a specific course or level.

STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Teachers should only use the language that is being taught in their classrooms.				
2. Switching to Turkish in the classroom has negative effects on the progress of the learner language.				
3. If the teachers speak only in English, the students will be demotivated.				
4. If the teacher does not switch from English to Turkish, students will feel that their social identity is not respected.				
5. Using only English makes students anxious.				
6. Using only English widens the gap between the students and the teacher.				
7. Comparing English with Turkish causes confusion among the students.				
8. If the teacher uses Turkish, the students will be demotivated.				
9. Being exclusively exposed to English input does not guarantee their acquisition.				
10. Learners' native language should be treated as a resource.				
11. Code-switching is a natural part of a conversation that takes place in a multilingual context, so it is very normal to switch from English to Turkish in the classroom.				
12. Using only English is challenging for students.				
13. Ignoring the native language of the learners is also ignoring their culture.				
14. Using Turkish sometimes to express themselves better in the class is a humanistic need of the students which should be respected				
15. If the teachers use Turkish in the classroom, students have doubts about the teachers' English proficiency.				
16. If teachers use both Turkish and English for giving instructions, students will wait for the Turkish translation and do not pay attention to English.				
17. Using only English helps students learn the language faster.				
18. Ignoring the native language of the students and using the target language exclusively is a kind of linguistic imperialism.				
19. Comparing English with Turkish facilitates language acquisition.				

SKILL	READING				WRITING				LISTENING/ SPEAKING				GRAMMAR			
In my language classes I use L1:	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always
5. while helping students to answer comprehension questions.																
6. when the students ask questions in their native language.																
7. in the presentation session.																
8. when the students do pair/group works and I walk around them.																
9. in the pre- session (such as pre- reading, pre-writing, etc.).																
10. in the post- session (such as post- listening, post- reading, etc.).																
11. while giving written instructions in a test that I conduct for my class.																
12. while giving oral instructions in a test that I conduct for my class.																
13. while giving oral feedback.																
14. while giving written feedback.																

III. PRACTICE IN TERMS OF THE USE OF NATIVE LANGUAGE IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

A. Please indicate the courses you are teaching this semester and their levels (IF YOU ARE TEACHING MORE THAN ONE LEVEL IN ONE COURSE, PLEASE CHOOSE ONLY ONE LEVEL) by putting a check mark in the appropriate box. Answer the questions by taking into consideration the courses and how often you use the native language in them at the level that you have selected.

SKILL	READING				WRITING				LISTENING/ SPEAKING				GRAMMAR			
	Elem.				Elem.				Elem.				Elem.			
	Low Int.				Low Int.				Low Int.				Low Int.			
	Int.				Int.				Int.				Int.			
	Up Int.				Up Int.				Up Int.				Up Int.			
PROFICIENCY	Adv.				Adv.				Adv.				Adv.			
In my language classes I use L1:	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always
1. while giving information about the class content.																
2. while clarifying an exercise.																
3. while clarifying an example.																
4. while defining an unknown word.																

B. Please indicate the courses you are teaching this semester and their levels (IF YOU ARE TEACHING MORE THAN ONE LEVEL IN ONE COURSE, PLEASE CHOOSE ONLY ONE LEVEL) by putting a check mark in the appropriate box. Answer the questions by taking into consideration the courses and how often you draw students' attention to the similarities and differences between Turkish and English at that level. Do not respond to the shaded parts. YOU ARE NOT ASKED ABOUT USING TURKISH IN YOUR CLASSES RATHER ABOUT COMPARING TURKISH WITH ENGLISH.

SKILL	READING				WRITING				LISTENING/ SPEAKING				GRAMMAR			
	Elem.				Elem.				Elem.				Elem.			
	Low Int.				Low Int.				Low Int.				Low Int.			
	Int.				Int.				Int.				Int.			
	Up Int.				Up Int.				Up Int.				Up Int.			
PROFICIENCY	Adv.				Adv.				Adv.				Adv.			
I draw students' attention to the similarities and differences between Turkish and English in terms of:	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always
1. word meaning.																
2. word structure.																
3. learning strategy (reading strategies, listening strategies, etc.).																
4. writing styles.																
5. connective words.																

