# FIRST-LANGUAGE USE IN LEARNING THE *SER/ESTAR* DISTINCTION IN SPANISH AS A THIRD LANGUAGE

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# FIRST-LANGUAGE USE IN LEARNING THE *SER/ESTAR* DISTINCTION IN SPANISH AS A THIRD LANGUAGE

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in Spanish as a Third Language

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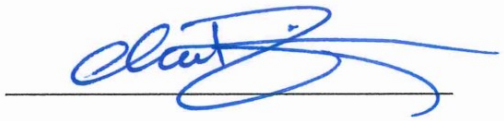

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- this thesis contains no material that has been submitted or accepted for a degree or diploma in any other educational institution;
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ABSTRACT

First-Language Use in Learning the *Ser/Estar* Distinction

in Spanish as a Third Language

This study examines the effect of L1 use as a possible aid in L3 *Ser-Estar* grammar instruction, the learners' L1 use as a cognitive tool in a collaborative writing task, their perspectives about L1 use in language teaching and their multilingual language learning awareness. The participants are L1 Turkish, L2 English and L3 Spanish multilinguals who are expected to have better cognitive development and language awareness than monolinguals and bilinguals (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). Two groups (Spanish-only and Turkish-aided) received pre-emptive FFI type of *Ser-Estar* grammar instruction for four hours. In Spanish-only group, grammar instruction for 10 minutes was in Spanish while input in Turkish-aided group was provided in Spanish accompanied with Turkish. To measure L3 learning, *Ser-Estar* language tests were used. Besides, the learners' use of L1 as a cognitive tool (LREs) was investigated in a collaborative L3 writing task. In addition, qualitative data was also collected through interviews to explore the participants' perceptions regarding the L1 use in the L3 instruction and to investigate the multilingual language awareness of the participants. The results showed that FFI has an effect on the target structure learning. TL-only group improved more than L1-aided group. It reveals that L1 use in FFI does not offer an additional useful benefit. In line with literature, the results did not reveal any significant difference in the amount and categories of LREs between the groups nor any significant difference between the OPT and WPT scores of the groups.

# ÖZET

## Üçüncü Dil Olarak İspanyolcada *Ser-Estar* Farkının Öğrenilmesinde Anadil Kullanımı

Bu çalışma, anadilin üçüncü dil dilbilgisi öğretiminde olası bir yardımcı olarak kullanılmasının etkisini, öğrencilerin anadili işbirlikçi bir yazma görevinde bilişsel bir araç olarak kullanmalarını, onların dil öğretiminde L1 kullanımına ilişkin bakış açılarını ve çok dilli dil öğrenme farkındalığını araştırmaktadır. Katılımcılar tek dilli ve iki dillilerden daha iyi bir bilişsel gelişmeye ve dil farkındalığına sahip olması beklenen L1 Türkçe L2 İngilizce, L3 İspanyolca bilen çok dillilerdir (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). İki grup (sadece İspanyolca ve Türkçe destekli) dört saat boyunca biçim odaklı *Ser-Estar* dilbilgisi talimatı aldı. Sadece İspanyolca grubunda 10 dakikalık dilbilgisi öğretimi İspanyolca verilirken, Türkçe destekli gruba İspanyolca girdi Türkçe desteği ile sağlandı. L3 öğrenimini ölçmek için *Ser-Estar* öntest/ sontesti kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin anadilin bilişsel bir araç olarak (LRE'lerde) kullanımı işbirlikçi bir L3 yazma görevinde incelenmiştir. Katılımcıların L3 öğretiminde L1 kullanımına ilişkin algılarını araştırmak ve katılımcıların çok dilli dil farkındalıklarını araştırmak için röportajlarla da nitel veriler toplanmıştır. Sonuçlar, biçim odaklı öğrenmenin hedef yapı öğrenmesi üzerinde bir etkisi olduğunu ve sadece hedef dilde eğitim alan grubun, anadil destekli gruptan daha fazla geliştiğini gösterdi. Bu durum biçim odaklı dil öğretiminde anadil kullanımının ek bir fayda sağlamadığını göstermektedir.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION ..... 1

1.1 Background to the study ..... 1

1.2 Aims of the study ..... 5

1.3 Organization of the thesis ..... 7

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW ..... 8

2.1 Introduction ..... 8

2.2 The definition of key terms ..... 9

2.3 The continuum of perspectives on target language and first language use ..... 11

2.4 Multilingualism and multilingual language awareness ..... 15

2.5 Pedagogical advantages and disadvantages of the L1 use ..... 23

2.6 Recent research studies investigating the role of the L1 in learning and teaching ..... 32

2.7 Previous studies about the perspectives of teachers and learners regarding the L1 use ..... 43

2.8 Conclusion ..... 49

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY ..... 52

3.1 Introduction ..... 52

3.2 Research design ..... 52

3.3 Research questions ..... 53

3.4 Research context and participants ..... 56

3.5 Pilot study ..... 57

3.6 Target structure and instructional treatment ..... 59

3.7 Data scoring ..... 65

3.8 Data collection ..... 67

3.9 Data analysis ..... 70

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS ..... 75

4.1 Introduction ..... 75

4.2 How much L1 was used in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting? ..... 75

4.3 What functions did the L1 serve in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting? ..... 79

4.4 Is there any significant difference in language gains (*Ser-Estar* language test (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) scores, OPT scores and WPT scores) between the Spanish-only group and the Turkish-aided group? ..... 84

4.5 Do the groups differ in the amount and functions of L1 use? To what extent are differences in the amount of L1 use related to differences in the quality of the students' writing? ..... 88

4.6 What were the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in completing tasks in the L3 setting? ..... 89

4.7 What is multilingual language awareness of the L3 participants while learning a L3 grammatical structure? ..... 96

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION ..... 101

5.1 Introduction ..... 101

5.2 L1 Use as an aid ..... 102

5.3 L1 Use as a cognitive tool ..... 104

5.4 Participants' perspectives about L1 use ..... 106

5.5 Participants' multilingual language learning awareness ..... 106

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION ..... 109

6.1 Summary and conclusion ..... 109

6.2 Pedagogical implications ..... 111

6.3 Limitations and suggestions for further research ..... 113

APPENDIX A: LANGUAGE BACKGROUND……114

APPENDIX B: INPUT……117

APPENDIX C: COLLABORATIVE WRITTEN PRODUCTION TASK……..119

APPENDIX D: WRITTEN PRODUCTION TASK SCORING SCHEME…….120

APPENDIX E: ORAL PRODUCTION TASK ……121

APPENDIX F: ORAL PRODUCTION TASK SCORING SCHEME……123

APPENDIX G: SER-ESTAR PRETEST- POSTTTEST…….124

APPENDIX H: LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING AWARENESS INTERVIEW QUESTIONS ……129

APPENDIX I: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS……..130

REFERENCES……131

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedure of the Study…….…....….73

Table 2. L1 Use in the Collaborative Writing Task……..…….…..…….76

Table 3. Language Outcomes of the Groups….....……..…..87

Table 4. WPT Scores of Each Group…...…….87

LIST OF FIGURE

Figure 1. All steps in data collection…….68

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEM: Cumulative-enhancement model

COLT: Communicative orientation of language teaching

CS: Code switching

EFL: English as a foreign language

ESL: English as a second language

FFI: Form focused grammar instruction

GTM: Grammar translation method

LA: Language awareness

LB: Language background

LLLA: Language and language learning awareness

LRE: Language related episodes

L1: First language, mother tongue

L1-ALL: L1-Assisted language learning

L2: Second language

L3: Third language

OPT: Oral production task

SCT: Socio-cultural theory

SLA: Second language acquisition

SPSS: Statistical package for the social sciences

SRI: Stimulated recall interview

SSI: Semi-structured interview

TBLT: Task based language teaching

TL: Target language

TonT: Time taken to do task

WPT: Written production task

# CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter of the thesis provides an overview of the background to the study, the aims of the study followed by the research questions and the organization of the thesis.

## 1.1 Background to the study

There has been an ongoing interest in investigating the role of L1 (first language, mother tongue) use on L2 (second language) learning in the literature over the last three decades. However, the use of L1 in language teaching has always been a controversial issue. Cummins (2007) states that the dominant approach in L2 teaching was not to use L1 in L2 classrooms. Target language (TL) use is recommended to be used as much as possible (e.g., Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002) while the role of the mother tongue is often ignored. However, it should not be forgotten that there are some occasions teachers prefer to use L1 and there can be a role of L1 use in TL learning (Cook, 2001). Besides, L1 is like "an elephant in the room" (Levine, 2011, p. 69). Although we all know that L1 is used in language classrooms, it is consciously or unconsciously ignored because it is considered as being something undesirable and stigmatized.

There are many studies investigating teachers' use of L1 as an aid (e.g., Kanatlar, 2005), the students' L1 use as a cognitive tool during a collaborative task (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2000; 2013) and/ or the teachers' or students' perceptions

about the L1 use (e.g., Debreli & Oyman, 2016). However, most of the studies were conducted in second language acquisition (SLA) context where the target language is a second language rather than a foreign language and the use of L1 is a major concern for minority students. In Turkey, English and Spanish are foreign languages rather than a second language. Apart from that, all of the studies investigated the role of L1 in a L2 setting rather than a multilingual context. Turkey was not a multilingual context either; however, with immigrants as well as the students who learn additional foreign languages in addition to their L2 English and go ERASMUS, it has started to become a multilingual context. In this thesis, the role of L1 use has been investigated in a L1 Turkish, L2 English and L3 (third language) Spanish multilingual context. This study will enlighten the L1 use in a foreign language context, investigate the role of L1 use as an aid in L3 grammar instruction and explore the role of L1 as a cognitive tool in a collaborative writing task.

An increasing number of quasi-experimental and perspective studies have been carried out to investigate the role of L1 in L2 learning (e.g., Anton & Dicamilla, 1998; Yavuz, 2012). Although some studies presented evidence that L1 use as an aid (Şimşek, 2010) and as a cognitive tool (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2000) can be beneficial for L2 learning and teaching under some circumstances, there are some SLA theorists who claim that L1 use is ineffective, and even detrimental, or it is only partially effective under some circumstances (e.g., Mart, 2013). In SLA, many interactionist cognitive researchers (e.g., Ellis, 1994) underline that input should be given in TL, and the TL exposure is necessary and should be maximized as much as possible. Besides, in an EFL context Turkey, it is recommended to use TL as much as possible while teaching TL because input is limited to classroom environment. In theory, teachers try to avoid using their L1 to increase TL input as much as possible.

However, in reality, L1 is excessively used by some teachers since most of the time the students and teachers share a common language: Turkish. With this thesis, we will see the effect of L1 use in grammar teaching as an aid and an example of L1 use as a cognitive tool among the learners.

I am a L1 Turkish, L2 English, L3 Spanish multilingual person. Besides, I have German and Arabic learning experiences. I started to learn Spanish six years ago when I was a student in an English medium university. While learning, most of the time, I made use of my English because they are typologically similar to each other. Our Spanish instructors had never used Turkish, but sometimes they told some grammar structures in English. When we struggled to learn a new grammatical structure in Spanish, if one of our friends had explained it in a few Turkish words, learning that structure could be easier for us. Therefore, based on my own learning experience, I have decided to investigate the role of L1 as an aid in a form-focused L3 instruction.

While reading the literature, I also noticed many studies investigating the use of L1 as a cognitive tool among L2 language learners in a collaborative learning task. Hence, I examined the role of L1 use as a cognitive tool in a L3 collaborative writing task. While conducting this task, the participants have three languages (L1 Turkish, L2 English, L3 Spanish) completing each other. Thus, I wondered their multilingual language learning awareness and how their languages in their repertoire affect their newly-acquired language. In the literature, there are many studies investigating the perspectives of learners regarding L1 use in L2 learning and teaching as well. Thus, I have decided to ask my participants' perspectives regrading L1 use in L3 teaching and learning.

Suggesting L1 use in language classes in Turkey is beyond the intentions and scope of this thesis. Following SLA theories and ISLA research findings, we know that TL should be maximized in L2 classes as well as L3 classes. Different language backgrounds would be an appropriate context to examine (if) any potential benefits of L1 exist.

The dominant approach in L2 teaching was not to use of L1 excessively in L2 classrooms (Cummins, 2007). Only under some circumstances (e.g., while teaching relatively difficult grammar structures) using L1 in L2 classrooms to some extent have been recommended (e.g., Cook, 2001). There are many studies focusing on the L1 use among students as a cognitive tool to scaffold each other (e.g., Ghorbani, 2011) while there are few studies investigating the L1 use as an aid in grammar instruction (e.g., Şimşek, 2010). There are also other studies focusing on teachers' or students' perceptions regarding the L1 use and when the teachers prefer using L1 while teaching (e.g., Edstorm, 2006). L1 use, especially as a cognitive tool, was mostly researched from a sociocultural perspective. In this study, on the other hand, from an instructed second language acquisition (ISLA) perspective and interactionist cognitive position, whether there is any role of limited L1 use as an aid in grammar teaching will be investigated. In Turkey, L1 use in language learning and teaching has been neglected and rarely researched. Most of the studies conducted in Turkey mainly investigated the perceptions of L1 Turkish, L2 English teachers or learners regarding the L1 use in L2 language classrooms (e.g. Yavuz, 2012). In Turkey, there are only two studies investigating the role of L1 on L2 instruction in a quasi-experimental research design (Kanatlar, 2005; Şimşek, 2010). However, there is none, if any, study investigating the role of L1 use as an aid in L3 instruction of *ser-estar* grammar structure. Moreover only few studies, if any, have investigated the L1

use of learners as a cognitive tool in a collaborative writing task and have investigated the perceptions of L3 language learners regarding L1 use. In addition, there is few study, if any, investigating the multilingual language learning awareness of L3 learners while learning grammar. After this brief background to the study, the aims of the study will be covered.

## 1.2 Aims of the study

This study will investigate the role of L1 use as an aid and as a cognitive tool in a foreign language concept in L3 grammar instruction. The general aim of the study is to investigate possible ways of increasing the effect of input and form-focused grammar instruction. There are four main purposes of the study. The first one is to investigate whether limited L1 use as an aid in L3 grammar instruction could increase L3 performance or not. The second aim is to examine the functions of learners' L1 use as a cognitive tool in a collaborative writing task. Another purpose is to examine the perceptions of L3 learners about L1 use in form-focused instruction. The final aim is to study the multilingual language learning awareness of L3 learners.

The study investigated the answers of following research questions:

1. a. How much L1 was used in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting?

   b. What functions did the L1 serve in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting?

2. Is there any significant difference in language gains (*Ser-Estar* language test (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) scores, OPT scores and WPT scores) between the Spanish-only group and the Turkish-aided group?
3. Do the groups differ in the amount and functions of L1 use? To what extent are differences in the amount of L1 use related to differences in the quality of the students' writing?
4. a. What were the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in completing tasks in the L3 setting?

   b. What is multilingual language awareness of L3 participants while learning a L3 grammatical structure?

The study has a quasi-experimental research design. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. In the study, there are two groups (Spanish-only group and Turkish-aided group) who received four-hour FFI (form focused grammar instruction) which is pre-emptive in a 28-hour long Spanish FFI course. There are three sessions in the research design, but only the first and the second sessions were recorded and transcribed to examine Language Related Episodes (LREs) in the intervention because there is just an online delayed posttest in the third session.

To answer the first question, all LREs in a collaborative writing task were counted and coded according to their functions following Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) and Swain and Lapkin's (2000) similar coding categories (task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and from-based LREs). For the second question, difference in language outcomes between the Turkish-aided group and Spanish-only group was measured with *Ser-Estar* pretest- posttest scores, oral production scores and collaborative writing task scores. For the third question, the relationship between the amounts and functions of LREs and the WPT scores were examined. Finally, the

fourth question was answered by analysing students' responses to a specifically prepared semi-structured interview (SSI) and an adapted version of Muñoz's (2014) Language and Language Learning Awareness (LLLA) interview qualitatively.

## 1.3 Organization of the thesis

There are six chapters in the thesis. This introduction chapter gives an overview of thesis and provides information about the background of the study, aims of the study and thesis organization while the second chapter reviews the literature regarding the perspectives on target language and the first language use, multilingualism and multilingual language awareness, pedagogical advantages/ disadvantages of L1 use, studies investigating teachers' L1 use as an aid and learners' L1 use as a cognitive tool in addition to their perceptions regarding L1 use. The third chapter, on the other hand, provides information about the methodology and design of the study. The fourth chapter reports the findings of the study while the fifth chapter discusses the results of the thesis in the light of literature and cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1994; Sweller et al, 2011), the Typological Primacy Model (Rothman, 2010, 2011) and Cumulative-Enhancement Model (CEM) (Flynn et al, 2004). The final chapter summarizes the thesis and presents the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

At the introduction chapter of the thesis, an overview of the background to the study, the aims of the study followed by the research questions and the thesis organization were mentioned. In the next section, literature regarding the use of L1 as a cognitive tool by the learners and as an aid in instruction by the instructors will be covered.

# CHAPTER 2

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 Introduction

The use of learners' L1 in TL education is a controversial issue. Most of the time, teachers do not use L1 during teaching and learners are discouraged from using their L1s. Recent findings (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2000) suggest that L1 may be a useful tool within a sociocultural framework. The importance of using L1 in immersion or ESL (English as a second language) contexts has already been mentioned as well. In EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts such as Turkey; however, it is emphasized that TL use should be maximized as much as possible due to the fact that classrooms or instructed settings are the only places where the learners can be exposed to TL.

In Turkey, there are more and more multilingual people due to the immigration. Besides, in universities, there are many multilingual L1 Turkish students who are learning another foreign language in addition to their L2 English with many different purposes. It is known that multilingual learners are different from monolinguals and bilinguals because they are aware of new language learning, have rich language resources, use all of these resources available to them, and relate what they have just learnt and what they have already known while they are learning a new language. Besides, multilinguals have better cognitive development, better communicative competence, better language awareness (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998) and better executive functioning (Poarch, 2018) than monolinguals and bilinguals.

They can also use different learning strategies (Mitits, 2016) different from monolinguals and bilinguals.

L1 use is a reality, but it is frequently ignored. According to Ellis (2012), L1 use in language teaching can be studied in two ways: teachers' L1 use and students' L1 use. In this thesis, L1 use was also discussed namely in two directions: L1 use as an aid in form-focused grammar instruction and L1 use of learners as a cognitive tool in a collaborative writing task. In this chapter, after defining key terms and explaining Macaro's (2001; 2005) continuum of perspectives on TL and the L1 use, the importance of multilingualism and language awareness as well as the possible benefits of the L1 use in the TL teaching will be discussed. After reporting some research studies investigating the role of the L1 in instruction, previous studies presenting the learners' and teachers' perspectives about the L1 use in the L2 learning and teaching will be reviewed.

## 2.2 The definition of key terms

Before any review of literature on the L1 use in the L3 grammar instruction, it is vital to define key terms to which I will refer to frequently throughout the thesis: form-focused instruction, the L1 use as a cognitive tool and/or the L1 use as an aid.

Ellis (2001) defined form-focused instruction (FFI) as "…any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form." (p.1). Ellis (2012) states that FFI combines two very different ways of viewing instruction directed at linguistic form by Long (1991)'s definitions: focus on form and focus on forms. Focus on forms is the traditional way

of teaching in which the exact focus of the lesson is merely on the grammar while focus on form attempts to draw learners' attention to form in communicative tasks.

Although the second term "the L1 use as a cognitive tool" was defined and used by many researchers before (e.g., Anton & Dicamilla, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), the definition by Colina and Mayo (2009) as "language as a mediating tool in all forms of higher-order mental processing" (p. 325) was preferred in this study. L1 can only be used as a cognitive tool when all of the learners share a common L1. In the current study, the L1 Turkish of the learners is allowed to be used as a cognitive tool in a collaborative task used for L3 Spanish teaching. The shared L1 of the participants is assumed to provide cognitive support that allows learners to study at a higher level than that which would be possible if they were just using the L2 or the L3. In the L1 use as a cognitive tool, the focus is on the learners' L1 use in a collaborative writing task (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; 2013)

According to the Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT), learners are allowed to use their shared L1 as a cognitive tool while conducting a task. In interactionist perspectives, on the other hand, interaction, input and output are substantial and to increase the effect of grammar instruction, the L1 can be used systematically as an aid in TL instruction (Cook, 2001). Influenced by SCT theory and interactionist perspectives, there is a role of L1 in some methodologies such as the Bilingual Method, Reciprocal Language Teaching, the New Concurrent Method, and the Functional Translation Method. According to Cook (1998; 2001), these methods underline the importance of the L1 use as an aid in foreign language teaching. In the current study, by giving Turkish explanations of target grammar structure in the TL and direct translations of all examples, the L1 of the participants is used as an aid in the input of a specifically designed form-focused instruction.

It can be helpful to bear these constructs in mind while reading the study. In the next section, Macaro's (2005) Continuum of Perspectives on TL and the L1 use and virtual position will be covered.

## 2.3 The continuum of perspectives on target language and first language use

According to Macaro (2005), there is a continuum of perspectives on target language and the first language use. At one extreme, there is virtual position which requires exclusive use of target language and does not see any pedagogical value in the L1 use while at other extreme, there is maximal position which sees the use of L1 as an aid in the learning of TL. The avoidance of L1 use can be divided into two: stronger form and weaker form (Cook, 2001). In the stronger view, the L1 should be banned from the L2 classrooms while in the weaker view, which is adapted in this thesis, the L1 should be minimized and the L2 should be maximized as much as possible.

In virtual position, the acquisition of the L2 is similar to the acquisition of the L1 (the L1= L2 Learning Hypothesis). In the L1 acquisition, there is not any language available, so while acquiring the L2 and more languages, any language rather than the target language should not be used. This virtual position can be said to draw on many SLA theories such as Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983; 1996), Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985; 1993) and Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993).

