

The Role Beliefs about Language Use Play in the Social Construction of the EFL Classroom

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Thesis Certification

Certification

I, Michael Rabbidge, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Linguistics, in the Department of Linguistics, Macquarie University, is completely my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. This document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

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1st December, 2016

Abstract

This thesis presents an examination of the beliefs that non-native English speaker teachers had about using the first language (L1) and target language (TL) when teaching English, and how these beliefs influenced the social construction of the language classroom. The central idea for the thesis arose during the author's time as a teacher trainer in South Korea. During this time, it was noticed that despite government mandates supporting an English only approach to English learning, teachers were still reluctant to exclude their L1 completely. To investigate why teachers were resisting government mandates, beliefs were explored via a two-step series of interviews which separated the development of beliefs into discrete stages to reveal the different influences acting on the formation of these beliefs. The stages were divided into initial assumptions about language use, tentative attitudes, and then firmer beliefs. Important influences that acted upon the participants included the language use of their own language teachers, when they attended training courses which espoused L1 exclusion theories, the influence of students in the classroom, as well as institutional influences. Once these beliefs were revealed, they were then linked to the classroom actions of the participants via an analysis of their classroom language use. This analysis employed a theoretical framework which had Basil Bernstein's sociological theories of pedagogic discourse at its core. This framework revealed how teachers' beliefs influenced the recontextualization of teaching materials into the classroom, changing the nature of the original social and power relations from the appropriated discourse with new, virtual-social and power relations of the classroom. It established that participants with strong beliefs about maximizing English exposure often positioned students so that they had less opportunity to assist in the co-construction of the learning environment compared to participants who valued a larger role for the L1.

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Table of Contents

The Role Beliefs about Language Use Play in the Social Construction of the EFL Classroom	1
Table of Contents.....	5
List of Tables	11
List of Figures.....	12
List of Extracts.....	12
Chapter One: Getting Serious, Getting Started	13
1.1 Introduction.....	13
1.2 Getting Serious	13
1.3 Getting Started	14
1.4 Reflexivity and Mutual Shaping	15
1.5 Significance of the Project	16
1.6 Overview of the Thesis	16
Chapter Two: Monolingual Assumptions and Multilingual Realities	19
2.1 Context of the study	19
2.1.1 South Korea: Country, People and Culture	19
2.1.2 Education in South Korea	20
2.1.3 English Language Education in South Korea	21
2.1.4 Language Teacher Education and Development in South Korea.....	22
2.2 The Implications of Generalizations	23
2.2.1 Overarching Theme of the Theories.....	24
2.2.2 Psycholinguistics Theories	25
2.2.3 But are they Applicable?	26
2.2.4 If not Input, then Output?	26
2.2.5 Hegemonic Ideologies.....	26
2.3 The L1 Prevails.....	27
2.3.1 The Social Turn.....	28
2.3.2 The Influence of Sociocultural Theory.....	29
2.4 Multilingual Realities.....	31
2.4.1 Teachers' Use of the L1	32
2.5 Code Switching.....	33
2.5.1 Code Switching in Language Systems	33

2.5.2 Code Switching and Bilingualism	34
2.5.3 Code Switching and Intercultural Competence	34
2.6 How the L1 Functions in the Classroom	34
2.7 Merits of L1 Use	36
2.8 Attitudes to the L1	37
2.8.1 Student Attitudes to L1 and TL use.....	37
2.9 Teacher Beliefs about L1 Use	38
2.9.1 The Hidden Side of Teaching.....	38
2.10 Defining Beliefs and Knowledge	38
2.10.1 The Impact of Beliefs on Practice	42
2.10.2 Relationships between Beliefs and Practices.....	43
2.10.3 Studies on Language Teachers	44
2.11 Studies on Teacher Beliefs about L1 Use.....	45
2.11.1 Sources of Beliefs of Language Use.....	46
2.11.2 Guilt Making	47
2.11.3 Positive and Justified Reasons for L1 Use	48
2.12 The EFL NNEST Context	49
2.12.1 Research on the Language Choices of NNESTs.....	51
2.13 A Gap in the Current Research	54
2.14 Synthesis of Literature Review	56
Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework	58
3.1 Developing a Framework.....	58
3.2 Framework for Classroom Observations Analysis	59
3.2.1 Language as a Social Semiotic System	59
3.2.2 Genre Theory	61
3.2.3 Curriculum Genres	61
3.2.4 Pedagogic Discourse	62
3.2.5 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position	64
3.2.6 Power and Control	64
3.2.7 Classification.....	64
3.2.8 Framing.....	65
3.2.9 Vertical and Horizontal discourses.....	66
3.2.10 Socially Constructing the Classroom	66
3.2.11 A System of Negotiation	67
3.2.12 Additional Elements in the Framework.....	67

3.3 Framework for Interview Analysis.....	68
3.3.1 The influence of Reflexivity on Interview Data	70
3.4 Summary of Theoretical Framework.....	71
Chapter Four: Research Design	73
4.1 Research Methods on Teacher Language Choices and Teacher Beliefs	73
4.1.1 Referencing Actions	73
4.1.2 Inherent Flexibility	73
4.1.3 Combinations in Use	74
4.2 The Current Research Design	75
4.3 Case Study Research	76
4.3.1 A Multiple or Collective Case Study Approach	76
4.3.2 Literal Replication.....	77
4.3.3 Triangulation.....	77
4.3.4 Issues within Case Study Methodology	78
4.4 Researcher Role	79
4.4.1 Developing Relationships	80
4.4.2 Outsider-Insider Status	80
4.5 The Participants and Site Selection	81
4.5.1 Teacher Profiles	83
4.6 Student Participants	83
4.7 Data Collection Methods.....	84
4.7.1 The Role of Phenomenology	84
4.7.2 The Phenomenological Interview Series	85
4.7.3 The Non-Participant Observations	86
4.8 Summary of Data Collection Methods	88
4.9 Protection of Participants	89
4.10 Data Coding and Analysis.....	89
4.10.1 The Classroom Observation Transcripts	90
4.10.2 Interview Data Analysis	91
4.10.3 The Role of Identity in the Interviews	92
4.10.4 Parameters of Sensitivity	93
4.11 Study Reliability and Validity	94
4.12 Limitations of the Proposed Study	96
4.13 Summary of the Research Design	97

Chapter Five: Tracing the formation of assumptions, attitudes, and beliefs about L1 and TL use in the classroom.....	98
5.1 Presenting the Teacher Profiles	98
5.2 Teacher 1: The More English used by the Teacher, the Better	98
5.2.1 Contextualization of Interviews.	99
5.2.2 Personal English Language Learning History.	99
5.2.3 Current Teaching Context.	103
5.2.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean	108
5.3 Teacher 2: Language is Communication	109
5.3.1 Contextualization of Interviews.	109
5.3.2 Personal English Language Learning History.	110
5.3.3 Current Teaching Context	115
5.3.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean	119
5.4 Teacher 3: Exposure is as Important as Motivation	120
5.4.1 Contextualization of Interviews	121
5.4.2 Personal English Language Learning History	121
5.4.3 Current Teaching Context	124
5.4.4 Stated beliefs about using English and Korean	128
5.5 Teacher 4: Korean is Important for Learning English	129
5.5.1 Contextualization of Interviews	129
5.5.2 Personal English Language Learning History.	129
5.5.3 Current Teaching Context	136
5.5.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean	139
5.6 Teacher 5: English Allows Distance	140
5.6.1 Contextualization of Interviews	141
5.6.2 Personal English Language Learning History	141
5.6.3 Current Teaching Context	146
5.6.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean	151
5.7 The Story of these Teachers	152
Chapter Six: The Role of Classroom Language in the Social Construction of the Classroom	153
6.1 Analysis of Language Choices	153
6.2 Curriculum Genres	153
6.3 Prevalence of IRF sequences.....	155
6.4 Mood Choices	156
6.5 Teachers' Korean Strengthening the Framing, Weakening Classification	157

6.5.1 Extract 1-Opening the Class Phase.....	159
6.5.2 Extract 2-Language Learning Phase.....	161
6.5.3 Extract 3 Language Learning Phase	164
6.5.4 Extract 4-Language Learning Phase.....	169
6.6 Teachers' Korean Strengthening Framing and Classification	171
6.6.1 Extract 5-Vocabualry Phase	171
6.6.2 Extract 6-Class Objectives Phase	172
6.7 Teachers' Korean Weakening Classification and Framing (Vertical Discourse).....	174
6.7.1 Extract 7-Opening the Class Phase.....	174
6.8 The Effect of English on the Framing and Classification of the Curriculum Genres.....	176
6.8.1 Extract 8-Opening the Class Phase.....	177
6.8.2 Extract 9-Language Learning Phase.....	179
6.9 Consistency between Beliefs and Actions.....	183
6.9.1 Teacher 1.....	184
6.9.2 Teacher 2.....	184
6.9.3 Teacher 3.....	184
6.9.4 Teacher 4.....	185
6.9.5 Teacher 5.....	185
6.10 Their Story Continued.....	185
6.11 Summary of the Analysis of Language Choices.....	186
Chapter Seven: The Influence of Beliefs on the Social Construction of the Classroom	187
7.1 Revisiting the Research Questions	187
7.2 Influences on the Formation of NNESTs Assumptions, Attitudes, and Beliefs about L1 and TL use in the Classroom	187
7.2.1 Tracking the Origins of Teachers' Beliefs about Language use in their Classes	187
7.3 Primary Influences Acting on the Formation of Initial Assumptions	187
7.3.1 Traditional Language Teachers' Language Use (TLT)	188
7.3.2 Alternative Language Learning Experiences (ALL)	188
7.3.3 Enjoyment of Classes	189
7.3.4 Teacher Training Programs	189
7.3.5 The Importance of Primary Influences	190
7.4 Secondary Influences Acting in the Formation of Tentative Attitudes.....	191
7.4.1 Teacher Training Programs	191
7.4.2 Teaching Mentors	192
7.4.3 Role of Language Teacher Identity	193

7.4.4 Students.....	195
7.4.5 School Related Contextual Factors	196
7.4.6 The Role of Secondary Influences	197
7.5 The Beliefs about English and Korean as Languages of Instruction in Korean Elementary School English classrooms.....	198
7.5.1 Firmer Beliefs	198
7.5.2 Beliefs about Exposure to English	201
7.5.3 Beliefs about the Role of Korean	201
7.6 How Beliefs about L1 or TL use Affect the Social Construction of the Classroom	202
7.6.1 Factors Affecting Pedagogic Discourse	202
May 7.6.2 The Role of Korean and English in the Pedagogic Discourse: Classification	203
7.6.3 The Role of Korean and English in the Pedagogic Discourse: Framing.....	204
7.7 Summary of the Effects of Different Languages in the Classroom	205
7.7.1 Recontextualization.....	205
7.7.2 The Effects of Maximizing English Exposure.....	206
7.7.3 The Learned Need for Control	207
7.7.4 The Effects of Valuing the L1	208
7.7.5 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position	208
7.8 Punctuating Social Spaces.....	209
7.8.1 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position A	210
7.8.2 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position B.....	211
7.9 Patterns of Practice	211
7.9.1 Positions of Alienation, Detachment and Estrangement.....	212
7.9.2 Hidden Issues Revealed	212
Chapter Eight: Conclusion	214
8.1 Overall implications.....	214
8.2 Implications for Teacher Training.....	214
8.3 Implications for Administrators/ Policy Makers in Korea and Beyond	216
8.4 Implications for Future Research on Teachers Beliefs	217
8.5 Limitations of Study	217
8.6 Personal Implications as a Researcher	218
8.7 Conclusion	218
References	220
Appendix	239
Appendix A: Teacher 1, Interview 1	239

Appendix A.1: Teacher 1 Interview 2	239
Appendix B: Teacher 2 Interview 1	239
Appendix B.1: Teacher 2 Interview 2	240
Appendix C: Teacher 3 Interview 1	240
Appendix C.1: Teacher 3 Interview 2	240
Appendix D: Teacher 4 Interview 1	240
Appendix D.1: Teacher 4 Interview 2	241
Appendix E: Teacher 5 Interview 1	241
Appendix E.1: Teacher 5 Interview 2	241
Appendix A.2: Teacher 1 Observation 1	241
Appendix A.3: Teacher 1 Observation 2	243
Appendix B.2: Teacher 2 Observation 1	244
Appendix B.3: Teacher 2 Observation 2	246
Appendix C.2: Teacher 3 Observation 1	247
Appendix C.3: Teacher 3 Observation 2	251
Appendix D.2: Teacher 4 Observation 1	252
Appendix D.3: Teacher 4 Observation 2	252
Appendix E.2: Teacher 5 Observation 1	253
Appendix E.3: Teacher 5 Observation 2	254
Appendix F: Consent forms	258

List of Tables

Table 1. Necessary L1 Use	36
Table 2. Unnecessary L1 Use	36
Table 3 Biographical Information of Participants	83
Table 4 Teacher 1's Beliefs about TL and L1 use.....	109
Table 5 Teacher 2's Beliefs about TL and L1 use.....	120
Table 6 Teacher 3's Beliefs about TL and L1 use.....	128
Table 7 Teacher 4's Beliefs about TL and L1 use.....	140
Table 8 Teacher 5's Beliefs about TL and L1 use.....	151
Table 9 Phases Korean was Spoken by Teachers	155
Table 10 Korean used in Initiation, Feedback and non-IRF sequences.....	156
Table 11 Grammatical Mood Choices used in Interactions.....	157
Table 12. Realizing Discursive Rules without the L1	177
Table 13 The Influences and Beliefs about Using English and Korean in the English Language Classroom.....	200

Table 14. Ideal Pedagogic Subject Positions	209
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List of Figures

Figure 1. Martin & Mattisessen's stratified theory of context in SFL	60
Figure 2. Embedded stages of curriculum genres	62
Figure 3. Development of beliefs.....	69
Figure 4. Possible phases within observed curriculum genres	154
Figure 5. Elements acting in pedagogic discourse	205

List of Extracts

Extract 1. Teacher 1-Observation 2	161
Extract 2. Teacher 5-Observation 1	164
Extract 3. Teacher 4-Observation 1	168
Extract 4. Teacher 1-Observation 2	170
Extract 5. Teacher 2-Observation 1	172
Extract 6. Teacher 2-Observation 1	172
Extract 7. Teacher 3-Observation 2	173
Extract 8. Teacher 4-Observation 2	176
Extract 9. Teacher 1-Observation 1	179
Extract 10. Teacher 5-Observation 1	183

Chapter One: Getting Serious, Getting Started

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the context from which this PhD project emerged. Starting with a discussion of my teaching career and how this influenced a series of decisions to approach this topic, it then moves to the broader contextual issues which were relevant to the study, including a look at the South Korean English education context, and criticisms of theories of language learning which have influenced the various course corrections that the South Korean government has taken on matters of English education.

1.2 Getting Serious

This journey began in earnest in South Korea about seven years ago, when, spurred on by the birth of my first child, I decided to “get serious” about English teaching. I spent two years studying an MA in TESOL (as a part-time student), while also working on a government-funded teacher training program. This program was an initiation established by the administration at the time that had the aim of improving the English language competency of South Korean English teachers so that they could successfully implement an English-only approach to English teaching in South Korea. At the time I was not as cognizant of the problems South Korean teachers faced when it came to teaching English through English (TETE). By the time my MA was complete I had become much more aware of the myriad of issues that the trainees on our program faced, and even more aware of how deficient our program was in preparing them for this teaching initiative.

One of the classes I taught was called Classroom English, which had the aim of improving the trainees’ ability to use English exclusively in their classrooms. It was not long before I realized that, despite the trainees’ eagerness to learn new language that they could use in their own teaching contexts, very few of them actually believed that it was possible to teach English without the use of their mother tongue. Often they would cite students’ English language competency as the main reason for this, and a sense of futility started to encroach upon my teaching of this class; there seemed to be nothing that I said or did that could convince them an English-only approach was vital in improving their students’ language

competency.

My reaction to the trainees' malaise in regards to an English-only approach was to focus my MA thesis on how trainees used Korean and English in their actual classrooms. I wanted to discover more from their real-life experiences so that I could improve my own classes, and in turn assist them in improving their own teaching. That thesis became one of the most valuable learning experiences of my career to date. It opened my eyes to more than the accepted norms of language teaching, and made me far more sympathetic to the plight of the trainee teachers. The readings that formed the basis of the literature review for the thesis revealed the complex nature of the initiative that the Korean government was implementing, including the wealth of research that had gone into supporting and opposing such an initiative. Upon reflection of this time, and as a reaction to the readings involved with the MA thesis, I now come to see myself as merely acting as a tool for a set of entrenched monolingual principles that devalued non-native speaker opinions on the teaching of English. I developed a more critical approach to certain theories of language acquisition, which in turn led to reflection of my own role within the government sponsored program that I was teaching on. This reflection proved to be another valuable turning point in my teaching career, as it led me to believe that there was more to uncover in regards to the topic of my MA thesis.

It also gave me the realization that despite what the trainees themselves said, each of the teachers were unique, with beliefs and practices that differentiated their classrooms from each other. The findings of my MA thesis led to more questions about this context, and a desire to further explore the world of these teachers to ascertain to a deeper degree why these teachers had a range of similarities and differences in their beliefs and actions about teaching.

1.3 Getting Started

The original aim of my PhD project was to focus on teacher beliefs about using their first language (L1) or the target language (TL), in this case Korean and English respectively. This led to a greater appreciation for the unseen, personal side of teaching, which is not often articulated by teachers in the office or staff room.

Under the guidance of my supervisor, the scope of the project grew to include how teacher beliefs about TL or L1 use affected the social reality of the classes in which they taught,

based on the teachings of Basil Bernstein, and which are discussed further in the theoretical framework section. The combination of tracking the beliefs teachers have about language use, with how these beliefs affected the social reality of their classrooms, led to a deeper description of the effects of L1 exclusion policies than I could have foreseen. It has revealed implications about teaching that I previously failed to see through both a lack of imagination as well as ability to reason critically. It has also made tangible the importance of reflecting upon teaching practice, and has led to a greater appreciation and understanding of my own teaching practices and beliefs. It is safe to say that I am well on my way to getting much more “serious” about teaching.

1.4 Reflexivity and Mutual Shaping

The teaching context in South Korea is one that is slowly being explored and described by researchers both within South Korea, as well as far from the peninsula itself. My career as an English language educator has been heavily influenced by my time on the South Korean peninsula, and the opportunities that have been afforded me cannot be forgotten. This PhD is an attempt to better understand the context that I found myself in at the time. It is also an attempt to further explore the complexities of English language education in South Korea beyond those that have come before it. Additionally, it is a process of reflection which has allowed me to grow in understanding about the nature of language teaching as well as what it means to call myself an English language teacher.

‘if men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences’ (Thomas & Thomas, 1928, p. 572).

The Thomas theorem implies that once a research project has been conceived of, then the researcher and participants involved are bound to behaviors that will result in the fulfilment of said research project. If this is true, then it is important for the researcher to address the inherent biases that will accompany the process of completing the project. In other words, if a research project is a self-fulfilling prophecy, then it is the duty of the researcher to ensure that all actions and contextual features influencing the project are articulated clearly to ensure the integrity of the project. Reflexivity is a response to the imperative of clearly articulating the subjectivities interlocking the interviewer, participants, methodologies and research focus of any research project.

Adding to this is the mutually shaping nature of articulating reflexivity (Mann, 2016). The constructivist position perceives that the research project, and all the methods, theories or ideas involved, influence the articulation of the research project, and this articulation in turn acts to influence the very project that it is describing. This is important as it acknowledges and reveals the impact that the research project has on the researcher: their identity, understanding of phenomena as well as beliefs related to the project. This serves to distinguish reflexivity from reflection, as reflection is often defined as thinking about a certain event, whereas reflexivity is a continuing self-awareness relating to the research project itself. Reflexivity, mutual shaping and social constructivist theories are concepts that have come to guide me throughout the process of constructing this PhD thesis. The understanding of these concepts has influenced both my actions as a researcher and as a teacher, as well as the writing of this thesis. Throughout the thesis these will be mentioned as proof of the significance they have come to have within my mind and my comprehension of the teaching and learning contexts I find myself in.

1.5 Significance of the Project

The significance of this project is twofold. First, the framework developed within this project offers new and innovative insights into the role that an L1 or a TL has in the EFL classroom. By identifying the influences that act in the development of beliefs about TL or L1 use, and then aligning these beliefs with a theory of pedagogic discourse that accounts for how these beliefs can influence socialization processes in the classroom, a new line of enquiry has been developed into evaluating the role of these different languages in the classroom. This is the second significant aspect, because new lines of enquiry are essential in pushing the boundaries of understanding and challenging the status quo of any discipline. For any academic discipline to grow and stay relevant, it must embrace challenges that increase comprehension of the subject it is concerned with.

1.6 Overview of the Thesis

The first chapter of the thesis grounds the study in the reality of both myself and the physical setting of the project. It discusses the reflexive elements and mutually shaping nature of interaction between myself and the project in an attempt to set a tone of the larger themes to come in the project. It finishes by outlining the significance of the project in relation to the

current body of knowledge on the use of TL and L1 in SLA.

This is followed by a review of the current literature on L1 and TL use. The review explains the nature of the research that was responsible for early theories on L1 and TL use, and then proceeds to outline more current studies that embrace larger contextual issues as well as classroom related issues. The review then switches focus briefly to the current body of knowledge on teacher beliefs, and incorporates views from mainstream educational research as well as that of sociolinguistic perspectives. It ends by addressing the direction of the project, and exploring the gap that it intends to fill in the current literature.

The third chapter introduces the theoretical framework that shapes the project, and explains the relatively complicated and novel approach to investigating the beliefs behind language use. It also explains the framework that analyses how beliefs impact the social construction of the classroom.

The fourth chapter analyses the methods employed to gather and analyze the data. It first reviews current trends in research methods used in qualitative research and then justifies the choices made for this current project. An important aspect of this chapter is the writing out of my perspectives on the topics involved. This was done to add to the transparency of the overall process and to acknowledge the social constructivist approach that underlies the project as a whole.

The next chapter presents profiles of the teacher participants in the study. Each profile contextualizes the participant's situation before revealing the participant's personal language learning history as well as their current teaching context. These accounts present extracts from the interviews rather than cut outs of the participants' words in order to acknowledge the co-construction that took place in the interview interactions. This approach was chosen as it allowed for the incorporation of a reflexive analysis of the extracts, which again continues the social constructivist theme. Each profile finishes with a summary of the participants' stated beliefs about L1 and TL use in the classroom.

Chapter six provides an analysis of the classroom interactions. The analysis began by first describing the curriculum genres observed, then moved on to a more fine-grained analysis of the language spoken during the interactions in the observations. The analysis presents the

application of Bernstein's theories of power and control to the EFL classroom context, something which has not been attempted before in Korean English classrooms.

Chapter seven discusses the findings in both chapters five and six in order to better explain the link between the participant's beliefs and the role they play in the social construction of the classroom. This chapter connected the findings in this study to the larger theories about SLA as covered in chapter two.

Chapter Two: Monolingual Assumptions and Multilingual Realities

In foreign language learning environments such as South Korea, the use of target language (TL) only pedagogy has become the preferred method for teaching languages such as English. This preference arose as a reaction to more traditional approaches that limited or eliminated the use of the TL in the language classroom. Government initiated policies in EFL environments such as South Korea have attempted to prohibit the use of L1 in order to increase the exposure of the TL in the classrooms and hence improve the communicative ability of the learners in such contexts (Nunan, 2003). These government policies are grounded in second language acquisition (SLA) theories. The initial part of this chapter provide context of the study, namely South Korea, explore theories and motivations behind the monolingual assumption in second language teaching (Hall & Cook, 2012), and then move on to a review of support for L1 use in the classroom that has risen to prominence in language teaching in the last thirty years.

2.1 Context of the study

This section will discuss the larger context that the study was set in. It will first provide information about South Korea as a country, its people and culture. It will then discuss the education system and the rise of English language education on the peninsula. Finally, it will cover English teacher education and development.

2.1.1 South Korea: Country, People and Culture

Korea as a country has a rich and colorful culture that was mostly ignored by the west until relatively recently (Seth, 2016). Based on the Confucius ideals that are still evident in both the north and south today, the people, culture and language have survived imperialism at the hands of the Japanese, physical division of the peninsula itself, as well as modern political turmoil which more often than not casts the peninsula as the most dangerous places in the world. Since being separated from the north in 1945, South Korea has gone from being a war-torn state to a world leader both economically and politically. The economic and social modernization of South Korea has been well documented. At the core of this success is the fundamental belief in the transforming power of education. Respect for education and for

teachers are based on the persistence of the Confucian values that are seen as vital to the continued development of the country. Confucianism advocates the inclusion of dialogue, thinking, reflection and memorization as part its educational philosophy. Rote-learning, competition, strict gender roles, filial piety and generally rigid social structures are all influential within Korean society (Taie, 2015). These influences are also at play within Korean educational settings as well.

Now, well into the twenty-first century, South Korea is a major global player. Its corporations dominate technological industries, and its pop-culture, via the “Korean-wave” continue to draw in new audiences. In addition to this is how South Korea has opened its doors to the world. Once seen as a hermit state, since holding the 1988 Olympic games in Seoul, its capital city, South Korea has slowly but surely embraced the outside world. The impact that globalization has had on South Korea has been staggering, and is felt at all levels of its society (Seth, 2002; Yim, 2007), but it has been especially important in terms of its effect on the education in South Korea.

2.1.2 Education in South Korea

Globalization, and the improvement of technologies that it brings, has caused several significant changes to the education system in South Korea. As Yim states, education is ‘constructed as part of the economic and political structures of a society’ (2007, p. 38), and this holds true for South Korea, where changes in its economic prowess, as well as changes to its political philosophies, have seen a constant stream of alterations to national curriculums since 1945. In particular, the embracing of neoliberal tendencies has seen the corporatization of both the country as well as a commodification of the individual (Byean, 2015). This in turn has led to the marketization of education, which has led to intensified competition at all levels of the education system, and has placed the burden of self-development on individuals within the system. The most visible aspect of this is the use of standardized tests. This change first occurred in the 1990s, and then was reintroduced during the Lee regime (2008-2012). His School Liberalization Plan, or Hakgyo Jayulhwa in Korean, and 300 Project for Diversified High Schools plan (Gogyodayanghwa 330 Project) (Byean, 2015) led to educational policies which privatized national universities, expanded the number of elite high schools, deregulated entrance in to colleges and elite schools, and strengthened the ability to track the

performances of students math and English scores. The increased importance of English in the curriculum was seen by many as a reaction to the middle classes distrust of public school systems.

2.1.3 English Language Education in South Korea

English's rapid rise to its place of prominence in South Korea has a relatively short history in comparison to the general history of Korea. It was first taught in the public school system as a regular subject in 1945 (Jung & Norton, 2002), and recognized officially as the first foreign language in Korea in the second curriculum (1963-1974). Three reasons for this rise include government policies, social and economic changes, and the influence of teaching methods that espouse communicative approaches (Borg, 2003; Park, 2009). The Asian financial crisis in 1997 spurred many to believe that English was a necessary vehicle in the revitalization of South Korea's global competitiveness. The belief in the power of English as tool to lift not only the country but the individual out of poverty has served to empower neoliberal philosophies within Korean society. The fervent attitude towards embracing English has seen calls for English to be embraced as an official language, leading to much debate over the role English is actually playing.

A succession of government policies has seen the age at which children officially learn English in South Korea from the state lower to nine years of age. However, unofficially, it is normal for children from more affluent families to start learning English from the age of two or three. Despite government initiatives to improve the quality of English education within South Korean public schools, parents, or more specifically, Korean 'soccer moms' (Park, 2009, p. 51), middle aged, well-educated suburban women with school-aged children, in increasing numbers are sending their children abroad or paying fees of up to 1000 dollars a month to ensure that their children receive any advantage they can in terms of English education. In fact, it is estimated that up to three quarters of students in South Korea are receiving some kind of private English education (S. W. Kim & Lee, 2010). Some see this as proof of a lack of confidence that most South Koreans have in the public English education system (Moodie & Nam, 2016).

Notwithstanding this lack of faith in the system, education has always been seen as a means of achieving status and power in South Korea. Despite the breakdown of the official

traditional class system in South Korea (Park, 2009), unofficially, the hierarchical structure of power relations in South Korean society is still prevalent (Song, 2011). It is this unacknowledged hierarchical structure driving parents to pay more and more for English, as in modern South Korea knowledge of English is ‘one of the mechanisms of maintaining and sustaining inequality as it is already structured in South Korea’ (Song, 2011, pp. 42-43). Upward mobility and economic prosperity is the end goal of learning a language like English, and is the goal of many South Korean parents who impose English education on their children (Seth, 2002).

2.1.4 Language Teacher Education and Development in South Korea

In an attempt to make the public education sector more competitive and relevant, the Korean government embraced western ideologies about language teaching, most notably the communicative language teaching approach, known better as CLT, viewing this approach as more effective at improving student language proficiency (D. Li, 1998). CLT’s global popularity spurred the government to push for an emphasis on students’ oral communicative skills, leading to changes at the national level of how students were assessed (Park, 2009; Seth, 2002; Song, 2011). The implementation of CLT ensued despite growing resistance to the approach by teachers. In addition to this were concerns about the incompatibility between the principal ideologies and pedagogical practices of CLT, and those of the EFL context in South Korea (Hu & McKay, 2012).

The Korean government built upon the ideals of the CLT approach to create the government policy titled TETE, or teaching English through English, despite the documented resistance to the implementation of CLT.

The introduction of English education to the elementary school curriculum in 1997 saw English being taught as a regular subject to third grade students and up. To help prepare for this, the MOE instigated a series of teacher development programs that aimed to ready teacher. The overall aims of these programs were to raise the English language proficiencies of current teachers. Additionally, the Teacher Employment Test provided a pathway for all graduates to become teachers (Yim, 2007). This saw universities react by allocating more resources to improving the English capabilities of all graduating students in order to remain

competitive. Initiatives saw graduates having to write their thesis in English no matter what subject they study, having to attain pre-specified levels of English before they can graduate, as well as the employment of native speakers of English to teach English.

Surveys of teachers implementing the TETE policy (S. Y. Kim, 2002, 2008) have revealed high levels of anxiety for teachers having to implement the policy, especially older teachers. Resistance to communicative teaching methods such as TETE was often related to such factors as exam washback, large class sizes, and socialization processes between experienced and less experienced teachers (J.C Richards & Pennington, 1998; Urmston & Pennington, 2008). Nevertheless, these surveys also revealed that most teachers believed the TETE policy would benefit the majority of students. The push for English education continues to build in South Korea, where teachers continue to be trained to teach only in the target language. However, despite this training, studies still show that not all teachers abide by the TETE approach (Kang, 2008, 2013; Liu, Gil-Soon, Baek, & Han, 2004; Rabbidge & Chappell, 2014). There are still questions as to what is the most effective way to teach English in South Korea, as are there questions about the value of government policies which strive to have all citizens able to speak English, despite the fact that the country has done considerably well for itself without the need for speaking English (Song, 2011).

2.2 The Implications of Generalizations

English as foreign language teaching (EFL) contexts are typically characterized as those in which English language learners study English almost exclusively in the classroom. They differ from English as second language (ESL) contexts in that learners in ESL contexts also have considerable interaction in English within the community as well. English learners in EFL contexts have significantly less exposure to, and interaction in, English, and therefore are said to need language lessons which optimize exposure to English. The above generalizations of EFL and ESL contexts do nothing to account for the variations found in different cities and different countries around the world where English is being learned. Different contexts vary in terms of teacher/student ratios, hours of class time a week, physical settings including available resources such as technology and teaching materials, not to mention the adopted teaching philosophies and practices that influence the actions of teachers

in these contexts (Block, 2003). The overreliance on generalizations is a key failing of many policy makers. This failing is evident in the way many policy makers in countries where English is a foreign language have adopted second language acquisition theories that originated in ESL contexts. Policy decisions on the role a first language can play in second language learning are just one example of this failure to critically evaluate the appropriateness of a given teaching theory. Over the last decade or so, EFL countries, including but not limited to South Korea, have established government initiated policies that seek to ban or minimize the role of the L1 in the class in order to maximize exposure to English. These policies are reactions to trends in second language acquisition and learning theories established predominantly in English-speaking countries, or ESL contexts (Hall & Cook, 2012; Mahboob & Lin, 2016; McKay, 2009). The negative value given to the L1 within ESL contexts was assumed to apply to EFL contexts, and little consideration was put into examining the uniqueness of EFL contexts and how second languages might be learned effectively in these contexts.

2.2.1 Overarching Theme of the Theories

What are these theories that are proving to be so influential in EFL contexts such as South Korea? The overarching theme is that the exclusive use of TL is deemed necessary in order to provide a context for learners to communicate in a more meaningful and authentic manner in EFL environments. The more TL input available, the better. Conducting classroom management and organization in the TL is considered a must as it adds to the overall of input of the TL (R. Ellis, 1988).

The belief is centered on the idea that competence in the foreign language is best realized by creating a rich TL environment that uses the TL for not only instruction but also discipline and management (Chaudron, 1988). It is claimed that in ESL classrooms, TL used for these functions is inevitable (R. Ellis, 1988); however, in EFL environments this does not always occur due to teacher beliefs about how the L1 facilitates language-related learning goals within lessons. Other claims focus on how L1 use devalues the input of the TL. Support for monolingual teaching methodologies suggest that a TL only methodology allows for more interaction and negotiation of meaning in the TL (Long, 2000; Pica, 2002), which can allow learners to adopt the language for their own communicative and socio-cultural needs (Lin,

2000).

