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**EXPLORING TURKISH-CYPRriot and TURKISH ENGLISH TEACHERS'
LANGUAGE PRACTICES in FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS,
SPECIFICALLY within ONE UNIVERSITY FOUNDATION PROGRAM
(PREP) in THE NORTH of CYPRUS**

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Abstract

Exploring teachers' language practices has become ubiquitous in linguistics research in an attempt to unveil what actually transpires in foreign language classes. One focus on language practices has been to study teachers' code-switching (CS) practices, the alternating from one language to another, which has been researched from a variety of standpoints. These include the amount of CS and the functions for which CS is utilised. Nevertheless, few take into account the possible impact of the teachers' background (e.g. education, biographies, lifestyles) on teachers' CS. Taking teachers' backgrounds into consideration, the purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the in-class CS beliefs and practices of non-native, Turkish-Cypriot, and Turkish, English language teachers working together in the north of Cyprus. It was deemed significant to investigate the CS beliefs and practices of both Turkish-Cypriot and Turkish teachers in that there has been an increased influx of Turkish teachers and students, as well as international students, (mainly from the Middle East and Africa) in the north of Cyprus due to the foundation of branches of Turkish universities there. The teaching of English was chosen due to its significance both for Turkish-Cypriot and Turkish heritage students.

The study incorporates instances from the data in the form of classroom observations, interviews, and focus groups. The results showed that teachers' CS practice may, to a certain extent, differ culturally owing to teachers' cultures of learning. This study adds to the discussion surrounding the necessity for CS studies to consider the role teachers' cultures of learning might play in determining issues such as the amount of or functions for CS in the classroom.

The study concludes with recommendations for CS, professional development and for Turkish universities in the north of Cyprus, in order to suggest ways to involve teachers in the planning process and hence to improve the quality of foreign language learning.

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Table of Contents

Abstract	v
Acknowledgements	vi
Table of Contents	viii
List of Tables.....	xiv
List of Figures	xv
List of Abbreviations.....	xvi
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.0 Presentation	1
1.1 The topic.....	1
1.2 Context	2
1.2.1 North Cyprus.....	2
1.2.1.1 Influence of the British colonial power.....	3
1.2.1.2 Turkish-Cypriots disassociating from the Greek	4
1.2.1.3 The foundation of the Republic of Cyprus (1960-1963).....	5
1.2.1.4 Civil unrest and internal conflicts (1964-1974)	6
1.2.1.5 The Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) (1983)	6
1.2.1.6 Current policies of TRNC	7
1.2.1.7 Importance attached to the learning of English.....	8
1.2.2 Turkey	10
1.2.2.1 A means towards Westernization.....	10
1.2.2.2 Establishing English medium universities (EMUs)	11
1.2.2.3 Reforms in education	12
1.2.2.4 Obstacles in implementing reforms	15
1.3 Motivation	17
1.4 Background to the study.....	19
1.5 Aim.....	20
1.6 Significance	21
1.7 Structure	22
Chapter 2 - Review of Literature	23
2.0 Presentation	23
2.1 Teachers' Beliefs.....	23
2.1.1 The early beginnings of research on teachers' beliefs.....	23
2.1.2 From teachers' cognitions to teachers' beliefs	24

2.1.3 Towards a definition of teachers' beliefs.....	25
2.1.4 Knowledge or beliefs as separate or united entities.....	26
2.1.5 Research on teachers' beliefs.....	30
2.1.5.1 Beliefs change	30
2.1.5.2 Tensions between teachers' beliefs and actions.....	31
2.1.5.3 Factors shaping belief systems.....	33
2.1.5.3.1 Contextual Factors.....	33
2.1.5.3.2 Professional training.....	34
2.1.5.3.3 Personal history	35
2.1.5.3.4 Previous Teachers.....	37
2.1.5.3.5 Language Learning experience.....	37
2.1.5.4 Possible implications of research on teachers' beliefs.....	37
2.1.6 Cultures of learning within teachers' beliefs	38
2.2 Code-Switching (CS) - A study on language practices	43
2.2.1 What is Code-Switching (CS)?.....	44
2.2.2 Multiple perspectives towards CS, from a product towards a process oriented focus.....	45
2.2.3 Debates around CS.....	48
2.2.4 Research on CS.....	54
2.3 Conclusion.....	60
Chapter 3 - Methodology	62
3.0 Presentation	62
3.1 Theoretical Framework	62
3.1.1 Ontological positionality.....	62
3.1.2 Epistemological Positionality	63
3.1.3 Constructivist grounded theory.....	63
3.1.4 My values.....	64
3.2 Research Aims.....	66
3.3 Methodology	68
3.3.1 Qualitative methodology.....	68
3.3.2 Selection of participants and context.....	69
3.3.2.1 Selection of participants.....	69
3.3.2.2 Selection of context.....	70
3.4 The Context.....	70
3.4.1. A history of NCC and its organisational structure.....	71

3.4.2 School of Foreign Language (SFL)	72
3.5 Participants	73
3.5.1 TCs.....	75
3.5.2 TRs.....	75
3.5.2.1 Part1 - 1st year at secondary school.....	75
3.5.2.2 Part 2 - Exam practice	76
3.6 Methods	78
3.6.1 Observations (Obs.)	78
3.6.1.1 Rationale	78
3.6.1.2 Procedure.....	79
3.6.1.3 Limitations and the way I dealt with them.....	82
3.6.2 Post-Observation Interviews (POINTS).....	82
3.6.2.1 Rationale	82
3.6.2.2 Procedure.....	83
3.6.2.3 Limitations and the way I dealt with them.....	84
3.6.3 Semi-structured Interviews (INTs)	84
3.6.3.1 Rationale	84
3.6.3.2 Procedure.....	85
3.6.3.3 Limitations and the ways I dealt with them	86
3.6.4 Focus-group interviewing (FGs).....	86
3.6.4.1 Rationale	86
3.6.4.2 Procedure.....	87
3.6.4.3 Limitations of FG-INT and the way I dealt with them	87
3.6.5 Follow up interviews (FUs)	88
3.7 Additional sources of data	88
3.7.1 Interview with the member of the Academic Board (MOAB)	88
3.7.2 Field-notes	90
3.7.3 Document gathering.....	90
3.8. Issues of credibility	91
3.8.1 Subjectivity	91
3.8.1.1 Memoing to minimise bias.....	91
3.8.1.2 Triangulation	92
3.8.2 Generalisability or Transferability	93
3.9 Ethical Issues	95

3.10 Data analysis.....	96
3.10.1 Observation analysis	98
3.10.2 POINTs analysis	99
3.10.3 INTs FGs and FUs analysis	99
3.10.4 Final analysis and summary.....	100
Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion.....	104
4.0 Presentation	104
4.1 Types of beliefs about CS	106
4.1.1 More L2 than L1	106
4.1.2 Balanced L1	109
4.1.3 More L1 than L2.....	113
4.2 Influences on CS beliefs.....	115
4.2.1 External factors - the context.....	116
4.2.1.1 Tensions	116
4.2.1.1.1 Students' profiles.....	116
4.2.1.1.2 Students' attitude.....	121
4.2.1.1.3 Mixed-ability classes.....	123
4.2.1.1.4 Time-constraint	124
4.2.1.1.5 Exam-pressure	126
4.2.2 Internal factors	128
4.2.2.1 Teachers' experience.....	128
4.2.2.1.1 Class management.....	129
4.2.2.1.2 Building Rapport	132
4.2.2.1.3 The nature of the subject matter	134
4.2.2.2 Further discussion on tensions and teachers' experiences-reshaping practices instantaneously.....	136
4.2.2.3 Teachers' background	138
4.2.2.3.1 Prior learning experience.....	138
4.2.2.3.2 Participants' teachers.....	142
4.2.2.3.3 Professional training.....	144
4.2.2.3.4 Family background.....	147
4.2.2.4 Further discussion on teachers' background.....	149
4.2.2.4.1 Discussions on cultures of learning.....	149
4.2.2.4.1.1 Framing teachers' leniency towards L1.....	150
4.2.2.4.1.2 Framing teachers' expectations of their students.....	153

4.2.2.4.1.3 Framing teachers' perceptions of class events.....	157
4.2.2.4.2 Discussions on teachers' beliefs.....	158
4.3 Manifestations of CS in class	159
4.3.1 L2 vs L1: Functions and Percentages	160
4.3.1.1 L2 vs L1: Functions	160
4.3.1.2 Further discussion on functions	163
4.3.2 Percentages	166
4.3.3 Overall discussion on practice	172
4.3.3.1 Practices matching beliefs	172
4.3.3.2 Practices influenced by cultures of learning	173
4.3.3.3 Existing beliefs formed from previous practice	175
4.3.3.4 Re/shaping belief through practice	177
4.4 Conclusion.....	179
Chapter 5 - Conclusion.....	181
5.0 Presentation	181
5.1 An overview of the findings	181
5.2 Limitations of the study.....	182
5.3 Conclusions	182
5.4 Recommendations	185
5.4.1 Recommendations for CS	185
5.4.2 Recommendations for teacher education.....	186
5.4.2.1 Uncovering existing beliefs	186
5.4.2.2 Illuminating the link between practice and belief.....	187
5.4.2.3 Ways for introducing new belief.....	188
5.4.2.4 Providing support.....	188
5.4.2.5 Encouraging group discussions.....	189
5.4.2.6 Recommendations for NCC	190
5.5 Implications for future research.....	192
5.6 Summary	193
5.7 Reflection and closing comments.....	194
References	195
Appendix A: Consent Forms.....	214
Appendix B: Interview framework for teachers.....	223
Appendix C: NCC-Documents	232
Appendix D: Data Collection Schedules.....	256

Appendix E: Data Analysis259

List of Tables

Table 1: Description of teacher participants	73
Table 2: Description of classroom observations	80
Table 3: Description of MOAB.....	89
Table 4: Methods utilised for the MOAB	89
Table 5: Summary of data analysis	101
Table 6: TC5s Language practice	114
Table 7: A representative table of participants' belief and practices	176

List of Figures

Figure 1: Summary of findings	105
Figure 2: Types of beliefs about CS.....	106
Figure 3: Influences on teachers' beliefs	115
Figure 4: Factors shaping cultures of learning.....	149
Figure 5: TCs leniency towards L1-stated beliefs.....	150
Figure 6: Manifestations of CS in-class	160
Figure 7: Functions of TCs' and TRs' L1 and L2 use	161
Figure 8: TCs and TRs total use of L1 and L2.....	167
Figure 9: Participants' use of L1 and L2.....	168
Figure 10: A comparison of TC1 and TR2 in explaining	170
Figure 11: The constituents of cultures of learning	175
Figure 12: The cycle of CS beliefs.....	179

List of Abbreviations

NCC (North Cyprus College; the research site)
CS (code-switching)
L1 (mother tongue)
L2 (target language)
TR (Turkish)
TC (Turkish-Cypriot)
CT (The Cypriot Turkish dialect)
TRNC (Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus)
BC (the British Council)
Turkish Office of Education (TOE)
Common European Framework (CEF)
EU (European Union)
NATO (The North Atlantic Treaty Organization)
EMUs (English medium universities)
COF (Communicative Oriented Framework)
North of Cyprus (NC)
SFL (school of foreign languages)
Modern Languages Department (MLD),
Prep (Preparatory School),
PROF. (Proficiency Exam),
INT. (interviews),
FU. (follow-up interviews),
INT. (Semi-structured interviews),
FG. (Focus-group interview),
Obs.(observations)
NNS (Non-native speaker)
NS (Native Speaker)
EFL (English as a Foreign Language)
SFL (English as a Second Language)
PPP (presentation, practice, production)
ICELT (In-service certificate in language teaching)

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Presentation

The aim of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the thesis. The chapter consists of seven sections. Section 1.1 introduces the topic of the study. The context of the study will be presented in section 1.2. Then, section 1.3 presents my motivation for this study. The background of the study, my aim and the significance of the study will be discussed in sections 1.4, 1.5 and 1.6 respectively. The chapter ends with 1.7 where the structure of the thesis is presented.

1.1 The topic

Language teachers cannot be considered separately from their social and cultural backgrounds. In any setting, teachers possess various social and cultural roles and identities as expatriates or nationals, native (NSs) or non-native speakers (NNSs), and members of families or society (Duff & Uchida, 1997). These foregrounded roles and ideologies depend on many factors. These include the institutional and interpersonal contexts that teachers are in, the reason for their being in that context, their biographies and their identities (i.e. on-going process of development) (He, 1995). None of these factors, beliefs and identities are static but are, rather, continuously co-constructed by means of language (Kagan, 1992).

This study focuses on the language practices of both Turkish-Cypriot (TC) and Turkish (TR) English teachers in foreign language classrooms, specifically within one university foundation program (Prep) in the north of Cyprus (NC). The study also explores the relationship between social and cultural background and language practices: that is, how TC and TR teachers' social and cultural backgrounds (the society the participants were raised in, the countries/contexts they were educated/taught in) are reflected in their language practices in class.

Studies in educational research in relation to in-class language practices range from the use of mother tongue (L1) to teachers' covert language attitudes to register (i.e. modification of speakers' speech to make it simpler and easier for the listener to comprehend) (e.g. Ioannidou & Sophocleous, 2010; Pan & Pan, 2010; Henzl, 1973). However, only a few focus on teachers' social and cultural backgrounds (e.g. Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Duff & Uchida, 1997). Moreover, there are no studies, to my

knowledge, analysing Turkish-Cypriot and Turkish English teachers' language practices in the north of Cyprus (NC), where there are people coming from different socio-cultural backgrounds (i.e. those whose parents were born and brought up in Cyprus together with those who come from Turkey to work or study in NC).

Nevertheless, an analysis of the practices of teachers coming from different cultural and geographical backgrounds is significant for a critical understanding of the reasons for teachers' choice(s) of certain language practices. Such studies aim to emphasise the connection between teachers' socio-cultural backgrounds and identities together with their instructional decisions (e.g. Jenkins, 2005; Norton, 1997; Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984). That being the case, it is important to raise educators' attention to the fact that language practices do not occur in a vacuum and that they are affected by teachers' social and cultural backgrounds. In this way, educators and/or policy makers can realise the need to find alternative ways of dealing with teachers' concerns and the reasons why they use certain language practices.

1.2 Context

This section is divided into two: first the status of English and its position in education will be discussed in north Cyprus. The second part involves the same discussion, this time in Turkey.

1.2.1 North Cyprus

At present, Cyprus is divided into two: north and south. The North is inhabited by the Turkish-Cypriots (TCs) (Güven-Lisaniler & Rodriguez, 2002). It has administrations of its own in the northern region of the island (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011): the Turkish-Cypriots are governed by the Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) and Turkish is the official language (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

Following the research aim (see section 1.5), language policies in education in particular, and the teaching of English will be dealt with in the north Cyprus context. However, there will be references to the island as a whole, particularly when referring to the British colonial period.

Located in the Mediterranean and despite having undergone different rulers (e.g. Egyptian, Persian, Macedonian, Roman, Ottoman and British) Cyprus, as a whole, has

become dominated by English, (The British rule between 1878-1960) both in social (e.g. daily life) and educational context (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou, & Kappler, 2011). Political agendas appear to be a major influence in English gaining prominence on the island, and these will be discussed in the following sub-section.

1.2.1.1 Influence of the British colonial power

One reason for the spread of English on the island was the influence of the British colonial power. The British rulers influenced the educational system of the communities (Özerk, 2001). Initially, the British made a relatively minimal attempt to anglicise the island compared to its other colonies (e.g. Hong-Kong), as the British colony allowed the communities to manage their own language matters and education systems (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011). The reason for such an attitude lay in the way the island fell under their rule: without war and with the presence of an already existing educational system for the two communities (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

Though the British allowed the two communities to manage their own education systems, they intervened in the school systems to a certain extent. The British encouraged the practice of having two separate school systems for Turkish and Greek-Cypriot students, which resulted in each of the two systems orienting itself toward the cultural and ethnic centers of Turkey and Greece, respectively (Özerk, 2001). Nevertheless, separate educational boards administered the education systems and the English High Commissioner of the island was the leader of each board. The English School Superintendent, appointed by the government in London, was also a member of the two ethnic-based boards or commissions of education (Özerk, 2001). English was offered at schools but it was not a prerequisite for higher education. The reason why English was offered was partly a result of the English language being used in various areas of public life, including the courts of law, various civic services, media and many fields of private enterprise (Özerk, 2001)

However, there was a shift in the attitude of the British colony after the 1930s. The shift in attitude resulted from the changes in the political agendas of the British colonies (i.e. interest in gaining power in the south-east Mediterranean), the declaration of Cyprus as a British Crown colony in 1925, and the mounting political conflicts between the two communities (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

In 1931, the British Colonial Period started witnessing the effect of the language used by the colonial power (i.e. English) in the educational systems of both Greeks and Turks in particular. The colonial government's policy was now to orient Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot away from their ethnic centers towards Cyprus, which was under the British rule. Turks and Greeks were forbidden to celebrate national holidays or to raise their flags (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011). The colonial government began to take steps to centralise education and control the curricula. The governor became the central authority in elementary education, gaining control over matters such as the textbooks, syllabi, teachers and medium of instruction (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

Education Laws were altered making English compulsory in the last two years of elementary education. The government took over the English school in Nicosia, which in 1900 was established as a private school, and reorganised its curriculum, changing its aim. The school was redesigned to prepare students for the London Matriculation Examinations and promote civil servants (Persianis, 2003). Moreover, the government established multiracial schools, including the teacher training college where the medium of instruction was English. Apart from these, proficiency in English became a must in many areas such as the recruitment and promotion of teachers, and employment in the civil service. For the promotion of English in the schools of the two communities, the government provided financial incentives (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

1.2.1.2 Turkish-Cypriots disassociating from the Greek

Another reason for the spread of English together with the teaching of standard Turkish seems to be the negative feelings that arose towards the Greek Cypriots. During the 1930s, bilingual education was encouraged: Turkish and Greek, by the Turkish-Cypriot School Board, which offered Greek as an academic subject in Rusdiye (today's junior high and high schools) (Özerk, 2001) and bilingual teachers were appointed (Turkish-Greek) at the primary schools in areas where Greek was used as the lingua franca (Özerk, 2001). However, English started replacing Greek as a lingua-franca between the Turkish and the Greek-Cypriots in the mid-1950s particularly due to the conflict between the two communities (Özerk, 2001). The establishment of nationalist movements: Greek-Cypriots established EOKA (Εθνική Οργάνωσις Κυπρίων Αγωνιστών: 'National Organization of Cypriot Fighters') (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011, p. 258), a Greek Cypriot nationalist movement, with its armed campaign for Enosis, a union with Greece and

Turkish-Cypriots founded TMT (Türk Mukavemet Teşkilatı: 'Turkish Resistance Organization') (Hadjoannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011, p. 258), a resistance movement to protect the rights of Turkish-Cypriots (Özerk, 2001) had a great impact in provoking this conflict. For the Turkish-Cypriots, the Greek language started to have negative connotations and in the period from 1956 to 1959 this resulted in a disassociation from the Greek language in school policies of the Turkish-Cypriots (Özerk, 2001). Until the mid 1950s, there were internal conflicts and civil unrest among the two communities. Turkish-Cypriot schools did not offer instruction in Greek as it was considered the language of the enemy (Özerk, 2001). In fact, according to some records (see Kizilyürek & Gautier-Kizilyürek, 2004) there were some nationalist campaigns organized by the Turkish Cypriot nationalist leadership (e.g. Citizen Speak Turkish) in the 1950s punishing those who spoke Greek. In return, Turkish-Cypriots started learning standard Turkish. The Turkish-Cypriot Youth Association, founded by the Turkish-Cypriot leadership in 1958, organized the Department for People's Education and started an educational mobilization, aiming to teach Turkish to all those who could not speak or write Turkish.

1.2.1.3 The foundation of the Republic of Cyprus (1960-1963)

In 1960, the island achieved its independence and the Republic of Cyprus was founded by the by the Turkish-Cypriots and Greek-Cypriots with three guaranteeing powers; Britain, Turkey and Greece. This resulted in English gaining more power as it became the official language, together with Turkish and Greek (Özerk, 2001). One reason for English becoming the official language was that the Greek-Cypriots did not speak Turkish and the bilingualism of the Turkish-Cypriots was an asymmetrical bilingualism (i.e. they spoke Greek, but could not read or write it), so English was given the function of the official common language. Also, English was a neutral language. As Karoulla-Vrikki (2001) states:

English was an unofficially-official third, supposedly neutral language, which was neither ethnic nor mother tongue (p.260).

Financial affairs and all official publications and offices operated in all three languages. Official activities such as parliamentary debates and most court cases were conducted in English. It was introduced in the schools as the language of administration. Teachers with insufficient knowledge of English often had to quit their service (Weir, 1952 as cited in Özerk, 2001).

1.2.1.4 Civil unrest and internal conflicts (1964-1974)

Due to the unrest and conflicts between the Greek and Turkish-Cypriots between 1964 and 1974, the Greek language was replaced by English as a lingua franca (see Özerk, 2001).

In 1974, there was a military coup, supported by Greece, against Cyprus's elected Greek-Cypriot President Makarios as in the Greek government's opinion, the president had deviated from the policy of ENOSIS (Round Table, 1957). The Greek-nationalists set up their own leader, Samson, as the new leader of Cyprus. Turkey then intervened claiming it was its right and duty as one of the three guarantors of the Republic under the Cypriot constitution. This intervention was seen as an invasion by the Greek-Cypriots and was met with armed resistance by Greek soldiers and their Greek-Cypriot counterparts.

Owing to the war in 1974, there were significant population shifts in the northern and southern parts of Cyprus: Greek Cypriots left the northern part of Cyprus and Turkish-Cypriots from all over Cyprus moved to the areas under Turkish-Cypriot control (Hadjoannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

Since 1974, the number of Turkish-Greek bilingual Cypriots is diminishing (see Özerk, 2001). Due to the war in 1974 and the agreement between the Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot leaders in 1975 the country was divided, giving the southern section to the Greek-Cypriots and the northern section to the Turkish-Cypriots. This political de facto partition of the island resulted in limited contact between the two groups, including language/communication (Özerk, 2001). There were also Turkish-Cypriots who emigrated to Great Britain, Canada and Australia, which resulted in sparse contact between the two communities. (Kizilyürek & Gautier-Kizilyürek, 2004).

To increase the population in the north, there has been a great influx of immigrants from Turkey, which was perceived as negative by some of the Turkish-Cypriots (Dean, Aksoy, Akalin, Middleton & Kyriallis, 1997).

1.2.1.5 The Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) (1983)

The northern part of the island declared its independence and in 1983 founded its republic: Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) (Hadjoannou, Tsiplakou, & Kappler, 2011). Accordingly, TRNC holds 36.2% of the sovereign area of the Republic of Cyprus.

TRNC has not been recognised as politically legitimate except by Turkey. Thus, the north has long suffered from social, political and economic embargoes (Mertkan-Ozunlu & Thomson 2009).

Over the years, there have been various attempts to bring peace on the island (Müftüler-Bac, 1999). These include:

- talks between the leaders of the two communities,
- intercommunal talks for the communities to know each other and establish common interests,
- sponsoring many studies to promote the communication of the two communities by the United Nations (UN), the European Union (EU) and the USA (e.g. a Bicomunal Project conducted to bring neurologists from both communities to work together see Dean, Aksoy, Akalin, Middleton, & Kyriallis, 1997).

However, what current studies such as Leonard (2012) and Zembylas, Charalambous, Charalambous & Kendeou (2011) have shown is that matters such as encouraging a collective identity or promoting peaceful co-existence between these two communities is problematic due to the emotional feelings of both communities (e.g. being caught between feelings of belonging to their mother countries and a more localised Cypriot identity).

1.2.1.6 Current policies of TRNC

There was almost no interaction between the young generations of the two communities from 1974 to 2003, when the borders separating the two parts opened (see Özerk, 2001). so in my experience, currently, English still remains the only common means of communication between the two communities. Still some of the young generation are enrolled to the Greek courses offered in the buffer zone and the university of Cyprus offers Turkish to its students as an elective course (Hadjioannou., Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011), which might be considered as actions taken to enhance communication.

English is used in many areas: the public sector, the translation of the Cyprus Law in 1995, as well as policy decisions, interethnic communication and in tourism (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

There are also many English expatriates living permanently in the north, especially in Kyrenia and Lapithos together with some villages (e.g. Karmi). Due to the emigration of

some Turkish-Cypriots to English-speaking countries after 1974 (e.g. the UK), there is a small number of Turkish–English bilingual speakers, who have either returned to Cyprus, come from linguistically mixed backgrounds, or are merely occasional tourists (Hadjioannou., Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

The influence of English is also shown by the fact that Cypriot-Turkish (CT) has been influenced by the English language. For example, the CT diverges from standard Turkish, showing similarities to English. This influence can be observed at vocabulary level (i.e. isvic “switch”) or written expressions (i.e. posta dairesi ‘post office’) (İssa, 2006, p.88). The sentence construction has also been affected. CT has inverted construction patterns, which do not exist in the standard Turkish of the educated elite: ‘Lazım gideyim yarın Lefkoşa’ya’ (CT) - ‘I need to go tomorrow to Nicosia’; ‘Yarın Lefkoşa’ya gitmem lazım’ (Turkish) - ‘Tomorrow to Nicosia I need to go’ (İssa, 2006, p.88).

1.2.1.7 Importance attached to the learning of English

Most families in north Cyprus want their children, starting from the primary level, to learn English as a second language. Many families today send their children for private English tuition, despite their cost, due to the absence of frequent availability of second language education (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou & Kappler, 2011).

English is taught in steps in state schools: first and second grades have a familiarization education through audio-visual materials (e.g. songs); third grade: three hours weekly; fourth to fifth grades: five hours weekly; sixth grade onwards (secondary education): six hours weekly.

In 2004, to improve English language teaching and learning in primary education in three major areas: curriculum, professional development, materials and resources, the British Council (BC) in Cyprus, in collaboration with Turkish Office of Education (TOE) of north Cyprus, initiated a three-year reform project (BC, 2013). Accordingly, a new primary ELT curriculum related to the Common European Framework (CEF) standards was developed with L2 teachers as well as a preparation of a handbook on assessment for teachers of English in primary schools. Approximately, 120 teachers in primary schools used this new curriculum in 110 primary schools in northern Cyprus. Some 11,700 primary school students benefited from the new curriculum. The BC also worked with the TOE on the creation of a handbook for teachers on the assessment of young learners

(ages six to eleven), gave teacher training workshops for primary ELT teachers and arranged international seminars, courses and training programmes in the UK or in other countries for teachers to attend (BC, 2013).

Though one of the stakeholders, the member of the Board of Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Planning expressed that they received very positive feedback about the new curriculum from teachers in the schools they visited and that the teachers reported to have found the activities interesting with tasks encouraging interaction (BC, 2013), close analysis of teachers' and learners' attitudes and classrooms revealed that the expected results in terms of benefitting from the CEF standards, had not yet been achieved. Informal conversations with the authorized administrators in the Ministry, stated that teachers had hardly adopted the latest trends (e.g. role-plays) and developments in language teaching (Sonyel, 2010). The Scoping Study Report (2013), an inception report aiming to provide guidance for the design of activities for the British Council teacher and curriculum development project, also highlighted this problem. Interviews with the inspector and students showed that classes were teacher-centered with little interaction. Students lacked motivation in learning English due to paper-based assessment and extended grammar lessons, where the teacher used L1 extensively (TSSR, 2013).

The emphasis on learning English resulted in the introduction of more teacher training programs in the field of English Language teaching. However, the expected result (i.e. a change in teachers' teaching approaches) was not achieved (Sonyel, 2010). According to Sonyel, (2010) the cause seems to be a lack of teacher motivation. Administrators reported that when teachers finished their education in ELT and begun teaching, they found themselves in a vicious circle. This means they felt obliged to teach the same topics using the same methods/techniques and not be motivated or encouraged to attend seminars, conferences or workshops to develop professionally (Sonyel, 2010).

Lack of time for teachers seemed to be another reason. For example, Yaratana & Kural (2010) indicate that though they felt using technology would encourage student-led instruction, teachers did not implement technology in the classes as they were concerned with covering all the content in the syllabus by the end of the year as proposed by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

In conclusion, it appears that the centralised education system does not reflect teachers' and students' voices. More research is needed to identify and overcome teachers'/learners' problems to meet the CEF standards.

1.2.2 Turkey

The official language in Turkey is Turkish and English has the status of being a foreign language. It is taught as part of the school curriculum and used mainly in the government and business sectors (i.e. written communication) (Kirkgoz, 2005).

Learning English has always been important for Turkish citizens due to political, economic and cultural needs (e.g. Turkey's alliance with NATO, and relationships with the USA) as well as the economic and technological changes in the world. Knowing English has always been perceived as a means for opening doors for a better future (i.e. a successful career). All of these have resulted in the need to spread English teaching (Atay, 2005) and educational policies enabled a systematic spread of English through schooling (Doğancay-Aktuna, 1998). There are several causes of this, which will be dealt within the following sub-section.

1.2.2.1 A means towards Westernization

English has always played a crucial role in Turkey (Selvi, 2014). It has always been the core of its Westernization (i.e. catching up with the developments in the West) policies even in the past. In the 18th century, witnessing the West's superiority in science and technology, the Ottoman Empire, which governed the country, adopted a positivist curriculum and strengthened its relations with the West, resulting in a systematic spread of teaching English (Atay, 2005). In 1863, the first institution teaching through the medium of English, Robert College, an Anglo-American secondary school, was established in Istanbul by an American missionary (Kirkgoz, 2005) and remains today as the oldest surviving school (Selvi, 2014). However, this was a time when the Ottoman Empire was declining steadily and more radical changes were needed for its prosperity, so these modernization policies were short-lived.

After 1923, learning English became increasingly significant. The Turkish Republic was founded and it wanted to establish a modern society (Arat, 1996). To achieve this, Turkey aimed at not only strengthening its relations especially with the West but also creating a society and a state in line with those of the West. This would enable Turkey to catch up

with the improvements there and pursue rapid economic development (Kirkgoz, 2005). This initiated a movement of cultural Westernization, defining the foreign policy of Turkey in years to come, which includes relationships with the USA, membership in NATO and most importantly its application to the EU to be a member state (Atay, 2005). To illustrate, the flow of tertiary-level students to Western countries to study in a variety of academic fields was made possible by the government (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011).

These developments had two important implications: they made it necessary to develop a systematic policy towards teaching English, as it is the language of communication in these arenas, and it increased the popularity of English (Atay, 2005). In 1955, the first state-funded English-medium secondary school, Anatolian school, was founded. As a response to the growing demand from parents, the state began to increase the number of these schools and in 1974, there were 12 Anatolian schools (Kirkgoz, 2005).

1.2.2.2 Establishing English medium universities (EMUs)

The effect of the government's policy in promoting English proficiency was also observed in higher education. Many English-medium universities were founded to increase the educational opportunities for a large number of students. The first state university offering English medium instruction was established in 1956. Then, a foundation-funded university offering English medium instruction was established in 1971, encouraging the foundation of such universities (Selvi, 2014). Since 1984, both state and private EMUs offer one-year courses of intensive English classes (similar to those of foundation courses in the UK) for all students who fail to make through the preliminary English-proficiency examination (Selvi, 2014).

The foundation of such universities is considered an advantage in many ways. For instance, it was seen as pedagogically beneficial as it would enable the establishment a meaningful context in language learning (see Selvi, 2014). Similarly, EMUs are considered an advantage at an organisational level by attracting international and exchange students as well as making it possible for Turkish students be part of exchange programs (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011).

Nevertheless, the establishment of EMUs, which aimed to enable students to access scientific and technological information published in English in their fields, created controversy which is still valid (see Selvi, 2014). For some, it was considered a threat

towards mother tongue (i.e. Turkish) proficiency (Altan, 2012). Another argument was about the quality and efficiency of the education such universities offer. In these schools, English language is perceived as an obstacle to the acquisition of the professional knowledge that universities are expected to provide. As such, there is a lot of student failure in these schools. Students seem to struggle to cope with demands imposed by their academic community (Kirkgoz, 2005).

Another significant factor contributing to this debate is related to the gap in language planning (Selvi, 2014). This not only concerns universities but foreign language instruction in Turkey in general. The central standardized university entrance exam is in Turkish and there is no English-version of this exam. Thus, as students progress towards the exam they shift their attention to preparation for the test.

Despite these debates, the Government was insistent in its aim in promoting English proficiency. In 1990, the Higher Education Law made it possible for private universities offering EMUs to be established (see CHE p. 266-271, 2012b). The establishment of private universities has expanded Turkey's provision of English-medium higher education (see CHE, 2012b). English is viewed as a means for a better (academic) career (Atay, 2005).

As of June 2010, there were 146 universities (95 state, 51 private). There were 55 faculties of education (40 state, 15 private) with English language teaching (ELT) departments; 42 faculties of science and letters (29 state, 24 private) which include either departments of English language and literature or American culture and literature. There were also interpretation (5 state, 12 private) and linguistics departments (4 state) (Altan, 2012). As of 2012, there are 173 universities (107 state 66 private) in Turkey, 24 of which have compulsory English preparatory programs (CHE, 2012a). In 2014, there were 104 state, 71 private universities as well as 7 private vocational schools (Selvi, 2014).

1.2.2.3 Reforms in education

With EU accession talks and Turkey's increasing significance regarding its position in the world, the government continued to place importance on the teaching of English. During the 1990s, when Turkey mostly had a poverty stricken population, and increasing the welfare of the population was significant, the Turkish government gave central attention to education and initiated certain reforms. (Dulger, 2004).

In 1997, the first reform affecting English language teaching was introduced and was called 'the Ministry of Education Development Project' (Kirkgoz, 2005, p. 220). The reform firstly aimed to introduce English at an earlier age to students and for a longer time so that exposure to English would increase. Certain steps were taken to realise the reform.

First, with the reform, the duration of compulsory education was extended from five to eight years and English became a compulsory subject from grade four (aged nine–eleven) upwards to provide longer exposure to the target language. There was also an increase in the weekly schedule of English (Kirkgoz, 2005).

Another aim of the reform was to introduce communicative language teaching. As English was going to be introduced at an early age, the ministry felt the need to revise the foreign language curriculum and promote communicative language teaching. This meant a student centered approach (Kirkgoz, 2005) where students would develop cultural awareness of English speaking cultures (Atay, 2005) as well as of the foreign language (Kirkgoz, 2008); communicative language proficiency (Kirkgoz, 2007); a positive attitude towards the learning of English language; and learners would have increased motivation (Kirkgoz, 2007). The basic goal of the policy was to improve learners' communicative capacity and prepare them to use the target language (L2) for communication in classroom activities (Kirkgoz, 2007).

The teachers' and students' roles were also to change with this reform. According to the ELT curriculum, teachers should no longer be transmitters of knowledge. They should be guides or facilitators of the learning process promoting positive attitudes towards the English learning process (Kirkgoz, 2007). They should encourage student-centred learning and aim to develop learners' communicative performance in English.

Learners were to take part in the learning process. It was suggested that this could be fulfilled through various pair and group-work activities. The curriculum also proposed the need of learners' acquisition of basic communicative abilities for daily communication at a basic level. This could be achieved by creating classroom situations through games and dialogues. In this way, learners would have fun while learning English (Kirkgoz, 2007).

Certain steps were taken to achieve this and make sure that all schools would use a communicative approach in their teaching. These included the introduction of a new curriculum and development of teacher training programs.

A new curriculum was designed. A team of experts from different units of the Education Department, and teachers of English language, together with national and international consultants designed a communicative oriented framework (COF). The team developed a curriculum with guidelines on ELT. The document was distributed to primary schools to be implemented throughout the nation (Kirkgoz, 2007).

Teacher training courses were enhanced. The pre-service departments of the Faculties of Education were reconstructed. Following the 1997 educational reform, teacher education departments of ELT were redesigned in schools. The aim was to give trainees a hands-on experience. Therefore, the number of methodology courses was increased, and the duration of teaching practice periods in primary schools was extended (Kirkgoz, 2005). Furthermore, so as to guide prospective teachers through their understanding of the new curriculum and development of practical skills a new course 'Teaching English to Young Learners' (TEYLs) was introduced into the curriculum of the ELT Departments of the Faculties of Education. To ensure that teachers received support, teacher educators offering TEYLs courses were also encouraged to participate in seminars and conferences (Kirkgoz, 2007).

In 2005, a second reform was introduced. The aim of this reform was to ensure that all types of schools (e.g. state schools) could achieve European standardization in ELT. Thus, the duration of all secondary-level schools, which increased to four years from three. As a result, the one-year English language preparation class offered only in Anatolian, private and Super English Language High Schools was abolished (Kirkgoz, 2007). Moreover, the curriculum for primary education designed in 1997 was revised and its communicative essence was elaborated to adapt it to European Union (EU) standards (Kirkgoz, 2009).

The last policy change was introduced in 2012. With this law, learners began to learn English at a younger age. The duration of primary and secondary education changed. This change entailed a transition from the compulsory 8+4 educational model to the new compulsory 4+4+4 system (MONE, 2012). According to the new policy, the compulsory

primary school age involves the age group of six to thirteen. Accordingly, ELT is to be implemented from the 2nd grade onward rather than the 4th grade. In 2013, the curriculum and materials for all grades were in the process of being renovated (MONE, 2013).

However, despite these attempts to introduce the new reform, it was difficult to implement, particularly in language teaching, due to the way the law was interpreted, as well as for teacher related, contextual and cultural factors.

1.2.2.4 Obstacles in implementing reforms

One reason was the way the law was perceived. The way the law was presented created controversy overshadowing one of its targets: teaching English at an early age. (Dulger, 2004). It was argued in the press that some members of Parliament had further agendas with the new law. Prior to the law, lower secondary-schools (six-eight grades) included religiously oriented elective formal education programs. With this new law these programs were to be abolished, as the law required that all students attend formal school for an additional three years as part of their eight-year compulsory education. For many parents this meant their children would not get religious instruction until after they reached 14. Similarly, it meant vocational schools were closed. This attracted criticism from poor families whose offspring were deprived of the education offered by these schools and had to study for an additional three-years before contributing to family income. These small and medium-sized enterprises also reacted as they were worried that more students would now seek higher secondary education and thus would limit the supply of apprentices (Dulger, 2004). The current 4+4+4 educational reform is still debated (see Selvi, 2014).

Another problem was related to the shortage of teachers (Kirkgoz, 2007). As the primary programs were extended with compulsory education being extended from four to eight, the number of students at primary schools increased. As a result, there was an urgent need for more teachers. Therefore, the ministry of education began recruiting teachers who were either not trained to teach primary schools or people who had majors other than English language teaching (e.g. biology) graduating from English medium universities (Kirkgoz, 2007). Though efforts (e.g. In-service teacher training) were made to support such teachers, these were either not enough to reach all teachers, were short-term (Kirkgoz, 2007) or did not attract teachers' attention (Ozer, 2004). These problems, together with the short and implementation timelines, made the new COF curriculum

difficult to implement. Ozer (2004) reports that his previous studies support this idea. Though teachers expressed the necessity of professional development (73%), only a small number of them attended in-service training programs (32%). It is important to make certain changes to overcome the problem so that the expected results are achieved. These would include exploring training needs with scientific research, increasing the quality and quantity of the activities, making the programs more convenient for teachers (e.g. running courses in the institutions teachers work at) and adding motivational elements (e.g. teachers' earning certain credits in the in-service training programs, which may help teachers to be promoted) to the in-service training system (Ozer, 2004).

Contextual factors were another challenge for the implementation of the reforms. These included schools not equipped with the necessary infrastructure facilities to enable the use of communicative activities required by COF, crowded classes hindering pair/group-work, and teaching materials lacking activities that would effectively promote communicative activities together with guidelines on how to implement the book.

The final and most important problem is related to cultural factors. Although the communicative approach has been adopted by Turkey and many other countries, one frequent effect of such nationally initiated curriculum innovation projects is the challenges faced by non-native English teachers. Research (e.g. Hui, 1997) shows that trying to implement unfamiliar classroom practices, results in a gap between the official rhetoric and the actual classroom practices of teachers, which was the case in Turkey (Kirkgoz, 2007).

These policies seem to have replicated a Western lifestyle rather than creating a suitable culture, which is one significant reason for failure. Within the Turkish context, there are certain common characteristics among Turkish teachers of English which can be related to their teaching culture, and which tend to be mainly transmission oriented (Kirkgoz, 2007). The 1997 curriculum, with its communicative focus, encouraging active student participation in the learning process, meant that Turkish teachers had to change their beliefs about how learning takes place and about the learner role as well as making adjustments in their teaching practices accordingly. In countries such as Turkey, where teachers have little or no experience of communicative activities this is difficult to attain (Li, 1998).

Another cultural factor is related to familiarity with the target (i.e. English) culture. For the Turkish teachers it was difficult to teach a culture they were not familiar with. A study among 65 Turkish teacher students back this up (Atay, 2005). The study shows that none of the student teachers visited an English speaking country and that they learnt information about the English culture from the media or from courses/conferences. The student teachers expressed that they felt inadequate in raising learners' cultural awareness because of their lack of relevant knowledge.

Consequently, it is important that education policy be understood within the workings of the government and as an integral part of the political, social and economic context surrounding it (Ozga, 2000). The previous governments saw the necessity of rather revolutionary action because they needed a quick step towards modernisation. However, what the Turkish context shows is that there is a need to provide continuous teacher training and teacher development opportunities to promote the implementation of curriculum innovation in education (Kirkgoz, 2008).

1.3 Motivation

This study was inspired by my personal interest in understanding how teachers' socio-cultural background and the context they are teaching in influences their language practices.

Until now, I have both been taught, and taught English myself in different geographical locations. I am a Turkish-Cypriot (TC) and I have lived in the UK, north of Cyprus (NC) and Turkey. I first started learning English in the UK where I was born and lived until the age of seven. At the age of seven, my family and I moved to NC. During my stay in NC I also made frequent and extended trips to the UK as some of my family still live there. In Cyprus, during my childhood, I continued to be educated in English for almost five years by an English ex-nursery teacher. Lessons were in English only and taught communicatively: there was no formal teaching of rules (i.e. grammar) but rather rules were discovered through communicating with the teacher and the rest of the class. As a British expatriate, my teacher incorporated aspects of her culture, e.g. Christmas and Easter, in her teaching.

My first encounter of explicit grammar rules started at high school. During my first three years, my English teachers were Turkish-Cypriots who had lived and worked in the UK.

The lessons were mainly teacher-led and in English (L2) though there were a few switches to the mother tongue (L1) (Turkish). Teachers also included examples from British culture and experiences from their time in Britain to provide examples for the lessons.

Three years later, my English teacher was Turkish. However, her stay in the institution was short-lived. The teacher found it difficult to adjust to the culture and NC in general. She was also not happy with the students' profile. This was partly because her accent was different from what we students had been used to. Being an ex-colonial British community, Turkish-Cypriots are used to the British accent. However, this teacher's accent was a mixture of American and Turkish. Her lessons were teacher-centred with constant switches to the mother tongue. As students, we perceived these as a lack of command in English and made our reactions to her teaching practices very clear by not responding to her questions and refusing to do her homework.

Later that year and for the following three years, my English teacher was a Turkish-Cypriot who was educated in Turkey. Her lessons were teacher-led with constant switches to L1. I remember those times as being the first time I actually discovered my lack of knowledge in grammar. Until then, I had paid no attention to grammar rules as owing to my regular visits to the UK and my past (i.e. being brought up in the UK), I was unaware of the rules. As the university entrance exam came nearer, our teacher included more advanced grammar points in our lessons, which meant more L1. My English grades started to fall and it was the first time I started studying grammar. However, our teacher was very much liked by all students and she did not get the same reaction as that of the Turkish teacher. Though our teacher was authoritative, switched to L1 and conducted teacher-led lessons, she seemed friendly as she could be by making cultural jokes and easing the tension whenever necessary. Moreover, at the time due to the approaching university entrance exam and our age, my friends and I were content that the long grammar instructions were necessary.

I spent the next ten years in Turkey where I did my BA, MA, pedagogical formation and started teaching as an English teacher. I was educated by teachers among Turkish students. Language lessons were generally teacher-centred, incorporated switches to L1 and advanced grammar with more focus on skills (i.e. listening, reading and writing). I remember being taught rules for all skills (i.e. how to begin a paragraph, reading and listening). I started learning terms such as skimming, scanning, post-reading, topic

sentence, all of which aimed to provide learner autonomy and foster communicative language teaching. Ironically, almost all were introduced in teacher-led classes.

Now, I am an English teacher in NC. I have been teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) for eleven years and my learning/teaching experience is just an example of many others'. I acknowledge, as Duff & Uchida (1997) also state, my biographical/professional background, and contextual basis of teaching affects my instructional decisions, particularly my language practice. My intention in this study, thus, is to see if language teachers' teaching practices are interwoven with their social and cultural backgrounds.

1.4 Background to the study

Close analysis of language use in education reveals that the analysis of teachers' language practices has been researched with different focuses. The literature on language practice includes code-switching (CS), teachers' covert language attitudes and the use of register of the language.

One area of study on language practices is CS. It has been investigated in different contexts with various research focuses (e.g. Kim & Elder, 2008). Results reveal that CS in language learning is not seen as an asset by all (Pan & Pan, 2010), with some scholars rejecting it (e.g. Evans, 2009; Chambers, 1991), and others valuing it (e.g. Antón & Dicomilla, 1999). Opponents see L1 as unnatural in that the exclusive use of L2 makes the classroom seem more like a monolingual learning atmosphere and a real place for learning. Also, they believe that using L1 undermines L2 learning. The presence of L1 prevents students from receiving the input they might be exposed to in real-life (Polio & Duff, 1994).

Advocates argue that L1 can be an essential tool in the learning process because it boosts learners' self-confidence (Auerbach, 1993), reflects a natural learning process and enables the interaction between teachers and learners as well as among learners (Villamil & de Guerrero, 1996). Attempts to totally ban CS behaviour impede the L2 learning process. Banning CS in class may remove CS behaviour, but it may lead to breakdowns in communication (i.e. long pauses) (Eldridge, 1996).

Another area of study on language practices is related to teachers' covert language attitudes. This is the way teachers use language, the choice of a linguistic code, the

recognition or refusal of specific linguistic varieties in classroom discourse, and the values they attach to language use govern many of the language conflicts that may arise in the classroom (Ioannidou & Sophocleous, 2010). Studies on this issue conclude that teachers' language practices are affected by policy makers. Politics and the current political state of a country affect, to a significant extent, the education system, school curricula and the language that officially serves as the vehicle of learning (Ioannidou & Sophocleous, 2010). However, despite the different views arising from policy-makers, the final determiners of language use in the classroom are teachers, regardless of the policy (Ioannidou & Sophocleous, 2010).

Finally, research into language practices can include register. This is the way which speakers modify their speech to what they think will be simpler and easier for the listener to comprehend. It occurs whenever participants in a verbal communication do not have equal facility of the language in use. Then, adjustments in choices of linguistic means may take place. The choices they make tend to be consistent for speakers of whole speech communities, and, may show a systematic patterning that allows us to view the modified speech variety as a subsystem or 'register' (Henzl, 1973, p. 207) of the language.

1.5 Aim

The aim of this study is to explore TC and TR English teachers' in-class language beliefs and practices and how their socio-cultural backgrounds are reflected in their teaching practices. For this study, data will be gathered from observations, interviews, and focus-group interviews, documents, field-notes and follow-up interviews if necessary.

The data will be collected via qualitative interviewing and observations. I aim to ask the participants their views on the topic with face-to-face interviews, which I will audio-record and later transcribe. I chose interviewing because it is accepted as an effective means to investigate participants' identities, experiences beliefs and attitudes (Mills, 2001).

Data for the interviews will be collected from the teachers (both TCs and TRs). I will interview participants to get views about their teaching practices. I will observe classes (n=3 for each, or more as appropriate) to explore their actual practices in class. These observation will guide my further questions for the interviews.

Additional sources of data will be collected from the stakeholders: the administration (a member from the academic board). The member of the academic board will be interviewed mainly to gather information about NNCs language policy and the expected teaching practices.

The study is guided by the following question:

What are the language practices of Turkish-Cypriot (TC) and Turkish (TR) teachers of English?

1.6 Significance

I believe the study will contribute to the field of in-class language practices in many ways. First, to my knowledge, there are no studies conducted in NC where TR and TC English teachers' in-class language practices have been investigated with a focus on teachers' identity. In terms of non-English speaking countries, there are some studies both in Turkey (e.g. Eldridge, 1996), and a very few other studies, mostly unpublished MA theses, (e.g. Nuri, 1997) on CS in NC.

Secondly, the study will have theoretical and practical implications. On the theoretical side, the uniqueness of the participants and context will contribute to the significance of the study by offering insights into English language teachers' in-class language practices. The findings can be compared and contrasted with other studies to better understand the role of language practices in language classrooms.

On the practical side, the majority of the studies on language practices, especially in Turkey and NC, have related to teachers' or students' perceptions of in-class CS. As mentioned above, no research has yet been conducted on TC and TR teachers' language practices with a reference to teachers' socio-cultural backgrounds. This study will shed light on TC and TR English teachers' language practices. The findings of this study can inform educators, policy makers and other stakeholders about the historical and cultural implications for in-class language practices. In this way, related bodies can gain a critical understanding of the implications for language practices and, if necessary, make adjustments to their language policies.

Finally, the study aims to draw educators' attention to the fact that language practices do not occur in a vacuum and that they are affected by teachers' social and cultural

backgrounds. Thus, policy makers can realise the need to find alternative ways of dealing with teachers' concerns and the reasons why they use certain language practices. It is hoped that this study will stimulate similar work and offer insights into works on language practices in present and similar contexts.

1.7 Structure

The thesis will be structured as follows. Chapter 1 (this chapter) introduces the background to the study, my position as a researcher, the context and the aim of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on teachers' beliefs, secondary research on teachers' beliefs and cultures of learning. It discusses different perspectives to CS, the debates around CS, and secondary research on CS. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology. It describes the interpretivist position and the rationale for the methodology used. Additionally, the context, the research participants and the research design are described in detail. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study and discusses these findings. The final chapter, Chapter 5 draws conclusions, offers implications and recommendations for further studies and discusses the limitations of the study. Then, follows the reference list and appendices.

Chapter 2 - Review of Literature

2.0 Presentation

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section, 2.1, reviews the early beginnings of research on teachers' beliefs, existing research and implications on teachers' beliefs, highlighting the debates considered particularly relevant for this study. Here, a definition of my understanding of teachers' beliefs will also be given. Later, section 2.2 discusses language code-switching as a language practice, together with a definition of what is meant by CS in this study, and debates around CS. This will be followed by research conducted in that area and again drawing upon the implications that come with these debates. The chapter ends with a conclusion in 2.3.

2.1 Teachers' Beliefs

Before moving on to a definition of teachers' beliefs, the development of teachers' beliefs will be discussed.

2.1.1 The early beginnings of research on teachers' beliefs

The 1970s seemed to have been a turning point in education as scholars started questioning the traditional process-product approach: a transmission model whereby there was assumed to be a causal relationship between teachers' actions (behaviour) and students' mental processes (Freeman, 2002).

The aim of the process-product research was to unveil how teachers' actions made student learning possible (or not) (Freeman, 2002). However, studies of various scholars managed to steer research into a more macro approach where the causal relationship between teachers' behaviour and student learning was challenged. Teaching started to be considered as more complex and teachers' mental lives were considered influential in teaching. Jackson (1968 as cited in Clark & Peterson 1984) for example published his book *Life in classrooms* to reveal how teachers' mental constructs and behaviour are closely tied. Similarly, Sylvia Ashton-Warner's book *Teacher* (1979 as cited in Freeman 2002) enabled a shift in the ways teachers were perceived by putting more attention on teachers' impacts on teaching as individuals rather than that of their behaviour (Freeman, 2002). The works of scholars including Lortie (1975) and the reports of the panels held by National Institute of Education in USA (Clark & Peterson, 1984) also stressed an

understanding of teachers' experiences in the classroom and were influential first in educational research and subsequently in research in teacher education (Hobbs, 2007a).

In line with this shift of research focus, more qualitative studies started to emerge (Freeman, 2002) challenging the traditional experimental paradigm (Clark & Peterson, 1984). Initially, though it was not readily understood (Clark & Peterson, 1984), the shift of research focus and paradigm for teacher education research reinforced the notion that teachers' backgrounds, their previous experiences, and the social contexts they were teaching in had to be reconsidered in the studies of teaching (Freeman, 2002).

The inclusion of these in educational research with the promotion of more qualitative paradigms had significant contributions for (teacher) education research. Building upon the works of Ashton-Warner and Lortie, the works of scholars such as Edwards & Furlong (1978), Shavelson & Stern (1981), Elbaz (1983) and Woods (2003) captured the idea that teaching entails thought processes and added that good teaching is both context and teacher-bound (Hobbs, 2007a), all forming the basis of research on teachers' beliefs (Hobbs, 2007a) which will be discussed in the next section.

2.1.2 From teachers' cognitions to teachers' beliefs

Before moving on to teachers' beliefs, it is important to understand teacher cognition, which is considered to be a broader term forming the basis for teachers' beliefs. As Hobbs (2007a) states, the term teacher cognition emerged when some researchers such as Woods (1991) used teachers' planning and decision making as well as interactive thoughts and decisions to reach teachers' theories and beliefs and the possible impact they have on teachers' lesson planning and actual lessons (Freeman, 2002).

Teacher cognition has been defined by many scholars. Borg (2003) gives a broad definition and describes it as 'what teachers know, believe and think' (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Clark & Peterson's (1984) division of what cognition entails enables a better understanding of what cognition is comprised of. They posit that the process of teaching encompasses two significant domains: teachers' thought processes and teachers' actions. Teachers' thought processes has three sub-categories and involves;

1. teachers' theories, and beliefs (about students, teaching and learning),
2. teachers' planning and decision making,

3. interactive thoughts and decisions (Clark & Peterson, 1984, p. 10)

Thus, a combination of all these categories make up teacher cognition. The major focus of this study is teachers' beliefs and thus the following sub-section will examine the debates around the definition of teachers' beliefs and research on teachers' beliefs, drawing upon the possible implications.

2.1.3 Towards a definition of teachers' beliefs

There exists a bulk of work on teachers' beliefs and thus there are various definitions of it. In fact, Pajares (1992) calls the attempt of defining beliefs clarifying a 'messy' (p.329) construct. To Pajares, beliefs: 'travel in disguise and often under alias' (p.309). Some terms used for beliefs include: 'judgements' (Yero, 2002, p. 21), 'perceptions' (Schulz 2001, p. 245) 'personal pedagogical belief systems' (Borg, 1998, p. 9); 'maxims' (Richards 1996, p. 282); 'BAK' (beliefs acquisition and knowledge) (Woods, 1996, p. 195); 'images' (Golombek, 1998, p. 448) and 'implicit theories' (Clark & Peterson 1986, p. 2) and 'explicit propositions' (Nisbett & Ross 1980, p. 28).

A look at researchers' descriptions of beliefs supports the fact that there are diverging realities of teachers' beliefs. For Mansour (2009), beliefs encompasses teachers' individual thoughts about people, things, events and their relationships, which influence their planning, thinking and judgments. Hobbs (2007a) defines teachers' beliefs as:

...the entirety of teachers' ideas, whether grounded in experience or simply posited, about what constitutes good (and bad) teaching (Hobbs, 2007a, p. 33).

Back in 1968, Rokeach defined beliefs as psychological constructs determining actions. He added that their nature are descriptive, evaluative and prescriptive (p. 113). One of the greatest influences of Rokeach's (1968) works in the area of change was to make a distinction between core and peripheral beliefs. He suggested that core beliefs are in the center of the belief system and more resistant to change, whereas as the name suggests, peripheral beliefs are more subject to change. The idea has been further developed and been long supported by scholars including Pajares (1992), and in the findings of many researchers (e.g. Phipps & Borg, 2009).

These definitions seems to have led to the development of an array of ideas of what exactly teachers' beliefs entails. For Borg (2003) and Clandinin & Connelly (1988), this

conceptual confusion has led to a disagreement on the exact definition of beliefs. Researchers are defining seemingly identical terms in different ways and using different labels to describe similar concepts. Borg (2003) calls for an agreement among scholars in this respect to avoid further confusion.

However, Mansour (2009) takes a different perspective towards the different uses of labels, which I believe is a significant point to consider. He opines that these various labels reflect the diverging viewpoints of researchers. Similarly, Woods (2003) proposes that the variety of labels should be considered as a positive thing as they yield the different realities of researchers. If so, then rather than seeking a congruence in this respect, more research on teachers' beliefs is needed where researchers can find the opportunity to reflect their own realities of beliefs (Woods, 2003).

I follow Woods (2003) and Mansour's (2009) ideas, and therefore to tap better into teachers' realities of teachers' beliefs and hence deepen our understanding of them, the next section deals with the distinction around beliefs and knowledge (if there is any) as the different perspectives among teachers' beliefs seem to revolve around this distinction (Pajares, 1992).

2.1.4 Knowledge or beliefs as separate or united entities

Those who have tried to distinguish the two terms have claimed knowledge is impersonal or objective, while beliefs are personal and thus idiosyncratic. Early in 1992, to clearly define beliefs, Pajares (1992) tried to make a distinction between knowledge and beliefs. He suggested that knowledge meant facts and beliefs meant opinions or theories. He pronounced that beliefs were in the center of developing ideas. Nespor (1987) maintained that knowledge and beliefs are different in many ways, and often conflict with each other. Still he added that beliefs can be considered to be a form of knowledge. Comparing beliefs with knowledge, Nespor (1987) also highlights alteration to underscore the difference between knowledge and belief. Nespor (1987) opines that while knowledge is conscious and often changes, beliefs may be unconsciously held, are often tacit and resistant to change. He adds that when beliefs change, 'it is not argument or reason that alters them, but rather a conversion or gestalt shift' (Nespor, 1987, p.311). Mansour (2009) assumed that knowledge changed frequently, and can be evaluated or judged (p. 27). To Mansour, while beliefs can control the acquisition of knowledge, the idea that they are open to

change and subject to evaluation distinguishes one from the other. Still he underscored that knowledge affects beliefs.

These proved to be very simplistic definitions of knowledge and more ideas seemed to have flourished further illuminating what knowledge entails (Hobbs, 2007a). Perhaps Johnson's (1989) definition of knowledge was one of the most significant in our understanding of it as he added to it some further categories (Hobbs, 2007a). One of the most important was the impact of teachers' experiences in shaping teachers' knowledge. Accordingly, teachers' past experiences make up their knowledge. Lortie (1975) refers to this as 'apprenticeship of observation' (p.61) aiming to highlight that teachers' past experiences as pupils form the basis of teachers' beliefs about teaching. This has been evidenced in many studies (e.g. Flores & Day, 2006; Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010). Here the focus was put on the fact that knowledge is constructed.

Influenced by these distinctions, Hobbs (2007a) refers to beliefs as the *entirety of ideas* while she defines knowledge as the

...awareness of specific teaching techniques and skills, which a teacher may choose to ignore or use, depending on his/her belief system (p. 33).

This brings up the question of awareness of what exactly? The following descriptions are helpful in this respect. Shulman (1987) includes seven categories to the knowledge base; 'content knowledge; general pedagogical knowledge; curriculum knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; knowledge of learners and their characteristics; knowledge of educational contexts; knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds' (Shulman, 1987, p.8). Though this proved to be helpful in our understanding of what knowledge entails, its broad nature required for a simpler definition. Richards' (1998) categorisation is helpful in this respect. He divides knowledge into only two categories: 'subject matter knowledge' and 'implicit knowledge' (p.282-283) (personal understanding of what makes up good teaching).

Existing research also recognizes these social interactions and the critical role played by culture, upbringing and experiences in shaping teachers' beliefs systems and the way they teach (e.g. Altan, 2012; Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Aldemir & Sezer, 2009; Flores & Day, 2006; Ellis, 2006; Borg, 2003). One factor related to this is the influence of teachers' teachers. Lortie (1975) referred to this as 'apprenticeship of observation' (p.61).

As such, influenced by their own teachers, teachers start shaping their belief systems back at high school (as this is the time when they actually remember themselves as being students) when they were students (Flores & Day, 2006). They start considering the effective ways of teaching. Thus, by the time they enter the profession they will have a set of beliefs about teaching (Aldemir & Sezer, 2009). In making decisions regarding teaching, teachers revert to their teachers' teaching (Borg, 2003). Their teachers' methods, approaches and ways serve as 'de facto guidelines' (Borg, 2003, p. 88), 'powerful imprints' (Ellis, 2006, p.3) or 'interpretive framework' (Golombek, 1998, p. 451) as they consider how to act in class. Simply, they assume that if their teachers' teachings worked for them as a student, then it will also work for their students. Various studies are supportive of this (e.g. Flores & Day, 2006). Adding to these, Auerbach (1993) stresses that the interpretive framework in fact brings with it the ability to empathise with students. She says that language teachers can empathise with their students if they share the same learning experience with their students, adding that it is difficult to attain empathy through training.

Ellis (2006) also proposes that previous language learning experience has an integral role in shaping language teachers' beliefs or what she calls 'insights' (p.4). Accordingly, teachers consider their L2 experience as valuable for their teaching (McDonough, 2002). Ellis (2006) suggests that a teacher who has experienced living in a bilingual family, better understands the act of becoming bicultural and thus, can provide bilingual help effectively in various situations and develop an understanding of bilingualism. As such, Ellis (2006) uses knowledge (facts), beliefs (acceptance of a proposition) and adds insights (personal practical knowledge-knowledge, which is experiential, embodied, and reconstructed throughout teachers' lives). For Ellis (2006), insights combine knowledge and beliefs. It clarifies or makes sense of something previously vague, or adds a new perspective to something that has always been accepted as true. Thus, with insights previously understood realities could be different.

There have been attempts to unite knowledge and beliefs. The arguments here pinpoint that both knowledge and beliefs gradually develop. Calderhead (1996) described knowledge as 'factual propositions and understandings' (p. 715). He focuses on the category, personal knowledge, pinpointing that as knowledge is acquired, it is chosen to be believed or not. Thus, he emphasized that beliefs are not separate from knowledge, but rather a part of it. Clark & Peterson (1986) also support that teachers' theories and beliefs

serve as a store for knowledge. They also contend that within time, teachers perceive their world and react to it by designing a complex system made up of personal and professional knowledge. Kagan (1992) refers to beliefs as ‘personal knowledge’ (p. 181) (personal experiences) and argues that teachers’ professional knowledge can be regarded as belief. Accordingly, the more experience teachers gain, the richer their knowledge becomes. Then, teachers start forming a highly personalised pedagogy or belief system defining their perception, judgement and behaviour. Richards & Lockhart (1994) also maintain that one’s belief shapes gradually over time. They contend that beliefs are subjective and objective, form the basis for teachers’ decision making and classroom actions. Pajares (1992) echoes this by suggesting that beliefs have a greater impact than knowledge in:

...determining how individuals organise and define problems and are stronger predictors of behaviour (p. 311).