In the innatist SLA theories, input is very crucial in language learning. Chomsky (1986) states that there is an innate capacity in all children to learn a language. Therefore, all healthy children can acquire the first language. Sustained exposure triggers internal grammar formation and that formation enables language

production and learning. Krashen (1985) supported Chomsky's ideas regarding L1 acquisition and applied his ideas into the second language learning. According to him, second language learners need comprehensible input (i+1) which is more complex than their current mental representation of target language to learn a language. Input should turn into uptake with necessary mental processing, and through tasks this process can be accelerated. Children acquire a language while the second language learners learn a language through practice. Through practice they become automatic. Just like interaction and input, practice is also substantial in language learning (De Keyser, 2010).

Apart from rich input, interaction between the learners is crucial in language learning according to interactionist theories. Long (1983, 1996) indicates that a second language is best learned and taught through social interaction. Miscommunications and negative evidence are very crucial and learners should negotiate meaning or forms to gain knowledge about target language and develop an interlanguage system. If a learner has a problem with a particular form while interacting with another person, the learner will focus on that problematic area. In this theory, the interaction generally takes place in TL.

In addition to input and interaction, output is also important in language learning. "Output Hypothesis" which claims that learners should produce output to use language in a meaningful way, to test their hypotheses about TL and to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing is formulated by Swain (1985, 1993). In that hypothesis, rich input does not always guarantee learning. While producing, learners will notice the difference between what they produce and what is there in input. Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis, in relation to Swain's Output Hypothesis, underlines that learners could not begin to acquire a language feature

until they had become aware of it in the input. Second language learners should notice what they are learning. Noticing is the essential starting point and requires conscious apprehension and awareness of input. Awareness and attention are crucial in learning. These theories highlight the importance of TL production because through interaction in TL, learners should notice the difference between what they produce in a meaningful way and what they see in the input. Through noticing, learners are able to test their hypothesis about target language, move from semantic to syntactic processing and notice what the learners are learning.

Ellis (2012) emphasizes that such interactionist cognitive theories underline the importance of interaction. He also lists seven constructs in these theories: negotiation of meaning, negotiation of form, focus on form, uptake, modified input, noticing and noticing the gap. In these constructs; however, there is an emphasis on TL use and there is no place for the L1 use (Macaro, 2005) because the learner should negotiate meaning and form in TL, take input in TL and notice the gap in TL while producing output in TL.

Contrary to SLA theories, L2 teaching methodologies support or reject the L1 use. Cook (2001) draws a comprehensive picture of the condition of the L1 within different language teaching methodologies. In Grammar Translation Method (GTM), learners have used direct translations and have heavily used their L1. Due to the fact that L1 use was seen as a part of GTM, L1 use was historically avoided. Thus, after GTM lost its popularity, other methods, such as Direct Method and Audiolingualism, ignored or devalued the native language use in language learning. Even the new trend Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) ignores the L1 use while encouraging the L2 use and giving advice about how to maximize the L2 instruction. Cook (2001) underlines that only the four methods of the nineties, namely Community Language

Teaching, New Concurrent Method, Dodson's Bilingual Method, and Two-way Immersion Program encourage the L1 use while teaching and learning. In Dodson's Bilingual Method, new words and structures are taught through the L1 equivalents and translations, and negative language interferences can be prevented by the sandwich technique (Butzkamm, 2003). Hawkins's Reciprocal Language Teaching, on the other hand, pairs an L1 X user of the L2 Y learner with an L1 Y user of the L2 X learner and lets them to use their own L1 and L1 expertise in learning process (Cook 1998; 2001). Jacobson's New Concurrent Method also allows teachers to use the L1 while learning key points, revising, punishing, praising and getting learners' attention (Cook, 2001). In addition, the Functional Translation Method underlines that English-only policies lack of comprehensible input, but teaching in just the L1 can impede thinking in the L2. Therefore, this method, like a blend of grammar translation method and communicative language teaching, sees the L1 as temporary scaffolding (Weschler, 1997).

Apart from the interactionist hypothesis and methods, there are many researchers claiming to reduce L1 use or even ban L1 use while teaching TL. According to Cook (2001), there are three reasons to avoid the L1 use in the L2 classrooms. Firstly, the L2 learning was considered to be similar to the L1 acquisition. In the L1 acquisition, there is not any source language, so language its own was seen as the only source. Therefore, in TL learning, likewise, only TL itself should be used. Secondly, it was claimed that there is language compartmentalization, which means that the L1 and the L2 are separate in our brain, and languages should be kept separated. Finally, there is the provision of the L2 use which means that TL use must be used as much as possible while teaching a TL. However, it should not be forgotten that classroom is the only place where learners

experience the L2 use, especially in foreign language contexts rather than second language acquisition settings, and the L1 acquisition is different from the L2 learning because learners have already had a language while learning the L2. Besides, although the learners can come from different age groups, different TL levels and different L1 backgrounds, they have high levels of language awareness owing to having already acquired L1s. If they are bilinguals, multilinguals or L2 learners/ users of an additional language, it means that they have a L2 or even L3s in addition to their L1 in their language resources, and know how to learn a language.

In most of the recent methodologies and interactionist SLA theories, the use of the L1 while language teaching and learning is ignored, or seen as being ineffective, detrimental, or partially effective. Teachers are also hesitant to use the L1 and ask leaners to use the TL while interacting and learning. However, if there is a multilingual context, the learners will have a L2 or even L3s in addition to their L1 as a resource. Therefore, following part will review current issues in multilingualism and will explain the differences in an EFL class and a multilingual class after defining multilingualism and explaining how multilinguals' language awareness affects learning.

## 2.4 Multilingualism and multilingual language awareness

In today's world, monolingualism is not the norm anymore because everybody knows at least a few words in a language different from their own L1s regardless of their competences in that language (Block, 2003).Wei (2013 a, 2013 b) defines bilingualism and multilingualism as "the coexistence, contact, and interaction of different languages" (p.26). Multilingualism is often simply considered as variations

of bilingualism and SLA. However, multilingual education and multilingualism are complex phenomena as stated by Cenoz and Genese (1998), and in this phenomena, languages should not be considered separately. The L3 acquisition is "a more complex phenomenon than SLA" (Cenoz & Jessner, 2000, p. ix). There are complex interactions in the learning process among the languages being learned. Cook (1993) emphasizes that bilinguals are not like imitation of monolinguals in a second language. Just like bilinguals, multilinguals can be seen as beyond monolinguals and bilinguals because in multilingualism, there is the effect and interaction of at least three languages (Cenoz, 2009). Besides, multilingual competence is dynamic (Jessner, 1997). Multilingualism is a complex social, psychological and linguistic phenomena (Butler, 2013) and is affected by a great number of individual and contextual variables and interaction effects (Cenoz & Genese, 1998). Thus, there are many studies conducted in the field regarding this complex process.

There are psycholinguistic, linguistic and sociolinguistic approaches in multilingualism research (Wei, 2013). Multilingual discourses across different political and historical contexts (e.g., Canagarajah & Liyanage, 2012; Cooke & Simpson, 2012), multilingual education (e.g., Gardner; 2012; Gorter & Cenoz, 2012), multilingual language policy (e.g., Wiley, 2015), multilingualism in other institutional sites (e.g., Day & Wagner, 2007; Hewitt, 2012; Kelly- Holmes, 2012; Li, 2007; Wilson, Turner & Perez, 2012), multilingualism in social and cultural change (e.g., Duchene & Heller, 2012), multilingual literacies (e.g., Bialystok, 2013; Edwards, 2015; Garcia, Bartlett & Kleifgen, 2007; Warriner, 2012), heteroglossia (e.g., Bailey, 2012), multimodality (e.g., Lytra, 2012), late multilingualism (e.g., Baker, 2007), minority languages (e.g., Cenoz & Gorter, 2015), identity (e.g., Byram, 1998), L3 phonology (e.g., Amaro, 2012), writing systems (e.g., Bassetti,

2013), the multilingual lexicon (e.g., Cenoz, 2003; Cenoz, Hufeisen & Jessner, 2003; Gibson & Hufeisen, 2003; Hall & Ecke, 2003; Jessner, 2003; Lindqvist, 2012; Singleton, 2003, 2012; Wei, 2003) and foreign accent (e.g., Wrembel, 2012) were investigated in this field.

In addition, many models regarding multilingualism such as interactive activation model (Dijkstra, 2003), dynamic model of multilingualism (Herdina & Jessner, 2002), transfer-appropriate-processing approach (Schönpflug, 2003), a strategy model of multilingual learning (Müller-Lance, 2003) were developed. According to Jessner (2008), bilingual and multilingual production models developed from Levelt's (1989) speech processing model, the activation/inhibition model, the language mode hypothesis, the factor model, the multilingual processing model, a dynamic systems theory model of multilingualism and the model of multilinguality are the current models in the L3 acquisition. In nearly all of these models, L3 was interdependent on previously learnt languages and was influenced by all language resources and all language experiences. Typological relatedness among the languages are substantial in language transfer (Jessner, 2008). There are many studies revealing that if L1 of the learners is typologically unrelated to the L2 and/or L3, learners are more likely to transfer knowledge from their L2 (e.g., Wei, 2003).

Multilingualism has been researched in immersion contexts such as Canada (e.g., Genesee, 1998), in immigration contexts (Brizic, 2006) and in many other multilingual contexts, such as Malaysia (e.g., Jones, 2015), South Korea (e.g., Lee, 2015), Luxemburg (e.g., Hoffman, 1998) and Basque community (e.g., Cenoz, 1998). It should be noted that Turkey was not a multilingual context; however, with immigrants as well as the students learning another foreign language in addition to

their L2 English, it has started to be a multilingual context. Nevertheless, there is very few study investigating multilingualism in Turkey (e.g., Yiğitoğlu, 2016).

In addition to the context, multilingual competence can be controversial. Multilingual competence is defined by Cook (2012) as "the knowledge of more than one language in the same mnd or the same community" (p.3768). Multilingual education is complex and depends on bilingualism level (Jessner, 2008). It constantly evolves and covers whole mind and whole languages in mind (Cook, 2016a). There is L1, interlanguage and other aspects of L2 users' mind. It should not be forgotten that "L3/ Ln involves three linguistic systems at various levels of representation, which in turn have hypothesized consequences for other non-linguistic domains of cognition." (Amaro, Flynn & Rothman, 2012, p. 5). Balanced bilinguals/ multilinguals are very rare (Edwards, 1994).Their multilingual competence is not comparable to monolingual competence (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998) because "in contrast to monolinguals, bi- or multilinguals have a different knowledge of their L1, their L2, a different kind of language awareness and a different language processing system" (Jessner, 2008, p. 21). Multilinguals should not be seen like defective language users because there is a gradual development in their learning (Cook, 2016a). In multilingual competence, there is knowledge of at least two languages in the same mind (Cook, 1994). According to Cook (2016b), there are three premises of multi-competence:

1. Multi-competence concerns the total system for all languages in a single mind or community and their inter-relationships
2. Multi-competence does not depend on the monolingual native speaker
3. Multi-competence affects the whole mind (all language and cognitive system) rather than language alone (pp. 7-15)

Therefore, it can be highlighted that multi-competence is about the total system for all languages affecting the whole mind. Multilinguals do not have to have a balanced

level in all of the languages in their repertoire and skills, so as mentioned by Ortega (2016), they should not be compared to monolingual L1 users.

Apart from context and multilingual competence, age is an important factor in TL. It explains the variability of language acquisition among multilinguals (Butler, 2013). Butler (2013) underlines that age impacts the route of acquisition, the rate of acquisition and the ultimate attainment in TL proficiency. When the amount of TL exposure is kept under control, adults outperform young learners (e.g., Olson & Samuels, 1973). However, there are other studies (e.g., Snow & Hoefnagle- Höhle, 1978) revealing that teenagers showed the most rapid progress compared to adults and children. Butler (2013) claims that adults are more likely to show progress only in short term and the success depends on the domains being investigated.

As can be seen, there are many different research subfields in multilingualism. Notwithstanding, there is not any, to our knowledge, study investigating the role of L1 use as an aid in L3 grammar instruction. Recently, there is a move from researching languages as separate and bounded entities to a communication in which language the speaker choose to use (Creese et al, 2015). According to Cumulative-Enhancement Model (CEM), language learning is cumulative and all of the languages previously learnt can affect the development of languages later learnt (Flynn et al, 2004). Similarly, the Typological Primacy Model discusses that previously learnt languages affect L3, but whether L1 or L2 has a privilege status depends on the typological proximity (Rothman, 2010, 2011). While absolute L1 transfer approach (De Bot, 2004) states that L2 and L3 acquisitions are similar initially and they are affected by L1, the L2 status factor (Bardel & Falk, 2007; Falk & Bardel, 2011) discusses that L2 has a stronger role than L1 in the initial state of L3 morphosyntax. Multilingual learners transfer from their language sources.

Language distance which is defined as “the degree of linguistic differences and similarities between one L1 and an L2” (p.127), developmental stages, age, sociolinguistic factors and prototypicality have an impact on language transfer (Butler, 2013).

L1 and TL interference are also frequently studied in relation to code switching and translanguaging. Hymes (1977) defines code switching (CS) as “the alternate use of two or more languages, varieties of a language, or even speech styles” (p.103). Many studies were conducted to investigate the functions of CS (e.g., Canagarajah, 1995) or the perceptions of teachers and students related to CS (e.g., Horasan, 2014). CS reflects bilingual community’s disapproval of CS as being random or mixing languages disorderly (Lin & Li, 2012). According to Mattsoon and Burenhult-Matsson (1999), there are three functions of CS, namely: topic switch, affective functions, and repetitive functions. CS can be used to check understanding, to express feelings, to tell procedures, to create a feeling of connectedness, to form a bridge between the languages, to give directions, to explain grammar, to manage class, to explain a topic, or for eliciting, prompting, monitoring, establishing rapport, praising, self-repair and cultural expressions. Besides, CS has a role in vocabulary teaching and learning (Hall & Cook, 2012), and there are some studies (e.g., Nation, 2003) using translation as a teaching method.

Translanguaging, on the other hand, was firstly used by Williams (1996). He defines it as the bilingual pedagogical practice that deliberately changes languages in the input and output. Bilinguals regularly and naturally engage in translanguaging (Baker & Lewis, 2015). Teachers do translanguaging for adapting instruction, building background knowledge, increasing understanding, metalinguistic awareness, cross-linguistic transfer, cross-linguistic flexibility, identity construction and

engaging in social justice (Garcia & Wei, 2015). In Turkish EFL context, the studies showed that teachers translanguage and use or prefer to use L1 to meet the demands of the TL grammar instruction, especially at the low levels (Taşkın, 2011; Timuçin & Baytar, 2015).

Historically, multilinguals were expected to have a balanced competence in all of the languages they know and bilingualism and multilingualism were perceived as being detrimental to cognition and intelligence (Jessner, 2008). Currently, it is known that balanced bilinguals/ multilinguals are very rare (Edwards, 1994). Just like bilingualism can be beneficial to cognitive development, concept formation, creativity, visual-spatial abilities, and metalinguistic awareness (Bialystok, 1991; Cummins, 1993; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Jessner, 2006), multilingualism can have positive effect on cognitive development, communicative competence, language awareness (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998), executive functioning (Poarch, 2018) and different learning strategy uses (Mitits, 2016). What language awareness (LA) means, on the other hand, is a controversial issue. One of the earliest definitions of LA by Donmall (1985) is "person's sensitivity to a conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life" (p.7). It can be defined as "the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language" (Carter, 2003, p.64). In other words, it is the knowledge about the language. LA was originally seen as a bridge between foreign language and mother tongue to succeed in literacy and foreign language learning (Garrett & James, 1993). Language awareness can be enhanced by noticing and consciousness raising tasks which enable learner involvement (Carter, 2003). According to Hawkins (1999), LA in L2 learning is crucial and refers to learning to learn a language and doing cross-

language comparisons by focusing on the L1. Jessner (2008) suggests to use his ideas in multilingual education as well.

According to Garrett and James (1993), there are five domains covered by language awareness: affective, social, power, cognitive and performance. Affective domain is related to emotions and the idea of learning a new language experience while social domain deals with living in a community peacefully by increasing each other's awareness regarding linguistic and cultural differences. Power domain, on the other hand, shows how a language can be used as an instrument of manipulation while cognitive domain studies the effect of LA on language in use, at genres, at language learning processes and its functions. Additionally, performance domain shows that LA positively affects language behavior. Language awareness helps the learners affectively, socially and cognitively, and gives power and opportunity to perform in languages.

Within a constructivist framework, Svalberg (2018) states, activities or tasks, such as dictogloss or text reconstruction, making use of or engendering conscious knowledge and stimulating engagement with the language in a specific context can be used while teaching. In her review, Svalberg (2018) also claims that cognitive approaches find awareness and explicit learning beneficial. However, learner differences, target feature in addition to the level and the quality of awareness affect learning. In language awareness, L1 use also affects learning. L1 use of teachers and students should depend on students' proficiency levels and teaching purposes (Pan & Pan, 2010). Therefore, L1 use should be reduced respectively while the proficiency level of the learners increases, and multilinguals' language awareness should not be ignored.

In the following section, pedagogical advantages and disadvantages of L1 use and theories/ hypotheses seeing some value in the L1 use will be covered.

## 2.5 Pedagogical advantages and disadvantages of the L1 use

In Macaro's continuum (2005), there is maximal position at the other extreme of the continuum which underlines pedagogical value of L1 use as an aid in TL learning. The sociocultural theory and other studies (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2000) reveal some advantages of the L1 use. Despite interactionist SLA hypotheses as well as many political restrictions and teachers' feeling of guilt, the L1 is widely used in the L2 classrooms not only by teachers, but also by students. Observational studies show that teachers use the TL in a variety of quantity and quality (e.g., Macaro, 1997). The TL learners use the L1 and codeswitch between languages in a similar way to bilinguals and native speakers (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005). The L1 can also be beneficial as a cognitive tool helping the L2 learning (e.g., Anton & DiCamilla, 1998). Sociocultural/ constructivist theories consider language learning as a social phenomenon and underline the importance of the L1 use of learners while teaching and learning a language.

Lev Vygotsky is the founder of SCT and his work has been influential in L2 learning. According to Lantolf (2000), human mind is mediated. Learners do not act directly on the world because their cognitive and material activities are mediated by symbolic tools as well as physical tools. Language is a symbolic tool through which learners mediate their connection to the world and to the others. Languaging is the activity of mediating cognitively complex ideas using language (Swain, 2006) and language is used for mediating conceptualization and problem-solving. Cultural

artifacts, activities, and concepts are crucial and mediate learning. Language has an important role in the development of higher mental functions. (Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Swain and Lapkin (1995) also add that according to Vygotsky, language mediates cognitively complex thinking. The L1 can be seen as a powerful tool for doing so. Therefore, it can be said that students can be permitted to use their L1 while dealing with complex ideas (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Besides, the development of human cognitive and higher mental function comes from social interactions and human genes. By participating in social activities requiring cognitive and communicative functions, learners use these functions to nurture and "scaffold" themselves. For the theory, he defines five constructs: mediated mind, genetic domains, unit of analysis, internalization and inner speech and zone of proximal development. The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is the gap between a learner's possible educational development with the help of someone (a peer or a teacher) and the actual development that they can achieve alone. John-Steiner and Mahn (1996) clarify that this gap can be assessed through problem solving tasks or challenging group tasks in which learners scaffold one another to develop a skill under the supervision of an instructor. Learners collaborate with each other to solve problems, scaffold each other and create solution. These are possible opportunities to L1 use and learners are capable of doing that skill without any assistance at the end of learning.

According to Aimin (2013)'s interpretation of Vygotsky, language is seen as different from speech. While language belongs to society and is a psychological and social phenomenon, speech belongs to individuals and is a psychological and physical phenomenon. There are three stages in language learning. First stage is "social speech" and at this stage, learners must engage in the social environment.

Next stage is “private speech” and at this stage, learners will learn about what occurs when learners voice their thoughts aloud. Last stage is “inner speech” and shows ideas that remain within our minds and directly impact our behavior or thoughts. At the last stage, also known as verbal thought, in which speech and thinking are connected together, learners are able to engage in all forms of higher mental functions Languaging can be found in dialogues while doing a collaborative task or in the form of private speech. Learners use private speech to control their mental processes to regain self-regulation (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

In Vygotsky’s theory, L1 use of the learners are welcomed and their L1 use is seen as a cognitive tool in learning. There are three main guiding principles in SCT (Swain & Lapkin, 2013). The first one is language mediation. Language mediates cognitively complex thinking, and the L1 is the most powerful tool to mediate cognitively complex thinking. Students should be permitted to use their L1 during collaborative dialogue or private speech while producing an end product (oral or written) in the target language. However, while their TL level increases, they should be more encouraged to use the TL. The second principle is about creating a confident environment while learning. Teachers are advised to make clear expectations about when, how much and for what purposes the L1 is to be used to create a comfortable environment in the classroom. The final principle is that the target language always has priority to achieve a high level of proficiency in TL; therefore, the L1 use should be purposeful, not random. As can be seen, in SCT, the L1 provides language mediation and helps learning; however, overuse of the L1 or nonrandom use of the L1 is not advisable for the TL learners especially in high levels.

Swain and Lapkin (2013) also list three important guiding principles in language teaching and learning through research findings highlighted and re-

interpreted within SCT. Firstly, learners need to be allowed to use their L1 during collaborative dialogue or private speech to mediate their thinking (languaging) while producing an output in TL. However, there must be a gradual increase in the L2 use as a cognitive tool while their proficiency in the L2 increases. Secondly, teachers should create clear expectations regarding the L1 and the L2 use to create a healthy classroom environment appropriate to learners' age and in that environment learners can interact with confidence. Finally, TL is prioritized in immersion classrooms, so the L1 use should be purposeful. To mediate the L2 learning in a ZPD activity, the L1 can be used to show cross-linguistic differences or to provide the meaning of abstract vocabulary items.