Central to most discussions on language teaching methods since the inception of the direct method has been the place of the L1 in the communicative classroom, and whether it should be included or not. This question of L1 use was one of the tensions central to the teaching approach known as communicative language teaching, or CLT. Although there is no theoretical support to exclude the L1 from a communicative classroom (Widdowson, 2003), the use of the L1 is seen to undermine one of CLT's fundamental principles: the principle that language can be learned and skills acquired via communicating in the TL (Macdonald, 1993).

2.2.2 Psycholinguistics Theories

Second language acquisition theories cited as support for L1 exclusion language teaching methods and policies include Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985), Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983, 1996) and Swain's the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995). Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985) distinguished between acquisition and learning, with the former being an implicit and unconscious act, while the latter is an explicit and conscious act. It claimed TL learning occurred via a natural order of acquisition based on understanding linguistic items a little bit beyond their current competence ($i+1$). It also required learners to be affectively disposed to accepting the input they comprehend. The input was made comprehensible via simplification of language as well as contextual and extra linguistic clues. Additionally, it made the claim that learner speaking, or output, does not contribute directly to acquisition. The theory has received a number of criticisms involving the nature of comprehension (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Gass, 1988; Smith, 1986) and its necessity for acquisition (White, 1987). Krashen failed to define what type of comprehension processes were required for acquisition, something that Carroll (1999) pointed out as being necessary for any account of the role of input in acquisition. Long's Interaction hypothesis, influenced partly by Krashen's hypothesis, claimed that incidental language acquisition was facilitated by engaging in interpersonal oral interactions, where communication problems arise and are then negotiated. Like Krashen, Long acknowledged that when simplified, input and context can facilitate language acquisition. Both theories have been used to explain the need to avoid L1 use in the classroom based on the idea that students require opportunities to interact and negotiate in the TL in order to facilitate TL acquisition.

2.2.3 But are they Applicable?

Rarely mentioned, however, is the fact that a lot of the research done on these theories took place in laboratory conditions, away from natural classroom contexts, let alone EFL contexts (Krashen, 1985; Long, 1981, 1983). Classroom contexts involve complex sociocultural influences that are not realized in laboratory-like research. In addition to this, most of the observed interactions were between adult native speakers and non-native speakers of English. Classroom interactions often involve a large variety of interactions that have not been accounted for in these studies, including but not limited to: interactions between students who share a common L1, students of differing second language aptitude, as well as the different age groups present in different classroom contexts. These are important considerations when attempting to explain how theories of language acquisition can be used in differing contexts.

2.2.4 If not Input, then Output?

A third strand of research used to support L1 exclusion is derived from Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (COH) (1985, 1995). Swain agreed that input was important during acquisition, and if the input was comprehensible then more attention could be on linguistic forms. However, in contrast to Krashen's earlier hypothesis, Swain placed a great deal of emphasis on the role of output in interaction. Swain's study of French immersion students (1985) suggested that students did not demonstrate native-like productive competence because of limited comprehensible output. In essence, students that were not given adequate time in class to use the target language did not learn to speak the language. Additionally, students needed to be 'pushed' (p. 249) to produce language that more accurately reflected their intended meaning. The being 'pushed' concept was described as the equivalent of the $i + 1$ concept of the comprehensible input. Output forces learners to pay attention to the bottom-up syntactic processing, as opposed to the more semantic top-down processing, of language. Output also allows learners to practice what they already know, helping to automatize discourse and linguistic knowledge (Skehan, 1998). However, criticisms of COH focused on how, or if, output or modified output actually plays a role in TL acquisition (R. Ellis, 2012).

2.2.5 Hegemonic Ideologies

The use of these theories to restrict or ban L1 use is prevalent in EFL contexts throughout

Asia, even though the studies themselves were largely based in ESL contexts or in contexts where the target language was not English. The application of these theories was a result of a fundamental lack of comprehension of the variances existing within EFL contexts. The push for L1 exclusion was part of a larger understanding of how to best teach a second language. Unfortunately, underpinning this push were ‘hegemonic ideologies’ (Mahboob & Lin, 2016, p. 6) based on fallacies in English language teaching, of which monolingualism was a major component (Phillipson, 1992). Minimal efforts have been made to utilize knowledge gathered from bilingual/multilingual contexts (Kachru, 1994), and there has been an over-reliance on research framed within ‘monolingual speaker norms’ (May, 2011, p. 1). This has led to descriptions of learners in terms of deficit, and a tendency to ignore sociolinguistic and cultural influences within EFL contexts (Kachru, 1994; May, 2011). The influence of these theories of second language learning and acquisition were imposed upon EFL contexts via the establishment of teacher training colleges which espoused these methodologies and theories as part of the modern aesthetic of the times (Belz, 2003). The psycholinguistic perspective of how SLA occurs dominated discussions on how to best teach in EFL contexts and was reflective of attitudes to SLA which held the power and control at the time (Kachru, 1994).

The influence of the predominantly psycholinguistic perspectives on SLA have had profound influences on government policies in EFL contexts such as China, Japan, and South Korea. The rise of globalization and emerging ideological, sociocultural and educational trends have impacted the decision-making processes in these countries (Hu & McKay, 2012), leading to an influx of native English speakers to teach English in both formal and informal teaching situations. This influx has coincided with policies which restrict or outright ban the first language in English classrooms. This situation still persists today in many countries despite the growing interest in sociolinguistic theories of SLA. The limited progress made by sociolinguistics in these countries was due in part to the disciplines of SLA that ‘construct, validate, contain and exclude particular forms of knowledge’ (May, 2011, p. 236) into academic and disciplinary hierarchies which inherently favored some forms of knowledge over others.

2.3 The L1 Prevails

Despite the dominance of psycholinguistics in SLA, and the agreed upon preference for

monolingual approaches to language teaching from SLA textbooks (Jenkins, 2006) and English teaching textbook publishers, the use of the L1 in EFL environments still prevails (Cook, 2008).

Research into L1 use draws upon a range of different perspectives. This research includes theories of cognition and learning, concepts of power and classroom management, the search for an optimal own language use, as well as the roles of teacher and student beliefs about L1 use in TL learning.

In the last decade, re-conceptualizations of bi- and multi-lingual competencies and cognitions have led to an increased belief of the positive role that the L1 can have in the second language classroom. While still acknowledging that learners require a significant amount of exposure to and practice of the TL, now psycholinguistic and socio-cultural theories brought together by a sociolinguistic view of a bilingual classroom support a principled approach to L1 inclusion (V. Cook, 2002; Edstrom, 2006; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

2.3.1 The Social Turn

A social turn (Block, 2003; Hall & Cook, 2012) within applied linguistics now acknowledges the complexity, diversity, difference and uncertainty within language learning. Coupled with this social turn, globalization and the growing number of non-native speakers of English have led researchers to reevaluate the importance of bilingual and multilingual language use within the classroom. The acknowledgement of the identity of the learner and the role identity plays in language learning has led researchers to reexamine code switching practices of non-native speaker teachers of English (NNESTs). Language learners are now increasingly viewed as multiple language users (Belz, 2003).

Sociolinguistically, the prohibition of L1 use in the language classroom is the equivalent of banning a learner's particular identity. Sociolinguistics asserts that the language, dialect or register that a learner uses represents unique features of a learner's identity (Belz, 2003). The monolingual bias, based on 'modernist aesthetics' (Belz, 2003, p. 212), decries the learner as a 'deficient communicator' that needs the 'idealized native speaker'. This deficient communicator view was reflected in the previously mentioned SLA theories of Krashen, Long and Swain. In these studies, interaction typically occurred between native speakers and non-native speakers, in which the native speaker was the idealized standard. Native speaker

models led to the establishment of theoretical concepts such as interlanguage and fossilization (Selinker, 1992). These concepts were based on assumptions that language learners are unable to reach native-like status, which was the assumed goal of language learning (Mahboob, 2010). The unquestioned status of the native speaker as the ideal within some of the fundamental concepts of SLA contributed to an investigative mindset that promoted the idealized native speaker to a position of authority over the stereotyped non-native, who was viewed as having limited communicative competence (Firth & Wagner, 1997). However, these theoretical mindsets and narratives on the relationship between native speakers and non-native speakers were merely historically situated constructs subject to the influence of socio-cultural factors such as power relationships, institutional policies, economic interests as well as individualized life histories and experiences (Thorne, 2000).

2.3.2 The Influence of Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory (SCT) is grounded in the perspective that the individual is not separated from social context (Vygotsky, 1978). It argues that an individual's knowledge is formed from the social context in which they live, making the individual a fundamentally social being (Lantolf, 2006). It states that cultural artifacts mediate human mental functioning. Language use is a primary means of mediation as language is a cultural artifact. By communicating with another, the individual internalizes knowledge formed in the interaction. Language is an important part of interaction which leads to the formulation of internalized knowledge. In second language learning, sociocultural theory argues that a common L1 functions as a psychological tool (Vygotsky, 1978) for learning. The L1 regulates cognitive processes, and is used by learners to mediate TL learning, especially new TL learners who have insufficient TL to mediate their cognitive activity.

A number of studies have investigated how the L1 assists in TL learning. In a series of ongoing studies with learners of French, Swain described how TL learners drove linguistic development forward by discussing features of the TL in the L1 (Swain, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Swain (2000) presented an analysis of dialogues between students in different situations who were constructing knowledge of the second language through the first language. Building upon the concept of output to include its function as a socially-constructed cognitive tool, the analysis showed how the dialogues served second language

learning by mediating their own construction and the construction of knowledge. The external speech, in both first and second languages, facilitated the internalization of process and knowledge. Although these dialogues were taken from non-classroom contexts and therefore may not be truly representative of all of the influences within a classroom, the dialogues still highlighted how language learning could occur in collaborative dialogue, and links to sociocultural theory by showing that internal mental activity originates in external dialogic activity (Swain, 2000).

Other EFL and immersion learning contexts have also shown that the L1 provides learners with cognitive support. Based on audio recordings of the collaborative talk between students completing a writing task during a Spanish lesson, Anton and Dicamilla (1999) discussed how the L1 was found to have a critical function in students' attempts to mutually define a variety of elements within the writing task. This study also put forward evidence for the use of the L1 for the purpose of externalizing inner speech in order to regulate mental activity. Brooks and Donato's (1994) experimental study analyzed the speech data from secondary level learners of Spanish. It looked at how speaking between participants doing a gap fill activity collaboratively influenced and built a shared social reality. The study demonstrated how the students' metatalk, in their L1, promoted verbal interaction about the task and the language needed for the task, as well as providing the participants an opportunity to establish intersubjectivity with each other about the task they were doing. Vygotskian theory explains this metatalk as metacognition out loud. Metacognition is semiotically constructed through language, the L1 metatalk allowed the participants to establish control of the discourse and the task they were doing by explicitly discussing their linguistic tools used in its construction (Brooks & Donato, 1994). As Brooks and Donato wrote, although not condoning unnecessary L1 use, they did describe the use of the L1 as a normal psycholinguistic process that facilitated TL learning, and that verbal thinking mediated a learner's relationship with the new language and the learners L1. L1 use assists TL learning, enlists and maintains interest in tasks, and assists in developing strategies for accessing higher level tasks and activities (Anton & Dicamilla, 1999; Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

The L1 allows the creation of 'a social and cognitive space' (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003), providing learners with assistance throughout language learning tasks. L1 use also allows lower level-learners to maintain interaction with more proficient learners and possibly access

their higher-level knowledge (Thoms, Jianling, & Szustak, 2005). These ideas parallel code switching findings (Macaro, 2006), which describe the L1 as alleviating the cognitive load of the learner and allowing communication to continue. However, the sociocultural perspective suggests that learners who are interacting with more expert users are in fact working within their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). The use of L1 in group work and class activities is deemed an important advantage within the sociocultural framework and stands in opposition to a TL only approach to second and foreign language learning.

Like previously mentioned psycholinguistic research into SLA, the findings from this body of research were based around experimental conditions which isolated learners from natural learning contexts. However, in contrast to the previously mentioned research limitations within psycholinguistics, sociocultural SLA research more openly embraces the role of context in second language acquisition by embracing the context of collaboration as well as the preexisting cognitive tools of the participants.

A multi-competent language learner approach ascertains that knowledge brought to the classroom by the learner in the form of prior language knowledge is a necessary part of the learner's identity which is to be exploited in the learning of the TL (Belz, 2003). Acknowledging multiple language use in the classroom not only mirrors multi-lingual realities in the world, but aids in the development of both intercultural competencies and critical awareness of others and of one's self. In turn, this allows for more authentic language use in the classroom, an often stated goal of modern second language teaching approaches (Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993).

2.4 Multilingual Realities

There are now calls for the language classroom to be re-designated as a multilingual community in which native speaker norms are no longer imposed on multilingual users of language, and where teachers need to acknowledge learners as developing bilinguals or multilingual language users. Teachers need to allow learners to use their extensive L1 knowledge to complement their TL knowledge in the classroom (V. Cook, 2005). Acknowledging a multi-competence view of second language acquisition, which is defined as two or more languages in one mind, allows learners to free themselves of the standards imposed upon them by native speakers as well as allowing them access to the cognitive tools

of their L1 in order to better acquire the TL. There is a real need for language classrooms to more closely resemble speech communities (Blyth, 1995), where teachers need to move away from the psycholinguistic view of learners as individual speakers, and instead view learners as members of a social group. As multilingualism, not monolingualism, is the true norm throughout most of the world, foreign language teachers need to ‘make the multilingual speaker the unmarked form, the infinitive of language use, and the monolingual-monocultural speaker a slowly disappearing species or nationalistic myth’(Kramsch, 1998, p. 30). Further support for the re-designation of the language classroom into a multilingual community is found in Edstrom’s (2006) action research study of her own use of the L1 while teaching an TL. Language is a functional entity where successful use of the language in context is the determinant of a speakers’ proficiency (Mahboob, 2010). The English language reflects and construes a variety of cultural perspectives and realities. These realities need to be mirrored in the classroom by NNESTs in order to establish new language learning and teaching methods (Mahboob, 2010)

2.4.1 Teachers’ Use of the L1

Growing support for the use of the L1 in the classroom has led to an increase in the exploration of how the L1 is used by teachers in varying language teaching contexts. Suggestions that deliberately and systematically allow for the use of the student’s first language in the classroom include more effective L1 use

- to develop TL activities, such as code-switching, for later real-life use
- to provide shortcuts for giving instructions and explanations where the cost of the TL is too great
- to create interlinked L1 and TL knowledge in the students' minds
- to carry out learning tasks through collaborative dialogue with other students

(V. Cook, 2001)

These suggestions mirror bilingual teaching strategies that seek to incorporate both the TL and the L1. They also seek to make the use of the L1 more positive for both teachers and students alike.

2.5 Code Switching

Code switching is defined as the discourse between a speaker and interlocutor who share more than one language or dialect (V. Cook, 2005). It represents a naturalistic use of language for multilingual users. Conversational analysis of code switching practices in the classroom suggests that language choices are embedded within the interactions of the language classroom (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005). Language choices are inextricably linked to the evolving sequence and pedagogical focus of the language class, and therefore need to be viewed as just one interactional resource among many used by both teachers and students while participating in the ‘institutionalized business of teaching and learning’ the TL (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005, p. 322).

2.5.1 Code Switching in Language Systems

The interwoven nature of the languages within the mind of the bilingual language user is found in various language systems (Beauvillain & Grainger, 1987; V. Cook, 1994; Locastro, 1987; Obler, 1982). Code switching uses this interwoven language knowledge in speech functions, rules of discourse and syntactic properties (V. Cook, 1996) outside of the classroom, and the denial of such skills in the classroom fails to acknowledge both the realities TL users encounter outside of the classroom, and the native speaker fallacies imposed on second language learners (V. Cook, 2005). However, the debate around code switching involves more than just issues about how languages are learned. Also involved are the issues of learner identity and the symbolic value of languages (Hall & Cook, 2012). Studies from a range of contexts discuss the merits of code switching practices. From Botswana, Arthur (1996) suggested that the switching between the L1 and English created a ‘safe place’ where learners were able to participate more in a lesson as well as engage more critically with the given curriculum. Due to the limited use of English outside the classroom, the teachers and learners in this context used the L1 as a ‘language of complicity’ which allowed them to overcome issues related to interaction in English. In Hong Kong, Lin (1996) called for a ‘balanced academic bilingualism’ (p. 79) in order to create a pragmatic response to the symbolic domination of English in Hong Kong schools. This bilingualism was said to reflect the reality of classroom life in this context as well as to challenge the subordinate roles imposed upon the traditional cultural and educational goals by the dominant goal of learning

English. Similar arguments are found about the role of English in South African contexts where the use of an English-only approach was described as a form of colonialism which limited the identity of non-European Africans by restricting learners L1 use (Katunich, 2006).

2.5.2 Code Switching and Bilingualism

Code switching needs to be viewed as a characteristic of bilingualism rather than a deficiency in the second language, with the goal of second language learning to create bilingual learners (Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009). This is a more appropriate approach to second language learning due to the allowance of sociolinguistic and sociocultural realities that have been ignored by most of the supporters for TL use only. Code switching draws on support from sociolinguistics (Belz, 2003; V. Cook, 2005) as well as sociocultural theory (Anton & Dicamilla, 1999; Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

2.5.3 Code Switching and Intercultural Competence

Studies have also focused on links between identity, own language use and the development of intercultural competence. Fabricio & Santos' (2006) study of Brazilian school children showed how the L1 was used to reflect upon the relationships between English and Portuguese both in and outside of the classroom. Crawford (2004) reported that teachers believed that the L1 was an effective method for cross-cultural comparisons, while other studies discussed how code switching was used to draw learners' attention to cross-cultural differences in how speakers communicate (Elorza, 2008; House, 2009; Stiefel, 2009).

If, as it seems to be from the studies above, the L1–TL connection is in fact an indisputable fact of life (Stern, 1992), then the embracing of it rather than the suppression of the connect is vital, and as Cook stated 'if the learning of the language is to improve the students' minds cognitively, emotionally, or socially, the L2 had better not be insulated from the rest of the mind' (2001, p. 408).

2.6 How the L1 Functions in the Classroom

Studies on the quantity of L1 use in the classroom show large variations in how much is used (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Duff & Polio, 1990), with descriptions of TL use being anywhere from 10% to 100% of language spoken. Copland and Neokleous (2011) described similar variations in the range of L1 use in the Cypriot English teaching context. Factors

affecting the amount of L1 used in classrooms varied, ranging from local policy, level of instruction as well as students proficiency in the TL, lesson contents, objectives of lessons, curriculum and materials used, teachers' pedagogical beliefs based on training and teaching experiences, as well as experience with the target language culture (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). In fact, the only strong conclusion that can be made on functions and reasons for L1 use is that its use seems to be a very subjective and personal matter for most teachers. Teachers themselves often seem unaware of the scope and nature of their L1 use, with studies showing that teachers often underestimate their own use L1 in the class (Edstrom, 2006; Levine, 2003).

Studies that have investigated how L1 is used in foreign language classes have similar findings. A number of categories listed by Duff and Polio (1990) in a qualitative study that used questionnaires and interviews in different language courses offered at the University of California have also been identified in other studies (Macaro, 1997, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002). Although these studies labelled the functions of language differently, L1 usually had the following functions: administrative vocabulary for the classroom, the teaching of grammar, for classroom management, when demonstrating empathy or solidarity in the classroom, to assist in practicing English, for teaching/ translating unknown language, in response to a lack of comprehension and an interactive effect when teachers respond to the students L1 use (Polio & Duff, 1994). Ustumel & Seedhouse (2005) found via conversational analysis that teachers switch languages in response to student hesitations or in order to prompt a similar switch by the students.

Atkinson (1993, pp. 25-38) focused on when it was necessary or not to use the L1 in class when presenting new language in classes of low proficiency learners. The following tables present his ideas on necessary and unnecessary L1 use:

Language function	Explanation
Lead-ins	L1 used to check students have understood the situation
Eliciting language	Getting language from students
Giving instructions	Used when explaining written instructions
Checking comprehension	To see if students understand a word or not

Table 1. Necessary L1 Use

Language function	Explanation
At listening stage	When the assimilation of the meaning of the new language takes place
Drills	Useful in practicing new language
Correction	Teacher should encourage self-correction
Personalization and games	Activities to give intensive practice of TL

Table 2. Unnecessary L1 Use

Other reported reasons for L1 use included time efficiency (Atkinson, 1993; Chambers, 1992) and performing on tasks more effectively (Brooks, Donato, & McGlone, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 2000)

2.7 Merits of L1 Use

Research into the merits of L1 use covers a range of issues. The positive effects of L1 use on in-class relationships include how the L1 can be used for affective and personal functions in a monolingual content based class (Nikula, 2007). Edstrom's (2006) study of her own teaching practices helped to her to highlight how she used the L1 to connect with her students.

Although often demonized, translation of languages is one of the most used learning strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), with a range of evidence showing the value of translation as an effective cognitive strategy for learners (Hummel, 2010).

There is also growing evidence that code switching and own language use facilitates learning by alleviating the cognitive loads for learners during more challenging tasks (Carless, 2002; Scott & Fuente, 2008). Studies report on how private verbal thinking, or private speech, and mental translation assist in new language learning (Anton & Dicailla, 1999; Blyth, 1995; Centeno-Cortés & Jiménez, 2004; de la Colina & del Pilar García Mayo, 2009).

When considering the merits of L1 use, it is necessary to include how efficient L1 use is for language learning, whether or not TL learning is aided by L1 use, how comfortable students

feel using the L1 when learning a TL which is related to code switching practices, and if L1 use will assist in mastering TL uses that may be required outside the classroom (V. Cook, 2001). All of these need to be set against the possible loss of experience when using the TL instead of the L1. The L1 should be ‘deliberately and systematically used’ rather than seen as something which is ‘a guilt-making necessity’ (V. Cook, 2001, p. 418), and is possibly the next revolution that could improve current teaching methods as well as reestablish the power imbalance that occurs in so many language learning classrooms.

2.8 Attitudes to the L1

Research aside, probably the most influential factors affecting the use of L1 in the classroom are the teachers and students. How teachers choose to use L1 in the classroom will depend upon how effective teachers perceive L1 use to be in the class. This in turn will be influenced by ‘perceptions of its legitimacy, value and appropriate classroom functions’ (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 294). The following section will review literature investigating the attitudes and beliefs that teachers and students have about L1 in the classroom and the influences these have on L1 use.

2.8.1 Student Attitudes to L1 and TL use

Little research has gone into learner perceptions about L1 and TL use (G. Cook, 2008; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). That being said, the limited research into student attitudes about L1 use generally suggested that learners feel positive or satisfied with the amount of L1 being used. In Duff and Polio’s (1990) study of 13 classes, the majority of learners reported satisfaction at the amount of L1 used by their teachers, despite the variety in amounts of L1 being used by the teachers in the study. Rolin – Ianziti & Varshney (2008) reported that beginner students actually preferred L1 use for classroom management functions, instructions for activities and assessment requirements. Similar findings are found in Macaro (1997) and Chavez (2003). Students indicated that they felt the L1 plays an important function in accessing explicit knowledge of the linguistic features of the TL, while at the same time admitting that exposure to the TL is important for language learning (Chavez, 2003; Macaro, 1997; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). Within the studies mentioned above, a small number of students, who were characterized as able students, indicated a preference for the TL to be used for classroom management functions as well as gaining TL knowledge. An additional

point that students made is the fact that they feel the L1 creates a more reassuring and humanistic learning environment (Harbord, 1992; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). A more recent study conducted by Macaro and Lee (2013) investigated the attitudes and perceptions of both adults and children from South Korea in regards to the use of code switching in the English class. The study revealed that both groups of learners were not in favor of total exclusion of the first language from classroom interaction. This study would indicate that age is not necessarily a factor when it comes to student preference for L1 exclusion.

2.9 Teacher Beliefs about L1 Use

The concept of beliefs has been explored in a number of different disciplines, including, but not limited to, psychology, sociology, and anthropology to name but a few. To better understand teacher beliefs it is important to understand the construct of belief (Pajares, 1992). This section will start with an introduction to some of the key ideas behind studying teacher beliefs. This will be followed by a review of studies on teacher beliefs as related to using L1 in the classroom.

2.9.1 The Hidden Side of Teaching

Often described as the hidden side of teaching (Freeman, 2002), the influence of teachers' learning and knowledge has often been overlooked when it comes to second language learning. However, the last 30 years has seen a steady evolution in the understanding of how teacher learning and knowledge are conceptualized (Freeman, 2002). This understanding includes how prior learning experiences, teacher education and classroom practices shape and are shaped by teacher cognition. Language teacher cognition is now a well-established domain of enquiry (Borg, 2003) that needs to broaden its scope on different aspects of language teaching.

2.10 Defining Beliefs and Knowledge

A look through the literature reveals several concepts associated with the definition of beliefs: personal knowledge, implicit assumptions (Kagan, 1992), preconceptions and implicit theories, eclectic aggregations of cause and effect propositions (Crawley & Salyer, 1995), convictions or opinions (Ford, 1994), attitudes and values (Pajares, 1992) which are derived

from experience, rules of thumb and the intervention of ideas during the learning process. As with beliefs, so too does a review of the literature reveal several congruent views on knowledge. Knowledge is based on factual information and organizing principles which are central to concepts of discipline, bound within explanatory frameworks that are used to guide inquiry (Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1989). It includes knowledge of teaching craft (Zeichner, Tabachnick, & Densmore, 1987), of pedagogy as well as knowledge of learners (Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987).

There has been considerable discussion on the array of terms used to define teacher beliefs and knowledge, and debate about how to distinguish beliefs from knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987). These debates have arisen from different researchers with different agendas in different disciplines (Pajares, 1992), highlighting how teacher beliefs are very much 'study bound, culture based and context specific' (Zheng, 2015, p. 15).

Generally, knowledge has been treated as inherently different to beliefs, or as a broad term that covers both what is known and what is believed. Epistemological arguments differ beliefs from knowledge as knowledge relates to facts, whereas beliefs are centered on personal values (Fenstermacher, 1994). Others have differentiated knowledge from beliefs based on existential presumptions, alternativity, affective and evaluative loading, and episodic nature (Nespor, 1987). The distinguishing of knowledge from beliefs has led to claims that beliefs are better predictors of practices than knowledge (Nespor, 1987). In general, beliefs have been distinguished from knowledge by the reasoning that beliefs are based on evaluation and judgment whereas knowledge is based on objective fact (Pajares, 1992), where belief 'covers all the matters of which we have no sure knowledge and yet which we are sufficiently confident of to act upon and also the matters that we now accept as certainly true, as knowledge, but which nevertheless may be questioned in the future' (Dewey, 1993, p. 94). However, there are also claims that the two cannot be separated so easily, and should be treated more like synonymous terms rather than discrete items (Kagan, 1990; Murphy & Mason, 2006; Pajares, 1992), especially as some have claimed how difficult it is to identify exactly where knowledge ends and beliefs begin (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987).

Beliefs have been defined as a form of knowledge, referred to as personal knowledge (Kagan, 1992; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Rokeach, 1968). Kagan suggested that teacher beliefs are better

described as ‘provocative form of personal knowledge’ (1992, p. 65) and that in fact it is more accurate to consider teachers actual professional knowledge as beliefs. This is because teachers comprehend their world by developing complex personal and professional knowledge systems which are kept as unconscious assumptions about the contexts in which they work. Alternatively, some have viewed knowledge as components of beliefs. Rokeach stated that beliefs are composed of cognitive components that embody knowledge, as well as affective components and behavioral components (1968).

The major problem in the study of teacher beliefs is trying to distinguish if teachers are relying on their knowledge or their beliefs when they are teaching. This had led some researchers to integrate both knowledge and beliefs. Woods (1996; Woods & Çakır, 2011, p. 384) created the acronym BAK, which stands for Beliefs, Assumptions, and Knowledge. Woods argues that beliefs and knowledge are both involved in decision-making processes, and that the two should not be delineated, but rather viewed as part of a continuum ‘along which certain things we “know/believe” can be placed.’ In this definition, knowledge relates to conventionally accepted notions that are demonstrable, assumptions are temporarily accepted facts that have not yet been proven, and beliefs are ideas that have not been proven or that have no associated conventional knowledge, and which may also be open to disagreement. This BAK continuum is often revealed in data elicitation techniques which struggle to distinguish between beliefs and knowledge, which should not be surprising, as within the minds of teachers there is not often a clear distinction between the two constructs (Borg, 2006). While beliefs and knowledge maybe distinguished on epistemological grounds, for studies into teacher cognitions the two can be seen to overlap, being ‘inextricably intertwined’ (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001)

Research into teachers’ beliefs is centered on beliefs about education; educational beliefs are part of teachers’ broader and more general belief systems (Pajares, 1992). Educational beliefs are broad themselves, and include beliefs about teacher efficacy, self-efficacy, epistemological beliefs, teacher and student performance, as well as educational beliefs about educational disciplines (reading, writing, grammar to mention just a few).

As Pajares stated, ‘clusters of beliefs around a particular object or situation form attitudes that become action agendas’ (1992, p. 319). The connection between beliefs within attitudes is

connected (Rokeach, 1968) to beliefs in other attitudes. The educational attitudes a teacher may have are intrinsically tied to beliefs about society, race and even family. The results of such connections are values upon which a teacher may choose to live life.

Beliefs that teachers have about teaching are socially constructed through their experiences over a life time. They are established early on in life through learner experiences. These beliefs can be particularly resistant to change, even when facing incongruous data (Nisbett & Ross, 1980), and are important when interpreting and making sense of the situations teachers find themselves in (Nespor, 1987). Called ‘the apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, 1975), experiences teachers have as learners shape their beliefs and images about what teaching should be, and are strongly related to teachers’ own experience as TL learners (Bailey et al., 1996; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996). The beliefs based on these experiences assist teachers in their decision-making processes while at work. This highlights they need to better understand the context that teachers both presently find themselves in as well as experienced over their life time. The beliefs that teachers have should be viewed as being both interpretive and reflective in nature, as they are constructs that have emerged from experiences with teaching (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987).

Studies on pre-service beliefs have attempted to describe a range of influences, from prior language learning experiences (Bailey et al., 1996), the roles of teachers, (Brown & McGannon, 1998, as cited in Borg, 2012), socialization processes (Farrell, 2001) and conceptions of TESOL (Warford & Reeves, 2003) to mention but a few. In a study of how theoretical orientations influence teacher trainees and trainers, Lo’s (2005) in depth case study documented how one trainee developed an understanding of SLA while in America. The study also followed her after she had resumed teaching in Taiwan. The study discussed how both teacher trainer and trainee differed in their approach to the effectiveness of SLA, and how this led the trainee to return to the workforce with the feeling that the more research-based approach of the trainer had been ineffective in terms of application to her own teaching environment. These differences in theoretical orientations had a profound influence on the behavior of the trainee and her willingness to learn SLA. Salvatore & Brown (2005) looked into how the completion of a linguistics course affected the attitudes and beliefs of the students. By collecting data via a questionnaire over a two-year period, they managed to show that even limited exposure to linguistics and sociolinguistic information effected

significant changes in the attitudes and beliefs about linguistics of the students, and that this change could be cumulative, depending on how long the students chose to continue on the course.

A number of studies show the influence that beliefs have on a variety of aspects of teacher practices, such as how beliefs act as filters when interpreting new information and experiences (Pajares, 1992) and how they overshadow the effects of teacher education (Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 1996). These effects can be persistent, influencing teacher practices over long periods of time (Crawley & Salyer, 1995), but at the same time are not always evident in what happens in the classroom (Zeichner et al., 1987). Practices have also been shown to influence beliefs as much as beliefs influence practices, highlighting the mutually shaping relationship between the two (Richardson, 1996).

Studies on language teachers in specific have highlighted the effects that beliefs have on pedagogical decisions (Johnson, 1994) made in the class as well as what teachers may learn during language teacher education programs (Freeman, 1996). These beliefs have also been found to be deep rooted and defiant in the face of change (Almarza, 1996; Pickering, 2005).

There are number of different terms used to describe teacher beliefs (Borg, 2006). In a collection of studies looking at teacher language cognitions, Barnard and Burns (2012) differentiated between the terms by creating a linear, chronological sequence describing how beliefs are formed via a series of stages. Assumptions, the first stage, are described as maxims which allow people to make judgments about the world in which they interact. These assumptions change with experience into tentative attitudes. These in turn are ‘refined, rejected or reformulated and then incorporated into a set of firmer beliefs’ (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 3).

2.10.1 The Impact of Beliefs on Practice

A number of studies point to the growing importance of understanding teacher beliefs and how they impact the practices of teachers (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Ives, 2015). Beliefs have been observed to influence the interactions of the classroom via teacher practices (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001). Although there is still some uncertainty as to how much influence these beliefs actually have (Farrell & Ives, 2015), research into relationships between beliefs and practices continues to draw interest, as well as

different descriptions. The impact that teachers beliefs have on practice may be limited by certain contextual factors, and that certain contextual factors may influence beliefs (Borg, 2003, 2006).

2.10.2 Relationships between Beliefs and Practices

Research into teacher beliefs and actual practices has produce a mixture of findings as to the actual congruence between the two (Basturkmen, 2012), and it was postulated that a possible reasons for this incongruence may be due to the fact that case study methods are most commonly used in to this area of research. This is significant as case study research involves focusing of particular contexts to discover in-depth explanations, rather than a broad range of contexts which could potentially be generalized. Basturkmen's (2012) integrative review of case studies which discussed the degree of consistency between beliefs and practice revealed that case study methodology did not appear to influence findings in anyway, with many different case studies reporting different levels of agreement between beliefs and practices across many different contexts.