Woods (2003) attempted to unite knowledge and belief and this step has had a groundbreaking impact towards our understanding of these two constructs. He argues that they are both crucial in understanding teachers’ decision making as well as practices (Woods, 1996). He refers to both as dynamic and evolving entities needed to be considered in a continuum (Woods & Çakır, 2011). To underscore this continuum, Woods (1996) coined the term ‘BAK’ (Beliefs, Assumptions, Knowledge: p.192)

Woods (2003) takes a look at the matter according to what he calls a ‘constructivist’ view (Woods, 2003, p. 205) suggesting that both knowledge and beliefs are constructed over time through social interactions. Old information acts as a filter or interpretive frame for the structure of new information and the resulting knowledge is dependent on previous structures and the same goes for beliefs (Woods, 2003). That is, we interpret activities depending on our prior experiences, needs and goals, focusing on aspects that relate to us and ignoring the ones that do not (Woods, 1996). In the interpretation phase, the activities are interpreted according to individual beliefs, working assumptions and knowledge. Woods (1996) also pinpoints the dynamic nature of this phrase. Both beliefs and knowledge are re-structured and strengthened, in time (see Erkmen, 2010, for further support). The difference between knowledge and beliefs lies in the fact that beliefs are the same as knowledge (they comprise of notions of how things are) but also include a value judgement of how things should (or not) be and thus are evaluative, as Pajares (1992) stated. Woods’ (2001) description of the matter actually sums up most of the research above.

Taking Hobbs (2007), Woods (1996) and Pajares' (1992) lead, and referring to my research focus (see Chapter 1) I refer to beliefs as:

Opinions of the (in)/appropriate or not pedagogical practice in class based on teachers' experiences or statements.

I refer to and knowledge as:

teachers' realization of specific teaching techniques and skills, which they may adopt or not, based on their belief system.

2.1.5 Research on teachers' beliefs

As aforementioned, exploring teachers' beliefs is based on the need to unveil what teachers know, how they interpret knowledge as well as uncovering the possible impact their decisions have on their instructional practices (Shavelson & Stern, 1981).

Research on teachers' beliefs in language teaching mainly took off after 1996 (Borg, 2003). This following sub-section summarizes the implications of some of these studies.

2.1.5.1 Beliefs change

One of the most popular studies on belief seems to be on beliefs change, particularly on novice (with a teaching experience upto 5 years) teachers. A consideration of whether beliefs or knowledge alters or not is contested whereby initially it was suggested that beliefs were usually unaltered (see Woods & Çakır, 2011). However, this seems too general a statement. Considered from a social-constructive perspective and assuming that beliefs are dynamic then it seems more plausible to suggest that beliefs are subject to change but are dependent on many factors (e.g. how grounded the existing belief is: Phipps & Borg, 2009).

The fact that research on beliefs change yielded mixed results supports my claim. For example, both Mattheoudakis (2007) and Peacock's (2001) studies using Horwitz's BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) questionnaires (see Horwitz, 1988, p.284) indicated that beliefs change only to a certain extent. In Mattheoudakis' (2007) longitudinal study, aiming to explore 66 pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching in Greece, and tracking possible changes in those beliefs during a three-year teacher education program, the questionnaires (given before, during and after the completion of the course) indicated a low impact of the program on the development of student teachers' beliefs.

Peacock's (2001) study that investigated changes in the beliefs about second language learning of 146 trainee ESL teachers over their three-year programme at the City University of Hong Kong indicated changes only to some extent. Though some changes were tracked in groups of trainees as they went through their second and third years of study, no significant changes were found. An instruction package for working on trainee beliefs was then prepared, and implemented. The study concludes that considerable efforts should be made by pre-service program developers for change in trainee beliefs (Peacock, 2001).

What these studies on belief change seemed to have identified are tensions between beliefs and actions. This will be discussed in the following section.

2.1.5.2 Tensions between teachers' beliefs and actions

Research analysing the connection between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices are widespread, but some support the link and others do not. To illustrate, a study in South Korean high-schools describing classroom CS practices used data that comprised the recorded language from 13 high school English teachers' classrooms and teachers' and students' responses to surveys asking about their reactions to the call for maximal use of English in class and the challenges they were facing. One of the findings of the data analysis indicated that among other effects (i.e. curriculum) teachers' beliefs tend to affect their CS practices (Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004). Although the maximal use of English is emphasised in English classes, the teachers who did not feel the need or the pressure to use more English spoke far less English in class than the other teachers.

In another study, conducted among 18 experienced teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) in Australia, where interviews and observations were employed, a close relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom behaviours were found. As such, one of the teachers expressed that it was necessary to encourage students to write things down as it would help them understand the topic better, as well as revise and consolidate later in the interviews. Observations of the same teacher revealed that the teacher asked the students to write things down after the given input and later use their written information in a role-play activity (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001).

There are studies contradicting the ones above. The results of such studies indicate a weak relationship between beliefs and practices. To illustrate, a qualitative study utilising questionnaires to 59 first-year student teachers aiming to assess whether there was

congruence between their pedagogical images and classroom practices, showed that the student teachers conceived themselves as having a more child-centred approach to teaching, while their practices constituted more a teacher-centred approach (Fung & Chow, 2002).

In another study by Erkmen (2010) on non-native novice teachers' (up to 5 years of experience) beliefs about teaching and learning English at a private university in northern Cyprus, data collected from nine teachers over an academic year of nine months by means of semi-structured interviews, credos, classroom observations, post-lesson reflection forms, stimulated-recall interviews, diaries and metaphor-elicitation tasks, found that the novice teachers' beliefs were not always reflected in their teaching as teachers were not always able to do what they believed would be effective in their classes (Allami, 2012, also pinpoints a mismatch between beliefs and actions). The study also concluded that change in novice teachers' beliefs after pre-service training was limited.

What becomes evident in these studies is the realization that the matter of whether tensions prevail or not is a matter of perspective. Drawing on the debates around the definition of beliefs, the different interpretations seem to be first a result of the different realities around the definitions of beliefs. Phipps & Borg's (2009) study, which both agrees and disagrees with these studies is a striking example of this. Their study in Turkey explores tensions (a word intentionally used by the authors to suggest a more positive view on the incongruence between teacher belief and action) in the grammar teaching beliefs and practices of three English teachers in Turkey. The teachers were observed and interviewed over a period of 18 months. Data indicated tensions to some extent. Teachers' practices in teaching grammar were at odds with specific beliefs about language learning; still, these practices were consistent with more general beliefs about learning. There are traces of scholars such as Rokeach (1968) and Pajares (1992) in their interpretations. In their study on tensions, Phipps & Borg (2009) delineate between core (central) and peripheral (secondary) belief. They contend that there is a match in core beliefs but a mismatch in peripheral beliefs. However, one ignoring this distinction may have only assumed that there are significant tensions between teachers' beliefs and ideas.

Secondly, the weak relationship may also be a result of the methods used in these studies. As Basturkmen (2012) also indicates, such studies depending only on questionnaires, fail to provide descriptions of teachers' actual classroom practices but rely on teachers' stated beliefs. However, not only does research indicate that teachers may not always be aware

of what they do in class (e.g. see Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Polio & Duff, 1994) but also as Pajares (1992) emphasises, teachers' stated beliefs may not always be a 'very reliable guide to reality' (Pajares, 1992, p. 326).

In addition, literature suggests why beliefs and practices do not necessarily correspond. For instance, contextual factors (e.g., institutional, social, instructional, or physical), (Borg, 2003; Fang, 1996), teachers experiencing a change process (Richardson et al., 1991), the existence of multiple beliefs systems where one belief conflicts with beliefs in another system (Dikilitaş, 2013; Graden, 1996), and teachers' past experiences all need to be taken into account in interpretations.

Thus, referring back to Johnson (1989) Numrich (1996) and Woods (2003), further longitudinal research providing a clear understanding of what is meant by 'belief' by the researcher, as well as data from exact classroom practices and drawing on teachers' current and past experiences are all needed to clarify the reasons why the tenuous relationship between teacher practice and behaviour exists or not.

To address these, more research on teachers' beliefs are currently drawing upon factors shaping belief systems. Nevertheless, owing to the different concepts of beliefs there seems to some disagreement in this area, too, which will be my next focus.

2.1.5.3 Factors shaping belief systems

Another major focus of studies on teachers' beliefs seems to be that of factors shaping beliefs systems. This sub-section will discuss these influences respectively.

2.1.5.3.1 Contextual Factors

Research indicates that tensions in the work-place appear to have certain effects on teachers' beliefs (e.g. Flores & Day, 2006). These include, language and institutional policies (Levis & Farrell, 2007), and teachers' personal experiences in class (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999).

Erkmen's (2010) study also found that contextual factors i.e. the syllabus, dissatisfaction with student behaviour, and students' expectations; and becoming aware of their beliefs and practices were influential in teachers' utilising their beliefs.

The study of Phipps & Borg (2009) echoed these findings to a great extent. In the interviews, participants opined that issues such as classroom management concerns and student expectations affected their practices. To illustrate, after using a gap-fill exercise from a text book to practise past tenses, one participant explained that she had used it as a classroom management tool and also because her students' expected her to do so:

We spend a lot of class time doing these [gap-fill exercise] and using it more as a control-mechanism. 'OK, sit down and do it!'...I think students to a certain point do expect it, and they often say 'what's the point of buying this book if we don't do it in class'. So, I think it's more to do with classroom management, 'bring it to school students, look we're using it (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 385).

One reason proposed for acknowledging these factors is to understand the process these teachers are going through during their first years of teaching or when they first enter a different working context. To illustrate, based on their findings, Flores & Day (2006) conclude that contexts may intervene with personal histories resulting in teachers' reshaping of their identities. If there exists a mismatch between teachers' personal histories (e.g. their own learning experience) and the school culture, then teachers' first years are characterized by a shock whereby their beliefs about teaching are challenged. This has a crucial effect on their identities. Their identities, become destabilized by the negative school contexts and cultures they work in. Their teaching becomes routine, lacking creativity and they start reshaping their identities (Flores & Day, 2006).

However, researchers such as Woods & Çakır (2011) add another perspective to this argument. For them, in fact, these tensions do not exist; instead the behaviour is because teachers do not know what to do at that instant. Thus, if someone is not portraying a certain behaviour it is because that person does not know how to behave in another way (Woods & Çakır, 2011). This discussion exemplifies the different realities behind researchers studying beliefs and that focusing on the instantaneous nature of knowledge and belief make it worthwhile considering when interpreting the results of such studies.

2.1.5.3.2 Professional training

Studies on pre-service or in-service training suggest a weak influence of training on teachers' beliefs since they enter such programs at a time when their beliefs about teaching are embedded in their belief systems (Erkmen, 2010; Hobbs, 2007a; Hobbs, 2007b; Borg, 2003).

To illustrate, in her study Hobbs (2007a), aiming to explore the beliefs of L2 course participants on a Trinity College London TESOL Certificate course, utilised unstructured and semi-structured interviews, course lectures, teaching practice journals, course documents and field-notes for nine months. Then she added follow-up data, where six experienced ELT teachers were also interviewed to add long-term perspective. Results demonstrated a weak influence of the program on behavioural change. It was concluded that past and current experiences of the teachers were more highly influential in their beliefs and thus reflective practice (where they can discuss how they relate to knowledge in their own belief systems) should be included in such courses (Hobbs, 2007a).

Therefore, these studies started questioning the reason behind the weak influence of training programs and came up with more factors possibly having a greater influence on teachers' belief systems. It appears that personal factors (Woods & Çakır, 2011) are more influential in this respect.

2.1.5.3.3 Personal history

According to research, personal histories (i.e. culture, upbringing and experiences) are influential in shaping one's belief systems and the ones they teach (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Aldemir & Sezer, 2009; Flores & Day, 2006; Ellis, 2006; Borg, 2003).

For example, in her study Ellis (2006) explored how 31 practising teachers with diverging work experiences in Australian language centres constructed and described their professional knowledge and beliefs. Participants included native teachers with a second language, native speakers (NS) without a second language, and non-native (NNS) speakers. Participants were asked to elaborate on their biographies through narrative interviews. Later, they were asked if their biographies had any impact on their teaching and, if so, explain why. Results yielded that there was a link between the two. NS bilinguals, for example, encouraged their learners to use the same learning strategies (i.e. visualisation to understand what was heard). As for the use/not use of L1 NNS said that they had used their experience in learning L2 to predict students' difficulties. To illustrate, one NNS explained no L1 was something she could deal with. However, she added that this was because of her proficiency level: she would have used L1 if her level had been lower. Another finding was how a Cantonese/English speaker and a NNS late bilingual's CS was reportedly parallel to that of her personal life. She reported that she used both

languages for various purposes (e.g. getting her own children's compliance), Due to her background, she was interested in noticing her students' purposes for using L2.

One of the most striking example was how immigrants who had moved to an English speaking country (Australia) used their experience to approach their students empathetically (understanding how difficult it is to learn English as a second language) (Ellis, 2006). Some of these participants had experienced subtractive bilingualism (a case when learning a second language interferes with the learning of a first language and the second language replaces the first language: see Wright, Taylor & Macarthur, 2000). As such, they first encountered English when they went to school, felt different from the rest of the Australian society, felt ashamed of their immigrant parents, disassociated themselves from their L1, and then regretted their loss of L1. The teachers having experienced this reported that they had understood the difficulties their learners were experiencing when learning L2. However, the fact that these claims are not supported by observations make them open to criticism.

Still the fact that these findings are supported by studies similar in nature (e.g. Hobbs & Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Erkmen, 2010; Flores & Day, 2006), utilising observations increases the credibility that prior learning experiences are influential in shaping teachers' beliefs. The following study supports this idea.

Chin (2014) conducted a qualitative study to explore the beliefs and self-perceptions of five early childhood teachers in Jamaica and to see to what extent their beliefs were reflected in their classroom practices. Data collection involved classroom observations, interviews, and focus groups. Here it was found that teachers could not implement 'developmentally appropriate practices (DAP)' required by Jamaica's early childhood curriculum, into their teaching due to personal and professional experiences (e.g. upbringing) as well as culture-based factors (e.g. the social expectations of Jamaican children). For example, though the Jamaican early childhood education curriculum embraces the principles of meeting the individual needs of children, the schools in this study practised more collectivism. Teachers regarded children as belonging to a community and acted accordingly.

2.1.5.3.4 Previous Teachers

Another aspect influencing teachers' actions appears to be teachers' prior teachers in tandem with Lortie's (1975) aforementioned assumptions (see page 27). A study based on an analysis of 26 diary studies of novice ESL teachers in the U.S. indicated that teachers who had positive learning experiences in studying culture and who had been given a need to communicate as they learned another language were motivated to introduce elements of the U.S. culture in their teaching. Similarly, teachers reported that they rejected using error correction as it was most often cited as a technique that had been used by their language teachers and inhibited them from speaking (Numrich, 1996). These are also supported by studies conducted elsewhere (e.g. Hobbs & Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Flores & Day, 2006).

2.1.5.3.5 Language Learning experience

Ellis (2006) argues that teachers' language learning experiences serve as insights into how they approach their students. In her study, she highlighted the experiential knowledge of both learning and using L2. Based on her interviews, she concludes that the monolinguals cannot empathize with their students whereas bilinguals can. The monolinguals only rely on their training and reading to form beliefs of how to teach as they have not experienced language learning themselves as opposed to early and late bilinguals who have insights into ways to approach their students. She also highlights that none of these are to suggest that bilinguals are better teachers than monolinguals as good teaching involves more than teachers' L2 learning experiences. She urges that the connection between experiential knowledge and received knowledge is noticed and the experiential knowledge is used too for the sake of contributing to students' learning.

2.1.5.4 Possible implications of research on teachers' beliefs

One implication of the studies on beliefs is that personal factors play a significant role in shaping teachers' beliefs and this results in a somewhat lower impact of teacher education programs. Referring back to Lortie's (1975) and Johnson's (1989) arguments above, one cause of the low impact of teacher education programs in influencing teachers' beliefs is that teachers enter training courses with existing beliefs. Prior learning experience, previous teachers, personal history already shape trainees beliefs about learning a language way before they begin these courses. Contextual factors (e.g. tensions at the work-place) also contribute to this in that teachers reportedly find it difficult to do what they are suggested to do in these courses in class.

According to Woods & Çakır (2011), the reason why personal factors have a greater impact than education programs is that education programs do not have room for the personalisation of ideas. However, it is important they do so, as theoretical (impersonal) knowledge and beliefs are reshaped (become personalised) when theoretical knowledge and beliefs relate to one's experience (Woods & Çakır, 2011). That is, belief construction is personal, which is another implication. Teachers only make sense of new ideas through their own lenses whereby their personal concepts are established through experience and then by rethinking them and expressing themselves verbally.

Therefore, it is important that teachers participating in the courses are given the opportunity to voice their experiences. Hobbs (2007a) suggests that this could be achieved by allowing those entering training courses to reflect on their personal histories and beliefs for the course context and training curriculum in turn to mirror these by recognizing potential tensions between them (the beliefs of the teachers in relation to the ontological underpinnings of the course) (see Hobbs, 2007a) Moreover, reflection would also prevent the destabilization of identities of teachers as it would allow teachers to demonstrate the values they aspire to (Flores & Day, 2006).

The idea that prior learning experience and prior teachers' personal histories contribute to teachers' shaping their belief systems then implies that the construction of beliefs are somewhat personal (Woods, 2001). Moreover, when considered from a cultural perspective it appears that teachers with similar cultural backgrounds exert similar behaviours and have similar expectations from their students (see Hobbs & Matsuo & Payne, 2010) which may further imply that belief construction relates to a broader, overarching approach; the theory of cultures of learning, which is my next focus.

2.1.6 Cultures of learning within teachers' beliefs

The notion of cultures of learning is used to describe teachers' frameworks of expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs about successful teaching/learning and about how to use talk in interaction, among other aspects of learning (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). For this reason, scholars such as Lytra (2011) assume that research into teachers' beliefs and the use of language ought to be looked at together with culture and heritage.

Studying teachers' cultures of learning are important in that they can reveal fruitful information about their thought processes. First, cultures of learning, among other elements (e.g. educational reforms) (Moore, Edwards, Halpin & George, 2002), are considered to play a considerable role in constructing social and educational identities (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). Cultures of learning affect teachers' expectations in classrooms and how they understand the format of classroom instruction, the language to be used in the classroom, and the way interaction should be achieved as part of the social creation of an educational discourse system (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). That is, it implies that there may be specific cultures (e.g. Turkish) of learning in terms of beliefs, expectations of communication and practices.

These provide explanations for why teachers of similar backgrounds show similar patterns in class. Teachers' cultures of learning act as a filter through which teachers' teaching philosophies and methods are influenced. For example, cultures of learning may have an impact on teachers' use of the target language (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). Pajares (1992) supports this idea assuming that beliefs about education are formed by the time teachers start college and these beliefs rarely change in adulthood.

Secondly, accepting that cultures of learning guide one's behaviour (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006) then, being aware of and teachers', and also students', cultures of learning can provide a cultural framework for understanding their actions, talk, and judgements (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). That is, if learners use an interpretation which is most likely to be used by learners in their own culture to understand and judge foreign teachers' professional behaviour; it can be said that teachers use their own cultures of learning to evaluate their learners (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). Moreover, those who go abroad to study or work are likely to frame their learning, initially, within their own cultures of learning (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006).

However, the ideas above are challenged to a certain extent. To illustrate, Littlewood (2001) highlights that it is important to avoid stereotyping when discussing cultures; though there may be certain similar aspects among cultures, differences also prevail, which is undoubtedly worthwhile considering.

There are various studies referring to cultures of learning that have been conducted in different settings. First, in the UK a qualitative study, including interviews and

observations' was conducted to observe the relationship between teachers' culture and CS behaviour among three secondary school teachers of Japanese, with two native speaker (NS) and one non-native speaker (NNS) teacher (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010). Secondly, a study was conducted in Turkey with 30 Turkish university students to investigate the appropriateness and effectiveness of communicative and non-communicative activities using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews (Inceçay & Inceçay, 2009). Thirdly, in China, a similar study was conducted with the same aim (Rao, 2002). Finally, in Australia another study was conducted among ten teachers of Japanese (nine native Australian English speakers and one native Japanese speaker) in 10 different state high schools investigating teachers' perception and implementation of CLT (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999).

Results of these studies support the idea that teachers with similar backgrounds have similar ideas about how learning takes place. For example, the first study reveals how teachers with similar backgrounds, despite some anomalies, seem to exhibit similar patterns in the classroom. As such, the Japanese NS teachers seemed to code-switch more compared to the NNS teacher. In fact, their classroom language function also showed similarities. The most frequent classroom language where L2 was used most was when giving instructions, praising, and providing category explanations (i.e. grammar). Likewise, the NNS's cultural and educational background and experience seemed to have made him code-switch less. The NNS stated that L2 use was both possible and important for student learning. These similarities may imply that teachers' learning and cultural backgrounds play a significant role in the formation of a certain philosophy about teaching and learning. In this particular study, this philosophy referred to the limited use of target language (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010).

These research studies also support the idea that cultures of learning influence our thought processes. As such, in the first study the NS Japanese teachers' interpretations of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) were different from that of the English non-native speaker (NNS) (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010). This echoes the findings of the fourth study where data reveals how both perception and implementation of CLT is affected by teachers' cultures of learning. Though teachers reported to have learnt CLT from multiple sources including teacher development programs, in-service teaching, colleagues, their personal L2 learning and teaching (trial and error), experiences seemed to have had the greatest influence in their understanding of CLT. That is, the L2

instructional beliefs, knowledge, and practices of those teachers who had learnt L2 in real situations were hardly guided by their conceptions of CLT but by their own experiences of learning L2 (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). There was also a tension between teachers' conceptions of CLT and their actual classroom practices which echoes the findings of Polio & Duff (1994). Interviews, observations, and surveys revealed that although most teachers reported using communicative activities such as role-play, games, survey, group work, and simulations, these things were rarely observed. Only two teachers utilised role-play of any type, and most employed traditional practices (i.e. teacher-fronted, repetition, translation, explicit grammar presentation, course book practice) (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999).

The findings of these studies also support that cultures of learning affect the perception of certain activities. In the second study, students reported that, having been educated by traditional methods without asking the reason for anything for up to 12 years before studying at university, it was sometimes difficult to adapt to CLT activities. Likewise, in the third study, students said that they had difficulties caused by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This was because of the differences between the underlying educational theories of China and those of Western countries (Rao, 2002). As such, 25 participants stated that owing to their traditional learning styles and habits they had difficulty in being actively involved in communicative activities. By the time they entered university, they had become accustomed to the traditional language teaching style (i.e. teacher centred and focus on rote learning) from the 12 year education they had received previously. One of the participants added that he developed his own learning habits and that changing them at university would be strange (Rao, 2002). Similar results were found in studies conducted with Turkish students. For example, Can, Bedir & Kilianska-Przybylo (2011) indicated that Turkish students see their teachers as a treasure box, implying their teachers were the source to knowledge. These studies have led to further discussions, particularly where teachers and students are from different cultures. When this is the case then teachers and students have different expectations (Liu & Littlewood, 1997), resulting in what Nunan (1995) refers to as 'agenda mismatch' (p.135).

It also appears that cultures of learning also affect the language used in class. In the first study, results indicated that teachers' differences in beliefs and experience about language learning seems to be reflected in their views of a teacher's role and their perceptions of their learners' receptivity, thereby either reinforcing their commitment to L2 use or,

contributing to CS i.e. switching to English (the contextual L1). This assumption is verified in the first study with interviews, where NS teachers expressed their positive attitude towards L1 in language pedagogy while the NNS chose to give more diplomatic opinions (e.g. it depends on learners' proficiency levels) and chose to reflect on how to increase L2 use (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010). The authors make a connection between cultural distance and CS behaviour. That is, the Japanese NSs lacking familiarity with their learners' culture regarding the understanding of learners' reactions towards teachers' explanations due to the distance between them, made the teachers code-switch. Thus, a NS with a similar background to the students' culture is likely to code-switch less (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010).

In fact, such results are not surprising. The extensive literature on English Language Teaching in Far East cultures (e.g. Liao, 2004) echo these findings. Though these cultures have been undergoing educational reforms (Wu, 2001) where the use of CLT in classes is highly encouraged (Yu, 2001), studies indicate the challenges teachers face in implementing CLT, due to their lack of proficiency in English and lack of familiarity with CLT activities such as role-play (Hui, 1997). In Far East cultures, the traditional approach to ELT has been a combination of the grammar-translation method and audiolingualism. This incorporates the study of grammar, systematically and in detail, a wide range of cross-linguistic comparison and translation, memorisation of grammar rules and vocabulary, an effort to form good verbal habits, focus on written language together with the study of literary classics (Hu, 2002).

These studies on cultures of learning have strong pedagogical implications. First, it is necessary to develop a critical understanding towards teachers' practices, i.e. CS. In evaluating teachers' in-class practices, it is important to consider the context in which these teachers operate, together with teachers' educational backgrounds. As Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) also point out, these studies indicate that the reason for teachers' CS is highly influenced by teachers' thought processes, which is related to their cultures of learning. Such research allows us to become aware of the complexities of teachers' mental thought processes. That is, it emphasizes that teacher educators, teachers' previous experiences, teachers' interpretations of the activities they engage in (Johnson, 2006), and, most importantly, the contexts which they work in affect the how and why of teachers' actions (Bax, 2003).

Secondly, it is necessary for educators in cultures such as Far East cultures, where traditional practices (i.e. teacher centred classes) are closer to teachers' cultures of learning, to take teachers' needs into consideration when developing educational policies. For instance, in China we witness how the Ministry of Education has enforced CLT in English classes (Liao, 2004). Nonetheless, the studies show that such top-down approaches towards language teaching, where an approach is imposed on teachers, has not been effective in reaching its aim (e.g. Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) because such approaches do not reflect how teachers think and act in their classrooms (Hu, 2005). What these studies show is that it is challenging for teachers to implement CLT in class, and one of the reasons for this lies in teachers' cultures of learning: their not being used to such a teaching approach and being affected by their previous experiences of learning (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010). Being aware of this, a grounded policy approach, where teachers' needs are taken into consideration, based on the available research, would enable a more effective policy towards language teaching. As such, it is important to empower teachers in this process: to raise their awareness of contextual influences, and to encourage them to develop sound guidelines for making methodological choices (Hu, 2005).

Obviously, the discussion around teachers' beliefs and cultures of learning appear endless. The above section aimed to bring to the fore the debates considered most salient for this study. Now that the discussion related to teachers' beliefs and cultures of learning has been had, I move on to another focus of this study: CS, which appears to be as complex as teachers' beliefs and cultures of learning.

2.2 Code-Switching (CS) - A study on language practices

Teachers' language practices in education have been dealt with from different perspectives. The literature on language practice includes teachers' covert language attitudes (Ioannidou & Sophocleous, 2010), teachers' language use (Sophocleous & Wilks, 2010) repetition in the foreign language classroom (Duff, 2000), the use of socializing discourse (Ohta, 1994) and teachers' use of register of the language (Henzl, 1973) all aiming to address questions such as: what do teachers actually do in class?, what are teachers' reasons for such practices? and what are the possible impacts of teachers' practices on student learning?

Perhaps one of the most extensive studies on language practices within the foreign/second language learning context conducted with similar foci is studies on CS (Willans, 2011). Studies on CS are ubiquitous around the world (e.g. Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010 in the UK; Vu, Bailey & Howes in the US, 2010; Sharma, 2006 in Nepal; Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004 in South Korea; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, Thwaite, 2001 in Australia; Eldridge, 1996 in Turkey; Martin, 1996 in Brunei; Canagarajah, 1995 in Sri Lanka) and there is a lot to consider within the scope of studies on CS such as the definition of CS the variety of perspectives towards CS together with what the findings of these research suggest for CS.

This (my) study is a sociolinguistic study on the CS practices of TC and TR teachers. It aims to explore teachers' use of both L2 and L1 and understand the underlying reasons behind TCs' and TRs' alternation between English (L2) and Turkish (L1) languages in their practices. In doing so, the study aims to explore teachers CS in a procedural fashion in relation to the social roles influencing CS. Issues such as teachers' cultures of learning (e.g. TCs and TRs family background), identity (i.e. the way the use of English affects teachers' identity) and teachers' beliefs (i.e. their ideas about the appropriate language use) are highlighted as current literature on teaching has evidenced the strong influence of these aspects on teachers' teaching (e.g. Borg, 2003).

As exemplified in section 2.2.4 below (Research on CS), there have been various CS studies conducted elsewhere other than the north of Cyprus that have focused on teachers' CS practices. However, it seems that only a few of them take the teacher related issues outlined above as variables. Similar works which underscore these issues include: Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) and Cortazzi & Jin, (1996) who focus inter alia on cultures of learning, and studies such as Canagarajah's (1995) focus on students' identity and Lui, Anh, Baek & Han's (2004) study which focused on teachers' beliefs; all of these are discussed in more detail in section 2.2.4.

2.2.1 What is Code-Switching (CS)?

Despite the bulk of work on CS, being situated within the fields of linguists, psycholinguists and sociolinguists, it does not have an exact definition among scholars, implying that the different realities around teachers' beliefs seem to prevail within the field of CS too. As Nilep (2006) states, the meaning of CS may vary from a description of 'bilingual speakers', or language learners' cognitive linguistic abilities' (p.1), to an

explanation of ‘classroom or learner practices involving the use of more than one language’ (Nilep, 2006, p.1). Broersma & Bot (2006) describe it as the ‘merging of two languages’ (p.1) in conversation, demonstrating the flexibility and versatility of human speech. Macaro (2005) calls it an occurrence between a speaker and interlocutor sharing the same language when the speaker finds it easier or more appropriate, in a context, to communicate by switching than by keeping to the same language. Studies on the co-switching of bilinguals added further definitions to CS. For example, Toribio (2001) explains it as the ‘ability’ (p.204), on the part of bilinguals, to alternate between their linguistic codes in the same conversation. Aurer (2005) added the multilingual touch saying that CS is the alternating use of two or more languages by bilingual or multilingual speakers within a conversation, either in the same or in successive conversational turn(s).

Willans (2011) defines CS as ‘alternation between two separate codes’ (p.24). This is echoed in the definitions of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) where they refer to CS as each time teacher participants ‘alternate between these languages (being English and Japanese in their study) in their classroom language’ (p.45). Taking their lead, in this study CS refers to each time teachers and/or learners switch the code of communication. That is, when they switch from the language being taught (L2-English) to the mother-tongue (L1-Turkish) or vice-versa in the classroom.

Still it is necessary to highlight that the variety of the definitions could be attributed to the concerns of various fields dealing with the topic (Nilep, 2006). The following subsections aim to discuss this further.

2.2.2 Multiple perspectives towards CS, from a product towards a process oriented focus

CS has not always been studied with the same foci: different perspectives regarding CS began to emerge due to the different perspectives of linguists, psycholinguists, sociolinguists, philosophers, and anthropologists, etc. (Nilep, 2006).

CS research initially focused on the functions of CS in bilingual teachers’ speech and the frequency with which some languages (usually English or Spanish) were employed to perform different functions (Martin-Jones, 1995). Later, in the mid 1990s, researchers shifted their attention to the way CS may actually contribute to teachers’ and learners’ interactional work in bilingual classrooms. Since then, researchers have examined several

issues related to teachers' and learners' use of CS (e.g. when, why, or how much they CS) in bilingual, multilingual or monolingual educational contexts (Greggio & Gill, 2007).

To illustrate, the studies of Poplack, Zentz & Dion (2012) and Cacoullos & Travis (2010) take a syntactic perspective to code-switching. In these studies, code seems to be used as a substitute for language variety. The close contact between the two languages promotes structural similarity. CS, then, is the juxtaposition of multi-word sequences, which are in line with the grammatical patterns of the respective language. Such CS studies take syntax into consideration in their analysis.

However, this perspective is criticised as being restrictive mainly because of its failure in accounting for the exact causes and impacts of CS (Auer, 1984). Here, the emphasis seems to be on the language and not the individual or the context. Thus, the findings of such studies are limited in terms of generalisability (Nilep, 2006).

The psycholinguistic perspective seems to place more focus on the individual, by considering CS as a cognitive process. CS is seen as revealing of linguistic units that are intended in real time during production (Karousou-Fokas & Garman, 2001). These studies thus argue that the process of CS involves:

...lexical access and the integration of words within utterance frames, and can therefore be seen as the result of on-line processing (Karousou-Fokas & Garman, 2001, p. 40).

Such studies also entail experimental studies to support models of bilingual language processing which try to explain how bilinguals differ from monolinguals in the way their languages are internalized (see Lowi, 2005).

Cook (1999) suggests some serious implications of this for language learning. She pinpoints the usefulness of L1 in language learning for several reasons. Cook (1999) supports that the use of L1 promotes an environment in language learning where learners would function as bilinguals and not as monolinguals. Thus, it is seen to be important that teachers of foreign or second language learning bring L2 user situations and roles into the classroom, deliberately using the students' L1 in teaching activities. Equal significance is attached to incorporating descriptions of L2 users or L2 learners rather than descriptions of NS as a source of information (Cook, 1999).

Nevertheless, cognitive processes are not readily scientifically measurable (especially in the 'natural' setting); therefore, though such implications could be worth considering in language learning, obviously more research is needed to further support that monolingual and bilingual speakers undergo different cognitive processes. This underscores the necessity to do more research on CS.

Similarly, a discussion on why this might be so is recommended. The reason behind the difference between the monolingual and bilingual speakers could be the lack of experience. Considering the discussions around teachers' beliefs, the monolingual speaker may not have gone through similar experiences in language learning compared to those of the bilingual (Ellis, 2006). Likewise, it is significant to consider bilingual speakers within their own learning context. Suggesting that all bilinguals go through the same thought processes would be an over-generalised claim as there is ample evidence to suggest that bilingual speakers' ideas of learning may be different among cultures (Jin, & Cortazzi, 2002; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Therefore, what these implications may suggest is to deal with CS within both the framework of teachers' beliefs and their cultures.

Therefore, various perspectives suggest significant insights into CS. However, what seems to be a fruitful way of looking at CS would be universalising explanations, which focus on teachers' or learners' perspectives or more importantly aiming for (historically) contextualised explanations. This means taking into account the perspectives of the speaker and listener and attempting to explain CS with reference to their social and historical location (Martin-Jones, 2000) and their backgrounds (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010).

As opposed to these limited perspectives, scholars such as Jingxia (2009) propose a pragmatic perspective. Here, CS is recognized as a dynamic adaptive phenomenon. Accordingly, CS is a realization of the need to adapt to the situation. For example, in the classroom environment, teachers code-switch when they see it necessary to adapt to communicative needs (e.g. emphasizing points, managing the class), linguistic gaps (lack of student vocabulary) or teachers' and students' language proficiency (Jingxia, 2009). Undoubtedly, such an approach is invaluable in a sense that by emphasizing the dynamic nature of CS it has unleashed traditional CS studies from the behavioural focus and

steered them towards a more co-constructive one where the user plays a central role rather than the language or the code.

Hereafter, I will be referring to the pragmatic (CS to adapt to a situation) as the sociolinguistic perspective which recognizes CS as a social construct (Brook-Lewis, 2009) because I believe the word sociolinguistic to be more inclusive. Just as pragmatic suggests, a sociolinguistic view has a process-oriented perspective and attaches significance to the actual speaker of the language, focusing on the dynamic nature of CS. It also pinpoints the inclusion of the context (its impact on CS and code-switchers) in which the CS takes place, all of which play a pivotal role towards our understanding of CS (see Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010).

Thus, the sociolinguistic perspective can be considered as a macro approach to the study of CS, as it analyses a larger vision of CS as a function of social context, encompassing hierarchies, language ideologies and attitudes in exploring how they influence the learning and production of L2 (Lowi, 2005). Moreover, from a sociolinguistic perspective, language and social interaction are considered interwoven and the acquisition process is said to be embedded in the interactional context (Ellis & Roberts, 1987, cited in Moore, 2002).

2.2.3 Debates around CS

The debates around CS revolve mainly around two ideas: whether using L1 is beneficial or not and whether CS studies can actually reflect on the complexities of actual language use.

The first debate centres around the benefits of CS. CS in language learning is not seen as an asset by all (Pan & Pan, 2010), with some scholars rejecting it (e.g. Evans, 2009; Chambers, 1991), and others valuing it (e.g. Antón & Dicamilla, 1999). Opponents see L1 as unnatural in that the exclusive use of L2 makes the classroom seem more like a monolingual learning atmosphere and a real place for learning. For example, Evans (2009) observed that students' assumptions about their foreign language learning were linked with their views on the communicative use of the L2 (with no L1-use), which he supports with a quote from one of his participants.

The French that we learn [including the use of L1] isn't necessarily like conversation French. It's like, I don't know what it's like. It's not really ... If you went to France, you wouldn't use it that much to be honest (Evans, 2009, p.483).

Considering this as an act of confiscating a pupil's right in learning a language, Evans (2009) further calls for educators, policy makers and second language education theorists in the UK to:

...reconceptualise the current framework for foreign language learning in this country [UK] in order to clarify and strengthen the place of L2 language use within it, balancing focus on meaningful input, as currently promoted, with focus on ideational and interpersonal communication. In this way, pupils would be viewed, and would view themselves, as both language learners and language users (Evans, 2009, p. 483).

In this view, policy makers and teachers are blamed for not providing pupils with authentic opportunities to use L2. However, Payne (2011) highlights the challenge in providing exposure by indicating the pressure placed on teachers due to high-stakes exams, for instance in the UK.

Another belief opponents hold is that using L1 undermines L2 learning. The presence of L1 prevents students from receiving the input they might be exposed to in real-life. In their study, Polio & Duff (1994) observed six university foreign language (FL) classrooms and found that CS was used for a variety of reasons including grammar instruction and classroom administrative vocabulary. The authors concluded that switches to L1 hindered natural communication. Chambers (1991) backs this argument by positing that without promoting the in-class use of L2, teachers' talk will sound unnatural. Thus, Chambers (1991) concludes that teachers should make choices of the language required to design speaking activities enabling learners to communicate with each other genuinely and frequently. Also, teachers should use published material without L1, and look into ways in which comprehension work can be performed without needing to use L1. For Chambers (1991), the use of L1 might even be an act of underestimating learners' L2 ability. Similarly, for Harbord (1992) the use of L1 impedes the valuable language input that can be provided via repetition, contextualization, and/or modification of L2. For Cummins (2005), some of the causes of the continuing insistence on monolingual approaches at schools include the belief that encouraging the use of L1 is regarded as a reversion to the grammar translation method.

These positions seem to imply support for Krashen's (1982) input hypothesis or Ellis' understanding of 'extensive input' (Ellis, 2005, p. 217) whereby more L2 input brings

about more success in L2, as they contend that L1 input deprives learners of necessary L2 input. However, the idea that a quantity of L2 input leads to success in L2 is open to debate. Turnbull & Arnett (2002) counter Krashen's (1982) argument recommending that the quality of input is more important than quantity. Likewise, Ellis (1994) claims that input alone is insufficient for achieving language acquisition and that without interaction, input alone cannot become knowledge. Interaction will produce the negotiation of the meaning of the input (Long, 1996) and the production of the output (Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

Likewise, the exclusive use of L2 raises further concerns in bilingual education. Some scholars, particularly those dealing with bilingual education, suggest that teachers' exclusive use of L2 implies the idea that the L1 and L2 are separate entities, constituting the 'two solitudes' (Cummins 2005, p. 588) or implies 'separate bilingualism' (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p. 105), all of which refer to the boundaries surrounding languages, implying an approach where there exist 'two monolinguals in one body' (Gravelle, 1996, p. 11 as cited in Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Thus, the educational issues around separate bilingualism have caused researchers to question it (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

To illustrate, one argument is related to the implications of banning CS for bilingual speakers/communities. Garcia (2009) highlights this, opining that encouraging notions such as separate bilingualism or L2-only reflects a subtractive model of bilingualism. When L2 is introduced L1 is subtracted, resulting in learners only speaking L2. Though this is what Krashen (1982) appears to be aiming for, it is characterized by increasing loss of linguistic features of L1. This is especially a threat to bilingual communities; in this model, the possibility of a third generation of bilinguals is subtracted and their indigenous languages are lost due to a subtractive model of bilingual education (Garcia, 2009).

In line with Garcia (2009), Cummins (2005) also considers the ramifications of an L2-only position for bilinguals, claiming that separate bilingualism is a waste of bilingual resources (Cummins, 2005). To support his argument, Cummins (2005) gives an example from the English language. English, derived predominantly from Latin and Greek, has many cognate relationships with other Romance languages and without CS students of Romance languages may fail to focus on cognate relationships across languages. Obviously, it is not my intention here to suggest CS or no CS works best, but just highlight the possibilities of what CS might bring or subtract.

Building on this argument, the results of various studies also show that teachers consider the L1 an essential tool in the learning process (e.g. de La Campa & Nassaji, 2009). In terms of language pedagogy, denying a role for learners' L1, the language that they are cognitively and socially dominant in, means ignoring the possible contributions L1 can bring to the learning process (Antón & DiCamilla, 1999): boosting learners' self-confidence (Auerbach, 1993), enabling the interaction between the teacher and the learner as well as among learners (Villamil & de Guerrero, 1996), helping learners feel less anxious (as opposed to feeling nervous and worried when L1 is forbidden); and increasing learners' desire to express their ideas (especially among lower proficiency students who encounter difficulties in expressing themselves confidently and accurately in L2) (Seng & Hashim, 2006). Some scholars believe that attempts to totally ban CS behaviour can impede the L2 learning process (e.g. lead to breakdowns in communication by causing long pauses: Eldridge, 1996).

These contributions could also be at a cognitive level. Swain & Lapkin (2000) suggest that L1 provides students with scaffolding during their attempt to accomplish learning tasks. To illustrate, to them, a writing task can be done collaboratively with pairs of students working together to complete the same task and using L1 to solve problems that may occur within the process, which in turn promotes L2 learning. L1 may also help learners understand the necessities and the content of a task, focusing on language form, improving vocabulary use and overall organization, and forming the tone and nature of their collaboration (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Therefore, without L1, the task given to learners may not be achieved as effectively, or might not be accomplished at all.

All these arguments open ways to question the boundaries around languages and to explore new ways where CS might be considered as 'a teachable pedagogic resource' (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p. 106). Baker (2010), building on what Fishman (1967) referred to as 'diglossia' (p.29), posits that L1 could be used but in a separated and systematic manner, claiming that the use of the L1 and L2 languages unsystematically does not promote the use of L2. Therefore, Baker (2010) suggests 'translanguaging' (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p.112) where the input is in one language and the output is in the other (which can be systematically reversed). Accordingly, the advantages of translanguaging would be promoting a deeper understanding of the subject matter, and help learners develop in the weaker language (see Baker, 2010). Nevertheless, this model

was scrutinised for placing too much focus on the language instead of the speaker's voice, which is a major concern for example in post-colonial countries (e.g. Canagarajah, 1995).

In post-colonial countries, colonial boundaries and practices can create a linguistically heterogeneous population. As part of the language planning practices (i.e. practices intended to achieve change in language use) of these countries the government often chooses a language to unify the nation and enhance historical identity. In doing so, the language the government selects is one that was spoken by some of the population and was acceptable more widely to other population segments (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; e.g. see Martin, 1996). In particular, even after the end of the colonial order, the governments of these countries often gave importance to the teaching of the ex-colonial language (e.g. English) as a second language and declared it as a medium of instruction. However, society may react negatively to such practices. Sharma's (2006) study in Puerto Rico reports that the government's policy, the teaching of English (L2) enshrined in law, made students resentful and resistant to learning it because they were mainly Spanish speakers. To balance the government policy and students' attitudes, the teachers took on a mediating role by using CS to show that both languages could coexist. Supporting this, Canagarajah's (1995) study in Sri Lanka indicated that the language planning practices of these countries affect the learners' attitudes towards learning L2 (i.e. cause resentment) and the teachers posited that the use of L1 created a mitigating effect and thus teachers used L1 to build rapport. In another study conducted by Panayiotopoulou & Nicolaidou (2007) in the south of Cyprus, the ramifications of an L2-only policy (for the purpose of enculturation) seemed to be severe on immigrant children (who they refer to as 'non-indigenous', p. 66). Their study evidenced that though these children were educated in schools which other immigrant pupils also attended, they did not have the opportunity to use their mother tongue as the schools did not have teachers who knew their languages. Besides, it was further supported in the teacher data that most teachers favoured a monolingual approach in teaching Greek (the official language of the south of Cyprus), ironically, to enable these children to be socially included in their environment. However, the immigrant pupils' being deprived of their mother tongues at school led to various problems, including, academic failure, feeling of alienation from peers, and their need for psychological support.

Thus, it does not come as a surprise that new ideas and terms have been created to allow the inclusion of the L1 into L2. Macaro (2005) highlights that a classroom where L2 learning takes place is a multilingual environment. That is, for each learner at least two languages are involved in the learning process (Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2005). Therefore, classrooms where CS is utilised and favoured are a mirror of the outside world (Macaro, 2005) as seems to be the case in the Cyprus example above. To focus on the impacts of social, political and historical forces in shaping utterances, Bailey (2007) used the term ‘heteroglossia’ (p.257), stressing that in different contexts the idea that different forms of language can exist within a single cohesive text again depend on the context (e.g. we can use CS in a certain context so that listeners better understand us, but not do that at all in another context).

What these debates bring to the fore is that, as discussed above, there is a necessity to focus on the languages, participants’ and the contexts. Nevertheless, research focusing on the inter-relationships between languages and their speakers in the educational context, is sparse (Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

Another concern of the CS studies, in its traditional sense, is that they fail to demonstrate the complexities of language use and users of today in that they do not place enough emphasis on the dynamic nature of language (Blommaert, 2010). Instead, what CS studies focus on is a fixed notion of language and the assumption that there is only one version of one language (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007). In today’s globalised world there are people constantly on the move, which has resulted in an increasing interaction between speakers of different origins, experiences and languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014), where patterns of shifting and mixing occur (Blommaert, 2010). For example, refugees from Syria settled in Germany will be forced to learn German but in doing so they will most probably add features of their own language into German. The reverse might also be possible depending on the different contexts they enter. That is, their language will be context-bound. They will speak in their mother tongue with their child but in doing so they will most probably add features of the German language in to their own language either being influenced by their new lifestyles or being influenced by their child who is educated in a German school and who will most probably use some German at home. Similarly, a Turk living in Germany will go through a similar process and both Turkish and German will be influenced by each other. Hence, in each of these interactions, speakers will be constantly adding characteristics of one language to other due to the fact

that their communicative requirements within that context is above their repertoire (Blommaert, 2010) or they are influenced by the background of the person they are interacting with.

Thus, those against traditional CS studies emphasize that the notion of languages can no longer be viewed as fixed entities (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007) (i.e. there is no such thing as one ‘English’ or ‘Turkish’ (Blommaert, 2005). Equal importance is placed on the realization of ‘translanguaging’ (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 15), in their terms which is the dynamic nature of language where multilingual language users mediate complex social and cognitive activities through the use of multiple resources.

This opposes the idea of traditional bilingualism where there exists two autonomous linguistics systems and adds to the idea that within bilingualism there is a transfer between two languages (L1 and L2) owing to a ‘common underlying proficiency’ (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 14). The dynamic model of bilingualism suggests that there is one linguistic system where features of both languages are integrated.

In terms of this study, it was only at the transcription stage that I realised that some of the ‘Turkish’ utterances were not standard Turkish but a variety of Turkish, either a north Cyprus variety or a mainland Turkish variety, thus affirming the views of Makoni & Pennycook (2007). Although the study reported on in this thesis remains a study of code-switching, the potential criticisms of others in relation to the ‘codes’ under investigation are noted and will form the basis of further research into the Turkish varieties used in the University.

What the discussion above brings to the fore is that it seems that CS studies have evolved, which is a natural consequence of the need to fit into the characteristics of the globalised world of the 21st Century.

2.2.4 Research on CS

Research on CS has been carried out for different purposes, including to investigate teachers’ attitudes towards CS in the USA (Levine, 2003); teachers’ CS in relation to teacher’s cultures of learning among Japanese learners in the UK (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010); to examine the reception and production of language through CS in South Africa (Setati, Adler, Reed & Bapoo, 2010); and to analyse the function of CS in teacher-

learner interaction in Brazil (Greggio & Gill, 2007) and the results of these, together with many others, reinforce the idea that studies on CS need to be approached with caution and that certain factors ought to be taken into consideration in designing the appropriate research methodology.

The results of studies about teachers' attitudes show that teachers' attitudes are in fact mixed. There are studies where the majority of teachers reported their preference to use L2. To illustrate, in an internet based study among 163 FL instructors in the USA, one third of whom were NS of the language they taught (Levine, 2003), a majority of teachers (approximately 63%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that having to communicate in L2 exclusively is a worthwhile challenge. Though the study of Erkmén (2010), conducted in north Cyprus (on NNSs) was not directly on CS, it supports the study above in that through interviews teachers' reported that they favoured a monolingual approach. Still, as Levine (2003) states, any curricular decision based on the study should be made with caution. The results, though identical with the 600 students answering the survey, are only based on teachers' attitudes and are not samples of observed classroom behaviour. Sometimes teachers are unaware of how much CS takes place in their classes. This issue has also been brought up in Polio & Duff's (1994) study, where observations revealed quite frequent CS behaviour for the use of administrative purposes, but none of the teachers explicitly acknowledged using L1 in this way. This reinforces the idea that it is actually important to involve classroom observations in CS research.

Research conducted elsewhere (e.g. Yavuz, 2012 in Turkey; de La Campa & Nassaji, 2009, in Canada; Tang, 2002, in China; Sharma, 2006, in Nepal; Macaro, 2001, in Wales; Schweers, 1999, in Puerto Rico), however, reveal positive attitudes towards CS. Teachers in these studies feel CS has a facilitating role in the language learning process, which is consistent with the discussions of Auerbach (1993).

If there is a positive attitude towards CS and if it is utilised, then it is necessary to look at the causes of this. Macaro (2001) indicated that learners' L1 proficiency level had an impact on teachers' decision to code-switch. A second issue concerned the adaptation to the language program, course policy and how it was organized. These included the setup of the courses, the types of materials used, the students' motivation and intensity of the program and exam pressure (Polio & Duff, 1994; Duff & Polio, 1990). Another reason

was classroom management issues, which include getting student attention (Tabaku, 2014) and reprimanding students (Canagarajah, 1995). Further studies indicated that the nature of the subject matter (Tabaku, 2014; Greggio, & Gil, 2007), the idea that CS was time-saving (Tabaku, 2014) and that the known (L1) contributes to the unknown (L2) in learning a new structure (Şimşek, 2010) were also reasons for teachers' CS.

There are further arguments on the reasons for CS. One is based on the idea that novice teachers switch more than experienced ones. For instance, De La Campa & Nassaji (2009) indicated that their instructor participants used L1 quite frequently in their classrooms with a total average of 11.3% in both classes and that the experienced instructor used slightly fewer L1 words (9.3%) than the novice (13.2%). This echoes the discussion of Polio & Duff (1994) who also claimed to have a similar result. Moreover, another argument concerns being a NS or a NNS. For example, in a study conducted with Turkish NNS of English, Polat (2009) argues that NNS EFL teachers lack confidence in their L2 proficiency and thus utilise L1.

Taking all these into consideration, then, there is the question of whether teachers in different contexts with similar concerns would/would not switch in a similar way. Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) take a different perspective on the idea of CS. For them, CS is not an act of being novice or experienced or lacking confidence or merely contextual factors but is dependent on the prior cultures of learning. Their qualitative study, revealed that CS was the result of the the differences in beliefs and experience about language learning between the two group of participants: a British NNS and NSs of Japanese. These were also reflected in participants views of the teacher role and their perceptions of their learners' receptivity, thereby either reinforcing their commitment to L2 (as was the case for British NNS) use or, contributing to CS (as was the case for Japanese NSs). Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) concluded that teachers coming from a culture where CS is approved of would switch more than those exposed to more communicative methodologies. This mirrors the findings of Polat (2009), who suggests that teachers' beliefs and students' beliefs tended to match, especially when teachers and students share the same profile. These studies highlight the necessity to consider CS within context, further lending support to the idea that CS should be considered within the field of sociolinguistics. Teachers' backgrounds and social contexts have become crucial factors in research exploring language teachers. What such studies also reveal is that certain teaching methodologies (communicative use of the language) appear to be incompatible

with certain cultures (as explained in cultures of learning see section 2.1.6). Thus, it seems significant to highlight the cultural workings of the context as without this, descriptions of CS studies only present ‘a partial picture of the underpinnings of these teachers’ decisions’ (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010, p. 46).

The analysis of Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han’s (2004) qualitative study on the call for maximal use of English in class and the challenges teachers are facing, also supports this view. One of the findings gathered from interviews was that teachers’ beliefs played an integral role in CS, which appeared to have reinforced the idea that participants’ descriptions of the extent of appropriate L1 must be considered within the context they are currently teaching. Thus, methodologically, the right way forward seems to be to allow instances (perhaps interviews) where teachers can voice their opinions, and their own experiences, rather than rely merely on questionnaires.

These context-specific reasons suggest that instructors may sometimes use L1 because they believe that it is useful for learning, and that it maintains morale among students and handles students’ different expectations for a language course. Both types of reasons seem to be legitimate and may explain why instructors use L1 in their L2 classrooms (de Le Campa & Nassaji, 2009). That is, teachers’ beliefs impact their decisions to switch codes (Dilin, Gil-Soon, Kyung-Suk, & Nan-Ok, 2004). In de Le Campa & Nassaji’s (2009) study, the experienced instructor not only used L1 for pedagogical purposes, such as translating and giving activity instructions, but also to contribute a personal note to his teaching. As he suggested in the stimulated recall session, he used such personal comments to acknowledge students’ efforts and thus motivate them in their learning. For this teacher, L1 played an important role in his teaching, so he used it as a pedagogical tool.

In Greggio & Gil’s (2007) study, teachers’ use of L1 was highly influenced by their interaction with the students. Teachers reported that their students’ use of L1 made them use L1, too. Nevertheless, it is also important to bear in mind that this also had mixed results. For example, Kraemer (2006) presents instances where teachers’ L2 was not interrupted by the students’ L1.

Another area of interest in CS studies is identity; this has been dealt with from different standpoints within the field of identity research. Before these studies are discussed in more detail, a brief explanation of what identity is will be given.

There seems to be a variety of factors contributing to the popularity of researching identity. Building upon the works of Marx, Bendle (2002) for example, notes that interest in identity originated in the secularization of populations of industrialized countries where life conditions improved and a tendency to value life on earth arose.

Block (2013) adds that another factor contributing to the rise of a focus on identity has been developments in psychology from the late 19th century onwards. Works of scholars such as Freud depicted human beings with their 'individual life trajectories' taking their socialization processes and social interaction into consideration. Such ideas were significant in that they:

changed the way that academics and lay people alike viewed the workings of the human mind. And they planted the seeds for what would eventually become the rise of individualization in late modern societies (Block, 2013, p.16).

Since then, different perspectives towards identity have been proposed. Some researchers consider it as a social construct. Here, identity entails the multiple ways people situate themselves in and are situated within certain social, historical and cultural contexts. Holding this view is Norton (1997) who defines identity as the way individuals make sense of their relationship to the world and the way that relationship is established over time and space. Belz (2003) refers to identity as the dynamic and complex processes through which individuals align themselves with certain groups, beliefs or practices.

However, this view of identity has been critiqued by scholars such as Block (2013) who claims that such views are restricted in a sense that they frame identity in social sciences and only focus on how identity 'emerges in interactions as part of the day-to-day engagement in social activity' (Block, 2013, p. 19). What Block (2013) suggests is more emphasis on the psychological aspect of identity, whereby the unconscious of individuals is not taken for granted. He suggests that this perspective is significant in that one's core inner self is not stable, but conflicted and affects one's development and participation in activities. Thus, such an understanding would enable researchers to view identity as a dynamic process not only directed by environment but also by emotions (e.g. repression).

It is not my intention here to take sides on this argument. Rather, I seek for a critical understanding towards identity. With this aim in hand, I have provided examples of research on identity in various sections of this study highlighting how identity is understood. For example, in discussing teachers' beliefs I discuss the study of Flores & Day (2006) who take a look at the professional identity. It discusses how novice teachers shape their identities in a work place and touches upon issues such as personal biography, beliefs and the workplace in shaping teachers' professional identity. Links to identity and CS have also been discussed. In section 2.2.3, I present a study in the south of Cyprus (Panayiotopoulou & Nicolaidou, 2007) to exemplify cases where the exclusion of L1 can lead to alienation. In this study, in coming to a new country the immigrant children were trying to fit in to their new environment or trying to form a new identity. However, this proved not to be a smooth process as the native speakers of their new environment excluded them.

Adding to such studies are those of Canagarajah (1995) and Sharma (2006) (see section 2.2.3). These two studies evidence that identity can become a major concern in post-colonial countries too. In these countries, students resented learning the enforced language and teachers made jokes or anecdotes in students L1 to overcome the problem (Sharma, 2006). For example, in a lesson on fruits in the L2, the teacher code-switched to ask learners about the fruit they had had for breakfast. The L2 emerged as the code symbolising impersonality and formality (e.g. the language of the book), while the L1 emerged as informal and homely. This gave students a sense that students' L1 identity was valued, encouraging a positive learning environment (Canagarajah, 1995).

Though language learners of English in the USA and Sri Lanka recognize the social and economic benefits of learning a new language or dialect, they maybe resistant to learning L2 as they consider it to bring serious social losses. Canagarajah (2004) noted that this resistance sometimes resulted in secret literacy practices on the part of students to create 'pedagogical safe houses' (Canagarajah, 2004, p. 120) in the language classroom. In both contexts, students' secret literacy activities are ways to show resistance to unfavourable identities that learners may be associated with because of participating in the L2 community. Canagarajah (2004) argued that these safe houses enabled students to construct their identities, and negotiate the tensions they face as members of diverse communities.

Similar to these studies is the study by Liang (2006), who draws on research which examines how high-school Chinese immigrant students in Canada perceived L1 (Chinese) and L2 (English) in class, and how they used these languages during group activities. In this study, Liang (2006) depicts different learners with multiple desires. On one hand were learners who wanted to maintain their own identity and thus were resistant to using English. Within the same course, there were some learners who desired two identities and wanted to use English but did not as they feared that their Chinese-speaking peers in class would exclude them because of speaking English. As Liang (2006) concludes, these students were torn between identifying with:

compatriots in L1' and gaining membership in mainstream classes in L2, between maintaining L1 and developing L2, and between using L1 for academic discourse and developing academic discourse in L2. Identity and language functions seem two side-by-side components of the dilemmas (p.143).

These studies reflect some of the identity issues involved in language learning. Particularly, the studies in post-colonial countries (such as the one where this study takes place) and second/foreign language learning contexts (such as the institution in which this study is situated) illuminate the identity positions that may exist or develop in classrooms and the soothing effect that the L1 may bring within this complicated process of language learning.

Obviously, the current research on CS cannot be decisive as to which view of CS is right or wrong. Though there exists a bulk of work on in-class CS behaviour, its usefulness still remains debatable because the studies are small-scale or not longitudinal (e.g. Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010). Therefore, there is more research needed to decide whether or not CS is for the benefit of pupils or not (Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004) and it is suggested that the research on CS is considered in this respect.

2.3 Conclusion

In this section, firstly, the debates around teachers' beliefs was highlighted. One important finding was that researchers have diverging ideas of what beliefs actually entail. Hence, as Pajares (1992) implies, it seems impossible to actually make sense of the findings of studies on beliefs without understanding researchers' constructs of the idea. Moreover, more studies are needed to inform us of the different perspectives of different researchers (Woods, 2001).

Then, the argument that research supports the idea that the construction of beliefs was idiosyncratic and related to more personal and cultural factors was explored. Teachers have their own perceptions of the same idea owing to their individual (and, in a broader sense, cultural) experiences (Woods & Çakır's 2011). Therefore, joining the idea of cultures of learning and teachers' beliefs, one could assume that teachers' beliefs are culture or context laden (Woods & Çakır, 2011). Hence, this seems a significant approach to take into account in researching teachers' beliefs. Moreover, teachers' stated beliefs do not always provide access to teachers' actual beliefs. Joining this with the idea that teachers' beliefs are dynamic, it seems to be a more plausible approach to involve observations, followed by stimulated-recall/ interviews, to allow teachers a voice.

A close look into CS also yielded that studies in these are as contradictory as belief studies. There exists an entanglement around its definitions, its benefits as well as the findings research suggests. Still, what seems to be worthwhile keeping in mind was a consideration of the context (participants, countries) in which CS is applied. Unless one has an idea of these, it seems a challenge to come to grips with teachers' reasons for CS, but research taking these into account seems to be sparse. The majority of the studies seem to be small-scale and need to be supported by longitudinal studies (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010).

Taking all these factors into consideration, it is my intention in this study to further contribute to the fields of teachers' beliefs, cultures of learning and CS. The following chapter presents the methodology I follow in fulfilling this aim.

Chapter 3 - Methodology

3.0 Presentation

This chapter contains 10 sections. First, the theoretical framework guiding this study will be presented in 3.1. The ontological and epistemological positions as well as the values shaping the research will be detailed here. Next in 3.2, I detail the aim of this study which is followed by section 3.3 where the research design is discussed. This is followed by sections 3.4 and 3.5 where the context and the participants of the study are detailed. Next, in section 3.6 the methods and in 3.7 the additional sources of data collection will be presented. Then comes section 3.8 and 3.9 where issues of credibility and the matter of ethics will be detailed. The chapter ends with 3.10 where data analysis is discussed.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

I support the idea that researchers' epistemological and ontological positioning, their alignment to certain theories and values, affect various aspects of the research process.

My own ontological and epistemological beliefs are derived from my position as a social-constructivist, aligning me to this paradigm (Sikes, 2004). My alignment to the social-constructivist paradigm has influenced first the choice of the research questions and then the choice of the methods I have used in this study and so I take the stance that research is value-laden.