SKILLS	READING				WRITING				LISTENING/ SPEAKING				GRAMMAR			
I draw students' attention to the similarities and differences between Turkish and English in terms of:	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always	Never	Almost Never	Almost Always	Always
6. sentence structure.																
7. paragraph structure.																
8. composition (essay) structure.																
9. cultural differences.																
10. appropriate style of speech.																
11. differences in pronunciation.																
12. forms of grammar items.																
13. functions of grammar items.																
14. uses of grammar items																

If there is anything that you want to ask or if you have any comments please contact me at:
btuncay@bilkent.edu.tr

Thank you! ☺

Appendix F: The Results of Kolmogrow-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test

Teachers' Communicative Practices (Questionnaire Part III/A)

Tests of Normality (READING)

	reading levels	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice a reading	1.00	.120	53	.054	.956	53	.051
	2.00	.282	13	.006	.702	13	.001

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality (WRITING)

	writing level	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice a writing	1.00	.117	50	.083	.952	50	.041
	2.00	.198	17	.075	.932	17	.236

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality (LISTENING & SPEAKING)

	listening speaking levels	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice a listening and speaking	1.00	.086	49	.200(*)	.979	49	.508
	2.00	.244	12	.047	.842	12	.029

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality (GRAMMAR IN CONTEXT)

	grammar levels	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice a grammar	1.00	.091	56	.200(*)	.973	56	.229
	2.00	.163	13	.200(*)	.946	13	.534

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Teachers' Methodological Practices (Questionnaire Part III/B)

Tests of Normality (READING)

	reading levels	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice b reading	1.00	.113	53	.090	.962	53	.090
	2.00	.173	13	.200(*)	.884	13	.081

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality (WRITING)

	writing level	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice b writing	1.00	.098	49	.200(*)	.972	49	.290
	2.00	.136	17	.200(*)	.944	17	.370

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality (LISTENING & SPEAKING)

	listening speaking levels	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice b listening and speaking	1.00	.111	49	.175	.977	49	.459
	2.00	.147	12	.200(*)	.976	12	.961

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Tests of Normality (GRAMMAR IN CONTEXT)

	grammar levels	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
practice b grammar	1.00	.096	56	.200(*)	.978	56	.401
	2.00	.144	13	.200(*)	.963	13	.798

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix G: Communicative Practices- Reading Course

Teachers' Communicative Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language