Language learning occurs in social interaction in SCT. Language learning is a process rather than a product. Scaffolding and helping are crucial while learning. Social interactions enable the development of human cognitive and higher mental function. By participating in social activities requiring cognitive and communicative functions, learners use cognitive and higher mental function to nurture and "scaffold" themselves. While using these functions, through scaffolding and interacting, this theory creates an opportunity to the L1 use rather than inhibiting the L1. Sociocultural perspective shows that the L1 use is beneficial for language learning because the use of the L1 acts as a critical tool enabling learners to construct effective collaborative dialogue. The L1 use of the learners helps them to understand and make sense of the requirements and content of the task; to focus attention on language form, vocabulary use, and overall organization; and to establish the tone and nature of their collaboration (Swain & Lapkin, 2013)

In addition to SCT, the role of L1 proficiency has been acknowledged by interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1979). However, it should be noted that L1

use is considered to be beneficial in immersion or second language contexts rather than foreign language contexts in interdependence hypothesis. According to Cummins (1979), there is a huge difference between high levels of functional bilingualism and inadequate command of the L1 and the L2 in addition to poor academic achievement in many minority language children in immersion programs. Before Cummins proposed a theoretical framework assigning the role to the interaction between socio-cultural, linguistic and school program factors in explaining the academic and cognitive development of bilingual children, the explanation was attributed to specifically linguistic explanatory factors. To understand the difference in the outcomes of immersion and submersion programs, two hypotheses were developed by Cummins: Threshold Hypothesis which is about the cognitive and academic consequences of different patterns of bilingual skills, and Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis which addresses the functional interdependence between the development of the L1 and the L2 skills. According to the Threshold Hypothesis, there may be threshold levels (the lower threshold and the higher threshold) of linguistic competence. Having linguistic competence, bilingual children should avoid cognitive deficits and should use the potentially beneficial aspects of becoming bilingual to influence their cognitive growth. In the lower threshold, negative cognitive and academic effects are hypothesized to result from low levels of competence in both languages. In the higher threshold level, high level of the L2 skills provides cognitive benefits of the bilingualism. As can be seen, competence in the languages affect the learners' cognitive abilities. However, this hypothesis does not explain how the L1 and the L2 skills are related. The Developmental Interdependence Hypotheses, on the other hand, reveals how the L1 and the L2 skills are related to the cognitive abilities. According to the

Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis, the level of the L2 competence is partially a function of the type of competence the child has developed in the L1 when intensive exposure to the L2 begins. In other words, the growth in a second language is dependent on a well-developed the L1. When certain functions of language and the L1 vocabulary and concepts are strongly promoted by the linguistic environment outside the school, intensive exposure to the L2 is likely to result in high levels of the L2 competence. However, when the L1 skills are less well developed, intensive exposure to the L2 is likely to impede the continued level of the L1.

As can be seen in Cummins (1979), the L2 is interdependent on a well-developed L1. However, it should be noted that this hypothesis was constructed in an ESL context rather than an EFL context. In ESL contexts, there is the opportunity of TL exposure outside the classroom as well, but in EFL contexts, classroom is the only place where learners can expose to TL.

In addition to SCT and interdependence hypothesis, there are many researchers who does not support a total L1 ban in the L2 teaching and learning. While some of the researchers tolerate teachers' L1 use, others accept students' L1 use. According to Nunan and Lamb (1996), it is impossible to prohibit the use of the L1 use of learners especially at lower levels. However, Pan and Pan (2010) state that there is not a universally defined appropriate quantity of the L1 use because it depends on students' proficiency levels and teaching purposes. The L1 may be used from introductory to lower-intermediate levels on a decreasing scale. Although translation is underestimated, Cummins (2007) underlines that translation promotes the acquisition of the TL, biliteracy development, and identities of competence. Likewise, Hall and Cook (2012) considered own-language use through translation activities as being beneficial in SLA research. Cummins (2007) also adds that the

only context which needs the TL use only in instruction is when there are many students coming from different L1 backgrounds or when the teacher does not share a common L1 with the learners.

Cook (2001) also advices deliberate and systematic teacher use of the L1 in the L2 settings to facilitate target language learning while conveying meaning, checking meanings, explaining TL grammar, explaining tasks, maintaining discipline, contacting with students, and testing. Cook (2001) has proposed four guidelines that teachers should take into consideration while using the L1: efficiency, learning, naturalness and external relevance. The L1 should be effectively used in a natural and externally relevant way and should enable learning. The L1 may be used for explanation of hard items or vocabulary in a less time consuming but more effective manner. Besides, knowing how to present a product in both languages can help students. Wharton (2007) also adds that the L1 can be used to save time or to make life easier for the students and/ or teachers.

In addition, Meyer (2008) states that the L2 use should be maximized whenever possible but through the use of loan words, translation activities, and code switching within story telling activities, the L1 use is also recommended supplying scaffolding to lower affective filters by making the L2 and the classroom environment comprehensible. In addition to Meyer, Tang (2002) states that the L1 can be used in managing classroom, analyzing language, presenting rules that govern grammar, discussing cross cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, and checking for comprehension. Atkinson (1987) also states that the L1 can be used in the L2 classroom while eliciting language, checking comprehension, giving instructions, co-operating among learners, presenting and reinforcing of language, discussing classroom methodology, checking for sense, testing and developing useful

learning strategies. Besides, Auerbach (1993) identifies the uses of the L1 in classroom management, language analysis, presenting grammar rules, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors, and checking for comprehension.

Moreover, Ellis (1994) claims that the TL exposure is necessary and should be maximized as much as possible, but it does not guarantee the TL learning because TL input must become intake and the L1 can facilitate intake and contribute to learning. Cole (1998) also recommends that translating individual words, explaining grammar use in the L1, and facilitating complex instructions by using the L1 can save time and create a relaxing environment especially at lower levels. However, he adds that the L1 should not be used so much in descriptions, pronunciation activities, communication activities, listening activities, creative exercises and games unless there is a frustration or misunderstanding. In language choice, teachers' fluency in the L1 is also a determiner. Some language instructors who are fluent in the student's L1 try to conceal it. Atkinson (1993) recommends using the L1 only if the teachers have a certain level in students' L1. However, Cole (1998) underlines that the teachers' determination to see the TL used whenever possible is more important and effective than their competency in the L1. Gutierrez-Clellen (1999) also suggests that intervention approaches may be more successful when they are designed to extend, rather than limit, the child's linguistic resources so the L1 as well as the L2 should be used while teaching.

Pan and Pan (2010) also warn against excessive teacher use of the L1 because of its interference with TL acquisition, but they list where the L1 can be used: to elicit language, to teach culture, to explain vocabulary, to manage classroom, to reduce affective barriers, to assess comprehension, to give instructions and to explain

grammar, to help construct knowledge in TL, to facilitate interpersonal interactions and to increase efficiency. Besides, Polio and Duff (1994) listed functions of teachers' L1 use. It is stated that L1 can be used in classroom administrative vocabulary, in FFI, for classroom management, to help nonnative teacher, for unknown vocabulary items/ translation, for empathy and solidarity and when there is lack of comprehension. There is also an interactive effect of L1 use. When a learner uses L1, other learners, even the teacher will start to use the L1. In addition to them, there are many other pedagogical reasons to use the L1 while teaching TL such as to provide scaffolding for task (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998), to promote transition from the L1 to the TL through translation (Shamash, 1990), to improve meaning and form negotiations (Swain & Lapkin, 2000) and to enhance TL comprehension (Turnbull, 2001).

Furthermore, Krashen (1985)'s "affective filter" hypothesis can be related to the L1 use in the classrooms. According to that hypothesis, if learners are anxious, learning anxiety can block language learning. Meyer (2008) states that communication apprehension arising from learners' inability to adequately express mature thoughts and ideas can cause leaners' not using the TL but allowing the use of the first language in the classroom can mitigate that problem. A relaxing environment can be supplied while learning if the L1 use is permitted in the TL learning.

In addition to pedagogical advantages of using L1, L1 use can have some disadvantages as well. According to Mart (2013), the L1 use of teachers and students has four disadvantages in the TL learning. Firstly, teachers and learners can start to think that if they do not translate everything into their mother tongue, language items will not be understood. In addition to that, they can fail to see distinctions or

similarities between two languages in terms of form, semantics, and pragmatic features so they can start to oversimplify translations. Besides, learners can start to express themselves in the L1 although they can express themselves pretty well in the TL. Finally, the learners can fail to understand the importance of the TL because of using the TL excessively. Therefore, he advises to use the TL as much as possible in language learning.

At this part, Vygotsky's SCT, Cummins' Interdependence Hypothesis and Krashen's affective filter hypothesis in addition to the arguments underlying the advantages and disadvantages of the L1 use while TL learning and teaching were revealed. TL use must be increased as much as possible; however, it should not be forgotten that TL is interdependent on the L1 of the learners and the L1 use both as a cognitive tool and as an aid in instruction can decrease the learning tension. Besides, the L1 use has many pedagogical advantages such as providing scaffolding for task (Swain & Lapkin, 2013) in addition to some disadvantages such as oversimplifying translations (Mart, 2013). It can be said that the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms is a reality, but L1 use must depend on the level of the students and teaching purpose and it should not be excessive or unlimited (Pan & Pan, 2010). In the next section, the research studies researching the L1 use between learners and teachers and the social turn in SLA will be reviewed.

## 2.6 Recent research studies investigating the role of the L1 in learning and teaching

The L1 use between learners and teachers has been highly researched by many researchers. In 1990s, many studies (e.g., Prince, 1996) investigating the effect of translation method in the TL teaching were conducted. However, the aim of this

thesis is not to compare and contrast teaching methods or to see the effect of translation on different skills such as writing (e.g., Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001) and vocabulary (e.g., Bacherman, 2007). Therefore, in this part, rather than reviewing studies comparing the L1-used methods such as translation methods with other TL-only methods, research studies not only from sociocultural perspective researching the L1 use among learners as a cognitive tool but also from interactionist perspective investigating the role of the L1 as an aid in FFI will be explained briefly.

From a sociocultural perspective, the L1 use of students is investigated as a cognitive tool and within this perspective, language-related episodes (LREs) are recorded and analyzed to find out the use of the L1 as a cognitive tool. Swain, Brooks and Tocalli-Beller (2002) review research studies investigating peer-peer dialogue linked to the second language learning. Collaborative dialogue which also can be called as LRE happens when the learners encounter a linguistic problem and try to solve the problems together. Collaborative dialogue can occur in reading, writing, speaking and listening activities. In writing activities, accessing cognitive processes and language learning are investigated while in speaking, face to face interaction was examined. There are not many studies conducting in listening and reading, but after listening activities, how collaborative dialogues improves learning was investigated while through reading activities, participants were motivated to apply comprehension strategies and co-construct knowledge. They also advise to instruct the learners about why and how to collaborate while doing a task.

Firstly, Swain and Lapkin (1995) investigated whether learners notice the gaps in their linguistic knowledge while conducting an individual writing task and what are the cognitive processes the learners go through while learning. LREs in think-aloud protocols were examined. LREs were defined as “any segment of the

protocol in which a learner either spoke about a language problem he/she encountered while writing and solved it either correctly or incorrectly, or simply solved it (again, either correctly or incorrectly) without having explicitly identified it as a problem." (p.378). There were eighteen participants from a grade eight early French immersion class. The results reveal that learners notice a linguistic problem while producing TL and noticing pushes learners to modify output. In the process, output turns into an "attention-getting device" (p. 373). Output can force the learner to move from the semantic processing prevalent in comprehension to the syntactic processing needed for production.

In addition, Swain and Lapkin (1998) examined why collaborative tasks promote the L2 learning and whether jigsaw task promote learning. In the pretest-posttest design, there were two grade eight French immersion students conducting a jigsaw task. While conducting the task, they encountered problems and through collaborative dialogues whether they could solve the problems or not was investigated. In these dialogues, the participants used mostly their L2 accompanied with their L1 while communicating. The results show that dialogue is not only a means of communication, but also a cognitive tool. Language is both a process and a product.

Anton and DiCamilla (1998) also explored the role of the L1 in scaffolding by investigating five adult pairs of Spanish learners. They examined the social and cognitive functions of the L1 use in the collaborative speech of the L2 learners engaged in a writing task in the L2 foreign language classroom. By looking at the LI use within Vygotskian psycholinguistics theoretical framework, the qualitative analysis of learners' interaction shows that the LI is used as a powerful tool of semiotic mediation between learners (at the interpsychological level) and within

individuals (at the intrapsychological level). The results also reveal that while the the L2 proficiency increases, there is less and less need to use the L1 as a cognitive tool. The L1 use is beneficial for language learning because the use of the L1 acts as a critical tool enabling learners to construct effective collaborative dialogue in the meaning-based task completion by performing three functions: construction of scaffolded help, establishment of intersubjectivity and use of private speech externalizing one's inner speech. The L1 is used as a device to generate and reflect content and to create a social and cognitive context to help each other.

Furthermore, Swain and Lapkin (2000) examined the use of the L1 (English) made by 22 pairs in different tasks: a dictogloss task (an oral text stimulus) or a jigsaw task (a visual stimulus) in an immersion context through quantitative analyses. The same story was represented in the two tasks. Two French immersion classes (one for jigsaw task, the other for dictogloss task) at the grade 8 level were used at the study. In immersion context, the L2 is the language of instruction in the whole educational program. They have found out that the L1 may facilitate the L2 classroom activities, particularly for low proficiency students and on complex tasks such as the dictogloss task. The results reveal that the L1 use was prevalent in group work and the L1 can be permitted to support the L2 learning and L2 use in group works in immersion classrooms. There is no significant difference in the amount of the L1 use of groups because of the small sample size and the high degree of variability observed in the data, but the researchers found that the L1 serves three main functions: (1) moving the task along (the most frequently function used at both groups), (2) focusing attention on language form, vocabulary use, and overall organization and (3) interpersonal interaction. They highlighted the importance of the L1 use especially in linguistically and cognitively complex tasks.

Additionally, Swain and Lapkin (2001) explored task effects of two different tasks: dictogloss and jigsaw task on French pronominal verbs. LREs in tasks were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. Time taken to do task (TonT), the quality of written narratives through a scoring scheme and pretest-posttest scores were also analyzed. It was thought that dictogloss task would yield higher scores in terms of accuracy because it focused on form while jigsaw task focuses on meaning. However, the results generate fewer differences than expected and the most salient difference is the constraints caused by dictogloss task. One year later, Swain and Lapkin (2002) conducted another study revealing the importance of collaborative dialogue in language learning. There were two the L1 English participants learning French as a second language, and their collaborative dialogue was recorded while doing a reformulation writing task. The data reveals that the participants talked through when they confronted a problem, and resolved many language-related problems while comparing their story with its reformulation. In the study, the pretest/post-test design showed that reformulation of learners' writing enables stimulating noticing and reflection on language. These studies (Swain & Lapkin 2001; 2002) show that creating occasions for collaborative dialogue is more crucial than the effect of task type in language learning. Again, there is the use of language as a cognitive tool in learning process.

Storch and Aldosari (2010), on the other hand, investigated the effect of learner proficiency and task types on the L1 use in an EFL context. There were 30 learners with three proficiency levels while there were three tasks: jigsaw, composition and text editing tasks. The results reveal that in pairs, the participants use the L1 moderately and task type has a greater impact on the amount of the L1 use than proficiency. The L1 is especially used for task management and for facilitating

vocabulary discussions. The L1 used for task management shows the relationship the participants formed while the L1 used for vocabulary deliberations shows vocabulary explanations and private speech.

In EFL context, Ghorbani (2011) also studied the L1 Persian, the L2 English learners in a communicative classroom and investigated the role of the L1 in student/teacher's interaction while engaged in pair/group work in real the L2 classroom discourse by using COLT instrument (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) created by Spada and Fröhlich in 1995. The study reported communicative features of pair/group work activity and explored the use of the L1 in scaffolding, private speech, and humor in the classroom. The findings of the present study show that not all uses of the L1 needs a remedy since in real classroom discourse, the L1 is used naturally and communicative activities needs the L1 for a specific function.

Within the same perspective, in an ESL context, Storch and Wigglesworth (2013) studied 24 university ESL students forming 12 pairs: half of 12 with a shared the L1 and other half with different the L1s. The participants completed two tasks together: a text reconstruction task and a short joint composition task using a graphic prompt. As the learners completed the tasks, their talk was audiotaped. The L1 use of the students was coded for its function: task management, task clarification, vocabulary and meaning, and grammar. Following the collection of data from the first three pairs with a shared the L1, it was noticed that learners rarely used their shared the L1 when completing the task. Therefore, the next three pairs were given slightly different instructions by notifying that if they felt that their L1 would be helpful to them in completing the tasks, they should feel free to use it. The researchers also recorded the interviews with the participants individually after they

had completed the two tasks to elicit their attitudes toward the use of their L1. The learners' reluctance to use their L1s explains the low use of them while completing the tasks. However, even the learners who did not use their the L1s reported in the interviews that the L1 could be a useful tool, especially in more meaning-focused activities, such as the joint composition task rather than the text reconstruction task, which was the more grammar-focused task. Use of the L1 may assist learners to gain control of the task and work with the task at a higher cognitive level by extending their zone of proximal development. The results suggest that the L2 teachers may need to reevaluate views concerning the use of the L1 in the L2 group and pair work. They also make a call for further research in other contexts where there is an instruction on how to use the L1 and real classroom context rather than a laboratory context. There is an imbalance also needing further investigation between the participants' perception of L1 use and their actual L1 use because they do not use their L1s though they find the L1 use beneficial. They also highlight that the role of the L1 is valuable due to the fact that the learners have always an expertise in their L1s while learning a L2 and this expertise needs to be investigated more.

The studies from SCT show that collaborative dialogue, in which learners are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building, either in the L1 or the L2, mediates L2 learning. From an interactionist perspective, on the other hand, few research studies carried out on the target language grammatical structure although many studies (e.g., Lotto & De Groot, 1998) were conducted to show the effect of translation on the TL vocabulary learning and writing. In this part, the focus will be on the research studies investigating the role of the L1 as an aid in TL grammar teaching in a chronological order.

To begin with, in ESL context, Miles (2004) designed two quasi-experimental research designs. At the first one, Miles (2004) formed three classes. At one class, L1 use was banned while at another class, the L1 was allowed and at the third class, the L1 was deliberately used by the teacher. After a five-month treatment, the results reveal that the speaking performance in the class in which the L1 is used is significantly more developed and the L1 use creates a relaxing atmosphere in the classroom. At the second design, four different grammar structures were taught and in two of them, grammar structures were taught by using the L1 and the other two were taught by using only the L2. There are inconclusive results due to four grammar structures taught in interventions.

Rell (2005) also investigated the role of language choice in form-focused instruction. There were 76 L2 Spanish participants coming from different L1 backgrounds although the L1 of the majority is English. Two different structures "hace… que" and direct and indirect object pronoun were taught in the L1 English, which is also official language in the USA, and the L2 Spanish. Although statistically not significant, in "hace…que" structure, form-focused instruction in TL-only resulted in higher gains than instruction aided with the L1 while in object pronoun structure, instruction in the LI resulted in higher gains than instruction in L2 only. The results show that what grammatical structure is taught can have an effect on language choice.

In EFL, Kanatlar (2005) conducted a two-phase study in an EFL context Turkey. At the first phase, by collecting data through observation, questionnaire and semi-structured interview, seven instructors and 266 the L1 Turkish, the L2 English learners were observed to learn their the L1 use. The results reveal that teachers and learners use their L1 while teaching and learning for many reasons due to the limited

knowledge of English. At the second phase, the effect of the L1 in instruction was tried to be investigated and a nine-week treatment was implemented to two experimental and one control group. In one experimental group, the L1 is deliberately used in specific structures defined by the student participants at the first phase while in other experimental group, there is English-only policy. The writer claim that neither the L1 use nor English-only was found to be effective on the beginner students' performance by adding that L1 assisted learning is not advantageous over English-only teaching.

In addition, Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012) investigated the long term effects of the L2 only and the L1-L2 codeswitching teaching of eight different grammar structures. Each structure was taught in two conditions: French-only and French/English. While half of the participants learnt four structures in the first condition, other half learnt the same structures in other condition. Then, participants, who had learnt the four structures in the first condition, learnt other four structures in the second condition while others learnt them in the first condition this time. In the research study, there are 63 college French beginner learners in a French as a foreign language setting. In immediate posttest, there is no significant difference between groups while in delayed posttest, French only teaching yielded more successful results than teaching with English-French codeswitching. In addition to quasi-experimental design, students' instructional language preference in grammar teaching was also explored descriptively. In open-ended questions, 87% of the participants preferred to be taught grammar in TL and the L1, while 10% preferred to be taught grammar in TL only. They also listed three advantages of TL only instruction as negotiation of meaning, faster learning and speaking, and improvement in critical thinking while they listed five advantages of English- French

combined instruction as easy, better, exact understanding, clear concepts and faster explanation.

In EFL Turkish context, another quasi-experiment was conducted by Şimşek (2010) to see the effect of the L1 as an aid in grammar instruction. The L1-Assisted Language Learning (the L1-ALL) was developed by Şimşek (2010) in which there is the use of the L1 (Turkish) concepts in the teaching of English grammar. Şimşek (2010) investigated the effects of the use of L1 Turkish concepts in the teaching of the L2 English grammar concepts on the students' achievement and the retention of their learning by designing the L1-ALL. During a term, the control group was instructed in the L2, whereas the experimental group was instructed by making use of the grammar concepts in the L1. The results revealed that the L1-ALL practices are more effective and more lasting than the monolingual teaching in increasing the achievement of English grammar.