Comparing beliefs to actual practices is not often as straightforward as it would seem. For one, what type of beliefs are being compared? Those beliefs which have been explicitly stated, and of which teachers seem to be aware of? Or beliefs that teachers seem to be less aware of? Additionally, how well do the beliefs teachers have, and are aware of having, actually represent reality? At present it would seem that teachers beliefs are the foundations of teacher practices (Borg, 2012), with the relationship between the two being interactive (Basturkmen, 2012). Adding to this is the growing acceptance that beliefs exist as parts of systems which interact with other beliefs, either working together, or against each other (Basturkmen, 2012).

Teacher beliefs are represented at a core level, which are stable and exert more influence on behavior, and a peripheral level, which are less stable and influential (Pajares, 1992). The distinction between these two levels of beliefs allows for an enhanced investigation of the relationship between beliefs and practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009). These sub-systems of beliefs allow for a more definitive study of the tensions that can arise between what teachers say and what teachers do, facilitating researchers and teachers to understand the process of teaching in more detail (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

The degree to which teachers act in accordance with their beliefs is mediated by the context

in which they find themselves. Therefore, contextual factors also need to be a consideration when researching the interaction between beliefs and practices. Situational constraints have been shown to limit the effect of teacher beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003), however, one study suggested that perhaps teachers may use situational constraints as an excuse to justify their actual practices (I. Lee, 2009). Teacher beliefs need to be researched in relation to the lens of classroom interaction (L. Li & Walsh, 2011). By investigating teachers stated beliefs as well as what they do in the classroom and the interactions they have with their students, a more complete understanding of teacher beliefs can be uncovered, as opposed to research which neglects to include actual teaching practices. The interactions teachers have in the classroom must be understood and included in order to understand teacher beliefs, as interaction 'lies at the very heart of teaching, learning and professional development' (L. Li & Walsh, 2011, p. 42).

In addition to this, teachers need to be encouraged to articulate their beliefs (Farrell & Ives, 2015) in order to create opportunities for change to occur, as without this reflection most teachers are most likely to be unaware of the extent to which their beliefs influence (Farrell, 2008) their practice.

2.10.3 Studies on Language Teachers

Studies on teacher beliefs fall into two broad categories: Pre-service teachers and In-service teachers. Pre-service language teachers are those who have yet to have any formal training on how to teach languages, where in-service teachers are currently teaching after receiving formal training. Studies on languages teachers focus on a range of themes, including, but not limited to:

- the influence of prior language learning experiences
- beliefs about language teaching
- beliefs about practicum experiences
- beliefs about decision-making and practical knowledge

The importance of the influence of prior language learning experiences has mainly been exposed by studies that have not directly focused on this topic (Borg, 2003). Important

influences acting during pre-service teachers' 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) include teacher personality and style, levels of respect teachers had, student motivation to learn, and positive classroom environments (Bailey et al., 1996). In addition to this, it was found that instructional decisions made during practicums were influenced by learning experiences (Farrell, 2006; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996). The memories teachers had of their learning experiences were acting as guidelines for how perspective teachers would act in the classroom, and this could potentially cause problems for teacher trainers who trying to teach more modern accounts of what language teaching should look like (Farrell, 2006).

The beliefs teachers have about language teaching prior to education have been labelled as 'inappropriate, unrealistic, or naïve' (Borg, 2003, p. 88), which may be of concern if these beliefs are the foundation for which most new teachers may base their decisions on. Studies that have investigated the impact of teacher education on pre-service language teachers have shown that the courses do have an impact on trainees, but the impact was often various (Borg, 2003), indicating a need for more longitudinal studies on the matter.

Studies on the impact of language education programs on in-service teachers provides similar inconsistencies as those on pre-service teachers (Borg, 2011). The focus of such studies more often than not follows those of pre-service teachers, and reveals again the context dependent nature of such studies. Case studies which do seem to reveal changes to in-service teachers often state that it more likely that the behavior of the teachers has changed to meet some course need, and that the observed behavioral changes are not often accompanied by changes in how teachers think about teaching (Borg, 2011).

The variations found in studies into teacher beliefs should not be surprising, given the very personal nature of the beliefs that teachers have about their practices. The difficulties in being able to generalize findings to larger contexts should also not be of concern to researchers either. Research into language teachers beliefs is research into the world of an individual, and to better understand an individual, obtaining an understanding of their espoused beliefs is vital, as beliefs provide the foundations for their actions (Borg, 2011)

2.11 Studies on Teacher Beliefs about L1 Use

Calderhead (1996) wrote that there are five different areas of beliefs significant to teachers:

- beliefs about learners and learning
- beliefs about teaching
- beliefs about subject
- beliefs about learning to teach
- beliefs about self and the teaching role

The different subject areas within a given school curriculum are interconnected to these different beliefs via epistemological concerns. Studies on the beliefs that language teachers have about the use of L1 are, however, relatively rare. Most often, beliefs are referred to as an afterthought of what the actual practices of the teachers were. The following reviews what studies have been done on this aspect of teacher beliefs.

2.11.1 Sources of Beliefs of Language Use

Teacher beliefs come from a number of sources. The influences acting on belief formation about which language choices include teachers' own experiences as language learners, their experiences in the classroom, and the perspectives of colleagues, teacher trainers and educators, managers and policy makers, academic research and researchers (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Crawford's (2004) study of language teachers in Australia suggested that the aims of teacher training programs may be one factor influencing teachers' language choices. If proficiency is a primary outcome of such programs, then teachers would be more likely to use the TL. Other influences on TL/L1 use are teachers' proficiency in the TL and students' proficiency in the TL and teacher's learning experiences with the TL.

These influences are found elsewhere in the literature. Learner's TL ability affecting teachers' language use is found in a number of other studies (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Giannikas, 2011; Liu et al., 2004; Macaro, 1997; Mitchell, 1988). Teachers' own language proficiency is also cited as a factor influencing language choices in a number of different contexts, including EFL contexts (Carless, 2004; Liu et al., 2004; Nagy & Robertson, 2009; Pennington, 1997), student-teacher contexts (Bateman, 2008), and other foreign language contexts (S. H. O. Kim & Elder, 2008).

Cultural and educational background can also influence teacher attitudes and beliefs about L1 use. An example of this is found in Van der Meij & Zhao (2010), who studied teachers of English working in China. Contrary to previous findings, the teachers in this study believed that learner or teacher proficiencies should not affect L1 use, with teachers disagreeing with the idea that weaker students should be accommodated more with the L1.

Another example revealing the influence of cultural and educational backgrounds on teacher attitudes came from a study of teachers of Japanese origin and British origin teaching Japanese in UK secondary schools (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Differences between the two sets of teachers were accounted for by past experiences as language learners in specific cultural contexts. The native (Japanese) speaker teachers had strong views on the delivery of content via the TL as well as classroom language delivered using the L1 to avoid unnecessary confusion and time wasting. The native (Japanese) speaker teachers cited their own experiences of learning English, in which English was almost never spoken by their (Japanese) teachers. The teachers also believed in teacher fronted lessons, in which only the minimum amount of target language should be focused on so that students are not bombarded with too much language. In this study, the British teacher's use of L1 'diametrically opposed' (p. 55) that of the native Japanese teachers. Cited reasons for the differences were the teachers' experiences as learners of Japanese and the educational background of the teachers. Other examples that highlight the influence of cultural background and educational background describe the sympathetic attitudes teachers in Canada had towards L1 use (Cummins, 2007; Duff & Polio, 1990; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002).

2.11.2 Guilt Making

The influence of psycholinguistics on SLA has resulted in the use of the L1 having many negative connotations surrounding it. This negativity has a strong hold on teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards L1 use in the class.

Numerous studies have reported the sense of guilt teachers have when learners use their own language in the classroom (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Macaro, 1997, 2006, 2009b; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

In a series of interviews with 59 foreign language teachers, Mitchell (1988, p. 28) described how discrepancies between theory/policy and practice can induce 'a sense of guilt in

teachers', with Mitchell describing an atmosphere in which teachers confessed to low levels of target language use, and equated it to an 'admission of unprofessional conduct'. Teachers in this study agreed that the target language should be used as much as possible, but not exclusively.

It is not unusual for teachers, across a variety of learning contexts, to describe their code switching habits as recourses to L1 use (Macaro, 2001). Teachers often state a preference for a predominant use of the target language. However, a majority of teachers are also not in favor of eliminating the use of the L1. The reason for this recourse to L1 use is a lack of the perceived 'perfect conditions' (Macaro, 2006, p. 68) for excluding the L1.

Copland and Neokleous (2011) reported on how the bilingual English teachers in their study were all critical of their own L1 use. During interviews the teachers described what they felt were the disadvantages of L1 use, and all stated that they felt the L1 was a hindrance rather a help to their teaching. Unsurprisingly, the teachers underreported their L1 use, for as the authors declare, to do so would be admission of incompetence and a challenge to their self-reported personal philosophies of language learning and teaching.

2.11.3 Positive and Justified Reasons for L1 Use

More positive and justified reasons for L1 use are also reported in a number of different studies (Duff & Polio, 1990; Edstrom, 2006; Macaro, 1997, 2009a, 2009b; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Van Der Meij & Zhao, 2010). Duff and Polio's (1990) study of thirteen different language teachers revealed that while there was a considerable difference between the amounts of L1 used by different teachers, the reasons for L1 use were similar. These included the use of the L1 for classroom management and administration issues, the teaching of grammar, as well as to demonstrate a sense of empathy with the learners. Several justifications were given for the use of L1 here. These included a perceived need to remedy an overreliance on more communicative approaches in previous courses which, while allowing students to use the language, never taught the students to construct language for themselves. In addition to this was the perception that the FL classroom differed from that of the SL classroom, leading to the belief that because students were deprived linguistically and culturally they did not have enough TL to understand the teacher if the L1 is excluded. Other reasons included differences between certain languages that determined how easily a TL was

picked up, and the need for teachers to prepare students for exams.

Edstrom's (2006) action research study revealed additional justifications for L1 use. The first was a moral obligation the teacher felt towards her students, especially those studying a TL in order to fulfill an academic obligation. This moral obligation led the teacher to use L1 when 'communicating respect and creating a positive environment' (p. 287). The other justification was based on the belief that the teacher needed to do more than equip students with language proficiency. Edstrom explained that in order to assist her students to recognize the difficulties in learning a language, understand the relationship between a language and the realities it prescribes, as well as avoid stereotypical ideas about the culture associated with a target language, she resorted to the use of L1, as student TL proficiency was insufficient to deal with such goals when they arose in the classroom.

A significant number of the teachers believe that L1 use is a positive factor in TL teaching and learning (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). These positive factors include the use of L1 as 'conversational lubricant' (Butzkamm, 1998, p. 81), its role in learner – learner collaborations (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), the use of L1 in the preparation and rehearsal stages of a lesson (McMillan & Rivers, 2011) and for the comparison of the TL and the L1 (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Harbord, 1992).

The literature presents an 'overwhelming impression that bilingual teachers believe that the L2 should be the predominant language of interaction in the classroom. On the other hand, ... [we don't find] a majority of teachers in favor of excluding the L1 altogether' (Macaro, 2006, p. 68).

2.12 The EFL NNEST Context

The last two decades have seen a steady increase in the number of studies done on nonnative English speaker teachers (NNESTs). NNEST is used here to highlight the context that influences the teachers found within EFL contexts, and not as a determiner of teaching ability (Farrell, 2015). Moussu & Llurda's (2008) state-of-the-art paper succinctly compiled, classified and examined issues ranging from how to define native speaker (NS) and NNESTs, teacher education in ESL and EFL settings, perceptions of NNESTs from varying points of view as well as theoretical and practical implications for NS and NNESTs that have done a

lot to expand the knowledge of the NNEST cause. These studies were more often than not focused on the ‘characteristics of a diverse group ... whose professional activity consists of teaching a second or foreign language’ (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p. 332). A large part of the research done on NNESTs has come from non-empirical reflection pieces that emphasize the need to reconsider the role of NNESTs. The first empirical accounts of NNESTs came from a ‘saturation of surveys’ (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p. 334) that verified facets of NNESTs that had previously only been brought to light by the self-reflective studies mentioned earlier.

Interviews have deepened the understanding of the issues at hand, but the uncontrolled nature of the interviews may have allowed unforeseen factors to shade some of the realities of these interviews (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). A number of studies have looked at NNEST self-perceptions and opinions on a range of issues (Braine, 2010). Issues of relevance to this study include the notion that NNESTs are preoccupied with accuracy and more formal features of the English language, that NNESTs perceive themselves to be lacking in fluency and more sophisticated semantic use (Reves & Medgyes, 1994), and how difficulties with the TL had little to no effect on their own teaching (Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). Ellis’s (2002) study of NNESTs stated that the defining characteristic of NNESTs was their English language learning experiences. These experiences were drawn upon in four ways. The first was an affective factor that allowed NNESTs to empathize with their students’ own learning experiences. The second was the teachers’ experiences with different teaching and learning styles which allowed them to choose “good” practices for their own classes. Third was the ability to view English from the non-native speaker perspective, which entailed having learned grammar rather than simply having acquired it, leading to greater language awareness and sensitivity to the language. Finally, was the ability to relate what they have learned through teacher training programs to their own language learning experiences.

A more recent study conducted in South Korea discussed the influence of negative prior language learning experiences on teachers’ beliefs and practices (Moodie, 2016). This study described how Korean NNESTs reacted to negative experiences they had as students learning English. These teachers stated that they actively attempted to do the opposite in their own classes to what they had experienced as learners, mainly due to the associated negative feelings with those experiences. It also described how teachers of different ages, who experienced different policy innovations, reacted to implementing more recent teaching

models in their classes. Younger teachers invariably had less issues when implementing more recent teaching innovations due to the similarity of the new innovations with their own learning experiences. The study concluded that older teachers struggled with newer approaches due to a lack of similar experiences when learners themselves. This highlights the influence that learner experiences can have on current teaching practices.

2.12.1 Research on the Language Choices of NNESTs

As of yet there has been limited investigation into the reality of what happens in NNEST led foreign language classrooms, especially in terms of how the TL and L1 are used by NNESTs. More research of this kind is called for in order to further add to the understanding of how NNESTs use the TL and L1 during language classes. Most of the studies on NNESTs have been done by NNESTs, and as Braine points out, ‘research done by NNS on issues that are critical to themselves may cast a shadow of doubt on the validity and reliability of the data’ (2010, p. 29). This can be interpreted as an invitation for NSs to join the cause in understanding NNESTs better in order for all involved to become more aware of the issues that are part of the reality of the ever-expanding EFL and ESL teaching contexts.

Studies that have looked at language choices of NNESTs are limited, with the focus being teacher perceptions of government policies such as the South Korean Governments teaching English through English foreign language policy TETE and whether or not teachers can effectively teach according to such policies (S. Y. Kim, 2002).

A more detailed account of how the L1 is used in an EFL context is found in Forman (2010). Here, the results of Forman’s case study list seven principles of L1 use in TL teaching which were identified by teachers in EFL contexts:

- Cognitive principles that use the L1 to explain TL vocabulary, grammar, usage and culture
- Affective principles that use the L1 to facilitate solidarity amongst teachers and students
- Affective principles that use the L1 to develop collaborative, teamwork abilities between students

- Pedagogical principles of time effectiveness of using L1 over the TL
- Pedagogical principles of using L1 to ensure comprehensibility of the content
- Pedagogical principles of inclusivity that L1 ensure that all students participate
- Contingency principles to respond to the immediate teaching and learning needs

Liu et al. (2004), via a series of case studies, investigated the use of L1 in TL teaching in Korean secondary school settings, and although admitting that what they observed might not be truly reflective of what happens in the classroom due to the observer's paradox, were able to identify functions of L1 and TL use within the Korean context. L1 seemed to primarily be used for both cognitive and pedagogical reasons, similar in fashion to those described by Forman (2010), whereas the TL was used for affective and pedagogical reasons, which differed from the Forman study. The study stated that English was used on average only 32% of the time in the class with students claiming to understand on average only 49% of the teachers' English, and the authors wrote that there needs to be a reconsideration of pedagogical policies regarding the L1/TL use in the Korean EFL context. The forced shift by the newly implemented government educational policies into exclusive TL use was being met with resistance in the classroom, with a call for teacher training programs to reevaluate how they can teach more effective strategies for code switching practices that allow for optimal use of the L1 and TL in the classroom.

Kang's (2008) qualitative case study of the language choices of an elementary school teacher described four different combinations of L1 and TL being used by the teacher:

- Exclusive use of the TL
- Exclusive use of the L1
- Use of L1 followed by TL
- Use of TL followed by the L1

Via interviews, Kang discovered the reasons behind each type of language combination. Exclusive L1 use was deemed necessary by the teacher due to her students' inability to comprehend TL input, and this belief was said to have arisen from the participating teacher's

personal teaching experiences in the classroom, a component of teacher beliefs also listed by Borg (2003). The teacher sometimes felt her own proficiency was inadequate to use the TL when explaining more complex tasks to her students. The teacher's teaching experience also led her to believe that exclusive L1 was more effective for classroom management issues regarding discipline. An additional reason for the use of L1 in her class was to maintain student interest in the subject, where the teacher's experience led her to believe that exclusive TL in the classroom acted as a demotivating factor when learning the TL. The clash of curricular aims, and consequently the choice of maintaining student motivation to learn English over exposure to English has also been found elsewhere (Rabbidge & Chappell, 2014). The study also revealed combinations of TL and L1 use by the teacher. The combination of TL-L1, which was more prevalent than the L1-TL combination, was intersentential. The teacher in Kang's study explained that this was to make the more complex TL more salient and easier to process for her students, something also discussed in Turnbull & Arnett's chapter on theoretical and empirical literature regarding teachers language choices (2002). In Kang's (2008) study the teacher described her teaching and learning experiences as motives for this TL-L1 combination use.

The teacher in Kang's study expressed agreement with the notion of using the TL exclusively based on her pedagogical beliefs. However, the teacher's attention to students' real-time needs and negative reactions to the TL caused her to abandon her pedagogical beliefs in favor of beliefs based on teaching and learning experiences in the EFL environment. As part of the study, Kang interviewed students who 'stressed that they felt more enthusiastic about the EFL learning' (Kang, 2008, p. 223) because of the teacher's use of the L1. Although findings from Kang's study are hard to generalize to a larger population of teachers due to the use of only a single teacher, the findings do suggest that there is more to be explored in terms of the different beliefs and the relationship between these beliefs affecting NNESTs language choices in the classroom. In a follow up study, Kang (2013) examined the use of TL and L1 use by NNESTs when disciplining their students. In this study, two teachers discussed their reasons for using either L1 or TL when disciplining their students. Teacher A was described as being more proficient in the TL than teacher B. Teacher A in this study stated that socioeconomic differences caused her to feel less irritation and use more TL with socioeconomically well-off students. Also, her TL teaching and learning experiences led her

to believe that students benefitted more from her TL use while disciplining because of the input-poor EFL context (South Korea) in which they were situated. Another factor that influenced her language choices was parental intervention, often via the principal of her school. Parents insisted that she use TL exclusively in her class. This contextual factor (Borg, 2003), i.e. parents and principal, was said to have caused a shift between the power relationship between the students and the teacher, leading the teacher to use more English but also to shift the paradigm of relations in the class to a less learner-centered approach. The teacher felt her use of TL empowered her as the authority figure in the classroom. The second teacher was deemed to use more L1 in the class for disciplinary reasons than teacher A. Teacher B described teaching and learning experiences as the reasons for anxieties she had about teaching in the TL. These anxieties sensitized her to the possibility of students' disobedience. Her view that classroom order was a fundamental requirement for facilitating TL learning in EFL contexts coupled with an anxiety about using the TL for disciplinary reasons led her to rely almost solely on the L1 when disciplining a student. The differences between these teachers highlight how TL proficiency can affect the beliefs a teacher may have about the TL or L1 use in the classroom. They also show how other contextual factors, and beliefs about control, may also affect the language choices of a teacher.

A more recent study in South Korea examined via questionnaire and interviews the views of Korean NNESTs about monolingual and bilingual approaches to teaching English (J. H. Lee, 2016). Of 207 NNESTs surveyed, 80% disagreed with the idea of an English only approach to teaching English. This finding adds more to the Korean context, especially in regards to previous findings which suggest the majority of students feel the same way about English only approaches (J. H. Lee & Macaro, 2013). Additionally, in-service teachers appeared to be more negative towards an English only approach than pre-service teachers, which was said to have been based largely on their experiences with real classrooms (J. H. Lee, 2016). These findings, however, are only reflect the beliefs of secondary school teachers and not elementary school teachers.

2.13 A Gap in the Current Research

Despite the fact that SLA and ELT teacher training programs generally ignore research on how the L1 could, or even should, be used when teaching a second language (Mahboob &

Lin, 2016), it is clear that the L1 is a prominent element in many EFL courses around the world. Bernstein's sociological theories reveal how the sub-disciplines of SLA and TESOL are narrowly defined by a 'set of research assumptions, approaches and related models of teaching and learning' (May, 2011, p. 238). They also reveal why such disciplines are so resistant to change. Bernstein's solution to such impasses was to recontextualize the fields of study by expanding the scope of a field of study to incorporate previously unexplored areas that are possibly transdisciplinary in nature. This in turn allows for a more reflexive comprehension of how such hierarchies are maintained, and in turn can lead to the exploration of new branches of inquiry within a field of study.

More research needs to go into what influences the formation of beliefs systems about L1 or TL use. In addition to this, new inquiries need to be made into how these beliefs affect the classes they hold sway over. As of yet, Bernstein's theories have not been employed in conjunction with the study of L1 or TL in the classroom. Additionally, the use of genre theory allows researchers to study English lessons as 'a recurrent configuration of meanings' (Martin, 2009, p. 13), alluding to the fact that lessons in general seem to repeat their structures over periods of time. This approach to lessons can be utilized in research on L1 and TL use by NNESTs to determine exactly when and where within lessons the TL or the L1 are being used by the teachers, and to what effect. Research into curriculum genres (Christie, 1995, 2000a) coupled with the use of Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse (Bernstein, 1990a, 1990b) has investigated the way language is used to position students during the social construction of the classroom in non-EFL settings. Studies that have incorporated these theories have focused on classroom interactions mostly in non-language classrooms or classes led by native English speaker teachers (Christie, 1991, 1995, 2000a; Emilson & Folkesson, 2006; McLean, Abbas, & Ashwin, 2013; Morais & Miranda, 1996). As of yet, such techniques have not been part of research into L1 and TL uses in EFL contexts. This presents a gap in the current literature on L1 and TL use, and it is this gap that this research project will address, by answering the following questions:

GQ1: What influences the formation of assumptions, attitudes, and beliefs about L1 and TL use in the classroom?

GQ2: What are the beliefs about the TL and L1 as languages of instruction

in Korean elementary school English classrooms?

GQ3: How do these beliefs about L1 or TL use affect the social construction of the classroom?

2.14 Synthesis of Literature Review

The presentation of knowledge on L1 and TL use in this review mirrors the progression of understanding that has taken place in regards to the use of the L1 in the second language or foreign language classroom. Early research, based on predominantly psycholinguistic perspectives, established itself as the base of acceptable theory, reinforcing these early notions on language use by dominating the landscape of SLA and TESOL. These early theories were invaluable in establishing SLA as a viable field of research. However, the limited scope of this early research led to an increase in enquiries that incorporated alternative views on language use in SLA and TESOL. Social turns in the understanding of SLA and TESOL were realized in the growing body of knowledge that embraced sociolinguistic perspectives on language teaching. Despite these new perspectives, traditional views continued to dominate at the level of policy and publication. Criticisms of the dominance of psycholinguistic perspectives over sociolinguistic perspectives invariably pointed to political machinations that sought to maintain the status quo. Nevertheless, both views are essential in trying to ascertain what constitutes appropriate learning and teaching of foreign and second languages. This is not an either/or phenomenon.

The growing interest in English teachers who do not speak English as their mother tongue is a sign of a growing acceptance of the need to reexamine the knowledge base of SLA and TESOL. English and the teaching of English does not belong to any one group. It is a resource available to all. There needs to be a continued response to the acknowledgement that SLA in its current form may lack the sufficient knowledge base to advise teachers on how to best assist learners in their language studies.

This review highlights the need to continue to grow and push the boundaries of knowledge in regards to language use in language teaching. Just as sociolinguistics brought fresh perspectives on the roles the L1 or the TL play in actual classrooms, this review revealed not so much a gap in the literature, but a previously unexplored avenue of research that will add to the knowledge pool of how the L1 or TL, as well as the associated beliefs behind these

actions, shape the social realities of EFL contexts.

Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework

3.1 Developing a Framework

This section outlines the theoretical framework for this study. The theoretical framework for this project is used to interpret the different sources of data. The phenomenon under investigation in this research project is teacher beliefs about the use of L1 and TL in the English classroom.

Due to the nature of the phenomenon under study, a sociocultural perspective was preferred to positivist epistemological perspectives. Positivist perspectives were deemed unsuitable as they are rooted in the belief that reality exists separately from the knower of the reality. Knowledge in this perspective is considered objective and identifiable, and with an ability to represent generalizable truths (Johnson, 2009). However, these ‘oversimplified, depersonalized, and decontextualized assumptions’ have been argued by critics as an inappropriate view when attempting to discover the complexities of life within the classroom (Johnson, 2009, p. 8). Additional arguments against a positivist perspective on research into the class are based on the belief that it has been ineffective in improving classroom teaching and learning (Johnson, 2009). This project instead chose to embrace an interpretative epistemological approach, which draws on research from sociology and anthropology. This perspective grounds itself in the assumption that knowledge is socially constructed, and emerges from the interactions and practices that people take part in every day. Here, social reality is created in, and resides within, the mind of the person. From this perspective of reality, the interpretative approach strives to uncover how teachers participate in and create their professional contexts. This view on knowledge allows for a shift from the traditional stance that focuses on what teachers do, to a focus on why teachers do what they do.

Research on teacher beliefs, as reviewed in the previous chapter, acknowledges how teachers’ knowledge of teaching is socially constructed through experiences with students, parents, colleagues and administrators. Normative and lifelong learning experiences are built upon experiences as learners in classrooms, as participants in professional educational programs and in communities of practice while they work (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Grossman, 1990).

This study continues in a similar manner to the social turn (Hall & Cook, 2012) taken within applied linguistics by assuming that language is a cognitive tool that mediates mental processing (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), where this mediating role is derived from the social context in which users find themselves (Brooks et al., 1997). The current framework also employs the theory of language as a social semiotic system, as discussed by Martin & Rose (2007), and Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse (2000), to provide new insights into how the L1 is being used in EFL contexts.

3.2 Framework for Classroom Observations Analysis

The following outlines the theoretical framework employed for analyzing the classroom observations. The framework utilized elements from systemic functional linguistics (SFL), Bernstein's pedagogic discourse theory (1990a), Sinclair & Coulthard's discourse analysis of Initiation Response Feedback (IRF) sequences (1975), and Sankoff & Poplack's (1981) grammar of code switching to provide a more robust description of how language was used in the classroom. This framework allowed for an analysis that went beyond the simple labeling of L1 and TL functions and explored how the L1 was used at different stages of a lesson, and how both languages were used to socially construct the learning environment of the classroom.

3.2.1 Language as a Social Semiotic System

The framework for this study involved a model for language in social contexts that originates in the broader field of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1978). SFL treats the concept of language as a meaning making system, viewing grammar as a meaning making resource, and text as a socially influenced set of semantic choices. Choices are guided via socio-historical contextual influences experienced throughout the lifetime of an individual. Choices are also guided by the immediate context one may find themselves in, with the linguistic choices made influencing the immediate context itself. As language is viewed as semiotic potential, any description of language is therefore a description of choice. A text involves linguistic choices which are a condition of the context of situation. A text is also an instance of a particular genre, and this genre choice itself is a condition of the context of culture (Martin, 1985). Text is defined in this framework as,

A passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent

with respect to the context of the situation, and therefore consistent in register; it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. Neither of these two conditions is sufficient without the other, nor does the one by necessity entail the other. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 23)

For the purposes of this study, texts were those passages of discourse produced via the transcription of interviews and classroom observations. These texts were regarded as instances of how the human participants in this study interacted through language in social contexts. It was from these texts that SFL was used to explore the meaning making processes between teachers and students, and their surrounding contexts. In SFL, a series of levels is employed to describe the different possible meanings of language, with the higher level meanings of language being realized within the lower-level meanings. The topmost levels represent the meanings as realized by ideology, genre and register, where the lower three levels represent language via meanings in semantics, grammar and phonology, as shown in figure 1 below from Martin and Matisseisen (1991).

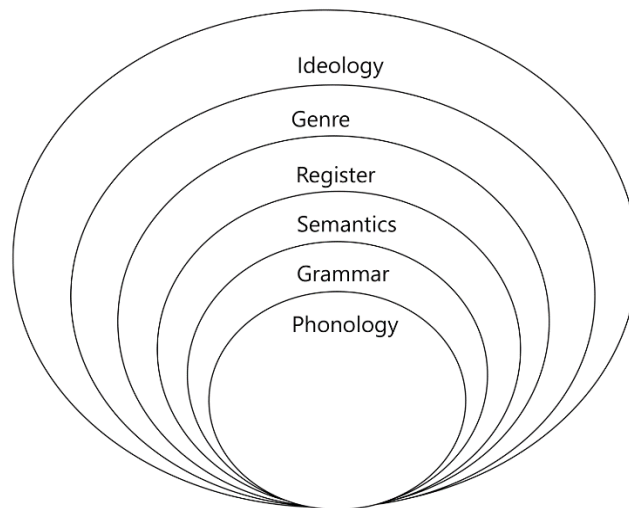


Figure 1. Martin & Matisseisen's stratified theory of context in SFL

Different levels of meaning are nestled within each other, implying a relationship between social activity at the upper levels, and grammar at the lower levels. This allows for a

discourse analysis which provides varying levels of perspective of the text being analyzed. The varying levels of abstraction throughout the figure are related via what Martin & Rose (2007) call realization, where genres, as texts, are realized by register, which in turn are realized by discourse semantics and so on. For the purposes of this study, the levels of genre and register were employed during the analysis of the classroom observations.

Register is important within SFL as it is where the salient aspects of context are represented linguistically - what the language is being used to talk about (field); the relations between the interlocutors (tenor); and the role of language and its channel of communication (mode). This study focused on the language used in interaction between the students and the teachers in the classroom, linking what was said to larger contextual elements. Therefore a full grammatical analysis was not needed. Further analysis was beyond the scope of this study as it entailed a greater level of knowledge about the L1 than the researcher processed.

3.2.2 Genre Theory

Genre theory developed out of the larger model of language as informed by SFL (Martin, 2009). It has been developed as method to describe the fact that despite the myriad of possibilities for employing language, cultures seem to limit the use of language by repeating the same texts of language over and over again, creating what are seen to be borders of the social world within language use (Martin, 2009). Genre has been defined as ‘a recurrent configuration of meanings’ (Martin, 2009, p. 13) which in itself creates culture. Within educational linguistics, genre is described as a staged, goal-oriented social process:

- (i) Staged as it usually takes more than one phase of meaning to work through it
- (ii) Goal-oriented as the unfolding phases set out to accomplish a set task, and
- (iii) Social as the genre is carried out in interaction with others (Martin, 2009)

3.2.3 Curriculum Genres

The study of classroom pedagogy has seen the implementation of genre theory via the study of curriculum genres. A curriculum genre is a staged, patterned way in which the goals of the classroom and school are realized (Christie, 1995, 2000a). Curriculum genres have evolved to include differing temporal levels. The descriptions of temporal levels for this study are comprised at the smallest level of a stage, which is one of two or more steps in the larger

phase. Multiple phases constitute a lesson, or curriculum genre, and a unit of study, from a textbook for example, is termed a curriculum macrogenre. The level of stage is embedded within the level of phase, which is embedded within the level of curriculum genre, which is embedded within the level of curriculum macrogenre.

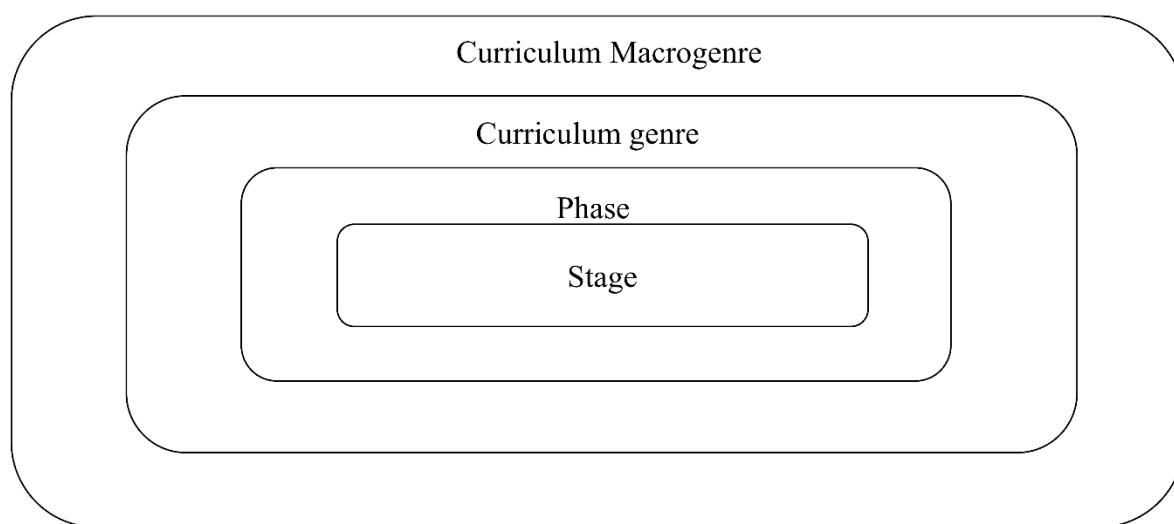


Figure 2. Embedded stages of curriculum genres

Each of the levels is staged, consisting of a beginning, middle and an ending. They are also goal-oriented in that at each level there is a pedagogic goal to be obtained. An example of a stage pedagogic goal would be to indicate the beginning of a new phase. A phase may have the goal of introducing new target vocabulary to be learned; whereas the curriculum genre may have the goal of having students practice speaking certain target expressions, as decided by the larger goals of the curriculum macrogenre. The use of this approach for utilizing curriculum genres allows for an investigation into the use of language at different stages of the lessons, which in turn allows a more detailed account of when and why the L1 or the TL is spoken by teachers.