3.1.1 Ontological positionality

Ontologically, I take what Sikes (2004) describes as a social constructivist position, which is my world view: I do not claim that there is a 'real' world where information needs to be captured. For me, reality is socially built, experienced personally and is a construction of human thought which can be expressed with language. By accepting subjectivity, I support, as Sikes (2004) explains, a world that is socially constructed or subjective and an interpretive paradigm, which is my philosophical basis. Within this specific research context, I assume that I cannot separate myself from those researched, especially since I am also a Turkish-Cypriot teacher teaching at the institution where the research took place. Thus, all the information they provided me would be an act of co-construction, whereby whatever I saw, heard, or understood would be interpreted based on my own background, experiences and understanding of the context.

3.1.2 Epistemological Positionality

Unlike the proponents of the positivist paradigm, I do not view knowledge as objective, generalisable, and tangible. Thus, I do not support the necessity to adopt the principles of natural sciences to study the social sciences. Similarly, I do not claim that reliability, objectivity and usefulness of knowledge can be attained only if findings are based on empirical evidence. Thus, I do not limit myself and solely rely on quantitative research methods to interpret data by means of statistical analysis (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Finally, I do not only focus on the behaviour of groups or actions, but regard an individual's behaviour or action significant in the interpretation of results.

Epistemologically, I follow Greenbank's (2003) definition of a social-constructivist paradigm to the acquisition of knowledge. I adhere to the idea that knowledge and social context are inseparable. Teachers' knowledge is a socially-constructed, experiential construct: grounded within the cultural context in which they operate.

I, thus, favour an interpretive paradigm. I consider that multiple-realities exist, and therefore, support the idea that researchers have to delve into people's worlds, and make their beliefs, perceptions and feelings explicit. I believe in the significance of understanding the individuals' social worlds and actions through an analysis of the interpretation of that world by its participants. Moreover, I acknowledge that this interpretation of the participants' worlds is a two-way process and will be re-interpreted by the researcher, which makes me aligned to the constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006).

3.1.3 Constructivist grounded theory

The way I approached the research fits in with the constructivist grounded theory in many respects.

First, like constructivist grounded theory would suggest, I believe that the theory I reach will be constructed by me as a result of my interactions with the field and the participants. As aforementioned, I assume that multiple realities and multiple perspectives on these realities exist. In tandem with this idea, therefore, supporting Charmaz (2006), I believe that the findings I reach from the data will be co-constructed by me and my participants,

and shaped through my reality, which includes my world view, philosophical standpoint and values, as well as my interactions with the participants, research site, the data and the findings. Hence, I separate myself from traditional grounded theorists, Strauss & Corbin (1994) and Glaser & Strauss (1967), who assume that meaning is inherent in data, and that the researcher's aim is to discover this meaning: data builds up and enables the emergence of a theory. Instead, I assume that data collection involves constructions: participants' constructions, and the co-construction of participants' constructions by me, the researcher (Charmaz, 2006). This view has been contested as being too subjective (Glaser, 2002). I attempted to minimise this by employing triangulation and vigorous comparison, which will be dealt with in sections (3.8.1.2).

Secondly, I support the constructivist grounded theorists' manner in which they begin their research. Traditionalists embark on their study without any preconceived questions or literature review in order not to start the research with any preconceived ideas (Glaser, 2002). This notion has been critiqued. Constructivists support beginning the research with specific questions on a certain area prior to the study. Thus, constructivist grounded theory begins with a review of the literature. I support this idea in that I believe it to be fruitful to look at the existing literature to determine what has been done before in the area of interest (Charmaz, 2006) and believe preconception of ideas can be avoided by 'bracketing' (Hallberg, 2006, p.147) previous work.

The constructivist grounded nature of the study can also be observed within further steps of the study (e.g. utilisation of methods), which will be explained in section 3.3.

3.1.4 My values

My values directed me to my research focus. As explained in the introduction, I am a Turkish-Cypriot. I was born and have lived in the UK and currently live and work in the north of Cyprus, which is the Turkish speaking part of the island. By describing myself as a Turkish-Cypriot living in the north of Cyprus I am putting forth my values.

First, I separate myself from what are generally known as Cypriots. This word is generally attributed to the Greek-Cypriots, who live mainly in the southern part. However, I see the necessity to add Turkish in front of the term perhaps because as Vural & Rustemli (2006) suggest I see the Turkish-Cypriotness as an overarching sub-category for Cypriots and want to stress that I belong to the Turkish speaking part of the island.

Moreover, I separate myself from the Turks. Saying that ‘I’m a Turk’ would imply that I am from Turkey, but like most Turkish speaking Cypriots (see Vural & Rustemli, 2006), I feel the necessity to refer to the geographical area I belong to and coin the term Turkish-Cypriot. Again based on my experience, I know that simply saying ‘I’m a Turk’ would mean I come from Turkey.

Having lived, studied, worked in Turkey and having had Turkish acquaintances, I feel that there are certain traits that I can identify or not with the Turkish culture to a certain extent. Considering the similarities, we almost share the same language (i.e. Turkish) and come from similar cultures of learning. Political agendas/ideologies (explained in the introduction) have brought us together. We have accepted the same (i.e. Turkish) educational policy to some extent and been subjected to a similar educational system/ideology. Currently, we are in close contact as there are both Turkish and Turkish-Cypriot residents on the north of the island.

Nevertheless, as a Turkish-Cypriot married to a Turk and having lived with Turks, one thing I know is that we do differ to a certain extent. I am in my mid-thirties and the previous generation (i.e. my parents) have experienced war, as well as life with Greek-Cypriots and lived under British colonial rule, which has had a great impact on the way TCs have been brought up, and influenced our lifestyles and language. For example, as explained in the introduction, our dialect is different from the standard Turkish or other dialects in Turkey, which can be observed both at a syntactic (i.e. word order) and lexical (i.e. words) level, in some ways resembling those of English.

To sum up, owing to my ontological and epistemological stance together with my values, I aimed to pursue a topic in which I could underpin multiple subjective realities of both TCs and TRs living in NC. I decided to focus on TC and TR teachers’ pedagogical practices.

Within this perspective, in this study I:

- noticed the impact of socialization and culture on TC and TR teachers’ knowledge and beliefs of appropriate pedagogical practices. This socially-constructed knowledge and beliefs may be shaped due to interactions with their own cultures,

interactions with people around them, families, friends, peers, teachers, students, colleagues, trainers, mentors, etc. or their personal and professional experiences in life. All these socializations are dynamic and may have contributed to, and may further contribute to, their idea of appropriate code-choice and subsequently how they use the codes in their individual classrooms,

- thus, considered it important to acknowledge teachers' historical backgrounds and culture in doing the research since these backgrounds help to shape the knowledge and beliefs teachers have,
- saw myself as an interpreter. As stated previously, as a researcher I accept multiple subjective realities (Sikes, 2004). My epistemological positionality made me seek subjective accounts and perceptions. That is, I felt the need to enter participants world to explore the context they were in to get a sense of how they experience the world (i.e. their pedagogical practices). I also saw it necessary to understand what meaning they attached to their actions,
- accepted that we cannot free ourselves from our values, so claiming that I did not would not fit with my ontological and epistemological position. For this particular study, I did start with one preconceived idea. I assumed that TCs are different from Cypriots and Turks and included it in my title,
- mirrored Charmaz (2006), by opining that literature can be used in a constructive and data-sensitive way without being forced on data, thus began the study with some review of literature.

3.2 Research Aims

The context (see the following section) I chose to conduct this study in is very significant for me. Before I moved to NC, I had been living and working in Turkey. However, at the time, I felt that I did not belong there and was looking for opportunities to come to NC.

When I came to work at NCC, one thing that I noticed was that it was not so different from the places I had worked for in Turkey. The program, the syllabus, the course book, aims, and objectives were very similar (to be explained in 'context': it is actually a campus of a state university in Turkey). What really attracted me was that the culture

foregrounded in the institution was TR despite it being in NC. When I first started working at the university, almost all the teachers were TR within my department. There were only three British and three TC teachers (the number of TCs increased by the time I conducted the study). In this respect, I felt I was in a similar atmosphere I had come from. Nevertheless, with the gradual increase in the number of TCs teachers, I became curious about the TR and TC teachers' beliefs and their in-class reflections. What can be said about the beliefs and practices of TR EFL teachers teaching in NC? Likewise, what is there to explore about TCs teaching in their country in a university where the people around them are mostly TR? These were the questions that triggered me and enabled me to develop my research focus.

The study began with one overarching research question: What are TCs and TRs pedagogical practices? Here, I aimed to explore the features characterising TC and TR EFL teachers' pedagogical practices. Though there was a lot more to discover in this (e.g. teaching approach) based on a combination of my overarching focus, and data (observations and retrospective interviews revealing the pivotal role CS played) I decided to narrow this question down to teachers' CS practices and the following question:

- What are the code-switching beliefs of TC and TR teachers teaching TR students in north Cyprus?

This research question is related to how TCs and TRs perceived CS; their ideas towards code-choice (i.e. CS or not) when teaching TR students in an EFL context.

Moreover, more themes were explored with interviews and observations. This meant that two more questions could be addressed:

- What are the factors shaping TCs and TRs CS practises? To what extent are TCs and TRs CS influenced by these factors?

This question aims to explore the features shaping their awareness and ideas of CS. It also aims to discover the impact of these features on characterising TCs' and TRs' awareness and ideas of CS.

- How do TCs and TRs utilise code-switching in-class? Do TCs' and TRs' practices differ?

This question aims to explore TCs and TRs in-class code choices. It also seeks to see if TCs and TRs in-class code choices are different with regards to their amount (i.e. in percentages) and use (i.e. functions).

I believe that the addition of the two questions was a natural consequence of the constructivist grounded nature of the study that I envisaged, as explained in 3.1.3.

3.3 Methodology

The methodology used in the research design fits with qualitative research. In this section, I will explain the methodological framework which enabled me to explore TCs and TRs teachers' beliefs and in-class pedagogical practices. (CS).

3.3.1 Qualitative methodology

There are many belief studies utilising qualitative methodology to assess teachers' beliefs (as explained in Chapter 2). One reason for this is that within this methodology, the researcher accepts multiple realities and is interested in looking into:

...things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 3).

Another reason is that qualitative methodology is more concerned with the process (the why and the how) rather than simply the product (the outcome), which is the case in quantitative methodology. In this sense, qualitative methods can provide rich and in-depth information to access beliefs. (Kagan, 1992). More importance is attached to meaning in qualitative research. Qualitative researchers are concerned with participants' perspectives since the emphasis of this kind of research is on understanding the individual in his/her context.

Quantitative research may also seek meaning (e.g. BALLI survey explained in Chapter 2). However, this approach brings with it many problems in assessing teachers' beliefs as such surveys are based on categories designed by the researcher. However, participants cannot express their opinions openly and freely without more open-ended questions.

Further, as Pajares (1992) convincingly argues, teachers' actual statements may not always be a guide to their beliefs. Similarly, Woods (1996) highlights that when asked abstract questions regarding their beliefs (i.e. Do you believe in the communicative approach?), teachers are most likely to respond in the way they believe they are expected to (i.e. of course I believe in the communicative approach!). These issues, again, emphasize the need to clearly define what one means by belief (Woods, 2003).

I felt that adopting a qualitative methodology best suited this study for mainly two intertwined reasons. First, I assumed that qualitative methods would provide rich information about the world in which the teachers live. Making sense of teachers' beliefs about CS and classroom culture requires an in-depth study and qualitative methodology was a step towards attaining this. Operating from my previous definition, I define teachers' beliefs as teachers' opinions of the in/appropriate pedagogical practice in class based on experiences or statements, which can be unknown or just stated. Taking Pajares' (1992) and Woods' (1996) suggestions into account in accessing teachers' beliefs, similar to Hobbs (2007a), I chose to focus on the combination of beliefs: those which manifest themselves in classroom behaviour and those which are verbalised by the teacher participants, both in direct statements (i.e. I believe ...) and in statements of intention.

Secondly, the theoretical framework which shaped this study (see section 3.1) made me choose qualitative methods which would enable me to unveil teachers' underlying beliefs about CS and relate their beliefs to their practices.

However, I kept in mind the possible areas that qualitative researchers are criticized for, which include subjectivity and transferability. These will be discussed in section 3.8.

3.3.2 Selection of participants and context

3.3.2.1 Selection of participants

In choosing my teacher participants, I employed purposive convenience sampling (Wellington, 2000), which involves selecting participants based on a specific purpose (Teddlie & Yu, 2007) and convenience (i.e. being accessible, well-known and easy to contact). This allowed me to select the participants among my colleagues on the basis of several criteria and the shared characteristic(s) that would allow for a detailed exploration of the objectives of this study.

The teacher participants were chosen on the basis of representativeness. First, teachers had to have at least two terms of experience in the research site. This helped me ensure that participants had a fair amount of familiarity with the context and its workings. I ensured that participants were actively teaching at the time the study was conducted, so I could observe their classes.

Once the context was chosen (see 3.3.2.2), I looked at the number and profile of the teachers working there. At the time of the study, there were 45 teachers at the research site, most of whom were NNS of English. Of these teachers 50% were TR teachers and about 40% of the teachers were TCs including myself. Not all teachers were actively teaching at the time of the study. Willingness to participate was also important because the participants were asked to spare extra time and effort for this study.

Accordingly, I approached 5 TC and 5 TR teachers who were teaching at the time. I explained the purpose and the procedures and all agreed to participate.

3.3.2.2 Selection of context

I also used convenience sampling in choosing the context. I chose the context where I was currently working. The reason for its establishment and the composition of the research site (i.e. having both TC and TR teachers as explained below in section 3.5) were important factors in choosing it as a site to conduct the study. Additionally, I thought it would be appropriate since I work at the same institution and live there. Therefore, it was relatively easy to conduct interviews and observations. Moreover, I also had to be at work during the working hours, which made it difficult for me to go and observe participants in other universities and that is why I thought this institution would be better. Moreover, I knew the program and all the participants. At the time I was not teaching, which allowed me to be free and gave me flexibility. I could go and observe and interview my participants whenever they were available.

3.4 The Context

The study took place at the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) of a private university in NC, which I will be referring to as the North Cyprus Campus (NCC). The university is not a university on its own but is a trans-national campus; it is a branch of a state university in Turkey. Its medium of instruction is English. Before moving on to the SFL and its mission, the university's history and its organisational structure will be presented.

3.4.1. A history of NCC and its organisational structure

NCC was established as a result of a protocol between the TR and TC governments in 2000 (law no 4695, Turkish legislation) ('T.C. Kanunu, Kanun No: 4695', 2001). In 2000, the governments of Turkey and NC conveyed an invitation to the branch in Turkey for the establishment of the institution. NCC is currently partly financed by Turkey and takes support from the campus in Turkey in terms of academic and administrative issues.

The executive is made up of seven members including the head. The head of the board is selected by the rector of the main (TR) campus among professors (being TR since its establishment). The law states that the TC Ministry of Education is to consider the head as rector (i.e. having formal authorization). The law sees that the majority of the members are TR (n=5) and the remaining two are to be assigned by the TC Ministry of Education and Culture. The 5 TR members are selected by the main campus from its professors (all TR since its establishment).

NCC was established in the year 2003-2004 and admitted students to one undergraduate program. In 2004-2005, the number of the undergraduate programs went up to six. Until the 2005-2006 academic year, these students spent their initial years on the Turkey campus. At the time the study was conducted, in the 2013-2014 academic year, the campus offered 15 undergraduate programs and three graduate programs to about 2200 students.

NCC's academic and administrative affairs are attached to the campus in Turkey. It controls the curriculum. All degree programs are approved by the main campus' Senate and its graduates are entitled to receive an internationally recognized diploma which is approved by the campus in Turkey.

Within the current solidarity between Turkey and NC, NCC is said to aim at an increase in the number of students receiving quality higher education in NC. However, the departments and their quotas are proposed by the Senate of the TR campus. After they have been determined, consultancy is sought from the TR Higher Education Board and the TC Ministry of Education. The quota for NC students is determined together with the TR Ministry of Education. Thus, the departments offering courses to students are not

aiming to cater for TC students but quotas are mainly determined by Turkey's needs or what is considered to be appropriate.

The TR campus also offers NCC departments based on the ones it has available. In doing so, it is in contact with the authorized bodies both in Turkey and NC. Nevertheless, there is no statement about meeting the needs of the TC or north Cyprus. The students to be educated in the school will be selected by TR Assessment, Selection and Placement Centre including TC students, which is a different policy from other NC universities. Other Universities in NC have a separate exam for NC students (e.g. see 'EMU, Admission Requirements to Undergraduate Programs', n.d.).

3.4.2 School of Foreign Language (SFL)

One of the many constituent departments of NCC is the school of foreign languages. SFL is made up of two programs. One is the Modern Languages Department or MLD. MLD offers English courses to reinforce academic reading skills, writing skills, oral presentation skills, academic presentation skills as well as courses from three other languages: German, French and Spanish). The current study excluded the MLD due to the relatively mixed nature of the courses it offered and the busy schedule of the teachers.

The second sub-department is Preparatory Program (Prep). Prep aims to provide the students whose level of English is below proficiency level with basic language skills, so that they can pursue their undergraduate studies in their university departments without major difficulty.

In Prep, all of the courses offered are held five days a week, with students at intermediate and upper-intermediate levels attending a daily total of 4 hours of classes adding up to 20 hours of instruction per week. At beginner and pre-intermediate (pin) levels, the students attend a daily total of six hours of classes, which adds up to 30 hours per week and the students at the elementary level attend a daily total of four hours summing up to 20 hours of instruction per week. Instruction at the SFL for the preparatory year lasts for approximately 32 weeks for Pin students and 27 weeks for upper/intermediate levels.

The admission of students who will study at Prep is determined by an exam (i.e. proficiency exam/PROF) prepared by the TR campus (like all other exams). At the start of their first academic year, all students sit a proficiency exam. Those who get a score of

60 or international equivalents (i.e. IELTS, TOEFL) are qualified to go to their departments, but those who do not, have to study at Prep for a whole year. These students then also take a placement exam where their levels are determined.

During the time the study took place, two courses were being offered. The first was a summer school program. This course is designed for upper intermediate and intermediate students who took the PROF, but could not pass or for those who couldn't get a yearly total of 65 to enter the exam. These students are offered a summer school program with an additional course. This course's materials involve exam practice and revision and it is exam-oriented.

The second course was for pre-intermediate level students. These students started the year as beginner students. Their program involves a three term education where the third is called the extended semester. Students in the extended semester continue their education from where they left off in the second term. They are expected to get a yearly total of 50 to be able to take the PROF. One of the components that determine students' yearly total are Pop-quizzes. These are unannounced exams which can be given any day or hour of class, which last no more than thirty minutes.

3.5 Participants

TC teachers (n= 5) and TR teachers (n=5) with different backgrounds (i.e. educational) took part in this study. The profiles of the 10 teachers (3 females in both TR and TCs) are as follows:

Table 1: Description of teacher participants

Participant No	Pseudonyms	High School	BA	Other Qualification(s)	Teaching experience	Teaching Experience at the Institution
1	TC1	TMK, Nicosia (English-medium)	ELT, Turkey	COTE ¹ DOTE ² (not completed) MA-in ELT in progress	22 years	4 years
2	TC2	BTMK, Nicosia (English-medium)	ELL Cyprus	MA- in EHL ³ , Cyprus TESOL ⁴ -England	12 years	1 year

¹ Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English

² the Diploma in Overseas Teaching of English

³ English Language and Humanities

⁴ Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

3	TC3	TMK, Famagusta (English-medium)	ACL ⁵ , Turkey	MA- MED ⁶ , London CELTA ⁷ ICELT ⁸	16 years	5 years
4	TC4	TMK, Famagusta (English-medium)	ELT ⁹ , Cyprus	ICELT	10 years	1 year
5	TC5	Lycee (Turkish- medium), went to nursery in the UK	ELT, Cyprus	Attended workshops, seminars and holds certificates. Worked one to one with various teacher trainers	6 years	1 year
6	TR1	Super Lise (Turkish-medium. including a year of an intensive English program)	ACL , Turkey	MA-in ELT ICELT	9 years	8 years
7	TR2	Super Lise (Turkish-medium including a year of an intensive English program)	ACL, Turkey	MA-in ELT ICELT	9 years	8 years
8	TR3	Anatolian Highschool (Turkish-medium including a year of an intensive English program)	ELT, Turkey	MA-in EFL in progress ICELT	4 years	4 years
9	TR4	TED Ankara College (English-medium)	ELL ¹⁰ , Turkey	MA-in EFL in progress ICELT	2 years	2 years
10	TR5	Anatolian teacher training high school (Turkish-medium including a year of an intensive English program)	ELT, Turkey	ICELT	3 year + 1 year in primary school	1 year

Now, I will present a more detailed description of the participants.

⁵ American Culture and Literature

⁶ Master of Education

⁷ Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults

⁸ In-service certificate in Language teaching

⁹ English Language and Teaching

¹⁰ English Language and Literature

3.5.1 TCs

For various reasons the TCs' backgrounds are heterogeneous. Considering their prior learning experience, the majority of the TCs learnt English in an English-medium high-school. Of the five TCs, four (i.e. TC1, TC2, TC3, and TC4) were educated in an English medium high-school where they were exposed to content-based education. Three TCs (i.e. TC1, TC3, and TC4) had had teachers who followed a strict English-only policy, with few uses of the L1. Their teachers justified this by saying that there were 'expatriates' in their classes, i.e. students who had been living in the UK (TC1-INT1; TC3-INT2; TC4-INT2), whilst also highlighting that some of their teachers were native speakers of English (TC1-INT2). In fact, TC1 said (see Chapter 4, for conventions on the presentation of quotes and use of field-notes).

...although there were no written rules, it was a rule to speak only in English at school. Nobody told us this but it was just a common understanding of every student and teacher that as soon as we entered the school gate everyone would automatically start talking in English (TC1-INT1).

TC3 was educated in an English medium secondary school but said his English teachers would use L1 (i.e. Turkish). TC5 was educated at a state school where the medium of instruction was Turkish. Unlike her TC counterparts, TC5 did not undergo a content-based English education, so was not exposed to English much at school compared to them. Moreover, she did not have native speakers of English as teachers and had less English instruction per week. Reportedly, her English teachers used more L1 than L2 in their classes.

3.5.2 TRs

TRs learning experiences (starting from secondary school) were mainly twofold (though not for TR4). The first part involved a one year intensive English program (like preparatory) in their freshmen year in state high-schools in different regions in Turkey. The second part was where they did exam practice. Looking at their teachers' L1 use, here participants' experiences diverge.

3.5.2.1 Part1 - 1st year at secondary school

This is a one-year period where participants had approximately 20 hours of English classes a week. This is part of the school's program offered to those who are eligible enough (getting a sufficient grade from the university entrance exam) to study at

secondary schools offering prep classes. They can be considered as secondary schools offering prep classes as they differ from English medium ones in that after the preparatory year is completed, the medium of instruction is Turkish (not in the English classes which are offered in the following years).

However, participants' teachers had utilised different language policies throughout this one whole year. TR3 and TR5's (who are from a younger generation compared to TR1&2) teachers, as they say, followed a 'mostly-L2 policy' (TR4-INT1) with minimum L1 while TR1 and TR2's teachers did not.

3.5.2.2 Part 2 - Exam practice

For all four TRs (i.e. except TR4) the second part can be defined as a period of exam practice. The second part entails their education, for the remaining three years (required for graduation from secondary school) as instructed in the TR national curriculum (see Clark, N. & Miheal, 2012). All four TR participants chose to be in the language department, so although the medium of instruction was TR in these state schools, the time allocated for English classes was more than their counterparts. During this three-year education, especially for the last two years they went through an intense exam preparation period (last year being extreme). Though not explicitly stated in the TR national curriculum (see Clark & Miheal, 2012), all of their teachers' practices were exam based. TR3 describes this period as (see Chapter 4, for conventions on the presentation of quotes and use of field-notes).

Biz İngilizceyi, İngilizceyi öğrenmek için öğrenmiyorduk. Biz, İngilizceyi sınavada başarılı olmak ve çok yüksek bir derece yapmak ve iyi bir okula girebilmek için çalışıyorduk¹¹ (TR3-FU1).

As students, they were not learning general English but learning English to pass the exam. TR3 pinpoints the significance of the exam implying that it would define their future: getting into a good university. TR1 and TR2's conversation also supports this (see Chapter 4, for conventions on the presentation of quotes and use of field-notes).

TR1 lise hazırlıkta (role play) bile yapıyorduk. İngilizce (role play) yapıyorduk (...) geri kalanında [hazırlık sonrası] hep şey var: Teacher centred collaborative learning yok. (pair work) falan yok

¹¹ We didn't learn English for the sake of learning English. We studied English to be very successful, get a higher grade and to be able to go to a good university (TR3-FU1).

TR2: *aynen çok pasiftik biz. Ezber zaten. Gramer*
TR1: *Structure üzerine dayalı*
TR2 *Aynen dilbilim gibi öğreniyorduk sanki. Sınava hazırlık*
TR1: *Çartları ezberleyerek. (...) ama (production) düzeyinde hiç bir şey yok yani*¹²(FU1).

As can be seen from the conversation, their teachers would bring questions similar to those of the university entrance exam and practice those in class. For English classes, this meant that English was minimally used and grammar lessons were conducted in a Grammar Translation Method (GTM) kind of format. L1 overtook L2. There was explicit grammar teaching with formulaic language written on the board and for reading, ‘tactics’(TR3-INT1) were given to students to solve the questions ‘without actually reading the whole text’ (TR2-INT2). There were ‘no listening classes’ (TR1-INT1) and vocabulary learning was de-contextualized. There were vocabulary lists, from which the TR equivalents of words would be ‘memorized’ (TR3-FU1).TR3’s description was also supportive of this (see Chapter 4, for conventions on the presentation of quotes and use of field-notes):

*ELS dergilerinden çalışıyorduk. Onları da biliyorsun [dilbilgisi kurallarında] Türkçe açıklamalar*¹³ (...) (TR3-FU1).

TR4 graduated from an English-medium high school offering content based education and did not have a one-year intensive prep-program. Her teachers were both native and non-native speakers of English. She said that the non-native teacher would use Turkish to build rapport or discuss current issues in class. TR5 describes his freshman year as an intense program where, unlike the other TR participants, he had 10 hours general English and four hours vocabulary practice per week (TR5-INT2). He says that it was mostly in English but he says the teacher would use TR especially when it was impossible to understand the teaching point in English.

¹² TR1: We had some (role play) at high-school prep classes. We used to do it in English (...) The rest was generally like: (Teacher centred). No (collaborative learning) no (pair-work) etc.

TR2: Exactly. We were too passive. It was memorization. Grammar.

TR1: Based on (structure) (in Eng).

TR2: Definitely. It was like we were studying linguistics. Exam practice.

TR1: By memorizing the charts (...) nothing at a (production) level (FU1).

¹³ We used to study through ELS periodicals. You know those, Turkish explanations [to grammar points] (...) (TR3-FU).

3.6 Methods

Operating from definitions of beliefs (see Chapter 2) I chose to collect data directly from my participants. Here, I ensured methodological triangulation through the use of participant observation in actual classroom settings, post observation interviews, main interviews, follow-up interviews and focus-groups to allow my participants to elaborate on their view(s) of the research focus. I also kept comprehensive field-notes, memos and gathered documents and interviewed a member of the academic board, which served as additional sources of data. The variety of the qualitative data collection tools not only ensured methodological rigor but also helped me investigate the research issue from multiple perspectives.

3.6.1 Observations (Obs.)

3.6.1.1 Rationale

Class observations served three important purposes in this study. First, observations enabled me to be sensitive to the context and the setting (Cohen, Morrison & Manion, 2000). As the researcher, I felt the need to be part of the teachers' teaching or at least temporarily immerse myself into their teaching environment at the time of teaching. This was because I believe that, especially in a study of this nature (i.e. exploratory), it was important to view the understanding of teachers' pedagogical practices in their actual settings. Though I was familiar with the setting and the participants, I was not teaching at the time and had never taught these classes before. Therefore, unless I had done this, it would have been difficult to relate to (i.e. understand) what my participants were telling me.

Second, through observations I could collect data inductively (Cohen, Morrison & Manion, 2000). With only my research focus in mind, I did not assume a typical class setting of TC and TR teachers. I observed my participants and the data I collected from them helped me towards gaining an in-depth and insightful understanding in this respect. Observations also helped me generate ideas on what to discuss in the post-observation and semi-structured interviews.

Third, collecting data from observations in this exploratory manner is in line with my positionality, discussed above. Considering my ontological and epistemological assumptions, reality is experienced personally (Greenbank, 2003) and subjectively constructed (Sikes, 2004). In this respect, observations are a way of entering such reality

(Patton, 1999), yielding relatively more valid and authentic data (Bouchard, 1976) since they do not rely on second-hand results (Cohen, Morrison & Manion, 2000).

3.6.1.2 Procedure

I observed the classes of my 10 participants; the observations were of a series of 3x50-minute lessons for each of the teachers. During the observations, I acted as a non-participant observer. Typically, I would enter the class with the class teacher, sit at the back and only observe the classes, not interacting with either the students or the teachers, and I took field-notes. The same pattern was followed in all three observations. However, in the first round of observations the class teachers introduced me and told the students that they would not be evaluated. I believe hearing it from their own teacher (i.e. someone they were familiar) rather than me (i.e. an outsider) worked better.

The lessons I observed were audio-recorded. I found this useful as there were incidents I could not hear or which I missed, and I was able to listen back to them from the recording. Observations were conducted in an unstructured manner. I did not prepare any observation sheets. I only had a sheet where I made comprehensive field-notes (i.e., systematic and complete explanation of all classroom events). I documented information about the lesson, the date, the time of the lesson, the teacher, the students, and the interaction between them, as well as the classroom layout, and the procedure of the lesson. I also timed each time the teacher switched from one code to another. This approach especially helped me in transcribing. I would listen to each lesson immediately after it was finished. I went back to the times the teachers code-switched. I selectively transcribed observations using NVIVO 6, a similar strategy used in Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne's (2010) study.

Transcription of observations involved two stages. I first listened to the recording and added some notes to my existing ones. These included the times of actual CS (the ones I had missed out). This allowed me to make initial selections. Then, when I listened for a second time the second parts of the observations (i.e. the actual CS instances) were transcribed. This approach is also in line with the two-stage transcription process as explained by Wellington (2000). It helped me avoid the possibility of a massive volume of data.

Re-listening and selectively transcribing observations also helped me when designing interview questions. After each observation, I would re-listen to the lessons and take notes and identify the focus for the interviews. After the third observation, I felt themes started to repeat themselves or reached “saturation” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 113) to a certain extent, so stopped observing. Here is a description of the observation schedule:

Table 2: Description of classroom observations

Teacher	Course information	Level	Observation days	# of observations	Total minutes observed
TC1	Listening Dialogue Completion Reading	Pre- Intermediate	24,06,2013 11,07,2013 18,07,2013	3	150 mins.
TC2	Reading Response to a situation Logical Sequence	Pre- Intermediate	27,06,2013 12,07,2013 23,07,2013	3	150 mins.
TC3	Reading Practice Check+ Grammar Reading Cloze Test Check + Reading (pre- stage)	Pre- Intermediate	24,06,2013 05,07,2013 17,07, 2013	3	150 mins
TC4	Cloze Test Dialogue Completion Response to a situation	Pre- Intermediate	27,06,2013 12,07,2013 18,07,2013	3	150 mins.
TC5	Grammar Reading Check+ Course Book listening + reading check	Pre- Intermediate	25,06,2013 09,07,2013 15,07,2013	3	150 mins

TR1	Reading Check Grammar Check Writing Logical sequence+ Free practice	Pre- Intermediate	28,06,2013 11,07,2013 22,07,2013	3	150 mins.
TR2	Coursebook (Lead in to the unit with listening speaking and introduction of new vocabulary items. Listening and Note-Taking note-taking and Writing (Brainstorming)	Pre- Intermediate	24,06,2013 04,07,2013 10,07,2013	3	150 mins
TR3	Grammar (Introducing Reported Speech) Cloze test Logical sequence	Pre- Intermediate	02,07,2013 24,06,2013 22,07,2013	3	150 mins
TR4	Listening Cloze Test Response to a situation	Pre- Intermediate	25,06,2013 08,07,2013 17,07,2013	3	150 mins.
TR5	Reading Vocabulary Practice Vocabulary Practice	Pre- Intermediate	26,06,2013 09,07,2013 16,07,2013	3	150 mins.
Total:		1 level	~1month and a week	30	Total: 1500 mins.

3.6.1.3 Limitations and the way I dealt with them

I was aware of the limitations of observations concerning the observer effect before I started the observations both on the teachers and the students. There was a possibility that participants may not behave naturally because of my presence as an observer (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). For example, they may feel nervous or act differently from their normal behaviour (i.e. perform better than normal, exaggerate and go over the top) (Patton, 1999). In order to minimise this, I would sit at the back of the class and just take notes. Some classes were U-shaped (i.e. a shape of a crescent). In these classes, I sat at the very corner, a couple of seats away from the students and the teachers, where I felt I could go unnoticed. To reduce tension, I also explained to my participants that my role as a researcher was not to evaluate their teaching but to observe their practices in their classrooms. I told them not to make any special preparation for my observations and that my aim was to observe them in a natural classroom setting. The lessons that would be observed were based on mutual agreement. I let them decide on the day and class-hour they preferred to be observed within the given time-frame. I believe the fact that I knew all the participants, and told them my research aim also helped me in this respect (i.e. they seemed to be relaxed).

3.6.2 Post-Observation Interviews (POINTS)

3.6.2.1 Rationale

Studies which explore teacher behaviour have utilised stimulated-recall interviews, i.e. replaying passages of behaviour to participants to stimulate recall of their concurrent cognitive activity (Lyle, 2003) and to investigate teachers' thought processes and interactive decision-making while teaching (e.g. Erkmen, 2010; Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). These interviews aim to contribute to the observational data by enabling teachers to explain/comment on their actions by recalling their observed lessons.

However, as Freeman (1996) posits, these can be problematic in many respects. First, not all thinking may demonstrate itself in decisions. Hobbs (2007a) exemplifies this as when a teacher may have strong beliefs about what cheating involves, but these beliefs may not manifest themselves in class if the situation does not happen. Moreover, as Woods & Çakır (2011) state, decision making is instantaneous. Thus, the defined process of decision making cannot always be a guide to teachers' beliefs. Teachers' thought processes (or cognition) can provide some insight into teachers' beliefs, but obviously cannot give us all the answers (Hobbs, 2007a). Secondly, there are also some practical

issues related to this. The term in which this study took place lasted six weeks (see Appendix C). Timetabling specific times with each participant after each observation for the stimulated-recall interviews and asking them to engage in stimulated recall would be time-consuming (Hobbs, 2007a).

Taking all these into consideration, I opted for holding the post-observation interviews in the form of stimulated-recall (see Appendix B), but not following the traditional format of stimulated-recall. Taking Borg's (2006) lead, I did not play video or audio tapes to the participants. Moreover, I did not ask participants to explain their thought processes for every behaviour; this was thought to be too time-consuming. Instead, the transcriptions of the lessons were used and key episodes were presented to the participants to allow participants to elaborate on their thought processes, as well as trigger a discussion (Borg, 2006).

3.6.2.2 Procedure

I held post-observation interviews after each observation (earliest on the same day and latest two days after the day of the observations). I reminded participants of the events based on the field-notes I took during and after the observations. I would start the session with a general question such as 'what stood out in the lesson?' or 'anything you want to discuss about the lesson?' and allowed the teachers to comment on what they considered important. Then, referring to my notes, I would take them from the beginning to the end of the lesson with a focus on their pedagogical practices. I would ask them questions such as 'what was your motive?' or 'why did you choose to do that?', letting teachers comment on their actions.

Revealing teachers' cognitive processes in this way was I felt an amazing experience. During these interviews one can possibly learn so many things about the participants who are even so close to you, which was my case. One can also notice that even as a researcher you might assume things, which may not actually be true once you talk to these people. In this sense, I think it was successful and allowed me to see the things from their perspective. An example of this is as follows:

I: I noticed you first gave the synonym for 'give up a family' in English and then went on to say (yani neymiş) and continued explaining the answer, is there any reason for that?

TC1: I think that's to draw their attention. Ok attention [clap of hands] I'm now giving you the most important information? and also I think doing this code-

switching like that in class totally makes students alert. I don't do it on purpose though. It probably comes naturally. It's not planned (TC1-POINT1).

3.6.2.3 Limitations and the way I dealt with them

The first two interviews were more productive than the third. After the second interviews, participants kept saying ‘daha önce de konuşmuştuk¹⁴’, ‘daha önce de değim gibi, aynı sebepten¹⁵. I felt I had reached ‘saturation’ (i.e. when gathering data no longer sparks new theoretical insights, nor reveals new properties of your core theoretical categories’ (Charmaz, 2006, p. 113). Thus, interviews were much shorter for the third round. However, I believe that overall, my general questions (e.g. what stood out in the lesson?) triggered them and got them to talk about their cognitive processes and thus access their beliefs to a certain extent.

There were some overlapping instances with the interviews, which was to my advantage. For example, in the POINTs the teacher would start explaining an incident and then relate this to his/her learning experience or the experiences we had discussed in the previous interviews. In such situations, I would let the participant finish, but later bring him/her back to the lesson and say that this would be discussed in the interviews. I would take notes in my notebook and go back to that issue in the interviews. In this respect, it was easy to refer to those instances without actually losing their thread.

3.6.3 Semi-structured Interviews (INTs)

3.6.3.1 Rationale

Data collection methods also involved semi-structured interviewing (INTs). Participants were asked to elaborate on their views on the topic with face-to-face interviews. I thought this approach would suit the aim of my research, which is about exploring teachers’ pedagogical practices, as Fraenkel & Wallen (2000) also argue, interviewing is an effective means to discover what people think about a certain topic and has been widely utilised for this purpose (e.g. Liu, 2009; Rao, 2002).

Before considering which type of interviewing to use, I investigated why and how interviewing was utilised in the studies related to mine. First, my analysis showed that interviewing was used for several purposes. Either the nature of the research questions made the researcher believe it necessary to use interviewing (Cowie, 2011), or it was used

¹⁴ You know we talked about this before

¹⁵ As I had said before it's for the same reason

as a means of gaining an in-depth understanding of the topic being researched (Rao, 2002).

Secondly, I discovered that interviews were used and recorded differently in these studies. A three-step approach to interviewing from a social-constructive perspective was followed in the study of Cowie (2011), where the purpose of two steps was to build trust and acquire a context for the third. The third step served as an indirect device to elicit illustrations of the positive and negative emotional processes that the teachers linked to teaching. However, I thought this was not necessary in this study as I had known the participants for at least a year.

Semi-structured interviews were employed in L1 in Rao's (2002) and Peacock's (1998) studies to allow them to ask the same questions to each participant. Nevertheless, as the researchers stated, though they had predetermined questions they also allowed some flexibility concerning the follow-up questions. This allowed them to ask questions relevant to their participants (see Rao, 2002).

I chose to use semi-structured interviews in this study to ensure that I asked the same type of questions to all my participants. With open-ended interviews, it would be difficult to make a comparison of data. Similarly, structured interviews would prevent me from gathering personalized responses as they generally incorporate fixed alternatives, small-scale, or open-ended responses with limited flexibility (McDonough & McDonough, 1997).

3.6.3.2 Procedure

These interviews were embedded within the post-observation interviews. As such, we would start the interviews and later proceed with the semi-structured interviews. The questions (see Appendix B) included questions related to their own past experiences (e.g. learning experience, favourite teacher), current lifestyles etc. My decision on this was based on Woods' (1996) argument that beliefs presented in concrete stories about events and behaviours yield more about one's belief than abstract questions. I also included direct questions such as 'what do you think about....?' and reflective questions 'could you reflect on...?'

Questions in these interviews started building up from the Observations, Post-observation interviews and previous interviews. For example, one teacher said that she used L1 at that instant as she had thought it would be considered funny by the students. She said she had known this from her own language experience. Thus, in the interviews I would ask for specific instances of her teachers' L1 use, which the participant had considered funny. Though I had fixed questions, I also included questions related to each participant.

Prior to these interviews, I had initially thought that I had known these participants. I had known some since the day I started working at the institution (in 2007) and others when they started, but what these interviews actually revealed was that there was a lot to discover regarding their teaching. It was also interesting to see the parallelism or just the opposite in some cases, of their own learning experience to their behaviour and supposed beliefs. In a sense, this was also awareness raising for the teachers as some expressed that they had never thought of the influence of their experiences on their current teaching (see Appendix D for interview schedule).

3.6.3.3 Limitations and the ways I dealt with them

Again, time was an issue. It was difficult to arrange a time for the INTs. Doing them after the POINTs was a good choice. The POINTs triggered a discussion for the interviews. This saved time as in the interviews they could recall more quickly and refer to these discussions since there was no time lapse.

There were also times where the participants had difficulty remembering their past experiences and said 'but I don't remember', though I tried to do the interviews within at least two days. There I had to look for other alternatives. In some cases, I tried rephrasing my question within that INT or following INTs. This proved to be successful and help them recall events. However, at times I had to think of other alternatives. To illustrate, almost all teachers said that they considered their English teachers as role models, and described the parallelism of their own experience to their teaching. Nevertheless, for some, the influence came from other teachers. In this case, I had to adapt my questions.

3.6.4 Focus-group interviewing (FGs)

3.6.4.1 Rationale

Focus-group interviewing (i.e. groups consisting of 6-10 participants with common characteristics where a certain topic is discussed) (Wellington, 2000) was used, with a

checklist of open questions as a frame for discussion, as in the studies of Liu (2009) and Farrell (2006), and also as an instrument to uncover teachers' prior beliefs. This type of interviewing was chosen as it was considered that the focus group is useful in qualitative research as it can add 'depth or insight' (Wellington, 2000, p. 124) through the interaction of the participants (Wellington, 2000) in that the members of the group can spark each other off (p. 125).

3.6.4.2 Procedure

I conducted a focus group interview (see Appendix B for questions) with all the teachers. After all the interviews and the observations, I told the teachers that I would have a focus-group interview and asked them if they were interested in participating, and all attended. We went to a large room, where they felt comfortable and sat close to each other. The majority decided to have the interview in TR. The interview lasted for an hour. I started by asking them more general questions (e.g. 'why did you become a language teacher?') and to compare their ways of teaching with their teachers (as a group), and moved on to slightly more specific ones (i.e. 'what makes us consider using English with our students natural or not?') allowing everyone to have a say. I believe the interview was fruitful in that a discussion was generated and enabled me to see a fuller picture (i.e. whose ideas converged/diverged).

3.6.4.3 Limitations of FG-INT and the way I dealt with them

The quality of the audio-recording was poor. This was because of two reasons. The first was related to the lack of control I had compared with individual interviews (Wellington, 2000). For example, some respondents could not be heard because they were speaking with a low-pitch voice. Likewise, especially when participants started to express their different ideas, some were talking at the same time or adding last comments, which could barely be heard. It was somewhat challenging for me to notice all and/or go back and ask them to re-express themselves. However, I took notes as much as I could and referred to those notes when transcribing. Immediately after the interview, I also double-checked my notes with two people from the interview in case there were comments I had missed. Secondly, and more importantly not everyone was eager to express themselves and some did not participate much, which is one of the drawbacks of focus-groups (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Some had different ideas and just did not want to discuss them openly. I therefore decided to have follow up interviews. I had a follow up interview with 2 TCs and another with 2 TR teachers separately (see 3.6.5). I believe it went quite well as ideas

just started flowing. This gave an opportunity for those who did not have the opportunity to express themselves in the larger focus-group interviews to elaborate on their ideas. It was in these interviews I felt that bringing two people with similar backgrounds together actually stimulated a discussion (Wellington, 2000) (see Appendix D for a summary of the methods together with their durations).

3.6.5 Follow up interviews (FUs)

There were three FUs. The first FUs were conducted when I approached some participants for clarifications (see Appendix D). For instance, after my interviews with TC5, I noticed that some questions were left unanswered. This was a situation I had with TC5 most as she had difficulty expressing her ideas specifically and gave rather general answers. Another reason was that it was more difficult to get some participants to speak than others or to recall events. Thus, these participants were approached for further clarifications.

The second FUs were done with TC3 and TC4 and then one with TR1 and TR2 for the reasons mentioned above in FG (see 3.6.4). I chose participants (see Appendix D) from TCs and TRs for representativeness and also sought to get participants who knew each other well to avoid encountering similar problems as in the FG where some participants did not (want to) speak. It was easier to follow the discussion with two people than 10, and the fact they were friends generated a more productive discussion.

The third set of follow-ups were held 11 months later with all participants. The reason for these interviews was to see to what extent my conclusions were supported. I had rephrased the questions I had asked in the INTs and FUs and I asked my participants more general questions (e.g. their teaching philosophy, teachers' beliefs, factors affecting their teaching). These were supportive of my initial conclusions in many respects though there were some areas I needed adapting (e.g. adding more details about a participant's prior teachers).

3.7 Additional sources of data

These include interviews with the academic board, field-notes and document gathering.

3.7.1 Interview with the member of the Academic Board (MOAB)

During my interviews, I noticed different amounts of interest from the information I gathered from TC and TR teachers (i.e. regarding their beliefs about CS, and cultures of

learning) which made me feel it necessary to interview a member from the academic board and explore his/her beliefs about TC and TR teachers when hiring them.

I interviewed a member from the academic board. At the time, the board had five (3 TR, 2 TC) members. Of those, two of the members were also teaching alongside their administrative role, so it would be difficult to approach them. Two others were closer to the MLD program. This left me with one TR member. Her profile is as follows:

Table 3: Description of MOAB

Participant No	Pseudonyms	High School	BA	Other Qualification(s)	Teaching experience	Experience at the Institution
1	MBTR	TED, Ankara college	EFL	MA- EFL PHD- EFL	20	7

Here is a summary of the methods employed for the MOAB

Table 4: Methods utilised for the MOAB

Method	Focus	Time
INT1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • educational background • beliefs in language teaching and CS • beliefs about TR and TC teachers and their employment strategy • institutional policy 	16.07. 2013
FU	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • aims of SFL • aims of the extended semester • expectations from teachers + possible difficulties + results of these • assumptions about TCs and TRs practice 	01. 07.2014

3.7.2 Field-notes

By field-notes, I refer to the notes I had taken during observations. For Wolfinger (2002), there are two strategies for note-taking: salience hierarchy and comprehensive note-taking. In salience hierarchy, the researcher decides what to take notes on considering the things most salient to the researcher (e.g. whatever s/he feels noteworthy, interesting, and telling). This type of note-taking is criticised for being subjective (Wolfinger, 2002), leading to limited data and does not give details of what is happening in the research context. The second type, comprehensive note-taking, involves systematically and comprehensively describing everything that happens during a particular period of time. The researcher usually begins with a list of concerns and documents every event that occurs within these broad frames. Therefore, the researcher notes all events, some of which, although seemingly mundane at the time, may be considered valuable to the research (Wolfinger, 2002).

I chose to take my field-notes in a comprehensive manner throughout the duration of the observations. During the observations, I would sit and try to jot down any relevant information I could. These allowed me to capture instances that would be left out had I only listened to the recording after class (Yuan, 2001). These included teachers' gestures (e.g. 'teacher smiles'), body actions (teacher approaches the students), and students' reactions (e.g. 'students were just sitting and not doing the task') and seating arrangements. Although these were not my primary focus, they helped me understand the situation and the feelings the participant teachers were describing in the POINTs. I also made note of the times CS actually took place. This helped me in the transcription process.

3.7.3 Document gathering

Documents are any form of data not gathered from interviews or observations (Merriam, 1988) in a sense that can be employed to detail, comprehend and explain how things function at the sample sites. In this way, they can be considered a source of data in their own right (Denscombe, 1998). They increase the credibility (see section 3.8) of the research findings and interpretations.

Various forms of document data such as the syllabus, program, a selection of teachers' worksheets and coursebooks were collected from the school and provide further information regarding the actual practice of teaching English (see Appendix C).

3.8. Issues of credibility

Here, the three areas in which qualitative methodology is mostly contested will be discussed. I will also detail the ways followed to minimise the concerns around these.

3.8.1 Subjectivity

Qualitative methodology is criticised for being subjective due to its failure in allowing the distinction between facts and values (Johnson, 2009) whereas it has been traditionally considered that quantitative methodology or positivism (see section 3.1.2) has allowed for objectivity (see Johnson, 2009). However, this brings with it the question of whether it is only qualitative methodology that is subjective. According to a post-positivist approach, all research is value-laden (Greenbank, 2003). It is inherently biased by the cultural experiences, world-views, and values of the researcher (Anderson, 2004). Any researcher constructs his/her view of the world based on how s/he perceives it, which is based on his/her value system (Greenbank, 2003). For example, quantitative research includes surveys where there are categories designed by the researcher with limited room for the participants' verbal thoughts unless they include open-ended questions (Greenbank, 2003).

Each methodology has its own way of minimising this effect. In qualitative methodology, it is important to be reflective about researcher bias, thinking critically about the hows whys and what could have been done of the research process (Wellington, 2000). This involves being reflexive, reflecting on self (Wellington, 2000), and support data (Greenbank, 2003). In this study, so as to achieve reflectivity and hence being reflexive, field-notes (see 3.7.2) and memos were kept (see 3.8.1.1), and data were triangulated not only at participant level (those with different profiles) but also at data tools level (interviews, observations, post-observation interviews, filed-notes and documents) (see 3.8.1.2).

3.8.1.1 Memoing to minimise bias

Memoing, the immediate recording of generated conceptual ideas, is an important stage in grounded theory (Glaser & Holton, 2004). It is an effective means to attain reflectivity (McDonald, 2013). It involves the theorizing write-up of ideas about codes and their relationships (Glaser, 1998). As Charmaz (2006) puts it,

Memos catch your thoughts, capture the comparisons and connections you make, and crystallize questions and directions you want to pursue (p. 72).

Charmaz adds that memos are a good way to: ‘converse with yourself’ (p.72) as well as to ‘explicate and fill out categories’ (p72). She adds that memos ‘serve as the analytic core for subsequent writing’ (p.76).

I took Charmaz’s approach and used it to interact with the data and emerging analysis. I kept my memos in a free-writing format. During and after data collection and while I was looking for initial codes, I went over all the data and I wrote up what came to my mind, thinking of what they meant and produced memos as a step towards coding and theory-building.

As far as reflectivity is concerned, it helped me in developing my voice and explore my ideas about categories. It allowed me to develop earlier comparisons and come up with new ones. It also allowed me to focus, compare my data and codes and link them.

It also aided me in the actual writing process. I also added quotes to my memos which helped me when going over the memos and also in writing up Chapter 4 (findings and discussion) as I used them as reference. In this sense, memos served as ‘a pivotal intermediate step between data collection and writing’ (Charmaz, 2006, p. 72).

3.8.1.2 Triangulation

Triangulation, which involves the use of at least two methods of data collection, is criticised for yielding inconsistent evidence as in convergent findings (see Angen, 2000) and was the case in Polio and Duff’s (1994) study which investigated the use of L2 used in FL classrooms.

However, for this particular study I chose to apply triangulation based on the literature that maintains that it is widely utilised in educational research or in the study of some aspect of human behaviour (Cohen, et al, 2000), to attain reflexivity (Greenbank, 2003) ensuring that personal bias does not overrun data collection (see Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Additionally, unlike Polio and Duff (1994) my aim was not to check or look for inconsistencies.

Moreover, inconsistent results should not be a reason for not utilising triangulation. If there are divergent findings, then it is necessary to understand what causes them (Patton, 1999). That is, instead of considering different data from divergent sources as invalid, it is important to seek reasonable explanations for the causes, which will contribute to the overall credibility of the findings (Patton, 1999).

At the time, I thought triangulation would address the concerns over qualitative research as having low methodological rigor (Golafshani, 2003) and I believe it was the right decision. My methods helped me to build up my data. In this sense, I methodologically followed, as discussed above, a grounded style and in utilising this, I let the data guide me to my next step (e.g. Abednia, 2012).

Triangulation also helped me reveal as accurate a representation as possible of teachers' beliefs in this context. That is, triangulation also enabled me not to be judgemental and make assumptions about the participants' behaviour. There was one incident where I felt TC4 went over the top and exaggerated his reaction (a limitation pointed by Patton, 1999) to a student who used L1, which will be discussed later. However, upon my close analysis, I noticed that from my first observation and onwards there seemed to be an issue between the student and the teacher, which may have been the cause of TC4s' reaction. Furthermore, later during POINTs, the teacher had the opportunity to explain the reason behind his action, where he said it was necessary to behave that way.

3.8.2 Generalisability or Transferability

Another frequent argument is that qualitative findings cannot be generalised due to the limited number of participants or unscientific nature of the work. However, this is not what qualitative methodology primarily aims for. Quantitative research may lead to generalisations to other contexts or individuals through its findings and seek transferability or replicability (the extent to which a piece of research can be copied or replicated in order to give the same results, Wellington, 2000, p. 31; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, total replicability is difficult to achieve in qualitative research due to their subjective nature (Wellington, 2000). The researcher decides what to concentrate on depending on his/her observations and what s/he elicits from his/her participants (Bryman, 2004). Thus, in the case of qualitative research, similar to case studies, there exists 'fuzzy generalisations' (Bassegy, 1999, p.46) in that the findings cannot be certain or generalised as there is always a possibility of exceptions. That is, in such a complex

study of CS, one would naturally expect that there are multiple reasons why NNS teachers code-switch and diverse ways of their in-class CS, all of which would be almost impossible to capture in a qualitative thesis such as this one. Therefore, I cannot simply suggest that all TC and TR teachers switch in the same way and furthermore the results of the thesis are limited to NCC. However, the findings of these studies are relatable (Bassey, 1981, p. 85) in that there are some aspects of the study that will offer some insights into the field of CS, professional development, and language teachers in general.

Similarly, transferability or replication in qualitative methodology can be achieved, to a certain extent, through a transparent approach (Greenbank, 2003). This includes a clear description of the context, participants and procedures. Once these are clear to the reader, s/he will make sense of the researchers' interpretations of findings within that specific research context. These will also allow the researcher to be reflexive and reflective in their approach (Greenbank, 2003) Thus, the researcher as well as the reader will consider the possible implications of transferability in similar contexts.

This is best achieved by a thorough description of the characteristics of the group or context that is being studied to allow the comparison of them with others (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). In this way, the readers may infer how data would relate or transfer to their own or other similar contexts.

Though qualitative research is conducted in unique contexts in quest of particular context-sensitive issues without any concern about the findings and results to be generalised, in an attempt to minimise such concerns, I devoted sections 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6 to a clear explanation of the context, participants, and methods used in this study. In this way, I hope that readers will be able to interpret my findings through my lens and consider the possible implications for them if they decide to transfer these findings to another context.

Golafshani (2003) posits that the elements of reliability in qualitative research involves 'trustworthiness, rigor and quality' (p.604) and in this section I have summarized my attempts in achieving these elements.

3.9 Ethical Issues

Ethical issues are contestable and open to debate (Adler & Adler, 2001). As every research entails its own ethical concerns, I will discuss the ones that revealed themselves within the scope of this study.

I got an ethical approval from the University of Sheffield ethics committee. The university ethical procedures were followed and all necessary documentation was completed and approved (see Appendix A). This included a research ethics proposal where I had briefly stated my research aims and methods. I also had an information sheet and a consent form ready for the participants. The information sheet was written to inform the participants of the purpose, aim and focus of my study. The consent form (see Appendix A) informed the participants of how the data collected would be used for research purposes only and be accessed only by the researcher and/or the supervisor. The consent form also included assurances that the participants would be given pseudonyms for the protection of their identities. It was also stressed that the observations and recordings would not be shared with the head of the institution they worked at. It also included information about the research procedure making it clear that participation would be voluntary and that they could withdraw whenever they wanted and that their withdrawal would not cause any negative results and be accepted no matter what the reason.

After I received approval from Sheffield (see Appendix A), I also sought the approval of the institution where I was going to conduct the study. Having received approval, I began contacting participants fitting my criteria.

For transparency, I shared the results with the participants. I also informed the teacher development unit (TDU) of the results to inform them of NCC teachers' perception of CS.

My role as researcher was also a problem at times. For example, some participants said they were nervous during their teaching and saw me as an evaluator, despite my assurances to the contrary. However, this was almost non-existent after the first round of the observations.

There were some potential ethical problems I had foreseen. I could have put the participants into conflict with the institutional policy had their beliefs or practices not

agreed with those of the institutions. This was overcome by the fact that the participants' names were anonymous. Moreover, I tried to build trust (one of the key components in conducting a research, see: Wellington, 2000) from the very beginning of the project. I was honest with my participants and informed them of the research, its purpose, its scope, the overarching research questions, and the potential consequences for them and gained their consent before they actually participated in the research. Therefore, by agreeing to participate they had accepted this slight risk and trusted me. Also, they were interested in the results of the research for self-development. For example, during our informal talks, TC5 said she thought that the interviews made her think of her CS and could not wait to see the final outcome.

I had also thought of the design of the research in order to avoid breaking ethical rules (Wellington, 2000). I deliberately chose not to include any kind of comparison to my research questions, e.g. do TRs switch more than the TCs? Had I done so, either the TCs or the TRs would have probably felt intimidated by the other party's CS abilities and practices. I also told my participants that I was concerned with the process (the why and the how) rather than the product (the what), and refrained from asking them to compare each other.

3.10 Data analysis

As Charmaz (2005) states, 'no analysis is neutral' (p.510). Researchers embark on their studies with their own realities. Their knowledge affects, but does not necessarily define, what they find (Charmaz, 2005). My approach to coding partially fits with the traditional grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). I approached the data inductively and used constant comparison (Gibbs, 2011). However, I took a constructive perspective suggested by Charmaz (2005): I did an initial literature review before I started the study and wrote memos in the form of free writing where I would communicate with the data (as explained in section 3.8.1.1) and thus develop my constructions.

I constantly had to modify the data gathering process throughout the study. By doing so, I became able to direct and redirect the interview questions to relevant data to answer the research questions. This was in response to the data I gathered from the observations and the themes that started appearing from the very first interviews. I had initially decided to look at the in-class language practices of TC and TR teachers. My focus would be on how their social and cultural backgrounds affect their language practices in the classroom

and how they interpret the institution's language policy. I accordingly undertook some research in the literature. However, as the research progressed and I started observing and interviewing teachers (by going over my field-notes, writing memos), I noticed that I was not looking at the whole picture. There was more that needed to be explored than just teachers' language practices. What was in the foreground was teachers' pedagogical practices. The teachers were choosing to do one thing over the other because they thought it was the right thing to do in that particular situation. Using L1 or not was one of the choices they made. Thus, instead of trying to fit the data into my preconceived ideas, I decided to take a step back and look at the situation from a wider perspective. My new focus would be teachers' pedagogical practices and the way their social and cultural backgrounds affect their teaching, apart from how teachers perceive the institutional policy. I believe this allowed me to gain a better understanding of what was actually going on in the classes. Moreover, I decided what to do next based upon the findings from my data (e.g. who I needed to interview). This allowed me to adapt the next research to the data I was receiving.

I utilised thematic coding to analyse and reconcile the data from the observations, post-observation interviews, main interviews, focus-group interviews, and follow-ups. Thematic coding is a method where themes (i.e. patterned meanings) are identified, and analysed within the data (Braun & Clark, 2006). I opted for a bottom-up approach in utilising thematic analysis in that I did not identify themes prior to data collection, but rather constructed the themes from the data themselves. In this way, I ensured that the themes were directly linked to the data (Braun & Clark, 2006).

Braun & Clark (2006) discuss some phases of thematic analysis. The first phase involves a familiarization of data. Data is repeatedly read through for the purpose of identifying meanings or patterns. Ideally, notes are taken for coding, which could be referred to in the actual coding process. The second stage involves constructing codes, selecting features of the data that the analyst considers interesting (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 18) (see Appendix E for an example). The third phase is where themes are constructed. After the coding process, codes are sorted into themes preferably through visual representations such as tables or mind-maps (see Appendix E for example). Then in the fourth phase, themes are reviewed and if necessary re-constructed to make sure all themes form a coherent pattern. Both the second and the third stages are on-going and may be revised to capture codes or themes which might have been missed initially. In the fifth phase, themes

are named and defined: a detailed analysis of the themes are written and the ‘story’ (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.22) behind each theme (an explanation of the aspects the theme captures) and the overall themes are identified. Each theme is regarded individually and in relation to others. Here, constructing sub-themes (themes within a theme) might be required. The last phase is where the final analysis is made and the writing-up takes place.

In the following section, I explain how I tried to achieve thematic analysis through the analysis of different forms of data and how I adapted the five phases of Braun & Clarke’s (2005).

3.10.1 Observation analysis

Observations were analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively (quantitative analysis only helped me to get a visual representation of my findings). As for the qualitative analysis, I began the process by going over the observations by referring to my field-notes taken during the observations. I kept a notebook where I took my notes. I noted the times the teachers switched to L1 or used L2. I also included examples and jotted down the events prior to the switched interaction patterns and the teachers’ and students’ reactions during the switches or when both students and teachers insisted on not switching. I did this to get a better understanding of the reactions, consequences of the chosen code or things triggering the switch. There were some instances I could not note during the observations, so I left some space in my note-book so that I could add to my field-notes. Immediately after the lessons, I made a summary of the lessons. This was done as soon as I went out of the lesson so that I would not forget that particular lesson. I would then re-listen to the lessons and added to my field-notes. These were generally selectively transcribed examples (I did not transcribe similar examples). I highlighted these examples in my field-notes. This process helped me to have and access illustrations from each class for each participant.

I also used the recordings for a quantified representation of teachers’ CS. For this, I referred to my notes and charts (see 3.10.3) and devised categories. Then, I prepared a new chart using Microsoft Word where I labelled each category. I had two separate columns for each category: one for L1 and one for L2. I left a space to check each time a category repeated itself. I re-listened to the recordings (once for calculating L1s and once for calculating L2) and put a check in the space corresponding to each category. I also had to add more categories and revise existing categories while listening. I added

notes and examples for each category to make them as explicit as possible so that I would remember what each category represents. Once this was over, I calculated both totals (L1 and L2) for each category. I did this for each participant separately. After concluding observations, I went back and revised my categories one last time (I examined whether I could group them under one label). Then, I created an Excel file and inserted the totals, which allowed me to create charts (see Chapter 4). I created bar-charts representing the two groups (TCs and TRs) combined and another showing the differences between TCs and TRs practices. I also created a line-chart for both groups combined and for both separately to see the function(s) recurring for both TCs and TRs and combined. Both these charts provided me with a better visual for analysis and interpretation of data.