As can be seen, learners' use of L1 as a cognitive tool has been investigated by many researchers within Vygotsky's SCT while the L1 use in the L2 grammar instruction as an aid has been investigated by fewer researchers from an interactionist perspective. Anton and DiCamilla (1998) investigated the L1 use of learners in Spanish as a foreign language context and Swain and Lapkin (1995, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2002) investigated the same issue in an immersion context while Miles (2004), Storch and Aldosari (2010) and Storch and Wigglesworth (2013) investigated the issue in an ESL context. The others (Kanatlar, 2005; Ghorbani, 2011; Rell, 2005; Şimşek, 2010; Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012) investigated the issue in an EFL context. Within SCT, while Ghorbani (2011) investigated the nature of the L1 use in learners' and teachers' interaction in pair or group work in real the L2 classroom discourse by using COLT, others (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Storch & Aldosari,

2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2013; Swain & Lapkin, 1995, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2002) investigated the learners' L1 use in collaborative tasks. From a SCT perspective, all of the studies show the importance of the L1 use as a cognitive tool between and within learners and especially when learners use the L1 while learning or conducting a task. From the interactionist perspective, there are inconclusive results regarding the effect of the L1 use in teaching. The L1 aided teaching yielded good results in speaking performance (Miles, 2004) and in teaching of English grammar (Şimşek, 2010) while Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012) found out that TL only teaching has better long term effects than the L1 aided teaching. Kanatlar (2005), on the other hand, found that neither the L1 use nor English-only was effective on the beginner students' performance. These mixed results can be related to the grammatical structures taught in the intervention as declared by Rell (2005).

The previous research studies can be grouped by their research methodologies. However, since the mid-1990s, there is a "… profound critique against the cognitive foundations of the discipline and by the long-ranging deployment of socially oriented reconceptualizations of second/additional language (L2) learning." (Ortega, 2011, p. 167). This change has started a social turn in SLA (Block, 2003). There are three dimensions in cognitivist approaches and alternative approaches. Firstly, while cognitivist perspectives look at psychological explanations, alternative approaches deal with socially oriented explanations. Besides, there is abstractness in value in cognitivist perspectives whereas in others, there is situatedness and the effect of context. Finally, cognitivist approaches focus on entities, objects and taxonomies. Alternative approaches, on the other and, focus on actions and processes enabling the being in action and emergent being. After the social turn, some constructs in cognitivism were reconceptualized. As Ortega (2011)

suggested, we should have a beyond dichotomous thinking and find collective contribution of different SLA perspectives and theories valuable. Therefore, in this thesis, L1 use has been investigated not only as a cognitive tool, but also as an aid in a form-focused instructed L3 instruction in a foreign language setting Turkey.

In the next section, through perspective studies, the studies showing the perspectives of teachers and learners regarding the L1 use and observing when the L1 is used will be reviewed.

## 2.7 Previous studies about the perspectives of teachers and learners regarding the L1 use

Many researchers (e.g., Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012) investigated the perspectives of teachers and students about L1 use. In addition to Kanatlar (2005), in Turkey, many studies investigated the perceptions of teachers (e.g., Kayaoğlu, 2012) and students (e.g., Sarıçoban, 2010) as well as the perceptions of other participants such as teacher trainers and administrators (e.g., Taşkın, 2011) regarding CS between English and Turkish. In this part, the studies researching the perspectives of teachers regarding the L1 use, especially in Turkey, will be given in a chronological order.

Edstorm (2006) did a detailed analysis of one teacher's language use in a university-level Spanish course during a semester. The aim of the study is to find out what use of the L1 is actually made in practice in five different situations in the classroom and what the perceptions of students, teachers and teacher educators are on this subject. There are five focuses of the research: to determine the amount of the L1 used, to analyze the functions of the L1 use, to compare the teacher's perceptions with the teachers' actual L1 use, to compare students' perceptions with the teacher's

actual the L1 use, and to identify motivations or reasons underlying the L1 use of the teacher. Overall quantity of the L1 use, students' perceptions roughly coincided with the teacher's perception who thought that there would be some uses of the L1, not few, not a lot. However, some students thought that there was a systematic variance and a specific way in the teacher's L1 use related to the level of the course (increasing the L1 use with increasing difficulty) although there was not systematicity. The teacher used less English with these beginning language students in the first month of class (18%) than in the last month (42%). The teacher thought that it was related to set a high standard and giving students a clear picture, from the very first day of her intention to teach primarily in TL. The teacher's total English use was 23%. The teacher thought approximately 5–10% percent while the students estimated it correctly. The study coincided with the students' perception about the functions of the L1 use: for grammar instruction, for classroom management, and to compensate for a lack of comprehension. The recordings and transcripts verified them as well. It is stated that there are three reasons for the teacher's L1 use: feeling a moral obligation to the students, having multiple goals in addition to language acquisition and the teacher's laziness.

In EFL Turkish context, Sarıçoban (2010) administered a pre and post conference technique to prepare a questionnaire with 28 items for 96 preparatory class students to investigate their perceptions regarding whether, why, when and how much the L1 is used in language classrooms. He reported that the functions of L1 use are to explain difficult concepts, to define new vocabulary, to explain the relationships between the L1 and the L2, to motivate students, to manage the classroom, and to translate upon request. However, similar to several other studies conducted in Turkish EFL setting, there is no theoretical underpinning such as SCT

or TBLT to make such claims. The motivation for L1 use in these studies seems to an ideological one.

From a broader perspective, Taşkın (2011) investigated the learners', teachers', teacher trainers' and administrators' attitudes towards the L1 use in addition to the functions of teachers' the L1 use by using questionnaires and interviews. Additionally, the researcher observed the classroom practices to see whether teachers' perceptions matched with their practices and analyzed the data by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The result reveal that although teachers' perceptions are neutral towards the L1 use, they use the L1 to meet the demands of the grammar and vocabulary instruction, especially at the low levels. Lower level students find the L1 use more positively than the higher level students while teacher trainers and administrators do not have positive perceptions towards the L1 use in classrooms.

Kayaoğlu (2012), on the other hand, studied the use of the L1 in foreign language teaching from teachers' practice and perspective. The data were collected by administering a questionnaire containing 35 items to 44 teachers and by in-depth semi-structured interviewing 12 participants with four main questions (teachers' the L1 use, practices and reasons in the L1 use, where to use the L1 and students' the L1 use) to learn more about the teachers' current teaching practice. The results show that the students welcome to use the L1 especially in asking structural questions but they are not welcomed to use the L1 in communicative activities. The teachers agree on the use of the L1 for instructions, tasks, and exercises to make the message clearer and to break the ice. Despite the common belief that the L1 should be avoided, the teachers in the study have a balanced and eclectic approach to the use of mother tongue and find the use of the L1 practical and pragmatic.

Yavuz (2012) also investigated the attitudes of 12 experienced English teachers about the use of the L1 in the teaching of the L2 by using an unstructured interview. In interview, not theoretical but neutral questions were asked. The results show that the teachers prefer use of the L1 in structural teaching while they prefer the L2 in communicative teaching. They also report to use the L1 to break the psychological barriers before teaching begins because they think that the use of the L1 creates a low anxiety atmosphere for both the learners and the teachers.

In addition to them, Mahmutoğlu and Kıcır (2013) explored the perceptions of 25 teachers and 105 students regarding the role of the L1 use in language teaching by using questionnaires and interviews. They claim that the L1 has a role in language learning and teaching for the learners as well as the teachers. Also, there is not a significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and learners. All participants thought that the L1 should be used necessary situations and the L1 will be effective in right situations at right time.

Sali (2014) also investigated the functions of the L1 in three Turkish EFL classrooms in a secondary school in Turkey and to explore the teachers' perspectives on the use of the L1 by using audio-recorded lesson observations and semi-structured interviews. The results show that the L1 has three major functions: to communicate the content of the lesson (academic), to regulate classroom interactions and proceedings efficiently (managerial), and to construct rapport (social/cultural). Also, there are many factors affecting when and why the teachers use the L1.

In another EFL context "Yemen", Bhootha, Azmanb and Ismail (2014) also examined the use of the L1 Arabic in the EFL reading classroom in a university in Yemen by using a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The study shows

that the students perceive the use of the L1 as functional learning strategy in their EFL classrooms by many purposes: to translate new words, to define concepts, to give some explanations and to help each other in their groups. The students also claim that the L1 can be used for scaffolding to facilitate language learning and can be used as a pedagogical tool by the teacher to increase students' engagement and to facilitate learning experience in the classroom.

Besides, Paker and Karaağaçlı (2015) analyzed the use and functions of the L1 in Turkish EFL context by audio recordings of instructors in their classes, a questionnaire for instructors, a different questionnaire for students, semi-structured interviews with instructors and students. They report that the L1 is inseparable in language teaching and has different functions (such as rapport building purposes, making the topic/meaning clear or explaining difficult concepts or ideas).

Additionally, Debreli and Oyman (2016) investigated 303 L1 Turkish L2 English students' preferences on the use of the L1 in EFL classrooms in Cyprus by using a questionnaire. They looked at the demographic variables of the participants to see whether demographic variables (educational background and their language proficiency level) may directly influence students' perceptions of the use of the L1 or not. The results reveal that learners have a positive attitude towards including the L1 in their the L2 classes and the students' demographic characteristics have an effect on the L1 preferences especially in order to understand difficult concepts and new vocabulary items better. Learners with lower level of the L2 proficiency have more positive attitudes towards the use of the L1 than the more proficient the L2 learners.

Recently, Yıldız and Yeşilyurt (2017) investigated 374 Turkish prospective teachers from ELT department. Data were collected through a questionnaire

containing questions about whether to use the L1 and if it is used, how to use it. The results reveal that some participants state that the L1 has no place in language teaching because the L1 hinders the exposure to the L2 and prevents practice whereas a great majority of them (N=243) think that the L1 use is beneficial to ease the process of language learning and comprehension of learners.

Şener and Korkut (2017), on the other hand, explored five Turkish teacher trainees' views, perceptions and suggestions regarding the L1 use in language classrooms by asking five open-ended questions. The results reveal that teacher trainees prefer to use target language in language classrooms because they perceive the L1 use as a hindrance to communicative competence practicing and oral abilities.

As can be seen, many studies were conducted to investigate the perceptions of the teachers (e.g., Kayaoğlu, 2012), students (e.g., Mahmutoğlu & Kıcır, 2013), prospective teachers, teacher trainees (e.g., Şener & Korkut, 2017), teacher trainers (e.g., Edstorm, 2006), administrators (e.g., Taşkın, 2011) regarding CS and the L1 use in classrooms within EFL context, especially in Turkey and Cyprus. Although there is the common belief that the L1 should be avoided, teachers generally admit to use the L1 in the L2 teaching. Not only the majority of teachers but also students found the use of the L1 in the L2 instruction practical and pragmatic. The majority (Bhootha, Azmanb & Ismail, 2014; Debreli & Oyman; 2016; Kanatlı, 2005; Sarıçoban, 2010; Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012), on the other hand, focused on exclusively the perceptions of learners about the L1 use. In addition to examining participants' perceptions regarding the L1 use, some studies (e.g., Sali, 2014) investigated the functions of the L1 use in the L2 learning. The functions can be listed as: to teach grammar, to manage classroom, to compensate for a lack of comprehension (Edstorm, 2006) to explain difficult concepts, to define new

vocabulary, to explain the relationships between the L1 and the L2, to motivate students, to manage the classroom, to translate upon request (Sarıçoban, 2010), to meet the demands of the grammar and vocabulary instruction (Taşkın, 2011), to communicate the content of the lesson, to regulate classroom interactions and proceedings efficiently, and to construct rapport (Sali, 2014). Kanatlı (2005) also observed the L1 use of teachers and learners and found out that they use the L1 while teaching and learning for many reasons and with many functions due to the limited knowledge of English.

While investigating the functions of the L1 use and perceptions of participants (teachers, students, teacher trainers and administrators) regarding the L1 use, they used many different data collection tools such as open-ended questions, interviews, questionnaires, observations, questionnaires, journals. All of the studies show the functions of the L1 use in classrooms and especially when the teachers use the L1, when they become hesitant to use and what their students think about the L1 use. In the following section, the review will be concluded and the gap in the literature will be provided.

## 2.8 Conclusion

As can be seen, L1 use was investigated in two ways: the L1 use of learners as a cognitive tool and the L1 use of teachers' in instruction as an aid. From different perspectives, there are many research studies showing the functions of the L1 use as a cognitive tool and as an aid, teachers' and learners' perceptions about the L1 use, and students' and teachers' use of the L1. Nearly half of the studies cited are the studies exploring the perspectives of teachers and learners regarding the L1 use in the

L2 classes and 11 of them conducted in EFL Turkish context. Three of the studies have a mixed design (Kanatlar, 2005; Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012). These studies investigate the role of the L1 as an aid in grammar instruction and explore learners' perceptions regarding the L1 use in language teaching. Studies from SCT perspective claim that the L1 use has a positive effect on TL teaching. However, there are very few studies investigating the role of the L1 from an interactionist perspective and there is not any study investigating the role of the L1 in the L3 instruction. The results are inconclusive regarding the effect of the L1 use; therefore, there is a huge gap in the literature regarding the L1 use in instruction, especially in multilingual grammar instruction. There is not any study investigating the role of the L1 in the L3 teaching. The studies recommend using the L1 in especially abstract subjects while teaching; however, there is not any consensus on how to use the L1 while teaching. Also to our knowledge, there is not any study showing the language preferences in the L3 instruction, the language of instruction in trilingual contexts and its effect on the learners. There is not any study investigating the role of the L1 use as a cognitive tool in the L3 grammar instruction. Additionally, there is not any study investigating the role of the L1 use as an aid in the L3 grammar instruction. Although there are many studies conducted in Turkey to explore teachers' and learners' perceptions, there is none, if any, study investigating the opinions of the L3 language learners regarding the L1 use in learning and teaching.

Moreover, multilingualism has been widely studied in immersion contexts (Lyster, 1998), immigration contexts and multilingual contexts. L1 use, on the other hand, has been researched mostly in ESL context and immersion contexts. The L1 use is mostly suggested as an egalitarian approach for minority context, but it might not be a relevant or appropriate proposal for EFL setting where the majority of

learners and teachers speak and share the same L1. Since multilinguals are seen as a "…person who has a communicative competence in more than one language with different proficiencies in oral or written forms to interact with speakers of one or more languages in a given society" (Butler, 2013), in this thesis, regardless of their levels, the participants can be seen as adult L1 Turkish, L2 English and L3 Spanish multilinguals in an English and Spanish as foreign languages context Turkey. They were expected to be aware of new language learning and their language resources, use all of these resources available to them and relate what they have just learnt and what they have already known while they were learning a new language. Therefore, participants were allowed to use all the languages they know as recommended by many researchers (e.g., Illman & Pietilä, 2018).

Following Storch and Wiggleworth (2013)'s call and Ortega (2011)'s reconceptualizing of cognitivist approaches, this study will aim to explore the L1 use in a foreign language setting, will investigate the role of the L1 use as a cognitive tool in the L3 grammar instruction through sociocultural learning theory and the role of the L1 as an aid in the form-focused L3 grammar instruction within an interactionist framework and will be an example for other foreign language contexts. Besides, this study will show the multilingual language awareness and the perceptions of the learners regarding the L1 use and grammar teaching. In the next section, the methodology of the research, research questions and research processes will be explained.

# CHAPTER 3

# METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by stating the research design and the research questions. Then, it provides information about research context and participants. This will be followed by a brief description of the pilot study conducted for validity and reliability purposes. After that, target structure and instructional treatment will be described. Finally, data collection and data analysis procedures will be discussed.

## 3.2 Research design

Both qualitative and quantitative data was collected for the research questions investigated in this study. The study has a quasi-experimental research design. The independent variable is instructional treatment while the dependent variables are measured through participants' L3 grammatical structure *ser* & *estar* learning, written production scores and oral production scores. In the study, two groups (Spanish-only group and Turkish-aided group) received FFI type of instruction for four hours. This four-hour intervention is pre-emptive in a 28-hour long Spanish FFI course. The instructional treatment included jigsaw task, 10 minutes of L3 instruction and peer feedback. In the instruction, the primary focus is on form embedded within communicative practice. In input, a relatively difficult L3 Spanish grammatical structure "*ser* and *estar*" was taught in a foreign language (FL) setting and the participants were required to attend two sessions. The use of L1 in a L3 FFI

classroom as an aid was investigated through an intervention. In Spanish-only group, 10 minute explanation was in Spanish while 10 minute explanation in Turkish-aided group was provided in Spanish accompanied with participants' first language Turkish as an aid. To measure L3 learning, *Ser-Estar* pretest / posttest/ delayed-posttest, an oral production task (OPT) and a collaborative written production task (WPT) were developed by the researcher herself. Besides, the learners' use of L1 as a cognitive tool was investigated in a collaborative L3 writing task. Language Related Episodes (LREs) in that task were quantified and classified to find out the relationship between the amount and functions of participants' L1 use and their collaborative WPT outcomes.

In addition to quantitative data, qualitative data was also collected through interviews to explore the participants' perceptions regarding the L1 and the L2 uses in the L3 instruction and to investigate the multilingual language awareness of the participants. The interviews were conducted in whatever languages the participants feel comfortable. In the next section, research questions will be given.

## 3.3 Research questions

The aim of this study is to investigate whether the L1 can be used as an aid in the L3 input in a FL learning setting and to explore the L1 use of the learners as a cognitive tool in target language context as suggested by sociocultural learning theory framework which does not reject the role of TL use. Additionally, language learning awareness and perceptions of the adult L3 learners regarding the L1 use are examined. Thus, the study aims to answer the following questions:

1. a. How much L1 was used in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting?

   b. What functions did the L1 serve in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting?

2. Is there any significant difference in language gains (*Ser-Estar* language test (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) scores, OPT scores and WPT scores) between the Spanish-only group and the Turkish-aided group?
3. Do the groups differ in the amount and functions of L1 use? To what extent are differences in the amount of L1 use related to differences in the quality of the students' writing?
4. a. What were the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in completing tasks in the L3 setting?

   b. What is multilingual language awareness of L3 participants while learning a L3 grammatical structure?

All sessions were recorded and transcribed to examine Language Related Episodes (LREs) in the intervention. To answer the first question, all transcribed LREs were counted and coded according to their functions following a very similar but not identical coding categories used by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) and Swain and Lapkin (2000).

In addition, to answer the second question, difference in language outcomes between the Turkish-aided group and Spanish-only group was measured with *Ser-Estar* language tests, oral production task and collaborative writing task. The third question was answered by examining the relationship between the amounts and functions of LREs and the WPT scores. Finally, the fourth question was answered by

coding a specifically prepared semi-structured interview (SSI) and by an adapted version of Muñoz's (2014) Language and Language Learning Awareness (LLLA) interview qualitatively. The interviews were conducted in whatever languages the participants feel comfortable. Only one participant responded the interview questions in English. Others preferred to respond in Turkish. After all answers were coded, they are translated into English. This study, to our knowledge, is the first study to investigate the role of the L1 as a cognitive tool in a L3 intervention in an EFL setting.

Supporting the results of Miles (2004) and Şimşek (2010), it was hypothesized that the L3 oral performance and the L3 immediate posttest scores of Turkish-aided group in which the L1 was used would be higher than the Spanish-only group in which only TL was used; however, supporting the results of Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012), the L3 delayed posttest scores of Spanish-only group was hypothesized to be higher than the Turkish-aided group. LREs are expected to show the cognitive processes of the L3 students while learning a grammatical structure in the L3. Following an adapted version of LLLA interview prepared by Muñoz (2014) and the SSI, we explored multilingual language awareness of the L3 students while learning a grammatical structure in the L3 as well as the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in completing tasks in the L3 setting. In the next section, research context and participants will be mentioned briefly.

## 3.4 Research context and participants

The study was conducted in a specifically designed ISLA laboratory of an English medium public university for research purposes. In the university, Spanish is one of the most preferred additional foreign languages. As a researcher and an instructor, I posted an announcement of our specially-designed accelerated Spanish-101 course on the most well-known Facebook page of the university. We recruited learners from different departments. There were only two criteria to register the course: participation (at least 80%) and to be a student in the university to ensure that all participants has a certain level of English. The course lasted seven weeks during the fall semester. There were four hours of lessons divided into two days each week which comprised a total of 28 hours. The subjects and grammatical structures taught in the course were the alphabet, greetings, how to ask and answer personal questions, colors, numbers, days, months, adjectives related to character, how to describe someone physically, family members, present tense, how to tell likes/ dislikes, how to say time and how to tell daily routine. While learning adjectives related to the character and physical appearance, they learnt *ser* as being English counterpart of *to be*; however, *estar* was never taught on purpose. They had not known anything related to *estar* and the difference between *ser* and *estar* before the intervention.

The participants were 18 (14 female, four male) L1 Turkish L2 English L3 Spanish (as a foreign language) adult learners enrolled in different majors such as mechanical engineering, industrial engineering, psychology, chemistry teaching. One participant graduated from the university six years ago whereas two participants were PhD candidates. The others were undergraduate students. Their ages ranged from 19 to 31. A language history questionnaire (Appendix A) was given to them to learn more about their language experiences. There were some participants who know

French, German, Latin or Arabic at beginner level; however, none of them considered themselves as a multilingual although all of them consider themselves Turkish-English bilinguals. This Spanish course was designed to improve their Spanish as a L3. Therefore, regardless of their level in Spanish, we considered them as L1 Turkish, L2 English, L3 Spanish multilinguals. They had similar backgrounds in terms of their exposure to English. They all, except one, started learning English when they were in fourth grade in primary school. They have never lived in an English speaking country before. It can be said that the participants were proficient English speakers because all of them successfully passed the institution-based proficiency exam and studied at an English medium university.

Before collecting research data, piloting with 16 students was performed. In the next section, piloting will be explained.