3.2.4 Pedagogic Discourse

The sociological theory of pedagogic discourse presents this study with an approach that is able to analyze the social relations that transpire between the teachers and their students

within the curriculum genres mentioned above. Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse is defined as,

A principle for appropriating other discourses and bringing them into a special relation with each other for the purposes of their selective transmission and acquisition. (Bernstein, 1990a, p. 183)

This refers to the way in which classroom discourses characteristically consist of discourses taken from settings outside of the school. In the EFL elementary school classroom this could be as simple as taking a common exchange about what students did on the weekend, and using the linguistic elements associated with this exchange in a lesson via activities such as role plays, listening practice and so on. The recontextualization (Bernstein, 1990a) of the discourse from its original context to that of the classroom context means that original social and power relations from the appropriated discourse are replaced by new, virtual-social and power relations of the classroom. This recontextualization then draws on two embedded discourses within the pedagogic discourse; regulative discourse, which is a discourse of social order, and instructional discourse, which is a discourse of the skills within the original discourse to be learned. Instructional discourse, which contains the recontextualized content to be learned such as the language behind every day greetings, is always embedded within the regulative discourse.

Pedagogic discourse refers to the conventional ideas about classroom discourse, especially those of power and control, and was employed in this study to portray the social practices involved within the curriculum genres obtained in the classroom observations. In addition to this, it allowed for an exploration of the principles behind the ordering of the patterns of classroom discourse as found within the texts produced from the observations in this study. For the purposes of this study, and following Christie (1995), the term register is used in place of discourse due to its importance to SFL. As mentioned earlier, register is how language is used to represent the salient aspects of context, and in this study refers to the interactions between the teachers and the students. Therefore, regulative register relates to the control of behavior in the classroom, and instructional register describes the subject or knowledge being taught.

3.2.5 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position

The ideal pedagogic subject position (Bernstein, 1996) describes what teachers consider to be the best position for students to be in if they are to learn the content of the classroom. It is constructed via the pedagogic discourse of the classroom, specifically, via the regulative and instructional registers (Bernstein, 1996; Christie, 2000a, 2000b). The “ideal” is related to the greater context of the classroom. In the Korean context, this includes influences such as the Korean education system as a whole, the English language curriculum, as well as the ideals of the teachers’ involved in the study. These teacher ideals were the main focus of the study. These ideals are shaped by the experiences that the teachers have had over their learning and teaching life time, as outlined by both Borg (2006) as well as the diagram on influences that is discussed later in the chapter. They are significant factors influencing the regulative and instructional registers that form the ideal pedagogic subject position of any classroom.

3.2.6 Power and Control

During the recontextualization of discourse into the classroom, original social and power relations are replaced with virtual social and power relations. This recontextualization allows the ‘ideologies, the beliefs, values and dominant practices of the teacher’ (Chappell, 2014, p. 34) to replace the original social and power relations, particularly those about teacher roles and student roles and methods for empowering teachers or students. This was especially significant for this study, as it was during recontextualization where teachers revealed their beliefs on the role of the L1 or the TL when teaching the content of their classes.

The pedagogic discourse created during this recontextualization influences the ideal pedagogic subject (Bernstein, 1990a), and is controlled by the beliefs of the teacher. For the purpose of this study, the ideal pedagogic subjects were the students and how they were shaped by the construction of the discourse in the classroom. The regulative and instructional registers within the pedagogic discourse were fundamental to understanding how students’ pedagogic identities were shaped by the beliefs of the teachers.

3.2.7 Classification

Bernstein (2000) translates the issues of power and control in the classroom into two distinct terms: classification and framing. Classification refers to the boundaries and insulation created between different categories, such as class subjects, or even between life at home and

life in school. The boundaries between categories are socially constructed, and the stronger the insulation between the categories, the stronger the classification. Strong classification exists in activities in the classroom if there is little relation between the activity in the class and what occurs at home. Additionally, within educational settings, boundaries exist between subjects that contain little crossover of subject matter, so that there is generally strong classification between English classes and mathematics classes at the elementary school level. If there were similarities between what happens in the class activity and what happens at home, then there would be weak classification. Likewise, similarities between two classroom subjects leads to weak classification between the subjects. Uniqueness in a category is established in identity, in voice and in the rules of internal relations (Bernstein, 2000), and this uniqueness is preserved by power. Within the traditional classroom, it is the teacher who has the power to control the strength of classification of a classroom or subject. This study investigated how teachers' use of the L1 affected the classification at different points of curriculum genres in order to ascertain how it related to the issue of power in the classroom.

3.2.8 Framing

Framing refers to the issue of control in the classroom. It describes pedagogic practice in terms of 'who controls what' (Bernstein, 2000, p. 12) by representing the regulation of communication in the classroom. Framing is about who has control over:

- the selection of the communication;
- its sequencing (what comes first, what comes second);
- its pacing (the rate of expected acquisition)
- the criteria; and
- the control over the social base which makes this transmission possible (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 12-13)

Strong framing indicates that the transmitter, traditionally the teacher, has explicit control over these elements, where weak framing indicates that the acquirer, traditionally the students, have an apparent control over classroom communication and its accompanying social base. Framing regulates two systems of rules via these elements: rules of social order and rules of discursive order. Rules of social order, such as the hierarchical relationship between students and teacher, are revealed in the regulative register, and rules of discursive order (selection,

sequence, pacing and criteria of knowledge) are revealed in the instructional register (Chappell, 2014). As previously mentioned, the rules of instructional order (instructional register) are always embedded within the rules of the social order (regulative register). Both instructional and regulative registers are present throughout a curriculum genre, with one being foregrounded and prominent while the other is backgrounded and less prominent. This study employed these concepts to investigate how the different languages (L1 or TL) in the classroom were used when the teacher exerted control via the instructional or regulative registers.

3.2.9 Vertical and Horizontal discourses

Pedagogic discourse is traditionally strongly framed and strongly classified in relation to non-pedagogic, more informal discourses. Bernstein uses the term vertical discourse to describe traditional pedagogic discourse, and horizontal discourse to describe the more informal non-pedagogic discourses found outside of educational settings (Bernstein, 2000). These terms allow for a description of the consequences of changing strengths in framing and classification in the curriculum genre. They also relate social and power relations in the classroom to those outside the boundaries of educational facilities.

Bernstein's sociological theory of pedagogic discourse is a powerful tool for describing how the L1 or TL are related to issues of power and control in the classroom. It allows researchers to go beyond the rudimentary descriptions of language functions in the classroom which have been the norm for most studies into L1 and TL use. It provides the researcher with tangible accounts of how either language is being used during the social construction of the classroom learning environment.

3.2.10 Socially Constructing the Classroom

The beliefs that teachers have invariably influence their actions. Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse provides a tool for examining how these beliefs are involved in the social construction of classroom settings. Social and power relations are redefined by the teacher during the recontextualization of content into the classroom, as described above. And it is these relations that are the major socializing forces within the classroom. Therefore, social construction can be referred to as how teacher beliefs and actions control how students can act within the classroom setting. When positioned into an ideal subject position, the

teacher is telling the students what they are allowed to do, and what they should refrain from doing. This interaction between teacher and student is therefore said to be socially constructing the environment by defining acceptable and unacceptable behaviors. As it is the teacher who holds the greater position of hierarchy in comparison to the student, it is the teacher who has greatest say over this social construction.

3.2.11 A System of Negotiation

To complement Bernstein's theories in order to provide a more robust description of L1/TL use, this study utilized Martin & Rose's (2007) analysis of the system of negotiation to track the movement of information and action during the exchanges in the observed classrooms. The system of negotiation is part of the larger speech function system (Martin & Rose, 2007) which allows a focus on the interaction as an exchange between speakers, allowing an analysis of how speakers adopt and assign different roles during dialogue. The basic parameters of negotiation are:

- what is being negotiated (information or goods and services)
- whether it is being given or demanded (statement (information) /offer (goods) or question) and
- whether a move initiates or responds to the exchange

The four basic speech functions identified by Martin and Rose are realized in statements, questions, commands and offers. Within the speech functions, the grammatical moods declarative, interrogative and the imperative can be identified in both congruent forms and metaphorical forms. Identifying the grammatical moods and speech functions within the negotiations of the classroom allows for a stronger description and identification of Bernstein's concepts of classification and framing. By identifying the mood choices of the teacher and the students it is possible to identify who is establishing the strength of classification and framing in the classroom exchanges.

3.2.12 Additional Elements in the Framework

In addition to the work of Bernstein and Martin & Rose, two additional discourse analysis features were applied to create a more robust description of how the language was being used

in the classrooms. The first is the commonly employed identification of the IRF, or Initiation-Response-Feedback (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) sequence that is common to traditional classroom settings. The identification of IRF sequences portrays who is leading the exchanges, and provides a better understanding of who is in a dominant position in the classroom. This assists in providing more descriptive elements for the previously mentioned concepts of framing and classification.

The second additional discourse analysis tool is based on Sankoff and Poplack's (1981) grammar for code-switching. Code-switching refers to the changing between L1 and TL that occurs between people who share two or more languages. This study employed a simplified version of the grammar for code-switching which identifies between intersentential code-switches and intrasentential code-switches. An intersentential code-switch occurs when the speaker changes from one language to another outside the sentence or clause level, and an intrasentential code-switch occurs when the speaker changes from one language to another inside or within the sentence or clause level. Identifying where and how code-switching is taking place allows for a more precise description of who is using what language and how, which in turn leads to a more holistic description of who is maintaining control during classroom exchanges.

In summary, this framework allows for a more succinct description of who is saying what, what language they are saying it in, when they are saying it, as well as the social ramifications for what was being said. Such a precise description of the classroom discourse is vital when attempting to discover possible influences over teachers' language choices in the classroom, allowing for a more substantial association between teacher actions in the classroom, and the beliefs behind the actions.

3.3 Framework for Interview Analysis

Tracking the origins of the beliefs that teachers have about the role different languages play in class requires a theory for tracking the evolution of beliefs. As outlined in the literature review, a lot of work has gone into researching teachers' beliefs, and as a result, a lot of terminology has been employed to describe what are fundamentally the same concepts

(Pajares, 1992). The current study employs ideas put forward in Barnard and Burns (2012), adding a temporal element to the different stages of development that beliefs undergo. In order to do this, different stages of belief development require different labels. The growth that beliefs undergo has been divided into three distinct periods: initial assumptions, tentative attitudes, and firmer beliefs. At each stage, the ideas within these periods are exposed to a myriad of external pressures that influence the path the ideas may take. Figure 3 below combines the ideas from Borg (2006) and Barnard and Burns (2012) to create a visual description of how teachers' beliefs are formed.

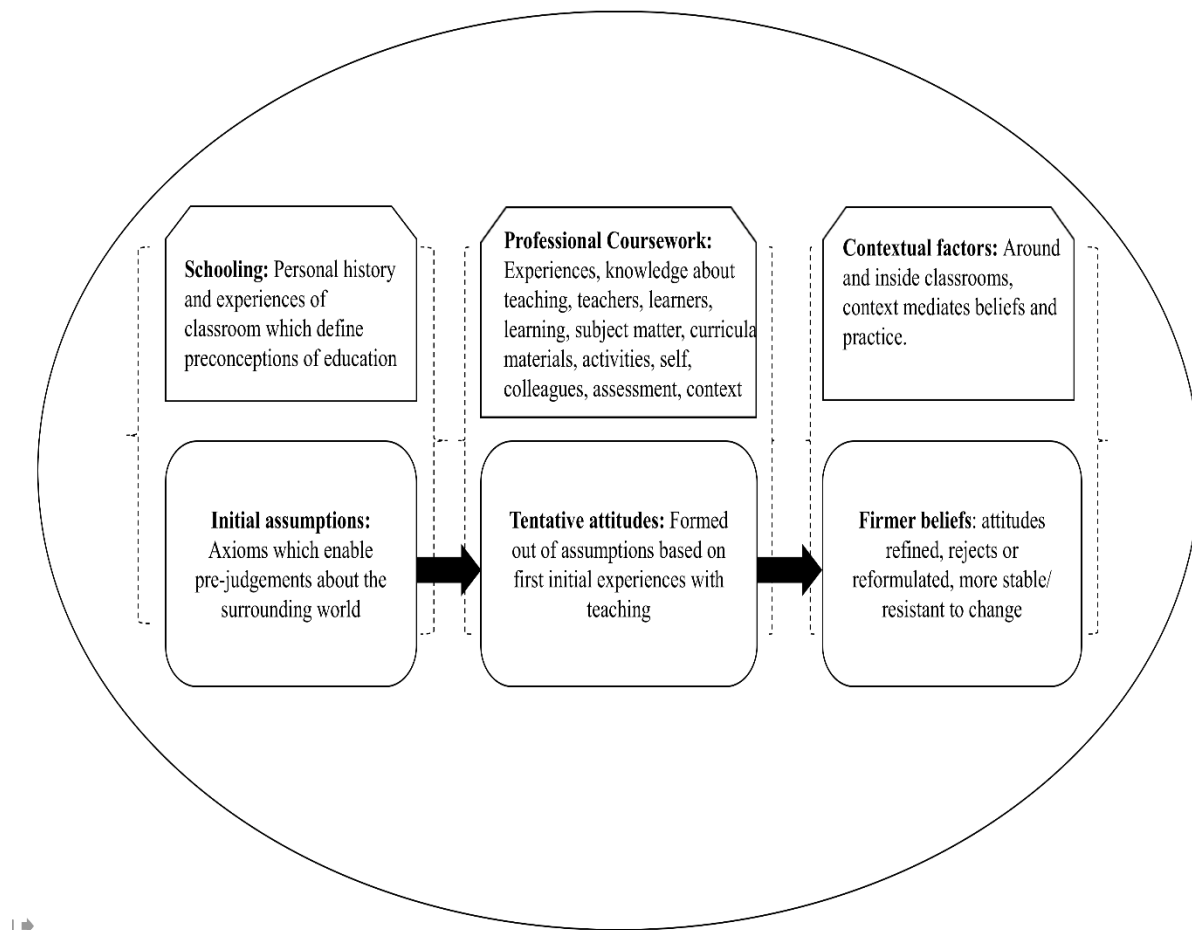


Figure 3. Development of beliefs

Figure three identifies the influences acting at different periods of belief development. The three major groupings of influences are labeled as schooling, professional course work, and contextual factors. The use of braces around each grouping is meant only to serve as a guide to where these influences might usually be expected to occur. Schooling is most likely to

influence initial assumptions about teaching, just as professional course work is more likely to help attitudes evolve out of initial assumptions. What is important is that there is a distinction between the three periods temporally, where assumptions evolve into attitudes and not vice versa, and beliefs form after attitudes about teaching have been refined, rejected or reformulated by experiences in the classroom. This description of the changes that beliefs undergo due to contextual influences allows for a better understanding of the influences acting on teachers at varying stages of their lives. This more refined description assists in developing interviews so that participants are able to articulate their experiences more concisely.

3.3.1 The influence of Reflexivity on Interview Data

Re-theorizing qualitative interviews has its origins in the social sciences (Mann, 2016), growing out of calls to conceptualize interviews as active meaning making ventures rather than techniques for eliciting data for the presentation of objective or subjective truths. Kvale contrasts the reading of interview data as either *veridical*-where the data is seen as reliable participant accounts, or *symptomatic*-where accounts are viewed in terms of interviewees' relationships to an interview context (1996). Building on theories of social constructivism, interviews have been re-designated as sites of local accomplishment which involve the co-construction of content between both the interviewee and the interviewer (Mann, 2011, 2016). This has led to a greater focus on contextual factors related to the interviewer (as opposed to just focusing on the interviewee) which include the need to address interviewer identity and interactional context. As of yet there has been limited action within the field of applied linguistics (K. Richards, 2009) in terms of acknowledging the call for a more 'critical and discursive approach' as outlined by Block (2000) and Pavlenko (2007), although this might be influenced by the restrictive nature of academic journals which do not have the physical space for more elaboration on contextual factors surrounding interviews (Block, 2000). Mann's (2011) review of articles that used interviews and were published in prominent applied linguistic journals highlighted 'discursive dilemmas' (p. 12) which saw a majority of articles present content as truth rather than the result of reactions to interviews.

The interviews reflect the broader interpretative epistemological approach taken by acknowledging the co-construction of knowledge that occurs within the interviews (Mann,

2016). A reflexive approach accounts for the co-construction of knowledge by presenting data not as quotable cut outs which represent objective reality, but as a localized accomplishment (Mann, 2011), where contextual elements such as interviewer identity, status and thoughts on the phenomenon under study are written into the accounts rather than being ignored, as in positivist views on interviewing which seek to render the interviewer as invisible. Contextually relevant factors are continuously included throughout the presentation of this data, covering the following elements of the interviews,

- Why – researcher’s purpose in setting up interview
- Where – physical, social and institutional context
- Who – interviewees & interviewer
- How – genre of interview, recordings, question types, language used
- What – interactionally relevant artefacts (Mann, 2016)

In addition to these contextual elements, parameters of sensitivity (Mann, 2016) are also acknowledged. These parameters, namely rapport, disclosure, and empathy are considered vital elements that not only ensure the success of any interview, but are also involved in the co-construction of knowledge that occurs in any interview. These elements are all acknowledged to ensure greater integrity of the research project’s findings as a whole. These elements of reflexivity work in conjunction with the broader phenomenological approach that influence the interviews, as discussed further in the methods section.

3.4 Summary of Theoretical Framework

The frameworks behind the analysis of the observations and interviews build upon the current trends in linguistics that are grounded in assumptions that knowledge is socially constructed. As stated earlier, there is growing concern that research based on positivist notions of reality fail to describe the realities of classrooms, and therefore have not been successful in improving the knowledge base of what occurs in language classrooms (Johnson, 2009). Classroom complexities are not easily captured in experimental designs. It is even more difficult to generalize findings that do emerge, as classroom contexts are often submerged in complex socio-historical, cultural, economic and political settings (Johnson, 2009). The

social turn (Block, 2003) and its epistemological perspectives allow for an uncovering of how people constitute their social realities, without a need to make larger generalizations, as per the positivist paradigm. As sociocultural approaches to language classrooms continue to grow in prominence, there is a need to continue to improvise and innovate new methods of analysis that can further understandings of the complexities of language classrooms in both EFL and ESL contexts. Adding to the knowledge base of a discipline ensures that it does not remain static, and ensures that the members of the community who work within the knowledge base continues to grow. The use of SFL, coupled with Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse (2000), provide new insights into how the L1 is used in the social construction of EFL classrooms. The current study is firmly grounded in sociocultural perspectives, and builds upon the current body of work that has investigated teacher beliefs, as well as the language choices made in EFL contexts. In addition, it seeks to go beyond this research by incorporating sociological perspectives on the role education plays in a society by utilizing theories of pedagogic discourse in conjunction with SFL to allow for a broadening of the scope of the *Hows, Whats, and Whys* of second language teaching.

The following chapter outlines the mechanics, or actual methods of how these theoretical frameworks are employed to provide data to these questions.

Chapter Four: Research Design

This section describes the research design used to trace the beliefs the participants had about their use of L1 (Korean) and TL (English) in the English classroom and how these beliefs affected the social construction of their classrooms. It starts with a review of the methodological tools commonly employed to investigate teacher language choices and cognitions. It then describes the approach taken in this particular project. As seen in the chapter title, I treat this section as an opportunity to add to the reflexive theme running throughout this thesis.

4.1 Research Methods on Teacher Language Choices and Teacher Beliefs

In a comprehensive review of research into teacher beliefs, Borg highlighted how research into teacher beliefs has favored a more qualitative approach (2012). Studies on the language choices of teachers in EFL environments have also incorporated qualitative research designs in order to provide a more descriptive approach of what is being observed (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Qualitative research methodologies have been favored in both areas of research as they allow the researcher to explore the phenomenon in its natural context, which in turn allows for a greater understanding of how context influences the phenomenon.

4.1.1 Referencing Actions

Understanding the beliefs a teacher has about what they do in class needs to be referenced to what actually happens in the class (Borg, 2006). This makes observation an important tool for researchers. The preference has been for non-participant observation in the majority of research on teacher cognitions. Researchers need to explain their interpretation of what they mean by “non-participant” in order to make clear the precise nature of their role is clear. The role of participant can either refer to how much the researcher participates in the class they observe, or it can refer to the nature of the relationship formed between the researcher and participant (Borg, 2006).

4.1.2 Inherent Flexibility

Semi-structured interviews are commonly employed together with observations. The inherent flexibility of these interviews allow new directions to occur while the interview is underway.

Additional advantages of semi-structured interviews (Borg, 2006) include the allowance of:

- the development of a relationship with the participant
- the researcher to explore tacit and unobservable elements of the participants' lives
- the use of open ended questions for a greater generation of more elaborate and qualitatively richer data (compared to closed question types).

The semi-structured interview accommodates the social constructivist approach that was embraced by this project, as it allows for the interviewer to react to the interviewees' comments. These reactions can either be emotive in nature, or in relation to content. These are important elements of reflexivity which are articulated to ensure the integrity of the project and its findings.

4.1.3 Combinations in Use

Research into the language choices of language teachers across a wide range of contexts commonly employ non-participant observations in which the researcher either video-records or audio-records the lessons in order to obtain data about when the teacher uses the L1 or the TL. In order to understand the motives behind teachers' language choices in class, semi-structured interviews are conducted prior to, during and after observations. This combination was found in Kang's (2008, 2013) research into fifth grade elementary English school teachers of English, and Forman's (2010) study into the language choices of Thailand university NNESTs.

Another study conducted in Korea focused on Korean English high school teachers' language use and beliefs (Liu et al., 2004). The 13 participants in this study each had one of their classes video recorded. Unlike the previously mentioned studies, however, some participants expressed discomfort at the thought of face-to-face interviews. In reaction to this, the researchers decided to elicit information on the beliefs about the language choices via a questionnaire which employed open-ended questions. This was done for three of the participants while informal interviews were held with the remaining participants. As pointed out by the authors, a serious limitation of this study was the small number of classroom observations used. By only using one lesson from each of the 13 teachers, who 'were very conscious that we were collecting data' (p. 633), the data was considered not representative of what truly occurs in the South Korean High school classrooms. In order to overcome this

issue, the authors suggested that a reduction in the number participants and a more in-depth collection of data from a smaller group could yield more representative data. Another issue with the methodology was a lack of access to the participants' beliefs about their code-switching practices due to participants' unwillingness to partake in face-to-face interviews. The face-to-face interviews used by Kang (2008, 2013) and Forman (2010) allowed them to further question and elicit information about how the teachers felt about their code-switching practices.

Copland and Neokleous (2011) used a similar approach, observing one class each from a group of four participants. They justified the small number of observations used by stating 'the researchers believe that given the degree of homogeny that exists in Cypriot schools... they [the data obtained from the observations] are fairly representative of the practices of English language teachers in this context' (p. 271). In a possible contradiction to this reliance on homogeny, the next sentence explained that the participants all held very different views on L1 use in the classroom, suggesting that a small sample size in a homogenous culture is not going to be very representative of the teaching context, especially when all participants seemingly have such differences in their language uses.

Small sample sizes are a recurrent theme in research on teacher language choices (Carless, 2004; Kang, 2008, 2013; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Nagy & Robertson, 2009). Practicality is the overriding rationale for the use of small sample sizes. Finding willing participants is an issue for anyone investigating this area. Participants who are willing to be involved are working professionals whose first responsibility is to the students they are teaching, meaning that too much disruption to classes is a major source of stress and inconvenience.

4.2 The Current Research Design

This study employed a case study methodology set in the qualitative research paradigm. This approach was deemed appropriate due to the context of the research and the nature of the data that was being collected. The data collected came from interviews and observations of teachers in their natural contexts. This resulted in the collection of rich, subjective data, exposing variables, phenomena, processes and relationships (Burns, 2000). The purpose of the data collection techniques was to provide evidence of the language choices Korean elementary school English teachers made while teaching English. These were then connected

to the beliefs for these choices.

4.3 Case Study Research

A case study is research that studies a case within a real life, contemporary context (Yin, 2009). Described as a ‘detailed, often longitudinal, investigation of a single individual or entity’ (Nunan & Bailey, 2009), it is defined in linguistic studies as a type of naturalistic inquiry which seeks to observe events without interference as much as possible. A case study is considered one of the more flexible research designs in that it allows the researcher to maintain the integrity of the phenomenon under study while performing an empirical investigation. A case study is empirical research that

- Researches a contemporary phenomenon within a real life context
- Uses multiple sources of evidence
- Works within the indistinct boundaries of the phenomenon and context in which it occurs (Yin, 2009)

Case studies are used to examine the more explanatory questions of ‘How’ and ‘Why’ (Schell, 1992), as they research issues which occur over a span of time rather than at intervals. The biggest strength of the case study is its ability to deal with evidence from a variety of sources, including, but not limited to, documentation, artefacts, interviews and observations.

Despite the differing definitions for case study methodology, most include ideas related to the fact that a case study is done within a demarcated area or time and that it is carried out in the naturally occurring situation of whatever is being researched as opposed to controlling and manipulating variables, which is a common characteristic of more formal experiments. For this research project, the use of a natural context allowed for the exploration and description of the essential aspects of the language choices being made by the teacher. The context in this study is not restricted to just the classroom, but seeks to explore prior experiences the participants had in relation to their teaching and learning English experiences.

4.3.1 A Multiple or Collective Case Study Approach

A ‘multiple or collective case study’ (Stake, 1995, 2005) approach was utilized in this project.

A number of cases were used to investigate the phenomenon of the use of, and beliefs behind, the language choices of Korean elementary school English teachers. One advantage to this approach was its ability to stand up to possible attrition among participants (Duff, 2006). As discussed previously, finding teachers willing to participate in this type of research is difficult; participants may decide during the data gathering stage that they feel uncomfortable with the observations and may request to drop out of the research project all together. Therefore, it is wise to ensure that research projects start with enough participants in order to ensure that a saturation of data is achievable.

4.3.2 Literal Replication

Each case within this multiple case study approach included participants who taught in very similar contexts, and based on informal conversations had during our time on teacher training programs, seemed to have similar beliefs about using Korean and English in the classroom. Upon reflection it now appears that my assumptions about their beliefs were rather limited, as will be seen in later chapters. This literal replication (Yin, 2009) of each case predicted similar results from each of the cases. The use of multiple cases allowed for the possibility of direct replication (Yin, 2009), which in turn allowed for a more robust description of the phenomenon that arose out the independently conducted analyses of each case.

4.3.3 Triangulation

Triangulation was employed to provide a multitude of perspectives in the study. A major strength of using case studies is the ability to utilize different sources of evidence in order to create a triangulation of data. This is because the use of multiple methods allows the researcher to overcome deficiencies and biases that arise from single methodologies. Multiple triangulations were achieved in this project. Data source triangulation (Denzin, 1989) was achieved by gathering data at different times. Methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1989) was achieved by using more than one method of data gathering. Data type (Denzin, 1989) triangulation was achieved by using data from both interviews and observations. Multiple triangulation allowed for a more valid interpretation via a convergence of the evidence. It also allowed for a deeper insight into the phenomenon via the combination of methods and types of data.

The data collection tools were observations and interviews. These two data collection

methods have been successfully employed in combination for investigations into both teacher cognition research as well as teacher language choices. Although the analysis of the data collected in a case study can be qualitative or quantitative, this study analyzed the data qualitatively to allow for a more descriptive picture of what was occurring in the classroom. The major advantage of the approach taken in this research project over other methods of investigation is the setting of the study in its natural context, which makes it more identifiable for other practitioners or teachers. This allows for generalizations to be made by other teachers who work in similar contexts. It also offers alternative viewpoints and supports differing interpretations of a situation, and the data collected can be reinterpreted by future researchers. The intuitions gained from this research design can be used for a variety of purposes by an assortment of different stakeholders with vested interests in the focus of the study. The user friendly nature of this research design allows for a more democratic approach to the decision making based on such studies (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

4.3.4 Issues within Case Study Methodology

Conventional views of case study research suggest that it has a very limited role in terms of results or empirical evidence that can be produced. Some of the common misunderstandings about case study research state:

1. General, theoretical knowledge (Context-independent) is more valuable than concrete, practical (Context-dependent) knowledge
2. Generalization cannot be made on the basis of an individual case, so the case study cannot contribute to scientific development
3. Case study research is only useful for generating hypotheses, and less suitable for theory generation
4. The case study tends to only confirm a researcher's preconceived ideas about a subject
5. It is difficult to summarize and develop theories on the basis of specific case studies

(Flyvbjerg, 2006)

However, conventional wisdom is misleading. Research into the social sciences rarely results

in proofs or hard theories; most research into the affairs of humans only produce context dependent knowledge (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Generalizations in social sciences tend to be overvalued (Flyvbjerg, 2006) compared to the often undervalued ‘force of example’ (p. 228) which describe more vividly what is actually occurring.

The problem of subjectivity is often discussed when examining the shortcomings of case studies. Subjectivity is seen to endanger many steps of the process, including the selection of participants, of what constitutes data, as well as how researchers choose to interpret their data (Dornyei, 2011).

However, subjectivity is an issue with all methodology, not just case study methodology; the case study approach ‘contains greater bias towards falsification of preconceived notions than toward verification’ (p. 237). Based on this defense of the case study approach and its ability to include the context, it is believed that this approach will allow for a deeper exploration of an epistemological perspective that views knowledge as being socially constructed. The reflexive accounts within this study are included to make sure that all possible influences within the project are included to allow for a greater exploration of how researcher subjectivity influences the data and its interpretation.

Other issues are the potential for information overload, as well as time-consuming nature of case study data collection and analysis methods, which also can increase the tendency for bias and selectivity (Burns, 2000) when interpreting data collected. This can lead to issues when presenting, and even reading, the findings, as the raw data can often be more than the report that reveals its worth (Stake, 1995).

4.4 Researcher Role

This section accounts for my position as an ‘observer, interloper and interpreter’ of people’s lives (Paine & Delany, 2000, p. 118) during this research project. I will explain my relationship to the topic and participants in order to bracket myself out as much as possible (Creswell, 2013). This is a fundamental consideration in qualitative research due to the nature of the data collection procedures. The researcher is also required to have a sound knowledge of the context of the research project in order to contribute to an understanding of the ‘representativeness’ or the typicality of the group being studied (Hitchcock, 1995, p. 108).

4.4.1 Developing Relationships

I worked in an in-service teacher training program for seven years. My position as head teacher meant that I was involved in a lot of the day-to-day coordinating of the program. My duties included not only teaching but other administrative work, including hiring of foreign instructors for the program, as well as consultation sessions with the teacher trainees who attended the program. This position was viewed with some esteem by the trainees, who, due to their culture and the respect attributed via power distance relationships, more often than not treated me differently than other instructors. Due to the increased contact time in and out of the class with the trainees, a high level of rapport was created with a majority of the trainees, with several often returning to the shorter winter and summer programs run by the university that I was also involved in. Friendships developed that often saw me attending social gatherings on varying occasions. In turn, ex-trainees heard about a previous research project that I conducted and expressed interest in participating in any future projects I might also conduct. Prior to the start of this research project, I resigned my position and moved to another department within the university, but still kept in touch with trainees from previous programs. This natural development of rapport is an essential element for interpretive research (Feldman, Bell, & Berger, 2003). Described as commitment acts, in which investment of personal time and energy can have unpredictable payoff in relation to research opportunities, the rapport I had created naturally with the trainees led to their invitations to enter their classrooms and explore, what both the trainees and myself considered, an important element of their working experience, i.e. the use of Korean while teaching English. It was believed that the friendly nature of the relationships formed between myself and the participants, as well as the fact that they had already been through the training program meant that there was little power distance between myself, the researcher, and the participants. Little threat existed to the participants of this research project, and all the principals that I met were pleased that their teachers had such academic curiosity.

4.4.2 Outsider-Insider Status

Despite the previously established rapport between myself and the participants in the study, there was still a very obvious difference in status between us during the project. In fact, rapport was constantly re-negotiated throughout the project: at each classroom observation, at the beginning of each interview as well as during the interviews. My previous roles as teacher

and trainer, and then as friend, were in constant flux with that of researcher. As a European male, physically I stood out and was a source of curiosity for the students in the schools I visited. The attention I received at each visit was transferred to the teachers as they accompanied me through the school. This led to raised levels of self-consciousness and unaccustomed attention for the teachers. My presence in the observations, along with the camera, undoubtedly had an effect on the teachers and students being observed. As did the fact that the interviews were held in the English language, and in the schools of the participants.

The issue of how interpretation and participation may have been affected needs to be addressed. Below will offer a detailed account of how participants were made to feel comfortable with the research process, including options such as lesson choice, interview time and place and discussions of the researcher interpretation of the data collected.

Although admitting the potential for criticism, it is the aim of this section to be as frank as possible about myself and my relationship to the participants in order to bracket myself out of the study as much as possible and allow any assumptions that I may have brought with to the process of the research project. Based on a previous study and extensive reading, it is my belief that the L1 is an important tool for teaching English in the Korean EFL context. Its usefulness for creating rapport, classroom management and as a motivational factor was discussed in another study I conducted (Rabbidge & Chappell, 2014).