3.10.2 POINTs analysis

In preparing for the POINTs, I listened to these observations from my recordings, and added any information necessary to my field-notes. Then, I listened to them again and this time transcribe instances I considered relevant. I also added them to my field-notes, highlighted them and wrote notes next to them (notes that I could use in the POINTs or INTs or FGs).

The unstructured manner of these interviews made it difficult for me to organise participants' responses. However, I decided to divide quotes into three lessons for each participant (again the TCs and the TRs separately) and added a comments section where I kept my notes for initial coding. Once, I did this, I became content that it was the right way to go as it helped me in my analysis. I also referred to my field-notes and added my summaries of the lessons just before each lesson under the relevant participant (see Appendix E).

3.10.3 INTs FGs and FUs analysis

As for the interviews, I listened to the transcriptions twice. First, I listened to them and took notes once the interviews were over. I did not transcribe these until the end of the data collection due to time constraints (I did not want to extend the period between the subsequent interviews and observations for each participant). Nevertheless, to keep on track as aforementioned, I kept notes and memos. I opened a Word file for all participants where I added my memos. After listening to each interview, I took notes and then summarized these answers in bullet points to generate questions for the next step (INTs

or POINTs or FGs or FUs). These ideas would later be put into my memos, go into a free-writing format and later be compared.

When the observation cycle ended, I began by transcribing the interviews verbatim using NVIVO 6. Later, these were converted into a Word document. I read through all transcriptions. Then, I created another Word document, made a chart with three columns, where I inserted each participant's answers under the same question. I did this for TCs and TRs separately. My aim here was to organise quotes under each question so the answers to each question of each participant was in one Word document. I had a third column where I could add my comments, which in fact allowed me to do my initial coding. I highlighted the parts I considered important and added comments next to them. This method proved to be useful in allowing me to sort data, compare the ideas of all my participants and see the recurring themes (this was not based on numerical data and in Chapter 4 I added contradictory responses, too). At the end of each table, I had a box where I would summarize my ideas. Later, I added all these to my memos in the free-writing format. This also allowed me to see if there were some questions still left unanswered and I would re-approach the participants and do FUs (see Appendix E for an example).

I did the same for FG interviews, first listened to them, took notes, and later approached four people for FUs. I transcribed them once I had conducted them all.

3.10.4 Final analysis and summary

Later, I started combining all the charts from my Obs, POINTs, INTs, and my memos under clusters (see Appendix E). Only when I started writing them freely in my memos did they start making sense, which enabled me to group the codes and construct initial categories and themes (see Appendix E). I went over the map to make sure the themes, sub-themes and their underlying codes were fit. Then, I began writing-up Chapter 4. Finally, I started translating the quotes (I did this after data analysis to avoid any interference in data) I would use in Chapter 4. I translated them myself, and double-checked with my husband, who is also an English teacher. Were there any words we disagreed on, I would ask a third person, also an English teacher, to mediate. Here is a summary of the data collection and analysis process for all participant. At some stages the collection and analysis overlapped as can be seen:

Table 5: Summary of data analysis

1 Participant selection & informed consent & date arrangement for Obs.

2. Obs. no 1 + keeping field-notes.

3. Listening to observations & referring to field-notes, adding to field-notes, selectively transcribing Obs. 1 writing memos, formulating questions for POINT1 and INT1, document gathering.

4. POINT1 + INT1 + Obs. 2 keeping field-notes, writing memos.

5. Listening to observations & referring to field-notes, adding to field-notes, selectively transcribing Obs. writing memos, listening to POINT1 and INT1 formulating questions for POINT2 and INT2 + Obs.2 , document gathering.

6. POINT2 + INT2 + Obs3 keeping field-notes and memos.

7. Listening to observations & referring to field-notes, adding to field-notes, selectively transcribing obs2 , obs3 writing memos, listening to POINT2 and INT2 formulating questions for POINT3 and INT3 + Obs.3, document gathering.

8. Cont. Obs. 3. Keeping field-notes and memos POINT 3 and INT3.

9. Listening to observations & referring to field-notes, adding to field-notes, selectively transcribing obs 3 writing memos, listening to POINT2 and INT2 formulating questions for POINT3 and INT3 + Obs.3, document gathering, POINT3, INT3, keeping field-notes and memos.

10. POINT3 INT3 Listening to observations & referring to field-notes, adding to field-notes, selectively transcribing obs 3 writing memos, listening to POINT3 and INT3 formulating questions for FG.

11. FG

12. Relistening to FG referring to field-notes, adding to field-notes, writing memos

13. FUs

14. Transcribing interviews verbatim using NVIVO 6

15. Transferring to word document and creating charts for comparison & adding to memos.

16. Referring to field-notes and selectively transcribing observations.

17. Transferring all into to word document and creating charts for comparison & and referring to field-notes adding to memos developing initial codes.

18. Transferring all into cluster diagram. Memo, free-writing constructing categories and themes initial coding, revising diagram.

19. Referring to field-notes, creating categories and re-listening to observations put checks in front of each category. Transferring to excel, starting writing up Chapter 4.

20. FUs writing up Chapter 4.

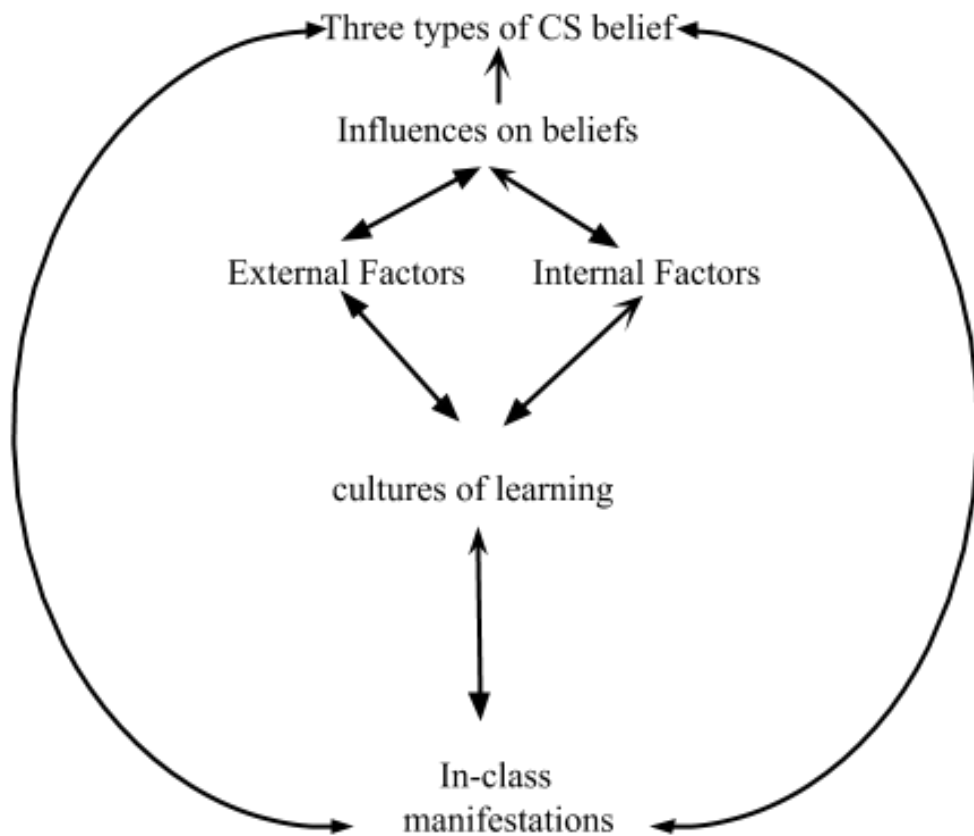
21. Transcribing FUs writing up Chapter 4. Translating quotes into English

Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion

4.0 Presentation

This chapter presents ten teachers' (five TC and five TR) beliefs about CS based on data collected over a period of eleven months (follow-up interviews were conducted 11 months after data analysis was completed). This chapter includes data emerging from interviews (INT), post observation interviews (POINTS), focus-group interviews (FG), observations (Obs.) and follow-up interviews (FU). I included quotations that seemed relevant to the co-constructed themes. In certain quotes, I added words in square brackets to make quotations clearer to the reader and dots in brackets to indicate the omission of certain parts. A 'xxx' shows the parts that were inaudible. The quotes were translated by me and double checked by an English teacher. If there were translations we did not agree with a third colleague was asked to mediate. All participants except for TC1 and TR4 preferred to do the interviews in Turkish. TC4, however, started with English but then continued with Turkish. In order to refer to the CS both in the interviews and observations, bracketing was used. The words in brackets refer to the instances where there was CS. For the interviews, this means from L1 to L2 (except for TC1 and TR4: theirs is vice versa). For the observations, the words in brackets refer to switches from L2 to L1. The quotes are presented in their original forms and a translation of each quote can be found in the corresponding footnote as appropriate. The summary of the findings are presented below:

Figure 1: Summary of findings



As can be seen in the diagram above, data analysis revealed teacher participants held three types of beliefs regarding in-class CS. These beliefs were influenced by both internal and external factors, which added up and shaped teachers' cultures of learning. The teachers' in-class manifestations were then a product of their cultures of learning. They practised what they knew/believed would work which derived from their cultures of learning, which is a mixture of beliefs and knowledge from the external and internal factors they had experienced and were currently experiencing. It was also observed that the in-class manifestation in turn reflected back. Thus, teachers' beliefs, the factors influencing them, their cultures of learning and their manifestations of CS were not static or linear, but rather dynamic and cyclical in nature, whereby each notion in the spectrum was influenced by or influenced another.

To further elaborate on this, the chapter is mainly divided into four sections. Section 4.1 describes the types of beliefs teachers hold about CS, and section 4.2 the influences on their beliefs about CS. 4.3 portrays how these beliefs and influences came to manifest themselves in class. The chapter ends with a conclusion in section 4.4. This chapter

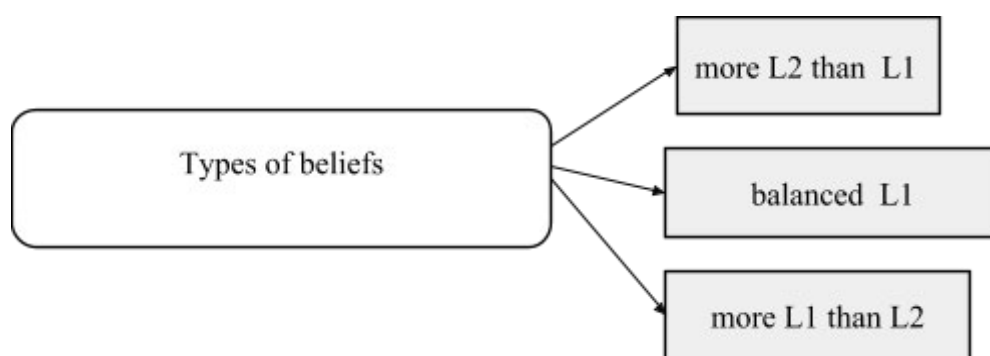
includes both the findings and my further discussions related to each of them, as for me they are closely linked.

4.1 Types of beliefs about CS

This section highlights the type of CS beliefs teachers held. Research on teachers' beliefs (e.g. Borg, 2011) indicates that teachers' beliefs have a very important effect on their language use as they influence their practice. For CS, this can be interpreted as such: teachers' beliefs impact their decisions to switch codes (Dilin, Gil-Soon, Kyung-Suk, & Nan-Ok, 2004).

After the first observations, I noticed that CS played a pivotal role in teachers' language practices. Thus, aiming to unveil their beliefs on this, in the interviews, I asked them questions related to CS. Additionally, this overarching theme seemed to surface in the second interviews, where teachers were asked to describe NNC's language policy and in the FG where they were encouraged to discuss their own policies in a group holding similar and divergent beliefs. Analysis of the findings revealed that teachers held mainly three types of beliefs regarding CS: more L2 than L1, balanced L1, as well as more L1 than L2 (see Figure 2 below) whereby the general belief was that L2 should be used more than L1.

Figure 2: Types of beliefs about CS



4.1.1 More L2 than L1

In accordance with the findings of Erkmen (2010) (on NNS teachers) and Levine (2003) (on NS teachers), this study also found that the main belief of teachers was about exposure to L2. Of the participants, nine out of ten believed in the importance of exposure (generally understood as coming from the teacher) in learning a foreign language and stated that more of it would lead to L2 proficiency (i.e. ability to use and understand). Teachers held that by exposing learners to L2 in this way they enabled learners to receive

the input they might be exposed to in real-life (Polio & Duff, 1994). Thus, they seemingly supported Krashen's (1989) input theory (i.e. more L2 input brings about more success in learning L2) despite the opposition it has received (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002).

All five TC participants supported Krashen's theory of language learning (i.e. input hypothesis). Here, what the TCs were mostly discussing was that exposure (i.e. teachers' use of L2) led to the communicative use of language, particularly speaking. They backed their argument saying exposure made learning natural, (it resembles first language acquisition) and quicker. This was clearly stated in TC1's quote who braced this argument by referring to her own child's English learning:

I think exposure is very important. I've seen it in my child. First, what would a newborn child understand of anything [regarding language]? Nothing. However, to familiarize her [my daughter] with the language [in terms of the sounds], I had her watch TV in English. I had her read English books and I believe this had an immense effect. For my daughter, we can assume it as first language acquisition because she is bilingual. We can consider the same thing for our students (TC1-FU).

One reason why the TCs foregrounded the natural factor may be because they were influenced by the current trends in teaching (i.e. see Mohamed, 2006) as all four (not TC5) kept using the buzzwords (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010, p. 54) (e.g. 'affective filter'). Nevertheless, there is evidence to suggest that another reason why they focused on its being natural was the way they learnt English themselves (i.e. apprenticeship of observation; Lortie, 1975). These participants went through an informal learning environment where they were exposed to English and they kept referring to this when supporting why exposure was important (see section 4.2).

The general tendency among the TRs also was that exposure was necessary although there were diverging views: not all believed that exposure was always needed. Out of the five TRs, four asserted that exposure played a pivotal role in developing students' speaking. The reason why they seemed to highlight this again related to their learning experiences. The three TRs (TR2, TR3 and TR5) who underwent a high-school education where L1 was dominant kept referring to this as a negative experience because they had difficulty in developing their speaking skills at college. They reported that they did not wish the same for their students. TR4, whose education involved L2, referred to this as a positive experience in developing her speaking skills.

The four TRs were in favour of L1 to a certain extent. Echoing the findings of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) all four TRs preferred to give diplomatic responses to the importance of exposure. They said that exposure depended on the lesson (TR2 and TR3), and the students (TR2, TR3, TR4, TR5). For example, TR2 opined:

Herhalde ben de ayırımını yapıyorum onun işte. LL [coursebook] daki (language) sınav yapmıyor ünitenin sonunda seni. Konuşma aktivitesi var ve yani o ünitenin sonunda o öğrendiği şeyleri konuşarak kullanması gerekiyorsa, e benim de bir şekilde ona maruz bırakmam gerekiyor. Yani araya Türkçe sokuşturmak çok mantıksız olur yani bire bir konuşurken bile¹⁶(TR2 - INT2).

TR3 added she would use L1 in certain situations and considered its use being an advantage:

...ana dili kullanıyorum (...) kişisel olarak ana dilin kullanımına karşı değilim ve İngilizce öğretiminde karşı olanları da anlamıyorum. Bunu kötü bir şeymiş gibi lanse etmek isteyenleri hiç anlamıyorum. Ayrıca, bunu hocanın bir eksikliğiyle ilgisi olmadığına da inanıyorum. Bunun bir eksiklik göstergesi olduğuna inanmıyorum; tam tersi, bunun bir avantaj olduğuna inanıyorum. Yani, kendimi açıkcası şanslı hissediyorum (native) hocalara kıyasla¹⁷ (TR3-INT3).

TR3 seemed to be competent with regards to her use of L1 (she knows the debates around L1 use). First, she says ‘I don’t believe it is a sign of incompetency’ as a teacher. Here, she referred to the dichotomy of native versus non-native teachers (see Árvá & Medgyes, 2000). Though according to the study of Árvá & Medgyes (2000), conducted in Hungary, there is no direct answer to whom the better teacher is and that the issue is more related to what they are teaching (i.e. speaking), TR3’s beliefs in this matter seem to be in line with the findings of the study to a certain extent. In Árvá & Medgyes’s (2000) study, non-native teachers claimed that the capability of drawing on the mother tongue for assistance was a huge benefit of NNS over NS teachers. TR3 also appears to compare herself with

¹⁶ I guess, I distinguish those [coursebook and non-course-book lessons]. The (language) in LL [coursebook]; it doesn’t test you at the end of the unit, instead, there are speaking activities in which the things [new language] in that unit should be used; thus, I need to expose them [students] to that language somehow. It wouldn’t make any sense to put Turkish into it. I mean even when speaking one to one [with students] (TR2-INT2).

¹⁷ I use the mother tongue (...) personally, I’m not against the use of the mother tongue and I don’t understand people who are against it in teaching English. I really don’t understand those who are against it and present it like it’s a very bad thing. Moreover, I don’t think that this has got anything to do with the teacher’s incompetence. It doesn’t show any lack in the teacher’s knowledge; on the contrary, I believe that this is an advantage I mean, I feel lucky compared to (native) teachers (TR3-INT3).

native teachers saying that she was ‘luckier’ (also explicitly stated by TR5; INT2 & TR4-INT2).

Therefore, the study contradicts the findings of Polat (2009), who claims that NNS EFL teachers lack confidence in their L2 proficiency. Polat (2009) supports his argument on NNS teachers’ avoiding using CLT due to lack of L2 proficiency. If so, then I could use TR3s argument above and her utilising inductive grammar teaching in her class with almost no L1 use (Obs. 1) as a counter argument for Polat’s (2009) grandiose claim and humbly suggest that every NNS be considered in their own context (e.g. country, background education) and that more research is needed to claim otherwise.

However, TRs still strongly holding on to L1, and their saying that L1 should/must be used made me conclude that their belief in exposure was looser compared to the TCs. It appeared to me that for the TCs (excluding TC5) ‘exposure belief’ was their core belief; thus, less susceptible to change whereas for the TRs (not TR5 perhaps because he is a new graduate and more influenced by his BA education) their exposure belief remained peripheral and therefore, more likely to change according to the context. Echoing the findings of Phipps & Borg’s (2009) study on grammar teaching, in this study the TRs appeared to be more likely to bend their practice when they felt that the students expected them to use L1. This was supported with their quotes and their actual classroom use (see section 4.3).

From the TRs, out of the 10 participants, only TR1 did not comment about the importance of spoken L2 exposure from the teacher. He also seemed to be influenced by his learning experience. He stated that his English did not develop because he was exposed to it in his classes, but reported that it improved with his own efforts: he was self-motivated. He read English magazines and watched undubbed films with English subtitles. He also saw less need in developing students’ speaking skills as he said that at their age he also did not know how to speak.

4.1.2 Balanced L1

Though the teachers reported their preference to use L2 it is difficult to conclude that these teachers were totally against L1-use or do not use it at all. This supports studies conducted in non-English speaking countries including Iran, Saudi Arabia and China (e.g. Mahmoudi & Amirkhiz, 2011; Al-Nofaie, 2010; Tang, 2002); English taught as a second

language such as Canada (de La Campa & Nassaji, 2009) and post-colonial countries (i.e. Nepal) (Sharma, 2006), where the participant teachers supported the judicious use of L1 in certain situations for specific reasons and expressed their positive attitudes towards the use of L1.

The general tendency of participants as a group, in this study, was to attach more importance to exposure. For them, based on their stated beliefs, L1 played a minor role and thus a balance between the two codes had to be maintained.

The observations and interviews were highly descriptive of this. Based on observations and participants statements (i.e. ‘I use L2 mostly’; TR5-INT1), I concluded that 100 % exposure was not utilised and that teachers used L1 in certain situations, which was also the case in many studies on teachers’ practices (e.g. Yavuz, 2012). There seemed to be some main aspects towards the appropriacy of L1; little L1 and lots of L2; levels and times to use L1; feelings of guilt.

The first aspect was related to the amount of L1 and L2. Four TCs (not TC5) and four TRs (not TR1) implied that switching to L1 was alright provided it was balanced (i.e. ‘few, around 30%’, TC1-INT1) so that the exposure the students received would not be threatened:

...öğrencinin senden uzaklaştığını görünce biraz böyle ana diliyle biraz onu bağlamaya, kendine çekmeye çalışabilirsin mesela. Ama bunları, çok sey yapman lazım: hani sistemli yapman lazım¹⁸ (TR2-INT2).

Tamam ana dilinizi gullanacaksınız da ama minimum. Yani böyle yüzde 50 yüzde 40 lar birazcık fazlaymış gibi. Eminim kimse gullanmaz yüzde 50¹⁹ (TC4-FU1).

The second aspect was related to the students’ levels and times to use L1 (related to teachers’ experience see section 4.2.2.1). Participants pronounced that the frequency of L1 depended on students’ levels. Thus, the higher the level, the less need to use L1. The TCs (not TC5) agreed that L1 could be used provided it was minimal and not related to the lesson content:

¹⁸ ...when you notice that the student is moving away from, you can try to keep his/her attention by using L1 a bit, but you need to do these very systematically (TR2-INT2).

¹⁹ OK. You use your mother tongue but to a minimum. That is, those 50 or 40 percentages are a bit too much. I’m sure no one uses it like 50 percent (TC4-FU1).

I don't give Turkish explanations regarding the lesson, I would occasionally say one or two words in Turkish but I don't think it is, in my opinion, that dangerous (TC1-INT2).

However, there were times where the TCs (TC1, TC3 and TC4) used it for the lesson content but they were very short and not frequent. It seemed that this practice of theirs was an act of giving in on the teachers' part. For example, during Obs.1, a student kept asking the L1 equivalent of a grammar structure to TC4. The student did not give up asking and came up with one himself which was wrong.

Eventually, TC4 gave the L1 equivalent. This is what he said when I asked him what the reason was for doing this:

I don't know why, but I give them answers in Turkish they think, ok it's better now (...) It's like your friend's saying something to you and it's right and then another doctor says it to you, the same thing, but oh you're a doctor. Ok, I accept it (TC4-POINT1).

Perhaps owing to their cultures of learning (see section 4.2), the TRs appeared to be more content that using L1 was something beneficial for their students:

Çevirdiğim kısımları uzatmış olabilirim. Daha fazla anlasınlar diye, böyle biraz fazla Türkçe'ye başvurmuş olabilirim o sırada²⁰ (TR3- POINT3).

All participants agreed that L1 could be used to build rapport, which was the third aspect (see section 4.2.2.1.2). For example, TC1 opined: '...it's like adding salt and pepper to your soup' (TC1-POINT1) meaning that L1 brought variety to the lesson for her by making the lesson more fun. Moreover, for participants who opined L1 had a minor role, L1 'aroused interest' and it 'broke the routine' meaning that it was something unexpected and different (TC1-POINT1).

The third aspect was about feelings of guilt. Out of the participants six, (explicitly by TC5, TR2 and TR3, TR4 and implicitly by TC2, TC4) held that L1 could be used provided it was not much since too much of it would make them feel 'suçlu'²¹ (TR3-FU2). There seemed to be one common reason for guilt: NCC's being an English-medium university.

²⁰ I may have extended the parts I translated into Turkish. I may have used Turkish more so that they could understand better (TR3- POINT3).

²¹ *guilty*

Though there was some ambiguity over the NCC's exact language policy (to what extent it is flexible in L1-use), the general tendency among participants was that L2-exclusivity was the desired policy, which my interview with MOAB supported (there was no written policy). It seemed that participants' feelings of guilt came from their belief in not meeting NCC's expectations. They not only saw using L1 as an act of misconduct but also as teachers of prep classes being inconsistent with the rest of the teaching at NCC. Accordingly, this would also have a further effect in that they would not prepare their learners for the departmental courses:

I: So why do you say you have a mostly English policy.

TR4: ...I feel guilty if I speak in Turkish because this is an English medium university and this is the year they have to learn English. At least the basics of it, so they should hear me speak English as much as possible (TR4-INT2).

I: Çoğunlukla İngilizce kullanırım diyorsun. Bunun bir sebebi var mı?

TR2: Bağlı bulunduğumuz kurumda eğitim dili İngilizce ve sonuçta öğrenciler bölüme geçtiği zaman tek eğitim dili eğitim dili İngilizce olacak. Sonuçta en baştan alıştırmak gerek bu duruma²² (TR2-INT3).

Nevertheless, there were additional reasons stated by three of the TCs (TC1, TC2 and TC4, and TC3 implicitly) also added that they felt guilty because they would not be preparing their learners for real-life and thus, again highlighting the significance of using L2 for communicative purposes:

Yani bu çocuk yarın öbür gün bara gidip oturduğunda ne yapacak? Bir içki siparişi veremeycek (...) o yüzden İngilizceyi teşvik etmek lazım²³ (TC2-INT1).

The participants' descriptions of maintaining balance should be interpreted within teachers' own belief systems. Though it is still questionable whether participants' percentages (e.g. TC3: '70% exposure'-FG) are in tandem with Krashen's idea of lengthy exposure (1982) or Ellis' understanding of 'extensive input' (Ellis, 2005, p. 217), for these

²² I: So why do you say you have a mostly English policy?

TR2: In the end of the day, the institution we're working at is an English medium university and when students go to their departments their only medium of instruction will be English. We have to get them use to this from the very beginning (TR2-INT3).

²³ What are they [students] going to do when they go to a bar one day? They won't be able to order a drink (...) so we must encourage English (TC2-INT1).

participants, (not TC5 and TR1) ‘30%’ or ‘not much’ L1 did not threaten the oral exposure students would receive. Thus, it could be used.

4.1.3 More L1 than L2

I concluded that two of the participants (TC5 and TR1) believed L1 could be used more than L2 in-class during the lesson. Though these two participants claimed that the L1 could be used up to 50% in the FG (perhaps because of peer-pressure; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000), my general conclusion was that for them, L1 could actually exceed L2. One reason for this was that unlike the rest of the participants, it seemed that these participants had more reasons to use L1 than to use L2, whereby they kept referring to external (see section 4.2.1) and internal factors (see section 4.2.2). Moreover, they gave more abstract reasons for the use of L1, such as mood change, L2 not being natural (supported by the TRs especially when addressing the students) and not seeing the point in using L2 all the time. Referring to the findings of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) where Japanese participants, who used more L1, uttered similar reasons, I sensed that these two participants’ language practices were not systematised (there were anomalies with every participant but theirs were more significant) and were highly lenient towards the use of L1 in that L1 could actually exceed L2.

Zaten (grammar) konularında hep böyle olur; sonlara doğru (grammar) derslerinde sonlara doğru hep Türkçe kullanmaya başladım yani. Öyle bir raddeye gelin ki yani mesela daha öncesine baktığın zaman (switch) yapan. Bir o, bir da artık öyle bir yere gelin ki başlan hep Türkçe anlatmaya. Daha doğrusu daha çok Türkçe gullnamaya başlan²⁴ (TC5-POINT1).

...mümkün olduğunca minimum tutuyorum. Sadece gerektiği zaman kullanıyorum. Açıkcası sadece (instruction) ı veriyorum. (Instruction) ı anlamadıysa, Türkçesini veriyorum. Bir açıklama yaptıktan sonra (confirm) olsun, onların anladığından emin olmak için de Türkçesini söylemek istiyorum²⁵ (TR1-INT1).

²⁴ Actually, this is what happens with grammar topics; towards the end I start using Turkish; a lot towards the end of grammar classes. You reach a point, I mean, when look back you (switch). Once this, once that and then you reach a point where you start explaining Turkish all the time. Actually, you start to use Turkish more (TC5-POINT1).

²⁵ I keep it [L2 use] to a minimum. I only use it when it’s necessary. To be more precise; I only give the (instruction) if they do not understand the (instruction), I give it in Turkish. I also want to say things in Turkish to make sure they understand when I explain them something...to check they understand... (TR1-INT1).

By minimum, I believe he meant that in his lessons L2 did not exceed L1. Analysis of his in-class language practices supported this (60% L1 40% L2).

TR1: You have twenty minutes to finish writing. You think that will be enough?
SS: xxxx
TR1: (20 dakika yeterli mi?)²⁶
SS: xxx
TR1: thirty?
SS: xxx
TR1: (Ok. Şöyle yapalım; size 20 dakika vereyim...)²⁷ (TR1-Obs. 3).

TR1 said that he felt guilty if he never used L2 (TR1-INT1) and that is why he felt the need to use at least some in his lessons.

Likewise, TC5s language practices of all three lessons are below: (The numbers refer to the total amount of L1 and L2 language use)

Table 6: TC5s Language practice

Lesson 1		Lesson 2		Lesson 3		Totals	
60	59	43	54	46	78	141	207
L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2

It is clear here that her L1 and L2 uses were very close in number. My overall impression was that her L2 use was formulaic and L1s involved more complex structures. Her highest functions for L2 were explanation (e.g. ‘the answer is in paragraph 5 line 2’ Obs.3), giving instructions (e.g. ‘open your books’ Obs.2), and elicitation (e.g. ‘next one?’ Obs.1). However, significantly, her highest L1 function was explaining (see section 4.3 for examples).

It should be noted that the interviews of both participants were inconsistent at times. For example, TR1 said he used L2 for giving instructions. Later, he said he translated instructions to make sure his students understood him. In another interview he said he would use L2 as a distancing tool for class management, yet again he would use L1 to warn students.

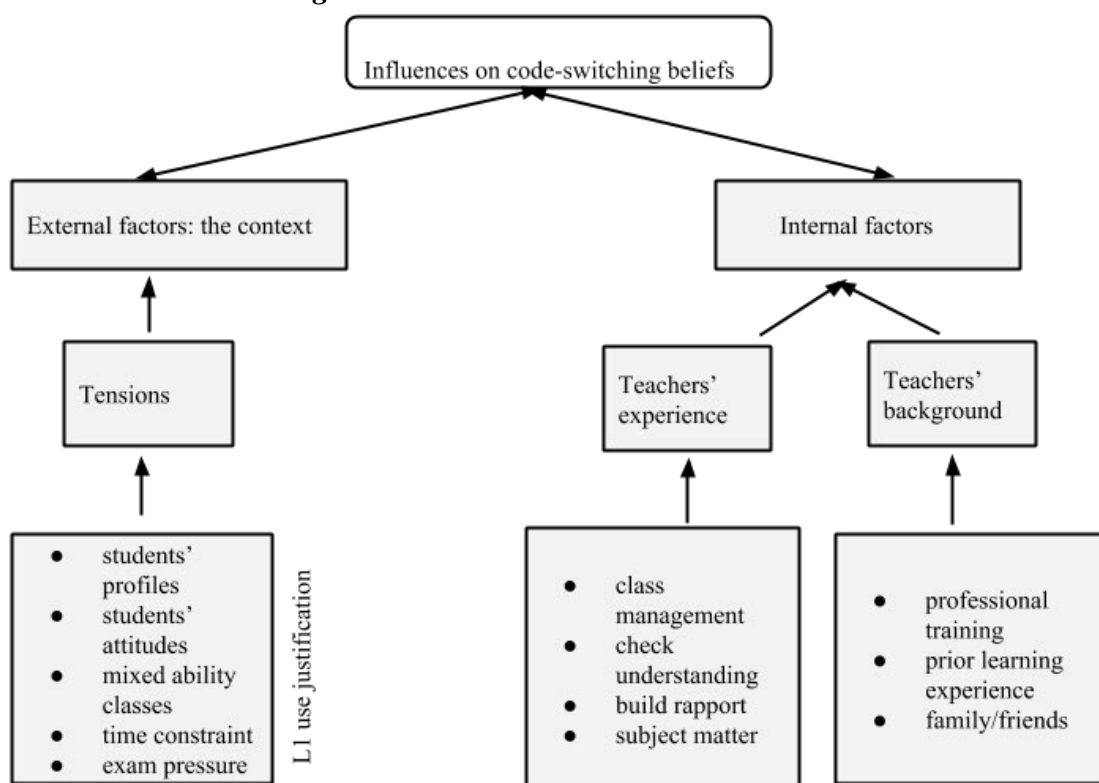
²⁶ TR1: is twenty minutes ok? (TR1-Obs. 3)

²⁷ TR1: Let’s do this; I’ll give you twenty minutes... (TR1-Obs.3)

4.2 Influences on CS beliefs

This part focuses on the influences on teachers' CS beliefs. Exploring influences on teachers' beliefs has become integral in research on language teachers as it is regarded as a step towards a deeper understanding of their behaviour (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2011). In this study, findings from the interviews, observations and post-observation interviews support this argument, by revealing that teachers' CS beliefs did not appear in a vacuum. They seemed to be dependent on certain factors (i.e. external and internal).

Figure 3: Influences on teachers' beliefs



The external and internal factors were comprised of several variables as set out in Figure 3. The external were mainly caused by the context in which the teachers were teaching. These variables resulted in tensions, which influenced teachers' code-choices. The variables impacting upon tensions included; student profiles, students' attitudes, the mixed ability classes, time constraints and exam pressure. The internal factors were a combination of both teachers' experience (class management, comprehension check, building rapport and the nature of the subject matter) and teachers' background (professional training, prior learning experience, and family/friends/peers). These influences were differently perceived by TCs and TRs to a certain extent. Moreover, the relationship between the external and the internal factors was dynamic, as shown by the

two-way arrows. The constituents of both main factors could and did reshape, and this further influenced teachers' CS beliefs.

4.2.1 External factors - the context

In line with studies on CS (e.g. Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004), analysis of this study revealed that participants' descriptions of the extent of appropriate L1-use must be considered within the context they are currently teaching in since participants' explicitly pronounced that their CS (i.e. L1-use) depended on contextual factors.

4.2.1.1 Tensions

For the sake of suggesting a more positive viewpoint on the differences between teachers' beliefs and practices, referring to the studies of Freeman (1993) and Phipps & Borg (2009) I use the term 'tensions' (p.380) for what Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis (2004) call 'inconsistencies' (p.243) and Fung & Chow (2002) label 'incongruence' (p.320). The teachers in this study reported that there was a mis-match between their beliefs and practice, yet this did not, always, cause uneasiness on the teachers' side. Here, I will discuss the variables impacting on tensions. The lack of uneasiness will be dealt in section 4.3.3.1.

Data constructed from this study evidenced that in certain situations teachers acted against their beliefs. That is, teachers reportedly stated that or inferred that they had used more L1, despite their belief not to. This study mainly accords with the findings of Phipps & Borg (2009) in that it suggests that teachers believed that contextual factors, such as student profiles, time constraints, and examinations, mediated the extent to which they could act in tandem with their beliefs (though I present a more critical perspective to this in 4.3.3.1). The following presents how teachers used contextual factors to justify their L1-use. Moreover, it was clear that the TCs were more reactive to the contextual factors and trying to resist tensions than the TRs who seemed to be accepting the contextual reality and thus complying. Therefore, for the TCs, contextual factors impeded their CS practice, which was not normal and for the TRs, the effect brought by contextual factors was natural.

4.2.1.1.1 Students' profiles

In line with teachers' descriptions of their students in Erkmen's (2010) and Phipps & Borg's (2009) studies, which were conducted in a TC and TR context, respectively,

teachers described their students as not taking responsibility for their own learning. For all the teachers, this meant that students refused to use L1, which was a result of the students' cultures of learning (TC2, TC4, TR4, TR5). Students perceived learning as passive, which was a cultural thing (see Hofer & Pintrich, 1997; Hofstede, 1991). Thus, the teacher was the one using L2 to show students how the language worked.

Consequently, like Greggio & Gil's (2007) study, teachers' use of L1 was highly influenced by their interaction with the students, which is demonstrated in the following example. The teacher is doing a grammar handout, reporting verbs (see Appendix C) where students have to report sentences using an appropriate verb (e.g. warn). The teacher is checking meaning and form:

TC5: what is insist?

Std: (ısrar etmek)²⁸

TC5: (Yes. Ok. Bir şey sorayım size. Burda bir da (me) var. Niye?)

Std: (Nerde?)

TC5: (Burda, cümleden sonra).

Std: (Yapmama ısrar etti. Diğerinde o almam için ısrar etti).

TC5: (Evet. Yapmama ısrar etti. Burda o almam için ısrar etti)²⁹(TC5-Obs.1).

The reason expressed by the participants was that an L2 response to a L1 utterance was unnatural. For example, this is how TC4 described why he suddenly switched to L1 after his students use of L1 in one of his lessons:

...um that was I don't know a reflex. Oh bloody hell what did I do? That was a reflex I guess (...) If the person in front of you speaks Turkish all the time and you try to speak to them in English, I think it's sometimes not difficult but it is challenging (...) Cos they're [the students] always speaking to me in Turkish I automatically assume oh Turkish! (TC4-POINT1)

Building upon the idea that students' L1 affected teachers' code-choice, it could be concluded that students' participation (speaking up) also had a share in teachers' code-choice. That is, the more the students participated and used L1, the more L1 the teachers used. Observations were supportive of this. All participants (relatively less for TC2 and

²⁸ Std: insist(TC5-Obs. 1)

²⁹ TC5: Ok let me ask you something. Here, there is also

TC5: Why?

Std: Where?

TC5:Here, after the sentence

Std: Insisted that I did in the other one she insisted on my buying.

TC5: Yes. She insisted that I did. Here she insisted on my buying (TC5-Obs. 1).

TC4) used more L1 when students used more L1, explaining why TR2's, TR3's and TR4's use of L1 increased in lessons 2 and 3 as well as TC1s in lesson 2 and TR4s in lesson 3 (see 4.3.2). Not to my surprise, student participation was higher in the lessons where L1 was more.

The lack of participation in the lessons, meant there was more L2. In TR2 and TR3's first lessons, fewer students spoke up. In fact, TR2, who was doing the coursebook, had to do most of the lesson with one student who was actively participating, which in fact enabled her to use L2. She later acknowledged:

I: Sağ tarafta oturan öğrenci diğer öğrencilere göre daha fazla mı konuştu yoksa konuşma oranı diğer öğrencilerle aynı mıydı?

TR2: O D. İyi bir öğrenci o. Dersi götürüyo. Lokomotif o. Biraz da o yüzden ona konuşma hakkı vermişimdir³⁰(TR2-POINT1).

The rest of the class hardly spoke and when they did, all they had to do was to read the answers from the coursebook. Student D, however, was able to answer TR2's lead-in questions that involved more production on the students' side. Had TR2 not have student D in her class, she might have used L1 more.

There was a similar atmosphere in TR3s first lesson, which was more communicative and there was less exam-pressure as students were not to do the textbook. TR3 was teaching a grammar topic in an inductive manner. However, fewer students participated (compared to her 2nd and 3rd lessons). In fact, during the first five minutes of the lesson, where students had to produce sentences, she had to encourage students to speak up and produce her sentences, which she would use for the grammar presentation. She was not affected by students' L1 either in the rest of the lesson because students only had few questions, which made me conclude that the task was easy for them. Nonetheless, this is not to say that these teachers did not use L1 at all. There were a few instances where they switched to L1. Yet it was relatively fewer as they could solve misunderstandings by using formulaic statements: 'go one step back' (TR3-Obs.1) 'simple past changes into past perfect' (TR3-Obs.1).

³⁰ I: Do you think the boy sitting on the right spoke more than the others or do you think his participation was the same as the others?

TR2: That's D. [Level wise]He is a good student. He makes the lesson go the way I plan, so I may have allowed him to speak more (TR2-POINT1).

Another reason was, given by four participants, they used L1 because students' L1-use demotivated them. The teachers explained that what made them use L1 was that they became fed-up or lazy. As the teacher, they were the ones using L2 to show how the language worked and they had to keep pushing students to speak English. This then turned into a vicious circle. Students did not feel like speaking English, so the teachers did not push them and the teachers ended up using L1, too. This made the teacher and student interaction superficial and unproductive.

However, there were also instances where teachers' L2 was not interrupted by the students' L1, similar to Kraemer (2006). This was mostly in TC2 and TC4's lessons especially after the first interviews, which I believe could be a result of the observer effect (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Still, I noticed a pattern in their lessons. They resisted students' L1 and replied in L2 (Similar to TC1, and partly TC3. See figures 8 & 9, whereby the TCs L1 use was below 30% though there are some discussions related to this mentioned in section 4.3).

They kept warning their students to speak in L2 in all three observations and of the teachers, TC2 and TC4 warned their students against using L1 the most (TC2 7X -Obs.2; TC410 X-Obs. 3).

Nevertheless, I believe their complaints about students' L1, and interview statements give insights into the fact that they were having difficulties in terms of resistance:

Bazen ben da tembelleşebilirim. Seni zorlayacak biri olmadığında, şey dersin, eee noldu? Bu da idare eder³¹(TC4-INT3).

The TRs however, warned their students against this very little; thus developing an understanding:

*Ben çocuklara kızamıyorum. Onun nedeni, şu an niye Türkçe konuşuyoruz? Çünkü rahat hissediyoruz. Yani çünkü gerçekten şey değil ki normal değil yani normal değil yani. Şu an bizim İngilizce konuşuyor olmamız garip olacaktı. Bir şeyi gerçekten ne kadar öğrenirsen öğren, şey yapmazsan o dilin konuşulduğu yerde uzun süre oturup böyle kalmazsan, bir şekilde öğrendiğin sana yetmiyor (...)
Ama ben sınıfta şey olayını anlıyorum yani. Mesela sınıfta (group work)*

³¹ I also can get lazy sometimes. If no one challenges you, you could just say, well, what's wrong? This seems to be working fine (TC4-INT3).

yaptırırken İngilizce konuşun demem (...) Tartışınız, Türkçe yapabilirsiniz. Demiyorum özellikle (encourage) etmiyorum yani görmezden geliyorum öyle diyelim³²(TR1-INT1).

Thus, I deduced that whether the teachers were influenced by the students' use of L1 or not was also determined by how loose their exposure belief was. I discussed in section 4.1 the strength or beliefs of the TCs and TRs. The following excerpt supports my claim in this respect as the TCs (not TC5) put limits to the use of L1 whereas, the TRs preferred to give more diplomatic responses:

I: Hepiniz anadil kullanılabilir diyorsunuz. Peki ne kadar?

TR1: % 50 yüzde % 50 olmalı.

TC3: % 70 ile 30 olabilir ama % 50 çok fazla. Sen öyle yaparsan Türkçe mi öğretiyorsun İngilizce mi öğretiyorsun? Eşit olur % 50-50 yaparsan. Çevirme olur.

TC1: Bence de

TC3: Partnerimsin öyle olmadığını biliyorum.

TR1: Allah aşkına kimse beni yemesin!

TR2: Sistemati olmalı

TC1: Kelime anlatırken hiç sevmem Türkçe anlatmak. Geçmiş öğrenim tarzlarımdan. Ben geçmişte İngilizceyi de öyle öğrendim. Almancayı da öyle öğrendim. Tek kelime de Türkçe konuşmadım. Ama (native) dim.

TR1: Ben de Almancayı hiç Türkçe konuşmadan öğrenemedim. Sonra Türkçe konuştum, öğrendim.

TR3: TC1 sen zaten Almanya' da dışarı çıktığında Almanca konuşmak zorundasın. TR1 in durumu daha farklı.

TC5: Ben TR1 'e katılıyorum

TC2: Kullanılabilir ama çok fazla değil.

TR5: Eğer %50-50 yaparsan, yani, dersin 40 dakikasını ya da 30 dakikasını Türkçe ve 20 dakikasını İngilizce yaparsan, o öğrenci o 20 dakikayı dinler³³(FG).

³² ...I can't be cross with the children because why do we speak in Turkish now? It is because we feel comfortable. I mean, it is really not normal. It would be weird for us to talk in English. I mean no matter how much, how long you learn, if you don't live in the country where that language is spoken, you cannot well um somehow what you learn won't be enough for you. This is what is called comfort zone. But I understand the situation in the classroom. For instance, I don't tell them to speak in English when they do (group work). Of course, when talking to me, they shouldn't overdo it and talk in English but they can do their discussion in Turkish. It's not that I (encourage) them or anything but, it's like I let them (TR1-INT1).

³³ I: You all say L1 can be used. So, to what extent?

TR1: It should be 50-50

TC3: It may be 70 to 30% but 50% is too much. If you do it like that, then, what is it that you are teaching? Are you teaching English or Turkish. It will be equal if you do it 50-50. It'll be translation.

TC1: I agree.

TC3: You're my partner (to TR1). I know that it isn't like that.

TR1: C'mon! No one's buying this.

TR2: It should be systematic.

Later, TC4 who did not speak up much in the FG said:

Tamam ana dilinizi gullanacaksınız da ama minimum. Yani böyle %50, %40 lar birazcık fazlaymış gibi. Eminim kimse gullanmaz %50³⁴ (FU1).

Thus, except for TR5, the TRs switched to L1 more when they saw there was a misunderstanding on the students' part.

To conclude, the observations in particular clearly showed that those saying that L1 can be used or gave more diplomatic responses to the use of L1, were more influenced by students' L1 than the ones who did not. Echoing the discussions of Phipps & Borg, (2009), here we have a situation where students' expectations override teachers' beliefs. All nine teachers believed in the significance of exposure, yet, perhaps to satisfy their students, actually used L1. Section 4.3, however, indicates there were participants who were relatively less reluctant to do this. As aforementioned, I believe that the choice whether to bend practice or not and its extent depended on whether their belief remained as core or peripheral with the core belief being stronger. Thus, we cannot say that all teachers approached it in the same way.

4.2.1.1.2 Students' attitude

Supporting Duff & Polio's (1990) claims, students' attitudes (being unmotivated and expecting L1) impinged on teachers' code choice.

First, all participants agreed that students' lack of motivation made them use L1. To illustrate, TR1 said: 'Sınıfa giderken ayaklarımı sürüyerek gidiyordum'³⁵ (TR1-FU2) and 'İngilizce bile konuşmak istemiyordum'³⁶ (TR1-FU2) when he saw how demotivated his students were. This affected him as a teacher (i.e. and his use of L1) as seen in the following example:

TC5: I agree with TR1.

TC2: It can be used, but not too much.

TR4: It depends

TR3: Knowing that there's a pop-quiz, I can't risk not using L1.

TR5: If you do it 50-50, I mean, if you do 40 minutes or 30 minutes of the class in Turkish and 20 minutes in English, that pupil will listen to that 20 minutes (FG).

³⁴ OK. You use your mother tongue but to a minimum. That is, those 50 or 40 percentages are a bit too much. I'm sure no one uses it like 50% (FU1).

³⁵ I was dragging my feet while going the classroom (TR1-FU2).

³⁶ didn't even want to speak English(TR1-FU2)

[TR1 is trying to check the homework he had assigned in his previous class when he notices the majority did not do it and are chatting. In a disappointed tone he says]
(...ödevinizi yapıp gelseniz ve derste sorularınız üzerinden geçsek daha iyi olur)³⁷
(TR1-Obs.1).

Similarly, after one of her classes TR3 articulated: ‘benim için zor bir dersdi çünkü öğrenciler motive değillerdi’³⁸(POINT3), implying that she had to use L1. Here, is an example sequence of that lesson. TR3 is doing an exercise on logical sequence, where a sentence is left out from a paragraph and students have to decide on the appropriate sentence to fit into the paragraph from the available options. Students have done the exercise and TR3 is giving feedback:

S1: [reads the answer and gives a wrong answer] a
TR3: a? [reads the sentence] do you all agree?
SSS: wrong
TR3: what is the correct answer?
SSS: c
TR3. Why c? who can explain? [pause]
[std2 raises his hand]
TR3: yes std2
S2.: Must give extra information
TR3:Ok so we are talking about the advantages, right? Advantages of doing your own business, right? [no reaction from the students] and here we have earning your own money: the one advantage and the money that you make depends on how hard you work. If you use “a” it is also related to money ok? [no reaction from the students] . So here we have guaranteed income. (Ama zaten ikinci cümlede ne kadar çalışırsan, ona göre para kazanırsın dedi. Dolayısıyla sen onu tekrar yaparsan ikisi birbiriyle çelişir. Çünkü senin garanti bir maaşın vardı diyor. Ama bir önceki cümlede senin çalışmana bağlı olarak gelirin değişkenlik gösterir diyor dolayısıyla)³⁹ after in addition, we need an extra idea. So the answer is c.
Std3: ben denizli demiştim ama⁴⁰ (TR3-Obs3).

TR3 first tried eliciting the answer from the students, but not being satisfied with the students’ responses she took over and started giving an explanation herself in L2.

³⁷ ... it would be better if you did your homework and we discussed your questions here (TR1-Obs.1)

³⁸ this was a challenging class for me because students were unmotivated (POINT3)

³⁹ but in the second sentence it already says your income depends on how much you work. Therefore, if you say it again the two sentences contradict because it says you had a guaranteed income. But in the first sentence it says your income changes according to your work. So (TR3-Obs3)

⁴⁰ but I had said Denizli [a city name in Turkish that starts with the letter d]

However, noticing that there was no reaction from the students she switched to L1, possibly thinking that she would get one.

It is not only in this study that students are deemed unmotivated. Teachers' beliefs of unmotivated learners supports previous research findings (e.g. Vancı & Balbay, 2004). Similarly, these studies also show the interplay between students' motivations and those of teachers, where student motivation would make learning fun. I also consider it significant to realise the connections between student motivation and teacher encouragement (Erkmen, 2010). Here we see that participants did not acknowledge this and did not try to motivate their students to learn. This could be because the time the study was conducted was the end of the year and in various accounts teachers said they were tired and awaited the year to end. Moreover, it could also be related to the fact that the lesson content became more difficult and students' exam anxiety peaked.

Second, for the participants, students were expectant in receiving L1 input. In fact, TR5 said that students 'L1 için zorluyorlar'⁴¹(POINT1). Supporting claims of Cortazzi & Jin (1996) this study showed that teachers (TRs and TC5 more) acted in a way that would satisfy students' expectations in this respect and used L1 (not all in the same way). There were various justifications for this. To illustrate, TR3 said that as a teacher if you do not give them what they want, (L1 explanation) 'bir müddet sonra o da sinir stres olmaya başlıyor bence'⁴² (TR3-POINT1). She added that using L1 was the most sensible solution 'orda olayı gerginleştirmektense'⁴³ (TR3-POINT1). TC5 also articulated that forcing an L2 explanation 'yorar'⁴⁴ (TC5-POINT1) the students. Thus, preferred to use L1 to avoid this.

4.2.1.1.3 Mixed-ability classes

Mixed-ability classes with low-level students was also a factor shaping teachers' L1-use (Franklin, 1990). At the time the study was conducted, NCC did not have a streaming policy within a single level. For participants, this meant that though they were all teaching pre-intermediate (A2/B1 level), their classes were comprised of students with mixed-proficiency levels. Therefore, they were teaching to a class made up of low-level students

⁴¹ push you for L1(POINT1)

⁴² after a while s/he [the student] also starts to get stressed (TR3-POINT1).

⁴³ instead of increasing the tension (TR3-POINT1)

⁴⁴ tires

together with students with a relatively upper level (TR4-POINT1). This as they say, had an impact on their L1 use. They behaved according to the majority at certain points and thus deprived the higher achievers from the L2-exposure:

Anlamayan kısım olduğu için belki da onu sorma gereği duyarım Türkçe olarak. Hani çünkü İngilizce sorguladığım zaman, cevap da almayık. Anladın. Yani bunun testini bile yapabiliriz. Yani Türkçe sorduğumda kaç kişi cevap verir? İngilizce sorduğumda kaç kişi cevap verir? Belki da ondan dolayı öyle bir alışkanlık edindik⁴⁵ (TC5-POINT1).

Thus, teachers all agreed that students had low English proficiency (even the higher achievers) and students had to use L1. For Chambers (1991), this might be an act of underestimating learners' L2 ability. Teachers actually acknowledged this but, despite this understanding, some teachers still did not apply it. I believe this was because of the combination of all the contextual factors (see figure 4).

Again, I believe that the semester itself had an effect in this as it made them label their students:

Ama zannedersam bu uzatmalı uzatılmış bahar döneminde sanırım daha çok Türkçe konuşurum. Ben onu fark ettim. Çünkü şeyden dolayıdır herhalde: gelen öğrencilerin daha zayıf olduğunu var sayarak⁴⁶ (TC5-POINT1).

4.2.1.1.4 Time-constraint

In line with Tabaku's (2014) findings, teachers agreed that providing their students with a direct L1 equivalent of a word, or translation of a sentence was time-saving. Participants referred to the tight schedule they had to follow: a kind of rat race where every grammar topic was tested and where the teacher felt the pressure of cover[ing] (a recurring theme) the grammar topics in the syllabus to keep up with the program. In this context, they said L1 was sensible as it saved time, which was mostly expressed by the TRs, TC5 and TC1.

⁴⁵ Because there is a group who do not understand, maybe, I also need to ask in Turkish. I mean, when we ask about something in English we can't get an answer. I mean, we can also test it. I mean how many of them answer when I ask in Turkish and how many when I ask in English. Maybe that's why we got used to this (TC5-POINT1).

⁴⁶ But I think in the extended semester I think I use more Turkish. That's because, I guess, I assume those students to be weaker (TC5-POINT1).

To illustrate, TC5 claimed if she had not explained concepts in L1 she would have had to waste five minutes (TC5-POINT2), which for her was a long time. Thus, for her, the need for covering topics so as not to fall behind the program outweighed the desire to provide exposure.

Some participants believed that L1 also saved time when discussing topics related to the lesson. This came up especially when dealing with topics related to grammar. TR4 in fact said that explaining grammar in L1 was ‘practical’ or ‘faster’ (TR4-POINT1). Especially when the main aim of the lesson was not to teach grammar (which was listening in her case). She also said it was practical to use L1 when you had to teach a grammatical structure that was difficult (i.e. ‘a topic the students haven’t done before’; TR4-POINT1) in a limited time (i.e. she had to finish the listening HO she was doing).

TC5 supports this. In the following instance, students were to practise reporting verbs (see appendix C): rewriting sentences with an appropriate reporting verb using the correct grammar (i.e. some reporting verbs are followed by a gerund or infinitive). She was seeking the answer for the following:

[Students are to rewrite the sentence “Yes, I did it” using the verb ‘accept’].

S1: Yes, he accepted doing it.

TC5: (ama) yes (zaten var orda) accept yes (demek)⁴⁷; (TC5-Obs.1)

Time also became a concern when dealing with situations not related to the lesson content. TC1’s POINTS were also supportive of this. During my observation of her first lesson, the class was interrupted. The supervisor came and asked the teacher if the airconditioning was working in L1. TC1 turned to one of the students and echoed the question in the same code to save time. Another example was TC5. She also said that trying to explain something like a seating arrangement in L2 was time-consuming. Being highly concentrated on the product and not the process, she asserted L2 would not get the job done. The students would just look at her and not respond.

In conclusion, all the teachers used this L1 strategy. For Harbord, (1992) this impedes the valuable language input that can be provided via repetition, contextualization, and/or modification of L2. As Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han (2004) acknowledge there is more research needed to decide whether or not this kind of CS is for the benefit of the students, though

⁴⁷ but (yes) is already there. (Accept) means (yes) (TC5-Obs.1)

the TCs thought so. However, parallel to Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han (2004) what I found is that for teachers, L1 may be more practical than perhaps any of the modified L2 strategies, particularly from the cognitive learning perspective and in terms of time-cost effectiveness if the students' perceived L2 proficiency was low, as was the case in this study. TC4s incident supports this. Two students sitting next to me during the observation asked me the answer to a question. I put my head down and kept on taking notes. TC4 immediately realised this and came up to us. He told them to ask him and not me. TC4 started warning the students (in a friendly way) using L2, but when the students did not understand, he switched to L1. This is how he explained his practice:

S1 unfortunately would not answer it. And I could have tried to explain to him and I think I could have failed and it would have been time-consuming. And I thought direct translation would save me a lot of time (TC4-POINT1).

4.2.1.1.5 Exam-pressure

Exam-pressure, as in many studies on CS (Polio & Duff, 1994; Duff & Polio, 1990), was a very important factor in determining teachers' L1 use, probably best expressed in TR3s quote:

Ertesi gün gelicek olan bir (pop quiz)'de öğrendikleri şeyler sınanacağı için, hani sadece İngilizce anlatıp geçemiyorum. Hani Türkçe anlatmak ihtiyacım da doğuyor. Bu etkiliyor. Sınavlar. Ve çocukların başarısızlıklarından ben sorumlu olucam; sürekli bir testing şeyimiz var ve bir an önce öğrendiklerinden emin olmak için de mecburen Türkçe öğrettiğimiz zamanlar oluyor. Özellikle de (grammar point)larda⁴⁸ (TR3-FG).

TR3 seemed to have accepted the use of L1 brought by exam-pressure. For TR3, L1 was a tool to confirm students' understanding. I believe she thought not using it would be just explaining things at surface level without going into their deeper meaning. This would make her feel unsatisfied as a teacher: as if she had not done enough for her students especially within the exam-based system she said they were in. For her, students needed to succeed in the exams. For this, they had to understand the logic behind the questions.

⁴⁸ Knowing that they may be tested the following day in a (pop quiz) from a topic they study/learn today, I can't just explain it in English. And move on. I mean, I feel the urge to explain it in Turkish. This affects it. The exams. And I'll be responsible for the failure of students; we constantly have an exam thing and to make sure that they understand something immediately there are times we have to teach in Turkish, especially (grammar points) (TR3-FG).

Otherwise as she later explains, students might not get a good grade from the pop-quiz/exam (FG).

Though accepting the effect of exam-pressure on L1-use, the three TCs (TC1, TC2, TC4) particularly, kept highlighting their reactions to this pressure. They kept saying that it was strange to have such a pressure in the first place:

Keşke hem İngilizce öğredip, hem sınav geçmesini sağlayabilsek. Daha iyisi olmaz diye düşünürüm(...)Burda[NCC'de]hep sınav. En son dedik [T4 ile] NCC! Bir replik vardır bilirsan 300 de . biz da this is NCC! derik⁴⁹ (TC2-INT1).

Referring back to students' attitudes, it was also clear in this theme that students' L1 use also increased when exam-pressure was high. Thus, teachers implied that the reciprocal effect was higher here, one reason for which was the stress put by the approach of the exit exam (TC2-INT3) and this also affected teachers' motivation. To illustrate, TC2 said students' stress challenged his L2-exclusivity policy. His second lesson partly confirmed this. The students were doing an exercise, similar to the one tested in the exit exam. There was a lot of participation (their profile) by the students. However, they did so by using L1. They all raised hands, and asked TC2 in L1 whether their answers were correct or not. This was perhaps because the easiest way for the students to express themselves with the exam pressure in hand was in L1. For TC2, this was a negative experience. Even though almost all students participated and were attentive the fact that they used L1 made TC2 complain about the students and feel discontented (the same with TC4 and somewhat for TC1) as a teacher: 'ortamı da İngilizce çevirmen lazım' (TC2-POINT2)⁵⁰. One reason could be he felt he had failed to fulfil the teachings of his TEFL education.

However, for the rest of the participants the increased L1 caused by the exam pressure was not all negative. In fact, for seven teachers (TC3, TC5, TR1, TR2, TR3, TR4, and TR5) this was quite natural. For example, I observed a similar lesson of TR4 to that of TC2. During the lesson, she sat at the back of the class and waited for students to do the exercise. Some students approached her and asked questions in L1 and she too responded in L1. The same happened when feedback started. Almost all students tried to speak up

⁴⁹ I wish we could teach English and help students pass the exams at the same time. Nothing would be better than that. (...) Here [NCC] it's all about exams. (...) Then, we [with TC4] end up saying: NCC! There's a phrase in the film 300, if you know. We say that: THIS IS NCC! (TC2-INT1).

⁵⁰ you need to turn the environment into English (TC2-POINT2)

as they had queries about their answers. She tried to give feedback to all and at times increased her L1 use. Nevertheless, this did not bother her. The following conversation supports this:

I: What do you think stood out in the lesson?

TR4:As it was about them doing some questions and me just giving feedback, I remember sitting down a lot and I don't think I talked. So it was them who did the work for most of the time and it was like a short Q and A:[question and answer] all the time and mostly it was in Turkish. It was very much like (dersane)⁵¹I really think, so it reminded me of my days in the (dersane) but it was a good one. I mean I wish we had a chance to do that more. Generally, it's the other way round. So overall it was a really enjoyable lesson. Ok it was a bit mechanical because they had some questions they had to do, but they managed to do them. So, no problem I think. It was a good one (TR4-POINT3).

I believe the nature of the exit exam also had an effect on students' insistence on L1. Speaking was not tested in the exit-exam (as it was not seen to be feasible: MOAB-FU1), so students did not see it as a useful activity to do (also highlighted by TC2 and TC4). This had a washback effect (see Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010) on the teachers' use of L1. More discussion related to exam pressure will be presented in 4.2.2, below.

4.2.2 Internal factors

Echoing the findings of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) this study also highlights the interplay between personal factors (experience and background) and teachers' beliefs about CS. Exploring the impact of personal experience on CS expands on current understanding of the CS practices of TCs and TRs. Moreover, an understanding of the internal factors helps interpret teachers' reactions to the external factors.

4.2.2.1 Teachers' experience

In line with studies exploring factors shaping novice teachers identities (e.g. Flores, & Day, 2006) analysis of data indicated that teachers gained experience (both negative and positive) from the context they had taught in and then (re)/shaped their beliefs (i.e code-switch). Thus, teachers entered classes with beliefs they had previously gained from experience. Those who had used minimum or no L1 in their previous work experience did not use the following issues to justify their L1-use or used it less (TC2, TC4 and partly TC3 and TC1) as much as the TRs whose previous work experience mainly comprised

⁵¹ cram schools

NCC context. Experience entails class-management, checking students' understandings, building rapport and depending on the nature of the subject matter.

4.2.2.1.1 Class management

The study suggests that participants' previous beliefs about managing their class contributed to their decisions or acts to code-switch. From experience (both at NCC and experience elsewhere), teachers developed some kind of beliefs about their learners and one consequence of this was they utilised L1.

The first aspect was related to content transmission. During their time at NCC, most teachers taught beginners (A1), elementary (A2) in the first and pre-intermediate (A2/B1) or taught intermediate (B2) in the second semester. Thus, they had developed beliefs about their learners and assumed that if they explained things in L2, students would ask them to repeat (TR2-POINT2) in L1. For example, TC1 reported:

Especially after years and years of teaching, you can see the way they frown, the way they look at you. You can see how puzzled they are (...) by looking at the students' eyes, gestures, mimics you know if they are ok with it or if they are completely lost (TC1-INT1).

Likewise, in her interview, TC5 said she used L1 in her lesson a lot when she noticed that students were having a problem in understanding: were staring 'boş'⁵² (TC5-POINT1) implying that she had developed a familiarity with such a look. Conversely, when TC2, TC4, TR5 and partly TC1 and TC3 noticed this they continued explaining in L2. Thus, their resistance time was longer.