## 3.5 Pilot study

A pilot study was carried out to examine whether all materials and instruments were functioning as planned. During the spring term, I taught a free "Introduction to Spanish Course". The course was open to all university students. The language course was organized in two different sessions over a three-month period (from March to May, 2018). Each session included an average of 20 students.

A similar procedure with the main study was followed. It was delivered via PowerPoint and all instructions were given in Turkish to make sure that they could understand all steps. The first session lasted about 2 hours. After a *Ser-Estar* pretest, there was a jigsaw activity. Then, input was given to each group either in just Spanish or in Spanish aided with Turkish. The participants gave feedback to each

other in the jigsaw activity. Finally, they wrote a story together based on the feedback and input they received. The second session lasted two hours more. After giving feedback and talking about their writing performance through a stimulated recall interview (SRI), the participants were interviewed to learn about their language learning awareness through LLLA. Then, another jigsaw activity was conducted and through this activity, oral performance of the participants was recorded. Following that, another semi-structured interview was conducted to find out the perceptions of learners regarding the study and L1 use in L2 and L3 learning.

Five main things were changed in procedure after the piloting. I removed stimulated recall interview part because the participants in the study did not want to talk about more how they gave feedback to each other and how they collaborated while writing. Additionally, the LLLA interview was decided to be added to investigate the language learning awareness of the participants. In the main study, delayed posttest were decided to be the same as *Ser-Estar* pretest because remembering the questions were thought to be impossible due to a nearly three-week long time interval between the tests. In addition, to make sure that all participants got the same input, videos were started to be watched just two times in the main study rather than letting participants watch the video how many times they wanted. Finally, input was decided to be given at the second session after conducting LLLA interview as well because the participants in pilot study reported to forget the input they had watched at the first session before they took immediate posttest.

There were three major purposes of the pilot study in the preparation for the main study. Firstly, piloting shaped the final version of the data collection procedure. Secondly, it showed the teachability of the instructional materials. The last purpose of the pilot study was to test the measurement instruments for reliability and validity.

Therefore, the reliability of *Ser-Estar* pretest, posttest and delayed posttest was checked.

As can be seen, piloting resulted in considerable improvements in the process. In the next section, target structure along with instructional treatment will be explained.

## 3.6 Target structure and instructional treatment

The same *Ser-Estar* pretest- posttest design was used as in the pilot study after certain revisions on the instructional materials and language measures were completed. The study examines *ser & estar* structure in Spanish. The difference between these structures is a relatively difficult grammatical structure in Spanish. Roldan (1974) claims that according to the standard explanation in Spanish, there are two verbs corresponding English *to be* although each has its own "distinct province" (p.68). He gave three different distinctions made by three grammarians. While first grammarians define *ser* as being by nature, inwardly and absolutely, they define *estar* as being by condition, outwardly and relatively. *Ser* can be associated with permanent, inherent characteristics and qualities while *estar* is related with temporary, accidental characteristics and conditions. According to other distinction, *ser* is to express that no change has occurred while *estar* is to explain events that have changed. While these explanation put so much semantic role to copula be, the third grammarians try to make a distinction by their distribution rather than their semantic roles. According to them, they are the same verb and in a complementary distribution. Roldan (1974) also accepts them as being one verb "*copula be*", but he made a distinction based on their semantic distinction. Intransitive *ser* is related to

the existence of the subject while intransitive *estar* is related to the presence of the subject at a specific locus of space or time. While *ser* can take active and stative adjectives because of being neutral to an activity or a state, *estar* can only take stative adjectives.

*Ser* and *estar* correspond to one verb "olmak" in Turkish. Therefore, it can be said that the distinction between *ser* and *estar* is relatively hard for Turkish participants as well while learning Spanish. The basic distinction between *ser* and *estar* is that *ser* is used for identification and permanent qualities while *estar* is used for location and temporary qualities. However, this distinction can still seem so vague to a beginner learner. While I was searching about how to explain this distinction to my students, I came across two words "DOCTOR" and "PLACE" created a mnemonic using the initials of the usage. *Ser* is used for description, occupation, characteristics, time, origin and relations while *estar* is used for position, location, action, condition and emotions. Then, in input, I decided to explain the distinction between *ser* and *estar* by using these acronyms because such catchy grammar strategies were found to be helpful in teaching (Cohen et al, 2011).

Apart from the literature, the distinction between *ser* and *estar* was the next grammatical structure to be taught at the Spanish-101 course. At the course, the Spanish 101 instructor adopted task based language teaching (TBLT) and form-focused instruction following Ellis (2005)'s definition of FFI "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form" (p.1). It has been four weeks since the participants started to take accelerated Spanish- 101 course and learnt basic grammar concepts such as alphabet, greetings, family members etc. They did not know anything related to the distinction between *ser* and *estar* because the instructor excluded anything

related to *estar* in the teaching plan. The target grammatical structure the distinction between *ser* and *estar* tried to be taught in FFI as well. To teach the target grammatical structure, the specifically designed tasks was implemented. Both groups of young adult learners of Spanish as a third language will receive 2+2 hours of FFI on the distinction between *ser* and *estar*. The tasks were adapted from tasks used in Swain and Lapkin (1995; 1998; 2000) following Skehan (1996)'s task definition "A task is an activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some sort of relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome." (p. 38). Basically, there are three tasks used in the intervention: jigsaw task, collaborative writing task and oral production task.

### 3.6.1 Jigsaw task

Whole process started with an information gap jigsaw task. The participants participated in the task in pairs. While one participant took notes related to a character, other participant took notes related to another character. While taking notes and describing the pictures, the participants needed to use *ser* and *estar*. By starting with such a task, the learners were expected to notice the gaps in their linguistic knowledge and this process was expected to trigger an analysis of input or existing internal resources to fill those gaps (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). The aim of this task is to make participants notice the gap in their repertoire and to make them analyze input to fill the gap; therefore, there is not scoring in this task.

### 3.6.2 Input

After the jigsaw task, to present the target structure, the participants watched a video explaining the difference between *ser* and *estar* two times. This video prepared by the researcher herself is planned to provide the necessary input needed to learn the difference between *ser* and *estar*. While watching, they were free to take notes on a study sheet. After taking the input (Appendix B) and necessary notes, they read each other's parts to learn more about the other character and gave feedback about their use of *ser* and *estar*. This process was expected to show whether they used language to reflect on their pair's language use and whether they externalized their hypotheses about form and meaning (Swain, 1998; 2000).

They received explicit FFI twice after the jigsaw task and once before OPT in the form of a video. However, one group received the L3 instruction aided with their shared L1 "Turkish" while the other group received the same instruction only in Spanish.

### 3.6.3 Collaborative written production task

After taking the jigsaw task and input in either only Spanish or Spanish aided with Turkish, they wrote a story of the characters in the jigsaw task collaboratively (Appendix C). The instructions were given not only in Spanish, but also in Turkish to make sure that all participants understand the task. They were expected to explain characters briefly. In the task, two characters meet in a hospital. It seems that they know each other. However, their relationship is undefined to make sure that by negotiating and using their own creativity, the pairs could add an end to the story. While giving feedback and writing together, whole process was recorded to

investigate the LREs following Swain and Lapkin's (1995) LRE definition as "…as any segment of the protocol in which a learner either spoke about a language problem he/she encountered while writing and solved it either correctly or incorrectly, or simply solved it (again, either correctly or incorrectly) without having explicitly identified it as a problem." (p. 378). It is a part of a dialogue in which students talk about language that they are producing, check their usages and correct their own or their partner's language production. There is a discussion of meaning and form in LREs. The pairs' collaborative writing was scored following an adapted version of Swain and Lapkin's (2001) scoring scheme based on the quality of content, organization, vocabulary, morphology and syntax (Appendix D). There are descriptors used for the end points of the five scales. The first session was ended after this task.

### 3.6.4 Oral production task

At the second session, the instructor gave feedback about their collaborative WPT before conducting an adapted version of Language and Language Learning Awareness (LLLA) interview and giving the input one more time. Then, another information gap activity was implemented to investigate the language gains of the participants. This specially designed activity was an oral production task (Appendix E). This task is like an oral version of the activity used in the first session. The participants participated in the task in pairs again. While one pair was describing pictures about a character, other pair was taking the notes. Then, while the pair who firstly took the notes was describing the pictures about another character, the other participant who firstly described the pictures was taking the notes. They used their notes to solve eight true/ false questions, but this was not scored. While taking notes

and describing the pictures, the participants needed to use *ser* and *estar*. In the study, a special scoring scheme was prepared for accuracy and fluency of OPT scores of each participant (Appendix F).

The four-hour intervention in a 28-hour long Spanish course is pre-emptive because it was planned and teacher-generated. In the plan, the primary focus is on form but it is tried to be embedded within communicative practice. The only difference between the Spanish-only group and the Turkish-aided group was the language used in explicit form-focused grammar instruction which took about 10 minutes. The Spanish-only group received grammar instruction regarding the distinction between *ser* and *estar* in target language while the research group received grammar instruction in Spanish aided with their mother tongue Turkish.

The language tests to measure the gain of students related to Spanish *ser* and *estar* difference are prepared by the researcher herself because there was not a multiple choice test designed for the structure. There are three tests: *Ser-Estar* pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest (Appendix G). *Ser-Estar* pretest and delayed posttest were same while immediate posttest was created in a parallel way to other tests. One native Spanish teacher and another nativelike Spanish user checked the tasks and language measurement tests for accuracy and appropriacy. After piloting and analyzing the reliability of all questions, a pool of reliable working items was constructed by the researcher herself. In the data, *Ser-Estar* pretest was found to be reliable (20 items; $\alpha = .80$) while posttest was also found to be reliable (20 items; $\alpha = .82$) and delayed posttest was found to be reliable (20 items; $\alpha = .79$). There were six *ser* and five *estar* distinct constructions in the intervention. Therefore, each test entailed these 11 distinct constructions, and nine more questions related to target structure were chosen randomly from the question pool. All of the questions are kept

parallel to each other. Only subjects or verbs were changed among the questions to ensure that the participants do not remember the questions. Vocabulary used in the questions was kept appropriate to their level as well. The following section will explain how data was scored.

## 3.7 Data scoring

In the data, in addition to a ser-estar language tests, there are three properties in two tasks needing scoring, namely: overall collaborative WPT scores, accuracy score at the OPT and fluency score at the OPT.

There were three tests in the research: *Ser-Estar* pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest (Appendix G) to measure the gain of students related to Spanish *ser* and *estar* difference. *Ser-Estar* pretest and delayed posttest were same while immediate posttest was created in a parallel way to other tests. As mentioned before, all tests were found to be reliable. In the language tests, there are 20 multiple choice questions and one point is given for every true answer. The participants could take a total of 20 points from each test. There was not any penalty for wrong answers.

Additionally, overall collaborative WPT performance was scored following an adapted version of Swain and Lapkin's (2001) scoring scheme based on the quality of content, organization, vocabulary, morphology and syntax (Appendix D). There are descriptors used for the end points of the five scales. For content, the WPTs were scored based on whether a 'complete' story was told, whether the participants wrote about the characters in a detailed way and whether they had a conclusion or not. For organization, we looked at the sequence, order, clear statements, paragraph using and the use of transitions in the narrative. For

vocabulary, whether there was precision in word choice and use of appropriate register were taken into consideration whereas for morphology, correct use of *ser-estar*, subject-verb agreement and masculine-feminine were taken into consideration. Finally, for syntax, the narrative was scored based on the word order, true verb usages, transition usages and adjective-noun coherence/ order. After a score from one to five for each subfield was given, all subscores were added and a total score was obtained for overall collaborative WPT score. The participants could take a total of 25 points. There was 100% interrater reliability for collaborative WPT scores.

OPT task, on the other hand, was scored for fluency and accuracy. In the task, pairs were describing pictures about a character to each other. While describing the pictures, the participants needed to use *ser* and *estar*. In the study, a traditional scoring scheme was prepared for accuracy and fluency of OPT scores of each participant (Appendix F). Learners' gains were measured with partial scoring. For accuracy, for each correct usage of *ser* and *estar*, three points were given while for each self- corrected usage of *ser* and *estar*, only one point was given. For wrong *ser* and *estar* usage, there was not any penalty and no point was given. For fluency, on the other hand, there are descriptors used for the end points of the five scales. The descriptor for one point is "not so fluent, speaking frequently in Turkish, transferring from English" while the descriptor for five points is "fluent, pure Spanish usage, no transfer, no code-switching". By bearing these descriptors in mind, the scores were given to each participants. Before scoring, Turkish usages in addition to awkward and long silences were noted. There was a high interrater reliability for OPT scores (96.30% for accuracy and 100% for fluency) and the discrepancies were resolved by further negotiation. In the following section, data collection procedures will be explained.

## 3.8 Data collection

The present study has a quasi-experimental research design. Both qualitative and quantitative data was collected for the research questions aimed. A relatively difficult L3 structure *ser-estar* was taught and the participants were required to come to two sessions of data collection lasting approximately four hours. There were three sessions of data collection. While there was only one week between the first session and the second session, the final session was conducted three weeks later. Whole process lasted nearly 4 weeks. After giving consent, the participants completed Language Background (LB) (Appendix A) to identify the linguistic background of the participants.

Figure 1 summarizes the steps and all three sessions in data collection procedure.




Figure 1 All steps in data collection

At the first session, a *Ser-Estar* pretest prepared by the researcher was administered regarding the main subject *"ser & estar"* to examine what they knew about the the structure. Then, through the first jigsaw task, video input and collaborative writing activity, the participants were expected to start to learn and practice the target grammatical structure. At the second session, nearly one week later, the instructor provided feedback regarding their collaborative WPT. Then, the participants were asked questions to identify their language learning awareness by using an adapted version of LLLA prepared by Muñoz (2014) (Appendix H). After that, they took the input again and watched the video once. Then, they described some pictures to their pairs (OPT) to measure the participants' oral production. Then, an immediate posttest was provided to detect the outcome of the intervention. Three weeks after the last session, an online delayed-posttest was provided. OPT process was audio recorded to find out oral production scores while collaborative WPT process was also audio recorded to catch LREs in the intervention.

For the first research question, LREs during collaborative written production task were collected while for the second question, *Ser-Estar* pretest- immediate posttest- delayed posttest results of all groups in addition to their collaborative WPT and OPT performances were collected. For the third question, the LREs in collaborative WPT were recorded, counted and categorized while collaborative WPT performances were also collected. LLLA interview provided the necessary information to learn multilingual language awareness of the L3 students while learning a grammatical structure in the L3. SSI, on the other hand, was used to collect data to explore the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in completing tasks in the L3 setting (Appendix I).

The data collection tools (*Ser-Estar* pretest, posttest, delayed posttest, OPT, collaborative WPT and LREs) were expected to show the effect of the L1 use as a cognitive source and as an aid in input of form-focused L3 grammar instruction. The other data collection tools LLLA and SSI, on the other hand, were predicted to display how learners' language learning awareness is, how their perceptions regarding the L1 use in the L3 learning are and how L1 can be used to facilitate the L3 grammar instruction. In the following section, the data analysis will be covered.

## 3.9 Data analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques were used to answer the research questions. While analyzing the data, qualitative methods, descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics (Repeated measures ANOVA, Pearson's Correlation, Mann Whitney U and t test) were used. For quantitative data analysis, IBM SPSS Statistics 21 tool was used. To ensure the validity of the tests, constructs were already identified and expert opinions in addition to native-speaker opinions were asked. Additionally, to ensure the reliability of the tests, piloting of the study was done and reliability of each question was measured. Besides, normality of all data was checked to decide which analyses to conduct.

For the first research question, the researcher listened to all of the voice-recorded data and transcribed the data. Then, LREs were identified and analyzed. While analyzing voice recordings, following Swain and Lapkin's (1995) LRE definition, the researcher herself transcribed, coded, categorized and counted all LREs in the data. Then, following a very similar but not identical coding categories used by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) and Swain and Lapkin (2000), LREs were

quantified and categorized into three groups: task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and from-based LREs. While lexis-based LREs were about vocabulary search, form-based LREs were about spelling, morphology, syntax and discourse. Task management LREs, on the other hand, were discussions about text structure, task completion, task prompt and instructions. In Swain and Lapkin (1998, 2001), they categorized LREs into two groups: lexis- based LRE and form-based LRE while in Swain and Lapkin (2000), they categorized LREs into three groups: moving the task along (sequencing, retrieving semantic information, task management), focusing attention (vocabulary search and focus on form), interpersonal interaction (off task, disagreement). In Storch and Wiggleswoth (2003), on the other hand, there were four categories: task management, task clarification, vocabulary and meaning and grammar. Another rater coded the half of the data. Interrater reliability (82.02%) was measured to make sure consistency in counting and categorizing. The rest of the data was also checked by the interrater and the discrepancies were resolved by further negotiation.

In addition, to answer the second question, the difference in language outcomes (*Ser-Estar* pretest, posttest, delayed posttest scores, OPT scores and WPT scores) between the Spanish-only group and the Turkish-aided group was calculated. While analyzing the data, descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were conducted. Language outcomes of the participants were measured through *Ser-Estar* pretest / posttest/ delayed-posttest scores and collaborative WPT scores. Scoring scheme for the OPT for accuracy and fluency was prepared by the researcher herself (Appendix F). For fluency, descriptors were used for the end points of the five scales. For accuracy, 3 points were given for each correct *ser-estar* use and one point was given for each correction after a wrong usage. There was not any penalty for wrong

production. Scoring scheme for collaborative WPT, on the other hand, was an adapted version of Swain and Lapkin's (2001) scoring scheme (Appendix D). Following that scheme, written narratives were scored based on the quality of content, organization, vocabulary, morphology and syntax, and then, a total score was given. There are descriptors used for the end points of the five scales. The same interrater rated the half of all collaborative WPT and OPT data. The interrater reliability was quite high for OPT scores (96.30% for accuracy and 100% for fluency) and collaborative WPT scores (100%). Discrepancies were resolved by further negotiation.

For the third question, on the other hand, the researcher analyzed the relationship between written production task language outcomes and LREs amounts and functions. LREs were already analyzed for the first question whereas WPT outcomes were already measured for the second question. The relationship between them was calculated through correlation.

Finally, the fourth research question was answered through the interviews transcribed and analyzed. Not only SSI, but also LLLA interviews were transcribed and coded by the researcher herself to explore participants' perceptions regarding L1 use and to inquire multilingual language awareness of L3 students while learning a grammatical structure in L3. During the coding process, the researcher tried to find common as well as unique parts regarding participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 as an aid and as a cognitive tool in the FL L3 setting and regarding participants' language learning awareness. The codes were checked and further negotiated by the interrater to ensure consistency and reliability in the data.

All in all, both interviews and the instructions were conducted in whatever languages the participants feel comfortable. Only one participant responded the interview questions in English while others preferred to answer in Turkish. After all answers were coded, they are translated into English. Table 1 gives specific information about how to collect and analyze data for all of the research questions in the study.

Table 1. Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedure of the Study

| Research Questions | Data Collection | Data Analysis |
|---|---|---|
| 1. a. How much L1 was used in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting?<br><br>b. What functions did the L1 serve in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting? | LREs in WPT | LREs were transcribed, counted and coded with an interrater. |
| 2. Is there any significant difference in language gains (Ser-Estar language test (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) scores, OPT scores and WPT scores) between the Spanish-only group and the Turkish-aided group? | *Ser-Estar* Pretest, Immediate Posttest, Delayed Posttest, OPT & WPT scores | • While analyzing the data, descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were used.<br>• Repeated measures ANOVA, t test and Mann Whitney U test were used. |
| 3. Do the groups differ in the amount and functions of L1 use? To what extent are differences in the amount of L1 use related to differences in the quality of the students' writing? | LREs in Collaborative WPT and WPT scores | • LREs were transcribed, counted and coded with an interrater.<br>• WPT scores were calculated with an interrater.<br>• Correlation between the WPT scores and LREs' quantity and functions was measured. |
| 4. a. What were the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in completing tasks in the L3 setting?<br><br>b. What is multilingual language awareness of L3 participants while learning a L3 grammatical structure? | SSI & LLLA Interview adapted from Muñoz (2014) | • Interviews were transcribed and coded with an interrater. Then, they are translated into English.<br>• While coding, the researcher tried to find common as well as unique parts regarding participants' perceptions and language learning awareness. |

For the first and the third question, the L1 use of the learners as a cognitive tool was examined in a collaborative writing task while for the second question, the L1 use as an aid in form-focused L3 grammar instruction was investigated. In this chapter, the research questions and methodology of the study were explained. In the following chapter, the performance of the participants and LREs in collaborative WPT were analyzed and the interviews were described.

# CHAPTER 4

# RESULTS

## 4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results for each research question will be reported respectively. The data collected from two groups were examined with descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. For normally distributed data (*Ser-Estar* pretest-posttest scores, OPT accuracy and WPT scores), a series of two-factor mixed ANOVAs and t-test were conducted while for non-normally distributed OPT fluency score, nonparametric t test "Mann-Whitney U test" was conducted. Additionally, this chapter shows the relationship between the L1 use, the L1 functions and the participants' WPT scores. Finally, it reports how the participants perceived the L1 use in completing tasks in the L3 settings and how their language awareness was while learning a L3 grammatical structure.