Level Reading Courses

In my language classes I use	L	N	Never %	Almost %	Almost %	Always %	M	SD	Mdn	
1. while giving information abou content.	*1*	52	13.5%	50%	30.8%	5.8%	2.29	.78	2.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	69.2%	15.4%	7.7 %	2.23	.73	2.00	.50
2. while clarifying an exercise.	*1*	52	*5.8%*	44.2%	48.1%	1.9%	2.46	.64	2.50	1.00
	2	13	*15.4%*	61.5%	15.4%	7.7%	2.15	.80	2.00	.50
3. while clarifying an example.	*1*	52	9.6%	48.1%	40.4%	1.9%	2.35	.68	2.00	1.00
	2	13	23.1%	53.8%	15.4%	7.7%	2.08	.86	2.00	1.00
4. while defining an unknown w	*1*	52	15.4%	46.2%	38.5%	-	2.23	.70	2.00	1.00
	2	13	15.4%	53.8%	23.1%	7.7 %	2.23	.83	2.00	1.00
5. while helping students to answ comprehension questions.	*1*	53	9.4%	73.6%	17.0%	-	2.08	.51	2.00	.00
	2	13	-	76.9%	15.4%	7.7%	2.31	.63	2.00	.50
6. when the students ask questio native language.	*1*	53	11.3%	50.9%	37.7%	-	2.26	.66	2.00	1.00
	2	12	-	50%	33.3%	16.7%	2.67	.78	2.50	1.00
7. in the presentation session.	*1*	53	30.2%	56.6%	13.2%	-	1.83	.64	2.00	1.00
	2	13	30.8%	53.8%	7.7%	7.7%	1.92	.86	2.00	1.00
8. when the students do pair/grou I walk around them.	*1*	53	17.0%	39.6%	41.5%	1.9%	2.28	.77	2.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	30.8%	53.8%	7.7%	2.62	.77	3.00	1.00
9. in the pre- session (such as pre pre-writing, etc.).	*1*	53	22.6%	62.3%	15.1%	-	1.93	.62	2.00	.00
	2	13	30.8%	53.8%	7.7%	7.7%	1.92	.86	2.00	1.00
10. in the post- session (such as listening, post-reading, etc.).	*1*	53	18.9%	67.9%	13.2%	-	1.94	.57	2.00	.00
	2	13	15.4%	69.2%	7.7%	7.7%	2.08	.76	2.00	.00
11. while giving written instructi that I conduct for my class.	*1*	52	42.3%	38.5%	17.3%	1.9%	1.79	.80	2.00	1.00
	2	13	38.5%	46.2%	7.7%	7.7%	1.85	.90	2.00	1.00
12. while giving oral instructions I conduct for my class.	*1*	52	13.5%	53.8%	32.7%	-	2.19	.66	2.00	1.00
	2	13	23.1%	46.2%	23.1%	7.7%	2.15	.90	2.00	1.50
13. while giving oral feedback.	*1*	53	5.7%	35.8%	52.8%	5.7%	2.59	.69	3.00	1.00
	2	13	-	38.5%	61.5%	-	2.62	.51	3.00	1.00
14. while giving written feedbac	*1*	53	58.5%	30.2%	11.3%	-	1.53	.70	1.00	1.00
	2	13	69.2%	23.1%	7.7%	-	1.39	.65	1.00	1.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1*= Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; M= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range.

Appendix H: Communicative Practices- Listening & Speaking Course

Teachers' Communicative Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language Level Listening/Speaking Courses

In my language classes I use L1:	L	N	Never %	Almost %	Almost %	Always %	M	SD	Mdn	
1. while giving information about the content.	1	49	14.3%	49%	30.6%	6.1%	2.29	.79	2.00	1.00
	2	13	53.8%	30.8%	15.4%	-	1.62	.77	1.00	1.00
2. while clarifying an exercise.	1	49	*6.1%*	59.2%	32.7%	2%	2.31	.62	2.00	1.00
	2	13	*30.8%*	53.8%	7.7%	7.7%	1.92	.86	2.00	1.00
3. while clarifying an example.	1	49	4.1%	57.1%	34.7%	4.1%	2.39	.64	2.00	1.00
	2	13	38.5%	46.2%	15.4%	-	1.77	.73	2.00	1.00
4. while defining an unknown word.	1	49	14.3%	44.9%	36.7%	4.1%	2.31	.77	2.00	1.00
	2	13	46.2%	38.5%	15.4%	-	1.69	.75	2.00	1.00
5. while helping students to answer comprehension questions.	1	49	18.4%	69.4%	12.2%	-	1.94	.56	2.00	.00
	2	13	46.2%	46.2%	7.7%	-	1.62	.65	2.00	1.00
6. when the students ask questions in their native language.	1	49	8.2%	63.3%	24.5%	4.1%	2.25	.66	2.00	1.00
	2	13	30.8%	53.8%	7.7%	7.7%	1.92	.86	2.00	1.00
7. in the presentation session.	1	49	34.7%	57.1%	6.1%	2%	1.76	.66	2.00	1.00
	2	13	53.8%	38.5%	-	7.7%	1.62	.87	1.00	1.00
8. when the students do pair/group works and I walk around them.	1	49	14.3%	59.2%	26.5%	-	2.12	.63	2.00	1.00
	2	13	30.8%	69.2%	-	-	1.69	.48	2.00	1.00
9. in the pre- session (such as pre- reading, pre-writing, etc.).	1	49	34.7%	51%	12.2%	2%	1.82	.72	2.00	1.00
	2	13	61.5%	38.5%	-	-	1.39	.51	1.00	1.00
10. in the post- session (such as post- listening, post-reading, etc.).	1	49	26.5%	57.1%	16.3%	-	1.90	.65	2.00	1.00
	2	13	53.8%	38.5%	7.7%	-	1.54	.66	1.00	1.00
11. while giving written instructions in a test that I conduct for my class.	1	49	40.8%	46.9%	12.2%	-	1.71	.68	2.00	1.00
	2	13	23.1%	69.2%	-	7.7%	1.92	.76	2.00	.50
12. while giving oral instructions in a test that I conduct for my class.	1	49	22.4%	46.9%	26.5%	4.1%	2.12	.81	2.00	1.00
	2	13	23.1%	61.5%	15.4%	-	1.92	.64	2.00	.50
13. while giving oral feedback.	1	49	16.3%	49%	30.6%	4.1%	2.23	.77	2.00	1.00
	2	13	38.5%	53.8%	7.7%	-	1.69	.63	2.00	1.00
14. while giving written feedback.	1	49	59.2%	32.7%	4.1%	4.1%	1.53	.77	1.00	1.00
	2	12	66.7%	33.3%	-	-	1.33	.49	1.00	1.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1* = Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; *M*= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range