Parallel to studies on CS, participants generally agreed with the feeling (Canagarajah, 1995) that reprimanding students should be done in L1 otherwise students would not understand (Hobbs, Matsuo, & Payne, 2010) or pay attention (Tabaku, 2014), which was the second aspect.

Four teachers in particular (TR1, TR2, TC3 and TC5) said that there were times as a teacher they got frustrated and used L1. Close analysis of this revealed that the feeling was a result of an annoyance or frustration and L1 was the reaction. For example, in one of her classes TC3 was doing reported speech and focusing on the changes in modal verbs

⁵² blankly

(e.g. shall into should, may into might) when the main verb was a tense in the past. She was writing a list of the modal changes on the board. At that time, one student kept asking ‘(shan’t) n’olacak?’⁵³ (TC3-Obs.1). This question spread among students and became a common concern. TC3 turned to the students and responded in L1: ‘(shan’t) ı nerden öğrendiniz? Tutturdunuz derste bir (shan’t) gidersiniz. Nerden çıkardınız’⁵⁴? This is what she said about this:

Yorulduyduum artık. Yorulduyduum artık. Ama biz bu (shant)ı nerde öğretiyoruz? Yani Cem Yılmaz’dan hocam dediler. Orda artık ben hoca değilim. Direkt orda diyalog kuruyoruz. Yani şey değildir; burda öğretme amaçlı değil, belki olabilir biraz, yani bunu kullanmayın!, bunun üzerinde durmayın! Şu anda en önemli konu o değildir! Onun üzerinde vurgu yapmak için da söylemiş olabilirim büyük ihtimal. Ama birazcık da sitem etmiş olabilirim kendilerine. Öyle bir şey da olabilir. Ama yani bu (shant) ı nerden buluyorsunuz? (...) sitem etmiş olabilirim yani. Benim size göstermediğim sürekli kullanmadığım bir şeyi niye böyle çıkartıyorsunuz karşıma? gibisinden. Diyalogdur zaten. Gördüğün gibi direkt cevap da verdiler. Cem Yılmaz hocam. Devam edebilirdi yani diyalog. O zaman Cem Yılmaz’a söyleyin size öğretsin deyip geçebilirim. Var öyle diyaloglarımız⁵⁵(TC3-POINT1).

There was a common understanding that students were more likely to get the message of frustration of the teacher if the teacher spoke in L1, supported by TR4. This was a conversation between her and a student:

(TR4 is about to do the listening handout distributed in the previous lesson).

Std1: (Hocam ekstra) hand-out (var mı?)⁵⁶

TR4: (Napiyorsunuz acaba bu handout’ları? Merak ediyorum)⁵⁷(TR4-Obs.1).

TR4 later said that using L1 was not an unintentional act here. She used it to be clear in her reaction:

⁵³ what about shan’t (TC3-Obs.1)

⁵⁴ Where did you learn (shan’t) from? You keep saying it in our lessons. Where did it come from? (TC3-Obs.1)

⁵⁵ I was tired then. I was tired. But, where do we teach this (shan’t), I mean, they said from [a popular Turkish comedian] Cem Yılmaz. There, from that moment on, I’m not the teacher anymore. We build a dialogue then. I mean, it’s not, we’re not doing it to teach it, may be a little bit, so don’t use it! Don’t worry about it too much!, it’s not that important now! So I may have used it to focus on that most probably but I also may have reproached them. But I mean where did you find this (shan’t)? (...) so I might have reproached them, I mean don’t use it. Why do you come up with something that I don’t use? It’s a dialogue as you’ve seen, they’ve also answered directly. It could have continued, I could have told them to ask Cem Yılmaz to teach them. We have such dialogues (TC3-POINT1)

⁵⁶ My hodja, do you have an extra hand-out?(TR4-Obs.1).

⁵⁷ I wonder what you do with these hand-outs? (TR4-Obs.1).

Because when you want your message to get through, you have to use L1 because this happens again and again(...)And we say it in English, they don't listen most of the time. That's the problem. So if I'd said: friends, what are you doing with these things? Why are you getting extra ones? I thought I wouldn't get a response. So, whenever I really want my message to get through, I use L1. So that was one of the things (TR4-POINT1).

TC5 who in fact used L1 most for this function also implied that using L1 in managerial situations was a habit of hers:

...canımı sıkıyon! ya da beni kızdırma! mesela bu tür şeyleri. (Don't make me angry!) demem mesela yani anladın?⁵⁸ (TC5-POINT1).

Another participant who used L1 for this function a lot was TR1. He explained that his intention where class management was concerned was not to teach English or provide input, but simply handle the situation. Referring to his lessons, there was an instance when two students were playing with their phones and TR1 approached them and simply said in Turkish 'ver'⁵⁹ (TR1-Obs.2). He simply wanted to get his message across and for him the easiest way for students to understand him was utilising L1.

Nonetheless, there were also some deviations in teachers' use of L1 for this purpose. Though similar uses of L1 were abundant, it is difficult to say that the same participant always used this code for this purpose. For instance, to react to a student who kept interfering TC4 said:

(Ne zaman konuşup, ne zaman konuşmayacağını ben söyleyeceğim⁶⁰) (TC4-Obs.1).

However, using L1 in this sense only happened in this lesson. In Obs.3 TC4 used L2 to express his frustration at a student who answered his question by responding to to him in L1 and said: 'Stop using Turkish, if I ask you something in English, answer me back in English'. My presence as an observer could have been the reason for this. Still, it is difficult to generalise TC4s behaviour in this respect.

⁵⁸ ...things like you are getting on my nerves! or don't make me angry. I don't say: Don't make me angry! You see. (TC5-POINT1).

⁵⁹ give it to me (TR1-Obs.2).

⁶⁰ I will tell you when you can and cannot talk (TC4-Obs.1).

4.2.2.1.2 Building Rapport

In line with various studies on CS, teachers utilised L1 to build rapport. However, still it would not be wise to draw the same conclusions as Canagarajah (1995). Based on the findings, he makes two distinctions of the language used: impersonal (i.e. lesson content) and personal/homely language (e.g. jokes). This study partially supports this. While both TCs and TRs teachers used L1 to build rapport, the TCs (e.g. TC4) also used L2 for this purpose.

Though there were some instances against this (particularly by TC4), it can be concluded that in line with Canagarajah's (1995) study, L1 (i.e. Turkish) came to be symbolically associated with advice ('daha iyi olucak'⁶¹;TR4-Obs.2), moralising and addressing students ('arkadaşlar'⁶²;TR3-Obs.3) as well as checking their understandings ('di mi?'⁶³; TC1-Obs.1). In this sense L1 had a warm, soothing, encouraging or mitigating effect. The following is an example of such use by TC1. In this situation, she used L1 to point out students' errors and give instructions respectively in a humorous way. In this lesson, the students were repeatedly making the same mistake and TC1 used L1 to show her reaction to this in a softening way, which created rapport as all the students ended up laughing:

*TC1: ..Can you read your line please?
Std. [reads the answer] What is he/she like?
TC1 (amaaan!)⁶⁴ first the question. Situations first (yani).
SS: laughing (TC1-Obs.2).*

The example above shows how the use of L1 had a mitigating effect and that thanks to her experience in teaching she knew she could create that atmosphere. TC1 made it clear in her interviews that she agreed in the use of L1 for building rapport. For her, L1 'breaks the routine' (i.e. students listening to English) and makes the lesson more 'interesting and fun' (TC1-POINT1).

Teachers in this study expressed that L1 helped build rapport, which was a feeling they gained through experience. This is what TR2 said for example, for this function of L1:

Onu yapmak [anadili kullanmak]samimi geliyor çünkü ben onu tecrübe ettim yani hani. Mesela şöyle bir şey oldu. Dedim hayır bu dönem hiç Türkçe yok, hep

⁶¹ it's going to be better (TR4-Obs.2)

⁶² friends (TR3-Obs.3)

⁶³ right (TC1-Obs.1)

⁶⁴ Good heavens! (First the question. Situations first (I mean))(TC1-Obs.2)

İngilizce. Ve dönem sonunda öğrencilerin partnerimle olan ilişkisi çok farklı, benimle olan ilişkileri çok farklıydı (...) yani böyle biraz benimle mesafeliydi yani. Oysaki benim hiç öyle bir sorunum olmaz. Öğrencilerle hemen işte o (rapport) hemen kurulur (...) sonra onu fark ettim işte. Hiç Türkçe kullanmıyorum sınıfta ve deneyince, onun değiştiğini hissettim. Yani biraz böyle samimiyet kattığını hissettim. Yani mesela şeyi hissettiriyo öğrencilere: ben de sizinleym⁶⁵ (TR2-INT1).

TR2's other comments to why she had used L1 in one of her lessons to help students complete a task indicated how internalised her practice had become:

Hep birlikte bunu yapmamız gerekiyor (...) Ama farkında olmadığımı fark ettim. Şu an çoğu şeyi şu an mesela fark ettim. O ilginç (TR2-POINT1)⁶⁶.

Both TR2 and TR1 also expressed that L1 was genuine in that it gave the students the sense that the teachers knew how their students felt and empathized with them (TR1-INT3).

There also seemed to be a double washback of students' use of L1 here, too. As the students kept talking in L1 the teachers ended up using L1 to build rapport.

What this study supports in Canagarajah's (1995) study is that L2 was used for interactions demanded by the lesson or the textbook (provided there was no misunderstandings on the students' side). An indication of this is the fact that it was English that was always written on the board. However, what it does not support is that all other interactions were in L1. L2 was used for making jokes, or warning students, too, particularly by the TCs. I believe this was a result of teachers' cultures of learning. Unlike the aforementioned study, the TCs did not resent the use of L2 (a common characteristic in post-colonial countries). Thus, they did not see it an act of de-valuing of their language when used for this purpose.

⁶⁵ Doing that [using L1] is more genuine because I experienced that, I mean. For example, something like this happened. I said to myself no Turkish this semester all English and towards the end of the semester my students' relationship with my partner and me were completely different (...) they were a bit distant to me, however, I never have such a problem. I [normally] immediately build (rapport) with the students...then I noticed I don't use any Turkish in class and when I tried using it I noticed the change. I mean it added a feeling of closeness. I mean, it makes the students feel that I'm also one of you (TR2-INT1).

⁶⁶ It's[L1] like, I wanted to show them that we have to do this together (...) but I didn't realise it. I noticed many things now, that's interesting (TR2-POINT1).

4.2.2.1.3 The nature of the subject matter

The nature of the subject matter also made teachers decide to alternate between codes (Tabaku, 2014; Greggio, & Gil, 2007).

In vocabulary teaching, for example, participants believed that some words were better taught in L1 (some is used in order not to contradict with their exposure belief) or L1 is more ‘mantıklı’⁶⁷ (TR5-INT1). Nonetheless, participants all had different definitions of some words (e.g. ‘leave[ing] students in the dark’; TC1-POINT1; i.e. making them feel uncertain).

Although these words changed among participants, some words created uncertainty on the teachers’ side (TR3-POINT1). They could not be sure whether the message had gone across, thus switched to L1. In this way, they felt more secure as a teacher in that it ‘mantıklı geliyor’⁶⁸ for them (TR2-POINT1) and was sometimes more ‘akılda kalıcı’⁶⁹ (TR3-POINT1). My interview with TR5 was descriptive in this matter. In his observations, TR5 was very resistant, not using L1 for explanation of vocabulary (due to his educational background), but I noticed the opposite in giving the definition of only one word ‘interpret’, which caught my attention. Here is how he explained this:

Şimdi ben o kelimeyi daha önce de öğrettim. Çocuklar (interpret) kelimesinde gerçekten zorlanıyorlar. Neyi ifade ettiğini anlayamıyorlar. Çünkü aslında Türkçe’de yorumlamak bile değil. Düşündüğünüzde bence, hani farklı bir şey. Ve onu genel kullanım içerisinde zamanla öğreniyorlar (...) Çünkü bence zor bir kelime onlar için. Ya açıklamak. Yani ben açıklasam bile çok kafalarında kalmıyor. Ben iki dönemde onu gözlemledim. Bazı tabu kelimeler var ve bence onları biz direkmen ana dilde söylemeliyiz. Yani (support) etmeliyiz⁷⁰(TR5-POINT1).

For the participants, not giving the L1 equivalent would have bad consequences. TC2 said he would give the L1 equivalent of a word (not all) because he thought they should learn

⁶⁷ sensible (TR5-INT1)

⁶⁸ it makes sense (TR2-POINT1)

⁶⁹ memorable

⁷⁰ Now, I taught that word before. The kids have difficulty understanding the word (interpret), they can’t understand what it refers to. Because in Turkish it is not even interpret. When you think about it, I mean it’s something else. And they learn it in time when they see it being used in general (...) because I think it is a difficult word for them. And what about the explanation. I mean even if I explain it, they forget it; that’s what I’ve observed in the two semesters. There are some taboo words and I think we should directly tell them in the native language, I mean we should (support) this (TR5-POINT1).

and ‘emin olmaları lazım’⁷¹ (TC2-POINT1), assuming that they would not learn or not be sure without L1. However, he only did this once in his three lessons. Similarly, TC3 believed that students misused some words in English meaning that by simply giving an English equivalent or synonym students develop a kind of false learning. Based on her experience in teaching (and also negative learning experience; see section 4.2.2.3.1), she said that this came to surface ‘başka bir context’de⁷² (TC3-POINT3) (also supported by TR5-INT2). By using L1, she could ‘cross check’ (TC3-POINT2; TR3-POINT1) and in this way, she could ‘emin oluyorum’⁷³ (TC3-POINT2) they learnt the word correctly.

In grammar teaching, teachers also believed that the best way to make sure that students understood the subject matter was to utilise L1. TC3 said she used L1 for cross checking especially. She claimed it was a way to emphasize the most important point at that moment. It was like a timeout. Students forgot about L2 for a moment and focused on the ‘analiz’⁷⁴ (TC3-POINT2) or the concept of the grammar point.

TC5 added that in grammar teaching a connection between L2 and L1 should be encouraged. For her, once L1 was used, the process of teaching soothed (i.e. ‘daha kolaydır öğrencinin anlaması’⁷⁵TC5-POINT1). She gives an example of this:

Yani en basit örneği, dün (as if)leri verirdim.. Evet anladılar aslında ama böyle bakarlar yüzüme yani. Evet hocam tamam da nedir bu? miş gibi yapmak; gibi görünmek deyince film koptu orda. Tamamen anladılar mesela. Yani bu kadar basitleşir olay. Kaç saat daha anlatırım yani olayı sorun değil. Bir Türçesini söylen, hayatını kurtarın’⁷⁶ (TC5-POINT1).

She later added that she did not ‘See the point’ (TC5-POINT1) in responding to students’ L1 questions in L2 when the focus was on the concept of the grammar point.

⁷¹ be sure

⁷² in a different context (TC3-POINT3)

⁷³ make sure(TC3-POINT2)

⁷⁴ analysis(TC3-POINT2)

⁷⁵ easier for the student to understand(TC5-POINT1)

⁷⁶ I mean, one basic example; I was teaching (as if) yesterday... Yes, they understood it actually but they were staring blankly at me. When I said look miş gibi - (as if-) Yes teacher that’s right - right then there was light and they understood it. I mean it gets so easy. I can explain it for hours, no problem. You say the Turkish meaning you save their life (TC5-POINT1).

TR3 also considered L1 to be an advantage. She stated that in grammar teaching she strictly tried to follow a presentation- practice-production (p-p-p)⁷⁷ format (see Hobbs, 2007a for ppp) with limited L1 (TR3-FU2). She actually did this when teaching reported speech. She resisted students' L1 questions as well as comments and answered back in L2. However, she changed codes with one student. She was monitoring the class when one student asked her a question. She first replied in L2, but when she saw the message was not clear, immediately switched to L1. In her interviews, TR3 says using L1 was 'kaçınılmaz'⁷⁸ (FU1) in this sense (see 4.2.2.3.3 why she believed so).

It would be misleading to claim that teachers were correct or not in their decisions. Studies indicate that teachers' beliefs and students' beliefs match, especially when teachers and students share the same profile (Polat, 2009). However, whether in this study teachers' beliefs matched students' beliefs or not needs further research.

I discussed previously how students' L1 use made teachers use L1, too. I believe it significant to point out here also that the nature of the subject matter also determined the extent of this influence, which explains why some teachers' use of L1 differed substantially in certain lessons (see figure 10).

4.2.2.2 Further discussion on tensions and teachers' experiences-reshaping practices instantaneously

However, where there are felt tensions, teachers can bend their practices. This suggests that beliefs can be re-shaped instantly as teachers go along. If teachers bend their practice due to the tensions they experience in class and their judgements (which are based on their in-class experiences), then this study confirms the argument that teachers' practices are instantaneous (Woods & Çakır, 2011). Though there are cultural frames as discussed in 4.2, there also seem to be individual frames based on certain class events (e.g. feedback from students).

Although teachers had certain previous beliefs about what to do in-class there were instances where they experienced tensions between their beliefs and practices to some

⁷⁷ (the lesson starts with a presentation of the grammar, followed by a guided practice such as match the two halves of the sentences and a production stage where students were asked to produce something such as information gap activities)

⁷⁸ inevitable (TR3-FU1)

extent. Adding to the examples in sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, during the beginning of my interview with TC1, she posited that L1 should be used only if really necessary and she would not use L1 for vocabulary teaching. However, during POINT3 she opined that she had to utilise L1 while explaining the reading task and used L1 for vocabulary, too. She had tried to explain in L2 twice before she used L1 but got no response from the students. Therefore, she decided to use L1 'let me explain this in Turkish' (TC1-Obs.3). Then, she did it and it worked as the students started discussing what they had initially understood in L1. In POINT3, she said it was the right way to go. Therefore, she made a decision at that moment, applied it and later explained it. This shows that for TC1, using L1 appeared to be an instantaneous decision (not planned) for that particular task and question and, because it worked, she came to believe it was necessary.

Similarly, while TC4 criticised himself for using L1, he then later tried to justify his act positing that the student would have had difficulty understanding him. Moreover, the examples in 4.2 where teachers' CS was influenced by the students L1-use indicate tensions or switching from their own personal experience and professional training to what could be done in the classroom. These I believe are indications that the actual classroom practices within that instant had caused them to rethink their pre-conceptions (Woods & Çakır, 2011) as they were able to provide an explanation for their practice:

...with that student it would have been difficult [to explain in L2] (TC4-POINT1).
...why would I leave them in the dark [by not using L2] (TC1-POINT1).

In these quotes, the teachers highlight their individual experiences, which was something that kept being repeated by all teachers in all POINTS. They considered these interviews as a place where they could voice themselves.

The study also shows that teachers' beliefs are also shaped by in-class practices specifically by the interaction with students and the students' feedback. The teacher plans his/her practice to control the result of the lessons. However, these results cannot be anticipated due to the involvement of the students whose expectations may be different from those of the teachers (and in this case this was observed more with the TCs) (Woods, 1997). The reasons listed above accounting for teachers' use of L1, especially the ones related to students (their attitudes, their use of L1 and the students' lack of understanding)

leads us to another conclusion: students also play a significant role in the decision-making of teachers to a certain extent. That is, they are also the decision-makers in-class.

4.2.2.3 Teachers' background

Gathered from interviews, observations and post observation interviews, data in this section mirrors that of Flores & Day (2006) on novice teachers, and Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) on language practices of NS and NNS coming from different backgrounds, by suggesting that teachers' background (i.e. prior and professional education and family/friends/peers) and their beliefs about their language practices resonate. As such, teachers' backgrounds acts as an interpretive framework for their beliefs and practices. However, this study adds to both studies in that it is not limited to novice teachers, as Flores & Day's (2006) study, and exemplifies how these beliefs manifest teachers' in-class language practices. Likewise, unlike Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne's study (2010), the impact of family, friends and peers are also highlighted as influential in framing these teachers' beliefs about their language practices (Altan, 2012).

Data related to the participants' backgrounds are presented along with three chief dimensions: prior learning experiences (considering teachers' past experiences as pupils); professional training (teachers' overall assessment of their training experiences as well as their implications for the formation of their belief of L1 use); and family/friends/peers (elaborating on how their biographies, friends and peers shaped their perceptions of themselves and then influencing their beliefs of L1-use). This will be presented with regards to their exposure and L1 beliefs.

4.2.2.3.1 Prior learning experience

Echoing the findings of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010), data revealed that participants' prior experiences as pupils played a facilitating role in participants' beliefs about their language practices. Teachers reverted to their prior learning experiences (as students) in teaching in their beliefs about code-choice. Looking back on their school-days, the participants recalled both the negative and the positive incidents that marked their lives as pupils.

For the TCs (not TC5), language exposure at school was perceived as a positive experience. To illustrate, TC1 opined:

You instantly start thinking that if I had learnt well that way, so could the students (TC1-FU).

Certain teachers wanted to bring into class their learning habits. For example, both TC1 and TC4 expected to be addressed as Miss (TC1) and Sir (TC4). They said they were not happy otherwise as it was ‘aışkanlık’⁷⁹ (TC4-POINT3) from school [as a student] . Here is an example form TC1s class:

[Std1 wants to ask a question to his teacher. Looks at her and says]

SI: (Hocam)

TC1: (Bir Miss demeyi öğretemedik size)⁸⁰(TC1-Obs.2).

Similarly, when TC4 was addressed as ‘Sir’ by a student, I asked him how it made him feel. Unlike TC1, in the lessons I observed, he did not immediately correct students. Thus, he is not trying to change his students’ habits (perhaps as a sign of respect to his students’ culture) but still expects them to behave in a way that fits with the British culture just like he did as a student. He also pointed out that students addressing their teachers otherwise was negative ‘interference’ (Krashen, 1982, p.27):

...öğrencilere de ben onu derim çünkü öğrenciler (teacher teacher teacher) da çok doğru bir şey değil aslında söylenmesi. Hatta bazen derler bana (Teacher! yes student! derim ben da. Nasıl yani derler falan. O yüzden (Sir) demeleri daha uygun bulurum ya da TC4 demelerindansa veya Mr. TC4. Mr. TC4 artık çok resmi bence⁸¹ (TC4-POINT3).

His exposure belief being so grounded, TC4 provided his students in return with exposure as can be seen in figure 9. Moreover, he was also consistent in his expectations and his own practice. He addressed his students as ‘ladies and gents’ (TC4-Obs.1), and not in L1, so was not sending mixed messages to his students Thus, I believe the reason for students’ insistence on calling him ‘teacher’ could be a difference between L1 and L2 rules and students’ cultures.

⁷⁹ a habit (TC4-POINT3)

⁸⁰ Std1: my hodja

TC1:I just couldn’t teach you to say Miss(TC1-Obs.2).

⁸¹ that’s what I tell the students because they call us (teacher teacher teacher) which is not really correct, so I mean, sometimes they call me (teacher) and I answer them by saying (yes student) and they get surprised. That’s why I find (Sir) more appropriate or TC4, or (Mr.) TC4. Mr. (TC4) is too formal, I think (TC4-POINT3).

Nevertheless, TC1 was the one sending mixed signals to her students in this respect. Though she used L2 for the most of the time, she addressed her students in L1 (4X), which she said was for attention grabbing (TC1-POINT3) and her observations support this as she used it especially when she wanted to point out students errors as in the following example:

TC1: Next question

SI: c

TC1: (arkadaşlar)⁸² how can it be c? Look at line 2 paragraph 4. Coke and Rock arrived in Turkey with American soldiers. Word by word false! (yani)⁸³(TC1-Obs. 3)

TR1's use of L1 as such could be explained by her teaching experience in a TR dominant context. She could be more familiar with the students culturally and thus be aware of the effect of this way of addressing students. She might be relatively more familiar with the students and know what gets their attention more.

However, there were some differences among the TCs indicating the heterogeneous nature of the group members. For example, for TC3, exposure was not always positive:

...İngilizcesini anlamlarını verdiğimizde daha sonra kullanımda hata görürüm, ya da başka bir (context) de ortaya çıkar ki İngilizcesini yanlış algılamış o yüzden biraz da (cross check) için kabul da ederim. Emin olmak isterim(...)ben gendim da (guessing meaning from context) bir zamanlar çok popülerdi ve (guessing meaning from context) çok yaptım ve bazı kelimeler, gerçekten yanlış öğrendim ve bazı kelimeleri düzeltemem ben mesela. Çünkü ben onu (context) de farklı algıladım. Ama esas tam anlamı o demek değildir. O kelimeyi öyle öğrenip öyle kullanmaya başladım mesela⁸⁴(TC3-INT2).

The negative experiences of the TCs were not as strong as the positive, allowing exposure to be held as a core belief.

⁸² friends (TC1-Obs.3)

⁸³ I mean (TC1-Obs.3)

⁸⁴ (...) when we give the English meaning I notice some mistakes when they use them later on or in other (contexts). I notice that they misunderstood the meaning, so, I would accept it [use of L1] sort of to (cross check). I want to be sure (...) and I used (guessing meaning from context) a lot and some words, I really learnt them wrong and some words I can't correct them because I learnt them in a different context. But the exact meaning doesn't mean that. I learned that word like that and started using it like that (TC3-INT2).

The TRs seemed be more homogeneous. Their negative experience in not receiving exposure shaped their exposure belief. To illustrate, TR3 who described the effects of the absence of exposure on her education opined:

Benim eğitimim sınava dayalı olduğu için ve o sınav teknikleri ve işte soru türleri ve bunun üzerinde geçtiği için, İngilizce ağırlıklı değildi. Türkçe ağırlıklıydı. Ve hani sonrasında bunu hani üniversiteye başladığım zaman bunun eksikliğini hissettim. Çünkü fark ettim ki ben konuşamıyorum akıcı (...) o nedenle hani bunu da bildiğim için herhalde sonuçta öğrenciler mümkün olduğu kadar duysunlar, duyduklarını anlamaya çalışsın. Bunlar önemli diye düşündüğüm için (...) benim (speaking) dersim olmadı hiç (...) Yani belki ben bunu kişisel olarak fark ettiğim için, kendi eksikliğimi. Bundan dolayı da İngilizceyi aslında duymalarının önemli olduğunu düşünüyor olabilirim⁸⁵ (TR3-INT3).

For TC5 and the TRs, prior learning experience also had an integral role in their leniency towards L1 use. Their experience in this respect made them empathise with students' desire for L1 (Ellis, 2006). They pointed to the tensions: crowded classes, students with low proficiency; whereby providing exposure (Payne, 2011) was challenging and switches to L1 inescapable (Kraemer, 2006).

...kim anlayacaktı gendilerini[İngilizce öğretmenleri] 35-40 kişi bir sınıfta? Haftada iki üç ders İngilizce ya da günde bir di hatırlamam da (...) hangi alt yapıdan gelecek[öğrenciler] da anlasın? İşte bizim gibi böyle Londra'dan gelecek ya ailesi bir bağı birşeyi olacak da kulak aşinalığı olsun da öyle. Bizim için bile, öğredirik da, ne kadar zordur bilin. Sen da öğretmensin, ne kadar zor olduğunu bilin İngilizce konuşmak sürekli⁸⁶ (TC5-INT3).

One of the biggest tensions was the pressure brought by exams. Coming from a background where there were high-stake exams, the TRs attached importance to exam practice. Making sure students understood (e.g. TR3-INT2), covering more exam practice

⁸⁵My education was based on exams; thus, exam strategies and question types and such, Turkish was the dominant language not English. And, actually, later on, when I became a student at university, I felt its [English] absence, I felt that I couldn't speak fluently(...)that's why, maybe, I think I can say that students should hear, be exposed, as much as possible to English (...) I never had speaking classes (...) I mean, maybe because I, myself, have experienced the absence and noticed it, I believe that it is important they hear English (TR3-INT3).

⁸⁶ ...who'd understand them [the English teachers]. 35-40 people in one class? With two or three English classes in a week or something. Maybe once a day, I don't really remember (...) what sort of a background did they [the students] come from? Well, only if they came from London like us or had a family or relatives there they could be familiar [with the language]. Even for us, although we're teaching it, you're a teacher too, you know how hard it is to speak English all the time (TC5-INT3).

(e.g. TR1-INT1) became more prominent and required L1 perhaps because they saw their own experience parallel to that of the students. Thus, when exam practice was involved they switched to TR. For example, TR2 said:

Evet sınava yönelik çalıştığımızda öğrencinin Türkçe sorusuna Türkçe cevap veririm. Language Leader yaparken (resistant) olmaya çalışırım⁸⁷ (TR2-FG).

TR3 also said that L2 may be too risky in the exam-based environment and that she did not want to be responsible for student failure and used L1.

Unlike the four TCs, the TRs and TC5, however, stated that it was unnatural, funny, and weird for them to address their students using English, and thus, used this function in L1 again something related to the TRs learning experience:

...(friends) dediğim zaman da kendimi iyi hissetmiyorum (...)bir kere yaptım onu açıkcası bir kere de bilerek yapmadım öyle çıktı ağzımdan konuşurken. Hocam ne (friends)' i ya dedi çocuğun teki. Haklısın ya ne (friends)' i ya⁸⁸ (TR3-INT3).

4.2.2.3.2 Participants' teachers

Teachers as role models also influenced teachers' beliefs. Most of them referred to the teachers they admired (TR3-INT1) and, in some cases, who had influenced their career choice (TR4-FG). Supporting studies by Numrich (1996) and Johnson (1994), former teachers were seen as positive (TC1-INT1; TR4-INT1) contributors in shaping these participants' L1 beliefs. Their teachers' use of L1 provided de facto guidelines for teachers as to when to use L1. These included building rapport, getting attention, reprimanding (usually with mitigating effect) and at times explaining difficult points. To illustrate, TC1 explained:

TC1: Miss Y did. I remember, she did[use L1]. Every now and then with her broken Cypriot-Turkish she would say something and we would laugh even more you know.(...)

I: Can you give an example?

TC1: I can't remember one incident but I can say if the class was getting really naughty and making jokes about the relationship about Romeo and Juliet you

⁸⁷ When we study for the exam, I answer students' Turkish questions in Turkish. I try to be resistant when studying Language Leader[coursebook] (TR2-FG).

⁸⁸ ..when I say (friends), I don't feel good (...) actually I did it once and not intentionally but it just came out like that. And the student said to me : my hodja what's with the friend? I thought he was right (TR3-INT3).

know awkward jokes, she would probably say Hadeyin be çocuklar⁸⁹ [with a Cypriot accent; like a mother would say to her kids] just to um make us stop. Things like that. Definitely not anything to do with the lesson (TC1-INT2).

Referring to her own language practices, TC1 only used L1 for explaining in Obs. 3 (though much shorter than TC5s) where she was doing a reading lesson and felt that students did not understand. Much of her L1s had a mitigating effect where students would laugh. For example, in Obs. 2 students were repeatedly making the same mistake by reading the line they were not supposed to. After many turns when one student repeated this she said:

*TC1: (Gözünüze perde inmiş sizin. Başka bir şey demiyorum size).⁹⁰
Stds: [laugh] (TC1-Obs. 2)*

Likewise, TR4's practice also resonated with her teachers' who she said had influenced her (i.e. 'role-model') her decision to become a teacher (TR4-FU).

She [teacher] would use mostly English. But she would tell jokes in Turkish. They were really hilarious because they were to the point, always. Or when everyone started speaking, she would definitely switch to Turkish and we would all wake up. I remember that's why I think switching works in my class. Because it was a really difficult year; it was the last year in high-school, we were all depressed because of our age and because of the university exam. But I always had a wonderful time in her lessons (TR4-FU).

She gave more specific details about her teacher's code-choice.

Whatever my problem was. So, she would switch yes (...). She would always, almost always use English but when she wanted to get our attention she would switch to Turkish. And other than that she would also talk to us about the current issues or our problems. It would be in Turkish, definitely. She also spoke to us in Turkish. And I remember she used words like canım, tatlım⁹¹, so it really affected me I think. She was a very good teacher. I can say (...) she gave lots of examples when she was teaching grammar points. Very relevant and funny examples. I try to do that now in my class (TR4-INT2).

The parallelism with TR4s teachers' practice lay in her choice to alternate in similar situations. To illustrate, in one of her classes she chatted on a current issue; the need to clean the trash in L1, in other classes she used L1 in teaching difficult points (i.e. grammar

⁸⁹ C'mon kids (TC1-INT2).

⁹⁰ the lights are on but nobody's home. I'm not saying anything else (TC1-Obs.2).

⁹¹ honey, sweetie

and vocabulary) and discussed a film they had watched and talked about the upcoming holidays. In all observations, she also used L1 to get attention ‘haydi’⁹² to bring them back to the lesson. L1 was a tool for her to build rapport with students and a chance to express themselves (TR4-INT3), which she witnessed had worked before as a student.

For four teachers (TC1 and TC3; at college, TR2 and TR3) their teachers excessive use of L1 was perceived as a negative experience.

4.2.2.3.3 Professional training

There seemed to be mixed influences of professional training on teachers’ beliefs. Some participants claimed professional training had no effect on their beliefs. To illustrate, TC1 and TC4 said they agreed with their professional training and the optimal use of L2 only because their professional training matched the belief that they had already formed as students. Thus, the effect of their professional training had been to confirm what they had already considered to be true.

The same can be said for TC2 and TC3 who said they had already believed in exposure when they started their professional training because they had experienced it as learners. Still, they reported they allowed more of L1 in class owing to the role L1 had in their learning English. TC2 opined:

Şimdi anadilinde anlaman bana sorarsan şarttır zaten. Gullanımı da şarttır. Şarttır derken demeyim aslında. Şarttır dersem gendimnan çelişeceyim. Ondan sonra, öğrendiğim metodlarınan çelişeceğim. Aslında ben de işe yaradı [L1]. Onun için düşünürüm belki da şart olduğunu. Ama ondan sonra bize öğretilen metodlarda benim uyguladığım metodlarda da ana dili gullanmadan da öğredebildiğimizi gördük. İşe yaradığını gördük. Şarttır demeyelim, bir alternatifdir değil. İşin açığı. bize başka bir alternatif sunmadıkları için öyle öğrendik. Öğrendik diye düşünüyorum⁹³(TC2-INT2).

⁹² C’mon

⁹³ Now, if you’re asking me I believe understanding [of what’s taught] in L1 is a must. It’s use is also a must, but, when I say “a must” actually I shouldn’t be saying it I’ll be contradicting myself and then it is also against the methods I’ve learned then. I mean actually it [L1] worked for me, so maybe that’s why I think about it like that and I saw through the methods we’ve been taught and the ones that I’ve applied I’ve seen that it works [without using the native language]. So I shouldn’t say it is “a must” but an alternative. To be honest, because we weren’t given an alternative that’s how we learned. I think we learned (TC2-INT2).

We can see how powerful his own learning experience was. That's why he cannot let go of that belief totally, despite having theoretically been taught the opposite, and at times making him feel he contradicts himself. Therefore, the TEFL belief seems to coexist (Dikilitaş, 2013) with his previous experience shaping his idea of L1 use today.

The TRs and TC5, however, said they were partially (or not at all TR1) influenced by their professional training. They said they favoured L1 perhaps more than suggested by their training course. They referred to the discrepancy between ICELT and tensions brought by the context in explaining why. I believe they did so because of the dominance of their own learning experience (they had witnessed the benefit of L1) over theories in professional training, hence, the similarity they attached to the reality of their own learning context and that of the students. Thus, they saw L2 perhaps as risky. TR3's quote supports this:

İlk senemde burdan almıştım [ICELT]. Hiç deneyimim yoktu. Şimdi orda aldığım, öğrendiğim şeylerle, sonradan sınıfa girdiğim zaman sınıfa baktığımda sadece bu bize öğütlenen politikanın aslında çok da işe yaramadığını fark ettim. Çünkü hep L2 yaparsak, bu sefer bir şekilde öğrencileri kaybettiğimizi düşünüyorum ben açıkcası⁹⁴ (TR3-INT2).

The quote above was a striking example of the imbalance between her own prior learning experience and professional training (i.e. ICELT). We see here how ICELT belief came to be weaker (peripheral). As a novice teacher, she tried to suppress what she had known or experienced about language learning and tried to become a tabula rasa and believed in ICELT. With time, she gained more experience (socialized with the school culture; see Flores & Day, 2006) and got to learn more about the reality she was teaching in; her learning experience seemed to resurface and this time suppress ICELT:

Sistem şu yüzden benziyor, bizi sınava hazırlayan bir sistem vardı. (Nationwide) bir sınavdı ve bizi, mesleğimizi belirleyecek bir sınavdı. Burdaki çocukların önünde bir sınav var eninde sonunda. Ve burdaki çocuklar da ya kalacak ya gidecek. Hani tamam ama burdaki şeyleri daha (clearly) belirtilmesi lazım. Bizim hazırlıktaki misyonumuz İngilizce öğretebilmek mi? (Acquire) mı etsin çocuk? Yoksa, bizim amacımız çocuklar sınavı geçsin mi? Ben ikisi arasında kaldım çünkü bu bir (dilemma) yaratıyor bence hocanın kendisi içerisinde (...)bu bir yıllık

⁹⁴ I did it [ICELT] here, in my first year. I didn't have any experience. Now, what I learnt there regarding [L2] policy and when I look at what I experience in class, I realised that it doesn't really work because when we use L2 all the time, I think we are somehow losing the students (TR3-INT2).

(intensive) program boyunca çocuklara zaten her gün bir şeyler yüklüyoruz [dilbilgisi kuralları] her gün ve bunu test ediyoruz. Sürekli olarak. Hoca olarak lüksün yok bunu ben böyle anlattım anlamadılar iki gün sonra (pop-quiz) Hadi bakalım. N'olacak hani tamam. Hani, şöyle düşünen hoca da olabilir; tamam ben görevimi yaptım: anlattım. Zaten benden İngilizce konuşmam bekleniyor diye düşünüp İngilizce konuşmam gerekiyo diye düşünüp, yaptım ben. Alan aldı, almayan olabilir. Ama işte ben onu yapamıyorum. Ondan, ana dile dönüyorum yani⁹⁵ (TR3-FU1).

These participants also said they believed in the significance of exposure, implying co-existence of beliefs. The content of the lesson seemed to be a factor in determining code-choice. For example, TR2 said she applied optimal L2 in doing the course-book (TR2-INT1). The coursebook enabled her to apply her ICELT knowledge as it was targeted towards a meaningful communicative task making it suitable to use L2 (TR2-FU2). Nevertheless, she said she did not see any point in resisting doing L2 when doing the text-book, for example (referring to a tension). Her observations confirmed this as her L2 use was highest then.

However, it would be misleading to say here that exposure belief was merely due to her professional training. Her learning experience also had a share in this. To illustrate, TR2 described that her learning involved learning from a language institution and that the course material was a course-book. Only L2 was used. Her ICELT training seems to have confirmed this. Thus, teaching in L2 was already something familiar to her. She saw how it worked as a student, explaining why she did not replace L1 in doing the course-book but included L1 in subjects other than the course-book.

⁹⁵ The system [at NCC and high-school] is similar in that we had a system preparing us for the exam. It was a (nationwide) test and it would be decisive in choosing our profession. In the end, these kids have an exam. And some will stay here and some will leave. I mean that's ok but, some things here should be (clearly) defined; like our mission here at prep-school; is it to teach English, to help them (acquire) it or to help them pass the exam? I'm stuck between these because it creates a (dilemma) even for the teacher (...) during this (intensive) one-year program we load the kids with lots already every day [grammar topics], and we test them continuously; thus, as a teacher you don't have a choice; I explained it like that and they didn't understand it and there you have a (pop-quiz) in the following couple of days. I mean, yes, there may be some teachers thinking that they've done their job; they are expected to speak English and they've done it, and the ones who got it got it and there may be some who don't understand, but I can't do this so I turn to mother tongue because of that (TR3-FU1).

To conclude, this seemingly minor influence of professional training on participants supports Hobbs' (2007b) argument that teachers enter teacher training courses with already established beliefs about teaching influenced by their high-school education. Thus, without critical examination of the effects of teaching practice on learning certain language, teachers are unlikely to change their practice (Borg, 2003). In this study, it was shown that this was true only up to a certain extent for the TRs (they used a great deal of L2), possibly related to the pressure the teachers were under working in an English-medium university.

4.2.2.3.4 Family background

It seemed that the regular use of the L2 by the TCs led to them experiencing 'bilingual language use' (i.e. having access to bilinguality regarding identity and family) (Ellis, 2006, p. 3), whereas the TRs were NNSs with limited access to the L2. Family background affected participants' perceiving L2 as natural or not and/or whether there was room for L1 in their teaching.

From the TCs, two (TC1 and TC4) experienced enculturation. They said they saw themselves as native because of their English lifestyle (communicating in English out of school, reading English-books, watching EnglishTV channels). These two participants were the ones who had stronger exposure beliefs and saw using L1 as an act of misconduct:

I don't like it when I use L1 to teach vocabulary. It's something I'm totally against (TC1-INT1).

However, with TC3 and TC5 there was not a total enculturation but more of a mixture of both cultures. For them, alternating between English and Turkish was something natural as it was how they used it in their personal lives. In explaining why their L1 use was higher compared to that of TC4, for example (see section 4.3.2), TC5 said:

Anneme gittiğim zaman, deyzemnan yeğenim gelir. Genelde ortam İngilizcedir çünkü bunlar hep İngiltere'de büyüdü (...) Bunlar bir araya geldiği anda hemen hemen hiç Türkçe yoktur. Ama şimdi benim modum çok değişir. Gün olur, giderim mesela ben da hep İngilizce konuşurum. Hatta bazen onlar Türkçe konuşur, ben İngilizce konuşurum. Öyle bazen da gün olur ısrarnan yani böyle İngilizce konuşamam. Yani ama daha önce bahsettiydim sana. Belki yorgun

*olduğumda, halim olmadığımda beynimi zorlayamam. Zorlama gereksinimi duyarım bilmem (...) ders da aynı özel hayatım gibidir*⁹⁶(TC5-INT3).

Moving on to TC2, I would say TC2 was inbetween enculturation, and a mixed culture. He implied that English and Turkish were part of his life but would not alternate between codes in his personal life.

Nonetheless, all TCs expressed that learning English for them was more like acquisition (e.g. TC2-FU1). Owing to their relatives in the UK and their close contact with them. This enabled TCs to go through an informal education in their learning of English; thus experiencing the benefit of exposure.

As for the TRs, Turkishness was at the centre of their beliefs affecting the way they perceived themselves and their language use:

And I really want to encourage them to integrate English into their own lives. That's not to say they should abandon their own culture. No way. Of course their mother culture, their mother language, I think it is their priority and for me as well (...) I really want them to learn about the culture of the language as well. And compare it with our own culture for example, so L1 in every sense holds a very big part of my teaching practice. Because I really believe a person should be competent in their own language first. I mean language, literature, culture whatever it includes and they can learn about the second one as well (TR4-INT3).

The connection of this to L1-belief is that considering themselves native-like, or belonging to a mixed culture or solely Turkish influenced teachers' leniency towards L1-use. For example, the TRs kept saying that it was unnatural for them to communicate in L2 with their TR students. Hence, as aforementioned, there was a feeling of de-valuing among those who did not consider themselves native with an L2-only policy.

Relating this to the school environment, SFL's policy appeared not to affect their beliefs, showing the mediating role of background over school policies. To illustrate, TC5 confessed she was not aware of the exact policy on the use of L1. Therefore, the school's

⁹⁶ When I go to my mums, my aunt and cousins come round too, and we speak in English because they all grew up in England (...) when this lot are together, there is almost no Turkish. But my mood changes. Sometimes I also speak English, there are times they speak to me in Turkish, and I respond in English. But as I mentioned before, maybe when I'm tired, I can't force my brain to speak English. Or maybe I feel I need to force it I don't know(...) the class is just like my personal life (TC5-INT3).

policy was relatively less important as she seemed to behave according to her feelings. That is, she used the code she wanted to rather than the code she had to.

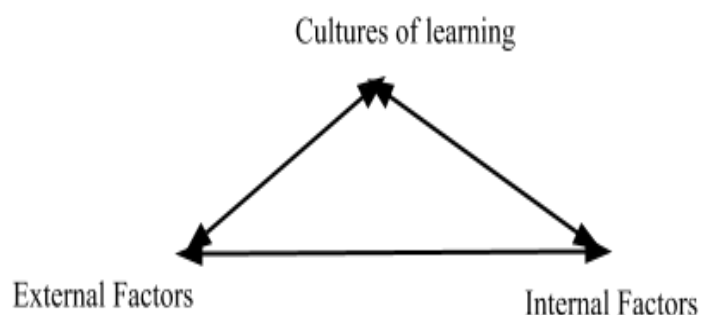
4.2.2.4 Further discussion on teachers' background

4.2.2.4.1 Discussions on cultures of learning

The current study mirrors the argument proposed by Cortazzi & Jin (1996) that shared groups possess similar knowledge about teaching. The study adds that there are certain factors that make up cultures of learning: external and internal factors. Internal factors, as beforementioned, comprise teachers' backgrounds and experiences in teaching. These made up the core cultures of learning in that they acted as a frame through which external factors were interpreted. External factors, which I will now subdivide as contextual external factors (e.g Borg, 1998: exams, time-constraints) and student-related external factors, are significant in shaping teachers' beliefs. They also help enhance teachers' cultures of learning as these factors provide feedback to the teacher in how to act in particular situations, That is, the interaction of these external and internal factors make up cultures of learning: they make up teachers' reality or knowledge of things and their beliefs. Their experiences in teaching, their socio-cultural backgrounds, and their prior learning experiences all add up and form their knowledge and beliefs of what works and does not work in-class. That is, they form de facto guidelines.

In this sense, I added a further step (cultures of learning) to my initial spectrum of influences on beliefs (see figure 3), proposing that before an idea or concept (i.e. using L1 or not) goes into one's beliefs, an interaction between internal and external factors occurs, which in turn shapes cultures of learning, as can be seen in the figure below:

Figure 4: Factors shaping cultures of learning



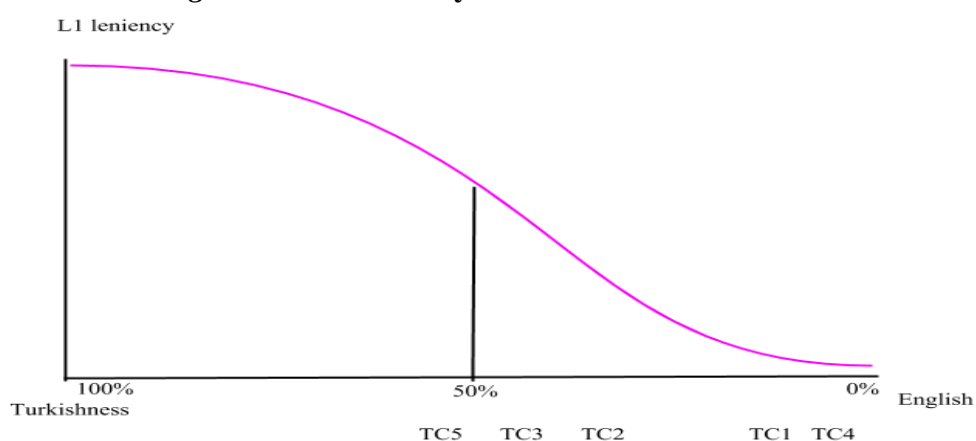
Now, I will present three examples to further elaborate on impact of cultures of learning on teachers' knowledge and beliefs in three points.

4.2.2.4.1.1 Framing teachers' leniency towards L1

The fact that teachers' leniency towards the use of L1 was framed by their cultures of learning is one example of this in this study. What this study found was that all teachers' leniency to L1 seemed to be dependent on teachers' perceived closeness to the language, which was due to internal factors.

For the TCs, there appeared to be a correlation between Turkishness and L1 leniency. The closer the participants considered themselves to the target culture (i.e. English), the less lenient they became towards the use of L1. As discussed in sections 4.1 and 4.2, TC5 said that she could use L1 upto 50%, TC3 30%, TC2 not much and TC1 and TC4 implied that it should not be used at all. The following figure depicts the correlation between TCs' L1 leniency and their closeness to the target culture:

Figure 5: TCs leniency towards L1-stated beliefs



Accordingly, it was clear that the general tendency among the TCs was to underscore the influence of the British culture. Though the TCs and the TRs share the same language, their historical past (i.e. Cyprus' being a postcolonial country) led these two cultures to attach themselves to different identities.

The TCs had ties to the UK, thus, for them, access to the monolingual and bilingual English community (i.e. TC expatriates) was easier. This in turn affected their lifestyles (e.g. watching English TV channels, using English in their daily life) and hence their identities.

This backs Woods & Çakır's (2011) argument that one tends to perceive the world (here language classes, students, teaching English) in a way their languages predispose. Accordingly, one's languages shape their understandings of their environment (Woods & Çakır, 2011), which also clarifies the difference in beliefs among the TCs and those of the TRs.

Considering TC5's distinction from the rest of the TCs, this could well be described by the identity fluctuations among TCs, resulting from the different socialization of TCs' generations into various socio-political environments (Vural & Rustemli, 2006). Though Vural & Rustemli (2006) appear to limit their study to the fluctuations from one generation to another (i.e. the elderly generation, the late adult generation, the adult generation, and the young adult generation) this study has shown that there seems to exist a similar fluctuation among the members of the same generation (adhering to Vural & Rustemli's definitions of what constitutes a young adult generation).

These fluctuations serve three significant roles in this study. First, it clarifies why some TCs opted for L2 exclusivity (TC1, TC2, and TC4), while others said CS was acceptable (particularly TC3 and TC5). Second, it explains why for TC3 and TC5 the same three words (i.e. 'L1 is alright') can hold different interpretations. It also defines why some participants' leniency towards L1 was challenged by other members in the same group (In the FG, TC3 and TC1 reacted to TC5's claim that 50% L1 was appropriate). This corroborates with the discussions of Littlewood (2001). It shows that it is important to avoid stereotyping when discussing cultures: though there may be certain similar aspects among cultures, differences also prevail.

Moving on to the TRs, they seemed to be a somewhat closed group whereby their Turkishness was at the centre of their identities. This was what they had implied (referring to their statements regarding L1 and the role of English in their lives). Also, referring to their prior learning experiences and prior teachers, one can infer that throughout their formal English at schools they had minimum exposure to English and its culture (Atay, 2005 & Kirkgoz, 2005)

It is also important to note here that though I acknowledge that there remain various ethnic sub-groups in Turkey (see Ergin, 2014), the reason why it has not been reflected in this

study could be because the TR participants in this study seemed to belong to similar socioeconomic backgrounds.

Therefore, referring back to the TC versus TR dichotomy, the distinct perceptions of identity resulting mainly from internal factors and partly from external (TCs not having had the same exposure to Turkish students as the TRs) have forged diverse frameworks regarding decisions to code-switch or not. In this respect, based on the participants' descriptions (see FG interview) the TCs seemed to be less lenient towards CS (not TC5) whereas the TRs were more lenient (owing to the diplomatic responses they gave). The TRs did not seem to have boundaries for the use of L1, implying that L2- exclusivity was not at the centre.

Here is an example of a TR participant who found it unnatural to utilise an L2 exclusivity:

TR1: (English policy) falan hiç şey yaptığım bir şey değil. Yapanları da biliyorum çok başarılı olduklarını da biliyorum. Gerçekten. İngilizce sorular soruyorlar, çocuklara hiç de şey yapmıyorlar. Yani İngilizce'nin dışına çıkmıyor yani bir (native) gibi kabul ederse hocasını o izlenimi de verirse hoca gerçekten böyle oluyor. Ama kişisel olarak benim gözlemlediğim şey ya (native) olması gerek onu yapması için ya da (native like speaker) olması gerekiyor. En azından şöyle olması gerekiyor yani bir yurt dışında doğmuş büyümüş, orda vakit geçirmiş olması gerekiyor.

I: Neden?

TR1: Bilmiyorum. Burda onu yapan bazı hocalar vardı. Biri N biri de A (...) onlar çok rahat kullanıyordu. Kültür olarak da zaten çok yakındılar. Kültür olarak çok İngiliz kültürüne entegre olmuş bir halleri vardı⁹⁷ (TR1-INT1).

Though it is speculative, this also reflects the discussion brought about by Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) that unless TR1's cultures of learning are not enhanced by teaching English to native speakers of English or having to teach in classes with international students, TR1 would still keep his attitude towards L2 exclusivity, even if there were no external factors like exam pressure or heavy schedule.

⁹⁷ TR1: All English policy is something I never apply. I know people who do it. I also know they are really successful. Really, they ask the kids questions in English, and they never um go out of that. I mean like if the students really accept their teachers as (native), the teacher really becomes one. But what I've observed, I mean to be able to do that you have to be (native) or a (native like speaker). I mean you have got to be born, brought up abroad or spent some time abroad.

I: Why?

TR1: I don't know. There were some teachers who did that here [at NCC]: N and A. For them, it was something absolutely natural (...) they were very close to the culture. They gave me an impression that they were integrated into the English culture (TR1-INT1).

The above paragraph also accounts for TCs' comments about 50 and 30% L1 leniency: '%50 çok fazla'⁹⁸ (TC1-FG) ... '%30 olabilir'⁹⁹(TC3-FG). Likewise, it explains why TRs perceived certain things (addressing students as friends) not natural as opposed to what TCs found natural (maximum exposure). Mirroring the findings of Dilin, Gil-Soon, Kyung-Suk, & Nan-Ok (2004) such comments like natural or not natural imply that there are some things with regards to CS that the teachers could not explain. I believe cultures of learning seems to account for the variety of these perceptions. Such an awareness underscores the necessity of the need for a critical body of research looking at teachers' values and beliefs associated with language, culture and heritage (Lytra, 2011).

4.2.2.4.1.2 Framing teachers' expectations of their students

In accordance with the findings of Wu (2008), this study also confirmed that teachers' sociocultural background framed teachers' observations and expectations of their students. For example, TC teachers' experience of being in the UK or being in close contact with expats in learning English, influenced them in expecting their students to use English in class. The reason for this was that this was the code they used when speaking in that language and they all learnt the language by actually speaking it. However, due to the identity fluctuations, the TCs had slightly differing views on this:

*Orda bir öğrenci var, derdini anladamaz çünkü İngilizcesi yoktur. Ama sen ona Türkçe konuşmasına izin verdiğin zaman, ben zekiyim aslında derdimi anlatabilirim ama İngilizce'de anladamam*¹⁰⁰(TC2-FG).

But elsewhere he said: 'İngilizce öğrenmek istersen, öğren konuşmayı da'¹⁰¹ (TC2-INT3). Joining these quotes, I deduce that though he empathises with his students to a certain extent he also expects them to use L2.

Bizde neydi: İngilizce konuşmaya da çalışırdık. Kimse hoca İngilizce soru sorduğunda Türkçe cevap vermeye çalışmazdı. Bizde doğrudan İngilizce şey yapmaya çalışırlardı. Çünkü İngilizce dersiydi. Niye Türkçe cevap veresin ki? Sen orda İngilizce ölçeceksen, Türkçe ölçmeyecek yani. Ben ortaokul liseden bahsediyorum. Sonuç olarak kimse bizim beynimizi sorgulamazdı anlıyor muyuz; anlamıyoruz: İngilizce anlıyor mun sen? İngilizce kendini ifade edebiliyor mun?

⁹⁸ 50% is too much' (TC1-FG).

⁹⁹ 30% is ok (TC3-FG).

¹⁰⁰ There's a student who cannot express himself because his English is not good. But when you let him speak in Turkish, he proves that he is intelligent, and that he can express himself, but not in English (TC2-FG).

¹⁰¹ if you want to learn English learn how to speak it (TC2-INT3)

diye düşünürdü. Biz ona göre hareket ederdik. Bilmediğimiz zaman bir şeyi öğrenci ne derdik (oh I don't know) [low pitch voice] derdi. Bilmiyorum hocam ama Türkçe sorduğunda yapayım falan da filan. E zaten Türkçe yapabileceğini senin biliyorum¹⁰²(TC4-FU1).

Moreover, this expectation was so high that the TCs criticised their students for not doing this and at times felt frustrated. For example, in one of his observations TC4 said to his student:

If I speak to you in Greek, speak to me in Greek. If I speak to you in English, speak to me in English (TC4-Obs.3).

This is why TC4 kept reacting to students' L1. He assumed that the students' L1 made him use L1 too, because he was not used to responding in a different code.

... in my family a lot of people speak Greek. But they speak Turkish or they speak Greek. They never mix it up. Like in my family for example, my mother grandmother when they speak Greek they just speak Greek. Never not even one word Turkish or when they are speaking. Cos they're [the students] always speaking to me in Turkish I automatically assume oh [I should speak in]Turkish (TC4-POINT1).

The rest of the TCs also had similar reactions. For example, TC1, TC2 and TC3 complained about the students not using L2 in the POINTS.

I want to be called Miss, that's the way I like it (TC1, POINT2).

Likewise, referring to her past experience in learning vocabulary (looking up words from a bilingual TC1 dictionary) TC1 said she wanted her students to learn the synonyms and antonyms of the new words. This backs her policy in teaching vocabulary:

I don't prefer using L1 in teaching vocabulary; I'm totally against it (TC1-FG).

¹⁰² What we did [as students], we tried to speak English. Nobody tried to give an answer to a question in Turkish. We tried to give an English answer because why would you reply in Turkish? It was an English course. Your level of English will be tested. Nobody was going to judge your Turkish. I mean, I'm talking about high-school and secondary school. In the end of the day, nobody judged our intelligence: can you or can you not understand? Everyone was concerned with whether you could understand and express yourself in English. We acted accordingly. When we didn't know something we would say (oh I don't know) [low pitch voice]. Nobody said my hodja I can do it in Turkish etc. I already know you can do it in Turkish (TC4-FU1).

However, in the following excerpt we see a TC who implies she had enhanced her cultures of learning: she saw the necessity to blend her own expectations with her students'. Thus, she increased her L1 use. In the beginning of the interview, she said 30% of L1 was appropriate. Her in-class use was also supportive of this. The following excerpt implies that the NCC context was influential in the development of cultures of learning. Not simply because of exam-pressure or heavy schedule but because she came to realise the expectations of her audience, her students, owing to the time she spent here with the TR teachers and students.

Ben ilk geldiğimde bana aynı gelmedi [önceki deneyimime göre]. Yani çok garip geldi hatta Türkçe anlatmak zorunda olmak. Çok zor geldi Türkçe anlatmak ama ikinci yılda her şey çok kolay geldi (...) Yani ilk geldiğinde şok yaşarsın! Ordan [Britanya] gelen bir insan için çok farklı bir ortam olur (...) alıştığın bir şeyi brakıp başka bir şeye alışın¹⁰³ (TC3-FG).

I believe it equally significant to note here the similarity of her own learning experience as well, whereby she also had room for L1 in learning. Thus, her own learning experience also led her to adapt to the context more easily perhaps.

Nevertheless, again owing to their socio-cultural background, the TRs were not expectant of their students using L1. Moreover, they either openly said or implied that they wanted their students to make connections in L1 when learning a new structure. This was most probably because they had not been expected to use L1 as students and that by experience they knew that linking with L1 was a good way to learn English. This resemblance of prior learning experience created a tacit agreement between the TR teachers and their TR students.

Ben çocuklara kıyamıyorum o nedenle. Şu an niye Türkçe konuşuyoruz? Çünkü rahat hissediyoruz; yani çünkü gerçekten şey değil ki normal değil yani normal değil yani. Şu an bizim İngilizce konuşuyor olmamız garip olacaktı. Bir şeyi gerçekten ne kadar öğrenirsen öğren, şey yapmazsan, o dilin konuşulduğu yerde uzun süre oturup böyle kalmazsan, bir şekilde öğrendiğin sana yetmiyor (...) Ama ben sınıfta şey olayını anlıyorum yani. Mesela sınıfta (group work) yaptırırken, İngilizce konuşun demem (...) Tartışınız, Türkçe yapabilirsiniz. Demiyorum

¹⁰³ ..when I first came here I didn't find it the same [to my previous teaching experience]. I mean in fact, having to use Turkish was very strange for me. It was very difficult. But then in my second year everything became much easier...When you first come you experience a shock! It's a very strange environment for someone coming from there [Britain] (...) having to change something you have got used to doing(TC3-FG).

özellikle (encourage) etmiyorum yani görmezden geliyorum öyle diyelim¹⁰⁴ (TR1-INT1).

Though it is speculative as to whether L1 was what the students actually expected when learning a new structure, as there were no interviews conducted with the students, there was evidence to suggest so. During the lessons, students kept asking for Turkish explanations. They also tried making L1 connections when learning a new structure or in justifying their answers to the teacher (Though this was discouraged by the TCs: ‘You are thinking in Turkish, don’t do that ‘TC2-Obs. 2).

Thus, supporting the studies of Cortazzi & Jin (1996) and Wu (2008) what this study has also shown is that teachers have a certain framework, or insight in Ellis’s (2006) terms, thanks to their cultures of learning, which guides their teaching. The closer the culture the more the teachers are aware of their students’ expectations and behave accordingly. The following quotes support this claim:

Kendi öğrencilik yıllarımdan örnekler veriyorum. İşte kitty kenter, böyle mutlu hissediyorlar¹⁰⁵ (TR5-FU).

Öğrencilerle empati kurabiliyorum, çünkü ben de sınavlara çalıştım. Yani öğrencilerin bazen niye açık açık bu budur diye direkt niye istediklerini anlayabiliyorum. Yani hocam bunu yapmanın en kolay yolu nedir? Hocam buna baktığım zaman nasıl anlayabilirim? Yani bazen bana bile yani (midterm) den iki hafta önce (communicative task)lar yapmak anlamsız geliyor. Belki benim öğrenci geçmişimden kaynaklanıyor, ben de bu sistemin parçasıydım ve biliyorum ve anlıyorum. Süreci kolaylaştırmak için ve onlarla bir (conflict) yaşamamak için, onların istediği gibi davranmaya çalışıyorum. Yani böyle (to the point) olmaya çalışıyorum. Senin de gözlemediğin gibi, öğrencilerin cevabının niye o cevap olduğunu daha iyi anlamasını istiyorum. Yani sadece okuyup açıklamak istemiyorum. Havada kalmasını istemiyorum. Görmelerini istiyorum. Onlara ipuçları veriyorum. Yani sanırım hatırlasınlar diye¹⁰⁶ (TR3-FU).

¹⁰⁴ I can’t be cross with the students. Why are we speaking in L1 between us [me and you as the interviewer] because we feel safer and it’s not normal. I mean it’s not normal. Us speaking in English would be really weird. No matter how much you learn something, if you don’t I mean if you don’t stay for a long time at a country where the language is spoken, what you learn doesn’t make you feel enough(...)but I really understand I mean in class when I do group work, I don’t say speak English(...)You can discuss ideas using Turkish. I don’t say it I mean (encourage) it [English]. I mean let’s say I ignore it [Turkish] (TR1-INT1).