## 4.2 How much L1 was used in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting?

To answer this question, LREs were quantified and categorized into three groups: task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and from-based LREs. The amount and the functions of L1 use in a collaborative writing task are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. L1 Use in the Collaborative Writing Task

| LREs | Turkish | | | | Spanish | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Mean | Min. | Max. | Number | Mean | Min. | Max. | Sig. |
| Count of total episodes | 170.00 | 42.50 | 28.00 | 47.00 | 141.00 | 35.25 | 32.00 | 46.00 | .46 |
| Count of task management LREs | 80.00 | 20.00 | 16.00 | 28.00 | 64.00 | 16.00 | 14.00 | 16.00 | .10 |
| Count of lexis-based LREs | 40.00 | 10.00 | 8.00 | 14.00 | 45.00 | 11.25 | 7.00 | 17.00 | .77 |
| Count of form-based LREs | 50.00 | 12.50 | 6.00 | 20.00 | 32.00 | 8.00 | 6.00 | 12.00 | .45 |

As can be seen, the results did not reveal any significant difference in LREs between the Turkish-aided group and the Spanish-only group. However, from the descriptives, it can be said that the group taking input aided with Turkish (M = 42.50) had more LREs than the group taking input only in Spanish (M = 35.25). They also experienced more task management LREs (M = 20) and form-based LREs (M = 12.50) than Spanish-only group (M = 16, M = 8). Spanish-only group, on the other hand, experienced more lexis-based LREs (M= 11.25) than the Turkish-aided group (M = 10).

The participants in the current study can be regarded as L1 Turkish, L2 English, L3 Spanish multilinguals. Although they are proficient English users and they were allowed to use any language they preferred during the collaborative task, they rarely used their L3 to give examples or to tell their partners what to write (See Extract 1) and they rarely used their L2 to relate a Spanish form or vocabulary to an English form or vocabulary (See Extract 2). Additionally, overall, it can be said that the participants' pronunciation was found to have been heavily affected by their L2

English and the participants mainly used a newly-learnt vocabulary item as if it was a word in English (See Extract 3).

In Extract 1, while Spanish sentences and words were given in bold, Turkish sentences and words were given in italic and English translations were given in square brackets. The extract shows how the participants switch between Spanish and Turkish while completing a collaborative writing task. In the task, they mostly used their L1s. However, as can be seen in the first extract, they use Spanish to say what they wanted to write while managing the task and to complement each other. They directly switch to Turkish when their Spanish is not enough to negotiate.

Extract 1

(Turkish aided group, Pair 1)

A: **Roberto es catalán, es profesor de alemán, está soltero y vive en Barcelona.** *Barcelona'dan hastaneye Madrid'e gidiyor. Nerede karşılaşıyorlar?* [Roberto is Catalan, German teacher, single and lives in Barcelona. Then, he goes to the hospital from Barcelona to Madrid. Where do they meet?]

B: **Física**'*ya geçelim mi?* [Let's move on the physical experience part.]

A: *Bu da kısaydı bence. Çok kilolu da değildi ama zayıf da değildi.* [He is also short. He is not so fat, but he is not slim though.]

B: **Es bajo y un poco gordo.** [He is short and a little bit fat.]

A: Gordito *diyelim*. [Let's say chabby.] **Es moreno y tiene ojos marron. Y tiene gafas.** [He is brunette and has brown eyes. And he has glasses.]

B: **Muy bien.** [Very nice.]

*Estar + gerundio* is a Spanish structure very similar to present continuous tense in English. As can be seen in Extract 2, the participants make a connection between

what they know about English and what they have just learnt about Spanish. However, it should be noted that they only use their L2 English in phrase level. They do not use their English while negotiating an issue in the task.

Extract 2

(Turkish aided group, Pair 6)

A: **Está durmiendo** *nun durumu ne peki?* [What is the condition of "Esta durmiendo" (He is sleeping)?]

B: *Gün boyunca yatakta uyuyordu gibi bir anlamı var.* [It has a meaning like he is sleeping during the whole day.]

A: Present Continuous Tense *gibi.* [It is like Present Continuous Tense.]

In the extract below, the participant says the word generalmente with a /dʒ/ sound rather than /h/ sound as if it was a word in English /dʒɛn(ə)rəli/ . In Turkish, there is a correspondence between sounds and symbols like Spanish writing system. In English writing system, on the other hand, there is no reliable correspondence between sounds and symbols. This can be related to the fact that the word "generalmente" has an English equivalent "generally", and that they directly transfer their L2 knowledge to their L3. However, it should not be forgotten that in Turkish, we have an equivalent "genelde" as well.

Extract 3

(Spanish-only group, Pair 3)

A: *Olabilir çünkü orada* **generalmente** *diyor.* [It can be because it says generally there.]

All in all, L1 was used more extensively in the collaborative writing task when it is compared to the participants' L2 and L3. In the next section, the functions of L1 in the collaborative writing task will be identified.

4.3 What functions did the L1 serve in a L3 Spanish collaborative writing task in EFL setting?

In the collaborative writing task, the participants mainly used their L1 with different functions. In the data, the L1 uses were categorized into three groups: task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and form-based LREs. Task management LREs were discussions about text structure, task completion, task prompt and instructions while lexis-based LREs were about vocabulary search. Form-based LREs, on the other hand, were about spelling, morphology, syntax and discourse. Therefore, it can be said that there are three main functions of L1 use in a collaborative task: to manage the task, to find the proper vocabulary item and to write in a correct form. At least two extracts for each function will be given from the transcribed data.

As can be seen in the Extract 4, in task-completion LREs, the participants want to make sure that they wrote about all the criteria that the task required. They also negotiated what to write next to complete the task. In task- completion LREs, the participants also talked about the text structure. In Extract 4, student A listed what they had written so far while student B told what was left to add. Then, they decided what to write next.

Extract 4

(Spanish-only group, Pair 3)

A: *Tamam, şimdi kişilikleri, ilişkileri, kökenleri, aileleri, yaşadığı yeri söyledik.*

[Okay. Now, we talked about personality, relations, origins, families and where they lived.]

B: *Tarih ve saat kaldı.* [We don't talk about the date and the hour.]

A: *Şu gün şu saatte tanıştılar diyelim mi?*[Then, do we say in that day at that hour they met?]

B: *Evet*. [Yes.]

As in Extract 5, to decide what to write, student A did not want to write about grandparents by referring her own previous writing experiences in Turkish. The participants also negotiated about the text structure, what to write, how to write and when to write. While doing this, they made connections between their previous writing experiences in L1 and what they newly learnt.

Extract 5

(Spanish-only group, Pair 8)

A: *Dede ve anneanneden bahsetmemize gerek yok bence.* [I think that we do not need to write about his grandmother.]

B: *Taskta ailesi yazıyor ya ondan dedim. Bak ama sırayla gidiyor*. [I said this because in the task, it says "write about family". And look, there is a sequence here.]

A: *Türkçe bir paragraf yazarken bunu diyor muyuz? Yani Türkçe tanıştırsaydık onları anneannesi var demeyiz ama Roberto da ailesi ile anneannesi ile yaşıyor diyebiliriz. Sonra hastane de tanıştılar deriz. Bence hepsinden bahsetmek zorunda değiliz.* [While writing a paragraph in Turkish, do we talk about this? I mean if we write about them in turkish, we do not say he has a grandmother, but we can say that Roberto is also living with his family, his grandmother. Then, we say that they met at the hospital. I think that we do not have to talk about all.]

B: *Tamam o zaman.* [Okay then.]

While negotiating, both participants negotiated how to complete the task. Sometimes they disagree about how to write, but at the end, they reached a consensus. In Extracts 6 and 7, there are two examples of lexis-based LREs. In the extract 6, they talk about the meaning of a word "*guapo*". In Turkish, we can say "*güzel*" for being beautiful and handsome at the same time. This condition is the same for Spanish as well. However, English has different words for them. Therefore, it can be said that their Spanish was affected by their L2 English.

Extract 6

(Turkish-aided group, Pair 2)

A: *Şimdi* **guapo** *güzel demek. Yakışıklı için de mi acaba aynısını kullanıyoruz?* ["Guapo" means beautiful. Do we use the same thing for handsome as well?]

B: *Evet,* **guapo** *yakışıklı da demek.* **Es guapo** *yazalım mı?* [Yes, guapo means handsome as well. Do we write "es guapo" then?]

A: *Yazalım o zaman.* [Then let's write.]

In addition to making inferences, they also look up a dictionary to solve some of the meaning problems as in Extract 7. They looked up how to say "past" in Spanish while telling the time.

Extract 7

(Turkish-aided group, Pair 6)

A: *Geçe ne demekmiş buldun mu?* [Did you find what past means?]

B: **Las ocho y veinte** *diyor. Sekiz ve yirmi diye söyleyebiliyorsun.* [It says "las ocho y veinte". You can say it like eight and 20.]

However, sometimes, they do not want to look up the dictionary as Extract 8. They try to infer the meaning, but their inferences were not always true. In this extract, student A did not know the meaning of the word "*ademas*" and asked about it while student B made a wrong inference by telling that it can be something like so. It is also interesting to see that they guessed the meaning in English, rather than in Turkish.

Extract 8

(Turkish-aided group, Pair 2)

A: *Burayı pek anlamadım.* **Ademas** *ne demek?* [I don't understand here. What does "ademas" mean?]

B: *Bilmiyorum. Bütün gün uyudu gibi anladım ben onu.* So *gibi bir şey olabilir mi?* [I don't know. I understand that he slept during the whole day. Can it be something like so?]

A: *Bilmiyorum. Olabilir.* [I don't know. It can be.]

In addition to negotiating how to complete the task and which vocabulary to use, the participants also negotiated about how to write in the correct form. Extract 9 is an example of how the participants discussed about the true use of *ser* and *estar*.

Extract 9

(Spanish-only group, Pair 5)

A: **Esta profesor de aleman.** [*He is a German teacher.]

B: **Esta** *mı?* [Is that "esta"?]

A: *Haklısın.* **Esta** *değil,* **es** *olacak.* **Es profesor** *çünkü* ocupationını *belirtiyoruz.* [You are right. It will be "es", not "esta". "Es profesor" because we specify the occupation.]

Unfortunately, negotiating about the form does not always yield good results in terms of finding the correct use. Extract 10 can be an example of an unsuccessful negotiation of form. For relations, *ser* should be used; however, student B thought that it was a position, so *estar* needed to be used.

Extract 10

(Turkish-aided group, Pair 7)

A: *Arkadaş bunlar diyelim ama* **ser** *ya da* **estar** *kullanarak yazalım.* [Let's say they are friends, but we should write them by using "ser" and "estar".]

B: **Ser** *kullanacağız.* **Posición** *bu bence.* **Estar** *o zaman.* **Ellos estamos amigos.** *Yani onlar arkadaşlar.* [We will use "ser". I think that it is position. Then, it is "estar". "Ellos estamos amigos". It means that they are friend.]

A: Tamamdır. [Okay.]

As can be seen in extracts, L1 can be used for three functions: to manage the task, to negotiate vocabulary items and to negotiate forms. These functions are exemplified by LREs taken from the data collected through collaborative writing task. In the next section, the groups' language outcomes will be analyzed.

4.4 Is there any significant difference in language gains (*Ser-Estar* language test (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) scores, OPT scores and WPT scores) between the Spanish-only group and the Turkish-aided group?

The current study investigated the role of the L1 use in the learning of a L3 grammatical structure "*ser & estar*". The effect of L1 use was measured to see the effect of instruction on three language outcomes namely: *Ser-Estar* language test (pretest, posttest and delayed-posttest) scores, WPT scores and OPT fluency and accuracy scores.

Since the data satisfied all three assumptions (normality, equality of variance and independence), we ran a two-factor mixed ANOVA to investigate the statistical significance of the mean differences among *Ser-Estar* pretest, posttest and delayed

posttest results. Test results are shown in Table 3. There was a significant difference among overall test scores (*Ser-Estar* pretest, posttest and delayed-posttest) of Spanish-only group and Turkish-aided group ($F(2,32) = 12.98$, $p = .00$, $\eta p^2 = .44$); however, there was no significant main effect of condition on overall test scores of the groups ($F(2,32) = 1.65$, $p = .20$, $\eta p^2 = .09$). Pairwise comparison showed that there was a significant difference between *Ser-Estar* pretest and posttest results ($p = .00$), and between *Ser-Estar* pretest and delayed posttest results of Spanish-only group and Turkish-aided group ($p = .01$). Both groups improved after form-focused instruction. However, there was not a significant difference between posttest and delayed posttest results of the groups ($p = .78$). Tests of within-subjects contrasts, on the other hand, revealed that there was a significant difference between *Ser-Estar* pretest-posttest results of Spanish-only group and Turkish-aided group ($F(1,16) = 4.69$, $p = .04$, $\eta p^2 = .22$). Spanish-only group significantly improved more than Turkish-aided group. However, there was not a significant difference between posttest and delayed-posttest results of the groups ($p = .19$).

Additionally, to examine the effect of instruction on oral production in terms of fluency and accuracy, independent samples t-test in addition to nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to the scores gathered through a jigsaw task. The results of the OPT accuracy scores of the group taking the instruction in Turkish were normally distributed, while the results of the OPT fluency scores of the group taking the instruction in Turkish were not normally distributed. Therefore, t test was used for OPT accuracy scores, while nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was implemented for OPT fluency scores. The descriptives of the tests are indicated in Table 3. In terms of OPT accuracy scores, the t-test showed that the difference between two groups was not statistically significant, $t(16) = -2.02$, $p = 0.60$, $d = 0.97$.

In terms of OPT fluency scores, nonparametric t-test showed that the difference between two groups was not statistically significant, $U = 22.5$, $p = 0.092$.

To examine the effect of L1 use on written production, on the other hand, the collaborative writing task was administered. Because the data was normally distributed, an independent t-test was conducted. The result of the test is indicated in Table 4. In terms of WPT scores, the t-test showed that the difference between two groups was not statistically significant, $t(6) = -0.83$, $p = 0.437$, d = 1.17.

Table 3. Language Outcomes of the Groups

| **Conditions** | ***Ser-Estar* Pretest** | | | **Posttest** | | | **Delayed Posttest** | | | **OPT- Accuracy** | | | **OPT- Fluency** | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean (SD) | Min. | Max. | Mean (SD) | Min. | Max. | Mean (SD) | Min. | Max. | Mean (SD) | Min. | Max. | Mean (SD) | Min | Max. |
| **Turkish** | 8.40 (5.02) | 2.00 | 18.00 | 11.50 (5.04) | 6.00 | 20.00 | 11.70 (5.27) | 3.00 | 20.00 | 30.30 (10.81) | 9.00 | 45.00 | 4.00 (1.05) | 3.00 | 5.00 |
| **Spanish** | 6.63 (2.88) | 4.00 | 12.00 | 12.88 (3.72) | 7.00 | 18.00 | 10.25 (3.73) | 5.00 | 15.00 | 21.00 (7.98) | 12.00 | 35.00 | 2.75 (1.67) | 1.00 | 5.00 |

Table 4. WPT Scores of Each Group

| **Conditions** | **WPT** | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean (SD) | Min. | Max. |
| **Turkish** | 18 (3.51) | 11.00 | 25.00 |
| **Spanish** | 15 (0.81) | 13.00 | 17.00 |

4.5 Do the groups differ in the amount and functions of L1 use? To what extent are differences in the amount of L1 use related to differences in the quality of the students' writing?

Following Swain and Lapkin (2000), it can be said that there are two ways to answer these questions. First option is to report descriptives and t test results as in Swain and Lapkin (2001). Another way of looking the data is to examine the correlation among the amount and functions of L1 use and the quality of the students' writing following Swain and Lapkin (2000).

To observe to what extent differences in the amount of L1 use relate to differences in the quality of the students' writing and to find out how variable task performance is across pairs, all L1 turns were counted and categorized. Because WPT scores were normally distributed, Pearson correlation test was conducted. Since input was different for groups and the number of participants in groups (N= 2 or N= 3) were different, partial correlation was conducted to keep the input difference (Turkish-aided or Spanish-only) and number of participants under control. Although it was not statistically significant, the results revealed that there was a weak positive correlation between pairs' WPT scores and the number of LREs ($r(4) = .24$, $p = .64$). In terms of L1 functions, there was a very weak correlation between pairs' WPT scores and the number of task management LREs ($r(4) = .07$, $p = .88$). There was also a weak correlation between pairs' WPT scores and the number of lexis-based LREs ($r(4) = .30$, $p = .55$) and between pairs' WPT scores and the number of form-based LREs ($r(5) = .22$, $p = .67$).

This suggests that the number of task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and form-based LREs and the number of LREs are weakly related with the WPT scores.

4.6 What were the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in completing tasks in the L3 setting?

To learn the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in input and completing tasks in the L3 setting, semi-structured interviews were conducted with each group. Approximately six questions were asked to each pair. The participants were free to use which language they felt comfortable with to decrease the data collection tension, and all of them used their L1 Turkish. All data was transcribed and coded. In this section, through answering each question, the participants' overall perceptions will be analyzed. Then, specific extracts taken from coded data will be given to see more about the similarities and differences among the pairs and within the pairs in the study.

The first question in SSI is to ask which jigsaw task, written or oral, was harder for the participants. There was a written task followed by an oral task after a week. While written jigsaw task was completed before taking the input in target structure, oral jigsaw task was completed after taking the input in target structure. While six of the participants found writing jigsaw task harder, eight of the participants found speaking jigsaw task harder and four of them abstained from deciding. All of the participants who found writing jigsaw task harder declared that they did not know the target grammar structure while conducting that task. Two of the participants who found oral jigsaw task harder stated that this could be related to the fact that they did not study the target grammar point in one-week interval

between the sessions while the rest thought that speaking was always harder for them than writing as a skill.

The second question in SSI, on the other hand, is about whether they loved the process of learning and whether they thought that they learned the differences between *ser* and *estar*. All of the participants stated that they enjoyed the process and thought that they learnt the differences between the target structures *ser* and *estar*. There were only two students who thought that they would learn better if they had known the meanings of the all vocabulary items in the *Ser-Estar* pretest and posttest items. It can be seen in Extract 11 directly taken from the coded data:

Extract 11

| |
|---|
| *Evet öğrendim ama cümleyi çok anlayamıyorum ben. Diğer kelimeleri bilmeyince soruyu yapamıyorum. Bir de çekimleri daha ezberleyemedim.* [Yes, I learnt, but I am not able to understand the sentence so much. I cannot solve the items when I do not know the other words. Additionally, I have not been able to recite the conjugations yet.] |

The third question also asks the perceptions of participants about which language (L1 or TL) to use while teaching and learning grammar. The participants were also asked, if they were the teachers, how they would teach a language, whether they would codeswitch between the languages and when they would use their L1s. The participants had different perspectives about which language to use while teaching and learning a new language. Most of the participants (N = 11) said that language use in teaching depends on the level of the participants and a combination of L1 and TL should be used for different levels and needs. Extract 12 shows a quotation taken from the data.

Extract 12

| |
|---|
| *Türkçe başlardım çünkü daha rahat öğreniliyor. Biraz öğretildikten sonra öğretilen dil tercih edilebilir. Ama hiç bilmeden o dilde başlamak zor bence.* [I started teaching in Turkish because through Turkish, TL is learnt more comfortably. After learning a little, TL can be preferred. But starting a language in that language is hard for me without knowing anything.] |

It revealed that TL should be used increasingly after it was taught in L1. They also made a distinction for when to use Turkish and when to use Spanish as can be seen in the dialogue in Extract 13.

The learners thought that TL should be used especially with activities and listening tasks. However, participant B underlines the possible positive effect of L1 use especially in grammar teaching to ensure that the learners learn the right form. Three of them, by also underlying that understanding is the key point in learning, considered Turkish use as being beneficial especially with hard grammar structures, whereas other three thought that English should be used by adding that "*Türkçe ile İspanyolcanın gramer yapısı çok farklı. Ama İngilizceyle öğrenmek matematik gibi geliyor bana. Formül gibi oluyor* [There is a huge difference between Spanish and Turkish grammar. But learning through English seems to me like math. It becomes like a formulaic learning.]". They also referred that the medium of instruction in their university is English, so it can be used. Two of the participants, on the other hand, declared that only TL should be used. When they were asked why, they said " *dilde kulak aşinalığını arttırmak için* [to make student familiar with the target language itself]", TL should be used. They added that the learners could have hard times while learning at first, but eventually they would get used to that in time. The next extract,

on the other hand, showed how the participants differed in their language choices if they were the teachers.

Extract 13

A: *Bence öğretilen dil kullanılmalı.* [I think that the language taught should be used.]

B: *Ben sana katılmıyorum. Önce kendi anadili kullanılmalı. Aktivite yaparken öğrendiği dili kullanmalı.* [I don't agree with you. First, their L1 should be used. While doing an activity, students should use TL. ]

A: *Bence İspanyolca öğrenilirken İspanyolca konuşulmalı. Çünkü en azından kulak aşinalığı oluyor. Listeningte öğrenilen dilde olmalı.* [I think that while teaching Spanish, Spanish should be spoken. At least, it makes the learners familiar with the language. Listening should also be in TL.]

B: *Ben zaten etkinliklerde öğrenilen dil kullanılsın dedim ama dilbilgisi öğretilirken anadil kullanılabilir çünkü dilbilgisini yanlış öğrenebilir.* [I also said that TL should be used in activities, but L1 can be used while teaching TL because the learners can learn wrong.]

As can be seen in Extract 14, they stated a mixture of languages as being beneficial and underlined the importance of speaking in TL. They also stated that they made connections between English and Spanish and between Turkish and Spanish while teaching. They also reported to switch between L1 and TL when it is necessary. Half of them said that they would use activities to make learning more enjoyable. They underlined the importance of starting from easy grammar structures rather than hard ones while teaching. They also stated to love teaching through videos, pictures and tables.

Extract 14

A: *Siz Türkçe ile karıştırıp öğretiyorsunuz. Muhtemelen ben de öyle öğretirdim. Öğrenciler de onu istiyor genelde.* [You made a combination of Turkish and Spanish while teaching. Most probably I would teach in the same way. Students want this as well.]

B: *Ben konuşmaya önem verirdim. Bizim eğitim sistemimizde o bozuk. Dilbilgisini perfect bir şekilde öğretiyorlar ama konuşmada hepimiz zorlanıyoruz. Temelden konuşarak öğretilemeli.* [I would pay attention to speaking ıt is missing in our educational system. They are teaching the grammar in a perfect wat, but we are all struggling while speaking. Starting from the beginning, a language should be taught through speaking.]