Appendix I: Communicative Practices- Writing Course

Teachers' Communicative Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language

Level Writing Courses

In my language classes I use L1:	L	N	Never %	Almost %	Almost %	Always %	M	SD	Mdn	
1. while giving information about the content.	1	50	8%	46%	30%	16%	2.54	.86	2.00	1.00
	2	17	11.8%	70.6%	17.6%	-	2.06	.56	2.00	.00
2. while clarifying an exercise.	1	50	6%	40%	38%	16%	2.64	.83	3.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	52.9%	29.4%	-	2.12	.70	2.00	1.00
3. while clarifying an example.	1	50	8%	40%	38%	14%	2.58	.84	3.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	52.9%	29.4%	-	2.12	.70	2.00	1.00
4. while defining an unknown word.	1	50	14%	28%	44%	14%	2.58	.91	3.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	52.9%	29.4%	-	2.12	.70	2.00	1.00
5. while helping students to answer comprehension questions.	1	50	10%	52%	28%	10%	2.38	.81	2.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	58.8%	23.5%	-	2.06	.66	2.00	.50
6. when the students ask questions in their native language.	1	50	12%	36%	42%	10%	2.50	.84	3.00	1.00
	2	17	5.9%	47.1%	41.2%	5.9%	2.47	.72	2.00	1.00
7. in the presentation session.	1	50	16%	60%	16%	8%	2.16	.79	2.00	.25
	2	17	35.3%	58.8%	5.9%	-	1.71	.59	2.00	1.00
8. when the students do pair/group w walk around them.	1	50	10%	28%	48%	14%	2.66	.85	3.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	35.3%	47.1%	-	2.29	.77	2.00	1.00
9. in the pre- session (such as pre- re writing, etc.).	1	50	22%	46%	24%	8%	2.18	.87	2.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	76.5%	5.9%	-	1.88	.49	2.00	.00
10. in the post- session (such as post post-reading, etc.).	1	50	16%	56%	18%	10%	2.22	.84	2.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	64.7%	17.6%	-	2.00	.61	2.00	.00
11. while giving written instructions I conduct for my class.	1	50	42%	34%	20%	4%	1.86	.88	2.00	1.25
	2	17	52.9%	35.3%	11.8%	-	1.59	.71	1.00	1.00
12. while giving oral instructions in ; conduct for my class.	1	50	16%	44%	32%	8%	2.32	.84	2.00	1.00
	2	17	35.3%	41.2%	23.5%	-	1.88	.78	2.00	1.50
13. while giving oral feedback.	1	50	4%	26%	50%	20%	2.86	.78	3.00	1.00
	2	17	5.9%	29.4%	47.1%	17.6%	2.77	.83	3.00	1.00
14. while giving written feedback.	1	50	68%	24%	6%	2%	1.42	.70	1.00	1.00
	2	17	58.8%	35.3%	5.9%	-	1.47	.62	1.00	1.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1*= Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; *M*= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range.