¹⁰⁵ I give examples from my own learning experience: [how I used to mispronounce] city centre as kitty kenter and they feel happy (TR5-FU).

¹⁰⁶ I can empathise with my students because I’ve studied for the exams, too. I mean I can sometimes understand why I’m expected to deductively say this is that. So my hodja what

Consequently, what these quotes and discussions imply is what Nunan calls ‘agenda mismatch’ (Nunan, 1995, p.135) in aiming to describe the discrepancy between the teachers and the students. The TR teachers’ beliefs in the necessity of the learners making connections between the known (L1) and the unknown (L2) in learning a new structure have been supported by studies conducted with Turkish students (e.g. Şimşek, 2010). Depending on my observations, I deduce that there seems to be an agenda mismatch between the TR students and particular TC teachers. Similar to studies highlighting teachers’ and students’ different expectations (e.g. Liu & Littlewood, 1997) the TC teachers were concerned with focusing on the importance of L2-exposure, while the students were busy learning in their own ways (making connections with L1).

Moreover, I believe the current study also highlights that agenda mismatch can also be used to describe the discrepancy among teachers with different cultures of learning.

It has been evidenced above that cultures of learning affect the language used in class. Teachers’ distinct frames seem to be reflected in their ideas of leniency, functions (also teachers’ role) and their perceptions of their learners’ receptivity, thereby either reinforcing their commitment to L2 use or contributing to CS (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010).

4.2.2.4.1.3 Framing teachers’ perceptions of class events

Combining the idea of cultures of learning and teachers’ beliefs, this study has shown that teachers’ beliefs are culture or context laden (Woods & Çakır, 2011).

Teachers’ perceptions of their class events (i.e. the use of L1), compared to their judgments of the success of the lesson (L1 use was appropriate or not), was dependent on

is the easiest way to do this. So my hodja how can I understand when I look at this[question]. I mean sometimes even for me like two weeks before the (midterm) it seems pointless to do (communicative tasks). Because due to my student past maybe because I was also a part of this system I know and understand. To ease the process, and not to be in (conflict) between them I try to behave in the way they expect. I try to be I mean (to the point). As you might have observed, I want the kids to know better why the answer is what it is. I mean I don’t want to just read and explain. I don’t want it to stay up in the air. I want them to see it. I give them clues. I mean like so they can remember, I think. (TR3-FU).

their goals, which were determined by their existing knowledge and beliefs of how things are and how there are supposed to be (Woods, 1997). Woods (1997) describes this as 'receptive structuring' (para. 20), where the interpretation of class events can be considered not to match the planned structure. Accordingly, TC4, who code-switched only twice in one of his lessons, criticised himself for doing so. Similarly, TC1, TC2 TC3 and TC4 considered their lessons as unsuccessful because their students did not use L2, which was opposed to their own cultures of learning. On the other hand, for the TR teachers, a class who simply did their work (no matter what language they were using) was deemed successful. This supports Woods' (1997) argument that due to interpretive processes, two teachers' interpretations of what happened in a particular class might differ.

Teachers have their own personal interpretations of the same idea owing to their individual (and, in a broader sense, cultural) experiences (Woods & Çakır, 2011). As a result, a varying perspective towards CS occurred between the TCs and the TRs.

4.2.2.4.2 Discussions on teachers' beliefs

Referring back to the relatively low impact of professional training, the study supports the idea that theoretical (impersonal) knowledge is reshaped (becomes personalised) when theoretical knowledge relates to one's experience (Woods & Çakır, 2011).

This also suggests that these teachers' theoretical knowledge of L1 usage was shaped by their experiences (internal factor; see figure 4) and this in turn created a personalization of the theoretical information they had received during their professional education (Woods & Çakır, 2011).

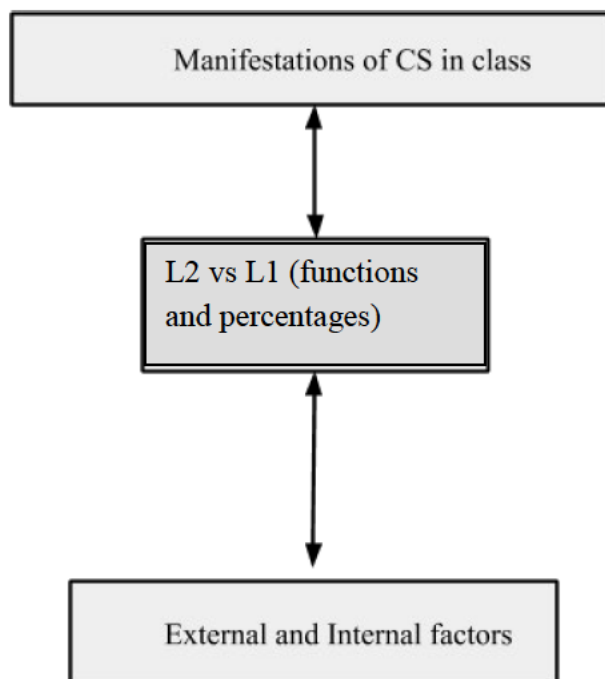
Both TRs and TCs had personalized their theoretical knowledge and come up with different practices. For instance, the TCs were very confident in their theoretical knowledge of 'less L1' as they had witnessed it work, both as students and as teachers in various contexts. Thus, they believed that what they knew worked. They had personalized their theoretical knowledge through their experience. The TRs, however, suggested bending this theoretical knowledge. Coming from a similar background to their students, they believed that their current students would go through a similar learning path to their own and thus empathized with them and used L1 more than their theoretical knowledge would suggest.

For researchers such as Phipps & Borg (2009), the reason for this could be explained by the idea of core and peripheral beliefs. I certainly agree with this, but also believe in the necessity of recognising the factors shaping these two types of beliefs. Woods' (1996) argument seems to cater for the explanation of why people hold different beliefs. He suggests that previous experiences have a pivotal role in the way we perceive things. Accordingly, we tend to target our attention to things that relate to us, while those that do not are more likely to lead to apathy. Therefore, the TC participants' tendency, for example, was to get their students to use L2 to make their L2 sound natural, while the TRs were mainly trying to get their students to come to grips with what they were explaining, and used L1. Though the TCs also showed actions that went against their beliefs, their general tendency was to maintain their L2-belief system intact. This leads me to two main conclusions: we must be wary of the idea that all teachers react in the same way to external factors. Not all teachers believe that the pressure of upcoming exams makes them use L1. In fact, in their interviews TC2, TC4 and TR5 stated that these did not shape their actions at all (though they reacted to them) and they were the ones who used very little L1.

4.3 Manifestations of CS in class

Here, I present findings mainly from the observations. Manifestations can be considered from two aspects. The functions and percentages for which both L1 and L2 was used, and the influences (internal and external) on teachers' practices. Results showed the interplay between these two aspects.

Figure 6: Manifestations of CS in-class



4.3.1 L2 vs L1: Functions and Percentages

4.3.1.1 L2 vs L1: Functions

Parallel to the study of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) in analysing observational data, I considered the functions (e.g. explaining) and noted each time the teacher moved from one function to the other. In practice, analysis was qualitative and pre-determined sets of functions were not imposed but rather discovered from careful examination, labelling and confirmation (i.e. co-construction) with teachers in the POINTS. The 16 functions that have been mentioned elsewhere were as follows:

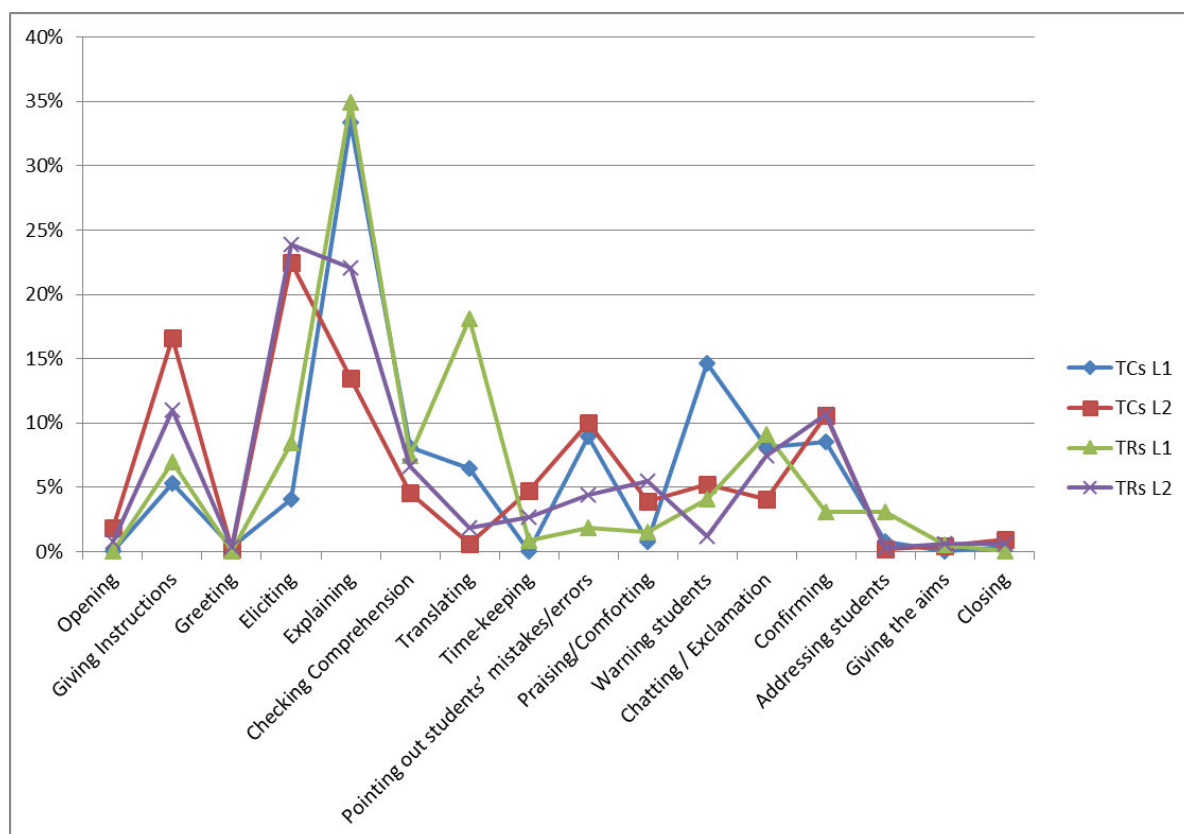
- Opening
- Giving Instructions
- Greeting
- Eliciting
- Explaining(grammar+vocabulary+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes of the correct answers for multiple choice questions+learner training; giving students clues to solve questions)
- Checking Comprehension
- Translating (a word or a sentence)
- Timekeeping
- Pointing out students' mistakes/errors
- Praising/Comforting

- Warning
- Chatting / Exclamation
- Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok)
- Addressing students
- Giving the aim of the lesson/activity
- Closing

There are similar categories in the study of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010), on the use of English in the Japanese classrooms by NS and NNS and Kraemer (2006), on the use of English in German classes. This implies that teachers in EFL/ESL classes, in various parts of the world, utilise CS in-class for similar reasons further suggesting that in-class CS follows a particular pattern.

The distribution of the functions among TCs and TRs were as follows:

Figure 7: Functions of TCs' and TRs' L1 and L2 use



Significant conclusions can be drawn from this chart. What became apparent was that the use of L1 and L2 were minimal at certain times and more frequent in the others, which accords with Greggio & Gill (2007).

L1 was mostly used for explaining by both parties (TCs 33% and TRs 35%) confirming the tensions posited by participants. They wanted to make sure students understood them, which was a result of mainly contextual factors. Exam pressure, student profile and subject matter when combined with students' attitudes seemed to have made L1 inevitable. Internal factors, mainly background, served as an 'interpretive framework' (Golombek, 1998, p. 451) in this process: it kept reminding the participants to use L2 or not.

This result had further implications. It showed that participants were acting against the NCC policy. The MOAB posited: 'some ambiguity is needed in language learning' (INT1), suggesting that s/he expected teachers at NCC not to use L1 for explaining as much (though I am not sure whether teachers were actually aware of this). Thus, here teachers acted according to their own beliefs rather than school expectations (Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004). This could be due to there being no written guidelines, but the fact that it never came up in the interviews made me deduce that participants did not even question the necessity to create the ambiguity. Instead, their interviews all implied that they had to have no room for ambiguity.

Another result was that L2 was mainly used for elicitation (very close in TCs and TRs). Echoing the findings of Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010), the reason why elicitation was the highest is in its being 'formulaic' (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010, p.50) in nature (e.g. next question). Here is an example of TR3's use of L1 for explanation:

Std gives the answer.

TR3: yes (b) but why (b) can you explain? (İnsanlar neyi iddia ediyor? Uzaydan kaçırıldıklarını iddia ediyorlar)¹⁰⁷[reads: Abduct]. ok. They also say that. [reads: Those aliens have performed some experiments on them]. This is another claim. However, (aslında bu iddialara karşılık olmadığına karşı bir şey demem lazım değil mi? Olmadığına karşılık. Böyle deniliyor ama bu iddiaların bir dayanağı yok demem lazım aslında¹⁰⁸). So it is b alright? M choose a person.
(TR3-Obs. 3).

A further outcome was the closeness between elicitation and explanation in L2. One would expect explanation to be less formulaic and more original, thus, its high percentage may be a surprise. Nonetheless, my overall impression for TC5 and the TRs (not TR5)

¹⁰⁷ What do people claim? They claim they were abducted from space (TR3-Obs.3)

¹⁰⁸ in fact, we have to say that these claims were not justified, right? that it was not justified. I need to say that it is claimed but these are not justified (TR3-Obs.3)

was that their explanations were formulaic. Here is an example from TC5 who used ‘explaining’ 46 X in L2 57 X in L1:

S1: (Hocam cevap neden b?)¹⁰⁹

TC5: Because here, look at paragraph 4 line 2 [reads the line where the answer is] (TC5- Obs.3).

Her L2 formulaic explanations were rarely followed by a further utterance (rather than something like: ‘it says so’) and even if they were, they were short and formulaic. On the other hand, L2 explanations involved more complex structures. Here is an example from the same lesson:

(TC5 is trying to explain to a student why his answer was wrong).

TC5: (Tamam şöyle düşün. Bütün texti düşün)

S2: (Düşündüm)

TC5:(Tamam) Text (denizin ekosistemi hakkında. Ama bir yerde (coral reef) ’den bahseder ki o da bir ekosistemdir. O paragrafın topiği nedir? (coral reef) o paragrafın topiği!)

S2: (hm anladım)

TC5: (ayrıca 1. cümleden de görüyoruz, ama bütün paragrafın topiği ekosistemdir ve burda da bir etkisinden bahseder)¹¹⁰ (TC5. Obs. 3).

Based on this, I concluded that for TC5 and the first four TRs L1 explanations were longer than L2s, while it was the opposite for the rest of the participants. However, these results shouldn’t be interpreted as the length of L2 was longer than L1. The lengths of the uses were not calculated, which is a limitation of this study, also acknowledged by studies qualitative in nature (e.g. Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004).

4.3.1.2 Further discussion on functions

Considering the functions participants used L1 or not for, this study supports Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) in that there were traces of cultures of learning in both TCs’ and TRs’ code-choice. Both of these parties showed similar teaching practices (i.e. code-

¹⁰⁹ my hodja why is the answer b?

¹¹⁰ TC5:Ok, think of it like this. Think of the whole text

S2:I have

TC5: ok. it’s about the sea’s ecosystem. But in one place it mentions (coral reef) which is also an ecosystem. What is the topic of that paragraph? (coral reef) the topic of that paragraph!

S2: I see

TC5: we also see it from the 1st sentence. but the topic of the whole text is ecosystems and here it mentions one more of its effects (TC5-Obs.3).

choice) in line with their own learning experience. As such, it seems that both the TCs and the TRs had framed their knowledge about code-choice in a way their cultures of learning found appropriate.

L1 peaked when teachers were explaining e.g. grammar, vocabulary, clues for the questions, reading out the letters for the correct answers. Echoing the discussion brought about by Cortazzi & Jin (1996), for these participants (especially the TRs) their own English teachers' explanations were effective when L1 was used. They claimed that, as students, they had expected their teachers to use L1 and they had understood better when their own teachers did so.

Hazırlıktaki hocam 100 de 100 İngilizce konuşurdu. Hiç Türkçe kullanmazdı(...)bütün dersi İngilizce anlatırdı. 45 dk ders vardı, bütün şey İngilizce giderdi. Ama mesela artık sonuçta herkes anlamıyordu yani. Sonuçta lisedesin. Herkes İngilizce bilemiyordu ya da ilgisi yoktu vesaire. O da belli bir müddet sonunda pes edip, 'tamam şimdi bu böyle' falan deyip böyle bir 10 dakikda toparlıyordu falan konuyu¹¹¹(TR3-INT3).

From this experience, they assumed their students would better understand them if they used L1. This explains their idea that unless they used L1 they would not feel like they got their message across. For example, TR4 said that she would feel like 'talking in vain' (TR4-POINT1) had she not used L1 particularly for 'explanation' or 'class management'. Similarly, TR2 and TR3 said that using only L2 for 'explaining' would make them feel that the topic being 'havada kalıyor'¹¹² (TR2-INT1) or 'öğrencileri kaybediyoruz'¹¹³ (TR3-INT1).

In various accounts it was seen that their code-choice was based on their own decisions rather than those of the students; they had pre-conceptions. That is, there appeared to be an assumption that students would expect them as teachers to use L1. In supporting their choice, they referred to exams (which they also had experienced) and to their prior teachers. Both factors were an indication that they thought their students would judge

¹¹¹ My teacher at prep school would use 100 % English, never used Turkish (...) She used English all throughout the lesson, 45 minutes of class time. But not everyone could understand everything in the end. It was high school in the end. Not everyone knew English or was interested in it. Then she would give up in the end and say 'ok this is this' and wrapped it all up in the last 10 minutes or so (TR3-INT3).

¹¹² up in the air (TR2-INT1)

¹¹³ lose the students (TR3-INT1)

their efficacy based on their language or not using L1. Though there were no direct responses from the students (there are no student interviews in this study), the learners' reactions (demanding L1 explanation), which was evident from the observations, support this.

Moreover, this frame also elucidates why the TCs general tendency was not to use L1 for explaining as much as the TCs (especially, TC1, TC2, and TC4) and to criticise themselves when doing so: 'İngilizce açıklamayı deneyebilirdim'¹¹⁴ (TC4-POINT2).

Another category of 'explaining' was using the letters of the multiple choice answers, which supports the interplay between cultures of learning and the decision of when to switch. What TR2 said to me in the POINTS was interesting in this respect. We were discussing the times she had code-switched. She said she used L1 specifically when giving the letters of the multiple choice answers (a, b, c). She not only pronounced these in the TR alphabet but also added a Turkish city to the end of them (e.g. adana, bursa, ceyhan). This is how she clarified her practice: 'bizim kültürümüzde hep böyledir ya; adana, bolu, ceyhan, denizli'¹¹⁵ (TR2-POINT2).

Almost all the TR participants used coding in the same way. Here is how TR3 explains her practice:

I: Neden adana bursa denizli kullandın?(Why do you think you choose to say adana, bursa, denizli instead of something like, b for bear, d for dear?) [a coding I had heard from a TC teacher at NCC who had not been able to take part in this study due to the period it was conducted].

TR2: Yapmacık gelir çünkü (bear dersem). Hiç kendimi iyi hissetmezdim. Yani c ye bir şey bulsam d ye bir şey bulsam çok yapmacık gelir yani. Ve çok komik duruma düştüğümü düşünürüm kendi içimde. Ve ben öğrenci olsaydım, ve İngilizce hocam öyle yapsaydı gülerdim gerçekten içimden. O nedenle yani. Bir de sonuçta öğrenciler test çözmeye alışkınlar (...)hiç aklımdan bile geçmedi b ye (bear) demek gerçekten (to be honest). Yani gülerdim. Üzgünüm¹¹⁶ [laughing] (TR3-POINT3).

¹¹⁴ I could have tried explaining it in English (TC4-POINT2)

¹¹⁵ It's always like that in our culture ; adana, bolu, ceyhan, denizli (TR2-POINT2)

¹¹⁶ TR2: Had I said (bear), it would have sounded pretentious. I wouldn't feel good. I mean trying to find something [English] for c or d would be pretentious. I mean, I would feel I'm making a total fool out of myself. And if I were a student and my teacher said that, I would laugh... It never crossed my mind to say something like b (for bear). Really! (To be honest) I would laugh. I'm sorry [laughing] (TR3-POINT3).

Similarly, as explained in this chapter, the TR teachers and the TCs who had more experience in working with TR students believed that certain uses of L1 would have a mitigating effect or would get students attention more. That is why they preferred to use L1 to build rapport and reprimand students.

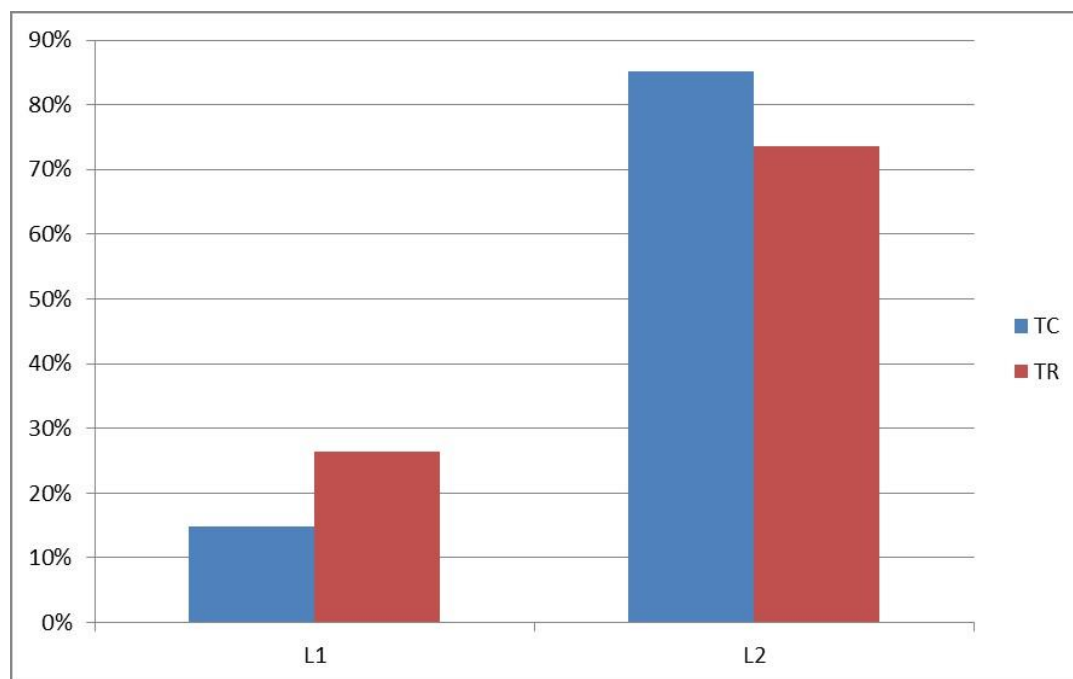
Referring to Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010), this also implies the role the teachers assign to themselves. We see that the TCs foregrounded role seems to be someone encouraging the use of L2 in-class and perhaps as a language model. The TRs' underscored role on the other hand, seems more to be a transmitter of knowledge. Thus, if there were misunderstandings in-class then L1 would be used at the expense of L2. As aforementioned, this study did not involve student interviews but relied on students' reactions, and teachers' explanations of those reactions, which seem to support each other. Also, studies like Can, Bedir & Kilianska-Przybylo (2011) whose results pinpoint that TR students see their teachers as a treasure box, implying their teachers are the source of knowledge, supports the roles that the TRs pursued. In this sense, though speculative, one could infer that there is an agenda match between the TR students and the TR teachers.

4.3.2 Percentages

It is important to note here that numerical data was not the main source in this study. Thus, the numbers presented here need not be considered as clear-cut. There are many things to consider before I reach this conclusion. These numbers merely enabled me to explore whether a difference between TCs and TRs CS practices existed or not and considering why it was (not) so.

Observations showed that TCs retained L1 around 15% while TRs' L1 use was around 26% yielding a disparity of 9%. Conversely, TCs' L2 (85%) was 9% more than of their counterparts (74%):

Figure 8: TCs and TRs total use of L1 and L2

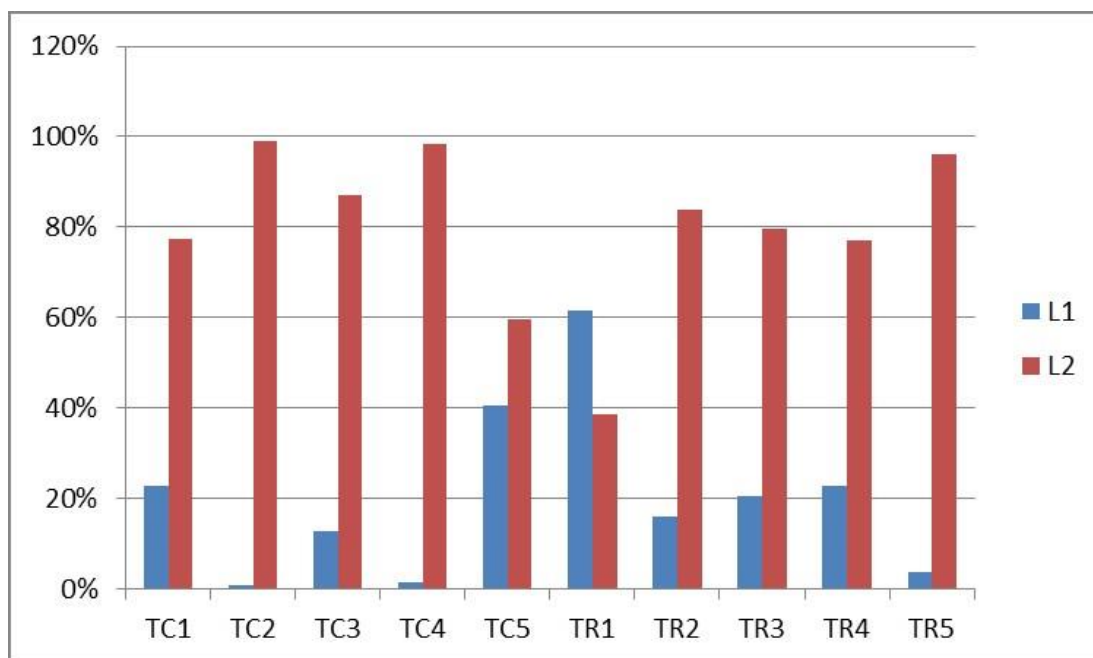


The disparity partially confirms my initial claim that TCs' L2 beliefs were in the core whereas for the TRs they remained more peripheral. This backs Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne's (2010) claims in that it exerts the power of background. Here, teachers' background (i.e. prior learning experience, prior teachers and family) proved to be more powerful than the tensions brought about by contextual factors. TCs seemed to have refused to yield to tensions as much as the TRs. The reason for the TRs resisting less which was, I believe, because of their background, which made them empathize more with their students (Ellis, 2006).

As can clearly be seen from the chart, it was evident that two TCs (TC2 and TC4) and in fact TR5 hardly utilised L1. Thus, I have qualms about Polio & Duff's (1994, p. 315) claim that expecting NNS to use L2-only is irrational. This could be due to the closeness the TCs saw in themselves to the target culture, which became apparent in their interviews. Two said they were native-like and all said they used the L2 out of school.

Nevertheless, the closeness between the two parties was also interesting. Based on their stated beliefs, one would assume perhaps a more significant difference between the two. The reason for this unexpected similarity may be due to the divergences among the groups as can be seen in the figure below, which shows participants' language choice in percentages:

Figure 9: Participants' use of L1 and L2



It seemed that TC5's and TR5's (interestingly the novices of both groups) language practices were closer to the opposing group. Thus, perhaps the gap between the two parties would have been larger had these two participants traded places.

There could be various explanations for this. My general impression was the effect caused by the interaction between their background and the content of the lessons. For example, most of TC5's lessons involved grammar teaching, where the interplay between her background and the subject matter was the highest in that her learning experience and family background were interfering with her teaching. Owing to her family background where she said she spent her first five years in the UK and kept using the L2 after moving to Cyprus as a student, she said she did not study grammar, but did exams and mechanical worksheets 'içgüdüsel'¹¹⁷ (TC5-INT1). Thus, for her, teaching grammar points meant preparing for the topic as most of her knowledge in grammar was subconscious. Moreover, as she was a novice teacher and had lack of experience in teaching such grammar points elsewhere (as expressed in POINT1) she had to spend more time in preparing for the topic (TC5-INT1) than preparing for how to teach it. This combined with the lesson content all made her believe L1 was inevitable. Hence, it could be deduced that had she been more experienced, she could have had used more L2 as she would have spent less time on preparing for the lesson content and thought of how to teach the content.

¹¹⁷ intuitively (TC5-INT1)

If so, then being a novice also seemed to have an effect in her code-choice (Polio & Duff, 1994). I would counter this. She had clearly stated elsewhere that L1 was significant in learning (implying that it was grounded in her belief system), which I mainly owe to her background where the effect of both TRs and the target culture could be observed (or simply a Turkish-Cypriot culture).

Similarly, as for TR5, his lessons involved vocabulary teaching. Owing to his prior learning experience where ‘çok’¹¹⁸ emphasis was placed on vocabulary learning, he seemed to be knowledgeable in its teaching. He was able to provide synonyms, antonyms and definitions of words in the L2 to almost all the vocabulary taught. Thus, this again challenges Polio and Duff’s (1994) assertions. There does not seem to be a causal relationship between being a novice and code-choice. Instead, background (i.e. prior learning experience) seemed to be more influential in code-choice (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010).

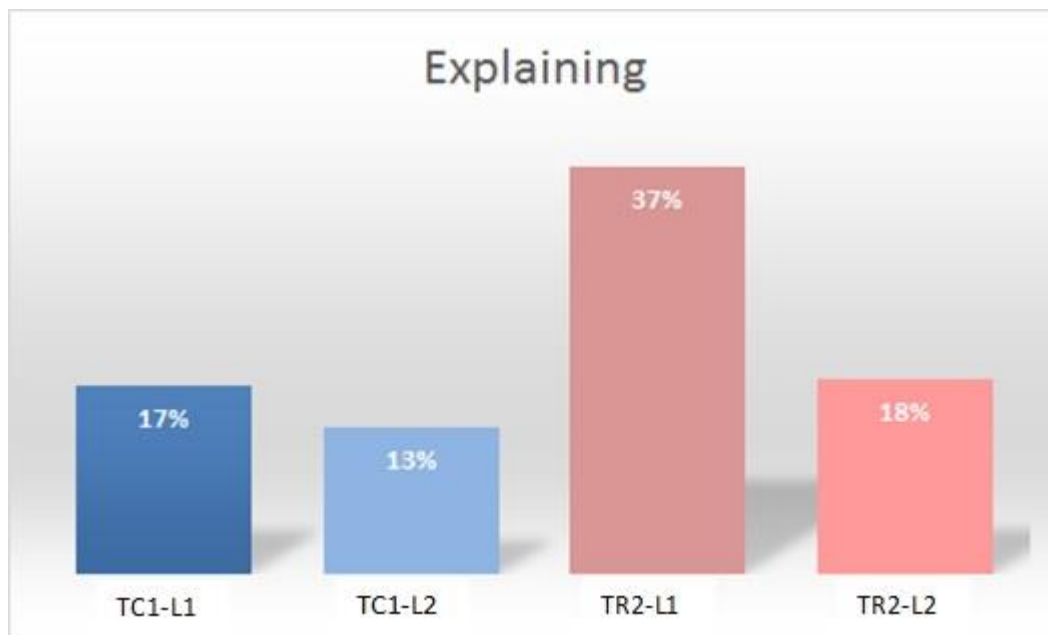
Still there are points to consider in Hobbs, Matsuo and Payne’s (2010) assertions. Referring back to the figure 4.10, observational data yielded that nine participants used more L2 than L1 (not TR1). Thus, despite their background for example, the TRs used more L2 than they did L1. The reason for this could be the variations among these two research sites where the study was conducted; e.g. class size, level, and course content. Another factor could be due to the nature of this study whereby I only counted when participants switched from one function to the next. Had I counted the words, I believe the results would have been different.

Moreover, the fact that length was not calculated was a limitation. For instance, from the interviews, focus-group interviews and her observations (where she resisted using L1 for content) it seemed that TC1’s exposure belief was stronger than that of TR2s. Nevertheless, based on the figure above, this did not actually manifest itself as such in class as TC1s L1 use was higher than TC2’s. Had the length been calculated, different results could have been achieved. However, length was not in the scope in this study as I was not concerned with the exact quantity but more interested in the nature (i.e. quality) of their code-switching practices. Still, aiming to seek further explanations for this result, I compared the functions for these two participants and I noticed a significant difference.

¹¹⁸ great

As aforementioned, I became content that the most complex function for all was explaining (still for some it was formulaic). Upon comparing this function, it became evident that TC1 had used L1 less for explanation than TR2 had:

Figure 10: A comparison of TC1 and TR2 in explaining



While TC1's L1 explanation was 4% more than that of her L2 explanation, this difference was more than two-fold, though I accept that various conclusions could have been drawn once length was considered. Figure 10 partially explains the unexpected outcome among the two participants. As such, TC1 kept saying that she refused to use it for this function but would use it when necessary. However, TR2 said she was more flexible in its use in doing exam-preparation. These statements together with the figure 4.11 strengthen my argument that owing to her background, TC1's L2 belief was among her core beliefs.

Still, it is also important to acknowledge that TC1's use of L1 could also be because of the tensions brought about by external factors: the fact that their class profiles were different and they were teaching different subjects. Thus, despite having core beliefs, the influences of external factors are inevitable. In this sense, she re-shaped her belief due to the context (Flores & Day, 2006).

Having said that, the results show that the general tendency among participants was to use L2. In this sense, this indicates that these teachers at NCC developed a sense of collective pedagogy (i.e. using more L2) or school culture through a set of distinct practices (Breen et al, 2001).

Figure 8 indicates that the TCs used less L1 compared to the TRs. This result is two-fold. First, it can be said that it casts doubt on Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne's (2010) (though not totally neglecting it) claim that the distance between two cultures had a negative correlation to the use of L2 as there may be miscommunication regarding students' level of understanding on the teachers' part resulting from the lack of familiarity with students' body language, classroom behaviour, etc., and thus not able to notice non-verbal cues from the students. In this study, in fact, teachers coming from a more similar background (the TRs) appeared to have used more L1. The reason for this seemed to be the shared feeling the TRs had of teaching the target language to students to succeed in the exam:

Enstitü olarak bir sınav var öğrencileri hazırladığımız ve o öğrenciler bu okulda devam etmek için bu sınava girmek zorundalar. Dolayısıyla şey yok yani hani İngilizceyi (learning for communication) gibi bir durum yok burda. Hani onları şey yaparak öğretelim. Hani ne bileyim bunlar teoride çok güzel cümleler ama aslında pratiğe bakarsak biz aslında sınava dayalı bir sistemde İngilizce eğitimi veriyoruz ve amacımız (proficiency) i öğrencilere geçirtmek (...) Dolayısıyla, öğrencinin anlamadığını ve onun oturmadığını keşfettiğim zaman, (contextualize) etmesi için onu bir yere koyması için kendi dilinde, İngilizce kullanımında Türkçeye başvuruyorum¹¹⁹ (TR3-INT2).

Four of the TCs kept implying that they paid more attention to the communicative use of the L2 (a belief they had established due to their background; in/formal learning experience) and highlighted that they expected their students to use the L2:

İngilizce öğrenmek istersen, öğren konuşmayı da. Doğrusu da bu zaten(...) Pratik yapsınlar çünkü kelimeler ağızından çıkmaza diline bulaşmazsa öğrenemen. Bir yerden başlamak zorundasın¹²⁰(TC2-INT3).

Nonetheless, this study is in line with Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne's (2010) study in that, though tentative, it partially suggests the aforementioned speculation as the four TCs

¹¹⁹ Students have to pass the exam to be able to continue in this school. Therefore, there isn't (learning for communication) going on here. I mean theoretically these are good ideas but looking at the practical side we are actually teaching in an exam-based environment and our aim is to make our students pass the exit exam (...) Thus, when I notice students haven't understood something I switch to Turkish so that they can (conceptualize) it in their own language (TR3-INT2).

¹²⁰ If you want to learn English, you must learn how to speak. That's how it should be (...) They should practice because if you don't use it, you can't learn. You have to start from somewhere (TC2-INT3).

claimed that they used less L1 in their previous workplaces where the majority of the students were TCs.

4.3.3 Overall discussion on practice

4.3.3.1 Practices matching beliefs

To a certain extent, the results of this current study are in agreement with Allami (2012), Borg (2008), Phipps & Borg (2009) and Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis (2004) regarding teachers' beliefs and what they actually do in the classroom. These studies maintain that there are tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices and deduce that there is no significant relationship between teachers' self-beliefs of L2 learning and their in-class (instructional) practices. However, my study takes these arguments a step further. I will explain this relating to one of these studies, Phipps & Borg (2009), due to its similarity to this current study regarding the teaching context.

In this (my) study, as the observations and post-observation interviews implied, though there were tensions to a certain extent, in some cases participants had a tendency to exhibit behaviours in accordance with their core beliefs, which is different from the findings of Phipps & Borg (2009). The discrepancy between these could be owing to the nature of the data collection methods. Unlike their study, all my interviews were conducted retrospectively. Thus, the teachers had already exhibited their belief before they had actually stated their beliefs about CS.

Likewise, Phipps & Borg (2009) assert that the extent to which teachers can act in accordance with their beliefs is determined by contextual factors (curriculum guidelines, time limitations, and exam-pressure). Phipps & Borg (2009) stated that teachers have two kinds of beliefs: core and peripheral and that peripheral is less resistant to change. My study has also supported this but there also seems to be more to it; the reasons behind the core and peripheral beliefs. Their study was conducted in a Turkish context in an English medium university and participants were aligned to act according to their students' expectations and use more teacher-centred approaches. Phipps & Borg (2009) deduced that the reason behind this was merely their peripheral beliefs. However, what the study fails to consider is the effect of cultures of learning.

I believe what is lacking in Phipps & Borg's (2009) study is a detailed description of the participants' backgrounds, particularly the time American and British teachers had spent

teaching TR students, not necessarily within that institution. These participants could have exerted behavioural incongruence in their stated beliefs because their beliefs were reshaped according to the interaction with their students. The teachers' initial statements seem to be what Woods & Çakır (2011) refer to as 'theoretical knowledge' (p.384): the knowledge that they learnt from their pedagogical training and which had not been personalised or practised. Therefore, this brings the question of whether such teachers' responses could be considered their 'beliefs' about language teaching or merely their theoretical knowledge. In my view, the teachers' statements in the post-observation interviews in Phipps & Borg's (2009) study could be considered to be their beliefs which were re/shaped after interaction with their students. Seen from this perspective then, I would suggest that there is not a tension but, a reshaping.

4.3.3.2 Practices influenced by cultures of learning

The study has also shown the interplay between teachers' cultures of learning and practice. As aforementioned, teachers had different interpretations of judicious use of L1. These interpretations were a combination of both external (less effective) and internal (more affective) factors. Teachers' previous teaching and learning experience as well as socio-cultural backgrounds (i.e family/friends/peers) had shaped their knowledge and beliefs (Hobbs, 2007a), and made them know and believe in different things.

To illustrate, TR4 said she believed it was necessary to utilise L1 in teaching English and from Figure 9 one can see that she did use it. One of the factors influencing her belief and practice was her prior learning experience (which played a significant role in shaping her cultures of learning). What was also interesting was to see the backwards effect of cultures of learning and prior learning experience. Her cultures of learning had influenced the way she perceived her prior learning experience. More specifically, TR4 had learnt English in a private school where the medium of instruction is English. She had both NS and NNS teachers. Here she explains the different feelings she had towards the two teachers and the importance of L1 for her as a student:

I: You said it was difficult with the NS, why was it so?

TR4: It was a foreigner [NS] talking about something for a short amount of time. At first, I found it difficult but I don't remember feeling stresses, crying or something like that (...) she [NNS] wouldn't speak Turkish much but maybe knowing that she would respond to you, and she would understand you, was more relaxing back then and I didn't know many foreign people maybe just a few tourists but that's it. So I felt a bit shy as far as I remember because the culture

was foreign, the person was foreign; knowing that somebody from my own culture was there speaking I think maybe made me relax. But I still feel the Turkish lady was like a buffer zone, a supporting point I could turn to whenever I needed, but then again she wouldn't speak Turkish much but knowing that she would if I needed, that was kind of a more positive thing for me (TR4-FU).

She considered her NS only as a benefit in improving her speaking skills, but her NNS teacher in developing her accuracy, and knowledge of grammar (a knowledge which is required at NCC because student exam papers are penalized for lack of accuracy). In fact, in our informal talks she also mentioned her negativity towards communicative approaches, which also supports my conclusion.

Her teaching experience at NCC also formed her knowledge and belief in what to do in class. She kept referring to her student profile (i.e. learners with low proficiency level) and how the profile made her use L1. Her observations support this as she used 30% of L1 for a variety of functions including explaining, chatting and translating. In fact, her diplomatic responses ('It depends on the students' mood and my mood'-TR4-INT2) suggest that she could even increase 30% L1. Thus, both of these two experiences mentioned above (own learning, teaching and NCC teaching) joined and made her know that her using L2-only was difficult for TR students and she preferred not to do this.

Similarly, when discussing how she had learnt English, TR3 made an interesting comment. She explained that she had had a lot of fun learning English back at a private institution (TR3-INT2) where she said there was more communicative work (i.e. games), but later on discussed that this kind of education would not have made her pass exams even to become a teacher at NCC. She added that her teaching experience at NCC also made her think that L1 was useful. As mentioned in this chapter, she had posited that she felt or came to know that the system at NCC was exam-based. Thus, she behaved in a way that she knew and believed (based on her experiences) would work, which involved L1.

This offers some insights for the current literature on cultures of learning and teachers' beliefs. It is interesting to see that Chinese students' perceptions towards NS teachers (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006) are similar to those of the teachers in this study. However, more research is needed before assumptions about the closeness between Chinese and Turkish cultures are made.

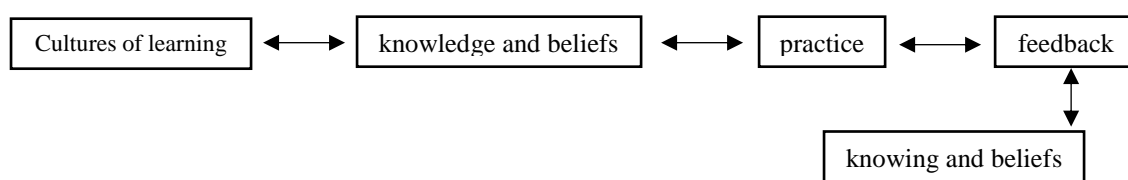
This also offers some implications for the existing literature on teachers' beliefs. It gives room for the argument of Ellis (2006) who opines that the personal experience of NNS in learning a new language should be considered invaluable. Here, TR4 implied that in her own language learning experience, the NNS could empathise with her, which made her feel relaxed ('buffer zone'), while she felt the NS could not.

Likewise, Borg (2003) simply says that prior learning experiences set de facto guidelines to teachers and frame their practice. I certainly agree with this, but suggest that there is a need to have a look at this from a broader perspective. The influences on their practices were not merely their prior teachers, but also the way cultures of learning affected their frame towards teaching. If we only consider this from Borg's (2003) perspective, then we would suggest that teacher A, who grew up in a similar culture to teacher B, would use more L2 if she had had teachers who used L2-only. Based on my findings and my interpretation of them, I would claim that one's learning or teaching experience within his/her culture is equally significant. TR4's example above, about her experience with NS and NNS teachers, indicates that the culture in which she was brought up affected the way she had perceived her NS teacher and her current belief. Therefore, considering belief construction within the operations of a culture can broaden our perspective on this (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

4.3.3.3 Existing beliefs formed from previous practice

It seemed that teachers believed in what they knew had worked in class. This practice had been influenced by their knowledge (i.e. cultures of learning). The teachers' cultures of learning constituted the knowing and the beliefs part of teacher cognition. The external and internal factors teachers had experienced throughout their teaching career made up their cultures of learning and so shaped their knowledge or 'awareness' (Hobbs, 2007, p. 33) of what to do in class (i.e. practice) and their ideas of good teaching. This formed teachers' existing beliefs.

Figure 11: The constituents of cultures of learning



For example, TR3 posited that L1 was beneficial in learning a new language. In supporting her opinion, she referred to her own learning experience and her prior teachers. She also referred to her teaching experience at NCC to back her argument in incorporating L1 in her teaching, as illustrated in the quote below:

Ben (extended semester)'daki derslere ppp olarak bakmıyorum (...) Öğrencilerin şeyini ön plana atıyorum. Kendi inançlarımı ikinci plana atıyorum sanıyorum. Benim için öncelikli öğrenciler (...) dolayısıyla o zaman da daha fazla Türkçe kullanıyorum¹²¹ (TR3-FU1).

Here what we might see is the tensions she reportedly faces ‘I put my belief in the second scale’, but I would question here whether by saying this she is talking about her theoretical knowledge rather than her belief. She expresses that she uses ppp for grammar but not in the extended semester. I would suggest that she knew that ‘no ppp’ would work in that semester for the current student profile, and thus she believed it was beneficial and utilised more teacher centred approaches, which made her use L1.

Similarly, the following selected quotes are the teachers’ answers to my question ‘what is your policy?’ These teachers quotes are in line with their practice. Thus, they all believed in what they did based on what they had come to know:

Table 7: A representative table of participants’ belief and practices

Participant	What they said (belief)	What they did (practice)	
		L1	L2
TC1	‘My policy is to do everything as much as possible in English’ (TC1-INT2)	23%	77%
TC3	‘Kullanılmasına karşı değilim. Ama sınırlı olması gerektiğine inanırım ¹²² (TC3-INT2)	13%	87%
TR2	‘Benim politikam (level) düştükçe L1 kullanılmalı ya da öğrencinin senden uzaklaştığını görüyorsan bir bağ kurmak için kullanılabilir ¹²³ (TR2-INT2).	16%	84%

¹²¹ I don’t look at the courses in the (extended semester) as p[resentation] p[ractice] p[roduce] (...) I put the students’ thing first. I put my belief second in the scale, I think. For me, the priority is the students (...) so of course then I use more Turkish (TR3-FU1).

¹²² I’m not against its use. However, I believe it should be limited (TC3-INT2)

¹²³ My policy is you have to use L1 when the level decreases or when you see the student is distancing him/herself you can try to connect with him/her (TR2-INT2).

TR4	'You should use as much as L2. I mean as much as possible. But if necessary, you can switch back to Turkish' (TR4-INT2).	23%	77%
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Thereby, supporting the idea of Woods (2003) I believe my findings support the argument that *knowing* is the predecessor of beliefs.

4.3.3.4 Re/shaping belief through practice

Thus, this study corroborates the discussion of Woods (2003), proposing that beliefs are not static within an individual but repeatedly growing entities positioned in social contexts, and constructed through social interaction, and that the relationship between belief and knowledge is not a priori. Thus, it is appropriate to consider the development of belief through a constructivist perspective: acknowledging that beliefs develop from interaction and one's understandings (Woods, 2003).

To illustrate, with more interaction with the students, participants seemed to know and believe more (of what will or will not work for them and the students) and thus adapt, not to say change (as there were influences of their core beliefs) their practice to meet their students' expectations. In other words, the more interaction, the more empathy.

For example, having done *response to a situation* (see Appendix C) in-class before at NCC, TC1 felt it was regarded as a mechanical task (her knowing and belief). However, she also knew that students missed the point: that it's really about communication. Within this institution, A2 level students tend to consider written question and answer exercises as mechanical exercises. Thus, to encourage more communication, TC1 designed a communicative activity where the whole class would guess the response, which is a sign of her enhanced culture of learning put into practice. This practice met with feedback from the students. In the POINTS, she addressed that she realised that the activity didn't really work as planned and she would think of ways to improve it. Hence, the feedback teachers got from the students served as a frame to what to do or not to do in-class. Therefore, her practice increased her knowing and reshaped her belief. However, this does not necessarily refer to change in every belief.

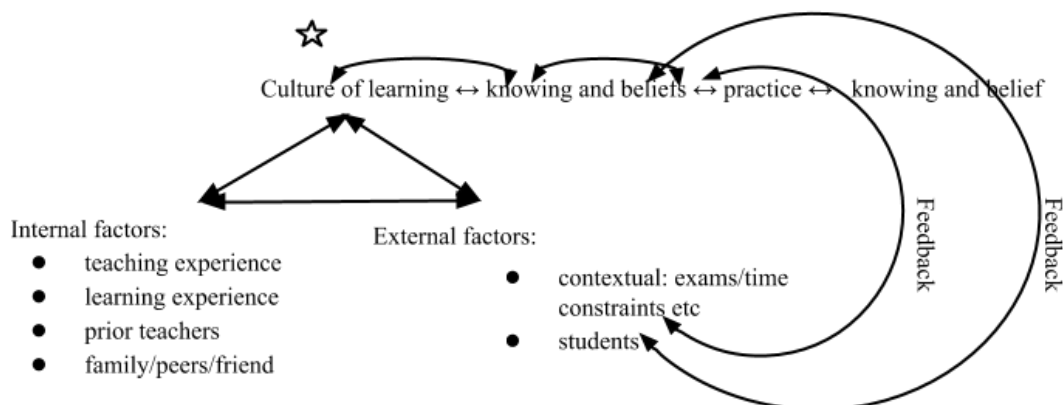
In this study, both the TRs and the TCs went through reshaping of beliefs but with different experiences. The TRs claimed that they had not seen a connection between their

professional training (maximum use of L2) and actual classroom practice (having to use L1). A significant reason for this was it being challenging to juxtapose their theoretical knowledge with their personal learning experience. As the interviews proved, the TRs came from a background where they experienced the benefit of a bilingual approach. Thus, theoretical knowledge remained peripheral, whereas the knowledge they gained out of personal experience shaped their core belief. This in fact appeared to be supported when the student cultures of learning and the educational context TRs entered proved to be similar. Thus, it seemed challenging for them to totally let go of their core belief or ingrained cultures of learning (Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010). What they experienced in-class (e.g. student feedback) also made them believe in the necessity to use L1.

Still, results indicated that most believed in L2 exposure and that the TRs adapted their personal experience to a certain extent. The TRs considered the high amount of L1 input in their own learning experience as a negative experience. They also said they would not wish their students to go through the same experience. Moreover, the institution (English-medium) also seemed to have an impact. The TRs entered an institution whose language policy was a monolingual approach. They kept referring to the feelings of guilt using L1 had on them for not matching aims of an English medium university. These two combined with student feedback, context and went through the filter of ingrained cultures of learning. Later, the TRs ended up with a policy where they saw the benefit of using a mix policy of their own: using L1, but less than their teachers did.

The reshaping situation was a bit more complex for the TCs. It was relatively easier for the TCs to personalise their theoretical knowledge, as it matched their cultures of learning. To this end, before entering a TR context they (not TC5) maintained the belief of very limited L1 use and the significance of the monolingual approach. However, they started experiencing situations where their core beliefs were challenged. For those with less experience and with students expecting L1 (TC2 and TC4) this was a negative experience. Those like TC1 and TC3 on the other hand, seemed to know what the students expected more. In a way then they also adapted their belief depending on whom they were teaching. Yet, for them this adaptation involved using more L1 than they believed. Nevertheless, the TCs, having less experience with TR students, resisted using L1, implying that for them more time is needed before we start talking about a complete reconstruction of their practice (noting that we cannot talk about a similarity among all TCs).

Figure 12: The cycle of CS beliefs



this cycle repeats itself: practice provides feedback to knowledge increases, knowledge then enhances culture of learning; enhanced culture of learning means increased knowledge. The increased knowledge is practised in-class, met with feedback and each time within the lens of internal factors belief is (re) /shaped

One factor constantly affecting teachers’ beliefs was their classroom practises, where teachers received feedback from their students. This feedback was interpreted through the lens of teachers’ existing cultures of learning. Teachers either maintained their belief or re/shaped it. For the TC and the TR participants, then, key influencing contexts of internal and external factors were constantly (re)/shaping beliefs over time, depending on how significant these factors were perceived by the participants (Flores & Day, 2006). Thus, at the end of the cycle they (re)/formed their beliefs. This is an example of the ongoing nature of beliefs as illustrated in the figure below (as constructed by me):

In the figure above, the curved line representing the interaction between practice and students is longer than the one showing the interaction between contextual factors, to highlight that the effect of the former was greater. Nevertheless, the cycle described above should only be considered as an attempt to depict the cycle of CS beliefs of the participants in this study. Obviously, different contexts might provide other results.

4.4 Conclusion

To sum up, participants’ general tendency was to use the L2 with the judicious (though this had diverging interpretations) use of L1, implying that two beliefs could co-exist, with one superseding the other. However, it can be maintained that TC’s L2 beliefs were their core beliefs (less likely to be influenced by tensions) while for the TRs it remained as peripheral (more likely to change owing to tensions).

The extent to which L1 was appropriate changed among TCs and TRs with TCs (not TC5) having stronger beliefs. Later, it was evidenced that teachers' beliefs were influenced by external and internal factors and all teachers said they were met with tensions because of student related contextual factors (which meant the re/shaping of belief and adapting practices instantaneously) but TCs said they resisted tensions more. It was further discussed that these influences combined and formed teachers' cultures of learning framing teachers' beliefs: their L1 leniency, their expectations from their students and their overall judgements of their lessons.

This difference among TCs and TRs manifested itself in-class with the different use of functions (in nature) and percentages. Here, it was discussed that teachers' beliefs matched their practices and similar to their stated beliefs, teachers' practices were highly influenced by their cultures of learning. Still, the dynamic nature of belief construction was also highlighted with a reference to teachers' (particularly TRs) practices. The findings of this study is partially in line with the findings of similar research (Woods & Çakır, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009). In the following Chapter, I will discuss the conclusions that have been drawn based on these findings and discussions.

Chapter 5 - Conclusion

5.0 Presentation

This chapter is divided into seven sections. An overview of the findings will be presented in 5.1. Then, section 5.2 continues with an acknowledgment of the limitations of this study. Section, 5.3 juxtaposes the conclusions drawn. Possible recommendations for the literature of CS, teacher education, and for NCC will also be presented in section 5.4. The possible implications of the study for future research and a summary of the conclusions will be detailed in sections 5.5 and 5.6 respectively. The chapter ends with my final remarks in 5.7.

5.1 An overview of the findings

This study aimed to explore the pedagogical practices of five TC and five TR NNS English teachers working at the same institution (i.e. college) in north Cyprus. Utilising qualitative methodology, data were collected from a variety of sources, mainly semi-structured interviews (INT), observations (Obs.), post-observation interviews (POINT), focus group (FG) discussions and follow-up, interviews (FU).

The seven themes that were constructed were:

- Teachers' beliefs in the appropriate code-choice varied from: more L2 than L1, balanced L1 and L2, more L1 than L2.
- Teachers' beliefs were influenced by two factors: external (contextual) and internal (personal factors). These internal factors both shaped and were shaped by teachers' cultures of learning.
- Teachers' beliefs manifested themselves in two ways: TC and TR teachers used L1 and L2 for differing functions. The amount of L1 and L2 use also varied. Thus, it was finally concluded that teachers':
- in-class practices matched teachers' initial stated beliefs, There were tensions to some extent but these did not create uneasiness,
- cultures of learning affected teachers' code choice,
- practices have an impact on cultures of learning, which affects beliefs.

Though I acknowledge there are many other processes involved in constructing beliefs, (e.g. belief change, see Hobbs, 2007) here I only discussed the ones that I considered most salient for this study.

5.2 Limitations of the study

A number of caveats need to be noted regarding the present study. Firstly, the fact that this is a case study and it was conducted with a small number of participants limits the generalisability of the findings and brings the need for further research with a larger sample for these findings to be substantiated or further developed. Secondly, this study was limited by the absence of data coming directly from the students. In this research, my interpretation of the students was limited to my observations of their actions, and reactions. Though my understandings were confirmed by teacher interviews, one-to one feedback from students would have undoubtedly strengthened the findings of this study. Thirdly, as aforementioned, a different approach to my analysis of teachers' in-class manifestations (e.g. duration of each time they code-switch) may have yielded further results. Fourthly, the study was conducted in the final term at NCC (when the students and teachers felt tired the most and when the end of year exam was the closest), which may have affected the findings of this study and thus could be considered as a limitation for this study. However, the follow-up interviews conducted 11 months later supported the previous findings and discussions. Moreover, when I looked at the number of quizzes NCC had in the first and second terms I noticed that exam was a reality for NCC students (they had a total of 18 pop-quizzes and two midterms in a 12-week period). Therefore, both teachers and students were most likely to experience exam related stress at any part of the year. Finally, I acknowledge that some of the 'codes' that appeared in this study, a variety of Turkish, mainland Turkish or the Cypriot-Turkish dialect, were not analysed individually, which makes this study open to criticisms regarding the 'codes' under investigation. However, these 'codes' will form the basis of further research into the various 'codes' used in Turkish-founded universities in the north of Cyprus.

5.3 Conclusions

As outlined in this chapter above, the significant issues to consider regarding teachers' code-switching practices are: teachers' cultures of learning and how they shape teachers' beliefs and then their actual practice.

Similar to the study of Chin (2014), this study aimed to unveil the complexities regarding teachers' beliefs, particularly their CS decisions. In doing so, I applied a constructivist position through interviewing and observing and in exploring the data. Moreover, I considered a cultural perspective, including a post-colonial and foreign language context in offering interpretation of the reasons why teachers do and do not code-switch, also providing explanations of the challenges teachers meet to enact L2-exclusivity.

Accordingly, teachers meet with tensions due to fundamental differences in cultural understandings and beliefs, both individual and students', which, combined with external contextual factors affect their perception of and actual code-choice. Thus, based on what Chin (2014) also suggests, I conclude that a realization of what L2-exclusivity means for teachers, both in a foreign-language and a post-colonial context, is pivotal to generate a better understanding as to how teachers code-switch and what beliefs influence their code-switching practices.

It seems that NCC has omitted to openly state its policy on CS. Instead, there is an implicit policy (based on my interview with the MOAB), which not all teachers are aware of. This created a confusion among participants of what the exact policy is. Moreover, this confusion had an impact on their practices as they often complained that teachers in NCC kept utilising different approaches regarding L1 use and this made it difficult for them to practise their beliefs in class. To maintain unity, I suggest that NCC needs to have a detailed written code-switching policy.

If the MOAB's statements from the interview could be considered the policy, then it seems that NCC had directly adopted the L2-exclusivity policy of the campus in Turkey, though it is not clear to what extent it is applied there, without subjecting it to scrutiny. NCC failed to consider the actual actors (the levers) and their social-cultural backgrounds within the code-switching implementation process. Simply, it had not considered what teachers already knew and believed about L2-exclusivity (which could in fact go as far as judicious use of L1 as my interview with the MOAB revealed) and what it actually meant for them. What this study showed was that L2-exclusivity had different associations for the TCs and the TRs, including individual fluctuations, and possibly for the MOAB. For the TCs, it was something personalised; and thus had a positive connotation. However, for the TRs it was not, and remained as something they called unnatural. Therefore, they tended to have doubts about its success.

Also, NCC did not consider how teachers' knowledge would shape their in-class manifestations and then their beliefs. Instead, what came to the fore was a top down implied policy with the assumption that all teachers would utilise it without question. However, interviews and observations proved that negligence of the actors' cultures of learning and beliefs resulted in different utilisations (L1 use ranging from 60% to almost 0%), making it difficult to talk about a common school culture at a deeper level (though at the surface level we can talk about a common 'judicious use of L1' culture).

Adding to that, on NCC's part there seems to be no consideration of how both cultures of learning and teachers' belief is an on-going process. The TCs seemed to have gone through a knowledge construction (more than the TRs) to make actual sense of what their students expect from them. It seems that more work is needed to be done on their side as they still cannot empathise with understanding their students' demand for more L1. Similarly, they can't see why students do not want to learn English as opposed to pass exams and thus they react to their expectations. Furthermore, based on their comments about NCC's system in general (e.g. speaking not being tested, and NCC's expectation of full-accuracy) the TCs also seemed to going through a knowledge construction of NCC's expectations, too, which they also criticised (see Chapter 4).

There are also some positive findings for NCC, though. The implied CS policy seemed to have brought about adaptations in mostly the TRs' code-switching, existing knowledge, practices and beliefs. Looking at TRs' prior learning experience, perhaps one would expect more L1. However, observations revealed that L1 did not exceed L2 (still TRs' political responses of the possibility of this suggest being cautious). In explaining their practices, the TRs referred to their ICELT in increasing their L2 use. However, they said that they increased L2 mainly for the coursebook but not when doing the extended semester worksheets. This implies that global pre/in-service trainings should address institutional needs more. Here, the participants expressed the difficulty they faced in using L2 when doing the worksheets, so they could actually be a part of these training sessions where possible difficulties concerning L2 use are predicted and possible solutions are offered.

Additionally, another significant factor affecting TRs' increased L2 use was their being a teacher at NCC or, in a broader sense, a teacher at TRC. For them TRC had a reputation for being successful in language teaching and teaching in general and that as a teacher

within this institution they felt responsible for maintaining this reputation. Considered from a more global level then, despite Turkey's aim to keep up with the modern world, which has resulted in the prominence attached to the learning of English and has brought about changes in schools' structures (e.g. an increasing number of English-medium universities), this aim has not been met with universal acceptance by all teachers teaching in Turkey. What this study has shown (and also studies in Turkey; e.g. Phipps & Borg, 2009) is that:

- There are teachers with different backgrounds teaching at Turkish universities with different aspirations.
- Globalised approaches such as L2-exclusivity are not directly accepted by all participants in the teaching process (e.g. in this study the TR students and the TR teachers were more reluctant to utilise communicative activities).

Thus, careful consideration of teachers' culturally based knowledge (cultures of learning) practices and beliefs need to be considered before globalised approaches as such are adopted and implemented by schools (Chin, 2014).

5.4 Recommendations

It is within this framework that I posit the following recommendations for the field of code-switching and teacher education and NCC.