A: *Haklısın, ben İngilizce konuşurken bile o kadar rahat değilim.* [You are right. I am not so comfortable even while speaking in English.]

B: *Ben de değilim ki senelerdir öğreniyoruz. Bu bir travma gibi. Kendimizden emin olamıyoruz konuşurken.* [Me neither although we have been learning it for many years. It is like a trauma. We cannot be sure of ourselves while speaking.]

A: *Hata yapmayalım derken zorlanıyoruz*. [We're having a hard time aiming not to make mistakes.]

Two of them, on the other hand, preferred to use formulaic chunks while learning as can be seen in Extract 15. Student A sees learning a language like math and wants formulas while teaching a grammar structure. He also adds that their high school teachers used formulas while teaching. Student B also agrees with him and adds that relating Spanish with English can be helpful in learning.

Extract 15

A: *Ben olsam İspanyolcayı İngilizce üzerinden anlatırım. Türkçe kullanmam. Ben Duolingodan başka diller de öğreniyorum. Hiçbirini Türkçe üzerinden öğrenmedim. Türkçe ile gramer yapısı çok farklı çünkü. Ama İngilizceyle matematik gibi geliyor bana. Formülle öğreniyorum.* [If I were the teacher, I would teach Spanish through English. I would not use Turkish. I am learning other languages by using Duolingo. I have never learnt them through Turkish because Spanish has a very different grammar structure from Turkish. But through English, Spanish seems like math to me. I learn through formulas.]

B: *Mantıklı bence ama gramer kurallar bütünü. İngilizce kullanarak, ilişki kurarak ve karşılaştırarak öğretilebilinir. Ben de formüllerle anlatırdım grameri.* [For me, it is logical, but grammar is a set of rules. By using English, relating and comparing, it can be taught. I would also teach grammar through formulas.]

A: *Lisedeyken öyle öğretiliyordu. S+V+O gibi*. [In high school, it was taught like that. Like Subject+Verb+Object.]

B: *Kalıplar daha basitleştiriyor. Formülü kullananrak öğrenebiliriz.* [Certain patterns make teaching easier. We can teach through using formulas.]

One of the participants, on the other hand, underlines the importance of teaching culture in language learning by telling that "*Bir dili öğrenirken kültür de öğretilmeli. Onların dünyaya nasıl baktığını görmek dili öğrenmeyi kolaylaştırıyor*. [While a language is taught, culture must be taught as well. Seeing how native speakers see the world makes language learning easier.]".

The fourth question is to find out the participants' previous language learning experiences. To learn more about how the participants' language experiences and

their perceptions regarding language teaching were, how their language courses were in the primary/ secondary school, high school and university and how their teachers taught grammar and which language/s they used were asked. All of the participants except one, who started to learn English in preschool, started to learn English in primary school. Only two of the participants stated that they had a good English language teaching in high school. All participants revealed that they started to enjoy learning English in their university. They all revealed that medium of instruction in the university was mainly in English while all except two stated that their teacher mostly use Turkish while teaching English in high school. Two of the participants went to French course, and they said that their teachers only used French while teaching. They mostly love learning English solely in English at their university although they had struggled a lot initially.

Finally, the aim of the study was told the participants and their assumptions regarding the results were taken. While eight of the participants thought that Turkish-aided group did better than the Spanish-only group, three of the participants guessed the opposite. One participant thought that she is lucky just because she watched the Turkish-aided video. Another added that vocalizing in Turkish decreased the tension of understanding the new structure in TL language. The other one also assumed that they did not suffer at all to understand the video and it was more intelligible, so it was easier and more long-lasting than Spanish-only group. The others, who guessed that Spanish-only group would learn better especially in OPT, considered that input in Spanish make the learners familiar with the language and switching between the languages can create big cognitive load and can be confusing and tiring. There are also four other participants who thought that there would be no difference among the

groups' learning. One of them added that it depends on the students' choice and level.

So far, to see the participants' perceptions about the use of their L1 in input and completing tasks in the L3 setting, approximately six questions were asked and a semi-structured interview was conducted with each group. In the next section, through another interview, multilingual language learning awareness of the participants will be analyzed.

## 4.7 What is multilingual language awareness of the L3 participants while learning a L3 grammatical structure?

To learn the participants' multilingual language awareness, an adapted version of a semi-structured interview prepared by Muñoz (2014) was conducted with each group. Approximately nine questions were asked. The first question was how the participants decided to learn Spanish and why they chose Spanish. Most of the learners has a personal interest in Spanish. One of them saw Spanish as a first step to learn other languages while two of them loved Spanish music, artists, movies, songs, soap operas and footballers. Some of them stated that they loved the sound system and phonetics of Spanish language. Some, on the other hand, saw the course announcement on the web and decided to participate. Most of them also underlined the fact that learning Spanish as a third language seems easier than learning other languages and Spanish is one of the most spoken languages in the world. All of them love learning languages.

Secondly, participants were asked about the similarities between Spanish and Turkish. They said that both languages are pro-drop and some words (e.g.,

normalmente- *normalde*, hamburguesa-*hamburger*, mesa-*masa*, aleman-*Alman*) are pretty similar. Besides, they realized that there is a letter-sound correspondence and there is not a strict sentence pattern in both of the languages. In those senses, two of the participants found Spanish closer to Turkish than English. They also underlined the fact that there is gender in Spanish although there is not in Turkish.

Vast majority found Spanish closer to English than Turkish. Then, the differences and similarities between Spanish and English were asked. They found cultures and words (e.g., diferencias- differences, definir-define, opinar-opinion) very similar to English although their pronunciations are pretty different. While half of the participants found the grammar structures quite similar to English, other half did not. They also claimed that their Spanish learning experience resembled to their L2 English learning experience

Additionally, the students were asked which language structure they found the most difficult. They stated that verb conjugations, the difference between *ser* and *estar*, some words' pronunciations and masculine-feminine difference in words were pretty hard for them. The majority also added that vocabulary learning was pretty hard for them.

Besides, how they learnt Spanish and other languages in previous schools were asked. All of the students, except two (who went to prep school when they were at high school and passed the proficiency exam in the university without going to prep school) passed proficiency exam of their university after going to prep school at least one year. Most of them stated that they did not learn so much English until high school or university years although they started to learn English at the age of at least nine. Most of the participants added that, in high school, most of their English

teachers used Turkish while their English teachers in the university used English mostly. They also stated that their English language education in primary, secondary and high school was not so well. Only two of them said that their high school language education was better than English education in their university. There are also three participants who learnt different languages (German, French and Arabic) in addition to English in high school while there are two participants who went to French courses after their high school graduation.

In addition to that, their favorite activity in learning was asked. While most of the participants preferred videos, songs, collaborative writing tasks, interactive activities and pictures, there are also others who loved traditional pen and paper activities such as gap filling activities, matching etc. Some learners found homework pretty beneficial for learning as well. They also stated that they loved learning through acronyms such as “DOCTOR” and “PLACE” created a mnemonic using the initials of their uses.

Apart from that, some questions regarding Spanish grammar structures were asked to see the awareness of participants. Students were requested to have a look at and tell the differences between these sentences: “Normalmente ella es una persona generosa.” and “Ahora ella esta generosa.”. Only one student was not able to understand the difference between the examples and said that *estar* could be related to the position. Other participants successfully underlined that *ser* is used for general characteristics while *estar* is used for specific situation in that time.

Then, they were asked to tell someone how to make some given examples (la chica, el chico, la casa, el gato) plural, how to tell verb conjugations (e.g., comer), how to make a sentence **(**Ella es alta**.)** negative and how to make the same sentence

interrogative. Most of the students successfully stated that they put –s. Most of the participants recalled changing the articles into plural forms as well. Some also made a connection between Spanish suffix –s and English plural suffix –s. In verb conjugation, on the other hand, they developed many different strategies to tell the new students. All of them stated that there is a stem in each verb and after we erase –*ar*, *-er* and –*ir* endings, we could attach different suffix for each person. Most of them underlined the importance of formulation in verb conjugations. One of the students said that the fact that "*yo*" takes –o (both ending with -o) could be easily reminded. Another student considered that giving homework of writing the conjugations at least 10 times was a beneficial strategy. Then, "Ella es alta**"** was used to make the participants teach negative and interrogative forms to the hypothetical kid. Only four of the participants successfully said that through interrogation mark and tone of voice, the sentence can be turned into an interrogative while others attempted to change the place of "*ella*" with "*es*" as in English. To make it negative, they all stated that they needed to put a "no" to the sentence; however, the place of "no" was also problematic for some of the participants. All pairs negotiated about where to put "no": at the beginning of the sentence or before the verb. Only one participant stated to put "no" after the verb. Then, she admitted that her English affects her Spanish in this example.

Finally, how the participants could teach the difference between *ser* and *estar* to someone who does not know the difference at all was asked. They said that students need to use *ser* for permanent things, general characteristics while they need to use *estar* for temporary conditions, positions and actions. Some also declared that they used mnemonics "DOCTOR" and "PLACE" used in video to make learning permanent and easy. It can be seen in Extract 16.

Extract 16

A: Ser condición, personality *ile alakalı iken* estar *daha anlık.* Estar *pozisyon da bildiriyor*. [*Ser* is about condition and personality while estar is more temporary. *Estar* also tells position.]

B: *Durum, meslek serdi.* Place *güzel özetliyor. Ben de çocuğa kodlayarak öğretirdim. Benim içinde çok etkiliydi. Belki ona zor gelir. Örnek vererek anlatabilirim.* [Condition and occupation is about *ser*. *Place* summarizes it well. I would also teach by coding. It was beneficial for me as well. It can be hard for the kids. Then, I can tell it through giving examples.]

At this part, the research questions were answered through data analysis. In the following chapter, the results will be discussed in relation to literature in the field.

# CHAPTER 5

# DISCUSSION

## 5.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the results of the study in the light of literature and cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1994; Sweller et al, 2011), the Typological Primacy Model (Rothman, 2010, 2011) and Cumulative-Enhancement Model (CEM) (Flynn et al, 2004). It will focus on the L1 use as an aid, L1 use as a cognitive tool, the participants' perspectives about L1 use and participants' multilingual language learning awareness. Three functions of LREs (task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and from-based LREs) were coded and counted, and the results did not reveal any significant difference in the amount and categories of LREs between the TL-only group and the L1-aided group. There is not any significant difference between the OPT fluency/ accuracy scores and WPT scores of the groups either. The number of task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and form-based LREs and the number of LREs are weakly related with the WPT scores. However, the results showed that FFI has an effect on the target structure learning regardless of the language used in instruction and TL-only group improved more than L1-aided group. The results also revealed learners' perspectives about L1 use and their multilingual language learning awareness in line with the literature.

The results should be interpreted in the light of some contextual information. To begin with, the university where the data was gathered is an English medium university and there is a multicultural environment. Besides, learners in the study are

very successful learners within the top 3% percentage in the national university entrance exam. They probably have better language aptitudes than their peers.

In terms of L1 use as an aid, the results were contrary to what has been reported so far. The possible reasons behind the results will be discussed in the following section.

## 5.2 L1 Use as an aid

In the thesis, the effect of L1 use as an aid in L3 *ser-estar* grammar structure was investigated in the second research question. Not in line with literature (Miles, 2004; Şimşek; 2010; Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012) and the hypotheses, the results showed that there is not any significant difference in the amount and categories of LREs between the TL-only group and the L1-aided group nor between the OPT fluency/ accuracy and WPT scores of the groups. However, when we looked at the pretest-posttest results, the results revealed that TL-only group improved more than L1-aided group. It shows that L1 use in FFI does not offer an additional useful benefit.

These results can be related to the research design and typological relatedness. In the design, TL-only input was claimed to be easy to understand by the participants due to the typological resemblance between English and Spanish. Although the participants does not know what some Spanish phrases mean (such as descripción, ocupación, característica), they were able to understand them thanks to their English. Learners transfer from their already acquired language resources and it is known that typological relatedness among the languages are substantial in language transfer (Jessner, 2008). In line with many studies (e.g., Wei, 2003),

participants seemed to transfer knowledge from their L2 English while learning L3 Spanish regardless of typologically unrelated L1 Turkish use in input. If the participants were not multilinguals and did not know English, L3 instruction in L3 would not be so clear for them. It can be said that the results support Typological Primacy Model which accepts the effect of previously learnt languages on L3 and states whether L1 or L2 has a preferential status depends on the typological proximity (Rothman, 2010, 2011). Grammatical structure investigated in the study, in addition to the languages, has an effect on language choice as well (Rell, 2005).

Another explanation behind the results can be the cognitive load that input in L1-aided instruction created. According to cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1994; Sweller, Ayres, & Kalyuga, 2011), working memory capacity is limited. Even verbal and visual representations require different cognitive resources (Sweller, 1999) and their integration is constrained by memory load (Mayer, 1997). Thinking in TL while performing in that language is important rather than translating (Nawal, 2018). In the study, the participants needed to translate between languages because there are different languages in the structure/ examples (L3) and in explanations (L1). Therefore, it can be said that different languages may require different cognitive resources and their translation and relation probably create memory load. In SSI, some participants also stated that L1 in input could create a cognitive burden because the brain could get confused and tired while translating L1 into TL to understand the structure. Although L1 use in instruction is considered as an aid and is thought to make the input more comprehensible and clear (e.g., Cook, 2001; Pan & Pan, 2010), this mental burden created by the translation of input can be another reason behind the results.

Finally, one can expect that TL rather than L1 should be used whenever possible in instructed classroom settings (e.g., Cole, 1998). The findings support the interactionist position. Especially in foreign language context, classroom is the only place where learners are exposed to TL. As there is no identity issue as in minority classes, the findings revealed no role for L1 in L3 Spanish in an EFL context. Therefore, TL exposure should be increased as much as possible. Instruction should be given in TL. If the learners did not understand a point, that specific point could be explained in L1. L1 use of teachers should depend on students' proficiency levels and teaching purposes (Pan & Pan, 2010).

### 5.3 L1 Use as a cognitive tool

L1 can be used as a cognitive tool in a collaborative writing task by the learners. In the study, the effect of students' L1 as a cognitive tool while performing a collaborative writing task was investigated for the first and third research questions. L1 was used more extensively in the collaborative writing task when it was compared to the participants' L2 and L3. This can be related to their level in Spanish. Their pronunciation and guessing some words' meanings, on the other hand, were affected by their L2 English. It can be related to the typological resemblance between English and Spanish again (Jessner, 2008). Following Swain and Lapkin's (1995) LRE definition, their LREs during the task were transcribed and coded. In line with literature (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), the functions of L1 as a cognitive tool during a collaborative writing task are task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and form- based LREs.

In line with the results of Swain and Lapkin (2000), there is not any significant difference in the amount of the L1 use of groups and in the categories of the L1 use of the groups. There is a weak relation between the number of task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and form-based LREs and WPT scores, and a weak relation between the number of LREs and WPT scores. For their result, Swain and Lapkin (2000) considered that the results might be due to the small sample size and the high degree of variability observed in the data. However, it can be said that my study also confirms their study and proves that there is a weak relation between the number and categories of LREs and WPT scores.

As in Swain and Lapkin's (2002) study, the participants talked through when they confronted a problem in lexis, form or task completion, and resolved many language-related problems while completing their story although their L1 use as a cognitive tool did not directly and statistically significantly affect their written production scores. Since collaborative writing task in the study was a linguistically and cognitively complex task and the participants got pretty high scores, there can be L1 use as a cognitive tool in such tasks.

In LREs, there are some instances that the participants did codeswitch to English or used their English knowledge while saying some words and guessing the meanings of some structures or some words in Spanish. Their pronunciation of some words was found to have been heavily affected by their L2 English as in the example of the word *generalmente*. Besides, the participants mainly used a newly-learnt vocabulary item as if it was a word in English. For example, they said *occupation* when they learnt *occupación* in Spanish rather than saying *meslek* in Turkish. As in the example of *estar + gerundio* structure in Spanish, they also made a connection between present continuous tense in English and what they have just learnt in

Spanish. As can be seen, they used their L2 English as a resource in phrase level and transferred their English knowledge resource to their newly-learnt language Spanish. This can be related to the typological resemblance between English and Spanish again (Jessner, 2008).

## 5.4 Participants' perspectives about L1 use

In the study, there are controversial results regarding the use of L1 as an aid and as a cognitive tool. They made a distinction for when to use Turkish and when to use Spanish. They said that TL should be used in listening activities and performing tasks while L1 should be used in grammar instruction which is compatible with literature (Debreli & Oyman, 2016; Sarıçoban, 2010). However, in line with literature (Mahmutoğlu & Kıcır, 2013; Pan & Pan, 2010; Taşkın, 2011), the majority considered that language use in teaching should depend on the level of the participants and a combination of L1 and TL should be used for different levels and needs. As in Paker and Karaağaçlı's (2015) study, most of the participants are also aware of the importance of TL as much as possible and proposed a gradual decrease in L1 use. The participants also reported that they prefer to use English while teaching Spanish because the medium of instruction in the university is English and Spanish and English are typologically close languages.

## 5.5 Participants' multilingual language learning awareness

In the study, the participants are L1 Turkish, L2 English and L3 Spanish multilinguals and Muñoz's (2014) LLLA interview was used to explore their multilingual language learning awareness while learning a grammatical structure in

the L3. It is claimed that multilinguals are beyond monolinguals and bilinguals because there is the effect and interaction of at least three languages in multilingualism (Cenoz, 2009). Multilingualism can have positive effect on language awareness (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). In most of the multilingual models, it can be said that L3 was interdependent on previously learnt languages and was influenced by all language resources and all language experiences. In line with the literature and supporting Cumulative-Enhancement Model (CEM) (Flynn et al, 2004), the participants in the study also declared that their Turkish and English resources had an effect with their resemblances on their newly-learnt language "Spanish".

The participants also stated that their Spanish learning experience resembled more to their L2 English learning experience. Learning effect and typological relatedness can be the main reason behind this result (Jessner, 2008). English and Spanish are typologically related languages while Turkish is not typologically related with English and Spanish. This claim was supported by the participants' perspectives as well. Only two of the participants found Spanish more similar to Turkish than English in terms of sound-letter correspondence, flexible word order and being pro-drop while the rest thought that Spanish resembled more to English in terms of culture, words and grammar. This result also supports the Typological Primacy Model (Rothman, 2010, 2011) and Cumulative-Enhancement Model (CEM) (Flynn et al, 2004).

The participants found verb conjugations, the difference between *ser-estar* (supporting Roldan, 1974), some words' pronunciations and masculine-feminine difference in words quiet difficult although they were able to understand the differences between *ser-estar*. In line with literature (Cohen et al, 2011), they claimed to love learning through acronyms as well. They were quite aware of their

language learning and made use of beneficial learning strategies (such as saying “yo with an –o ending”) and their English while learning (such as putting no after verb as in English). This English use while learning Spanish can be about typological relatedness (Jessner, 2008) and can support the Typological Primacy Model again (Rothman, 2010, 2011).

All in all, the results revealed that L1 can be used as an aid by the teachers while giving grammar instruction; however, TL use must be maximized and should increase respectively while the level of the learners increases. The learners’ perspectives regarding L1 use also support this claim. The majority of learners supported a combination of L1 and TL use appropriate to learners’ levels and needs. Although it was not related to their written production scores, the results also showed that learners can use their L1 as a cognitive tool for task management, vocabulary search, spelling, morphology, syntax and discourse in a collaborative writing task. Besides, the learners can be considered multilingually aware of their learning because they transferred from their already acquired languages and stated that their previously learnt languages have an effect on their new language “Spanish”. All in all, it can be said that L1 use in L3 FFI does not offer an additional useful benefit, but multilinguals’ perspectives regarding L1 use and their language awareness should not be ignored while teaching and all language resources can be used while teaching. In the next section, the thesis will be summarized and concluded.

# CHAPTER 6

# CONCLUSION

This chapter will conclude the results of the study in the light of literature and will underline pedagogical implications of the thesis, thesis limitations and some suggestions for further research.

## 6.1 Summary and conclusion

The use of L1 has always been a controversial issue in TL teaching and learning in SLA. Based on this controversy in the literature and my own language learning experiences, I wondered the effects of L1 use as an aid in the instruction and the learners' L1 use. Hence, I designed the thesis investigating the use of L1 as an aid in form-focused *ser-estar* grammatical structure instruction and L1 use of learners in a collaborative writing task. The results revealed that there is not any significant difference in the amount and categories of LREs transcribed during the collaborative writing task between the TL-only group and the L1-aided group. There is no significant difference between the OPT fluency/ accuracy and WPT scores of the groups either. The number of task management LREs, lexis-based LREs and form-based LREs and the number of LREs, on the other hand, are weakly related with the WPT scores. These results are in line with literature (Swain and Lapkin, 2000). Differently from previous studies (Miles, 2004; Şimşek; 2010; Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012), ser-*estar* pretest-posttest results showed that TL-only group improved more than L1-aided group. It shows that L1 use in FFI does not offer an additional useful benefit. This can be related to the grammatical structure, research design,

typological relatedness and the cognitive load created by L1-TL translation issues. The results support Typological Primacy Model (Rothman, 2010, 2011) and cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1994; Sweller, Ayres, & Kalyuga, 2011). This result also shows the effect of all language resources available to the learners on newly-learnt language. This study is the first study investigating the role of L1 use as an aid in L3 instruction of *ser-estar* grammar structure and investigating the L1 use of L3 learners as a cognitive tool in a collaborative writing task

The thesis also explored L3 learners' perspectives regarding L1 use in L3 learning. Yet only few studies, if any, have investigated the perceptions of L3 language learners regarding L1 use. Compatible with literature (Debreli & Oyman, 2016; Sarıçoban, 2010), they made a distinction for when to use Turkish (such as grammar instruction) and when to use Spanish (such as listening and speaking exercises). As in Paker and Karaağaçlı's (2015) study, majority of the participants are aware of the importance of TL as much as possible. They also proposed a gradual decrease in L1 use supporting the studies of Mahmutoğlu and Kıcır (2013), Pan and Pan (2010) and Taşkın (2011).