Appendix J: Communicative Practices- Grammar in Context Course

Teachers' Communicative Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language

Level Grammar Courses

In my language classes I use L1:	L	N	Never %	Almost N %	Almost A %	Always %	M	SD	Mdn	
1. while giving information about the content.	1	56	5.4%	32.1%	53.6%	8.9%	2.66	.72	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	61.5%	30.8%	-	2.23	.60	2.00	1.00
2. while clarifying an exercise.	1	56	3.6%	35.7%	51.8%	8.9%	2.66	.70	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	61.5%	30.8%	-	2.23	.60	2.00	1.00
3. while clarifying an example.	1	56	5.4%	32.1%	53.6%	8.9%	2.66	.72	3.00	1.00
	2	13	-	53.8%	46.2%	-	2.46	.52	2.00	1.00
4. while defining an unknown word.	1	56	8.9%	37.5%	44.6%	8.9%	2.54	.79	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	69.2%	23.1%	-	2.15	.56	2.00	.50
5. while helping students to answer comprehension questions.	1	56	5.4%	46.4%	44.6%	3.6%	2.46	.66	2.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	61.5%	30.8%	-	2.23	.60	2.00	1.00
6. when the students ask questions in language.	1	56	3.6%	26.8%	62.5%	7.1%	2.73	.65	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	53.8%	38.5%	-	2.31	.63	2.00	1.00
7. in the presentation session.	1	56	7.1%	39.3%	39.3%	14.3%	2.61	.82	3.00	1.00
	2	13	15.4%	38.5%	46.2%	-	2.31	.75	2.00	1.00
8. when the students do pair/group w walk around them.	1	56	5.4%	33.9%	51.8%	8.9%	2.64	.72	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	46.2%	46.2%	-	2.39	.65	2.00	1.00
9. in the pre- session (such as pre- rea writing, etc.).	1	56	16.1%	46.4%	28.6%	8.9%	2.30	.85	2.00	1.00
	2	13	15.4%	76.9%	7.7%	-	1.92	.49	2.00	.00
10. in the post- session (such as post-post-reading, etc.).	1	56	8.9%	51.8%	32.1%	7.1%	2.38	.75	2.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	69.2%	23.1%	-	2.15	.56	2.00	.50
11. while giving written instructions I conduct for my class.	1	56	33.9%	35.7%	16.1%	14.3%	2.11	1.04	2.00	2.00
	2	13	38.5%	53.8%	7.7%	-	1.69	.63	2.00	1.00
12. while giving oral instructions in a conduct for my class.	1	56	12.5%	37.5%	35.7%	14.3%	2.52	.89	2.50	1.00
	2	13	30.8%	53.8%	15.4%	-	1.85	.69	2.00	1.00
13. while giving oral feedback.	1	56	3.6%	23.2%	60.7%	12.5%	2.82	.69	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	53.8%	38.5%	-	2.31	.63	2.00	1.00
14. while giving written feedback.	1	56	48.2%	26.8%	17.9%	7.1%	1.84	.97	2.00	1.75
	2	13	69.2%	30.8%	-	-	1.31	.48	1.00	1.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1*= Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; *M*= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range.

Appendix K: Methodological Practices- Reading Course

Teachers' Methodological Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language Level Reading Courses

I draw students' attention to the s and differences between Turkish in terms of:	L	N	Never %	Almost N %	Almost A %	Always %	M	SD	Mdn	
1. word meaning.	1	52	9.6%	30.8%	51.9%	7.7%	2.58	.78	3.00	1.00
	2	13	-	38.5%	46.2%	15,4%	2.77	.73	3.00	1.00
2. word structure.	1	52	15.4%	42.3%	38.5%	3.8%	2.31	.78	2.00	1.00
	2	13	15.4%	38.5%	30.8%	15.4%	2.46	.97	2.00	1.00
3. learning strategy (reading strat listening strategies, etc.).	1	53	13.2%	47.2%	35.8%	3.8%	2.30	.75	2.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	46.2%	38.5%	7.7%	2.46	.78	2.00	1.00
5. connective words.	1	51	15.7%	37.3%	39.2%	7.8%	2.39	.85	2.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	61.5%	30.8%	-	2.23	.60	2.00	1.00
9. cultural differences.	1	53	5.7%	24.5%	62.3%	7.5%	2.72	.69	3.00	1.00
	2	12	-	8.3%	58.3%	33.3%	3.25	.62	3.00	1.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1*= Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; *M*= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range.