5.4.1 Recommendations for CS

Echoing the discussions of Canagarajah (1995), this study supports the interplay among teachers' code-switching beliefs, the status and patterns of bilingualism, as well as code choice both inside and outside the classroom. Accordingly, what we saw in-class was a reflection of these teachers' language use or beliefs outside the class (something of which these teachers might be unaware of). As for the TCs, their (almost) exclusive L2 or mixture of Turkish-Cypriot and English was influenced by the socio-political conditions of north Cyprus. Their historical past influenced their perceived identity and hence their code-choice. Likewise, for the TRs their being a community relatively close to the English speaking community had a considerable impact in the way they perceived the use of L2 for all functions. The use of L2 mixed with L1 made them feel more natural as NNS of English and made them ensure that their students could connect with them (L1 gave their students the feeling that the TR teachers are also one of them). Thus, it is significant for

language policies to be considered within the socio-political contexts in which they are utilised (Canagarajah, 1995). More specifically, it is recommended that rather than emerging as a default *case* (Canagarajah, 1995, p. 193) teachers' L1s are used in their own right and that teachers who consider L2-exclusivity unnatural are provided a place for L1 in their pedagogy. Allowing teachers to satisfy their aspirations in-class could prove motivating.

Therefore, it is also suggested that teachers should be considered as major actors. Thus, language practices as such should be interpreted in their social, political and historical contexts (Creese & Blackledge, 2011) as actual classroom practices provide knowledge for what teachers do and believe regarding CS in class.

Moreover, when considered from the perspective of cultures of learning it might be that there are agenda mismatches among teachers applying the same code-switching policy. It is not my intention here to suggest that one policy should supersede another (more research is needed to claim that) but rather I recommend that teachers in the same institution should come to realise that their colleagues might have different beliefs regarding code-switching owing to their different cultures of learning. Then, to set a common ground, keeping in mind that there will never be an exact consensus among teachers with different cultures of learning (see similar discussion in Liu & Littlewood, 1997) these differences can be bridged if the teaching aims and rationales are made explicit to teachers coming from different cultures of learning.

Considering that code-choice is a personal choice more than it is an institutional choice then, it seems that L1 use will be a part of teachers' pedagogical practices for a long time, mainly for the TRs, as well as the TCs due to their interaction with the students. Therefore, it is proposed that ways for optimal L1 and L2 should be highlighted by both pre- and in-service teacher training programmes (Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004).

5.4.2 Recommendations for teacher education

Here, five recommendations for teacher education will be discussed.

5.4.2.1 Uncovering existing beliefs

The study showed the interplay between teachers' belief and code-switching practices. What comes to the fore then is the necessity for teacher educators to include reflective practice (Hobbs, 2007) in their training sessions. One aim of these sessions could be to

make teachers aware of their existing beliefs. Having spent hours as students, teachers already hold deeply-held beliefs about what makes up good and bad teaching (Woods, 2003). Thus, when they come to teacher education, certain of their beliefs are already formed. Therefore, the field of teacher education needs further research to develop the content of teacher training programs based on pre-existing knowledge and beliefs (Inozu, 2011).

It is also important to understand where teachers situate their current practice in their own belief system and how they feel about their practice.

One way of accomplishing this could be to provide practitioners with a model which illuminates their existing beliefs. This can be achieved by allowing trainers to talk about their own prior learning experiences, prior teachers and their socio-cultural backgrounds and previous as well as current teaching experiences through semi-structured interviews (allowing room for individual questions). Thus, in-service sessions would serve as a platform where teachers can express themselves and feel their beliefs are acknowledged.

5.4.2.2 Illuminating the link between practice and belief

Illuminating the link between practice and belief can be accomplished through observations of classes (whose aim should be to explore in an unbiased way), followed by post-observation interviews where teachers will be allowed to reflect on their practice. In doing this, teacher educators should be open with their aims and enable trainees to feel relaxed. This will enable trainees to see the relationship between their practises and beliefs.

To enhance these beliefs, allowing teachers to voice, confront and evaluate them in the light of alternative models of teaching has a pivotal role (Hobbs, 2007). Also, this model should aim to highlight the process of the formation of new beliefs when introduced with new theoretical knowledge, and allow the teachers to voice themselves in carrying out actions (Woods, 2003).

Some current in-service programs, such as ICELT, do seem to involve this as it was discussed in the interviews, and teachers talked positively about this. Nevertheless, considering the dynamic nature of belief construction, it seems significant for teacher

educators to offer reflective practice throughout and put it in the centre of in-service training.

5.4.2.3 Ways for introducing new belief

Theoretical knowledge should be introduced in a way that would relate to trainees' individual experiences. It is important to acknowledge the fact that individuals attach various interpretations to the same concept (Woods & Çakır, 2011). Individuals begin making sense of a concept by first establishing personal interpretations through experience, then re-theorizing them through verbal articulation. This could be achieved by allowing trainees to reflect on their teaching and voice their concerns through post-observation interviews. In line with Flores & Day (2006), the findings imply the weaker impact of professional training (compared to other internal factors) in beliefs (it remains peripheral), especially for the TRs as the theoretical knowledge is not always practised in-class. Accordingly, one way to enhance the effect of such training is by providing more opportunities for personal reflection. Here, teachers should be encouraged to talk about issues such as personal biography, prior learning experiences and prior teachers together. This should be done in line with reflection of their own practice and school context in a broader sense. This will enable the discovery of possible tensions between them (Flores & Day, 2006).

It seems that change in practice precedes change in belief. This supports Woods & Çakır's (2011) research that theoretical knowledge becomes a belief only when it is personalised through practice. Impersonal knowledge has to be personalised through a process of interpretation stemming from teachers' own experience. This being the case, it is important for teacher educators and personal development programs to take this into consideration and design their programs accordingly.

5.4.2.4 Providing support

It also seems important to acknowledge that teachers with different backgrounds need guidance owing to their cultures of learning. Thus, a group of teachers with different backgrounds may need different support. For example, the TCs whose cultures of learning were more distant to that of the learners' found it difficult to empathise with students. The TRs seemed to have found it difficult to adapt their own old learning habits. Both need further support in these distinct areas.

However, there were also some other factors (the external factors) affecting both sets of teachers' CS practises to a certain extent. Though the strength of these were differently perceived by the teachers, this seems to be a common area in which both sets of teachers need guidance. Thus, it is pertinent for teacher educators to acknowledge this and provide support for all teachers through in-service teaching sessions.

Individual experiences (ingrained cultures of learning) should be acknowledged by generating an understanding of the sociocultural background practitioners come from. It has been evidenced that contextual factors cause tensions and that teachers have difficulty in exerting their beliefs about CS. Thus, teachers should be allowed to express the challenges they meet in the classroom and receive support in how these challenges could be met, perhaps with more in-service training sessions. Referring back to the co-construction nature of beliefs, I suggest that support be offered through actual hands-on practice. This is because it was seen that unless professional training is actually personalised, it is difficult to adapt and remains theoretical and does not necessarily transfer into a belief.

The study has shown that teachers' belief is also shaped by in-class practices specifically by the interaction with students and the students' feedback. It seems that the students themselves contributed to both the TCs' and the TRs' L1 use to a certain extent. To minimise possible tensions here, discussion groups could be held where possible student outcomes are predicted and solutions are suggested.

Considering the new teachers (though not directly within the scope of this study) it seems important to consider ways to improve, or even introduce, induction processes. It would be suggested that induction processes take into account the development of teachers' beliefs (or even identity within the institution) construction by exploring the connection between personal biography (Flores & Day, 2006).

5.4.2.5 Encouraging group discussions

Teachers could also be encouraged to have class discussions about the rationale behind practices if there are tensions observed between the teacher and the students about L1 usage (Bown, 2009). However, the often tight teaching schedules should be taken into consideration here, as the teachers also referred to these affecting their teaching.

Echoing Chin (2014), I believe in the significance of making teachers in the same institution realise (at some point) that their beliefs about CS may be different from their colleagues, from the students and from the school administration. For the teachers, hence it is pertinent to allow group discussions (such as focus groups as in this study), where they can share their experiences among teachers coming from different backgrounds and become able to notice such differences in beliefs. There is also need for peer support and a raised realisation of continuous professional development within supportive school cultures (Flores & Day, 2006).

The group dynamics should be carefully chosen however, and there should be some kind of bonding established among teachers (possibly by project work involving collaboration) with different backgrounds before such discussions take place. This will minimize the risk of participants from different backgrounds judging one another.

Finally, It is important to keep in mind the dynamic nature of beliefs. Teachers' and students' existing beliefs will keep reforming and shaping and therefore there should be constant overall research (in-class observations in regular periods) within the field of belief so that everyone in the learning process can always be informed (Brown, 2009).

5.4.2.6 Recommendations for NCC

Considering NCC's connection with the campus in Turkey and the inevitable flow of Turkish teachers whilst being situated in north Cyprus, as well as a flow of TCs, it is essential for NCC preparatory school to revise its current policy of L1 use.

I believe it is significant to acknowledge the different cultures of learning among the teachers. This acknowledgement should be addressed in different aspects. First it is pertinent to provide and encourage more opportunities (e.g. workshops, orientation programs) for teachers to unveil what they aspire through reflective practices (e.g. observations followed by semi-structured retrospective post-observation interviews). Once this is addressed the next move is to make them aware that the influence of their cultures of learning in how they interpret their surroundings: school policy, students, environment, and colleagues. More importantly, the school should establish the necessary conditions (e.g. qualified teacher trainers, allocating sufficient time) to make these possible.

This study is in-line with Sato & Kleinsasser's (1999) discussions in that it has illuminated how the top-down approach of NCC, a follow-up or adaptation of the policy in Turkey, fails to reach its aim, as the top down approach is not a reflection of what teachers are actually practising in class (Hu, 2005).

NCC needs to develop a bottom-up, or grounded, CS policy of its own, embracing the aspirations of teachers coming from different cultural backgrounds. However, what NCC should realise is that it has to interpret global policies within the political, social and economic context surrounding it (Ozga, 2000). The TRC campus was originally built and based on the American model and that is why it is an English-medium and why NCC is too.

Referring to the participants' statements, there seem to be some issues that await to be addressed, as is the case in many English-medium universities (Altan, 2012). For example, the TR participants posited that talking in English to Turkish students was unnatural. Similarly, the TCs complained about their students not using English, which affected their code-choice. Additionally, both TCs and TRs mentioned the contextual factors having an impact on their code-choice.

Thus, what NCC should realise is that it has a context of its own and should therefore seek ways to fulfil the aspirations of its teachers. Otherwise, it stands the risk of its teachers considering their teaching monotonous and criticising their institution for not doing what they believe (Flores & Day, 2006). In line with Hu (2005), it is equally significant to empower teachers in the decision making process and to encourage them to develop sound guidelines for making methodological choices about their pedagogical practices. Similarly, it is important to take the students' expectations into account and include them in the decision making process, too.

Moreover, it is important for NCC to clarify its language policy (by providing guidelines perhaps) to its teachers and understand through workshops how this relates to their understanding and to their actual classroom practice. Currently, the teachers seem to be lacking such an explanation as the following quote exemplifies:

They should be strict about it. They shouldn't make us deduce things. They should openly state it. Otherwise, I go and teach in English and the other in Turkish. Then the next semester comes and it's difficult for me to set up my thing. It should be standard for everyone (TC1-FU1).

Hence, it is pertinent for NCC to ensure that developmental goals and objectives in the curriculum mirror the variety of cultures of learning involved in the college and inform approaches to classroom practices.

5.5 Implications for future research

This study was an exploratory case study, thus the findings are not generalisable to other teachers. However, I believe this research has contributed to the literature on cultures of learning, beliefs and CS, specifically in a Turkish context. I hope that this study encourages further researchers to explore more about TC and TR teachers in contexts to which one or the other is more distant to.

I believe it is necessary to have more research in the area particularly in the north of Cyprus considering due to the fairly limited amount of research in the area. This also seems to be an important issue that deserves further research as the number of students and teachers coming to the north of Cyprus is growing constantly. This current study implies that studying teachers' backgrounds, beliefs and their re/shaping beliefs is an important step towards understanding their practices. Hence, if there are more teachers with different backgrounds we need to see their side of the story, too. This will generate more understanding and only then can we make sense of their actions.

Further longitudinal studies are needed to shed light on how teachers' beliefs are reshaped or even changed over time. As in many belief studies (Chin, 2014; Hobbs, 2007a; Woods, 2003 & Pajares, 1992), this study supports the idea that beliefs are on-going: more research in the area could explore more factors and the actual nature of belief adaptation or change. In doing so, teachers' statements of beliefs and intentions, as well as their behaviour related to certain belief systems, should be included in the research methodology (Hobbs, 2007a; Pajares, 1992).

As acknowledged in the limitations section, further research could be conducted to examine the students' perspective. Their expectations could be compared with those of their teachers and this could in turn be fed back to the teachers. The possible effects of this on teachers' beliefs could be observed. This could yield invaluable results for belief studies in this respect and in many other study foci.

The teachers in this study could not let go of their core beliefs in their practices. This implies that there are some things that cannot be changed, no matter what the exact policy/institutional expectation is. Having said that, then, what this research has shown is the necessity to get teachers involved in the development of institutional policies. More research could be done to suggest ways to make this involvement possible, particularly where there are teachers with different backgrounds.

5.6 Summary

In this chapter, I aimed to discuss my findings of ten (five TC and five TR) teachers' CS practices, including their beliefs, and draw conclusions on my research. My discussion revolved around theories of cultures of learning and teacher beliefs, related to the relevant literature and highlighted the interplay between cultures of learning, practice and beliefs. My conclusion included recommendations of this study for both code-switching and for the institution. Accordingly, what became evident for both is to place the teachers more in the centre than the language (for CS) or the global policies (for NCC). This will offer significant insights towards understanding teachers' actions and also design policies meeting teachers' needs.

Based on my findings, I have agreed with the belief definitions of Hobbs (2007a), Woods (2003), Cortazzi & Jin (1996) and Pajares (1992):

- It is important to consider belief an interactive process, which involves cultures of learning (knowing) and actual practice.
- Knowledge is the predecessor of beliefs; knowledge brings about practice which then reaches beliefs.
- To explore one's knowledge it is important to refer to cultures of learning
- Cultures of learning are made of internal (experience, teachers, training, family) and external factors (context and students) and shape one's knowledge; they are significant to understand what one knows.
- Cultures of learning and practice are interconnected.
- Cultures of learning are ingrained and shape our core beliefs making them difficult to change.
- Cultures of learning are on-going and can be enhanced through increased knowledge.
- Practice re/shapes beliefs; beliefs are ongoing and can be reshaped through interaction with external factors (e.g interaction with students).

- The relationship between belief and knowledge is not *a priori*.
- Practice is instantaneous.

Consequently, for me, teachers' beliefs operate both in line with an array of similar knowledge (culture) and in an idiosyncratic manner, and thus work in a complex, interrelated, dynamic framework (Chin, 2014).

5.7 Reflection and closing comments

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to the 10 teachers who partook in this study. It is challenging to work in an environment with teachers, managers and students coming from different sociocultural backgrounds. Moreover, looking at the aims of NCC (see Chapter 3) it seems that these backgrounds are going to vary even more in the near future. Thus, I believe it important to acknowledge the different cultures of learnings between the teachers and the students as well as among teachers so as to become aware of the different expectations with regards to CS.

I would like to end the thesis with a few comments about the purpose of this study. This study enabled me to explore TC and TRs teachers' pedagogical, namely CS, practices. In doing so, I was able to discover the factors shaping these teachers' practices. Then, I came to realise the significance of cultures of learning in teachers' code-choice. Here, I noticed how the different cultures of learning of teachers made them have differing expectations of their students regarding their code-switching practices.

Finally, I believe the study served as a means for teachers to voice their beliefs about code-choice and the thought processes they went through in actually utilising their belief in class. I feel hopeful that the significance of such studies will be considered and conducted in contexts such as NCC. Equally important is to see the extent to which these actions resonate with the students and their teachers and the institution they are working for as well as with colleagues in the same institution. Only then can we come to make actual sense of teachers' actions and expectations and then seek a common ground, where differences are celebrated and benefitted from, not taken for granted.

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Appendix A: Consent Forms

University of Sheffield School of Education RESEARCH ETHICS APPLICATION FORM

Complete this form if you are planning to carry out research in the School of Education which will not involve the NHS but which will involve people participating in research either directly (e.g. interviews, questionnaires) and/or indirectly (e.g. people permitting access to data).

Documents to enclose with this form, where appropriate:

This form should be accompanied, where appropriate, by an Information Sheet/Covering Letter/Written Script which informs the prospective participants about the a proposed research, and/or by a Consent Form.

Guidance on how to complete this form is at:

<http://www.shef.ac.uk/content/1/c6/11/43/27/Application%20Guide.pdf>

Once you have completed this research ethics application form in full, and other documents where appropriate email it to the:

Either

Ethics Administrator if you are a member of staff.

Or

Secretary for your programme/course if you are a student.

NOTE

- Staff and Post Graduate Research (EdD/PhD) requires 3 reviewers
- Undergraduate and Taught Post Graduate requires 1 reviewer – low risk
- Undergraduate and Taught Post Graduate requires 2 reviewers – high risk

I am a member of staff and consider this research to be (according to University definitions)

low risk high risk

I am a student and consider this research to be (according to University definitions):

low risk high risk

*Note: For the purposes of Ethical Review the University Research Ethics Committee considers all research with 'vulnerable people' to be 'high risk' (eg children under 18 years of age).

COVER SHEET

I confirm that in my judgment, due to the project's nature, the use of a method to inform prospective participants about the project an Information Sheet	
Is relevant	Is <u>not</u> relevant
√ (if relevant then this should be enclosed)	

I confirm that in my judgment, due to the project's nature, the use of a Consent Form:	
Is relevant	Is <u>not</u> relevant
√ (if relevant then this should be enclosed)	

Is this a 'generic "en bloc" application (ie does it cover more than one project that is sufficiently similar)	
Yes	No
	X

I am a member of staff

I am a PhD/EdD student

I am a Master's student

I am an Undergraduate student

I am a PGCE student

The submission of this ethics application has been agreed
by my supervisor

Supervisor's signature/name and date of agreement



Dr Mark Payne04/04/2013.....

I have enclosed a signed copy of Part B

PART A

A1. Title of Research Project

Exploring Turkish Cypriot and Turkish English teachers' language practices in foreign language classrooms, specifically within one university foundation program (Prep) in the north of Cyprus.

A2. Applicant (normally the Principal Investigator, in the case of staff-led research projects, or the student in the case of supervised research projects):

Title :Mrs First Name/Initials: Leyla Silman Last Name:Karanfil
Post: Student Department: Department of Educational Studies/EdD/Learn,
Lang & Teach PT DL

Email: leylasilman@yahoo.co.uk Telephone: 0090 533 864 99 11

A.2.1. Is this a student project?

Yes. Supervised by, Dr. Mark I. Payne, Lecturer in Language Education

Department: Department of Educational Studies

Email: mark.payne@sheffield.ac.uk

Telephone: +44 (0)114 222 8170

A2.2. Other key investigators/co-applicants (within/outside University), where applicable:

Please list all (add more rows if necessary)

Title	Full Name	Post	Responsibility in project	Organisation	Department

A3. Proposed Project Duration:

Start date: 2012

End date: 2014

A4. Mark 'X' in one or more of the following boxes if your research:

	Involves children or young people aged under 18 years
	Involves only identifiable personal data with no direct contact with participants
	Involves only anonymised or aggregated data
	Involves prisoners or others in custodial care (eg young offenders)
	Involves adults with mental incapacity or mental illness
X	Has the primary aim of being educational (eg student research, a project necessary for a postgraduate degree or diploma, MA, PhD or EdD)

A5. Briefly summarise the project's aims, objectives and methodology?

To explore how teachers' social and cultural backgrounds affect the nature of the language (i.e. English and/or Turkish) they use in class when they are teaching English. More specifically, the research will be carried out in a university in North Cyprus where there are both Turkish and Turkish Cypriot teachers. Social background refers to the way the society the participants were raised in perceives English and English language teaching. Similarly, cultural background refers to the participants' culture of learning i.e. the beliefs of the two cultures about teaching. Data related to social and cultural backgrounds will be gathered through a literature review of the perception of English language and its teaching and culture of learning in the Turkish and Turkish Cypriot societies. Thus, the information gathered about social and cultural backgrounds will be based on the available literature and will not include personal statements. Therefore, this part of the research will not raise any ethical issues.

As stated above, I intend to conduct a study at a foundation program offered by a university in the north of Cyprus, which is English medium. The program is a one year program offering English as a foreign language to pre-faculty students. The majority of the teachers in this program come from Turkey or are Turkish Cypriots and I will conduct this study among these teachers.

I, the researcher, will first explore and then interpret the data that I have gathered from the research. First, I will gather the documents related to the curriculum (i.e. syllabus, books, materials) used at a foundation program at a certain university in the north of Cyprus. I will thoroughly analyse these documents and seek implications regarding teachers' language use.

Then, I will interview the stakeholders (the director and the teacher trainer) of the same university on their expectations of teachers' language use. Their interviews will be coded and analysed using a computer software program (CAQDAS). The program will enable me to come up with themes and interpret the interviews. Then, I will interview teachers (n=30) from the same foundation program. The interviews will be conducted among Turkish and Turkish Cypriot English teachers. Their interviews will be analysed in the same way. Finally, lessons of the teachers will be observed with a focus on their language use. Through these observations, I hope to gain a holistic perspective on classroom language by analysing the teachers' language use throughout each lesson, from opening to closing. Teachers' lessons will be recorded and then transcribed with CAQDAS.

As the researcher, I will seek verbatim examples of each language use. There will not be any pre-set themes for the observations but themes will emerge upon analysis. Finally, data gathered from the analysis of documents, interviews and observations will be compared to reach a final result on teachers' language use.

A6. What is the potential for physical and/or psychological harm / distress to participants?

Participants agreeing to participate may feel distressed owing to the information they are giving. I will assure them that my aim as a researcher is just to explore and not to judge. I will also ensure confidentiality (i.e. that their names and the name of the institution will not be revealed) at each step of the research process.

The participants whose lessons will be observed similarly, have a potential for experiencing psychological distress as having an observer in the class for any reason may affect class dynamics. Participants involved in the observations may also feel distressed owing to my presence as a foreigner/researcher and may feel that the reason for their being observed is to seek (in) accuracies affecting their profession regarding language use, classroom

management, and/or lesson planning. To overcome this, I will explain the aim of my research which is to explore teachers' language use and further that there is no assessment of "correct" language use involved.

- A7. Does your research raise any issues of personal safety for you or other researchers involved in the project and, if yes, explain how these issues will be managed? (Especially if taking place outside working hours or off University premises.)

No. This research is an exploratory study aiming to find out teachers' language use and has the primary goal of being educational. Data will be collected via interviews and observations. In addition, the research does not require me, the researcher, to leave the work place. The research will take place during working hours and on the University premises. For the reasons mentioned above, the research does not raise any issues of personal safety for me.

- A8. How will the potential participants in the project be (i) identified, (ii) approached and (iii) recruited?

i).

In choosing my participants, I will employ purposive sampling, which involves selecting participants based on a specific purpose. This will allow me to select participants on the basis of several criteria and the shared characteristic(s) that will allow for a detailed exploration of the objectives of this study.

The stakeholders will not need to be selected. Currently, one person is the director and likewise there is one person responsible for the teacher development unit.

The selection of teachers, as participants, will be based on certain criteria. First, teachers would have to have at least one-year of experience at the institution. This would help me ensure that participants have a fair amount of familiarity with the program offered at the university.

Second, there are 45 teachers at the institution I intend to conduct the study. About 40% of the teachers are Turkish Cypriots and 50% are Turkish. The participants for this study would be selected among these teachers.

Considering the statistics, all Turkish Cypriot teachers (n=10) and Turkish teachers (n= 20) will be interviewed and observed. This study will include teachers with different work experience teaching different levels of English.

ii)

Getting permission from the university will be the first step of the research study. As I have been working at the institution I aim to conduct the research for six years, I do not think getting permission will be a problem. I will explain the aim and the procedures of the study to the director and ask for her verbal consent. Later, I will apply for the ethical board of the institution where I intend to conduct the study. Having received ethical consent, I will contact the participants face to face. I will meet those who meet the sampling criteria in person and explain the nature of the research and what is required of them during the study. I will tell them that participation is voluntary.

iii)

I will give the Participant Information Sheet to the participants and brief them on the data collection methods, benefits of participating in the study, and assure confidentiality. I will explain that they are free to withdraw from the study at any time they wish. They will also be assured that their withdrawal will not be judged negatively.

- A9. Will informed consent be obtained from the participants?



Yes
No

If informed consent is not to be obtained please explain why. Further guidance is at <http://www.shef.ac.uk/ris/other/qov-ethics/researchethics/policy-notes/consent>
Only under exceptional circumstances are studies without informed consent permitted.
Students should consult their tutors.

A.9.1 How do you plan to obtain informed consent? (i.e. the proposed process?):

I will provide participants with a written Consent Form. I will give the forms in person. I will give participants time to read and understand the consent forms and answer their questions regarding the form. Later, I will collect the forms from the participants.

A.10 How will you ensure appropriate protection and well-being of participants?

Protection of participants will be ensured by assuring anonymity and confidentiality. I will ensure their mental well-being by assuring them that this project is not judging their teaching, that all the information they give will be used for research purposes only and that no information will be passed on to the administration or anyone other than the supervisor and/or the external examiners. I will also tell them that they can read the transcripts if they wish and that if there is any information which participants feel could be prejudicial to themselves or information that might jeopardize confidentiality, that information will be deleted from the transcripts.

I will add that the audio-recordings of their activities made during this research will be used only for analysis and for illustration in conference presentations and lectures. No other use will be made of them without their written permission, and no one outside the project will be allowed access to the original recordings.

A.11 What measures will be put in place to ensure confidentiality of personal data, where appropriate?

I will negotiate an agreement with the director that any data produced by participants will not be shown to any school staff, unless the participants give consent. Then, I will assure participants that the university will not be shown any data. I will also assure that only the researcher and/or the supervisor will have access to the data and that they will be given pseudonyms in order to preserve their anonymity.

A.12 Will financial / in kind payments (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) be offered to participants? (Indicate how much and on what basis this has been decided.)

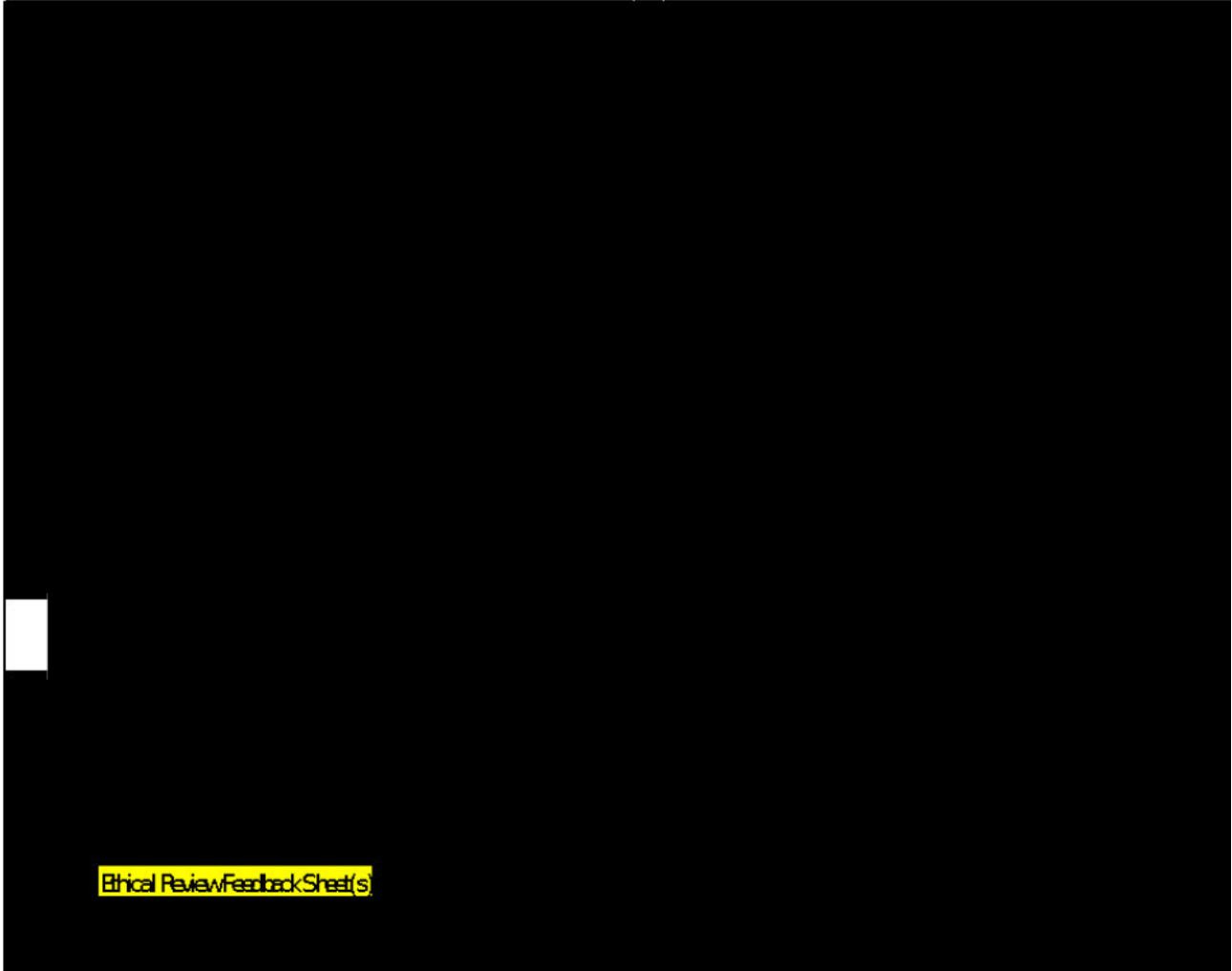
Yes
No

A.13 Will the research involve the production of recorded or photographic media such as audio and/or video recordings or photographs?

Yes
No

A.13.1 This question is only applicable if you are planning to produce recorded or visual media: How will you ensure that there is a clear agreement with participants as to how these recorded media or photographs may be stored, used and (if appropriate) destroyed?

I will make it clear in the consent form that the recorded media will only be used by the researcher and/or supervisor and that will be destroyed immediately after the research has finished.



Ethical Review Feedback Sheet(s)

Participant Consent Form

Title of Project: Exploring Turkish Cypriot and Turkish English teachers' language practices in foreign language classrooms, specifically within one university foundation program (Prep) in the north of Cyprus.

Name of Researcher: Leyla Silman Karanfil

Participant Identification Number for this project:

Please initial box

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated <i>[insert date]</i> for the above project and have had the opportunity to ask questions. | <input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason. Contact number: + 90 533 864 99 11 | <input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I understand that my responses will be anonymised before analysis. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. | <input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I agree to take part in the above research project. | <input style="width: 40px; height: 20px;" type="checkbox"/> |

Name of Participant <i>(or legal representative)</i>	Date	Signature
---	------	-----------

Name of person taking consent <i>(if different from lead researcher)</i> <i>To be signed and dated in presence of the participant</i>	Date	Signature
---	------	-----------

Lead Researcher <i>To be signed and dated in presence of the participant</i>	Date	Signature
---	------	-----------

Copies:

Once this has been signed by all parties the participant should receive a copy of the signed and dated participant consent form, the letter/pre-written script/information sheet and any other written information provided to the participants. A copy for the signed and dated consent form should be placed in the project's main record (e.g. a site file), which must be kept in a secure location.

04/04/2013 Leyla Silman Karanfil

Information Sheet

Research Project Title:

Exploring Turkish Cypriot and Turkish English teachers' language practices in foreign language classrooms, specifically within one university foundation program (Prep) in the north of Cyprus.

Invitation

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore how teachers' social and cultural backgrounds affect the nature of the language they use in the class. Participants accepting the invitation to take part in this study will be interviewed, and observed. The interviews and observations will be audio-recorded and transcribed. The transcriptions will be analysed for patterns relating to teachers' language use. The tapes and transcripts will be treated strictly confidential. Participants will take part in one audio-taped interviews lasting about one hour at this institution or at an alternative location of the participants' choosing. Three observations will be carried out at the teachers' classrooms.

Reason why you have been chosen

This study will take place at this university and you have been asked to participate in this study due to your familiarity with the program offered at the university. The teachers who have been asked to take part represent different social and cultural backgrounds.

Do you have to take part?

Taking part is not compulsory, but your participation will greatly assist my research. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form) and you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to in any way. You do not have to give a reason.

Duration of this research

The research will approximately last for two years and should you agree to participate, you will be asked to be involved for six months.

What would you have to do?

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, you are not expected to make any preparations neither for the interviews nor the observations. You will be asked to spare approximately one hour for the interviews, at a day, place and time suitable for you. You will also choose the time for the observations.

Date:04/04/2013

1

Name of Applicant: Leyla Silman Karanfil

Appendix B: Interview framework for teachers

PART A. Demographics

1. Can I have your full name, please?
2. What is your e-mail address? (Please list the e-mail address you check most frequently.)
3. May I contact you at this e-mail address to further discuss your answers?
4. What is the highest level of education you have achieved?
5. How long have you been working for this institution?
6. Have you ever worked as a teacher before you started working here? If Yes. For how long? and which subjects and age levels did you teach? In what context did you teach?

PART B. Background

7. Tell me about yourself. Where were you born? Have you always been living in the city you were born in? Can you talk about your friends?
8. Could you please tell me about your educational background? Please start from your childhood.
9. How did you learn English?
10. What did you do as a learner to learn English? Did you do any self-studies? If so, could you explain what your self-studies involved?

PART C. Prior learning experience

11. Please describe one of your past teachers who you favoured most? What was s/he like?
12. How would you describe his/her lessons? What makes you think in that way?
13. What was her/his her teaching and practice like? Could you describe one of his/her lessons?
14. How were you expected to behave as a learner?
15. What kind of role did your teacher take?
16. Can you remember what kinds of activities you did?
17. Was L1 allowed in your classes?
18. You've been emphasizing with students in certain aspects reflecting on your own learning experience. Do you think your own language learning experiences have any influence on the way you teach?

19. You've been criticising some student's behaviours in certain aspects reflecting on your own learning experience. Do you think your own language learning experiences have any influence on the way you teach?

PART D. Professional Training

20. Have you had any previous teacher training? If Yes, What kind(s) of training did you complete and where?
21. In your post observation interviews you've been referring to some practices that you studied in your teacher education courses. Do you ever find yourself replicating these in class?
22. Have these courses had an effect on the way you teach? If so how?
23. Thinking back to any teacher training courses you may have been involved in, in the past, are there any points of conflict between what you were taught and what you have learned from your own experience?

PART E. Closeness to English

24. Have you been to an English speaking country? If so, what was your experience there like?
25. If not, have you been to a foreign country where you had to use English to communicate with the people there? If so could you talk about your experience in conversing in English?
26. How much English do you use/are you exposed to when you are not teaching?
27. Does English play an important role in your life? Do you use it outside the school? If so, could you tell me why you use it? Can you give me some examples?
28. How much is your teaching life in harmony with your personal life?

PART F. Own policy

29. There are different opinions on the use of L1 in class. Some support its use, while others are totally against it. Could you tell me where you are in this argument? And could you please explain why?
30. Some say that using L2-only is challenging. What is your opinion on this? Could you explain this? If you agree/disagree, could you explain why this is so? Can you exemplify this referring to your teaching?
31. During the post observation interviews you've been saying that you felt you have to use L1. Where does this feeling come from?
32. I've observed some use of L1 in your classes both from you and the students. Why does this happen? How do you feel about this?

33. You've been saying that you feel guilty/frustrated in certain situations where you allowed students' use of L1. Why AND/OR You've felt ok with students' use of L1 in certain situations.
34. Do you have a language policy? If so, could you describe it?
35. Based on what we've been discussing in these interviews and post observation interviews, can you reflect on your teaching?

PART G. Perception of NCC's policy

36. What do you think is expected from you as a teacher, specifically in terms of language use?
37. How would you describe the schools' language policy?
38. Could you describe your experience in following the school's language policy?
39. To what extent is the school's language policy in line with yours?
40. When talking about your classes, you've kept mentioning the fact that you're teaching in the extended semester. What is it that stands out in this semester?
41. You've been saying that you have to do this and you have to do that in this semester. What is it that you have to do?
42. Is this semester different or the same as from the other semesters? Please explain

Interview framework for the POINTs

Opening statement: The purpose of this session is to help me understand more clearly the lesson that I observed. I would like to focus specifically on this lesson. Do you have any questions before we begin?

(allow for questions and begin audio recording)

Observation Questions Framework:

1. Please tell me about the observed lesson. What stood out in the lesson?
2. What were your intended aims and objectives of that lesson?
3. Do you think you achieved those aims?
4. How do you know this?

If considered necessary, teachers were given a stimulus based on their actions in class and they were asked to reflect on their behaviour:

5. Can you explain to me why you chose to use that/those particular method/activity?

Framework for FG interviews

1. What made you choose teaching?
2. During our interviews we all talked about L1 being natural or not natural in certain situations. To what extent do you consider speaking in English to Turkish students natural or not? Would your concept of being natural depend on your closeness/familiarity to/of the English culture? Would using English in the class be more natural had you lived in an English speaking country?
3. I visited all of your classes and observed that you all used L1 in class to a certain extent. What is the ideal amount of L1 in a class do you think? Can you explain?
4. I've observed some use of L1 in your classes. To what extent is this in line with the teacher education (or teacher training activities you were involved in), you received?
5. In your post observation interviews you've talking about some practices that you used to do as a learner. Do you ever find yourself reverting to your prior learning experiences in your teaching?
6. You all discussed your favourite teachers; can you compare your own teaching to that of your teachers?
7. Cultures of learning is defined as such:

Owing to their backgrounds, teachers' have certain frameworks of expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs about successful teaching/learning and about how to use talk in interaction (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). Do you believe that our cultures of learning have an effect on the way we teach? If so could you explain this?

Framework for FUs

1. What do you think your role as a teacher is?
2. What do you think your students' roles are?
3. What is your ideal teaching approach?
4. To what extent is allowing L1 in line with your ideal teaching? Why?
5. What stands out in your teaching and your language practice?
6. To what extent is allowing L1 in line with your ideal teaching?
7. You are about to begin a new semester: the extended semester (the same time we conducted the interviews and observations) What stands out in the extended semester?
8. Is your teaching in line with your ideal teaching? Could you explain in what ways? If not why?
9. Do you think there are certain things that influence your teaching? If so, what do you think they are?
10. Do you think there are certain things that influence your in-class language practice? If so, what do you think they are?

Framework for interviews with the MOAB

PART A. Demographics

1. Can I have your full name, please?
2. What is your e-mail address? (Please list the e-mail address you check most frequently.)
3. May I contact you at this e-mail address to further discuss your answers?
4. What is the highest level of education you have achieved?
5. How long have you been working for this institution?
6. Have you ever worked as a teacher before you started working here? If Yes. For how long? and which subjects and age levels did you teach? In what context did you teach?

PART B. Background

7. Tell me about yourself. Where were you born? Have you always been living in the city you were born in? Can you talk about your friends?
8. Could you please tell me about your educational background? Please start from your childhood.
9. How did you learn English?
10. What did you do as a learner to learn English? Did you do any self-studies? If so, could you explain what your self-studies involved?

PART C. Prior learning experience

11. Please describe one of your past teachers who you favoured most? What was s/he like?
12. How would you describe his/her lessons? What makes you think in that way?
13. What was her/his her teaching and practice like? Could you describe one of his/her lessons?
14. How were you expected to behave as a learner?
15. What kind of role did your teacher take?
16. Can you remember what kinds of activities you did?
17. Was L1 allowed in your classes?

PART D. Professional Training

18. Have you had any previous teacher training? If Yes, What kind(s) of training did you complete and where?
19. Have these courses had an effect on the way you teach? If so how?

20. Thinking back to any teacher training courses you may have been involved in, in the past, are there any points of conflict between what you were taught and what you have learned from your own experience?

PART E. Closeness to English

21. Have you been to an English speaking country? If so, what was your experience there like?
22. If not, have you been to a foreign country where you had to use English to communicate with the people there? If so could you talk about your experience in conversing in English?
23. How much English do you use/are you exposed to when you are not teaching?
24. Does English play an important role in your life? Do you use it outside the school? If so, could you tell me why you use it? Can you give me some examples?
25. How much is your teaching life in harmony with your personal life?

PART F. Own policy

26. There are different opinions on the use of L1 in class. Some support its use, while others are totally against it. Could you tell me where you are in this argument? And could you please explain why?
27. Some say that using L2-only is challenging. What is your opinion on this? Could you explain this? If you agree/disagree, could you explain why this is so? Can you exemplify this referring to your teaching?

PART G. NCC's policy

28. What is expected from teacher working at NCC, specifically in terms of language use?
29. How would you describe the schools' language policy?
30. To what extent is the school's language policy in line with yours?
31. What is it that stands out in this semester? How do you think teachers feel? How do you think students feel?
32. Do you think teachers meet with challenges in this semester or not in terms?

PART H. TCs and TR teachers

33. Could you please explain the procedure involved in the recruitment of new teachers?
34. Is there any difference in the procedure of the recruitment of TC and TR teachers?
35. Is there any reason why the number of TR teachers surpass the number of TC teachers?

36. What do you think stand out in TC teachers language practice?
37. What do you think stands out in TR teachers language practices?
38. What are the similarities and differences between the language practices of TC and TR teachers' language practices?

Appendix C: NCC-Documents

2012-2013 SPRING SEMESTER PRE-INTERMEDIATE GROUP 3rd SPAN PROGRAMME

	8.40-10.30	10.40-12.30	13.40-15.30	MTR Outside Reading	HW: Reading & Language Practice Material for Summer School: RLP
Jun.17	LL U10.1 ²	LL U10.2 ²	LL U10.3 ²		Cloze Tests 1-5
18	MTR 41 ² + ☺	GHO7A ²	LWHO15 ²		
19	LWHO15 ²	RLP Dialogue Comp.1-10 ²	GHO7A ²		
20	OLR skills ² (p.134-136)	MTR 160 ²	GHO7B ²		Read. Practice 4
21	OLR skills ² (p.137-139) + ☺	GHO7B ²	RLP Resp. to a Sit. 1-10 ²		
24	LL U11.1 ²	LWHO16 ²	LL U11.2 ²		
25	LL U11.3 ²	GHO8 ²	LWHO16 ²	20	
26	OLR U7 Text 1 ²	MTR 123 ²	GHO8 ²	108	
27	OLR U7 Text 2 ²	RLP Cloze Tests 6-10 ²	LL U11.5 ² (p.120)	162	
28	RLP Resp. to a Sit. 11-20 ²	RLP Read. Practice 5 ²	RLP Dialogue Comp. 11-20 ²		
Jul. 01	LL U12.1 ²	LWHO17 ²	LL U12.2 ²		
02	OLR U7 Text 3 ²	GHO9 ²	LWHO17 ²		
03	OLR U7 Text 4 ²	RLP Dialogue Comp. 21- 30 ²	LWHO18 ²	133	
04	GHO9 ²	LWHO18 ²	RLP Resp. to a Sit. 21-30 ²	119	
05	MTR 113 ²	MTR 26+117 ²	RLP Cloze Tests 11-15 ²		

08	OLR skills ² (p.157-163)	OLR U8 Text 1 ²	LWHO19 ²		
09	LWHO19 ²	LL U12.3 ²	LL U12.5+ Review U10- U12 ²		
10	LWHO20 ²	LWHO20 ²	GHO10 ²		
11	GHO10 ²	RLP Read. Practice 9 ²	RLP Resp. to a Sit. 31-40 ²		
12	MTR 67+128 ²	RLP Cloze Tests 16-20 ²	RLP Dialogue Comp. 31- 40 ²		
15	LWHO21 ²	LWHO21 ²	RLP Dialogue Comp. 41-50 ²		
16	LWHO22 ²	LWHO22 ²	RLP Resp. to a Sit. 41-50 ²		
17	OLR U8 Text 2 ²	RLP Cloze Tests 21-25 ²	REVISION ²		
18	OLR U8 Text 3 ²	RLP Read. Practice 10	REVISION ²		
Jul. 19	MT05 at 09:40 (No classes after the exam)				
22	MTR App. A ³		LWHO23 ³		
23	LWHO23 ¹ + OLR U8 Text 4 ²		MTR App. B ³		
24	REVISION ³		REVISION ³		
Jul. 25	MOCK PROFICIENCY				
Jul. 26	FEEDBACK				
Jul. 29	PROFICIENCY EXAM at 10:00				

Abbreviations and symbols:

RLP: Reading & Language Practice Material for Summer School
☺ : Please check the assigned RLP sections

NOTES ON THE PROGRAM

LANGUAGE LEADER INTERMEDIATE

Unit 10			
10.1		p. 103 Ex.7	Optional
10.4	Scenario	p. 108-109	Please omit
10.5	Study & Writing Skills	p. 110	Please omit
Unit 11			
11.1		p. 113 Ex.7	Optional
		Ex.8	Please omit
11.3		p. 117 Ex.7	Optional
11.4	Scenario	p. 118-119	Please omit
11.5	Study Skills	p. 120	Optional
11.5	Writing Skills	p. 121	Please omit
Unit 12			
12.1		p. 123 Ex.7	Please omit
12.3		p. 127 Ex.8	Optional
12.4	Scenario	p. 128-129	Please omit
12.5	Study Skills	p. 130	Optional
12.5	Writing Skills	p. 131	Please omit

- Students are responsible for *the Language Reference and Extra Practice* pages at the end of the book. These items are included in **the testing syllabus.**
- Grammar handouts have been prepared to supplement the language structures in the book. Please cover the handouts in class as indicated in the program and note that the contents of the handouts are included in **the testing syllabus.**
- Please remember to go over the **passive form** of each tense/modal right after presenting the tense/modal in question since **students will be held responsible for having learned the passive forms of all tenses covered throughout the span.**
- No class hours have been allotted for the exercises in the *online workbook*—www.mylanguageleaderlab.com as the students are expected to do them **in their own time online.** However, if you feel the need, you can assign and check your choice of exercises in class in the class hours allocated for each unit.
- Five language practice handouts have been prepared to help students practice the necessary skills for the EPE exam, which include cloze tests, dialogue completion and response writing.
- As students need *mechanical exercises*, please **assign the pages in the chart given at the end of the program for further practice.** It is the students' responsibility to **do them on their own.** Please use your office hours to answer their questions from these exercises.

LISTENING - WRITING HANDOUTS

- Listening - Writing handouts have been prepared to help students practice the necessary skills for the EPE exam, which include receptive skills (while-listening and note-taking) and productive skills (writing to answer a question and to express their opinion on a given topic).
- Please note the students are **NOT expected to follow process writing procedures** for these handouts, and therefore, **NOT expected to put them in their writing portfolios.**

WWW.OFFLINE.READINGS1

- **www.offline.readings1** is to be covered in class. Please encourage your students to write full sentences while answering the comprehension questions of the readings.
- Please note that *the skills* and *the vocabulary items* are included in the testing syllabus.

MORE TO READ I (In class & Outside Reading)

- Please remind your students that they are also responsible for **the active vocabulary** of the book. These items are included in the testing syllabus.
- No class hours have been allotted for *the outside readings* in the program as the students are expected to do them in their own time, referring to the answer key of the book which is available on the *students' page*.
- Reading practice handouts have been prepared to help students practice the necessary skills for the EPE exam, which include multiple choice reading comprehension and logical sequence and paragraph completion questions.

SPEAKING

- The speaking activities in *Language Leader-Intermediate* along with the *key language structures, other useful phrases* and *vocabulary items* are included in the testing syllabus and may also be tested through *listening, reading* and *writing skills*.

VOCABULARY

- Please note that students will be responsible for the vocabulary items listed in the active vocabulary lists of *Language Leader-Intermediate* (which can be found in the *review sections*), and the vocabulary journals of *www.offline.readings1*, and *More to Read I*.
- Collocations other than those that appear in reading texts in the *vocabulary journal* are for students who want to extend their vocabulary repertoire. They are **not included in the testing syllabus**.

UNDERSTANDING AND USING ENGLISH GRAMMAR			
UNIT	CHAPTE R		EXERCISE
Unit 10	7-9	p.122	Ex.32, Ex.33, Ex.34
	7-10	p.126	Ex.36, Ex.37, Ex.38, Ex.39
	7-12	p.131	Ex.45, Ex.46, Ex.50
GHO	14-1	p.30 1	Ex.1
	14-2	p.30 2	Ex.2, Ex.3, Ex.4, Ex.5, Ex.6
	14-3	p.30 7	Ex.11, Ex.12, Ex.13, Ex.14
	14-4	p.30 9	Ex.15, Ex.16, Ex.17
	14-5	p.31 0	Ex.19, Ex.20, Ex.22
	14-6	p.31 3	Ex.24, Ex.25, Ex.26, Ex.28
	14-7	p.317	Ex.30, Ex.31, Ex.32, Ex.33, Ex.34, Ex.35
	14-8	p.32 2	Ex.36, Ex.37, Ex.38

	14-9	p.324	
	14-10	p.325	Ex.43, Ex.44, Ex.45, Ex.46
	15-2	p.33 3	Ex.7, Ex.8
	15-6	p.34 1	Ex.24, Ex.26
GHO 7	15-8	p.34 4	Ex.29, Ex.30, Ex.31, Ex.32, Ex.34, Ex.35, Ex.36, Ex.37, Ex.38, Ex.39 Part III
Unit 11	12-2	p.24 4	Ex.6, Ex.7, Ex.9, Ex.10, Ex.11
	12-3	p.24 9	Ex.14, Ex.16, Ex.18
	12-4	p.25 2	Ex.21, Ex.22
	12-6	p.25 8	Ex.33, Ex.34
	12-7	p.26 1	Ex.37, Ex.40, Ex.41, Ex.42, Ex.43, Ex.44
GHO	12-8	p.26 8	Ex.48, Ex.49
Unit 12	20-4	p.42 1	Ex.12, Ex.13, Ex.14, Ex.15, Ex.16, Ex.17, Ex.18, Ex.19, Ex.20, Ex.21, Ex.22, Ex.23, Ex.24
	20-5	p.42 7	Ex.25, Ex.26, Ex.27
	20-6	p.42 8	Ex.29
	20-7	p.42 9	Ex.31, Ex.32
	10-3	p.18 6	Ex.12, Ex.14, Ex.16
GHO	20-9	p.43 4	Ex.40, Ex.42, Ex.43
	20-10	p.43 6	Ex.44, Ex.45, Ex.46, Ex.47
	17-11	p.38 3	Ex.35, Ex.36, Ex.37, Ex.38, Ex.39, Ex.40
	17-9	p.38 1	Ex.29, Ex.30, Ex.31
	19-5	p.40 4	Ex.17, Ex.18

SPRING SEMESTER
PRE-INTERMEDIATE GROUP
THIRD SPAN SYLLABUS

RECEPTIVE SKILLS

LISTENING

The aim is to:

- understand and carry out oral instructions,
- follow conversations,
- listen for gist,
- listen for specific information while listening to a recording,
- recognize, understand and interpret the target and/or the practised language structures,

to perform a variety of tasks such as answering True / False, multiple choice, gap filling or open-ended questions,

- practise listening strategies to prepare for the listening part of the EPE.

READING

The aim is to:

- make use of the target structures to better understand a context,
- scan a text to locate specific information,
- read in detail to complete the paraphrased version of a text,
- skim a text to understand the sequence of events,
- find what the reference words refer to in a given text,
- answer comprehension questions with full accuracy,
- guess the meanings of words using clues,
- find the relationship between the ideas in a text with the help of linkers.

VOCABULARY

The aim is to:

- use the vocabulary items indicated in the *Language Leader- Intermediate* active vocabulary list,
- use **the phrasal verbs** indicated in the *Language Leader- Intermediate* active vocabulary list for U10,
- use the vocabulary items for the fourth span in the *Vocabulary Journal* of *www.offline1* and *More to Read I*,
- use words in different parts of speech using *prefixes* and *suffixes*,
- use the skills necessary to use a monolingual dictionary.

PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

SPEAKING

The aim is to:

- talk about and/or discuss everyday issues and the topics in *Language Leader-Intermediate*,
- talk about and/or discuss trends by using:
 - using the appropriate vocabulary in LL Intermediate **Unit 10**,

- quantity expressions ***much, many, (a) few, (a) little, a couple of, a lot of, no, none, some, plenty of,*** and ***enough*** with countable and uncountable nouns or both,
- “***of***” with specific nouns as in *some of the people* vs. *some people*,
- using **gerunds** after certain verbs (***prefer, enjoy, practise, recommend, suggest, understand***) and after prepositions,
- using **the infinitive** form after certain verbs and sometimes with an object (***want (+object+to), allow (+object+to), decide, hope, manage, promise, teach(+object+to, would +verb)***)
- using **infinitives** and **gerunds** after some verbs (***advise, begin, continue, like, love, hate***) without a change in meaning,
- express opinions and ideas by forming grammatically correct sentences by using:
 - **verb + gerund or infinitive (with different meanings),**
 - **the passive forms of gerunds and infinitives,**
 - **causative verbs, verbs of perception, gerunds after certain expressions,**
- talk about and/or discuss arts and media by:
 - using the appropriate vocabulary in LL Intermediate **Unit 11**,
 - using **reported speech** to report someone’s words with changes made to the tenses, pronouns and adverbs of time and place,
 - recognizing the difference between “***tell***” and “***say***”.
 - using “**the infinitive with to**” to express commands,
 - using **question words** and **if** to report wh-questions and yes/no questions,
- express opinions and ideas by forming grammatically correct sentences by using **reported speech** with certain reporting verbs,
- talk about and/or discuss crime using:
 - using the appropriate vocabulary in LL Intermediate **Unit 12**,
 - **the third conditional** to talk about unreal situations in the past, to talk about regrets, to criticize and to make excuses,
 - “**should have + pp**” to express regret and criticism in the past,
 - “**could /might have + pp**” to express possibility in the past,
 - “**must/couldn’t/can’t have + pp**” to express certainty in the past,
 - **the mixed conditional to talk about unreal situations in the present and in the past, to talk about regrets, to criticize and to make excuses,**
- express opinions and ideas by forming grammatically correct sentences by using **unless, provided / providing (that), as / so long as, only if** to emphasize that the condition is necessary to the result, **in case / so that** to talk about imaginary future conditions or situations,
- express opinions and ideas by forming grammatically correct sentences by using **wish / if only** to express dissatisfaction, regret or annoyance, **as if / as though** to say what a situation seems like, and to indicate that the idea that follows is ‘untrue’.
- respond to questions using the appropriate structures and vocabulary provided in *Language Leader-Intermediate*,
- respond to questions using **the phrasal verbs** indicated in the *Language Leader-Intermediate* active vocabulary list for U10,
- use the vocabulary items indicated in the *Language Leader- Intermediate* active vocabulary list,
- use the vocabulary items for the fourth span in the *Vocabulary Journal* of *www.offline1* and *More to Read I*.

WRITING

The aim is to:

- paraphrase sentences, paragraphs and texts,
- use the vocabulary items indicated in the *Language Leader-Intermediate* active vocabulary list with correct spelling and collocations,

- use **the phrasal verbs** indicated in the *Language Leader- Intermediate* active vocabulary list for U10,
- use the vocabulary items for the fourth span in the *Vocabulary Journal* of *www.offline1* and *More to Read I* with correct spelling and collocations,
- use words in different parts of speech using *prefixes* and *suffixes* with correct spelling,
- take notes using symbols and abbreviations in order to answer comprehension questions and summarize main points via reading or listening,
- express opinions and ideas by forming grammatically correct sentences by using the input in the grammar handouts prepared for the fourth span (*see speaking aims*),
- brainstormed for ideas and made an outline,
- edit own work based on the criteria provided,
- recognize strengths and weaknesses based on self-reflection and teacher feedback,
- practise strategies to prepare for “the listening & note-taking and writing part” of the EPE exam by writing paragraphs to answer the given questions by using correctly **the language** and/or **the linkers** and/or **reference words** with correct spelling, punctuation, and capitalization, and maintain unity and cohesion (via parallel structures, repeated key words and linkers) throughout the paragraphs which:
 - express their opinion on whether children should be allowed to use mobile phones,
 - explain the causes of migration to urban areas,
 - explain the advantages or the disadvantages of coeducation,
 - explain the disadvantages of playing video games excessively,
 - express their opinion on whether a university degree is necessary,
 - explain the positive effects of working at a part-time job on university students,
 - express their opinion on what aspects of life have been affected positively by technological advances over the last two decades,
 - explain ways to deal with stress.

Grammar Handout 8
PRE-INTERMEDIATE GROUP
(Student's Copy)
REPORTED SPEECH (REPORTING VERBS)

You have already studied the verbs “**say**” and “**tell**” to report what somebody has said, and the verb “**ask**” to report questions. There are some other reporting verbs which indicate the **function** of the original speech. As these verbs show the **attitude** of the person speaking, they give a lot more information than *say* or *tell*.

e.g.:

“You should stop smoking.” → He **advised** her to stop smoking.

“No! I didn’t hit my sister.” → Mark **denied** that he had hit his sister/ **denied** hitting his sister.



There are several different patterns used after reporting verbs. Study the given structures and complete the blanks with the correct reporting verb from the box:

Reporting verb + to-inf	
threaten offer refuse promise agree	
Direct Speech	Reported Speech
“Yes, I’ll be happy to help you.”	→ He _____ to help me.
“Would you like me to open the door?”	→ He _____ to open the door.
“I’ll definitely be here early.”	→ He _____ to be there early.
“No, I won’t lend you any money.”	→ He _____ to lend me any money.
“Get out or I’ll shoot you.”	He _____ to shoot me if I didn’t get out.

Reporting verb + someone + to-inf				
remind	ask	recommend	advise	forbid
encourage	invite	warn	order	

Direct Speech		Reported Speech
"You should see a doctor."	→	He _____ me to see a doctor
"Please, turn the light off."	→	He _____ me to turn the light off.
"Go ahead, drive the car."	→	He _____ me to drive the car.
"You must not eat sweets."	→	He _____ me to eat sweets.
"Would you like to come out to dinner with me?"	→	He _____ me to go out to dinner with him.
"Close the door immediately."	→	He _____ me to close the door.
"Don't forget to water the plants."	→	He _____ me to water the plants.
"This is a good book to read."	→	He _____ me to read that book.
"Don't go near the edge of the cliff."		He _____ me not to go near the edge of the cliff.

Reporting verb + -ing

			admit (to)	suggest	regret	advise	recommend	deny
Direct Speech		Reported Speech						
"You should take some rest."	→	He _____ taking some rest.						
"Yes, I broke the window."	→	He _____ (to) breaking the window.						
"No, I didn't break the window."	→	He _____ breaking the window.						
"Let's go out for a walk."	→	He _____ going out for a walk.						
"It would be a good idea to keep a diary."	→	He _____ keeping a diary.						
"I shouldn't have invited her."	→	He _____ inviting her.						

Reporting verb + preposition+ -ing

complain (to sb) about	accuse sb of	insist on	apologise (to sb) for
------------------------	-----------------	-----------	-----------------------

Direct Speech		Reported Speech
"You stole my handbag!"	→	She _____ me _____ stealing her handbag.
"I'm sorry I was rude to you."	→	He _____ being rude to me.
"You must take all the medicine."	→	He _____ me/my taking all the medicine.
"You always leave the door open."	→	He _____ to me _____ my always leaving the door open.

Reporting verb + that-clause						
complain	admit	explain	promise	deny	suggest	claim
Direct Speech						Reported Speech
"You never help me."		→				She _____ that he never helped her.
"I didn't touch the vase!"		→				He _____ that he had touched the vase.
"I won't come as I'm going to stay with my sister."		→				He _____ that he wouldn't come as he was going to stay with his sister.
"We'll reduce the taxes."		→				They _____ that they would reduce the taxes.
"You ought to help her out."		→				He _____ that I help/helped her out.
"Yes, I broke the window."		→				He _____ that he had broken the window.
"I know who stole your car."		→				He _____ that he knew who had stolen my car.
Some other verbs followed by a that clause are: add, agree, answer, announce, boast, confirm, comment, consider, decide, doubt, estimate, exclaim, expect, fear, feel, find, guarantee, hope, insist, mention, observe, persuade, propose, remark, remember, remind, repeat, reply, report, reveal, state, suppose, think, threaten, understand, warn.						

EXERCISE I. Fill in the blanks with the reporting verbs in the box.

asked	suggested	warned	explained
told	advised	reminded	

Mrs. Welch was at the doctor's office yesterday. She (1) _____ him that she hadn't been feeling well recently. The doctor (2) _____ her to roll up her sleeve and took her blood pressure. He (3) _____ that she hadn't been feeling well because of her high blood pressure. He (4) _____ her to cut down on salt. He (5) _____ that she should go on a diet. He (6) _____ her that she might make herself seriously ill. He also (7) _____ her that she was not a young woman any more.

EXERCISE II. Change the sentences below into reported speech.

1. "You never lift a finger to help me"
My mother complained _____

2. "I'll give you a hand with your homework this evening".
My father promised _____

3. "I'm late because the bus broke down."
The student explained _____

4. "I had an accident with your car, father."
The boy admitted _____

5. "Why don't we eat out tonight?"
Tom suggested _____

6. "Would you like to stay with us for the weekend?"
Sally invited _____

7. "The pot is hot. Don't touch it."
My mother warned _____

8. "You should see a dietician if you want to lose weight."
Her friend advised _____

9. "Please lock the door when you leave, son."
John's father reminded _____

10. "I didn't steal the money."
The little girl denied _____

11. "Shall I help you carry the bags?"
The shop assistant offered _____

12. "I'm sorry because I didn't tell you the truth"
Kevin apologized _____

EXERCISE III. Read the dialogue between Bella and Adam. Rewrite the underlined sentences using the given clues in the blanks.

Bella: You look terrible. Are you all right?

Adam: Yes, thanks. I'm just very tired.

Bella: (1) What time did you go to bed last night?

Adam: Quite early, actually. The problem was that I couldn't get to sleep. It was the neighbours again. (2) Every night, they play loud music until 12 a.m.

Bella: Why don't you ask them to make less noise?

Adam: I have already done that. (3) They said: "We will try to be a bit quieter." However, nothing has changed for the better.

Bella: (4) You should see a solicitor.

Adam: That's not a bad idea. I need some legal advice.

Bella: (5) I can give you the name of a good solicitor.

Adam: Thanks. That will be very useful. I have never been to a solicitor before. By the way, it is already 9 a.m. I'm going to be late.