In addition to L3 learners' perspectives regarding L1 use, the study examined the multilingual language learning awareness of L3 learners while learning grammar. The results showed that multilinguals are beyond monolinguals and bilinguals because there was the effect and interaction of at least three languages in multilingualism (Cenoz, 2009). In most of the multilingual models (e.g., CEM by Flynn et al, 2004), L3 was thought as being interdependent on previously learnt languages and was considered to be influenced by all language resources and all language experiences. Besides, learning effect and typological relatedness (CEM by Flynn et al, 2004; Typological Primacy Model by Rothman, 2010, 2011) affected

language awareness and language learning. The participants in the study also declared that their Turkish and English resources had an effect with their resemblances on their newly-learnt language “Spanish” and their Spanish learning experience resembled more to their L2 English learning experience. This study becomes one of the few studies investigating the multilingual language learning awareness of L3 learners.

The motivation for this study was within interactionist cognitive perspective and ISLA research. But still, I acknowledge the codeswitching/ translanguaging and ELF pedagogy in language classroom; however, within the scope of this research, the findings are interpreted in the light of interactionist cognitive perspective.

## 6.2 Pedagogical implications

The general aim of the study is to investigate possible ways of increasing the effect of input and form-focused grammar instruction. In the study, input was taught through FFI type of grammar instruction for four hours. The S*er-Estar* pretest-posttest results revealed that input about TL grammar structure regardless of the language used is very helpful. In light of this study, it seems substantial for instructors and researchers to be aware of the TL use as much as possible in grammar instruction because L1 use in L3 grammar instruction does not offer an additional useful benefit.

There are at least two pedagogical implications of the study. Firstly, the L1 use in multilingual language learning was found to be an intervening factor in language learning. The learners preferred to use L1 with their peers to complete the task and wanted teachers to use L1 use when they did not comprehend something

especially in early stages. They also made use of all of their language resources available to them while learning. Therefore, it can be emphasized that learners may use their L1 to scaffold each other and to complete the task. In addition, the learners might prefer teachers' L1 use when a comprehension problem occurs especially in early stages of learning. Rather than banning L1 use in classrooms, teachers can let students use their L1 as a cognitive tool while conducting collaborative tasks. However, it should not be forgotten that there is only weak relation between learners' L1 use as a cognitive tool and their written production success.

Secondly, to increase learning, the teachers should use TL as much as possible. *Ser-Estar* pretest- posttest results revealed that Spanish-only group improved more than Turkish- aided group although there was not any significant difference between pretest- delayed posttest results of the groups. Although several researchers (e.g., Auerbach, 1993; Cole, 1998; Cook, 2001) recommends deliberate and systematic teacher use of the L1 to facilitate TL learning while explaining TL grammar, several researchers (e.g., Ellis, 1994; Pan & Pan, 2010) recommends TL use as much as possible. Turkey is a foreign language context for languages such as English and Spanish. Classroom is the only place where the learners are exposed to TL. Therefore, TL should be used as much as possible to increase exposure. For it depends on students' proficiency levels and teaching purposes, there is not a universally defined appropriate quantity of the L1 use (Pan & Pan, 2010). Rather than excessive use of L1, teachers should find a limited way of using L1 in TL instruction according to their students' TL level and needs, and there must be a gradual decrease in the use of L1 while the learners' L2 proficiency increases.

## 6.3 Limitations and suggestions for further research

This study has several limitations. Firstly, although *ser-estar* is one of the most studied grammar structure in Spanish, there was not any, to our knowledge, valid and reliable test to measure the learners' knowledge on *ser-estar* grammar structure available. A more reliable and valid test for *Ser-Estar* is needed.

Secondly, there was not any task constructed to measure oral production and written production abilities regarding Spanish *ser-estar* grammatical structure either. Besides, the scoring for fluency and accuracy is relatively subjective. In order to compensate for this, the scores were checked and further negotiated by the interrater.

Overall, future research with more participants and in longitudinal studies should be conducted to investigate the role of L1 use or the different grammar structures. Conducting the study in a different setting, by different grammar structures, by using different measurements, with different participants coming from different L1s and L2s, with more participants and collecting the data from the classrooms of diverse linguistic backgrounds and diverse language experiences may reveal different results.

APPENDIX A

LANGUAGE BACKGROUND

Name:

Date of birth:

Proficiency Year / Score:

Gender:

1. Please list all the languages you know in order of dominance:

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | |

2. Please list all the languages you know in order of acquisition (your native language first):

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | |

3. Please list what percentage of the time you are currently and on average exposed to each language. (Your percentages should add up to 100%):

| Language | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percentage | | | | | |

4. When choosing to read a text available in all your languages, in what percentage of cases would you choose to read it in each of your languages? Assume that the original was written in another language, which is unknown to you. (Your percentages should add up to 100%):

| Language | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percentage | | | | | |

5. When choosing a language to speak with a person who is equally fluent in all your languages, what percentage of time would you choose to speak each language? Please report percent of total time. (Your percentages should add up to 100%):

| Language | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percentage | | | | | |

6. Please name the cultures with which you identify. On a scale from zero to ten, please rate the extent to which you identify with each culture. (Examples of possible cultures include US-American, Chinese, Jewish-Orthodox, Hispanic, Latin, Spanish etc.):

| Language | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Culture | | | | | |

7. How many years of formal education do you have?

   _____

Please check your highest education level:

| | |
|---|---|
| High School | |
| University | |
| Master s | |
| PhD | |
| Other | |

8. Age when you….

| English | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| began acquiring | became fluent | began reading | became fluent reading |
| | | | |

| Spanish | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| began acquiring | became fluent | began reading | became fluent reading |
| | | | |

Other language_____

9. Please list the number of months you spent in each language environment:

| English | |
|---|---|
| A country where English is spoken | |
| A family where English is spoken | |
| A school and/or working environment where English is spoken | |

| Spanish | |
|---|---|
| A country where Spanish is spoken | |
| A family where Spanish is spoken | |
| A school and/or working environment where Spanish is spoken | |

Your interaction with another language_____

10. On a scale from zero to ten, please select your level of proficiency in speaking, understanding, and reading:

| English | | |
|---|---|---|
| proficiency in speaking | Understanding | Reading |
| | | |

| Spanish | | |
|---|---|---|
| proficiency in speaking | Understanding | Reading |
| | | |

| Another Language | | |
|---|---|---|
| proficiency in speaking | Understanding | Reading |
| | | |

11. On a scale from zero to ten, please select how much the following factors contributed to you learning:

| Factors | English | Spanish | Other |
|---|---|---|---|
| Interacting with friend | | | |
| Interacting with family | | | |
| Reading | | | |
| Listening to music | | | |
| Watching TV | | | |
| Self- instruction | | | |
| Technological devices | | | |

12. In your perception, how much of a foreign accent do you have in English____ and Spanish____? In another language_____
13. Please rate how frequently others identify you as a non-native speaker based on your accent in English_____ and Spanish_____/ another language_____
14. Do you consider yourself as being bilingual?_____
15. Do you consider yourself as being trilingual or multilingual?_____
16. Have you ever had a vision problem g, hearing impairment g, language disability g, or learning disability? If yes, please explain (including any corrections): _____

APPENDIX B

INPUT

The Spanish-only video can be watched by clicking https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vq1X02oX-CQ

The Turkish-aided video can be watched by clicking https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yzLpX1KeEo0&t=185s




This picture is directly taken from the Spanish-only video. As you can see, the heading and the example is in Spanish. The voice also speaks only in Spanish.



This picture, on the other hand, is directly taken from the Turkish-aided video. As can be seen, the heading and the example is in Spanish but their translations were given in Turkish. The voice also speaks in Turkish.

INTERVENTION PLAN & TASKS

| Sessions | Cycle | Tasks |
|---|---|---|
| 1 (55 mins) | Before Input (25') | Consent Form<br>Language Background (LB)<br>*Ser-Estar* Pretest<br>Jigsaw Activity> Pre-task |
| | Input (10') | Form-Focused Input in Spanish or Turkish in the form of a video> Input |
| | After Input (20') | Peer Feedback> Post Task<br>Completing the story together> Post Task |
| 2 (50 mins) | Interview 1 (10') &2 (10')<br>Input (5')<br>OPT (10')<br>Posttest (10') | Feedback<br>LLLA Interview<br>Input again<br>Oral Production Task (OPT)<br>Semi-structured Interview<br>*Ser-Estar* Posttest |
| 3 (10 mins) | Delayed Posttest (10') | Online Delayed Posttest |

# APPENDIX C

## COLLABORATIVE WRITTEN PRODUCTION TASK

### Prompt in Turkish

- Şimdi videodan öğrendiklerinizi ve ilk aktivitede yaptığınız hataları da aklınızda bulundurarak size Claudia ve Roberto'nun arkadaş olma hikayesini beraber yazmanızı istiyoruz. Hikayenizde:
  - Karakterleri
  - Fiziksel özellikleri
  - Meslekleri
  - Medeni durumları
  - Kökenleri
  - Aile ilişkileri
  - Tarih ve saat
  - Yaşadıkları şehir
  - Tanıştıkları yer
  - O günkü durum ve duyguları
  - Beraberken hissettikleri
  - Tanışırken ne yaptıkları
  - Hikayedeki kırılma noktası, eğer varsa
  - Arkadaşlıklarının son durumu

  olmalı. Geniş zaman kullanacaksınız. 15 dakikada beraber yazacaksınız. Yazarken sözlük kullanabilirsiniz.

### Prompt in Spanish

- Ten cuidado a vuestros errores. Recuerda que aprendáis en el video. Vais a escribir la historia de amistad/ amor entre Claudia y Roberto juntos. En vuestra cuenta, vais a incluir:
  - Sus caracteres
  - Sus físicas
  - Sus ocupaciónes
  - Sus orígenes
  - Sus estados civiles
  - Sus relaciónes
  - La fecha/ hora (El Tiempo)
  - Sus localizaciónes/El lugar de conocimiento
  - Sus acciónes
  - Sus condiciónes
  - Sus emociónes en ese momento
  - Sus emociónes cuando juntos
  - Cambio de dirección del diagrama, si hay
  - Que ellos hacen y ellos están haciendo
  - La última situación de su amistad o su amor
- Tenéis 15 minutos. Vais a usar el presento de indicativo. Podéis usar el diccionario

APPENDIX D

WRITTEN PRODUCTION TASK SCORING SCHEME

| Subfield | Descriptors used for the end points of the five scales |
|---|---|
| Content | 1 It's difficult to know what the paragraph is about; no story is told. It is written short.<br>5 A 'complete' story is told. The participants write about the characters in a detailed way. They have a conclusion to their own story. |
| Organization | 1 Ideas are stated in haphazard order; or it is written pretty short.<br>5 Information is clearly stated and sequenced. Use of paragraph as appropriate for a narrative. There are the uses of transitions. The characters are written in a proper order. |
| Vocabulary | While writing, they are free to have a look at the dictionary. Therefore, please look at whether they use new vocabulary items in proper places.<br>1 Vocabulary use is generally impoverished and there are some reliance on English<br>5 There is precision in word choice and use of appropriate register |
| Morphology | 1 There is incorrect use of ser-estar, subject-verb agreement and masculine-feminine.<br>5 There is correct use of ser-estar, subject-verb agreement and masculine-feminine. |
| Syntax | 1 It sounds more like English or Turkish than Spanish; many errors involving tense, articles, word order, etc.<br>5 There is word order, true verb usages, transition usages and adjective-noun coherence/ order. |

Source: Adapted from Swain and Lapkin’s (2001) scoring scheme.

APPENDIX E

ORAL PRODUCTION TASK

| ORAL PRODUCTION TASK |
| --- |
| One of the learners will tell 8 pictures about a character. |
| While listening, other learner will take notes related to the character. |
| Then, other learner will tell 8 pictures about another character. |
| This time, the other learner will take notes related to the character while listening. |
| Whole process will be recorded. |

Pictures below were directly taken from the slides used in the task. These pictures tell the story of Jenkins. One of the participants needs to tell this pictures by using ser-estar to their pair. Other pair needs to tell the story of Lou. The pictures of Lou's story are parallel to these pictures.






Estambul____ en el noreste de Turquia




Describe a Jenkins




Sus padres

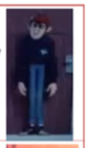


Su madre Yasmin y su padre Bora

____el veinticuatro del mayo.____el jueves. ___las dos menos diez.






| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Generalmente | Desafortunado y infeliz |  |
| Ahora | Muy feliz y afortunado |  |

____muy feliz porque



___bien
y
____corriendo todo el dia con
Lou

APPENDIX F

ORAL PRODUCTION TASK SCORING SCHEME

| SCORING SCHEME OF ORAL ACCURACY | |
|---|---|
| Correct Usage of ser & estar | 3 points |
| Self- corrected usage of ser & estar | 1 point |
| Wrong Usage of ser & estar | No point will be given.<br>No penalty. |

| SCORING SCHEME OF ORAL FLUENCY | |
|---|---|
| Descriptors used for the end points of the five scales | |
| Not so fluent, speaking frequently in Turkish, transferring from English | 1 |
| Fluent, pure Spanish usage, no transfer, no code-switching". | 5 |

APPENDIX G

SER-ESTAR PRETEST- POSTTEST

PRETEST & DELAYED POSTTEST

1. X: ¿_____la chica guapa o fea?
   Y: _____ muy guapa.
   A. Es/ es
   B. Es/ está
   C. Está/ está
   D. Está/ es
2. X:¿A qué te dedicas?
   Y:_____ médico.
   A. Eres
   B. Estás
   C. Soy
   D. Estoy
3. El libro _____muy divertido pero ____muy largo.
   A. está/ está
   B. está/ es
   C. es/ está
   D. es/ es
4. X: ¿Qué día _____ hoy?
   Y: Hoy _____sábado.
   A. es/ es
   B. está/ es
   C. es/ está
   D. está/ está
5. X: ¿De dónde____ usted?
   Y:_____ de Barcelona.
   A. eres/ Soy
   B. es/ Estoy
   C. eres/ Estoy
   D. es/ Soy
6. X:¿Quién ____esa mujer?
   Y:____ la novia de Raúl.
   A. es/ Estoy
   B. está/ Está
   C.es/ Es
   D. Estás/ Soy
7. X:¿De qué material ____ el lápiz?
   Y:_____ de plástico.
   A. estás/ Está
   B. es/ Es
   C. eres/ Está
   D. estás/ Soy
8. X:¿De quién ____ la mochila?
   Y:_____ de María.
   A. es/ Está
   B. eres/ Soy
   C. estás/ Estoy
   D. es/ Es

9. Normalmente, yo _____muy trabajadora pero ahora no _____ preparado para el examen.
   A. soy/ estoy
   B. soy/ soy
   C. estoy/ soy
   D. estoy/ estoy
10. En el concierto, para ver Tarkan, ellos _____de pie.
   A. es
   B. son
   C. está
   D. están
11. X: ¿Dónde _____ ustedes?
   Y: _____en el laboratorio de lenguas.
   A. estáis/ estamos
   B. están/ están
   C. estáis/ están
   D. están/ estamos
12. Claudia ____ leyendo un libro cuando yo_____ nadando en una piscina.
   A. está/ estoy
   B. es/ soy
   C. está/ soy
   D.es/ estoy
13. X:¿Cómo _____ usted?
   Y: _____bien gracias, ¿y usted?
   A. estás/ estoy
   B. está/soy
   C. está/estoy
   D. es/soy
14. Después de ver un film muy romántico, vosotros_____ muy emocional.
   A. estás
   B. estáis
   C. eres
   D. sois
15. Su hermano _____casado con mi tía.
   A. está
   B. estás
   C. es
   D. eres
16. La clase ____aburrida pero la profesora____ muy interesante.
   A. es/ está
   B. está/ está
   C. está/ es
   D. es/ es
17. A: ¿Qué fecha _____hoy?
   B:_____ el dos de febrero.
   A. es/ es
   B. está/ están
   C. está/ son
   D. es/ está
18. Normalmente, las sopas ____calientes pero ahora esa sopa ____ fría.
   A. son/ es
   B. son/ está
   C. están/ está

D. está/ está

19. X: ¿Dónde _____ España?

Y: _____en la Península Ibérica.

A. es/ está

B. está/ está

C.es/ es

D. está/ es

20. X: ¿Cómo ____Ángela?

Y: Tengo fiebre y por eso_____mal.

A. está/ estoy

B. es/soy

C. estás/ estoy

D. eres/soy

Answer Key: A, C, D, A, D, C, B, D, A, D, D, A, C, B, A, D, A, B, B, C

POSTTEST

1. Cuando la profesora viene al clase, ellos _____de pie.

A. es

B. son

C. está

D. están

2. X:¿____ ella callada o habladora?

Y:_____ muy callada.

A. Es/ es

B. Es/ está

C. Está/ está

D. Está/ es

3. X: ¿Dónde ____ usted?

Y: _____ en la casa.

A. está/ estás

B. está/ está

C. estás/ está

D. está/ estoy

4. Mi madre _____ profesora y mi padre ____ juez.

A. Eres / eres

B. Estás/ estás

C. Está/ está

D. Es/ es

5. Claudia ____ leyendo un libro cuando yo_____ nadando en una piscina.

A. está/ estoy

B. es/ soy

C. está/ soy

D.es/ estoy

6. Tu casa _____ muy pequeña pero ____ muy divertida.

A. está/ está

B. está/ es

C. es/ está

D. es/ es

7. X:¿Cómo _____ ustedes?

Y: Hoy ____ bien pero mi marido _____enfermo.

A. estáis/ estoy/ está

B. estáis/soy/ está

C. están/estoy/ está

D. son/soy/ es

8. X: ¿Qué hora _____?

Y: _____las tres.

A. es/ son

B. está/ es

C. es/ está

D. está/ están

9. X: ¿____ casada?

Y: No, _____ casada pero tengo un novio.

A. estás/ estoy

B. estás/ soy

C. eres/estoy

D. eres/ soy

10. X: ¿De qué país ___ ella?

Y: _____turca.

A. eres/ Soy

B. es/ Estoy

C. eres/ Estoy

D. es/ Es

11. X:¿De dónde ____ los chicos?

Y:El__ ___ de México y ella_____ chilena.

A. son/ está/ está

B. son/ es/ es

C. están/ está/ está

D. están/ es/ es

12. X:¿Quién ____ese chico?

Y:____ el hijo de Fernández.

A. es/ Estoy

B. está/ Está

C.es/ Es

D. Estás/ Soy

13. Yo ____ muy cansada. Quiero _____ sentado.

A. estoy/ ser

B. estoy/ estar

C. soy/estar

D. soy/ ser

14. X:¿De qué material ____esa bolsa ?

Y:_____ de piel.

A. estás/ Está

B. es/ Es

C. eres/ Está

D. estás/ Soy

15. X:¿De quién ____ el móvil?

Y:_____ de Ángela.

A. es/ Está

B. eres/ Soy

C. estás/ Estoy

D. es/ Es

16. Normalmente, yo no _____muy ordenada pero ahora _____ ordenada porque mis padres van a venir a mi casa.

A. soy/ estoy

B. soy/ soy

C. estoy/ soy

D. estoy/ estoy

17. Después de ver un film muy dramático, nosotros_____ muy triste.

A. están

B. estamos

C. sois

D. somos

18. X:¿A qué se dedica tu madre?

Y:_____ médica.

A. Es

B. Está

C. Soy

D. Estoy

19. Normalmente, los viernes____calientes pero ahora ese viernes ____ fría.

A. son/ es

B. son/ está

C. están/ está

D. está/ está

20. Alicia_____ sus palabras cuando Ángela_____ sobre el examen.

A. está escuchando/ está hablando

B. está escuchando/ es hablando

C. es escuchando/ es hablando

D. es escuchando/ está hablando

Answer Key: D, A, D, D, A, D, C, A, A, D, B, C, B, B, D, A, B, A, B, A.

## APPENDIX H

## LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING AWARENESS

## INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Adapted Version of LLLA Interview (Muñoz, 2014)

1. What does learning Spanish mean to you?
2. What differences do you notice between Spanish and Turkish? ... and English?
3. What do you think is most difficult about Spanish?
4. What do you think is different between Spanish class and English class? ... and Turkish class?
5. What Spanish class activities help you learn most? Why?
6. Look at this here (show visual aid):
   - Normalmente ella es una persona generosa.
   - Ahora ella está generosa.

   Why is it different/Why do we say it differently?

7. Explain to a kid who doesn't know any Spanish (show visual aid for each question):
   - how you make a word plural [ex.: la chica, el chico, la casa, el gato]
   - how verbs work [ex.: comer, Yo como… ]
   - how you make a question [ex.: Ella es alta.]
   - how you make a negative sentence [ex.: Ella es alta.]
8. Explain the difference between ser an estar to someone who doesn't know any Spanish.

# APPENDIX I

## SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. According to you, which jigsaw task, written or oral, was harder for you?
2. Did you love the process of learning? Did you learn the differences between ser and estar?
3. Which language should be used while teaching a foreign language? If you were the teacher, which language would you prefer to use? Would codeswitch between the languages? When would you use your L1?
4. While teaching English, which language was your English teacher in primary/ secondary school/ high school/ university using? Under what circumstances was s/he using Turkish? Under what circumstances were you using Turkish? How did they teach grammar?
5. The aim of the study was to investigate the role of L1 as an aid grammar instruction and as a cognitive tool in collaborative writing task. What are your assumptions regarding the results?

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