4.5 The Participants and Site Selection

In a study of this kind, the phenomenon under study dictates what methods are to be employed and the type of participants to include. It is essential that all participants have experienced the phenomenon. Therefore, non-probability sampling techniques are commonly required. For this study, purposive sampling was selected as it ‘serves the real purpose and objectives of the researcher of discovering, gaining insight and understanding into a particularly chosen phenomenon (Burns, 2000, p. 465). Similar sampling methods have been successfully employed by Kang (2008, 2013), and by Carless (2004), allowing them to find suitably representative participants. A good example of deliberate selection of participants can be found in Tsui (2003), who deliberately chose participants who had enough ability and willingness to both discuss their classes in English and be observed teaching.

Participants were selected for this study based upon informal conversations held during my time teaching on the previously mentioned teacher training program. During the program a good rapport was developed with several different trainees. Discussions with these different trainees led to the belief that they would be suitable for this research project. The trainees had a comparatively higher competency of English to others in their class, they also demonstrated a sound knowledge of how to teach English at elementary school, and all of them expressed opinions on the English-only approach to teaching English. They indicated different opinions on using Korean in class when teaching. All participants were made aware of my interest in how teachers teach using English and Korean, and during their time in the program asked to participate in my study if possible. These teachers came from different schools and taught different grades, but all shared enough in common to be appropriate candidates for the research project. Therefore, it was felt that the participants chosen displayed adequate knowledge of the situation, expressiveness, approachability or availability (Wolcott, 1988). However, due to difficulties finding five participants, one participant was admitted to the study despite a relative lack of English teaching experience, as it was felt having a fifth participant was better than not.

The number of five participants chosen for this study falls within the range suggested in Boyd (2001) who suggested between two to ten participants is necessary to reach a saturation of data. Biographical information is provided in the table below.

	Years Teaching English	Gender	Age group	Grade of class	Level of education	Current Teacher type
Teacher 1	10-12 years	Female	30-35	5 th grade	M.Ed.	Subject teacher
Teacher 2	5-10 years	Female	30-35	5 th grade	M.Ed.	Subject teacher at English center
Teacher 3	5-10 years	Female	30-35	5 th grade	B.Ed.	Subject teacher
Teacher 4	5-10 years	Female	30-35	4 th grade	B.Ed.	Subject

						teacher
Teacher 5	2 years	Female	35-40	5 th grade	B.Ed.	Subject teacher

Table 3 Biographical Information of Participants

4.5.1 Teacher Profiles

The data for the teachers' profiles comes from two separate interviews, which occurred on two separate days. The participants were all sent, via email, the guiding interview questions a week before the interview took place in order to allow them to think about their answers in advance. This was done to allow for possibly richer answers, especially if the participants actually chose to think about the questions beforehand. As it turns out, only two of the participants stated that they had read the questions, and this was seen in their responses which were typically more reflective of their experiences.

To allow for ease of comparison between the participants' data, a defined rhetorical structure was used. This structure was as follows:

Heading and statement characterizing the nature of the teacher's beliefs

- Background data (gender, age, academic documentation)
- Contextualization of interviews
- Summary of language learning history
- Current teaching context
- Stated beliefs about using English and Korean

4.6 Student Participants

The focus of the research was the teachers' cognitions about what they were doing; therefore, the students were a necessary part of the teaching context. Students, however, were not

interviewed nor interacted with myself in any formal part of the research project.

4.7 Data Collection Methods

The primary form of data collection for teacher beliefs was interviews, which is a common approach to data collection for a lot of teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006). The interviews were an adaptation of what Siedman calls ‘in-depth, phenomenologically based interviewing’ (Siedman, 2006, p. 15). This three stage interview process combines life history interviewing (Bertaux, 1981, as cited in Siedman, 2006), with more focused and in-depth interviewing techniques which draw upon assumptions from phenomenology (Siedman, 2006). This phenomenology approach to interviewing seeks to incorporate open ended questions in order to ‘build upon and explore’ (Siedman, 2006, p. 15) the participant’s responses with the ultimate goal to have the participant reconstruct their experience with the phenomenon under study.

4.7.1 The Role of Phenomenology

Phenomenology is a study of the common meaning of a concept or phenomenon as experienced by several individuals (Creswell, 2013). A phenomenological study concerns itself with describing what the participants in a study share in terms of experiencing the phenomenon. It assumes a fundamental unawareness of what things mean to people (Creswell, 2013) and by basing their beliefs on this idea, qualitative researchers look to ascertain the experiences of people through descriptive and narrative approaches.

Features of phenomenological studies

A list of defining features of phenomenological studies includes:

- an emphasis on the phenomenon
- exploring the phenomenon within a group of individuals who have experienced the phenomenon
- a bracketing of the researcher out of the study by discussing their own personal experiences with the phenomenon
- a discussion about the subjective experiences of the phenomenon and the objective

experiences of something in common with other participants

- data collection that uses interviewing as its primary source of data collection
- data analysis that moves from narrower units of analysis to broader elements followed by more descriptive summaries
- ending with a description of the essence of the experience

(Creswell, 2013)

Interviewing is a mode of inquiry that seeks to put a participant's behaviors into context. The adapted phenomenological based interviewing series employed in this research project was based on the premise that words represent consciousness, and that in order to inquire about one's conscious understanding of a phenomenon, a researcher must use the participants words as an access point (Siedman, 2006). This perspective provides an emic view of the phenomenon, and requires interviewers to 'keep our egos in check' (Siedman, 2006, p. 9) as much as possible so that the participants view of reality remains central. Conversely, the role of the interviewer during the co-construction of knowledge during the interview process is also acknowledged as the mere presence of the interviewer directly influences the interviewing process. The influence of the interviewer is accounted for by a bracketing out of the interviewer's opinions of the phenomenon, as previously described in this chapter.

4.7.2 The Phenomenological Interview Series

This research project utilized phenomenological interviewing techniques that involved two separate interviews. Each interview had a different purpose, but the overall purpose of the interviews was to make the participants' behavior meaningful and understandable by placing it in the context of their lives and the lives of people around them (Siedman, 2006). The rationale behind this interview series was the belief that by dividing the interviews into two separate parts, and having each interview focus on a different aspect of the phenomenon, the participants' behavior would be put into the more meaningful context of their lives and of the influences within their lives. As highlighted by Seidman, 'Interviewers who propose... a one shot meeting with an "interviewee"... tread on thin ice'(Siedman, 2006, p. 17). This is because a single interview is insufficient to explain all the complexities involved with the

participant who is experiencing the phenomenon under investigation.

The purpose of the first interview was to focus on the life history of the participants in relation to the phenomenon being studied. This first interview involved open-ended questions about the participants' experiences with English education and their experiences as learners while attending the different levels of school. It also elicited responses about attending teacher training courses designed for English teachers and what type of attitudes they had towards English or experienced when using English at these stages of their lives. The aim, therefore, of the first interview was to put the participants' experience in to context as much as possible by finding out about them and their experiences before their current teaching situation.

The second interview sought to explore the tangible details of the phenomenon as it was currently being experienced. Open ended questions were used to elicit how participants believed they used English in class and the reasons for these uses. In addition to the immediate context of the classroom, information was elicited about the participants' school context, including relationships to other teachers in the school, relationships with students, parents, principals and other possible stakeholders within each participant's particular context.

Interviews are integral to the process of putting experience into language as a meaning making process (Siedman, 2006). Interviews were theorized as being active in the sense that the interviews were co-constructions of knowledge between the participants and myself (Mann, 2016). Contextual elements in the interviews were accounted for reflexively and were included in the analysis and presentation of data. This allowed the interviews to fall in line with the social constructivist approach taken in the study as a whole.

4.7.3 The Non-Participant Observations

Observations were held prior to the interviews in order to avoid any influence that the interviews may have had on teacher actions in the classroom. Participants were asked to select two naturally occurring lessons that I would observe (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). Non-participant observations of the classroom were used to record teaching practices and language choices made by the participants as well as to record the contexts in which the participants worked. Observations were utilized to allow for the investigation into how the teachers' beliefs, as realized in the interviews, influenced the social construction of the

classrooms in regards to Bernstein's theory of pedagogic discourse (Bernstein, 1990b).

Stimulated recall sessions were not employed in this study as stimulated recall sessions 'at best may be only tangentially related to actual thinking during the recorded event and at worst be entirely fabricated' (Yinger, 1986). These views on the effectiveness of the stimulated recall base themselves on a variety of ideas, including, but not limited to:

- How well teachers can accurately report thought processes that are no longer stored in their short-term memory
- How well teachers can account for tacit thinking and automatized teaching behavior
- How much teachers create ad hoc rationalizations when under pressure to explain their actions
- The influence the video may have on the teacher's memory of events, i.e. what the video suggests rather than what the teacher thinks, and the different perspective the video can present

(Borg, 2006)

During the observations notes were taken to assist in identifying when the participants used English and Korean in class. No observation scheme was employed here as to avoid possible bias by bringing expectations into the observation. During the observations, a video recording was made. Transcriptions were made and these, with the recordings of the lessons, were given back to the participants after a period of two weeks so that they could check the accuracy of what had been said. Korean translations were also checked this way.

Classroom observation is defined as a family of related procedures for the collecting of data during real language lessons, done 'primarily by watching, listening, and recording (rather than asking)' (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 258). Non-participant observation, where the observer does not engage in the class, was chosen for this research in order to maintain as close as possible the real classroom situations that occur on a day to day basis. However, due to my presence in the classroom, with the recording devices, it is acknowledged that the observer's paradox (Labov, 1972) may have influenced the classroom environment to some degree. Potential influences may have included

- Participant teachers using more English than they normally would use
- Students behaving better than they normally would
- Participant teachers using lessons they were confident of showing, rather than what may have been usually planned
- Participant teachers using activities that they know are effective rather trying new activities that might result in unexpected behavior
- Participant teachers calling on students who they know can answer correctly
- Teachers preparing certain students before class to ensure certain behaviors are followed

These changes in behavior would obviously impact upon the findings, as the central concern of the observations is to discover how the participant teachers actually use the L1 or TL. In order to avoid this as much as possible, the interviews were held after the observations so that teachers would not be influenced by any of the interactions had during the interviews. That being said, it is almost impossible for my presence to not affect the classes.

A video recorder recorded the classroom interactions, while notes were made on occurrences of language use, specifically when Korean and English were used by the teachers in order to establish patterns of language use, and to discover what was happening and what influenced the language choices. A translation of Korean utterances was made during the playback of the video recording. Transcripts of the observations can be found in Appendixes A.2 to E.3. Classroom observation field notes were also taken to ensure more reliability and validity of the data being gathered by being used in the triangulation of all gathered data. These field notes were used to confirm and add to the data collected during the observation phase.

4.8 Summary of Data Collection Methods

In total, each participant was interviewed two times and observed twice, for a total of 20 different data collection sessions for the entire research project. The interviews made available insights into teachers' reasons for how they used language in the classroom as well providing insights into possible influences that the teachers' background had on these language choices. The observations allowed for the collection of data on actual language use

and conditions in the classroom. The transcribed lessons provided the data showing how both Korean and English were used in the classroom by the teacher. The video also showed classroom influences on the language choices, such as student teacher interactions, activity types, teaching aids and materials used.

4.9 Protection of Participants

In line with research involving people as subjects, certain procedures were followed to ensure the comfort and respect due the participants were met. Primarily this involved gaining Macquarie University Ethical Committee approval for the research project (5201400803), attaining permission from the principals of the schools in which the participants met, asking the participants for informed consent under the proviso that they could withdraw at any time if they so desired, the anonymization of the students who were in the classes but not directly involved in with the researcher, and the use of pseudonyms for the participants and participating schools. On top of these measures, a promise of confidentiality and an openness of purpose (Burns, 2000) was employed (Appendix F). Approval for data collection methods as well as the research project in its entirety was given by the Macquarie University Ethics committee in 02/09/2014.

4.10 Data Coding and Analysis

The approach taken in the analysis of the data can best be described as an iterative, inductive approach. Unlike the more orderly and linear quantitative analysis of data, qualitative data analysis moves back and forth between the data collection, analysis and interpretation stages. Most qualitative data is transformed into a textual form such as transcriptions, meaning that analysis is done primarily with the participants' words. As the transcriptions are accounts of the experiences of the participants within the research project, the main challenge was to 'bring insightful order to the multiple accounts of human stories and practices observed' (Dornyei, 2011, p. 244).

This project based its analyses on the principles of ethnographic semantics (Johnson, 1994), where the language that arose from interactions between the participants and myself, or between participants and their students, was the primary focus of the project. The constant comparative method was employed as it 'enables the researcher to understand the individual

perspectives' (Johnson, 1994, p. 441) of teachers while also making generalizations among these perspectives. This form of content analysis was a combination of two approaches: explicit coding and theory development. This allowed joint coding and analysis for the systematic generation of theory. The employment of this method of analysis allowed for the successful identification of themes, comparison of these themes, and the coding of themes into conceptual categories. These categories were then traced through the data in order to confirm or disconfirm the data. This approach was also conducted for the interviews of this project, where themes were identified and then either confirmed or disconfirmed by comparing them with what other themes emerged in the data, both in data from individual participants, and between data sets between participants.

Comparison was a major element of the analysis undertaken here. Comparison here relied on interplay between both the researcher and the data during collection and analysis stages. Each of the participants was treated as a single case. Within each case, comparisons were made between the data obtained from the interviews, and the observations. This helped to ensure the integrity of the data representing the experiences and perceptions of each participant was maintained (Johnson, 1994). Cross case analyses were then carried out which sought to identify commonalities among the themes and concepts across the five participants in order to draw generalizations.

4.10.1 The Classroom Observation Transcripts

The transcripts for the classroom observations involved transcribing the English used in the observations as well as the L1, in this case Korean. Utterances were transcribed into units of differing lengths that were determined by turn taking. One person's turn ended when they had finished talking, and then the next person's turn began when they began talking. Korean statements were transcribed as is within these turns, and a translation was provided next to the Korean statement.

The coding of the transcripts derived from the observations occurred after repeated readings of the transcripts in order to discover naturally reoccurring themes. As stated in the theoretical framework, the focus was on the interactions between the teachers and their students. The first theme identified were the curriculum genres, and the embedded levels of each curriculum genre. Exchanges at the stage level were then analyzed. First identified was

who initiated (I) an exchange, the response (R) to the initiation, and then if there was any feedback (F) to the response, as per the IRF sequence (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Then, an analysis of the system of negotiation was used to track the movement of information and action during the exchanges. The basic parameters of negotiation, as stated previously but restated here again, are

- what is being negotiated (information or goods and services);
- whether it is being given or demanded (statement (information) /offer (goods) or question); and
- whether a move initiates or responds to the exchange
(Martin & Rose, 2007)

The four basic speech functions, namely statements, questions, commands, and offers were then identified. Within the identified speech functions, the following grammatical moods were labeled and classified in both congruent forms and metaphorical forms,

- declarative
- interrogative
- imperative

The combination of grammatical moods and IRF sequences then allowed for the second stage of analysis to occur. This second stage focused on identifying the regulative register and instructional register within the exchanges at the stage level. Once these were established, it was easier to identify how the framing and classification of the interactions and curriculum genres were functioning in the classroom interactions. This then allowed for an identification of how the students were being positioned into ideal subject positions by the teachers.

4.10.2 Interview Data Analysis

The interview transcriptions include literal statements, as well as significant non-verbal and paralinguistic forms of communication. My position on the use of the L1 has been stated previously in this section in order to make explicit my thoughts on the matter. That being said,

it is acknowledged that a complete reduction was impossible, and I was not trying to achieve complete objectivity as strived for within the natural sciences (Hycner, 1999).

The interviews and transcripts were listened to and read many times throughout the different phases of the study. This allowed me to become more familiar with the content and to get a sense of the whole of each interview, as well as allowing for the context to emerge for the specific units of meaning and themes from each case. During the reading and listening, notes were taken of specific issues and general impressions. These impressions and notes were written and added to the analysis of the data to provide a sense of reflexivity to the transcript section which were then written into the findings section in conjunction with the interview data.

In the first interview, each participant was asked to discuss her personal learning history with English. In the second interview, each participant then discussed her current teaching situation. Each participant was interviewed separately. All but one of the interviews took place in an empty classroom at the participants' school. One interview took place in a local café at the request of a participant. The physical settings of the interviews were important, as the institutional setting of the interviews influenced the professional identity of the participants (i.e. English teacher), which in turn influenced the way they answered the questions and the discussions in general (Mann, 2016). This is revealed in the way the participants viewed their past experiences via their teachers' lens. When they discussed their past experiences of learning English, they did so in school, and in between teaching classes, which means they were still most likely viewing things as a teacher tends to. The one interview in the café saw this institutional identity replaced by a more casual, neutral identity, affecting the reflexivity of the interview. A digital recorder was used each time to capture the interviews, and the participants had no issues with the recording device being present and recording their statements throughout the interviews. The interviews were based on a set of open-ended questions that I had prepared which allowed for digressions from the question set in order to capture the participant's whole experience.

4.10.3 The Role of Identity in the Interviews

The knowledge of the interview genre that both myself and the participants had meant that a lot of interviews started in a much more formal manner than what may have occurred if they

were merely conversations. This formality instantly changed the dynamics of our relationship, which, due to previous experiences, was quite informal.

The formality placed me firmly in the researcher role, or question asker, and the participants in the role of answer-provider. However, due to the dynamic nature of the interviews, these roles were not always present throughout the interviews. Despite being selected due to their English language proficiencies, sometimes the participants would struggle to express themselves as this was a relatively new experience for them. During these times I had a decision to make; I could maintain a formal distance and let the participants try and find their own words, or I could revert back to my role as teacher and answer their questions about language choice. In keeping with the social constructivist approach, I chose to revert back to my teacher role and work with the participants to find the words they were looking for.

Participants in research projects tend to be constructed by researchers at different stages of a research project (Foley, 2012), and often the changing identities within an interview are overlooked as contextual influences that are present in the co-construction of knowledge during the interview. By acknowledging the dynamic nature of the identities within the interview, more transparency is given to the formulation of the findings in a study. This involves acknowledging the identity of the researcher in the process, and how researcher identity is both dynamic and influential in the interview. Several elements positioned myself firmly as an outsider during the interview process, these included but are not limited to:

- Researcher
- Former teacher –trainer
- Native English speaker
- Location of interview-participant's school

4.10.4 Parameters of Sensitivity

The decisions to abandon my researcher role and take on my teacher persona resulted in an increased presence of parameters of sensitivity, namely rapport, empathy, and disclosure (Mann, 2016). This in turn allowed the interviews to run their course successfully rather than become uncomfortable experiences for both myself and the participants.

Mann's parameters of sensitivity (2016) are elements of the interview process which are often overlooked in the presentation of data. Despite this lack of attention, however, they are vital elements that determine the success and outcomes of interviews. Rapport, disclosure and empathy are all skills that interviewers can employ to ensure participants engage appropriately and comfortably with the interviewer. These parameters can be established prior to the interview, as well as during the interview, depending on the circumstances of the interview. In the current study, all three were established well before the interview process, due to the nature of the relationship between myself and the participants. High levels of rapport were developed during teacher training programs, as these programs were taught over a 6-month period. Additionally, informal conversations, as well as materials used in class, meant that I was able to disclose my position on the use of the L1 when teaching English, and in fact, this disclosure actually allowed me to demonstrate certain levels of empathy with the trainees. The early establishment of these parameters of sensitivity was key in attracting participants to the study, as the trainees felt comfortable bringing me in to their world and disclosing their thoughts and practices. Finding participants willing to participate in a study can often be a difficult process, but the establishment of rapport, disclosure and empathy sped up this process considerably. Despite being established prior to the actual interviews themselves, these parameters still needed to be maintained during the interviews in order to ensure their success, as well as guarantee follow up interviews can still take place.

Although not articulated at the time to the participants, it was hoped that the interviews could encourage reflexivity within the participants, enriching the answers they gave. Hence this acknowledgement of the co-construction of the data between myself and the participants in regards to the answers supplied, and the presentation of more than just the interviewees' answers. Also included are the questions as asked at the time of the interview to provide more context to the exchange and represent my role in the co-construction of the interview.

4.11 Study Reliability and Validity

Having detailed the methods of data collection and the analysis of the data, the report now considers the credibility of the study and the strengths and weaknesses of the research instruments used. This project used Dornyei's (2011) list of criteria for ensuring validity. This project:

- Leaves an audit trail of the steps taken to achieve the results
- Provides contextualization and a thick description of the research setting
- Used methods of data triangulation to reduce the chance of systematic bias
- Performed respondent feedback checks which contributed to the data after interpretation.

Reliability, although impossible to establish in the traditional sense (Burns, 2000), was created via a triangulation of data. This study utilized Stake's (2000, p. 444) idea that triangulation 'serves also to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is being seen'. The reporting of any bias (Burns, 2000) also serves to increase reliability. The steps and procedures are explicitly clear and well documented in order to help improve the reliability of the research in order for future replication to be made possible.

As stated in Burns (2000, p. 476), the able case study researcher indicates validity through a detailed account of how the study was carried out. Internal validity was provided by the multiple sources of data collection and the use of triangulation, where I checked on interpretations made of the data with the participants in order to avoid any bias. External validity was limited due to the small sample size, which also limited the generalizability of the results given.

Differing opinions are offered on the quality control issues of the case study. The importance of internal validity and external validity vary according to different points of view. For Larsen-Freeman (1996), external validity and generalizability are irrelevant, questioning 'whether it has ever been attainable in classroom research' (p.164). Countering this is the belief that the observations made in case studies should be used to make larger generalizations, stressing that the issues of reliability and validity are vital. Causal relationships identified need to be accurate in order to avoid threats to internal validity, like all research, to ensure that the researcher is in fact observing what they think they are observing. Inferences made by researchers based on a triangulation of data involve issues of subjectivity, which for the most part are not seen to be a disadvantage for the qualitative case study due to the heavily contextualized nature of the case study that seeks to explore phenomena in its naturally occurring states, often resulting in the indirect involvement of the

researchers.

In summary, generalizability can be achieved for case studies when findings for many case studies are aggregated, although generalizability is not always the ultimate goal of case studies as the particular and unique are also valuable ends to a case study (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

4.12 Limitations of the Proposed Study

The main limitation of the study was its inability to be generalized to the larger Korean teaching context due to the limited sample size. Also, the validation and reliability issues mentioned above could pose limitations on the value of the data, especially due the potential subjective nature of the data. Likewise, there could be some limitation in response to the interview questions as there was be no translation available due to the limited size of the research. An additional limitation related to the participants which would limit the generalizability of the findings is the English language proficiency of the participants, who were all selected due to their ability to communicate relatively freely in English. Teachers with less English proficiency would most likely have produced different findings.

It was also possible that Labov's (1972) observers' paradox had some influence over the validity of the data due to the researchers' presence affecting the behavior of the participants in the observations. My experience as a teacher trainer means that I am aware of how uncomfortable Korean English language teachers are about being observed. Also, the fact that I was a native speaker of English also influenced the behavior of the children in the observations, as reported by the participants. A longer time frame including multiple observations would reveal a more reliable set of data. Due to relationships developed during the teacher training program, there may have been researcher desirability effect (Neuman, 2000) in the participants' interview data, especially as the participants were former trainees of mine. There may have been unconscious or conscious efforts to meet my expectations, which could also have been influenced by Korean culture's reverence for the teacher, something which is based on Confucian beliefs. There is acknowledgment that the mentioned limitations may temper the claims made in this report. The reflexive accounts given in the findings from the interviews were attempts to ensure that a greater level of transparency was present. It is hoped that these reflexive accounts highlight the interactive, co-constructive nature of the

interviews and address any concerns about the contextual influences

4.13 Summary of the Research Design

This chapter has described the approaches taken, the methods used, and strengths and weaknesses of said approaches and methods. The qualitative methodological instruments were chosen to observe, describe and analyze the language choices of the participants and the reasons for these language choices.

The guiding philosophy of the methods used in the project falls within the qualitative paradigm, and acknowledges that the methods and people involved were all important contextual factors that worked in combination with each other to produce the findings in the sections to come.

An important function of this section was to add transparency to the overall process of the project. The varying sections within this chapter strived to highlight all of the contextual elements at play, as well as the accepted knowledge of these elements, which itself played an important role in influencing my own actions and beliefs. I finish this chapter with a small reflexive account on the mutually shaping nature between the act of writing this chapter and my own current notions of methodology. At the beginning of the project, I admit to having a limited understanding of the complexities involved in working with a qualitative approach to research. I viewed interviews and observations as simple tools designed to help me get to the more important findings of my research project. At this stage of the project, I now have a greater appreciation for the need to better contemplate the importance of these methods. My initial views of interviews as mere tools for extracting information from the interviewees have now developed in to seeing these as localized accomplishments between myself and another contributor. This is also true for the observations. I see this chapter as more than just providing an account for what I have done. I see it as listing the potential influences acting in the co-construction of the data in my project, and as a reflexive account which adds to the greater awareness of all I have learned in the process of this project.

Chapter Five: Tracing the formation of assumptions, attitudes, and beliefs about L1 and TL use in the classroom

Findings from the interviews and the observations are discussed separately. Profiles of the participants were created to provide a description of the accounts they gave of their lived experiences with the use of the L1 and the TL. These profiles were written in order to ‘find and display coherence in the constitutive events’ of the participants’ experiences in order to connect the experiences of different participants within the overall context of the study (Siedman, 2006, p. 120). These accounts incorporated elements of reflexivity (Mann, 2016) in order to acknowledge the co-construction of the data, and provide a more robust account of what the participants said, as well as what I brought to the process. Following the teacher profiles, a description of how both English and Korean were used in the social construction of the classroom is presented.

5.1 Presenting the Teacher Profiles

As a reminder of the how the profiles were constructed, and to allow for ease of comparison between the participants’ data, a defined rhetorical structure that was used is restated here.

This structure was as follows:

Heading and statement characterizing the nature of the teacher’s beliefs

- Background data (gender, age, academic documentation)
- Contextualization of interviews
- Summary of language learning history
- Current teaching context
- Stated beliefs about using English and Korean

5.2 Teacher 1: The More English used by the Teacher, the Better

- Female, 30-35 years

- Years teaching English: 5 as subject teacher, 7 as Homeroom teacher
- B.Ed., TESOL, MEd
- Current position: English Subject Teacher
- Grade observed teaching 5th grade

5.2.1 Contextualization of Interviews.

I had known Teacher 1 for approximately 6 years prior to the study, through various training courses that she attended and on which I had taught. A good rapport had developed between us, which saw her agree to join the study without hesitation. In fact, she was the first participant to volunteer for the study. This indicates the level of trust and mutual respect we have for each other. It must also be noted that Teacher 1's level of English competency is quite high, so I felt that at no stage would she struggle to express herself in a clear manner, despite the interview being held in her second language. Nevertheless, during the interviews there were times when she sought my advice when trying to express herself. Both interviews were held in the classroom where she taught her lessons, and this was her choice. As posited earlier, this had some effect on her role in the co-construction.

5.2.2 Personal English Language Learning History.

Teacher 1 started her English education experience at the age of ten. The Korean elementary school system did not include English as part of the National curriculum at this time; however, she received private tutoring at the behest of her mother. This private tutoring involved a Korean English tutor who would visit Teacher 1 at her house and teach her phonics and read story books. She listened to tapes based on phonics workbooks and story books, and also watched videos related to the content. Every morning the tutor called her house and checked if she was doing the work. To the question of if her tutor spoke a lot of English or not, she explained that she spoke only a limited form which included simple expressions such as "good morning, how are you?" Teacher 1 said that she enjoyed these classes because of the content, which focused on children stories. Teacher 1's first public school educational experiences came in middle school. During this time the classes focused on reading texts, memorizing, and translation. There was no focus on speaking or listening, and the teachers

did not speak English unless reading from a text.

Researcher: Can you remember how much English they used when teaching English?
Just roughly guess.

Teacher 1: They were old and they didn't use English in the English class.

Researcher: Not at all?

Teacher 1: Just when they read the texts because the text itself was in English so that
was just in English but nothing else

Researcher: was in English

The way she quickly responded to this question, emphasizing the word “old”, and provided details about when they spoke English suggested that this was a vivid memory for her. My time in Korea led to the realization that there were a lot of similarities between middle and high school learning environments, which prompted me to discuss her high school experiences, and her experiences with the Korean SATs, which led to the following exchange about the KSATs

Researcher: How did you feel about that?

Teacher 1: I also liked it too

Researcher: Because it was English?

Teacher 1: Yeah just because it was English

This might be a case of the researcher leading Teacher 1 to a desired answer, but more than once she explained how she enjoyed learning English when she was younger. Later, the interview focused on the effectiveness of the teaching techniques her teachers used, where she stated that even though she did not think the methods her teachers used were effective for language learning, she still enjoyed the classes because she received a lot of praise due to her ability to do what her teachers wanted, which was memorize and recite. At the same time, she was attending middle school she was also attending a private English academy. This revealed an important aspect of her language learning experiences, where she described her time with NS teachers

Teacher 1: I liked it because I could...in that class I experienced various things like cooking, singing the pop songs, doing the role plays, yeah so I liked it.

Researcher: and how about with the native speakers teaching English all the time, I assume, how how how did that feel? Were... did it did you like the fact that the native speakers spoke English all the time or did it annoy you sometimes or did you find it frustrating because sometimes it was hard to understand what they were saying?

Teacher 1: Sometimes yeah ... it was ah actually I attended that kind of native teacher's class from when I was elementary school student so at first I can remember I was afraid of going there because I couldn't understand all of what they were saying, but just gradually I could understand what was going on, using their gestures or something else and also I could understand what they were saying so in the middle school I just enjoyed it

Researcher: OK, so yeah I guess after a lot of exposure. Ah... which classes did you enjoy more at the academies? The native speaker or the Korean teachers?

Teacher 1: The native speakers

Researcher: Because of the different type of activities

Teacher 1: Yeah

Researcher: and

Teacher 1: and the atmosphere was totally different because Korean teachers class you just memorization and gave some feedback the feedback was really how can I say it was not about the content error itself but the result, how many I got wrong, but in the native teacher's class the atmosphere was really free and open

This alternative language learning (ALL) experience was an important part of Teacher's 1 development, as it exposed her to different methods, as well as the notion that a language could be learned without the use of the L1. For her, the experience was an enjoyable one,

especially when contrasted with her comments on the teaching methods of her Korean English teachers. This seemed to be an initial assumption she had about language use in the class, and associating certain languages with enjoyable experiences or not. While attending university, she also attended conversation classes with native speaker teachers but did not enjoy these as much, as she felt the content was too easy.

Teacher 1 attended a handful of teacher training courses as well as language proficiency classes after graduating from university. Teacher 1 was my student during a TESOL course she attended. As the discussion turned to this, there was a worry that she may not discuss it in a frank manner, due to our prior relationship as student and teacher.

Researcher: So when you think back to the TESOL course, ah I don't know, how useful do you think that was?

Teacher 1: How useful?

Researcher: and you can be honest...

Teacher 1: I think it was really useful because at that time I was teacher third grade English and after I took that class I could use the same methods or same activities to my students, and I felt it was really effective

During this exchange, I tried to assure her that any answer she gave would be welcome, even if it was negative about the programs I had taught on, but before an extended dialogue could be given she cut me off and gave her opinions on the course. This could signal that she either did not want to give an answer that I might not have liked, or could be an indication of the trust that had developed between us over the years as both teacher and student, and as friends. When asked about another training course she attended, she first established that she attended a course at another university, and after some probing, explained why she did not like it

Teacher 1: Well what is the purpose of the WTT program? Just to improve the English skills or teaching skills?

Researcher: Boost ... well depends... different programs boost English skills or boost confidence um sometimes its methodology focused

Teacher 1: Yeah so that program in Gwangju National university of education was not

that focused on English teaching methods and it was focused on just four skills of English, listening reading speaking and writing writing I'm not sure yeah but the method was really I think it was somewhat old fashioned

Researcher: Who was teaching?

Teacher 1: Native teachers

Researcher: Why do you say it was old fashioned?

Teacher 1: For example, in the listening class I just listened to some minimal pairs and just distinguished the words or dictation it was a major part of the listening class

The interview then moved on to another course that we had both been involved in.

Teacher 1: Yeah I really liked it I loved it because I could get many ideas about teaching English and also when I planned the lesson plan I could think of some educational things educational activities

She went on to explain why she felt the course was important in her development.

Teacher 1: Actually after I go the ITT course I think I felt more confidence about my English and also teaching English....

These experiences reinforced her belief towards certain teaching methods, while the positive experiences reinforced the belief that she could use English effectively in class, despite clearly having had some negative NS teacher experiences. This reflects what Ellis (2002) refers to as one of the defining characteristics of a NNEST; the ability to reflect upon and use within their own classes the different learning and teaching styles that NNESTs themselves have experienced. These exchanges also highlighted the possible effect of having the interviews in an institutional setting, as her answers were very critical of methods she had experienced throughout these early years.

5.2.3 Current Teaching Context.

At the time of data collection, she was an English subject teacher, which meant her job was to teach English to a number of different classes. She had also taught English as a homeroom

teacher in the past, where English was just one of a number of subjects she taught her home class. As a subject teacher she said that she speaks English 70-80% of the time, and used more English compared to when she first started teaching English. When I asked her to think about how much English she used as a home room teacher who taught English, she said that she used less English

Teacher 1: Because to them they are really familiar to me as a Korean so when they see me using English they thought it was a little bit strange, yeah, and also I thought like that so I didn't use English that much like now

Researcher: How much would you say in terms of a percentage you used?