Bella: Oh, no. Hurry up. (6) Don't forget to meet me in the canteen after class.

A few minutes later ...

Adam: Good morning, Prof. Grady. I'm sorry I'm late. May I come in?

Prof. Grady: (7) No, you may not come in, Adam. You know, I never let latecomers in. My students have to be on time.

(1) Bella asked Adam

(2) Adam complained

(3) They promised

(4) Bella advised

(5) Bella offered

(6) Bella reminded

(7) Prof. Grady didn't allow

EXERCISE IV. Report the following sentences with the suitable reporting verbs in the box.

denied	refused	admitted	warned
---------------	----------------	-----------------	---------------

1. Daniel: All right, it is true. I stole the money.

Daniel _____

2. Jason: No! I didn't steal the car.

Jason _____

3. Mrs. Anderson: Don't play with the matches, Robert.

Mrs. Anderson

4. Mary: Jack, would you like to have dinner with us?

Mary _____

5. Susan: I'll not take part in the new play.

Susan _____

suggested	advised	explained	reminded	apologized
------------------	----------------	------------------	-----------------	-------------------

6. Derek: Why don't we go to London this weekend?

Derek _____

7. Tom: I'm sorry. I didn't bring the book with me.

Tom _____

8. Sue: I haven't photocopied the documents due to the power cut.

Sue _____

9. Roy: Don't forget to bring your surf when you come to Miami, Anna.

Roy _____

10. Frank: If I were you, I would not accept the offer, Rose.

Frank _____

HOMEWORK. MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES.

I. Report the following sentences using the verbs in the box. Use each reporting verb only ONCE. Do not change the forms of the verbs.

Norwegian BASE jumper Karina Hollekim survived a horrific crash in 2006. Below are some extracts from a press conference which Hollekim, several reporters and a spokesman for Go Fast Sports attended.

1. Karina Hollekim: "I'm leaving jumping for a while because of the accident."

Karina Hollekim _____ because of the accident.

2. Karina Hollekim: "Yes. I suffered from depression for about three months after the accident."

Karina Hollekim _____ for about three months after the accident.

3. Karina Hollekim: "Young people should gain experience through skydiving before BASE jumping."

Karina Hollekim _____ through skydiving before BASE jumping.

4. The reporter to Karina Hollekim: "Are you going to participate in the World BASE Race next month?"

The reporter _____

5. A spokesperson for Go Fast Sports to young BASE jumpers: "Don't forget to visit our website for the coming BASE jumping events."

A spokesperson for Go Fast Sports _____ for the coming BASE jumping events.

6. A spokesperson for Go Fast Sports: "We will sponsor the amateur jumpers joining our air show this year."

A spokesperson for Go Fast _____

II. Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs in parentheses for questions 1-12 and rewrite the underlined sentences A-C using the given clues in the blanks.

☺ Samantha kept (1) _____ (have) problems with her computer at work.

(A) Her co-worker Denise said: "Let's shut down your computer."

☺ Yesterday, a robbery took place on the 5th Avenue and I saw everything. The police quickly surrounded the building. (B) An officer said to the onlookers: "Move back behind the rows of vehicles!" A woman was crying and she begged one of the policeman (2) _____ (find) out whether her husband was in the building. The policeman didn't let her (3) _____ (cross) the police line. I waited there with the crowd for at least an hour. (C) As I waited, I got bored. I was just about to leave when the crowd grew silent as one of the robbers walked out, (4) _____ (point) a machine gun at a young woman. (C) One of the police officers said to the robber: "Don't harm any of the

hostages”. At that moment, we heard the chief of the police officers (5) _____
(shout) “Shoot him!” and saw the robber (6) _____ (fall) to the ground. After a
while, the paramedics picked up the wounded man and took him away in an ambulance.

Rewrite the underlined sentences A-C

(A) Her co-worker Denise said: “Let’s shut down your computer.”

Her co-worker Denise suggested _____

(B) An officer said to the onlookers: “Move back behind the rows of vehicles!”

An officer told _____

(C) One of the police officers said to the robber: “Don’t harm any of the hostages”.

One of the police officers warned _____

References:

Evans, V., *FCE Use of English 1*, Express Publishing, 2008.

Ekmekçi, İ., Onat, Ç. *Practice Your Grammar*, METU, 2003.

DBE Materials and Testing Archives

Grammar Handout 8
PRE-INTERMEDIATE GROUP
(Instructor's Copy)
REPORTED SPEECH (REPORTING VERBS)

You have already studied the verbs “*say*” and “*tell*” to report what somebody has said, and the verb “*ask*” to report questions. There are some other reporting verbs which indicate the *function* of the original speech. As these verbs show the *attitude* of the person speaking, they give a lot more information than *say* or *tell*.

e.g.:

“You should stop smoking.” → He *advised* her to stop smoking.

“No! I didn’t hit my sister.” → Mark *denied* that he had hit his sister/ *denied* hitting his sister.



There are several different patterns used after reporting verbs. Study the given structures and complete the blanks with the correct reporting verb from the box:

Reporting verb + to-inf				
threaten	offer	refuse	promise	agree
Direct Speech			Reported Speech	
“Yes, I’ll be happy to help you.”		→	He <u><i>agreed</i></u> to help me.	
“Would you like me to open the door?”		→	He <u><i>offered</i></u> to open the door.	
“I’ll definitely be here early.”		→	He <u><i>promised</i></u> to be there early.	
“No, I won’t lend you any money.”		→	He <u><i>refused</i></u> to lend me any money.	
“Get out or I’ll shoot you.”		→	He <u><i>threatened</i></u> to shoot me if I didn’t get out.	

Reporting verb + someone + to-inf				
remind	ask	recommend	advise	forbid
encourage	invite	warn	order	

Direct Speech		Reported Speech
“You should see a doctor.”	→	He <u>advised</u> me to see a doctor
“Please, turn the light off.”	→	He <u>asked</u> me to turn the light off.
“Go ahead, drive the car.”	→	He <u>encouraged</u> me to drive the car.
“You must not eat sweets.”	→	He <u>forbade</u> me to eat sweets.
“Would you like to come out to dinner with me?”	→	He <u>invited</u> me to go out to dinner with him.
“Close the door immediately.”	→	He <u>ordered</u> me to close the door.
“Don’t forget to water the plants.”	→	He <u>reminded</u> me to water the plants.
“This is a good book to read.”	→	He <u>recommended</u> me to read that book.
“Don’t go near the edge of the cliff.”		He <u>warned</u> me not to go near the edge of the cliff.

Reporting verb + -ing

Direct Speech		Reported Speech
“You should take some rest.”	→	He <u>advised</u> taking some rest.
“Yes, I broke the window.”	→	He <u>admitted</u> (to) breaking the window.
“No, I didn’t break the window.”	→	He <u>denied</u> breaking the window.
“Let’s go out for a walk.”	→	He <u>suggested</u> going out for a walk.
“It would be a good idea to keep a diary.”	→	He <u>recommended</u> keeping a diary.
“I shouldn’t have invited her.”	→	He <u>regretted</u> inviting her.

Reporting verb + preposition+ -ing

Direct Speech		Reported Speech
“I complain about the noise.”	→	He <u>complained</u> about the noise.
“I accuse you of cheating.”	→	He <u>accused</u> me of cheating.
“I insist on seeing the manager.”	→	He <u>insisted</u> on seeing the manager.
“I apologise for being late.”	→	He <u>apologised</u> for being late.

Direct Speech		Reported Speech
“You stole my handbag!”	→	She <u>accused</u> me <u>of</u> stealing her handbag.
“I’m sorry I was rude to you.”	→	He <u>apologised for</u> being rude to me.
“You must take all the medicine.”	→	He <u>insisted on</u> me/my taking all the medicine.
“You always leave the door open.”	→	He <u>complained</u> to me <u>about</u> my always leaving the door open.

Reporting verb + that-clause						
complain	admit	explain	promise	deny	suggest	claim
Direct Speech						Reported Speech
“You never help me.”						→ She <u>complained</u> that he never helped her.
“I didn’t touch the vase!”						→ He <u>denied</u> that he had touched the vase.
“I won’t come as I’m going to stay with my sister.”						→ He <u>explained</u> that he wouldn’t come as he was going to stay with his sister.
“We’ll reduce the taxes.”						→ They <u>promised</u> that they would reduce the taxes.
“You ought to help her out.”						→ He <u>suggested</u> that I help/helped her out.
“Yes, I broke the window.”						→ He <u>admitted</u> that he had broken the window.
“I know who stole your car.”						→ He <u>claimed</u> that he knew who had stolen my car.
Some other verbs followed by a that clause are:						
add, agree, answer, announce, boast, confirm, comment, consider, decide, doubt, estimate, exclaim, expect, fear, feel, find, guarantee, hope, insist, mention, observe, persuade, propose, remark, remember, remind, repeat, reply, report, reveal, state, suppose, think, threaten, understand, warn.						

EXERCISE I. Fill in the blanks with the reporting verbs in the box.

asked	suggested	warned	explained
told	advised	reminded	

Mrs. Welch was at the doctor’s office yesterday. She (1) **told** him that she hadn’t been feeling well recently. The doctor (2) **asked** her to roll up her sleeve and took her blood pressure. He (3) **explained** that she hadn’t been feeling well because of

her high blood pressure. He (4) advised her to cut down on salt. He (5) suggested that she should go on a diet. He (6) warned her that she might make herself seriously ill. He also (7) reminded her that she was not a young woman any more.

EXERCISE II. Change the sentences below into reported speech.

1. "You never lift a finger to help me"
My mother complained that I never lifted a finger to help her.
2. "I'll give you a hand with your homework this evening".
My father promised to give me a hand with my homework this/that evening. /
that he would give me a hand with my homework this/that
evening.
3. "I'm late because the bus broke down."
The student explained that he was late because the bus had broken down.
4. "I had an accident with your car, father."
The boy admitted having an accident with his father's car. /
that he had had an accident with his father's car.
5. "Why don't we eat out tonight?"
Tom suggested eating out tonight / that night. /
that they (should) eat out tonight / that night.
6. "Would you like to stay with us for the weekend?"
Sally invited me/us to stay with them for the weekend.
7. "The pot is hot. Don't touch it."
My mother warned me that the pot was hot. /
me not to touch the pot.
8. "You should see a dietician if you want to lose weight."
Her friend advised seeing a dietician if she wanted to lose weight. /
that she (should) see a dietician if she wanted to lose weight. /
her to see a dietician if she wanted to lose weight.
9. "Please lock the door when you leave, son."
John's father reminded him to lock the door when he left.
10. "I didn't steal the money."
The little girl denied stealing the money. /
that she had stolen the money.
11. "Shall I help you carry the bags?"
The shop assistant offered to help me carry my bags.
12. "I'm sorry because I didn't tell you the truth"
Kevin apologized (to me) for not telling the truth.

EXERCISE III. Read the dialogue between Bella and Adam. Rewrite the underlined sentences using the given clues in the blanks.

Bella: You look terrible. Are you all right?

Adam: Yes, thanks. I'm just very tired.

Bella: (1) What time did you go to bed last night?

Adam: Quite early, actually. The problem was that I couldn't get to sleep. It was the neighbours again. (2) Every night, they play loud music until 12 a.m.

Bella: Why don't you ask them to make less noise?

Adam: I have already done that. (3) They said: "We will try to be a bit quieter." However, nothing has changed for the better.

Bella: (4) You should see a solicitor.

Adam: That's not a bad idea. I need some legal advice.

Bella: (5) I can give you the name of a good solicitor.

Adam: Thanks. That will be very useful. I have never been to a solicitor before. By the way, it is already 9 a.m. I'm going to be late.

Bella: Oh, no. Hurry up. (6) Don't forget to meet me in the canteen after class.

A few minutes later ...

Adam: Good morning, Prof. Grady. I'm sorry I'm late. May I come in?

Prof. Grady: (7) No, you may not come in, Adam. You know, I never let latecomers in. My students have to be on time.

(1) Bella asked Adam what time he had gone to bed the night before / the previous night.

(2) Adam complained (that) every night, they played loud music until 12 a.m.

(3) They promised (to try) to be a bit quieter. / (Adam) (that) they would (try to) be a bit quieter.

(4) Bella advised Adam/him to see a solicitor / that Adam should see a solicitor / seeing a solicitor.

(5) Bella offered to give him / Adam the name of a good solicitor.

(6) Bella reminded Adam / him (not to forget) to meet her in the canteen after class.

(7) Prof. Grady didn't allow Adam / him to come in / to enter / to walk in (the class).

EXERCISE IV. Report the following sentences with the suitable reporting verbs in the box.

denied	refused	admitted	warned
---------------	----------------	-----------------	---------------

1. Daniel: All right, it is true. I stole the money.

Daniel admitted stealing the money / admitted that he had stolen the money.

2. Jason: No! I didn't steal the car.

Jason denied that he had stolen the car / denied stealing the car.

3. Mrs. Anderson: Don't play with the matches, Robert.

Mrs. Anderson warned Robert not to play with the matches.

4. Mary: Jack, would you like to have dinner with us?

Mary invited Jack to have dinner with them / invited Jack to / for dinner.

5. Susan: I'll not take part in the new play.
Susan refused to take part in the new play.
6. Derek: Why don't we go to London this weekend?
Derek suggested that we (should) go to London this/that weekend./suggested going to London this/that weekend.
7. Tom: I'm sorry. I didn't bring the book with me.
Tom apologized for not bringing the book with him.
8. Sue: I haven't photocopied the documents due to the power cut.
Sue explained that she hadn't photocopied the documents due to the power cut.
9. Roy: Don't forget to bring your surf when you come to Miami, Anna.
Roy reminded Anna to bring her surf when she came to Miami.
10. Frank: If I were you, I would not accept the offer, Rose.
Frank advised Rose not to accept the offer.

HOMEWORK. MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES.

I. Report the following sentences using the verbs in the box. Use each reporting verb only ONCE. Do not change the forms of the verbs.

Norwegian BASE jumper Karina Hollekim survived a horrific crash in 2006. Below are some extracts from a press conference which Hollekim, several reporters and a spokesman for Go Fast Sports attended.

1. Karina Hollekim: "I'm leaving jumping for a while because of the accident."

Karina Hollekim explained that she was leaving jumping for a while because of the accident.

2. Karina Hollekim: "Yes. I suffered from depression for about three months after the accident."

Karina Hollekim admitted (that) she had suffered from depression/ admitted suffering from depression for about three months after the accident.

3. Karina Hollekim: "Young people should gain experience through skydiving before BASE jumping."

Karina Hollekim advised young people to gain experience/advised gaining experience/advised that young people (should) gain experience through skydiving before BASE jumping.

4. The reporter to Karina Hollekim: "Are you going to participate in the World BASE Race next month?"

The reporter asked (Karina/her) if/whether she was going to participate in the World Base Race the following month /the month after.

5. A spokesperson for Go Fast Sports to young BASE jumpers: "Don't forget to visit our website for the coming BASE jumping events."

A spokesperson for Go Fast Sports reminded young BASE jumpers (not to forget) to visit their website for the coming BASE jumping events.

6. A spokesperson for Go Fast Sports: “We will sponsor the amateur jumpers joining our air show this year.”

A spokesperson for Go Fast Sports *promised (that) they would sponsor the amateur jumpers joining their air show for that year/promised to sponsor the amateur jumpers joining their air show that year.*

II. Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs in parentheses for questions 1-12 and rewrite the underlined sentences A-C using the given clues in the blanks.

☺ Samantha kept (1) *having* (have) problems with her computer at work.

(A) Her co-worker Denise said: “Let’s shut down your computer.”

☺ Yesterday, a robbery took place on the 5th Avenue and I saw everything. The police quickly surrounded the building. (B) An officer said to the onlookers: “Move back behind the rows of vehicles!” A woman was crying and she begged one of the policeman (2) *to find* (find) out whether her husband was in the building. The policeman didn’t let her (3) *cross* (cross) the police line. I waited there with the crowd for at least an hour. (C) As I waited, I got bored. I was just about to leave when the crowd grew silent as one of the robbers walked out, (4) *pointing* (point) a machine gun at a young woman. (C) One of the police officers said to the robber: “Don’t harm any of the hostages”. At that moment, we heard the chief of the police officers (5) *shout* (shout) “Shoot him!” and saw the robber (6) *fall* (fall) to the ground. After a while, the paramedics picked up the wounded man and took him away in an ambulance.

Rewrite the underlined sentences A-C

(A) Her co-worker Denise said: “Let’s shut down your computer.”

Her co-worker Denise suggested *shutting down her computer.*

(B) An officer said to the onlookers: “Move back behind the rows of vehicles!”

An officer told *the onlookers to move back behind the rows of vehicles.*

(C) One of the police officers said to the robber: “Don’t harm any of the hostages”.

One of the police officers warned *the robber not to harm any of the hostages.*

References:

Evans, V., *FCE Use of English 1*, Express Publishing, 2008.

Ekmekçi, İ., Onat, Ç. *Practice Your Grammar*, METU, 2003.

DBE Materials and Testing Archives

An Example to Response to a Situation

In questions 1 – 2, respond to the situation provided in ONE statement or question.

Write your response

in the blank provided.

1. Your friend gets low grades from the pop-quizzes and the mid-terms, but she wants to improve her grades.

You give her advice by saying:

2. You want to apply for the Erasmus exchange program, so you want to learn about the necessary documents. You go to your advisor and ask:

Answer Key

1. You should / ought to / must study harder.

2. What documents are required?

What are the necessary documents?

What documents am I supposed to submit?

What documents do you need?

What is required?

What do I have to give you?

What do I need for this?

Appendix D: Data Collection Schedules

Interview schedule

Teacher	Number of Interviews	Duration	Time
TC1	Total 4 3 (INT + POINT) 1 (FU)	25, 06, 2013-19, 07, 2013 03,06,2014	123 mins.
TC2	Total 5 3 (INT + POINT) 2 (FU)	28,06, 2013-23,07,2013 27, 07, 2013 + 05, 06, 2014	102 mins.
TC3	Total 4 3 (INT + POINT) 1 (FU)	26,06,2013-17,07,2013 20,06,2014	115,3 mins
TC4	Total 5 3 (INT + POINT) 2 (FU)	28,06,2013-19,07,2013 27.07.2013 + 05.06.2014	103 mins
TC5	Total 4 3 (INT+POINT) 1 (FU)	26,06,2013-15,07,2013 20,06,2014	112.5 mins
TR1	Total 5 3 (INT + POINT) 2 (FU)	01,06,2013-23.07.2014 25,07,2013+20.06.2014	189.69 mins.
TR2	Total 5 3 (INT + POINT) 2 (FU)	26,06,2013-11,07,2013 25,07,2013 + 09.06.2014	111.4 mins
TR3	Total 4 3 (INT + POINT) 1(FU)	24,06,2013 - 23,07,2013 21,06,2014	73.5 mins
TR4	Total 4 3 (INT+POINT) 1 (FU)	26,06,2013-17,07,2013 23.06.2014	100 mins

TR5	Total 4 3 (INT+POINT) 1 (FU)	27,06,2013-25,07,2013 20,06,2014	80
Total	43		~1108 mins

Summary of the methods used for teacher participants

Method	Focus	Time
Obs.1	teachers' practices	50 mins
POINT1 INT1	<p>general talk about the lesson: the thing that stood out, their practices, the students reactions, what they were (not)satisfied with.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -teachers educational background, -the way they learnt English, their visits to foreign countries -favourite teachers -their beliefs about CS -(participant specific questions) 	Ranged from 40- to 90 mins.
Obs.2	Teachers' practice (focusing more on the codes constructed from the interviews and comparing practices with the practice in the 1 st observations: looking for similarities and /or difference)	50 mins
POINT2 INT 2	<p>-general talk about the lesson: the thing that stood out, their practices, the students reactions, what they were (not)satisfied with.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -teachers exposure to ENG outside the class (this question was asked specifically as after the 1st interviews some participants mentioned ENG being (not)/natural , - experience in the institution -their policy -participants' interpretation and beliefs about the institution's' policy 	Ranged from 40- 50 mins

	-(participant specific questions)	
Obs.3	-teachers' practice (focusing more on the codes constructed from the interviews and comparing practices with the practice in the 1 st and 2 nd observations: looking for similarities and /or differences)	50 mins
POINT3 INT3	-general talk about the lesson: the thing that stood out, their practices, the students reactions, what they were (not)satisfied with. -self-reflection on their teaching -their roles as a teacher, -reflection of the interviews -(participant specific questions)	Ranged from 20-50mins
FG	-Why they decided to become an ENG teacher, -the reasons behind considering the use of Eng (not)/natural --their beliefs in teaching (e.g. in using L1). -their interpretations of the institutional policy -their ideas of the influences of cultures of learning on code-choice	90 mins

Appendix E: Data Analysis

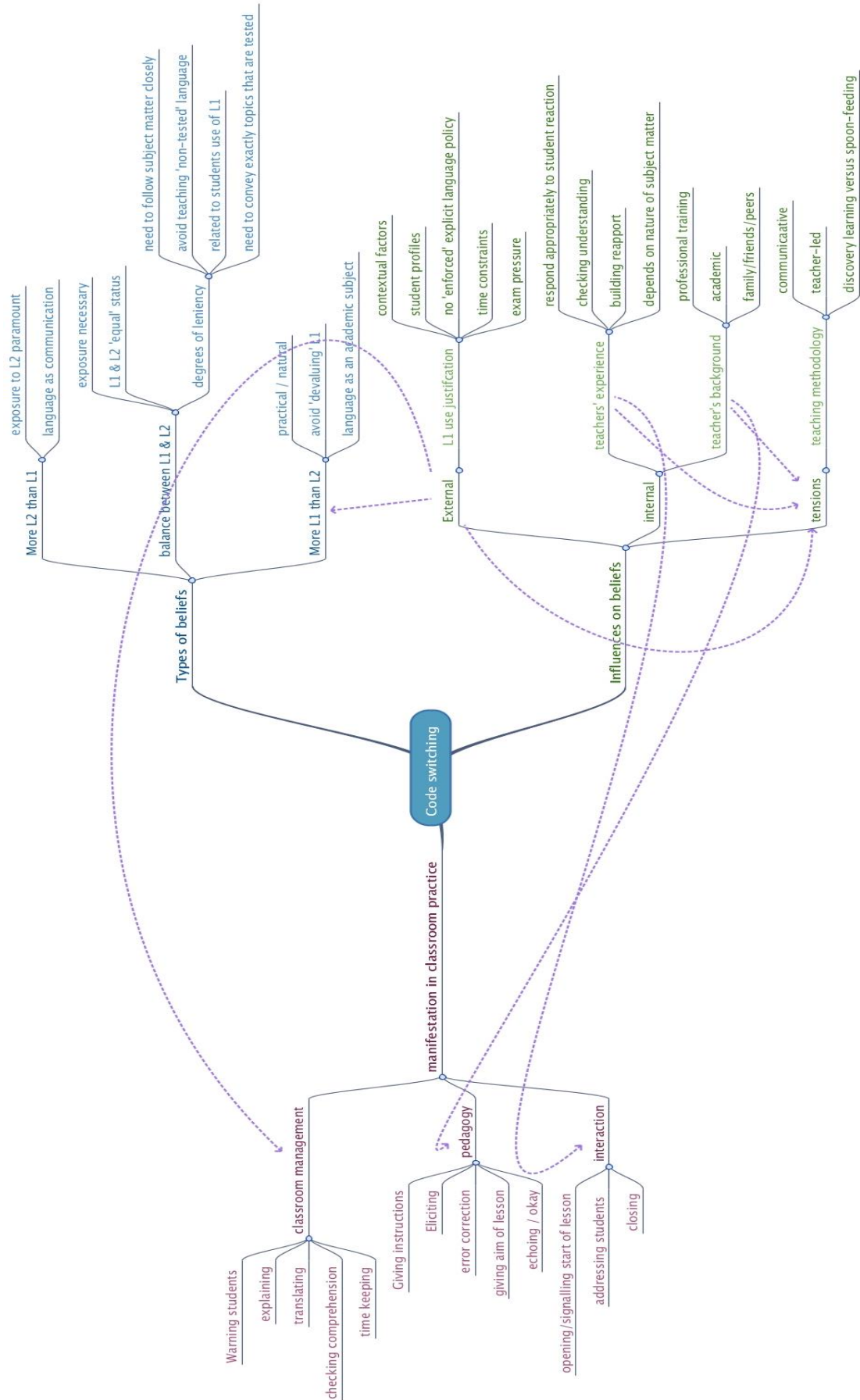
Example of table analysis

TC1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yes, but they're quite old now I guess. When I was a new teacher a novice teacher, I did then back then we didn't have IELTS but there was COTE, so I did COTE, I passed an exam called CELT. Cambridge exam for English teachers overseas teachers of English. I started my um DOTE then Yes there is a COTE. Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English and DOTE. It's like DELTA now. It's what DELTA is now. Um I finished the first year. I finished almost because we were doing part-time at that time. I finished almost all my courses and there were just examinations and some projects to do. But then I decided to move to Ankara so I moved to Ankara. Even though two thirds of the course requirements had been <u>um</u> completed, I moved to Ankara and not graduate from it. Which is pity really. So I have a COTE ICELT certificate and that's it ben öğretmen olduktan sonra bunların hepsini katıldığım konferanslar, kurslar işte ICELT CELT in-service trainingler falan hepsini burdan aldım Hiç birini üniversitede almadım. Teorik teorik ve onun nesnisi pratiğe bağlayacağımı bilemezdim. COTE nin gerçekten bunların kullanımını öğrendik. Obs. lar başladı per obs. lar başladı ve observe edildiğim zaman onun feedback i olsun ve obs. ettiğim zaman değişik şeyler gördüm Yapılı yapıldığını görmeye basadım onun için bence koçunu eksiği var bence peer observation in ve observation in. Hatta self-observation. bunlar geliştiriyor ve özellikle bunlara reflect yapmak Kartı dote yaptık hizmet içi eğitim falan çok yararlandım onlardan bir çok şey gördük. um ister reading dersleri nasıl yapılabilir. Jigsaw readingler falan ben onları hep orda gördüm Hep orda gördüm um vocabulary nasıl yenirbilir, nasıl öğrenilebilir. Bunlar hep in-service de ve birinci sınıfta aldığım cote desinde öğrendim şeylerdim öndan sonra yavaş yavaş konferansa gittikçe dışardan trainer da geliyordu bize onları izledükçe. Ve bizim zamanımızda farklıydı. Şimdi benn göreliyim onları. Bizim burada şimdi hocalar ilik senesinde ben hoca oldum modundalar. Satisfied oluyorlar. bizim dönemimizde bir usta çırak muhabbeti vardı. biliyorum sen ilk öğrenen olduğunda var mıydı? Ama biz yeni öğrenenler kitap sizimizde kosturduk. Um experienced hocaların arkasında ve bundan hiç geçmüyorduk. Ben bunu böyle yapmayı düşünüyordum. Bu iyi fikir mi Ya da bunu başka nasıl türlü yapabiliyim karar veremedim sıkıntı yaşıyorum. Acaba nasıl daha communicative hale getirebilirim. falan diyor sürekli fikir alırdık. Şimdi bu günlerde onun artık kaybolduğunu düşünüyorum. Bu bir tür mentormandır. Aam bir bunu unoficially yaptık. Kimsede demedi şuna git diye. Ama kendimizi kime yakın hissettiysek mentor seçip gidip onun düzenli olarak gidip bilgi aldık. Ve benim için en yararlı şeylerden bir tanesi de budur Observation bir tanesi mentoring bir tanesi. Ha de o zaman biliyorduk a dım mentoring olduğunu ama yaptığımız bu idid aşında. BA de hep teorik. Hocalar yazardı bir şeylerdi. Bu da bana ters etki yaptı. Nasıl bir hoca olmamam gerektiğini gösterdi 	<p>Açıklama [U1]: Having internalised beliefs. Experienced teacher with an ELT background.</p> <p>Açıklama [U2]: Learning practical knowledge from certificates.</p> <p>Açıklama [U3]: Effect of Components of certificate programs: observations, reflections</p> <p>Açıklama [U4]: sssj teaching. Note: I observed her listening class where she was doing skills teaching.</p> <p>Açıklama [U5]: Skill teaching.</p> <p>Açıklama [U6]: Effect of mentoring.</p> <p>Açıklama [U7]: Negative effect of BA education.</p> <p>Açıklama [U8]: Demanding (Obs/obs-observation), being unfamiliar to him because his BA and MA were not on ELT/TEFL.</p> <p>Açıklama [U9]: Matching his belief he accepts what he learnt from the course. On the other hand, his classes were not student-centred. Interaction was limited to test. He blames the school policy for this: it's exam-oriented, based on full accuracy (even the comma in non-defining relative clause he says). Crowded syllabus; sts being bombarded with unnecessary grammar topics; no room for doing communicative activities; sts being used to being spoon-fed; sts not being able to express their ideas.</p>
TC2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I can say it was the most challenging course I've taken. As I mentioned, I studied 4 years BA, 2 years MA but that one was very challenging and I'm glad that I did it to be honest. As I said I didn't study ELT and the methodology section let's say was something very unfamiliar with me so I had to take the course and I'm glad I did it. 	<p>Açıklama [U10]: Usefull learning how to teach English the methodology (look at para.1) and lesson planning</p> <p>Açıklama [U11]: Challenging; not knowing the grammar, methodology and lesson planning owing to non-ELT/TEFL background</p> <p>Açıklama [U12]: Challenging; grammar teaching.</p> <p>Açıklama [U13]: Challenging; because of not knowing anything about teaching</p> <p>Açıklama [U14]: Usefull learning NEW things he didn't know things</p> <p>Açıklama [U15]: Usefull learning in an inductive way.</p> <p>Açıklama [U16]: Usefull reflecting on an activity after having done it.</p> <p>Açıklama [U17]: Usefull, Learning through experience; being in the sts shoes (see the excerpt below). Feeling like the sts; feeling the need to do repetition; what to ask</p> <p>Açıklama [U18]: Usefull, Learning through experience; being in the sts shoes (see the excerpt below). Feeling like the sts; feeling the need to do repetition; what to ask</p> <p>Açıklama [U19]: Usefull, Learning through experience; being in the sts shoes; feeling the stress of the possibility of being</p>
TC3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> [Think about it that way. You read about writers their thoughts, their point of view of the world, all the psychological aspects of things then all of a sudden you need to teach English but it doesn't work. So um this simplest example I can give you. [Think about the lesson plans you do I had no idea. After six years of education I had no idea how to make a lesson plan. So I started from there (hands click) That's why it was really really challenging for me.] And grammatical um the grammar aspect, let's say was also challenging. Teaching of course was very challenging.] (comparing with high-school Eng. teacher) Onun zamanına göre soruluyacağım değil aslında şimdiki zamana göre yani dediğim gibi sınıfa girdiğinde yani dediğim gibi İngilizce öğretmek burada işte biraz farklıdır. İngilizce öğretmek başka bir şeydir. Bir sınıfa hazırlamak başka bir şeydir. Bizim burada hangisi yaptığımız eleştiri anlamında söylemiyorum bunu. Benim fikrim sadece çünkü dedim ya sen ben 3 aylık bir kurs aldım İngilizce de öğretmenlik için en challenging da o ydu ben hayatında yaptığım en iyi şeydi kendim için diyebilirim sana. Nedeni de İngilizceyi nasıl öğreteceğimi öğrendim seyxiz yani ELT okudumda. Çünkü orda natyeller da vardı hep. Dışardan gelen, benim gibi insanlar da vardı ama native da vardı bir sürü o insanların İngilizcesi zaten kendi ana dili bu kursu alıp İngilizce öğretilirdi ve marifetli metotlar öğrendik. Şimdi yavaş yavaş biraz, köşeyi başlayan şeylerden bahsedem. Me bire bir onun eğitimini alarak yani bize göstererek öğretilir. Yani bize de emediler bunu yaparsan bu olur. Mesela pair work nasıl yaptım atıyorum küçük bir örnek vermek için pair wok nasıl yaptım, bize onu öğretecek olan öğretmen herkese iki kişiye bir kağıt dağıttı bu defa sen mecburen noldu pair work yapmak zorunda kaldım. Yani söylemedi kimsesiz "work in pairs" you two you two you two bir kağıt ve ben mesela onu çok kullandım örnek olarak sadece... ve bize bunu mesela gösteren bize söylemedi bakın size bir pair wok örneği veriyim. Nasıl yapabilirsiniz demedi Kağıt sonra sorguladı. İste yaptım nasıl yaptım nasıl işledi falan filan gibi. Başka bir örnek de o zamanki metodla karşılaşılabilecek toparlatabılırsam. (laughing) Başka bir metod da see bize iki hafta Thai dili öğretilir. Ve hoca hiçbir şekilde İngilizce kullandı ve hoca iki hafta sonra sonunda ufak tefek alışveriş yapacak şeyler geldik. İsmim işte nasıldın sen nasıldın bu kaç para dır kitap ne kadar cd ne kadar gibi şeyler öğrendik. Ve bunu bize direk gelip ders vererek öğretti. Anlatılabildim ve bana en çok şey katan da o ydu. O task do deyin sana! Niye öğrendiydim orda çünkü. Niye ihtiyacım var ne kadar repetition yapmam gerek ne kadar interaction a ihtiyacım var nasıl sorular sormam gerek hep onları bire bir yani biraz ezilerle da hiç bilmediğim bir dil düşün ve öğrenme lazım biraz sonra sorular yani normal ders gibi yaptık biraz sonra soracak aman o stres vardı, yani baş pamaklarımızın üstündeydik. anladın onu hissederek yaptık o kursu en çok bana katan o ydu çünkü öğrencilerin ayakta kalabilen içinde olmak nedir orda öğrendim. yes mesela öyle bir metod. İste buna göre strateji geliştirmek tabii. Ama bizim yaptığımız neydi açm kitabı eskiden bahsedirdik İrfan Hoca zamanından bahsedim umarım hala hayattadır değilse Allah rahmet eylesin. Bu için kitabı bu sayfa yazı yapıyoruk somak iste dediğim bir şey var mı yes bu kelimenin anlamı nedir bunun anlamı nedir öyledir böyledir bitti. Ezersizi yapın tamamen somaklık yani. Ama başka silahları var mıydı onu bilemem. Ya da kendilerini geliştirme şansları var mıydı onu bilemem Evet söyledim sana ben hiç birseyden gittim. Edebiyat bitirdim lesson planını ne olduğunu bilmezken öyle bir ortamda gittim. Yani zaten çok araştırıp gittiğim bir kurstu. Niçin tercih ettiğimi daha sonra (aguhiung) tabii zorluk açısından tercih eder miydim ondan çok emin değilim. ama dediğim gibi eğitimim ilgili kendim için yaptığım en iyi şeylerden biriydi. Hatta en iyi şeydi diyebilirim. Öğretmenlik mesleği ile ilgili İngilizce kullanmak. Dedğim gibi benim zamanımda başka alternatif olmadı için bunun faydasını gördüm. faydasını gördüm ama aslında karşılaştıma yapabilişim belki bana alternatif verilseydi İngilizce yapılsaydı bu eğitim belki da hiç bahsetmeyeceydi şeyden ve benim öğrendiğim şekilde da L1 hiç kullanamam lazım sınıfta. Benim aldığım metodoloji de L1 yoktur ve yani dedim sana daha önce konuştuğumuzda Thai dilinden başlangıç seviyemdi öğrendik ve öğrendik da. Demek ki olabiliyor. Hatta daha da iyi olabiliyor. Çünkü bütün şey öyledir. Ama Trnin yardımı var mı diye sorarsan Yes dir cevabım. Kesin yes. BA education bana dile hakimiyet kattı. Ana teaching inisi etkisi olmadı onun için ben ilk sene gittim öğretmen oldum near east de ve anlamdım olmaz da onun üzerine gittim TEFL education : yaptım. 	<p>Açıklama [U20]: Shaping his belief about teaching; he said he didn't have idea about teaching. So he went there and the course shaped his beliefs about teaching. Matching his belief he accepts what he learnt from the course. On the other hand his classes were not student-centred. Interaction was limited to Ead. He blames the school policy for this: it's exam-oriented, based on full accuracy (even the comma in non-defining relative clause he says). Crowded syllabus</p> <p>Açıklama [U21]: Tensions between his shaped belief (TEFL course) and his</p> <p>Açıklama [U22]: Improving his language proficiency. (Obs), he studied</p> <p>Açıklama [U23]: Usefull as a novice teacher.</p> <p>Açıklama [U24]: Usefull classroom management.</p> <p>Açıklama [U25]: Reshaped it as an experienced teacher?</p> <p>Açıklama [U26]: Usefull learning how to teach grammar.</p> <p>Açıklama [U27]: Usefull; grammar teaching.</p> <p>Açıklama [U28]: Usefull; observations.</p> <p>Açıklama [U29]: Usefull; learning time-management.</p> <p>Açıklama [U30]: Usefull; observations.</p> <p>Açıklama [U31]: Usefull as a novice teacher but now not having much</p> <p>Açıklama [U32]: Component of ICELT: observations; feedback</p> <p>Açıklama [U33]: Grammar teaching. Note: In one other lessons she was</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Context yaratımını indirgeyerek language çıkar, contextden speaking den çıkartıyorum. language çıkar onun practicum yaptırırım çocuk üretmeye başlar ondan sonra alırım Yani bu hep implicit dir sonra başalım çocuk farkında olmadan başlar çocuk cümleleri kursun o yapıyoran elicitationa geçerim. Onun kurduğu cümlelerle. Ama tabiki burada speaking yaptırırım o yüzden communicative olur. Yani burada görürüm bazen burada spot the difference falan gibi implicit şeyleri verir alır çocuk texti bakar bilin yani görür farkı da öyle çıkarır onunimplicit olduğunainanmamyanı explicit dir çünkü iki farkı da veriyorsun ama kuralı alm implicitly. Ama burada scaffolding gibi bir şey yaparım yani böyle giderek context yaratırım. Ben ona bir örnek veririm ve onu almasını beklerim bu şekilde yani connectionla düzelterek yani taki üretimi üretmeye başladıkları anda da ufak hatalar da olsa onun değli çünkü ahtada tartışılabilir o onları alıp tahtaya yazırım onların örneklemini ondan sonra da explicit e geçerim. Tam o miktarda bunları söyledik için sözlükle de idi contextimiz sonra da explicit dediğimiz gramarı rule. Grammar rule da yazdım tahtaya. Falan işte böyle yapılır. Sonra da grammar teaching approach a geçip mekanik egzersizler veririz bakın işte bunu bunu yapın. Mesela novice iken ben çok group work pair work yaptırardım benim trainer larım da Dindy ile Ed. İki ün ben yurt dışında çalıştım zaman bana gereksiz yere group work pair work yaptırıyor söylelerdi group work ve pair work olayı benden çok geçti. Ve tekrar buraya geldiğimde istadla bana pair work yapabiliyordum ama group work ve pair work un anlaşılması gerekir. Gerçekten group ve pair work içere bir context olması gerekir. Group work ve pair work adına olmama gerekir. Böyle bir role play olduğunun düşün yes why not oldu. Yani herşey group pair work le olmaz. Çoğu şey olmaz da iz zorlamak olsun diye. Bunlar british council için accreditation için geldiklerinde aştığım feedback. Genel bir feedback alıyorduk yani. Overall bir feedback verdiklerinde group-pair work excessively dediler bana ve değiştirdim yani. Çünkü ben fark ettim burada aldığımız eğitim daha çok trainemın beliefi üzerine group work pair work o zaman communicative approach çok popülerdi tabii arada whole class da olsun ama minimum a yani TTT az kalsın diye group work pair work ve bunun trainemın beliefi o olduğumu düşünürüm. Yani o beliefi mi bize aktarı sen de kendine uygulayan alternatifi gömen burada trainer in da olmaz alternatif. Kisırdır yani ama oraya (UK) gidince farklı şey yani. Inspection a giderler onlar çok farklı fazla context e giderler çok fazla şey görüyorlar up to date yapıyorlar diye o yüzden sana british teacher accreditation almak için seni şey yapması lazım onu standardına uyman lazım. Yani her yerde o belli standardı tutturun yani, yani bu context de group work pair work çok yapılır demez Masterın etkisi var. Masterda değişik teaching metodları görüldük. Mesela simülasyon kullanılması Düşünüyüm bakayım nasıldır edem. Role play vardır situation var sen onu uygulamaya geçim role play versüğünde sana başka birisi gibi olur. Sana anne gibi davranıp o yle davranmanı bekler. Simülasyon da bu sana indirekt yapılır. Simülasyondur. Sen o rolü ortam yaratılır ve sen onu doğal olarak o role girmiş olursun. oradan aldığın bilgilerle teaching yaptırı İki şey falan az materyal ile çok materyal ile ne yapılabilir. Large class kullanma teknikleri falan filan, bunları da masterda 	<p>Açıklama [U34]: Grammar teaching.</p> <p>Açıklama [U35]: Questioning group – pair work practices.</p> <p>Açıklama [U36]: Changing practices based on experience in a foreign country. In her classes she didn't put students but they automatically started working together.</p> <p>Açıklama [U37]: Use of topic training being limited.</p> <p>Açıklama [U38]: Work experience broadening horizon.</p> <p>Açıklama [U39]: Effect of master. Note: She didn't make use of this in her lessons. I asked her why and she said the context was different.</p>
	<p>şeydenim [Yani buna yapmazlar önce. Mixed ability class burada göstermezler önce. Yani large class mixed ability class bizim zamanımızda yoktu yani. Sizin zamanımızda var mıydı?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sonra bir workshop a gittim orda affective learning ile ilgili fikirler aldım ve bu bende çok etkili oldu. Uygun buldum ve şey da vardı benim ihtiyacım vardı yani bu affective in benim doğru bir şey olduğuna benim iç güdüsel olarak öyle yapmayı ihtiyacı duyardım her zamanınardım belief olarak alabilim yani ama her zaman farklı şeyler öğretilmiş için farklı şeyler öğretilmiş için bize farklı şeyler öğretilmiş için o kati şey o kati disiplin olduğun için her zamana sorgulanırdı. Ta ki böyle bir seminare katıldım ve onaylasını yapma isteikdenmin doğru olduğumu ve kati a çü yani tamamsınıyoluna devam edebilin 10 yıl önce falan BA de biz çok okuduk. Bu İngilizcemizi geliştirdi 	<p>Açıklama [U40]: Effect of master. Note: She had a reading class where she had a whole class discussion. I showed pics of animals. She asked them what they were. Eopk şids answered as a whole class. However, şids responded in TR, she said that she was unhappy about it. But she said şids behaved that way because they became over-excited.</p> <p>Açıklama [U41]: Effect of workshop. Justifying own belief. Note: Later on she...</p> <p>Açıklama [U42]: Extensive reading in BA. ...</p> <p>Açıklama [U43]: Having took pre-lic and used as paras in service training.</p> <p>Açıklama [U44]: ...</p> <p>Açıklama [U45]: Having some questions</p> <p>Açıklama [U46]: Questioning practicality. Can we really use lesson pl...</p> <p>Açıklama [U47]: Questioning practicality. Can we prepare a 20-page...</p> <p>Açıklama [U48]: Questioning practicality. Can we look at refer to our...</p> <p>Açıklama [U49]: ICEL courses helping us</p> <p>Açıklama [U50]: Useful. Help people sharing ideas</p> <p>Açıklama [U51]: Help. People sharing their in-class experiences in teaching a...</p> <p>Açıklama [U52]: Useful. Help awareness raising people getting togeth...</p> <p>Açıklama [U53]: Demanding. Work load as it was part of in-service training.</p> <p>Açıklama [U54]: Demanding. Work-load. Things he had to do, essays.</p>
TC4	<p>I have ICELT. I was thinking of doing CELTA but unfortunately I didn't have time. I may do in the future, still I'm not sure.</p> <p>İçerik I took them during first year of EMU. No second year actually. First year we took pre-ICELT um ICELT courses they were challenging but we had some questions about ICELT. First of all, lesson planning it was very detailed lessons plans. I remember my lesson plans were like 6-7 pages some of them, and we were questioning like can we really use them in class. Can we prepare a lesson like this for every lesson. At this um, we about teach 4 hours a day so 7 pages for every lesson it's going to be a minimum I don't know let say 20 pages only lesson plan so can we really use them every day. Can we be prepared for those lesson plans and um, I don't know if you can look at your lesson plan during the lesson but other than that ICELT course helped us a lot. A lot of people got together and they showed us their different ways and um a lot of people showing different experiences in sharing their experiences showing us different ways. For example some say it was difficult for me to teach that grammar topic what can I do? and people got together they like you could do this one, you can do that activity so I think it's very it's demanding because you working at the same time you have to do all these essays but it is very useful as well. Maybe instead of doing one year two years maybe easier but it is what it is they say.</p> <p>Interviewer: So you were questioning the lesson plans any other things you were questioning?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> We had to write essays we had to record ourselves we had to go and observe um colleagues but some things the other staff essays and observing them I could understand they were useful I must admit. Even observations people come and observe us and they give us feedback post-observation although we didn't like it a lot of teachers don't like it. But they were useful they are still useful because when you don't see yourself, when you don't see yourself or when you don't hear yourself you think you've done a perfect lesson but from another point of view it wasn't perfect. [They can show you different things the mistakes you made or the things 	<p>Açıklama [U55]: Useful. Observations. Getting feedback about what you could have done better.</p> <p>Açıklama [U56]: Useful. Observations. Awareness raising. Getting feedback about your lesson from a different perspective</p> <p>Açıklama [U57]: Useful. Showing different techniques and styles</p> <p>Açıklama [U58]: Demanding. Time being limited</p> <p>Açıklama [U59]: Questioning. Detailed lesson planning</p> <p>Açıklama [U60]: Questioning. Detailed lesson planning because it's not practical. Not being able to follow each step in the class</p> <p>Açıklama [U61]: Matching own belief. Lesson plans allowing you to see interaction patterns. Note: This makes sure that you are involving the student and having a more student-centred class, so he is saying this is a good thing. On the other hand his classes were not student-centred. Interaction was limited to a friend. He blames the school's policy for this. It's...</p> <p>Açıklama [U62]: Questioning.</p> <p>Açıklama [U63]: Questioning.</p> <p>Açıklama [U64]: Questioning. Work</p> <p>Açıklama [U65]: Questioning. the</p> <p>Açıklama [U66]: Questioning.</p> <p>Açıklama [U67]: Questioning.</p> <p>Açıklama [U68]: Accepting. mistake</p> <p>Açıklama [U69]: BA effect on teach</p> <p>Açıklama [U70]: No certificates sh</p> <p>Açıklama [U71]: BA education</p> <p>Açıklama [U72]: Negative effect of</p>
TC5	<p>you could have done better. [They can show you different techniques different styles. So observations I think they are useful. They are challenging. Time is limited I remember there were a couple of times that I could have skipped a lot but they were useful. Only thing is I still believe that a lesson plan the ones we were doing were really long. Because too detailed and it's impossible to follow during a lesson. Theoretically I'm not against it because it shows different interaction patterns teacher to student student to student. You know what you're going to do every single minute but in practice (hits a book) I'm not too sure if it works a lot.</p> <p>Interviewer: Some say lesson planning is useful and some say it isn't. As far as I understand, you are saying it isn't. Why do you think so?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Let's say your lesson plan is on the table and you are doing pair work and you are observing people next minute what you're going to do is on the lesson plan. And if you don't remember it because everything is so detailed you have to come back check your lesson plan go back again come back check your lesson plan go back again because it's very detailed and the person who is observing you has got the same lesson plan and obviously you have to follow it. And if you miss a point, um it's not very ideal for you. So you have to follow it step by step and because the time is limited and I don't know if you have enough time to rehearse it. If you've got time to rehearse no problem. I'm I believe that you can do it easily and um if you don't and your lesson plan what you do in the lesson contradicts each other it will be problematic for the observer and for you Interviewer: Contradicts? Berk: So um imagine you've got a lesson plan and the observer's got a lesson plan. and if you're going to do pair work, let's just say and obviously the person's expecting a pair work activity so she's willing that you're doing a pair work activity but you forgot about that because there's so many things you have to do For example, pair-work, group work, if you've got a lot of materials you might skip it but in your lesson plan there's pair work and it's 10 mins, and the observer goes oh you forgot that and you never mentioned them so you're not following your lesson plan. So how am I going to know what you're going to do next, if you don't follow your lesson plan? [You have to be really organised. You have to know your lesson plan really well as well.] BA çok teorik. Pratik değil. 4. sınıfta geçerler pratiğe keske o 2. sınıfta olsaydı Noktur. Hiç o tür sertifikalara snavlara katılmadım. Sadece çalışırken longman de orda bir sürü seminare katıldığım için sertifikalarım var ama I don't know where they are. Eyet ancak o. Başka yok. Son iste katıldığımız international konferans da oradan var sertifika. Her türlü yani hem öyle speech olarak olan yani büyük konferans olarak katıldıklarım vardı, hem workshop olarak katıldıklarım vardı ve bunlar da hep değişir yani. Testing olsun, young learner olsun, um aklına gelebilecek. ELT ile ilgili her türlü şeyi katedim. Zaten ben düzenlerdim onları bir sürü şeyle tanıştım. teacher trainer ile tanıştım falan BA de hocaların konuşum falan ister istemez gelişir. BA de aldığım eğitimden dolayı sınıfta TR konuşduğum için kendimi suçlu hissedirim. Ama sınıfta bu düzeyde başka türlü olmaz Çok workshoplara katıldım. Bu workshoplarda inanılmaz şeyler gördüm. Aam daha çok onları düzenleme safasındaydım. Yine de 	<p>Açıklama [U73]: BA effect on teach</p> <p>Açıklama [U74]: BA education</p> <p>Açıklama [U75]: Negative effect of</p>

<p>etkisi olduğunu düşünürüm teaching'ım de. Çünkü mesela ariden aklıma sunufla bir fikir gelir. Şimdi aklıma gelen bir şey yok. Bir tane bir şey var aslında işte ice-breaker gibi tahtaya sayılar yazan öğrencilere soran bu sayılar neye refer eder bulsunlar diye. Başka aklımda yok.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviewer: Yanılıyorum beni düzelt anladığım kadarıyla bir genelleme yapıyorsun yani bir fikir çıkarttın tüm bunlardan. • Evet • Feki sence bu ne? • Güzel. (Nime bir aydınlatma oldu bende) Genelde workshoplarda yapılan çok şey var o da group work dir. Bunu yaptıkta herkes eğleneirdi ve herkes contribute ederdi ve participate ederdi. Ben de her derste olmasa bile lang. leader yaparken chapterlarını yani oyun değil de group work şeklinde yaptımaya tercih ettim ve hala daha çok faydalı olduğuna inanırım. O bir şey olabilir. • Onu aldım workshoplardan doğru söylen hemisi eğlenceli kapama hem açılış. sunufla bir an teatral bir şeye döner ortam özellikle grammar anlatırken bunları workshoplardan aldık diyebilirim rahatlıktan çünkü peresentlar hep böyle canlı. İşte oyunlar oynatsınlar. hikaye anlatsınlar. group work, pair work yapınlar. Hep öyle yani. Bir da hareket. Bu çok önemli. Mesela workshop un bir yanında mutlaka bir yanında hocaları hareket ettirirdi. Aynı şekilde öğrencilerin hareket etmesi. Hareket katık derslerimiz. En başından öğrencileri tahtaya kaldırıp bir şey yazma bile bir harekettir. • Gerçi bu sene ilk olduğundan elim ayağım titrer böyle hands on değilim. Komuları nasıl aktaracağım konusunda sıkıntı çekiyim İngilizceyi küçükükten bildiğim için sıkıntı çekmem anlarım ama nasıl aktaracağım diye. Çok fazla metodolojiye sığmeme. 	<p>Açıklama [U73]: Changing the atmosphere of the lesson. Not observed this in her classes.</p> <p>Açıklama [U74]: Awareness raising not being able to verbalize thoughts.</p> <p>Açıklama [U75]: Group work/pair work for participation. Yes observed one of her lang. leader lessons and she did use this however, she didn't do the activity.</p> <p>Açıklama [U76]: Encouraging participation</p> <p>Açıklama [U77]: Negative effect of experience</p> <p>Açıklama [U78]: Negative effect of acquisition of language.</p> <p>Açıklama [U79]: Not being able to apply these in classes though it matches her belief. This is related to the fact that it is her first year and she is more worried of the content of the lesson rather than how to do it.</p>
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Initial Coding



Teachers' Language Practices

TC1 - My policy is to do everything as much as possible in English (TC1-INT2)								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1: Practice: Listening		Observation 2: Practice: Dialogue Completion		Observation 3: Practice: Reading		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language								
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	3
Giving Instructions	1	6	5	14	-	14	6	34
Greeting	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	-	25	6	17	1	24	7	66
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	2	11	3	5	5	8	10	24
Checking Comprehension	1	-	1	-	2	1	4	1
Translating (a word or a sentence)	-	-	2	-	3	-	5	-
Time-keeping	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	5
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	2	3	-	1	1	5	3	9
Praising/Comforting	-	1	-	3	1	4	1	8
Warning students	-	2	5	1	-	2	5	5
Chatting / Exclamation	2	7	5	2	1	2	8	11
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok)	11	1	1	8	-	4	12	13
Addressing students	-	-	1	-	1	-	2	-
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	4
Closing	-	1		1	-	1	-	3
Totals	19	63	29	56	15	70	63	189

TC2 You have to use English [only] in class.								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1 Reading		Observation 2: Response to a situation		Observation 3: Logical Sequence		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language								
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Giving/Checking Instructions/asking stds to repeat answers	-	19	-	19	-	14	-	52
Greeting	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	-	28	-	36	-	29	-	93
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	-	12	-	13	-	15	-	40
Checking Comprehension/asking if they agree obs.3	-	6	-		-	9	-	15
Translating (a word or a sentence)	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Time-keeping/Negotiating time	-	16	-	12	-	9	-	37
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	-	6	-	25	-	5	-	36
Praising/Comforting	-	8	-	15	-	4	-	27
Warning students to speak Eng obs 1 12	1	5	-	7	-	2	1	14
Chatting / Exclamation/obs. 3 what page was it ? Enjoy	1	6	-	8	-	8	1	22
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok)	1	14	-	33	-	10	1	57
Addressing students	-		-	-	-	-	-	-
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-		-		-	-	-	-
Closing	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Totals	4	122	0	170	0	107	4	399

TC3 I'm not against its use. However, I believe it should be limited (TC3-INT2).								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Obs.1: Reading Practice Check+ Grammar		Obs. 2: Reading		Obs.3: Cloze Test Check + Reading (pre)		Totals	
Type of classroom language	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	2
Giving Instructions	-	26	-	8	-	6	-	40
Greeting/Saying goodbye	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	1	47	1	20	-	14	2	81
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	11	20	4	9	-	1	15	30
Checking Comprehension	1	11	-	3	-	1	1	15
Translating (a word or a sentence)	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	-
Time-keeping	-	3	-	4	-	4	-	11
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	-	15	-	1	-	8	-	24
Praising/Comforting	-	14	-	2	-	1	-	17
Warning students to use English/come back to the lesson/give answers as shes waiting (lesson 2 group work ha) wait lesson2/where's your book/taking attendance	5	8	1	3	-	5	6	16
Chatting / Exclamation I'm going to explain that letter/I2ll do it tomorrow	2	5	3	2	-	-	5	7
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok)	-	18	3	4	3	6	6	28
Addressing students	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Closing	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	2
Totals	21	167	12	58	5	49	38	274

TC4“OK. You use your mother tongue but to a minimum. That is, those 50 or 40 percentages are a bit too much. I’m sure no one uses it like 50 percent” (FU).								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1: Cloze Test		Observation 2: Dialogue Completion		Observation 3: Response to a situation		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language	-	17	-	1	-	1	-	19
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	34	-	22	-	17	-	73
Greeting	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	-	-	-	24	-	21	-	45
Explaining (gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	-	-	1	23	-	23	1	46
Checking Comprehension	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	6
Translating (a word or a sentence)	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-
Time-keeping	-	5	-	2	-	4	-	11
Pointing out students’ mistakes/errors	-	15	-	22	-	14	-	51
Praising/Comforting	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Warning students	1	12	-	2	-	12	1	26
Chatting / Exclamation	1	-	1	10	-	3	2	13
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok/alright)	-	16	-	11	-	10	-	37
Addressing students	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	3
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Closing	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Totals	2	107	3	120	-	108	5	335

TC5 Now I try to use less L1 (compared to the past) but I don't think it can be reduced to zero.								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1: Grammar		Observation 2: Reading Check+ Course Book		Observation 3: listening + reading check		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language								
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Giving Instructions	3	5	3	15	3	11	9	31
Greeting	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	1	7	-	9	1	9	2	25
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions + giving codes + learner training L1+ L2 pointing out they did and activity the previous weeklesson 2)	33	21	12	10	12	15	57	46
Checking Comprehension if they have understood or what they understood	6	7	1	7	2	12	9	26
Translating (a word or a sentence)	4	1	3	-	8	-	15	1
Time-keeping	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	3	1	5	5	8	12	16	18
Praising/Comforting	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1
Warning students L2 to take notes lesson2 speak Eng. obs2	4	1	13	6	6	4	23	11
Chatting / Exclamation+L2 (did you write this obs 3)	2	-	-	-	2	6	4	6
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok)	4	14	5	7	3	7	12	28
Addressing students	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Closing	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	2
Totals	60	60	43	60	46	78	149	198

TR1 It should be fifty-fifty (FG)								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1: Reading Check		Observation 2: Grammar Check		Observation 3: Writing Logical sequence Free practice		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Giving Instructions	12	6	13	13	12	13	37	32
Greeting	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	15	12	14	9	2	5	31	26
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	39	17	38	17	25	14	102	48
Checking Comprehension/as	5	10	-	2	4	4	9	16
Translating (a word or a sentence)	18	-	16	-	7	3	41	3
Time-keeping	1	1	1	4	3	9	5	14
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	-	-	2	3	3	8	5	11
Praising/Comforting	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	1
Warning students	2	-	3	-	12	2	17	2
Chatting / Exclamation	10	4	4	2	7	3	21	9
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok/alright)	-	2	1	2	5	1	6	5
Addressing students	-	-	2	-	-	1	2	1
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Closing	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	2
Totals	103	54	94	55	80	65	277	174

TR2 My policy is you have to use L1 when the level decreases or when you see the student is distancing him/herself you can try to connect with him/her. (TR2-INT2).								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1: Coursebook		Observation 2: Listennig and Note-Taking		Observation 3: note-taking and Writitng		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language								
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	2
Giving Instructions	-	22	4	11	1	22	5	55
Greeting	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	1	51	-	6	1	24	2	81
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	-	22	13	15	11	23	24	60
Checking Comprehension	-	13	2	6	2	6	4	25
Translating (a word or a sentence)	1	1	2	-	2	4	5	5
Time-keeping	-	5	-	2	-	2	-	9
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	3	5	2	2	1	3	6	10
Praising/Comforting	2	10	-	2	-	4	2	16
Warning students to speak Eng obs 1 l2	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	3
Chatting / Exclamation	4	8	1	8	2	5	7	21
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok)	2	34	-	1	3	7	5	42
Addressing students	3	-	3	1	2	-	8	1
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	3	-	1	3	1	3	5
Closing	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Totals	16	180	27	57	28	102	71	339

TR3 When I feel that a student hasn't understood and hasn't digested [the subject matter], I switch to Turkish to enable him/her to contextualize it or make sense of it (TR2-INT2).								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1: Grammar		Observation 2: One-word only		Observation 3: Logical sequence		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	2
Giving Instructions/explaining instructions L2 obs. 2	-	24	-	15	1	17	1	56
Greeting	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	-	47	8	30	2	21	10	98
Explaining (gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	1	36	16	35	13	25	30	96
Checking Comprehension/asking if everyone agrees obs 3 l2	1	11	9	7	7	7	17	25
Translating (a word or a sentence)	1	1	18	-	13	1	32	2
Time-keeping	-	3	-	5	-	4	-	12
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	-	6	1	1	-	3	1	10
Praising/Comforting	-	4	-	6	-	2	-	12
Warning students	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	3
Chatting / Exclamation	-	9	5	4	1	11	6	24
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok/alright)	-	31	-	9	1	7	1	47
Addressing students	-	-	-	-	3	-	3	-
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	3
Closing	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Totals	3	178	57	116	41	100	101	394

TR4 you should use as much as L2. I mean as much as possible. But if necessary, you can switch back to L1								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1: Listening		Observation 2: Cloze Test		Observation 3:		Totals	
Type of classroom language	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Giving Instructions/	-	9	2	6	1	8	3	23
Greeting	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers/to clarify obs2	-	36	5	34	-	24	5	94
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	2	33	29	46	19	23	50	102
Checking Comprehension/asking if they agree	-	10	6	9	8	-	14	19
Translating (a word or a sentence)	6	-	13	-	7	-	26	-
Time-keeping	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	4
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	-	4	-	12	-	16	-	32
Praising/Comforting	-	11	5	13	1	17	6	41
Warning students to use Eng.Obs. 2	-	5	-	2	4	2	4	9
Chatting / Exclamation/asking whether they did hw?Obs. 1/clarify obs 2	3	30	13	30	4	5	20	65
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok/alright)	-	15	3	13	1	26	4	54
Addressing students	5	-	-	2	-	-	5	2
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Closing	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Totals	16	157	76	169	45	127	137	453

TR5: I have a mostly English policy (TR5-IN1).								
Level: Pre-intermediate	Observation 1:		Observation 2:		Observation 3:		Totals	
	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Type of classroom language								
Opening/Signalling the start of the lesson	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	3
Giving Instructions/explaining instructionsL2 obs. 2	-	8	-	3	-	3	-	14
Greeting	-	1	-		-	-	-	1
Eliciting/Asking students to give answers	-	17	1	50	3	25	4	92
Explaining(gr+voc+answering individual/whole class questions+giving codes+learner training)	-	13	-	23	-	20	-	56
Checking Comprehension/asking if everyone agrees obs 3 l2	-	11	-	2	-	11	-	24
Translating (a word or a sentence)	1	-	-	-	2	-	3	-
Time-keeping	-	3	-	2	-	-	-	5
Pointing out students' mistakes/errors	-	2	-	4	-	4	-	10
Praising/Comforting	-	7	-	11	-	2	-	20
Warning students	-	2	3	-	-	-	3	2
Chatting / Exclamation	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	4
Confirming (by repeating their answer or saying ok/alright)	1	8	-	14	-	5	1	27
Addressing students	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Giving the aim of the lesson/activity	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Closing	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	2
Totals	2	75	4	111	5	74	11	260