Appendix L: Methodological Practices- Listening & Speaking Course

Teachers' Methodological Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language Level Listening/Speaking Courses

I draw students' attention to the s and differences between Turkish in terms of:	L	N	Never %	Almost N %	Almost A %	Always %	M	SD	Mdn	
1. word meaning.	1	49	12.2%	36.7%	36.7%	14.3%	2.53	.89	3.00	1.00
	2	12	16.7%	58.3%	16.7%	8.3%	2.17	.84	3.00	.75
2. word structure.	1	49	*12.2%*	49%	30.6%	8.2%	2.35	.81	2.00	1.00
	2	12	*25%*	41.7%	25%	8.3%	2.17	.94	2.00	1.75
3. learning strategy (reading strat listening strategies, etc.).	1	49	14.3%	36.7%	34.7%	14.3%	2.49	.92	2.00	1.00
	2	13	-	46.2%	46.2%	7.7%	2.62	.65	3.00	1.00
6. sentence structure.	1	49	26.5%	46.9%	22.4%	4.1%	2.04	.82	2.00	2.00
	2	13	30.8%	46.2%	23.1%	-	1.92	.76	2.00	1.50
9. cultural differences.	1	49	4.1%	26.5%	51%	18.4%	2.84	.77	3.00	1.00
	2	13	15.4%	15.4%	46.2%	23.1%	2.77	1.01	3.00	1.50
10. appropriate style of speech.	1	49	6.1%	18.4%	53.1%	22.4%	2.92	.81	3.00	.50
	2	13	7.7%	23.1%	46.2%	23.1%	2.85	.90	3.00	1.50
11. differences in pronunciation.	1	48	20.8%	27.1%	37.5%	14.6%	2.46	.99	3.00	1.00
	2	13	30.8%	7.7%	53.8%	7.7%	2.39	1.04	3.00	2.00
14. uses of grammar items	1	46	30.4%	39.1%	23.9%	6.5%	2.07	.91	2.00	2.00
	2	11	18.2%	63.6%	18.2%	-	2.00	.63	2.00	.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1*= Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; *M*= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range.

Appendix M: Methodological Practices- Writing Course

Teachers' Methodological Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language

Level Writing Courses

			Never	Almost N	Almost A	Always			
I draw students' attention to the s and differences between Turkish in terms of:	*L*	*N*	*%*	*%*	*%*	*%*	*M*	*SD*	*Mdn*
1. word meaning	*1*	49	12.2%	28.6%	44.9%	14.3%	2.61	.89	3.00	1.00
	2	17	5.9%	41.2%	35.3%	17.6%	2.65	.86	3.00	1.00
2. word structure	*1*	49	*16,3%*	34.7%	40.8%	8.2%	2.41	.86	2.00	1.00
	2	17	*11.8%*	41.2%	29.4%	17.6%	2.53	.94	2.00	1.00
4. writing styles..	*1*	49	24.5%	22.4%	46.9%	6.1%	2.35	.93	3.00	1.50
	2	17	17.6%	29.4%	41.2%	11.8%	2.47	.94	3.00	1.00
5. connective words.	*1*	49	18.4%	22.4%	49%	10.2%	2.51	.92	3.00	1.00
	2	17	5.9%	58.8%	29.4%	5.9%	2.35	.70	2.00	1.00
6. sentence structure.	*1*	49	18.4%	26.5%	46.9%	8.2%	2.45	.89	3.00	1.00
	2	17	5.9%	58.8%	29.4%	5.9%	2.35	.70	2.00	1.00
7. paragraph structure.	*1*	49	16.3%	38.8%	40.8%	4.1%	2.33	.80	2.00	1.00
	2	17	35.3%	29.4%	29.4%	5.9%	2.06	.97	2.00	2.00
8. composition (essay) structure.	*1*	49	16.3%	36.7%	44.9%	2%	2.33	.77	2.00	1.00
	2	17	17.6%	47.1%	29.4%	5.9%	2.24	.83	2.00	1.00
9. cultural differences	*1*	50	12%	26%	46%	16%	2.66	.90	3.00	1.00
	2	17	-	29.4%	52.9%	17.6%	2.88	.70	3.00	1.00
12. forms of grammar items.	*1*	50	16%	28%	50%	6%	2.46	.84	3.00	1.00
	2	17	5.9%	58.8%	35.3%	-	2.29	.59	2.00	1.00
13. functions of grammar items.	*1*	50	12%	34%	50%	4%	2.46	.76	3.00	1.00
	2	17	5.9%	58.8%	35.3%	-	2.29	.59	2.00	1.00
14. uses of grammar items.	*1*	50	10%	34%	52%	4%	2.50	.74	3.00	1.00
	2	17	11.8%	58.8%	23.5%	5.9%	2.24	.75	2.00	1.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1*= Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; *M*= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range.