Teacher 1: But still I tried to use English so over 50% yeah

The curriculum for English subject teachers and homeroom teachers who teach their students the English subject was identical, and for a teacher to differ so drastically in her perceived use of English when in different roles indicated a powerful contextual influence or set of influences. The role that students expectations played here was important, with some (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008) stating that a lot of beginner students expect the teacher to use L1 for classroom management functions of instructions, activities and assessment requirements. Lee and Macaro (2013) also reported on the expectations that Korean students have in particular of their teachers to use the L1 in the English classroom. These different perceptions students have about homeroom teacher and subject teacher identities proved to be important contextual factors that allowed Teacher 1 to justify her differing amounts of English in different contexts. This issue was something all participants mentioned in their interviews.

As an English subject teacher she found she could distance herself from the stereotypical Korean teacher led persona, and when asked about the advantages of using an English-only approach she reported

Teacher 1: It's a kind of personal idea but when I use English I students feel more comfortable so when I speak in Korean they just look at me as a real teacher or an adult. How can I say kind of dominated?

Researcher: An authority figure?

Teacher 1: Yeah yeah but when I'm using English they feel like really comfortable woman in front of them

Researcher: You mean not like a teacher?

Teacher 1: Not actually that but feel like ah want I want to say is it lowers their tense

This led me to ask where she felt these ideas originated from, to which she replied

Teacher 1: From my past experience so when I learned English and when I went to the academy and there was a teacher who only used English a foreign teacher maybe it's because he was a foreigner I'm not sure but yeah using English itself makes the atmosphere better

She stated that she had even received feedback from students via official student and parent feedback avenues about how strict and unkind she seemed when she used Korean in the class. Within this same feedback system, she pointed out that all the positive comments students made about her class were at times in the class when she used English to teach various activities. Within this exchange it would appear that I may have led her to an answer, although on reflection I resorted back to a teacher figure and tried to help her find the language she was searching for to complete the sentence. Additionally, another time during this exchange when I tried to help her she rebuffed my interpretation in order to describe her own feelings of the situation.

Despite not being pressured to teach a certain way by her principle, when asked if she felt pressure to teach a certain way she explained

Teacher 1: Sometimes I feel that kind of pressure from students because many of them are attending English academy and they usually compare what teachers in schools do and what teachers in academies do

Researcher: Have you heard your students say anything like that?

Teacher 1: Oh yes it was a kind of writing lesson and the students aren't ... one students was writing a sentence and it was just about how pretty she is that kind of sentence so every time I emphasize to put period or question marks like that and one student asked me 'what is ... in English?' and I just said it's an

exclamation mark and one said even my academy teacher didn't know that and I felt not that good because she was ... OK... when I think of her words at the bottom of her heart she thought her academy teacher was better than me but she didn't know but I knew that so she was surprised about that

There is a possible relationship between these incidents and Teacher 1's own history with learning languages, as she often favored teachers at the academies over her school teachers, and she may have assumed that her students were doing the same. When asked if she felt that her past experiences may have influenced the way she used Korean in her own classes she stated that she did not think so

Teacher 1: Maybe the ... not the past ... when I was young as I told you before the teachers didn't use English that much in the classroom. I tried to think of the time that I got some lectures from education office or ...yeah or internet on-line and graduate school, I think those kind of things influenced my teaching style

This reply was interesting, as previously in the interview, when asked if the origins of why she feels English should be spoken all the time in class were personal or as a result of learning the ideas, she reported that the ideas came from her own personal experiences learning English in English, which she enjoyed. This highlighted a difference in her perceptions about the role her personal learning experiences played in regards to her current use of English and Korean in her class, especially when considering her previous comments about the influences she received from her academy NNESTs. Her own teaching experiences, however, can be linked to certain experiences she had when she was learning English, as the following exchange revealed.

Researcher: How do you think your students feel about you using English?

Teacher 1: At first many of the students didn't look like they understood the instructions in English and didn't try to listen to my instructions because it is English and they just asked to the other students 'what is the teacher saying?' in Korean but now it is second semester and almost the end of the semester now they look like they now understand, many of them understand instructions in

English, but still three or four in a classroom don't look like they understand the instructions

This can be linked back to her experiences as a learner in NS teacher classes, where at first she did not understand what was going on, but as time went by she felt that she better understood what the foreign teacher was saying. Her own teaching experiences of this phenomenon served to reinforce her belief that exposure was important for language learning and served as a defining characteristic of Teacher 1's personal teaching theory.

Then her use of Korean was raised

Researcher: And how do you think they feel about your Korean use in the classroom?"

Teacher 1: Well, sometimes they look like they expect me to say to speak in Korean after I give them English instructions and maybe that means they feel more comfortable because they can understand easily, easier than when I speak in English

Researcher: What do you do when you think they are waiting for the Korean instructions?"

Teacher 1: When I explain about complicated rules game rules they expect it, I don't directly translate in Korean yeah I just review the picture again I try to speak English words more slowly and try to emphasize the key words often instructions and then I just show them how to do the activity

Researcher: What if that doesn't work?

Teacher 1: Then I just use Korean no no no before that I ask questions because there are some students who already understood my instructions so I could ... I just ask them some checkup questions like 'what will we do first?' and students can answer but I told students 'you can answer in Korean if you want' the students who already my instructions and then the others understand

Her initial response to the final question revealed more than she intended, and this response as a whole might serve to prove that she felt there was some expectation from me on what was right or wrong use of Korean in the classroom. Students of differing ages in Korea are

not in favor of excluding the Korean language in the learning process (J. H. Lee & Macaro, 2013), however, according to these interviews, this contextual factor did not dissuade Teacher 1 from using as much English as possible. Throughout the interview she gave the impression that using as much English as possible was the most effective way to teach her students, and the observed classes only reinforced this. From previous experiences with her in training programs, she had shown a strong preference for only using English in class, and this seemed to be maintained and represented in the interviews.

5.2.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean

The following table represents a summary of influences that acted on Teacher 1, and the reported beliefs about using English and Korean to teach English. The table isolates the influences that acted upon the teacher, as well as their stated beliefs about using English and Korean in their classes.

Influences	Stated Beliefs about English	Stated Beliefs about Korean
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Alternative language learning experience ▪ Negative experiences with Korean teachers ▪ Positive teacher training experiences ▪ English use associated with Teacher Identity ▪ Student level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ English exposure important ▪ Should use as much as possible, even 100% ▪ Distinguishes her classes from other subjects/teachers ▪ Makes class atmosphere better, lowers student affect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Allows control of lower level students ▪ Makes her like other (non-English subject) teachers in school/ more authoritative ▪ Used with boring activities/ ineffective teaching methods

Table 4 Teacher 1's Beliefs about TL and L1 use

As can be seen from the table, Teacher 1 had positive alternative language learning experiences and negative experiences with her Korean English teachers. She strongly believes in using as much English as possible when teaching, and that the use of English adds to her identity as an English teacher. She feels that speaking English improves the learning atmosphere. This coincides with beliefs that too much Korean language is not desirable, but is sometimes necessary, especially when needing to control students. She feels that when she uses Korean she is just like other subject teachers, which affects her identity as an English teacher.

5.3 Teacher 2: Language is Communication

- Female, 30-35 years
- Years teaching English: 6 as subject teacher, 1.5 as Homeroom teacher
- B.Ed., TESOL, MEd
- Current position: English Subject Teacher
- Grade observed teaching 5th grade

5.3.1 Contextualization of Interviews.

I had known the participant for approximately 5 years prior to the study, through various training courses that she attended and on which I had taught. The level of rapport was well developed, hence her eagerness to participate in the research project. Additionally, she had also completed her own thesis and was interested in the process of research. The level of trust and mutual respect between us was high, which led me to believe that a level of frankness could be achieved in regards to the interviews. Teacher 2 had a very good command of English, and I believed that there was no issue regarding her ability to express her true opinions during both interviews. Also as previously, each of the participants were given the questions prior to the interviews to allow them time to prepare, Teacher 2 actually took the time to note down her thoughts prior to the interviews, where most others had not.

5.3.2 Personal English Language Learning History.

Teacher 2 first started learning English with a tutor in the 5th grade of elementary school. At the time, English was not part of the national curriculum at the elementary school level.

When I sought to confirm this, the following exchange occurred

Teacher 2: Yep, but when I was a sixth grader (in elementary school) my homeroom teacher she showed us ... do you know EBS?

Researcher: Yep

Teacher 2: Yeah she showed us program EBS so I just watched some programs but it was not regular class

Researcher: Why did she show you those?

Teacher 2: Because at that time the office of education, well they didn't start to teaching English, not officially but they...

Researcher: The teacher was pushing...

Teacher 2: because of the president, the policy, sometimes the policy

Researcher: So your teacher was doing that because she felt the school wanted her to do that unofficially?

Teacher 2: I think so yeah

As this exchange highlighted, when Teacher 2 was growing up, English was becoming a more significant element in the development of the country, which most of society was aware of. This reply about the greater contextual factors that were acting on her had me wondering how her parents felt about learning English at that age. She stated that her mother had decided that both Teacher 2 and her siblings should learn English from a private tutor because

Teacher 2: Well at that time even the elementary school didn't teach English but the parents well you know Korean parents they already know I have to learn English in middle school, and English and Korean and math are the most important subjects they though so that's why she decided

Her reply about her private tutor and the role her mother played in arranging for this form of

education further highlighted the growing importance English was seen to have in Korean society at the time. It also revealed how the interview process itself was allowing her to reflect upon her experiences and make judgements from a more informed position as a teacher. This reflexivity was something that was never articulated as a goal of the interviews to the participants, but was something that the researcher considered might happen, and even be beneficial, to all the participants within the research project itself. The potential for participant reflexivity was why the interview series was designed in a less rigid form to allow for digressions that could potentially reveal more about the participants' past experiences.

Teacher 2's middle school English learning experiences consisted of reading and memorizing articles, as well as studying grammar. She stated that she did not enjoy this method of learning English, but despite appearing to be quite negative about the classes, she said that she enjoyed completing tasks successfully, as the following excerpts highlight

Teacher 2: Well at that time we just had a book and there was a tape also audio tape no videos, just simple dialogues, readings

Researcher: Did you enjoy that?

Teacher 2: I think I didn't because no games, no activities, just reading reading articles from the book, it's not related to my real life or my friends

And later

Teacher 2: My teacher was an old guy and his pronunciation was not that good and he used to listen to a tape and we had to memorize the dialogues or the reading paragraphs, well I had to memorize the reading paragraphs, I don't know why I had to do that so maybe he or she thought while I'm memorizing the paragraphs I can get more knowledge about grammar

Researcher: What did you enjoy about those middle school classes? Is there anything you enjoyed about those middle school classes?

Teacher 2: I (*laughing*) enjoyed memorizing, but sometimes I hated it and sometimes I enjoyed memorizing because the teacher said right now to memorize and who can stand up and who can read aloud, and if I didn't make any mistakes

I felt proud, happy

This exchange revealed both positive and negative experiences during her time at school. The teacher's reflexivity was informed by her current knowledge as a teacher, which saw her focus on methodological issues she either enjoyed or did not enjoy. Her reference to a lack of games and activities, which was seen through the lens of her current beliefs about what constitutes effective teaching, was linked to the feelings at the time of those experiences, with her current knowledge allowing her to articulate these feelings more effectively than if she were still a student. Furthermore, her current beliefs influenced her to be more critical of a time and teaching methodology which did not benefit from pedagogical knowledge of the current times, allowing her to position herself as an expert in her own eyes, or in those of the researcher.

Later the interview focused on the amount of English that her teachers used in class, where she stated that her teachers used little to no English when teaching these classes. Teacher 2 enjoyed the classes when she could complete the memorizing tasks, but not the classes themselves. The classes were focused towards tests, not communicative ability, and hence her teachers did not use English when teaching English. The learning experience was the same in high school, although a few younger teachers on occasion used pop songs in their classes, which teacher 2 enjoyed.

Researcher: How do you think your experiences from middle school and high school, as a student, how do think that influenced you as a teacher now? Can you see any direct relationships from what happened then to what you are doing now?

Teacher 2: Because I didn't enjoy... well I have a belief that language is communication so I have to communicate with my students and students they have to communicate, not have to...any way they communicate with each other but when I was young that time I learned always teacher talks, and then we wrote down, then we memorized and then test, so no activities or no communications so because of that experience I think in language class doing something with each other is important

Researcher: When you think back to those day and those classes and your experiences there, you are trying to do what your teachers didn't do?

Teacher 2: Yeah

This summarized her feelings towards the importance of language being a tool for communication more than an object of teaching, which was a common theme throughout her interviews. Teacher 2 did not experience an alternative form of language education with a NS teacher, either in the public school system or in private academies, when she was younger. This was an important part of her experience, as she formed assumptions early on about the way in which a language was taught. Her references about her beliefs about language being a form of communication were more likely a reference to her current situation, and were the result of further experiences with language learning. At this stage these comments were proof of how she continued to reflect upon her own experiences due to the focus of the questions in this first interview.

When she went to university she took English classes, and experienced her first form of alternative English education in a NS teacher led class. This led to an important period in her language learning experience

Teacher 2: When I was a freshman I was frustrated because the foreign professor, well actually it was my first time to meet a foreign teacher in class, I didn't meet I didn't have any foreign teacher's class when I was young so at first she ... there was a title of theme, and she asked about what pictures do you see? Then we freshman we said I see...like we do in elementary school class ...I see a lion but I couldn't answer, I don't know why, I know what it is in my head but I didn't have experience saying a lot so at that time I was frustrated so I decided to go to a conversation class institute

Researcher: So because of that frustration at not being able to express yourself with the foreign teacher, you went to the institute, the institute classes. Who were the teachers at the academy? Were they foreigners?

Teacher 2: All of them were foreigners

Researcher: And how were their teaching styles different

Teacher 2: I think that affected me a lot, that system, the institute has a drill system so, so if there is a sentence 'I am a student' and the teacher says a verb like 'was' then I say 'I was a student' then the teacher says again she changes the verbs or nouns so she said 'teacher' so I should say 'I was a teacher' so I changed the sentences a lot and with my classmates, maybe twenty we did it together, so it helped me to speak

Researcher: Practice speaking?

Teacher 2: Yeah practice speaking and then we had conversation time, 2 or 3 students we were talking about a theme from a book and then the foreign teacher joined the conversation together, and if I made mistake she 'oh you mean um um um' like that so sometimes she correct what I was saying

These comments continued the theme of methodological focus that Teacher 2 had when interpreting her past experiences. Her initial shock at not being able to communicate in English in her university English classes saw her attend classes which, on reflection, seemed to supply a link between the less communicative classes of her high school, and the more communicative classes of university. Deciphering the evolution of her beliefs on the roles of English and Korean over time needed to factor in the reflective lens that she is viewing these experiences with. Her response to this first experience in an English-only class exposed her to how ineffective her previous experiences had been at providing her with verbal communicative competency in English. This led her to reevaluate what was important in language learning, as proven by her decision to attend classes that promoted verbal skills, if not exactly communicative skills. Her actions revealed her feelings at the time more than the evaluative statements on the methodology, which were formed from her current beliefs about language learning.

After graduating from university, and getting a job as an English teacher, she attended several teacher training programs. These programs gave her knowledge of language and techniques for using English while teaching, and she generally found them beneficial. Her informal learning experiences while travelling also reinforced the attitude that language is for communication, influencing her beliefs about the role of English as a form of communication.

Teacher 2: Well I enjoy travelling and when you travel you meet a lot of people and sometimes we want to... you want to say something, but English is the easiest language to communicate in, and after travelling I want to learn English more and more because I can more people and listen to their stories, I can tell my stories more and more

Teacher 2 had relatively little to say about her experiences with teacher training programs, considering her focus on teaching methodology throughout the interview. This could be because of several reasons, including but not limited to: a reluctance to talk negatively about the programs that the researcher had taught on, the fact that there was little impact from these programs on her teaching, or that the interview was thirty minutes in and she was starting to feel fatigue. On reflection it is thought that she was starting to tire a little, which was impacting upon her answers. The interview finished about 10 minutes later.

5.3.3 Current Teaching Context

Teacher 2's classroom experiences as an English teacher can be divided into three parts: a homeroom teacher who taught her students the English subject, an English subject teacher, and an English teacher at an English center. The second interview started by looking at how much English she thought she used when teaching English. She explained that when working in the English center she used 90% English, while as a regular English subject teacher she used 70-80% English, and as a homeroom teacher she used 60-70% English.

Researcher: Why do you think there are such differences between the different roles?

Teacher 2: Well at the English center, as you know other schools' students visit here for English experience class and we have native teachers and Korean teachers, they expect something they will do something more in English it's kind of pressure yeah a kind of pressure a little bit because I have to use more English because they come here because of only English so I use 90% English and because they have other classes in English and I think have to use English too. And as a subject teacher, students they also regard me as an English teacher and yeah I always teach English as a subject teacher so I use more English, but as a homeroom teacher as I said before I have to teach many subjects in Korean, I teach math, history, Korean, but suddenly when

English class starts I have to say something in English but it feels awkward and they also feel awkward

Researcher: Because they are used to you speaking Korean?

Teacher 2: Yeah

Later in the interview, when asked about disadvantages of using English she said

Teacher 2: For me in the past it was a burden, it felt like a burden because I'm here with other native speakers and Korean teachers who teach English so we always talk about things in English, I communicate with them in English so English comes out naturally here but in normal classes like subject teachers or home room teachers we always talk about things in Korean and then suddenly English class starts and I have to say something in English that's the first ... on that day that's the first sentence or word I'm saying in English, that's a burden, it doesn't come out naturally

As an English subject teacher, her role, or identity, entailed that she spoke more English. This was made easier by the fact that the students expected her to speak more English so were less resistant to her use of English. Norton (1997) defines identity when referring to how people understand their relationships to the world around them, how these relationships are constructed across both time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future. Teacher identity construction 'must be understood with respect to larger social processes' and is influenced by coercive or collaborative relations of power (Norton, 1997, p. 419). The coercive nature of the school environment and the students within that environment seemed to have defined how Teacher 2 behaved as either a homeroom teacher teaching English, or as an English subject teacher.

In the English language center, which was a specialized center where students from around the district came twice a semester to experience total English immersion classes, she used 90% English. Upon working at the English center she quickly realized that she needed to use English more often; she consulted with other teachers at the center and realized that the other Korean teachers were using as much English as possible because the students purposefully came to the center to experience English so they must give it to them. This added pressure on

the teachers highlighted a unique contextual pressure that the English center presented teachers who worked there.

Researcher: How about if you compare this to your previous classes when you used Korean or English, because this is a special school, but if you think about your previous students, how do you think they felt then about using English or Korean?

Teacher 2: I think it was exactly opposite because in the previous class in the past if I speak in English students don't think it's... not natural, they think 'why is the teacher using English?' because she knows how to speak Korean but that was because to teach English in English but they thought it was awkward, but here in the English center if I speak Korean they just look at me 'why is the teacher using Korean' so its opposite

She explained that the English center saw all students in the district, but some areas were better off than others, and generally higher level students came from the better off areas of the district. She stated that the socioeconomic status of students indirectly affected the language use in her classes

Teacher 2: Just based on where they live, so if there are expensive apartments then their parents send their kids to English academies or they have more private education so they have usually had more exposure to English so they know a lot of English, this year we have those kinds of students, but next year?

This contextual factor was not unique to the center, but as a teacher in such a center she was clearly exposed more often to different socioeconomic groups on a daily basis compared to teachers who worked in regular schools.

The interview then turned to her current beliefs in an attempt to allow her to articulate her beliefs in respect to her experiences

Researcher: How much English do think you should use, what do you think is the ideal percentage for an effective class?

Teacher 2: Well it depends on teachers and students but normally I think 70 or 80%

Researcher: So 70 or 80% is ideal, so you feel your teaching here at 90% is a little ...unideal?

Teacher 2: No I mean more than 70 or 80 but it should not be well some people think we should only use English for English class but I don't agree

Researcher: Why not?

Teacher 2: Because we have to you there are some students who can understand me and sometimes they want to say something in Korean but I don't have to prohibit their Korean speaking even though it's in English class, sometime we need to so it not 100%

Researcher: How about yourself?

Teacher 2: About myself, teachers English, ... well I thought that teachers and students everything so only about teacher's maybe the more the better but even I want to speak in English all the time I cannot because it's not my mother tongue

Researcher: What does that mean then?

Teacher 2: Korean is my mother tongue and English is my second language so even if I want to speak a lot and I know more is better but I cannot express something English I don't know all the expressions

This exchange highlighted a point where Teacher 2 had not had time to think about her answers in advance, unlike some of the other questions, due to the misinterpretation of the question. Despite this, it was still felt that her answer was based on strong beliefs about the role of English and Korean in the classroom, with a clearly stated preference for Korean to have some role in the classroom for both teachers and students. This may contradict her previous statements about the importance for English to be used communicatively in the classroom, however, the belief about the need to use Korean to allow students access to the target language works in tandem with the belief about the need for English to be taught communicatively.

The interview then focused on how she thought her current practices related to her own experiences as a student.

Researcher: Where do you think these ideas come from for using Korean in these situations?

Teacher 2: From my teaching experiences for example I told you usually when I control students behavior I use Korean because before I tried to speak something in English but they don't listen to me or they do something else, I tried to speak in English but they don't listen to me, and if suddenly I say in Korean then they listen to me. For example in English center, the whole class is in English and suddenly if speak Korean all the students listen they focus on me so it works

Researcher: Do you think you have any experiences from when you were a student that you think maybe have influence your Korean use in the classroom?

Teacher 2: When I was a student? My teachers used more than 50% because it's in the past, the good points of their Korean I could know the meaning of sentences or phrase or grammar clearly but because they used too much Korean that means I didn't have enough chances to listen to native, not native, to listen to English so for my listening or speaking ability that didn't help in a good way

This exchange revealed a level of cognizance Teacher 2 had about her own language learning and teaching experiences, and her current beliefs about the roles of English and Korean in her own classes. Teacher 2 stated a strong belief in the need to expose students to as much English as possible, and while this belief was supported by a number of contextual factors at her current place of employment in the English center, it still allowed for the use of Korean to maintain lower level students interest in English learning. Teacher 2 openly discussed the need to use Korean and did not show a sense of guilt about her use of Korean, something which has been reported on elsewhere (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Macaro, 1997, 2006, 2009b; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

5.3.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean

The following table represents a summary of influences that acted on Teacher 2, and the reported beliefs about using English and Korean to teach English. The table isolates the influences that acted upon the teacher, as well as their stated beliefs about using English and

Korean in their classes.

Influences	Stated Beliefs about English	Stated Beliefs about Korean
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Limited ALL experiences ▪ Negative & positive experiences with Korean teachers ▪ English use associated with Teacher Identity ▪ Student level ▪ Physical and socioeconomic factors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ English exposure important ▪ Don't need 100% though ▪ Can demotivate weaker students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Needed to ensure all participate ▪ Motivates weaker students ▪ Has important place in class as is L1

Table 5 Teacher 2's Beliefs about TL and L1 use

Teacher 2 had limited experiences with TL only approaches, as well as both positive and negative experiences with her Korean English teachers. While she believes that exposing her students to as much English as possible is important, she also believes that there is a definite role for Korean, so that an English only approach is not necessary. She feels that English can demotivate weaker students, and therefore Korean motivates weaker students.

5.4 Teacher 3: Exposure is as Important as Motivation

- Female, 30-35 years
- Years teaching English: 5 as subject teacher, 1.5 as Homeroom teacher
- BA, TESOL
- Current position: English Subject Teacher
- Grade observed teaching 6th grade

5.4.1 Contextualization of Interviews

I had known the participant for approximately 3 years prior to the study, through a training course that she attended and on which I had taught. A good rapport had developed between us which saw her agree to join in the study after further enquiring about what would be required from her. Teacher 3 by nature was a quiet person, and was quite thoughtful in her approach to life. After reassurances that schedules would be designed to accommodate her needs, she readily agreed to participate in the study. Teacher 3 had a good level of English competency, however, she often underestimated her own ability, and sometimes suffered from a lack of confidence in regards to her own English ability. This may have somewhat affected the answers she provided during the interviews, but I feel that she was able to articulate her ideas and experiences well enough throughout both interviews. She has only taught English to 6th grade students, and has little experience teaching younger students.

5.4.2 Personal English Language Learning History

Teacher 3 started learning English in the first year of middle school from NNESTs. She stated that she did not enjoy this experience, and that the teachers left little impression on her. They all taught towards the final test and used little-to-no English while teaching English. Because of her experiences in middle school, she explained that she also did not enjoy English during her time at high school. The high school English classes were similar to her middle school classes, but as she explained

Teacher 3: Because I learned English for three years in middle school I had some bad impressions about English class so I didn't like it much but I tried to do my best because I studied a lot at that time I wanted to be a good student a high level students so I tried to just look at some textbooks like grammar books so...

Her motivation to learn English came from wanting to be a good student more than be a proficient English speaker. The model of teaching she experienced best related to the grammar-translation method, with teachers generally not interested in enhancing the

communicative competency of their students. During the interview, I felt that I was not gathering enough data about her language learning experiences, which led me to wonder about if she had learned any other languages while at school

Researcher: Did you learn any other languages when you were in school?

Teacher 3: Japanese a little bit

Researcher: Did you like learning it?

Teacher 3: Yes because I had motivation at the time, I like the Japanese idol group so I wanted to understand what they are saying and the lyrics so I tried to find the video clips on the internet and tried to understand it so learning Japanese was good to me

Researcher: Did you enjoy it more than learning English?

Teacher 3: Yes because I really liked it and I was motivated so I had mostly perfect score so I like it and the structure of the sentence are similar to Korean and Chinese characters as well so easy to learn.

This experience contrasted with her English experiences. With English, the only motivation to learn was to pass the tests, however, with Japanese she appreciated the communicative aspect of it and was motivated to do well because of it. This provided a valuable experience for her, even though she might not have been aware of it at the time, as it let her experience an alternative form of language learning that she would experience more of in her future as both a student and as a teacher.

During her time at the education college she stated that she started to enjoy learning English more. Initially, her goal was to become a mathematics teacher, as this was the subject she had enjoyed most throughout her school years. However, her enjoyment for this subject waned, while at the same time she found herself interested in English.

Researcher: Then after high school you went to university, did you learn English while at university?

Teacher 3: Yes, of course I think I started to like English from that time, I don't know why but I found some interest to study English in the communication so I

took some courses at other universities and the academy so it was a struggle for me but a little bit difficult tasks was helpful for me to make me interested

Researcher: What kind of tasks?

Teacher 3: I took many courses like conversation, writing paragraphs and essays, I didn't I never learned about writing essays or paragraphs at school so that was interesting because in Korean even Korean class we didn't learn writing something, just reading and learning some vocabulary and understand, that's all so I think I found interest in that course

Her experiences at this time led her to believe that she could be an English teacher. However, as she explained, when she first started working as a teacher she was relieved not to be teaching English, as she felt that she was not prepared for that situation yet. This was mainly due to the fact that she herself had not studied language teaching methodology or had any experience teaching English.

Later in her career Teacher 3 attended a number of teacher training courses, and these had a real impact upon her belief in her ability to teach English

Teacher 3: At first I learned a lot from the TESOL class and I didn't know the ... how ... as a student I was just studying the reading and grammar parts and I didn't know how to accept English in Korea, Korean students as a second language that kind of concept I didn't imagine about it and I think I was like this and the that concept like we have to get students exposure to English environment and something and we have to try to help when they enter English at first that kind of concept was helpful to me. When teaching English in the class, management, students management and so activities so I learned details about those kinds of things

Researcher: Was there anything from the TESOL course that you disagreed with?

Teacher 3: But I when I took that course I felt a big gap between the theory they say and the real situation a big difference and I thought how can I use these things in my class? Such as because there are a lot of students in the class and every student has a different level, that kind of things

Another training course further increased her belief that she could be an English teacher who could speak English while teaching English

Teacher 3: before ITT course I was not sure about myself as an English teacher and sometimes I spoke Korean a lot and I didn't have confidence in my English level and after this course I think I can do this and trying to use English a lot

The teacher training courses she attended before and during her time as an English teacher had a major influence on her confidence as an English teacher. Teacher 3 did not major in English education while at college, but her time on the TESOL course allowed her to qualify as an English teacher. This was part of a government policy to have more elementary school teachers ready to teach English. Without this backing, she would have had a more difficult path to becoming an English teacher.

5.4.3 Current Teaching Context

Teacher 3 stated that she used 65-70% English when teaching English. She also said that her identity as a homeroom teacher who taught English, and her identity as an English subject teacher were important determinants in how she used languages in the classroom.

Teacher 3: Because when I teach English as a homeroom teacher I... to maintain the class I used Korean always because I teach every all the subjects including English so I teach Korean in Korean and other subjects as well so in English in the English class I think I can't speak the other language and to me it was not natural and

Researcher: When you were a homeroom teacher?

Teacher 3: Yeah, and my students I thought my students thought if I use English they think my homeroom teacher doesn't speak English well

Researcher: How about when you started teaching as a subject teacher? Do you think you use more or less English now?

Teacher 3: I use more English because I don't need to speak Korean a lot and from the beginning I use English so they think I'm their English teacher and I encourage them to speak English more so I think I have to use English more

and I made the students just say hello not ‘annyeonghasayo’ (Hello) not ‘seonsaengnim’ just teacher English teacher and that small part can make them use English so I use English more

These different identities were shaped by the context of the class she was teaching at the time, and more specifically the students’ perceptions of her as a teacher. Teacher 3 believed that as a homeroom teacher teaching English, her students wanted her to use Korean, while her students were more comfortable with her using English as an English subject teacher. Upon reflection, it appeared that the longer she had been an English teacher, the more her confidence grew, which could explain her increased use of English in class. This experience was similar to other participants in the study.

Comparing when she first started as a subject teacher to her current situation, she thought that she used more English when she first started out teaching, mainly due to her lack of experience as an English teacher.

Teacher 3: At the very first year or second year when I was a brand new teacher I believed I had to use English all the time and when I made a plan I used the difficult terms or expressions students won’t understand and I thought its right

Researcher: Why?

Teacher 3: I don’t know because I was an English teacher so I have to show them a lot and I thought it was natural I didn’t I think didn’t need to make my English easier

Researcher: Why?

Teacher 3: because I think whether they understand or not I have to say the correct expressions and the right English and I don’t care about the level

Researcher: So has your thinking about that changed now?

Teacher 3: Yes, when I start the class we start the class with small talk all the time and so students already know what they have to say or what the teacher will say so at that time I make I say I make my English more difficult no no no I just

say more natural expressions but during the class I try to say short and easy and clear sentences

Researcher: Why do you do that at the beginning of the class?

Teacher 3: Because they just ... there home room teacher just speaks Korean and they speak Korean and when they meet me they think its English class and she speaks English and I want to make it natural to motivate them

Researcher: How about exposing them?

Teacher 3: I want to make them be exposed to English as well because I'm the only one speaking English in this school

The ideas learned from the training courses she took prior to becoming an English teacher meant that she believed she had to use English all the time, and that mere exposure would be sufficient for language acquisition. This showed she had a lot of confidence in the theories she learned from these courses. However, when faced with the reality of the classroom this confidence was tested, leading her to change her approach and the level of language she used in class in order to accommodate her students better. This change allowed her to try and use as much English as she thought was possible, but to also make the language more accessible to her students. She stated that through interactions with more experienced colleagues she even tried to speak English outside of the classroom with her students in an attempt to highlight to the students that English was for communication rather than just a subject to be learned. This contrasts with Teacher 1, who used less English when she first started teaching English as a subject teacher as she felt her English competency was not adequate enough.

Teacher 3 believed English proficiency does not influence teachers' use of English in the class, and that although English exposure is important, there was still a place for the Korean language in the classroom. Throughout the interview, the ideas of motivation and exposure continued to arise, with Teacher 3 stating that she needed to use English to expose her students to the language, but that also she needed to make sure that she motivated them to want to learn English. For her, this meant using Korean to allow lower level students' access to English.

Researcher: What do you think is more important: motivation or exposure?

- Teacher 3: I'm not a fluent English speaker so I'm trying to give them more English environment exposure but I think I have ...because I'm not a perfect speaker so I can show them good things and bad things so I think both are important
- Researcher: What do you think other English teachers perceive to be the goals of English language education at the elementary school level?
- Teacher 3: Most teachers think that elementary school students need to speak easy English expressions and they have to understand while listening and so we think we have more focus on speaking and listening, yeah communication skills and so we don't want to give them more pressure on writing or reading
- Researcher: What's the best way to improve these communication skills? Using lots of English and little Korean or having fun? Both? What do you think?
- Teacher 3: We teachers think having fun is important as well but it's not everything so sometimes we add explanations in Korean to make sure they understand

While acknowledging the need to expose students to English as much as possible, she also realized that she is not a native speaker of English, and that it was acceptable to make mistakes when speaking English, and that sometimes she needed to speak Korean in order to more clearly express herself. Much like Teacher 2, she did not display any feelings of guilt when talking about using Korean in class, as reported elsewhere in the literature (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Macaro, 1997, 2006, 2009b; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009), but openly embraced it as a learning tool for the students in her class. The use of Korean in class is supported in the literature, as the use of the L1 as a normal psycholinguistic process facilitates TL learning, and for younger learners, verbal thinking acts to mediate a learner's relationship with the new language and the learners L1. L1 use assists TL learning, enlists and maintains interest in tasks, and assists in developing strategies for accessing higher level tasks and activities (Anton & Dica-milla, 1999; Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Teacher 3 acknowledged the social and cognitive space afforded by the L1 (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003), as for her it provided learners with assistance throughout language learning tasks. The make-up of these classes invariably saw students of varying levels working together, and the L1 allowed lower level

learners to maintain interaction with more proficient learners and possibly access their higher level knowledge, something found elsewhere in the literature (Thoms et al., 2005).

5.4.4 Stated beliefs about using English and Korean

The following table represents a summary of influences that acted on Teacher 3, and the reported beliefs about using English and Korean to teach English. The table isolates the influences that acted upon the teacher, as well as their stated beliefs about using English and Korean in their classes.

Influences	Beliefs about English	Beliefs about Korean
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Limited ALL experiences (Japanese) ▪ Negative experiences with Korean teachers ▪ Positive teacher training experiences ▪ Influential colleagues ▪ English use associated with Teacher Identity ▪ Student level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ English exposure important ▪ Distinguishes her classes from other subjects/teacher roles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Allows better control of class ▪ Needed to ensure all participate ▪ Motivates weaker students ▪ Can express herself better in Korean

Table 6 Teacher 3's Beliefs about TL and L1 use

Teacher 3 had limited exposure to TL only approaches when she learned Japanese, and she states that her experiences with her Korean English teachers who spoke a lot of Korean while teaching English were generally negative. She states that she believes English exposure is important when teaching English, but also feels that Korean has an important part to play in her classes, as it allows her to control her classes, and ensures that all students can participate in the lessons. She feels this is because she can express herself better in Korean than English.

5.5 Teacher 4: Korean is Important for Learning English

- Female, 30-35 years
- Years teaching English: 7.5 as subject teacher, 1.5 as Homeroom teacher
- B.Ed., TESOL
- Current position: English Subject Teacher
- Grade observed teaching 4th grade

5.5.1 Contextualization of Interviews

I had known the participant for approximately 2 years prior to the study, through a teacher training course that she attended and on which I had taught. There was a good level of rapport between us which led her to accept almost immediately when asked if she would like to participate in the study. Teacher 4 has a very good command of English, and I believed that there was no issue regarding her ability to express her true opinions during both interviews. Teacher 4 is also the only participant who is married to a native English speaker. She had been married for about 2 years, and had travelled to her husband's country a few times. She therefore was more familiar with native speakers and had no issues communicating with them, meaning that she had no problems answering the questions. The first interview was conducted in a café near her school, and despite this, she seemed to be very confident speaking English in public, something which was not always the case for Korean people. The atmosphere in the café was quite noisy at times and distracting for myself.

5.5.2 Personal English Language Learning History.

Teacher 4 started learning English when she was thirteen years old via a private tutor who visited her house once a week.

Researcher: What kind of things did she teach you?

Teacher 4: She taught phonics and English story and a year later or some months later she taught grammar

Researcher: Did you like those classes?

Teacher 4: I liked it first with the phonics and the English stories because it's so different with Korean I think at that time learning English a new language was fun for me then that tutor checked every morning by phone that I learned so I should speak loudly to her every morning that way was fit to me so I liked it

Researcher: Were you learning it by yourself or with brothers or sisters?

Teacher 4: By myself with the book and the CD-ROM

Researcher: And when the teacher taught you, how much English did she speak?

Teacher 4: I don't really remember but she didn't teach only in English she used Korean a lot I think

This first experience was a positive one, and seemed to have been quite common at the time, as seen in the previous interviews. Having these private lessons outside of school is indicative of the socioeconomic level of the participants' families, as English has long been available to those with the monetary means to acquire it (Seth, 2002). It is only within the last ten to fifteen years that government initiatives have attempted to reduce this inequality by extending English education to the elementary school level.

Teacher 4's first public school English language learning experience occurred in middle school.

Researcher: So when you were in middle school you started learning English, how were those classes?

Teacher 4: It was boring I didn't like English when I was in middle and high school, it was all about grammar and tests and memorizing the words and no teachers used games or other kinds of fun activities maybe rarely they used pop songs, that's all, just text books

During her time at middle school she also attended a private academy which taught a variety of subjects, including English. This academy experience was very similar to her public school experiences. The first time she encountered NS teacher was outside of formal classes, as part of an extra-curricular club activity; this involved going on field trips with the foreign teacher,

and no formal type of classroom work. Teacher 4 never experienced English lessons with a NS teacher when she was in school, which was a significant factor in her English language learning experiences, especially when compared to the other participants in this study.

Next the interview focused on her Korean teachers' use of English

Researcher: How much do you think your middle and high school teachers used in class when they taught English?

Teacher 4: My Korean English teachers? No they didn't use English

Researcher: How do you think that affected the classes?

Teacher 4: At that time well it was boring they just explaining grammar so

Researcher: Did you expect them to use English when teaching English or not?

Teacher 4: Well I didn't expect that kind of ... you know...I think because I had no other background or other theory to teach

Researcher: It just kind of felt that's the normal way of doing things

Teacher 4: Everywhere it happened like that

Researcher: Do you think the students liked having those English classes with so much Korean in them?

Teacher 4: We didn't think about it because at that time all teachers used Korean

Researcher: Do you think that maybe because they used Korean it made the classes more boring?

Teacher 4: I don't think so

Researcher: or was it the type of things they were teaching?

Teacher 4: Yeah just the type, the textbook, translate yeah

As expected, her teachers' also did not use much English when teaching English, something mentioned by the previous participants. On reflection, I feel the answers being given were predictable, and this may have affected my mood a little. Throughout this exchange it seems

that I tried to link the use of Korean to her feelings of boredom that she had mentioned previously, but she rebutted this and focused more on the fact that she felt the methods were boring, not the use of Korean. This interpretation happened through her lens as an experienced and educated teacher, and did not necessarily reflect the feelings at the actual time of her classes when she was younger. It also foreshadowed her own beliefs about the value of using Korean as part of the English learning experience. When asked to reflect upon these experiences and relate them to her current teaching the following exchange occurred

Researcher: Do you think these experiences you had at school have influenced the way you teach English now?

Teacher 4: I think so still I think when I teach the most difficult thing is students have fun in class or interested in that's how they concentrate and try to learn I think if I succeed at that then it's half done

Researcher: So trying to make interesting activities?

Teacher 4: Yeah want to motivate them to 'I want to learn this!'

Researcher: And you think that idea comes from your experiences

Teacher 4: I think so

Here again she focused on methods and ideas as a way of creating motivation to learn English. There was no mention of English exposure or use of Korean.

Teacher 4 attended the local education university where she studied English language teaching methodologies as well as attended language skills classes. These language skills classes were also led by Korean English teachers. During her time attending university she also attended private language academies to improve her English language proficiency in order to travel to other countries. She believed at that time that English would allow her to travel more freely. These classes were led by NS teachers.

Researcher: And the academy classes were for language skills? Who taught them?

Teacher 4: Native

Researcher: How were those classes?

Teacher 4: I quite liked it I enjoyed it

Researcher: Why?

Teacher 4: I don't know it was fun I think meeting people and then talking was fun for me, I was a freshman I can meet other people so it was fun

Researcher: So during middle and high school you didn't like English but after you graduated you started to enjoy English more, when you were in university did you have a choice to take these classes or did you have to?

Teacher 4: I had to, I chose the academy myself

Researcher: Why?

Teacher 4: I don't know it's like I thought I need to do something and I want to travel a lot so people who travel learning English is helpful to me

This was Teacher 4's first exposure to an alternative form of English education. This experience proved to be a more positive experience for her than her previous learning experiences. Unlike other participants, Teacher 4 did not mention any struggle she experienced with the native led classes, and in fact only discussed the social aspects of these classes more than learning English. For her, English was a tool to experience life and travel more than a focus of learning.

At this point in the interview I felt I was struggling to get her to talk about the use of English and Korean when teaching, so I decided to ask her about travelling, as she had mentioned it a few times in relation to why she was learning English at university. She first discussed how she discovered the value of English as a lingua franca when travelling. Then I asked her to talk about when she traveled to Thailand as part of a volunteer program to teach English to elementary school students in Thailand. When queried about her teaching experiences in Thailand, she explained that every day for two weeks a small group visited a school and taught the alphabet to some students.

Researcher: When you were there you couldn't use Korean at all so how did that feel?

Teacher 4: Well we are worried a lot before we teach but the ...

Researcher: What were you worried about?

Teacher 4: Just you know using English to you know other people they can't understand Korean but it was simple, very simple we just write the alphabet on the black board 'repeat after me A' "A" so similar with my class they don't really understand my English but my body language was

Researcher: Do you think that if you could have spoken the Thai language at that time you would have spoken Thai to help them?

Teacher 4: Yeah I think so I was learning a little bit of Thai language at that time so I used numbers in Thai like this in the class, like first second third so they learned about it

This experience revealed her initial experiences with teaching a language, and her inclination to use the L1 when teaching a language, something she explained earlier as an assumption everyone had when it came to teaching English. The following year, as a senior at university she led a group to a small island in Korea to volunteer to teach English to underprivileged children. I asked her

Researcher: When you were doing that how much English or Korean do you think you were using with them?

Teacher 4: Hmm mostly Korean because those students had not really good experience learning English so mostly used Korean I think

Researcher: So you used Korean because they didn't like English?

Teacher 4: They don't really understand English

Researcher: So there level was quite low

Teacher 4: Yeah

As noted earlier, Teacher 4 already had in place an assumption that the L1 was a legitimate tool for teaching a TL. This assumption was slowly being molded into an attitude by her early experiences teaching English, as the L1 allowed her students to access the TL. After graduating from university and becoming a teacher, she attended several teacher training

programs. She enjoyed these programs because they informed her of new techniques for teaching English in her classroom as well as improved her confidence in using and teaching English. In the second interview she revealed a slightly different experience she had with the training programs.

Researcher: Do you think any of your experiences from when you were a student maybe influence you when you are using Korean?

Teacher 4: Like when I was a student or as a teacher? As you know when I was a student I didn't... you know my teacher didn't use English but it was the first time in WTT it was the first time only using English it was difficult especially the pronunciation class she used a lot of difficult English at that time like grammar English even I don't know them now, like verbs nouns, like that things' oh my god, what's that?' it was so difficult so I thought when I teach grammar I have to use Korean.

Researcher: Any other experiences or ideas like that about using Korean?

Teacher 4: I can't think of anything sorry. When I play games even in ITT the teachers saying different, like when you explain a game and we have to do something, we were always confused and say' he said like this' 'no he said like that' then we asked again so that's why maybe when I play a game with students ... as long as they use the target language during the games

These experiences in an English-only learning environment highlighted for her how difficult an English-only approach could be, and further shaped her assumptions and developing attitude that Korean was in fact a valuable teaching tool. This exchange revealed discomfort she had and what she remembered as her time in an English-only class. Upon reflection this seemed strange, as in the first interview she mentioned attending NS teacher classes in a private academy while attending university. In that interview she mentioned nothing about having problems then, instead focusing on the social aspects of it. Mann (2016) describes how the physical context and setting of an interview can be an influence, and it would appear that this occurred in these situations. The first interview was not at her school, but in a café she had chosen and mentioned that she had regularly frequented with friends of hers. The

second interview was in school; in an empty classroom. Due to the relaxed feeling associated with the location in interview one her answers were less focused on teaching; she did not have her teacher's lens on as much as in the second interview. Adding to this might have been the focus of the interviews, where the first interview was focused on her life experiences but the second interview focused on her teaching situation.

5.5.3 Current Teaching Context

Teacher 4 stated that she believed that 50% of her classroom talk was in Korean. She stated that she used considerably less English now compared to when she first started teaching English. The reason for this reduction was that when she first started teaching English she was involved in a special project which was investigating whether or not elementary schools should teach English to first and second graders. This project, under the previous administration, evolved out of L1 exclusion theories of ESL teaching and was seeking to explore the viability of extending English language teaching to younger grades. At the time, English education began at the third grade of elementary school. However, a new government was voted in and this program for first and second graders was officially discontinued, even if the policy of L1 exclusion was not. Teacher 4 stated that she employed differing amounts of Korean depending on the grade; for lower grades she acknowledged speaking more Korean in her lessons. It seems then that the level of language proficiency and age of the students are major determinants in how much Korean she states she uses in class.

Teacher 4 had more to say than the other participants about the language teaching policies in South Korea.

Researcher: You said you used more English when you first started teaching English, why do you use less now?

Teacher 4: It was a government policy, TETE

Researcher: But it's not now?

Teacher 4: People start to think that policy....

Researcher: When did you hear about the change in policy?

Teacher 4: It's not about changing just government thinks English is less important

Researcher: So it wasn't officially changed but a new government came in so the new one doesn't care about English as much so does that....because the new government has less focus on English does that take pressure off you to use English in class compared to before?

Teacher 4: Now I think like when I do open class the previous government at that time teachers thought that using only English is good class but now teachers change so elementary school maybe they started to doubt 100% English is best, maybe not

Researcher: They teachers themselves are doubting, why?

Teacher 4: Well elementary school is a very low level and we at that time even the previous government thought it was important to use 100% at that time I thought is it really possible? it was very different place to place, students so we have to think about students condition so if my students can understand my English perfectly or even if they don't understand maybe I can feel I can use English 100% still they feel interested and they can learn but now teachers think I think at that time the teachers thought the government policy is important and teachers think the way they thought teachers ideas were important and it wasn't focused on students a lot...but teachers changing and the ...

Researcher: So teachers' experiences with trying to use 100% English... maybe those experiences have changed teachers' attitudes towards 100% English?

Teacher 4: Yeah that also but teachers started to think more about individual students

Researcher: Instead of the policies

Teacher 4: Yeah instead of policies and theory

This was the first exchange of this type with any participant in the study. Other participants mentioned government policies in passing, while Teacher 4 had a lot to say about it. This was due to her experiences being involved in the previously mentioned program for younger grades. It would appear that during this time her assumptions were shaped into an attitude

about English-only approaches, which seemed to lead her to further believe in the need for using Korean in her English classes.

Teacher 4 had stated before that she thought exposing her students to English is important, which led to the following exchange

Researcher: What do you think are the advantages of only using English in the class?

Teacher 4: Advantages? Exposure and if they can understand my English then yeah they can be exposed to a lot of English so they can check their level and maybe they have confidence they can study everywhere ‘yes I can understand English’

Researcher: Anything else?

Teacher 4: I don’t know I can’t think of anymore

Researcher: What about disadvantages of only using English

Teacher 4: If they cannot understand well then they get some maybe some students lose interest, some students gets angry and they ...

Researcher: Has that happened before?

Teacher 4: Yeah frustrating even for 6th graders they care other people a lot but if they notice my partner understands very easy but I don’t know what’s going on they just pretend to understand what I’m saying or pretend I’m not interested in English

Researcher: Any other disadvantages?

Teacher 4: When they do bad behavior I have towhat’s that?

Researcher: Scolding

Teacher 4: Yeah but if I have to use English it’s not working

Researcher: Why not?

Teacher 4: What if they don’t understand what I’m saying what’s wrong so you have to do something and it’s not about the class it’s about their behavior so I have to

use Korean

Researcher: Anything else?

Teacher 4: When I have to explain in Korean like grammar it's very difficult in English, like synonyms or opposite words or past present verbs... even I don't know that exactly so I think it's easier to teach in Korean

Researcher: Because it's quicker?

Teacher 4: Yes

In this exchange it was evident that for Teacher 4 there were more disadvantages to an English-only approach than advantages. During this interview I started to feel that she really was different to the other participants in that she was more averse to the use of English in her classes than the other participants. Where other participants talked about using as much English as possible, Teacher 4 seemed comfortable admitting that she used a lot of Korean in her classes. This seemed at odds with her personal situation, where she was married to a native speaker of English. She said that she felt her own English proficiency was improving as a result of the exposure she got at home with her husband. Alternatively, her home situation may have resulted in her trying to emphasize her Korean identity. This fact, in reflection, presents a missed opportunity during the interviews. I should have asked her if her students knew about her husband, and whether or not she felt that maybe her home situation possibly influenced her classroom behavior in anyway.

Despite this missed opportunity, and based on her responses in the interviews, it would seem that for Teacher 4, exposure was only effective once a certain level of English competency had been achieved, and that she felt her students were not ready for it while at elementary school.

5.5.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean

The following table represents a summary of influences that acted on Teacher 4, and the reported beliefs about using English and Korean to teach English. The table isolates the influences that acted upon the teacher, as well as their stated beliefs about using English and Korean in their classes.

Influences	Stated Beliefs about English	Stated Beliefs about Korean
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No ALL experiences when younger ▪ Negative teacher training experiences EO ▪ Student level ▪ Experience with Government policy changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Difficult only using English ▪ Exposure is important for students who are ready for it 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Allows better control of class ▪ Needed to ensure all participate ▪ Motivates weaker students ▪ Can express herself better in Korean

Table 7 Teacher 4's Beliefs about TL and L1 use

Teacher 4 had no experiences with TL only approaches when she was younger. In addition to this, when she was in an in-service teacher training program she experienced discomfort at the exclusive use of English by the instructors. She believes an English only approach is both difficult to implement and undesirable at the elementary school level, even though she still admits that exposing students to English is important if they are ready for it. She strongly believes that Korean has an important role to play in her class, as it ensures that all students can participate.

5.6 Teacher 5: English Allows Distance

- Female, 35-40 years
- Years teaching English: 2 as subject teacher
- B.Ed., TESOL,
- Current position: English Subject Teacher
- Grade observed teaching 5th grade

5.6.1 Contextualization of Interviews

I had known Teacher 5 for about 2 years prior to the study through a series of teacher training programs she had attended. Like the other participants, we had developed a good rapport and so she agreed to join the project, although she did express concern about a lack of experience teaching English. She differed to the other participants in that she had only taught English as a subject teacher for 2 years, where the others had taught for at least five years. Teacher 5 was admitted to the study as I was struggling to find a 5th participant. I had to make a decision between using 4 participants, and adding Teacher 5. After consulting with her and discussing her experiences informally, I decided to include her into the study. Teacher 5 was also older than the other participants by about 5 years. I would describe her as a focused woman who was diligent in her approach to life, which can be seen in her approach to teaching English as well.

5.6.2 Personal English Language Learning History

Teacher 5 first started learning English at middle school. She had no previous experiences either at home or at private language academies. When asked about her first experiences she used the word “terrible”, as she had to take extra classes in the morning to improve her English knowledge, which included grammar, pronunciation symbols and reading. This led me to ask the following question, as she clearly had passion about learning English now

Researcher: Were there any things that the teachers did that you liked?

Teacher 5: So I remember just one teacher I graduated from a private girls middle and high school, the same branch or foundation so I remember they had six English teachers just one English teacher spoke English very fluently other than that they didn't speak English very well just grammar and how to teach the pronunciation and how to pronounce so fortunately when I was third year of middle school my homeroom teacher was English teacher who really spoke English really well and he was very young and a motivated person so he always tried to encourage the students and even using pop songs or some lyrics from sitcom or something so especially I remember the folk song or Simon and Garfunkel I remember I really enjoyed his class and since then I

want to be kind of a better English speaker I think a mile stone in my kind of English period I think so

Researcher: So you enjoyed the way he the different types of activities he did?

Teacher 5: Yes

Researcher: So you said he was a fluent English speaker, how much English did he use when teaching English?

Teacher 5: Not actually yeah he spoke he could speak English very well because I saw him speaking with the other English teacher native teacher but when he taught in class he didn't use English very often because he just using tape recorder player and then after playing the tape and then repeat after the tape and a again and again repeated and repeat and then reading textbook and then repeat the textbook and then memorizing something so sometimes I felt like I always tried to follow the way he taught us so I think so yeah that's why I'm always using some pop songs for my students and sometimes making students memorize because as an ESL situation students I think memorizing is a very good way to motivate and then understand better so yes

Researcher: How about the other teachers, how much English did they use in their classes?

Teacher 5: No they didn't use English at all, at all really

Researcher: How do you think this affected the class?

Teacher 5: I think we didn't know that because we always thought that's a normal class, English class and math class and Korean class are all the same, the same subject not different so I didn't see the difference at that moment

I was a little surprised that she went to into details about using English or Korean, as I had told her that the main focus of this interview was detailing her past experiences. I had planned later to focus on this but she initiated it herself. Later, after the interview, I found out that she had been talking to other participants in the study, which was another surprise as I had not told anyone who was involved. However, it seemed the participants had talked with others about participating in the study, and so had found out who was involved. This was an

indication of the close-knit group that elementary school teachers had in the city the study took place. This also revealed why her answers tended to be longer than other participants, as she had prepared more than the other participants.

As I was going to move on to the next question she interrupted with another memory she had from school

Researcher: By the time you left high school...

Teacher 5: Oh something came to my mind...Exactly I don't remember but from the first year of high school since then some atmosphere of English education field a little started to change because since then some native teachers started to teach in public schools so I could see some English teachers really enthusiastically study English really hard because they even though they were English teachers but they didn't speak English very well because they didn't have to speak English in class in and out of class but native teachers sometimes working for public school and then they had to communicate with each with native teachers and people so some teachers are really kind of freaked out whenever he have to have a conversation with native speakers in front of students so exactly I remember so I think yeah of course until the third year of high school I had to take extra classes before the classes start, English and math, but some teachers really tried to use English since then, yeah right right right

Researcher: So when the native speaker teachers started coming the Korean English teachers started using more English outside of class and when they were teaching English as well?

Teacher 5: Yeah I think so but not difference not that different

Researcher: Not a big difference?

Teacher 5: Not a big difference just a little bit changed but it totally depended on the teacher

This provided an interesting bit of context to her language learning experiences, in that

despite her teachers realizing that they needed to improve their own communicative competency to talk to the new native speaker teachers, these same teachers did not think it necessary to improve the competency of their students. As heard in other interviews, in high school, students focused on the KSATs so this was considered more important than communicative competency.

Teacher 5 did not have a NS teacher when in either high school or middle school. Neither did she attend private English academies with NS teachers. However, she did experience an alternative language learning experience via another language; French.

Researcher: What do you remember of those classes?

Teacher 5: Actually in French class we had two French teachers one of them was she was really speak French very fluently even she was she helped some French translation for broadcasting system, KBS or something, so kind of top notch and she studied abroad French in France so that's why I loved the way she taught and besides she was very confident in front of students

Researcher: Did she speak a lot of French in class?

Teacher 5: Yes, really

Researcher: So when you compare the French teacher to the English teacher?

Teacher 5: The French teacher was absolutely better

Researcher: And she used more French while teaching French?

Teacher 5: Yes

Researcher: And how did that make you feel?

Teacher 5: I think French book is very thin that the English textbook because we had just 1 or 2 classes a week so and then besides some students felt like French subject just kind of optional and kind of memorizing to get more a better score but as for me French was kind of really good make me motivated I don't know why maybe because of the teacher she always make students cheerful more cheerful even though she was speaking French and the

pronunciation was really attractive to me

This experience of a TL dominant approach contrasted with the L1 dominant English classes. Her tone throughout this exchange was very positive, and she clearly enjoyed this experience. Despite some negative reactions to her English learning experience, Teacher 5 stated that she enjoyed learning the English language. She put this down to the influence of her third year high school home room teacher, although she did not go into details why.

Upon entering university, she attended a number of English language related courses taught by both Korean and native speakers of English. She enjoyed these classes, but as she stated, more because she attained good grades from these classes than anything else. After graduating from university with her teaching degree she decided to attend graduate school in order to broaden her knowledge of English language teaching. However, she did not complete the program because she felt that it was not useful for her own needs.

As a teacher she continued to attend English language classes, because, even though she was not an English subject teacher, she still hoped to be an English subject teacher some day in the future. Teacher 5 enrolled in a graduate program again some years later, but again she failed to complete the course which led her to lose all interest in the English language. In fact, she spent about 10 years avoiding English where possible, which indicated the level of disappointment she felt at failing the course.

It was not until a colleague suggested that they attend a short English teacher training course that she rediscovered her passion for English, and she decided that she would like to become an English subject teacher again. Her experiences on several different in-service teacher training programs proved to be very positive. These programs involved native speaker teachers, and Teacher 5 revealed that they gave her more confidence in her ability in English, as well as knowledge for how to teach English. She attended programs that were led by both NS teachers and NNESTS, which led me to ask

Researcher: If you had to choose between a course in which the instructors only spoke Korean or only spoke English which would you choose?

Teacher 5: Absolutely just English because the reason why we are teaching studying or learning English is to improve our skills real English skills so maybe

sometimes some teachers in case of take the course for the first time they can be difficult for them but eventually they could understand through the real English yes so I thin absolutely only English class is better

5.6.3 Current Teaching Context

Teacher 5 was the least experienced of the teachers in this study and had never taught English as a homeroom teacher. She had only taught English to fifth graders for two years. She stated that after conversations with other teachers she was aware that teachers in the lower grades used considerably less English in the classroom due to the students' language proficiency levels. Teacher 5 stated that she was under no pressure from the principle or other teachers to use a certain amount of English in her classes. In addition to this, there was no external pressure from the parents of students attending her classes. The most important contextual factors that determined whether Teacher 5 uses Korean or not were the students. Interview 2 started by focusing on her English use

Researcher: How much English do you think you use in class?

Teacher 5: I think it depends on the students but currently I think more than 80 -90%

Researcher: What grade?

Teacher 5: 5th grade but not that ... a lot of lower level students but I always try to give English words and then just speaking in English is much better for students of course sometimes they really didn't understand anything and even some students are just even no alphabet but just say hello or something but these days when I say in English they sometimes get some information from their peers friends so I try to use English as a much as I can

I then asked her if she felt there had been any changes in her time as an English subject teacher in regards to how much English she used

Researcher: Do you think you use more or less English compared to when you first started teaching English?

Teacher 5: As I said before until I saw Billy's class, she is a special teacher in the

Gwangju education field, until I saw her class I really tried my best to use just English because I thought I learned from ITT course or training course just using English just using English is the best way as a an English teacher that's why we trained a lot that's why we have to improve English but now a day a little bit think differently because I'm a teacher I'm kind of s special teacher I think English should be different from other subjects so of course we have to English to improve our my students English ability or how to to teach but they should understand what I'm saying so I think these days compared to last year last year was the first year as an English teacher so believed it or not I wrote down the whole script for my English class for the day so I script I wrote the script by myself the kind of memorizing because try not to make a mistake because I was really embarrassed in case of my mistakes in front of students, I don't know why

This revealed more about the assumption that had developed in regards to using English and Korean when teaching. Her limited experiences meant that she believed a TL only approach was most effective. Also, she mentioned a friend of hers, who was first mentioned after interview one had finished but where fortunately I was able to turn on the recorder to capture most of that exchange. This appeared to be an important influence on her development and the changing of her assumption in to a more tentative attitude.

Teacher 5: I believed speaking English was the really best way for my students but a couple of months ago I went to her open class an even though she was kind of a top teacher a designated teachers so I really had big expectations but she sometimes used Korean for lower level students and even then in front of the whole class and I was a little bit surprised "why she speaks English very fluently like a native speaker but she sometimes tries to sometimes speak Korean' so I was a little kind of surprised about that

Researcher: Did you ask her why?

Teacher 5: No I didn't have the chance because I had to leave

Researcher: Why do you imagine she did that?

Teacher 5: I think looking back I had a little bit of pressure by myself I have to speak English as an English teacher because I have to be a good model for my students I can speak English very well so they can maybe they give some more opportunity or listening or exposure but since then I started to change my mind because I think the goal is teaching and then enjoy my class or make them happy so since then I little bit kind of Korean is OK, unless it's not bad or something

This experience with a more experienced colleague was important in that it challenged her initial assumptions about only using English. Her own reflections on this time revealed that she had thought a lot about this, and that it had affected her teaching practices to a certain degree, as she had started using Korean to teach grammatical items in her lessons, or to discipline her students. There was still a strong tendency to favor English over Korean, as revealed in her classes, but now she also valued the L1.

Researcher: So you have talked a lot about how you use English, how much English do you think should be used?

Teacher 5: I have been teaching just 2 years so I have to learn more so I don't know exactly but feel like more than 70% or 80% is better but it totally depends on the students level, for example think about the private school their students are really they are full of students who are really good at English already studied abroad already so those classrooms are really appropriate for yeah students just using whole English but public school students like ours just more than 70 or 80% is ideal I think so

Researcher: And that is based on your experience?

Teacher 5: I think so last year I just said I just tried to use English but some students really hate me especially under level students because they didn't understand anything so at the first time the first semester whenever I every time they saw me outside of class they said 'please use Korean didn't understand anything please I feel like an idiot' but I ignored them and because I learned from training course I have to use English because I am an English teacher

maybe looking back I was really immature and kind of just show off because I learned something from the training course and then I'm not a home room teacher anymore because the sixth grade before I went to the training course I was a homeroom teacher for some students so already knew them so I want to just make a difference from a homeroom teacher and English 'I'm an English teacher not a homeroom teacher please recognize me' like this 'you have to admit that' so that's why but no a day a I don't have to do that

Researcher: So now days you are more readily adapting to students?

Teacher 5: Yes

This exchange introduced the identity she was trying to construct for herself as an English teacher, and possibly one she had seen in other subject teachers, and formed a big part of her reasoning for using as much English as possible in class. This was discussed further in the following change on the advantages of an English-only approach in the class

Researcher: What do you think are the advantages of using only English?

Teacher 5: In case I use just English I don't have to go mad

Researcher: Go mad?

Teacher 5: Yeah because when I just teach using English a little bit I want to have some get some space between teachers and students because students 'ah she just speak English I don't know anything' but I am teaching using English so a kind of gap I don't have to go mad or be mad a little bit difficult to explain its hard to say but it's true when I teach using Korean I have to go inside the students because I want to teach you I want to teach students more I want to improve make your speaking more English ability make it better so I have to teach in English and Korean both ways so sometimes a little bit upset because of the expectation and then the higher expectation I have the worse other the more disappointed about something

Researcher: So you mean if you only use English you keep the distance?

Teacher 5: Yes keep the distance

Researcher: The distance what, does it allow you a certain amount of control?

Teacher 5: Yeah I think so

Researcher: And when you use Korean it becomes a little more personal

Teacher 5: Personal and then close to homeroom teacher close to I have to teach the kind of attitudes or something but when I just use English I don't have to control their attitude just teaching a phrase or expressions like that but it's really hard to say but its true I think so

It seemed that the years she was a homeroom teacher had had an effect on her views as a teacher. As a homeroom teacher, she had a lot more responsibility dealing with the students, and clearly this was stressful for her. For her, becoming an English subject teacher had released her from those responsibilities, and she clearly enjoyed this new freedom. Her admittance that she used English to create distance between herself and the students was something seen in the observations, and something other participants alluded to. When asked if there were any other advantages to an English-only approach, she mentioned the effects of exposing students to the target language as well

Researcher: Any other advantages?

Teacher 5: Yeah sometimes these days according to my experience from this year when I taught fifth grade in the first semester I think I used English more than second semester on the second semester I used just Korean and sometimes Korean and English upwards of 80% English and 20% Korean but in the first semester more than 90% because I want to make students get used to it my English because in the first semester some students 'please Korean' 'I don't understand English I don't know anything' and then she always nagged me but I ignored me and then the student started to get used to it yeah and the 'English teacher always use so I have to listen to her learn or study' so getting used to it

This was the first time she mentioned exposure in both interviews, which upon reflection, indicated that the act of using an English dominant approach in her classes may be more for her own satisfaction than any perceived benefit for her students.

5.6.4 Stated Beliefs about Using English and Korean

The following table represents a summary of influences that acted on Teacher 5, and the reported beliefs about using English and Korean to teach English. The table isolates the influences that acted upon the teacher, as well as their stated beliefs about using English and Korean in their classes.

As stated before, due to the relative inexperience of Teacher 5 in regards to being an English subject teacher, these beliefs are viewed as being less stable than the other participants.

Influences	Stated Beliefs about English	Stated Beliefs about Korean
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Alternative language learning (French) ▪ Positive teacher training experiences ▪ Influential colleagues ▪ English use associated with Teacher Identity ▪ Student level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ English exposure important ▪ Amount depends on level of students ▪ Distinguishes her classes from other subjects/teachers ▪ Good role model for students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A little is OK ▪ Allows better control of class ▪ Needed to ensure all participate ▪ For teaching grammar

Table 8 Teacher 5's Beliefs about TL and L1 use

Teacher 5's only experience with a TL approach was when she learned French, and this was a positive experience for her in comparison to her Korean English teacher experiences. She believes that English exposure is very important, but that maybe this is also dependent upon the language proficiency of the students. She stated that using English allows her to distinguish herself from other subject teachers, and that her use of English provides a good role model for her students. She believes the more English the better, but that sometimes

Korean can be helpful, especially when controlling students, or when teaching grammatical items.

5.7 The Story of these Teachers

The five teachers in this study have all experienced different lives in relatively similar contexts. The influences acting on the teachers, in general, also seem to be similar, although it is clear that each teacher has experienced the influences quite differently.

Teachers 1 and 5 both had positive TL only experiences, with both discussing the effects they felt this had on their learning experiences. These two teachers both strongly advocate for TL only approaches and repeatedly discuss its merits, while also explaining why the L1 is not desirable in their classes.

Teachers 2 and 3 had limited exposure to TL only approaches when younger. They both state, as teachers, they see the value in TL only approaches but feel that there is a genuine need for the L1 in the classroom, especially as it helps involve all students in their classes.

Teacher 4 differs in that she had no TL only experiences when younger. She is also the only teacher married to a native speaker of English. She openly discusses her views on the importance of using the L1 in class, and believes that a TL only approach is practically impossible at the elementary school level.

These teacher stories seem to suggest that there is a link between positive experiences of TL only approaches as learners, and current beliefs about English only teaching approaches. Obviously, there is more to explore on this issue, as the findings are solely based on the interpretations of teachers of their past and current experiences. Stated beliefs can more often than not differ to actual actions. Additionally, there is no evidence of what actually happened to these teachers apart from what they remember about their childhood, and therefore there must be some trepidation about the relationships stated above. The following chapter will explore the actual classroom practices of the teachers to examine the level of congruency between the stated beliefs of the teachers and their actual practices.