Appendix N: Methodological Practices- Grammar in Context Course

Teachers' Methodological Practices in Terms of the Use of L1 in Lower and Higher Language

Level Grammar Courses

I draw students' attention to the s and differences between Turkish in terms of:	L	N	Never %	Almost N %	Almost A %	Always %	M	SD	Mdn	
1. word meaning	1	56	8.9%	30.4%	48.2%	12.5%	2.64	.82	3.00	1.00
	2	13	23.1%	23.1%	30.8%	23.1%	2.54	1.13	3.00	2.00
2. word structure.	1	56	*8.9%*	26.8%	53.6%	10.7%	2.66	.79	3.00	1.00
	2	13	*15.4%*	15.4%	53.8%	15.4%	2.69	.95	3.00	1.00
5. connective words.	1	54	5.6%	33.3%	51.9%	9.3%	2.65	.73	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	38.5%	46.2%	7.7%	2.54	.78	3.00	1.00
6. sentence structure.	1	56	1.8%	33.9%	53.6%	10.7%	2.73	.67	3.00	1.00
	2	13	15.4%	15.4%	61.5%	7.7%	2.62	.87	3.00	1.00
7. paragraph structure..	1	55	10.9%	47.3%	32.7%	9.1%	2.40	.81	2.00	1.00
	2	13	30.8%	38.5%	30.8%	-	2.00	.82	2.00	2.00
9. cultural differences.	1	56	7.1%	30.4%	51.8%	10.7%	2.66	.77	3.00	1.00
	2	12	7.7%	38.5%	38.5%	14.5%	2.62	.87	3.00	1.00
10. appropriate style of speech.	1	56	7.1%	28.6%	50%	14.3%	2.71	.80	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	30.8%	46.2%	15.4%	2.69	.86	3.00	1.00
12. forms of grammar items.	1	56	5.4%	21.4%	57.1%	16.1%	2.84	.76	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	23.1%	53.8%	15.4%	2.77	.83	3.00	1.00
13. functions of grammar items.	1	56	1.8%	26.8%	53.6%	17.9%	2.88	.72	3.00	1.00
	2	13	7.7%	23.1%	53.8%	15.4%	2.77	.83	3.00	1.00
14. uses of grammar items.	1	56	1.8%	23.2%	57.1%	17.9%	2.91	.70	3.00	.75
	2	13	7.7%	23.1%	53.8%	15.4%	2.77	.83	3.00	1.00

Note: L= Language Level of the students; *1* = Lower Language Levels (Elementary and Lower Intermediate); *2*= Higher Language Proficiency Levels (Intermediate, Upper Intermediate, and Advanced); N= number of participants; *M*= Mean Score; *SD*= Standard Deviation *Mdn*= Median Score; *IQR*= Interquartile Range.