Chapter Six: The Role of Classroom Language in the Social Construction of the Classroom

6.1 Analysis of Language Choices

This section presents the analysis of how the teachers' language choices affected the social construction of the classes. As stated in the theoretical framework chapter, the framework utilized elements from systemic functional linguistics (SFL), Bernstein's pedagogic discourse theory (1990a), Sinclair & Coulthard's discourse analysis of Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequences (1975), and Sankoff & Poplack's (1981) grammar of codeswitching to provide a robust and innovative description of how languages used in the classroom affected the social and power relations in the classroom. This framework goes beyond the simple labeling of L1 and TL functions, exploring how the L1 and TL were used at different stages of the observed lessons, and how both languages were used to socially construct the learning environment of the classroom.

First, the curriculum genres of the lessons are presented in order to provide some context and structure to the observed lessons. Then an analysis of how English and Korean were used within these curriculum genres is presented via a selection of extracts that were deemed to be representative of the transcripts.

6.2 Curriculum Genres

The syllabi for the observed classes were all based on the units of learning found within the state-issued textbooks. Each unit within a textbook focused on a different language item, and within each unit there were different lessons focusing on lexical items and language skills. Despite these differences, there was strong uniformity within each lesson of the textbooks. Teachers were generally free to teach the content how they pleased, exchanging activities as they saw fit as long as the linguistic elements were still covered within the 40 minute lessons. Each unit within the textbooks is considered a curriculum macrogenre, and the individual lessons are described as curriculum genres (Christie, 1995, 2000a).

Figure 4 presents the general structure of the curriculum genres as discovered within the participants' classes. Of the eight phases observed in the lessons, three occurred in all

observations- the opening phase, the language learning activity (LLA) phase, and the closing phase. The other five phases - the previous lesson review phase, the vocabulary phase, the class objectives phase, and the culture phase seemed to be optional, depending on the curriculum genre. The LLA phase was by far the most prevalent, with each observed curriculum genre having multiple LLA phases in which the target language was practiced. The culture phase was only observed once, in Teacher 1's second lesson. This initial establishment of the curriculum genres allowed the analysis to focus on the use of Korean and English within the different phases. It also highlighted how the languages were being used by the teachers' during their lessons.

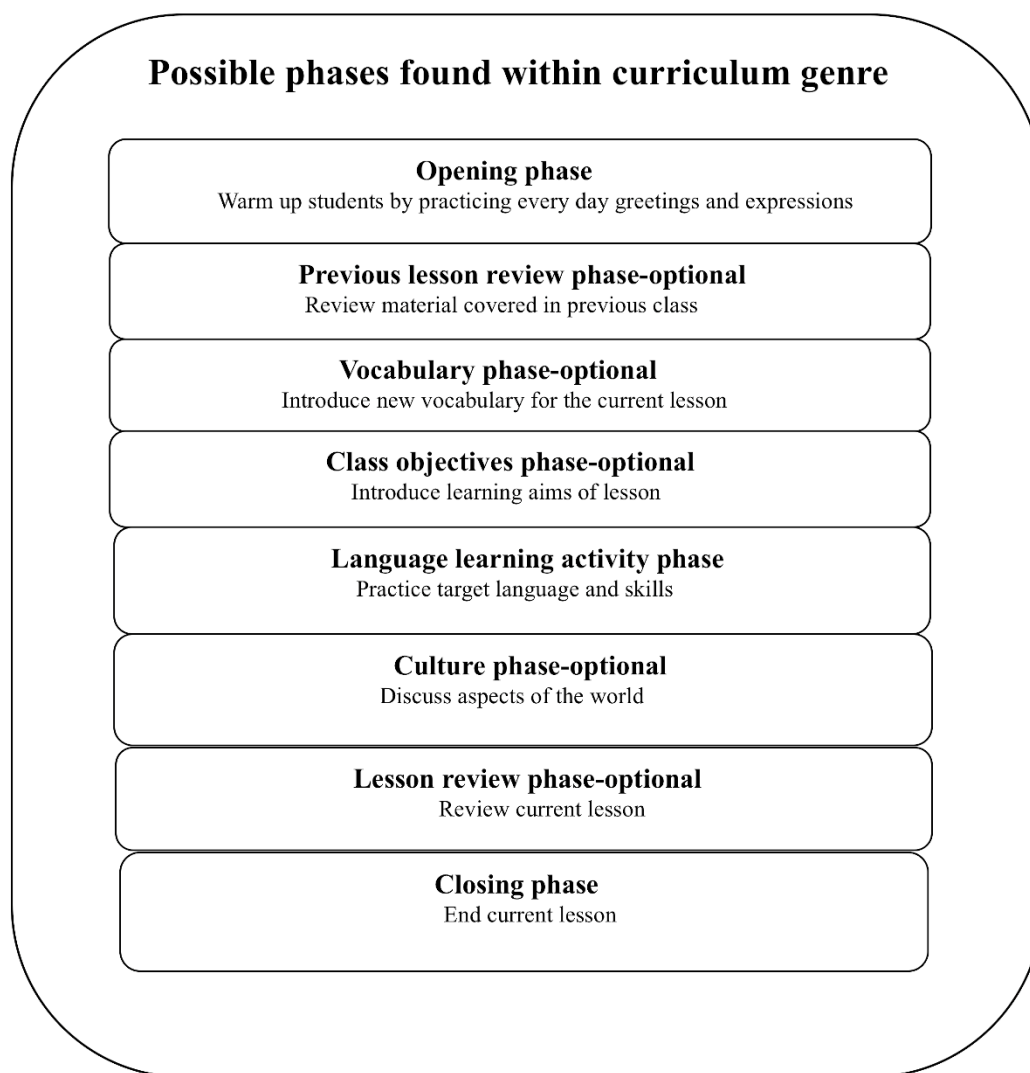


Figure 4. Possible phases within observed curriculum genres

The following table presents the phases Korean was employed in by the participants:

Teacher	Phases Korean was used
1	Opening, Vocabulary, LLA, & Culture Phases
2	Vocabulary, LLA & Lesson Review Phases
3	Vocabulary, LLA & Class Objective Phases
4	Opening, Previous Lesson Review, LLA, Class Objective & Lesson Review Phases
5	LLA Phases

Table 9 Phases Korean was Spoken by Teachers

All participants used Korean during the LLA phase, while the vocabulary phase also saw three out the five participants utilize Korean. Teacher 4 used Korean in the most phases, while Teacher 5 only used Korean in one phase. Teachers 1, 2 and 3 spoke Korean in three or four phases during each of their lessons.

6.3 Prevalence of IRF sequences

All classes observed revealed a high prevalence of IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) sequences in which the teacher would initiate an interaction, a student or students would respond, and then the teacher would either provide feedback to the response or move on to a new initiation. Such large ratios of teacher dominated IRF moves to non-IRF moves indicates that students were not encouraged to initiate exchanges during the lessons. These IRF sequences also added to the classification of the phases and curriculum genres, as they were tightly controlled exchanges in which only one contributor initiated an exchange. This is common to traditional classroom environments where the teacher is trying to guide the students through the lesson. In comparison, dialogues outside of the classroom are more likely to have initiations evenly distributed. IRF sequences also increased the strength of the framing of the phases and the lessons, as they allowed the teacher to establish and maintain the rules of the discursive order (selection, sequence, pacing and criteria of knowledge) via the instructional register.

The following table shows the percentage of Korean used by the teachers in the initiation and feedback moves, as well as Korean used in non-IRF moves.

	Lesson 1			Lesson 2		
	Initiation	Feedback	nIRF	Initiation	Feedback	nIRF
Teacher 1	2%	6%	1%	8%	5%	0%
Teacher 2	6%	3%	0.6%	4%	4%	0%
Teacher 3	17%	5%	0.9%	14%	19%	0.4%
Teacher 4	33%	38%	6%	48%	49%	4.5%
Teacher 5	0%	3%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%

Table 10 Korean used in Initiation, Feedback and non-IRF sequences

The table shows that Teacher 4 spoke the most Korean in her initiation and feedback moves, as well as non-IRF sequences. Teacher 3 spoke the second most Korean, Teacher 2 the third most, followed by Teacher 1 then 5.

6.4 Mood Choices

Analysis of the system of negotiation established within the observations allowed for a focus on the interactions as an exchange between speakers in the observed lessons. By identifying the mood choices within the speech functions, a clearer picture of how language affected the classification and framing of the curriculum genres emerged. As stated previously, the basic parameters of negotiation are,

- What is being negotiated (information or goods)
- Whether it is being given or demanded (statement (information) /offer (goods) or question)
- Whether a move initiates or responds to the exchange

Speech functions and their accompanying grammatical mood choices are shown in the chart below. Remarkable uniformity amongst all the curriculum genres was observed. The grammatical mood choices point to a formal distance between the teachers and students. Mood choices in the regulative register insulated curriculum genres from everyday social

interactions, strengthening the classification of the curriculum genres, and reinforcing the hierarchical relationship between teachers and students. This is indicative of the vertical discourse of school contexts.

Mood choices strongly framed the curriculum genres, positioning teachers in control, removing control from students, and moving the students into ideal pedagogical subject positions. Mood choices allowed the teachers to maintain control over classroom communication and its accompanying social base. Grammatical mood choices allowed the regulative register to establish the rules of social order, such as the hierarchical relationship between students and teacher. Once control was established, the instructional register was then foregrounded and the mood choices continued to maintain the rules of the discursive order (selection, sequence, pacing and criteria of knowledge).

	Commodity exchange	
Speech role	Information	Goods and services
Demanding	Question <i>Interrogative</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● How are you today? / Did you have P.E class? / What day is it today? ● 뭐 괜찮아? (<i>What's OK?</i>) 	Command <i>Imperative/interpersonal metaphor of imperative</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Open your textbooks <i>Interpersonal metaphor of imperative</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● OK one more time 다같이 말해볼까요? (<i>Shall we say the names all together?</i>)
Giving	Statement <i>Declarative</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Straight/곧은 (<i>straight</i>) yes that's right/금발의(<i>blond</i>) right 	

Table 11 Grammatical Mood Choices used in Interactions

6.5 Teachers' Korean Strengthening the Framing, Weakening Classification

The following analysis reveals how the Korean language strengthened the framing of the

classes while weakening the classification. As described in the theoretical framework chapter, framing discusses the issue of control in the classroom. It outlines pedagogic practice in terms of ‘who controls what’ (Bernstein, 2000, p. 12) by demonstrating the regulation of communication in the classroom. Framing is about who has control over:

- the selection of the communication
 - its sequencing (what comes first, what comes second)
 - its pacing (the rate of expected acquisition)
 - the criteria
 - the control over the social base which makes this transmission possible
- (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 12-13)

Strong framing indicates that the transmitter explicitly controls these elements, where weak framing indicates that the acquirer has control over classroom communication and the accompanying social base. Framing is said to regulate two systems of rules: rules of social order and rules of discursive order. Rules of social order, including the hierarchical relationship between students and teacher, are revealed in the regulative register, and rules of discursive order (selection, sequence, pacing and criteria of knowledge) are revealed in the instructional register (Chappell, 2014). The rules of instructional order (instructional register) are always embedded within the rules of the social order (regulative register). Both instructional and regulative registers are present throughout a curriculum genre, with one being foregrounded while the other is backgrounded.

Classification, on the other hand, describes the boundaries and insulation created between different categories, and in this case compares classroom subjects with other subjects and situations outside the classroom. Boundaries are socially constructed, and strong classification exists in activities in the classroom if there is little relation between the activity in the class and what occurs at home. Furthermore, within educational settings, boundaries exist between subjects that contain little crossover of subject matter, with generally strong classification between English classes and mathematics classes at the elementary school level. If there were similarities between what happens in the class activity and what happens at home, then there would be weak classification. Likewise, similarities between two subjects leads to weak classification between the subjects. Uniqueness in a category is created by

identity, in voice and in the rules of internal relations (Bernstein, 2000), with this uniqueness being preserved by power. Traditionally, it is the teacher who has the power to control the strength of classification of a classroom or subject. These analyses revealed how the teachers' use of the L1 affected the classification at different points of curriculum genres, namely phases, in order to ascertain how it relates to the issue of power in the classroom.

6.5.1 Extract 1-Opening the Class Phase

Extract 1 came from Teacher 1, during an opening class phase. This phase prepared students for the lesson by practicing everyday expressions learned previously via a series of questions. First, the teacher greeted the students, then proceeded to ask the students a series of questions about their feelings, the day of the week it was, the weather, and the date. An ideal subject position had students sit quietly and respond to the teacher in English when prompted.

An initial imperative mood choice allowed the teacher to prepare the students for the lesson (Open your textbooks). A switch to the interrogative mood occurred when she noticed that one student was absent (Where is Jiyeon?). In reply, one student uttered in Korean that the absence was OK, which caused an intersentential code switch from English to Korean by the teacher, while maintaining the interrogative mood, to question the authority of the student in making the statement (뭐 괜찮아? (*What's OK?*)). Both the imperative mood and the interrogative mood choices pointed to a formal distance between the teacher and her students. Mood choices in the regulative register insulated this phase from everyday social interactions, strengthening the classification of the phase, and reinforced the hierarchical relationship between the teacher and the students, as commonly found within the vertical discourse of school contexts. However, code switches to Korean weakened the strength of this classification between the English classroom and regular Korean classrooms. Weakening phase classification meant that students could comprehend the teacher more effectively, much like they would in a non-English subject class, as Korean for reprimanding students is a common occurrence in regular classes within the Korean education system. Weakening the classification gave students more of an opportunity to understand what is required of them to successfully participate in the English classroom. Despite the weakening of the classification, the phase is still within the confines of the vertical discourse characteristic of educational contexts due to the effects of Korean on framing.

Korean language, coupled with the mood choices, strongly framed the phase, and positioned the teacher in control by allowing her to make explicit the rules of social order in regards to who could say what. Korean utterances quickly gave the teacher control over the social base in the classroom, and influenced what the students were saying about the absent student. Strong framing that arose out of the Korean utterances moved the students into the ideal pedagogical subject position, where the students were ready to listen to, and then respond to the teacher's questions and commands.

The regulative register was then replaced by the instructional register via a code-switch to English as the students were situated into the ideal pedagogic subject position for the remainder of the phase. Despite the change in register, the teacher maintained control by selecting the topics, sequencing the exchanges, pacing the exchanges and deciding the criteria of what constituted an appropriate answer.

Selection of Korean over English in these situations permitted control over the social base, or control in the relationship formed between her and the students. This exchange was literally in the first 30 seconds of the class, and Korean in this exchange was important for framing the communications of classroom order for the rest of the class. Korean created a less inclusive discourse, immediately indicating to students that their opinions and input, especially when in Korean, were neither sought nor welcomed by the teacher.

Initiation T: Open your textbooks. Where is Jiyeon?

Response Ss: *speaking in Korean they say he is getting his book*

Response S: 꽤 잘아 (*It's OK*)

Feedback T: 뭐 괜찮아? (*What's OK?*)

Initiation T: are you on the right page? hello everyone

Response Ss: hello teacher

Initiation T: How are you today?

Response Ss: Fine, happy....

Feedback T: happy, tired, hot.

Initiation T: Did you have P.E class?

Response Ss: yes
Initiation T: so maybe you are happy?
Response Ss: no
Feedback T: no, you look so tired.
Initiation T: What day is it today?
Response Ss: today is Tuesday
Feedback T: Tuesday
Initiation T: and how's the weather outside
Response Ss: it's sunny
Feedback T: sunny
Initiation T: and what's the date today?
Response Ss: Today is October 28th
Feedback T: twenty...
Response Ss: eighth
Feedback T: eight..
Response Ss: th
Initiation T: and the year is?
Response S: 2014

Extract 1. Teacher 1-Observation 2

6.5.2 Extract 2-Language Learning Phase

Extract 2 came from Teacher 5, during an LLA phase. An ideal pedagogic subject position where students listened to the teacher's instructions and explanations, and completed the assigned activity, was observed.

Teacher 5 only used Korean once in each of her lessons. Both times she employed Korean while explaining a grammatical point related to the target language she was teaching. In the extract below, the instructional register had been foregrounded as she maneuvered the students into the ideal pedagogic position so that they could listen to her, then practice the target expressions. The phase shown was strongly framed by the mood choices and prevalence of IRF sequences throughout. Frame strength was evident in the instructional

register, which allowed the teacher control over the discursive order. Prevalence of mood choices and use of English also gave the phase strong classification. Teacher 5's use of Korean started when she signaled Korean would be spoken in order to explain the grammatical features of the target expressions the students were learning. Intersententially code switching to Korean during the grammar explanation strengthened the framing, allowing the teacher to make more explicit the criteria of knowledge, as well as control pacing and sequencing with which this knowledge was delivered. Korean weakened classification as it is used in non-English subjects to convey knowledge to students in a manner that can be understood, especially in the Korean language subject classes, where in-depth explanations of grammar are given in Korean. Korean used by the teacher was not an invitation for students to use Korean as well. Strong framing meant students were expected to speak English when instructed via the interrogative mood choice (I am wearing ...what?), and that until instructed, they were expected to listen to what the teacher was saying. At no point in this phase were students invited to add their own voice, opinion or knowledge to the phase, revealing control and power resided with the teacher.

Extract 2: Teacher 5, Observation 1

T: Ok I will speak, I will explain in Korean, for two minutes,
Initiation T: OK, look at me
Response Ss: look at you
 T: 우리가 외모를 설명 할 때는 얼굴에 있는 것들, 또는 이렇게 간단하게 생각을 해볼까? (*When we describe our appearance or things we have on our face shall we simply think like this?*) 우리가 몸이야 몸이 있는데 근데 그몸에 귀가있고 입이있고 눈이 있어요 그러니까 뭐가있는거야? (*Our body has ears, a mouth, eyes so what do you have?*) 있는 거죠 (*yes we have*) I have or he or she has 가지고 있어요 (*We have*) I have a nose, I have two eyes, I have two ears, I have...what? A beautiful mouth, like this 이렇게 할 수 있지

만 우리몸을 전체적으로 한번 말해보자 어때요? (*We can say it like this but shall we talk about the whole body?*) Pretty 예뻐요 이건 형용사죠 예쁜 (*pretty is the adjective*), ㄴ 으 로 끝나는건 형용사라고 했죠? (*I told you when something finishes with ㄴ it's an adjective*) 동작을 나타내는 말을 만 들려면 be동사가 필요하다고 했죠? (*I told you if you want to talk about movement you need the be verb*) 그래서 (*so*) she is pretty, he is short. He is handsome 이렇게 표현합니다 그 런데 우리가 입고있는건 어떻게 할까? (*We express like this but how do you say it about what you are wearing?*) 입다 동사가 뭐야? (*What's the verb for wear?*) Wear 지금 현재 입고 있어요 (*I'm wearing now*)

Initiation T: OK, I am wearing something. I am wearing this coat, I am wearing blue jeans, I am wearing this shirt, I am wearing ...what?

Response Ss: earrings

Feedback T: earrings가지고 있는 것 (something you have)

Initiation T: I am wearing what?

Response Ss: watch

Feedback T: watch, OK good job 가지고 있는 것 입고 있는 것은 (*something you have or wear*) wearing be+~ing 몸 전체 적으로는 형용사가 들어갈 때는 be동사가 들어가서 (*when you talk about the whole body you need the be verb and the adjective*)

T: I am short I am pretty I am handsome he is handsome she is pretty 이렇게 씁니다 이해 갔나요? (*We say it like this, do you understand?*)

T: do you understand? Understand?

Extract 2. Teacher 5-Observation 1

6.5.3 Extract 3 Language Learning Phase

Extract 3, from Teacher 4's second observation, was also from an LLA phase. This phase was near the end of the lesson, and therefore did not include the warm up stage. Regulative register was foregrounded at the beginning as the teacher gained the students attention. Instructional register was then foregrounded as the teacher set up, and then carried out, the activity. The phase was strongly framed by the mood choices throughout the phase. Mood choices allowed the teacher control of the discursive order, which in turn meant students could complete the activity according to her design. Strong classification resulted from mood choices, IRF sequences, and the use of English throughout. Korean in the instructional register served to strengthen the framing, as it made the discursive order more explicit for the students (OK 화면에 그림이 나오면 모두 함께 질문합니다 (everyone ask the question when you see the picture on the screen) what is he/she doing?). Explicitness allowed complete understanding of what was required to successfully complete the activity. Korean in the regulative register near the end of the phase (조용히 안 하면 시작 안 할거예요 (if you aren't quiet I won't start)) also strengthened framing as it made clear to students what type of behavior was acceptable at this point in the lesson. In addition, Korean in the regulative register on several occasions during the activity maintained student discipline (조용할 때까지 시작 안 해야겠다 (I won't start until you are quiet) 이렇게 하면 한번밖에 못해요 지금 시간이 없어요 (we are running out of time, if you do it like this you can only do it once). Korean weakened classification of the phase, as Korean used for making discursive rules explicit and for regulating behavior is a common occurrence in non-English subject classes. This phase was near the end of the lesson when the students were becoming restless. The teacher employed Korean to maintain social order during the phase, and attempted to limit student voice to the desired answers, as digressions were disruptive to the activity. Near the end, the students' voices were acknowledged as they complained, in Korean, about taking turns. Unlike in other observations, the teacher acknowledged this opinion, but went on to explain in Korean that the students had miscounted the turns and that they should not argue the point because they were unhappy at losing (너희부터 먼저 했잖아 상관없어요, 우기지 마세요 오늘 배운 거 복습해봅시다 (You did it first, it doesn't matter don't try to argue, let's review what we

learned today))). This response to the students did not include any condemnation of speaking out of turn, as seen in other phrases, or of speaking in Korean. It shows the teacher was willing to listen to what the students had to say, indicating that she valued their opinions, even if they were misjudged.

Initiation T: OK look look look at board

Response Ss: look look look at board

Initiation T: now let's play a game, game today's game is zero game do you remember zero?

Response Ss: NO

Feedback T: no, OK 화면에 그림이 나오면 모두 함께 질문합니다
(*everyone ask the question when you see the picture on the screen*)

what is he/she doing? 1 분단 (*group 1*) group one sit down let's read

three two one *students read example from the screen* 그룹 1 이

대답하는 거예요 분단 별로 (*group one will answer as a group*),

그룹 2 여기 한번 읽어볼까요? (*group two, read here*) *students read*

Korean instructions from the screen OK group three look at the TV

여기 마지막 한번 읽어볼까요? (*Let's read the last part*) *ready go*

students read Korean instructions from the screen

Initiation T: 자, 연습 (*practice*) practice everyone let's read question

질문 읽어보자 (*read the questions*) 3 2 1

Response Ss: what is she doing?

Feedback T: 만약에 1 분단 차례면 1 분단 친구들이 대답을 해야
되겠죠 (*If it's group one's turn they will have to answer*)

Initiation T: let's answer group one, three two one

Response Ss: she is dancing

Initiation T: now stand up group one group one, one two three four

counting the students who are standing up shh 4 학년 (*4th grade*)

Response Ss: 2 반

Initiation T: look look look at teacher

Response Ss: look look look at teacher

Feedback T: 조용히 안 하면 시작 안 할거예요 (*if you aren't quiet I won't start*) real OK.

Initiation T: Look at the TV everyone, OK 아직이라고 (*not yet*)
everyone let's read together three two one

Response Ss: what is she doing?

Initiation T: group one 그룹 1 진짜다 아까는 연습, 2 분단도
연습하고 싶어요? 좋아요 (*Group one that was practice, now this is for real*) answer three two one

Response Ss: *Group two answers*

Feedback T: one two three four OK, let's check

Group two is right; teacher marks a score on the board

Initiation T: Shh shh OK, everyone three two one

Response Ss: what is she doing?

Initiation T: Group three stand up 안 들려요 대답을 안 했어요 (*I can't hear you, you didn't answer*) three two one

Response Ss: he is reading a book

Feedback T: OK, three two one stand up. OK, one two three, OK *in reference to the students standing up* 잘했어요 (*good job*)

Teacher checks the answer on the screen and marks down the correct score

Initiation T: shh shh 조용할 때까지 시작 안 해야겠다 (*I won't start until you are quiet*) everyone one three two one

Response Ss: what is she doing?

Feedback T: 대답을 다같이 해야지 (*Answer the question together*)

Response Ss: *Students answer but can't hear*

Initiation T: OK, three two one

Response Ss: *Students stand up*

Feedback T: five?

Teacher checks the answer on the screen but students are wrong so no score

Initiation T: 이렇게 하면 한번밖에 못해요 지금 시간이 없어요
(*we are running out of time, if you do it like this you can only do it once*) OK everyone three two one

Response Ss: what is he doing?

Initiation T: 2 분단 대답하고 일어납니다 (*Group two answer and stand up*) answer together three two one

Response Ss: *Students answer and stand up*

T: one two three four five six seven *counting the students who are standing* shhh

Teacher checks the answer but students are wrong so no score

Initiation T: next 조용히 해 주세요 (*Be quiet*) OK, three two one, what is he doing?

Response Ss: *Students answer but cannot hear due to a lot of noise*

Initiation T: 안들려요, 여기서 중요한게 뭐야? 영어로 말하는 거지? 3 분단 다같이 해볼까요? (*I can't hear you, what's important here? Speaking English? Group three will try it together?*) Three two one, he is cooking stand up

Response Ss: *Students stand up*

Feedback T: four, one two three four

Checks the answer and writes score on the board

Initiation T: 제로는 없어요 자, 다같이 (*there is no zero, all together*) three two one

Response Ss: what is he doing?

Initiation T: this group

Response Ss: *Students answer*

Initiation T: stand up OK, stop, one two three, three

Checks answer on screen but students are wrong

Initiation T: 마지막 라운드 (*Last round*) everyone 다같이

(*everyone*) what is...

Response Ss: he doing?

Initiation T: OK, 2 분 단 대답하고 일어나세요 (*Group two, answer and stand up*) he is eating hamburgers

Response Ss: he is eating hamburgers

Feedback T: three two one stop stop, one two three

Checks the answers but students are wrong

Initiation T: T: 다같이 시작 (*start together*)

Response Ss: what is she doing?

Initiation T: three two one 경민아 대답먼저 (*answer first*) answer first OK

Response Ss: He is reading a book

Feedback T: reading a book,

Initiation T: three two one

Response Ss: *Students stand up*

Initiation T: 한명 (*one person*) one 마지막 (*last time*)

Response Ss: what is she doing? She is swimming

Initiation T: Three two one, OK

Response Ss: *Students stand up*

Initiation T: one two three four

Checks the answers on the screen but students are wrong

T: group three is the winner!

Students complain about which group went first in Korean

T: 너희부터 먼저 했잖아 상관없어요, 우기지 마세요 오늘 배운 거 복습해봅시다 (*You did it first, it doesn't matter don't try to argue, let's review what we learned today*)

6.5.4 Extract 4-Language Learning Phase

A similar acceptance of students using Korean was also seen in Teacher 1's classes. Taken from a LLA phase, the teacher was explaining the instructions to her students, when she code-switched to Korean to ask them about the instructions just given (왜 다섯 개죠? 여섯모듬인데? (Why five? There are six groups (of students))). This prompted a response in Korean by the students. Previously, responses in Korean were not accepted by the teacher, but on this occasion she sought it out. In fact, a whole sequence where the teacher continued to use Korean and seek responses in Korean from the students occurred. This differed to other occasions where she would use the imperative and declarative moods in English to tell her students what to do. In Korean, she used a combination of the interrogative and declarative to allow students to show that they knew what the activity required, which allowed students to add their voice to the construction of the activity, and even saw students respond in English without a prompt from the teacher.

Initiation T: so like this, it was team five's bandit so you have to circle the right picture and circle team five, like this, so you have to find five bandits, how many bandits?

Response Ss: five

Feedback T: five bandits, 왜 다섯 개죠? 여섯모듬인데?
(*Why five? There are six groups* (of students))

Response S: 우리꺼 빼고요. (*We don't include our own*)

Feedback T: 그렇죠. 자기 거 빼고 몇 개모듬을 찾으시면 되요? (*That's right, if you don't include your own how many do you find?*)

Response Ss: 다섯 (*five*)

Feedback T: 다섯모듬것 찾으시면 되겠습니다. (*You can find five*)

Initiation T: 제일먼저 누가 움직인다구요? (*Which student moves first?*)

Response Ss: 1번 (*number 1*)

Feedback T: 1번, (*number 1*)

Initiation T: 그다음은? (*And next?*)

Response Ss: 2번 (*number 2*)

Initiation T: 그 다음은 (*And next?*)

Response Ss: 3번 (*number 3*)

Initiation T: 그 다음은 (*And next?*)

Response Ss: 4번 (*number 4*)

Initiation T: 그리고 (*And then?*)

Response Ss: 5번, (*number 5*)

Initiation T: 5번이 없으면 다시? (*Who goes again if there is no number 5?*)

Response Ss: 1번 (*number 1*)

Initiation T: 한사람이 여기로 갔다가 그다음사람이 저기로 갔다가 하면될까요? (*if one student goes here can the next student go here?*)

Response Ss: no

Initiation T: 안되죠 한번에 하나씩만해서 총 몇 개를 찾으라고요? (*no, you can each only go to one paper, how many will you find?*)

Response Ss: 5개 (*five*)

Feedback T: 5개를 찾으면 되겠습니다. 한번에 한명씩만 움직이세요 (*when you find five you are done. One student moves at a time*)

Initiation T: are you ready?

Extract 4. Teacher 1-Observation 2

6.6 Teachers' Korean Strengthening Framing and Classification

This section reveals how Korean both strengthened framing and classification during different phases of different curriculum genres.

6.6.1 Extract 5-Vocabulary Phase

Extract 5 came from Teacher 2 during a vocabulary phase. This phase started off with the teacher explicitly stating that she was going to introduce new target lexical items for the students to learn. The teacher then proceeded to show pictures of the target item in order to elicit a response from the students. Students responded and the teacher then confirmed if the response was correct or not. The teacher then added context for the new words through further elicitation. This continued until the end of the stage, where the teacher checked they could remember the words. An ideal pedagogic subject position where students paid attention to the teacher at all times, responded to the teacher's direct questions, and tried to speak English at all times was observed.

Students were first presented with the targeted lexical item by the teacher in the initiation move (now last group, what group is left? Groups C, their name is?), and from the students' lack of response to the item, the teacher felt the need to confirm that the students actually understood the word. She intersententially code switched to Korean in the interrogative mood in order to elicit from the students the Korean equivalent of the word reptile, then immediately provided the answer in the declarative mood (Reptiles, reptiles, in Korean? 한국말로 뭐까요? 파충류 (What is it in Korean? Reptiles)). Students then responded accordingly. The foregrounded instructional register allowed students to remain in the ideal pedagogical subject position for learning the target lexical item. Mood choices within the IRF sequence illustrated the strong framing of this phase, and Korean preserved strength of framing as it allowed the teacher to maintain the rules of discursive order by making explicit criteria of knowledge and pacing during the exchanges. In contrast, Korean used to confirm the meaning of the target lexical item did not weaken classification due to functioning as a translation tool, something that does not happen in other classroom subjects. The teacher's use of Korean was an opening for students to use Korean and to show their knowledge. By allowing the students their own voice in answering the question, the teacher lowered the strength of the classification and framing of the phase. This act showed that the teacher felt

she could trust students to use Korean when asked to, and not take advantage of this and continue to use Korean in other parts of the lesson. When the teacher felt that students were taking advantage, she was quick to remind them that they were in the center to learn English. For Teacher 2, allowing students to provide answers in Korean was not unusual. This had the effect of not restricting student voice when it was appropriate to the learning situation. This was also seen in other teachers' classes as well, where students were allowed to use Korean in their responses when discussing new vocabulary.

Initiation T: now last group, what group is left? Groups C, their name is? Reptiles, reptiles, in Korean? 한국말로 뭐까요?
파충류 (*What is it in Korean? Reptiles*)
Response Ss: 파충류
Feedback T: right good, they have scales

Extract 5. Teacher 2-Observation 1

Feedback T: do you know any birds?
Response Ss: eagle (*one student spoke Korean*)
Feedback T: Eagle right 친구야 지금영어센터왔으니까 조금만 영어로 해줘 (*friend, this is the English center please use English*) eagle

Extract 6 Teacher 2-Observation 1

6.6.2 Extract 6-Class Objectives Phase

Extract 6 came from Teacher 3 during one of her class objectives phases. This phase was where the teacher informs the students of the learning objectives of the lesson. The ideal pedagogic subject position for this phase is one where the students listened to the teacher's

questions about content, and repeated after the teacher in order to practice saying the target expressions.

Korean first occurred when the teacher finished eliciting the target expressions, and then intersententially code-switched to Korean to inform students of the importance of the target expressions. The instructional register was foregrounded as the teacher informed students about what they were going to study. Interrogative and declarative moods mirrored that of the other phases, strongly framing the phase, with Korean reinforcing the strength of the framing as it made explicit the learning aims to the students. Classification of the phase was strong as well, as this type of explicitness about intent is unique to the Korean classroom context, but not outside of the school environment. Korean did not weaken classification as this use is unique to Korean school contexts. Additionally, it was not intended as an opportunity for the students to use Korean themselves. Students were expected to comprehend the teacher's message but not provide a response.

T: OK Today's key expressions *Turning to the board*

Initiation T: I'm going to write it down on the board. Can you guess today's key expressions?

Response S: Where did you go?

Ss: *different answers*

Initiation T: Did you...

Response S: did you go by

Feedback T: There

Response S: by bus

Feedback T: by blah blah blah by bus, by subway. OK very good. 오늘 이것만 알면 될 것 같은데요 여러분 (*This is what you need to know from today*)

Extract 7. Teacher 3-Observation 2

6.7 Teachers' Korean Weakening Classification and Framing (Vertical Discourse)

This section reveals how Korean weakened both the classification and framing of the phases in different curriculum genres. A weakening of both framing and classification led to a shift to a more horizontal discourse, which is characterized by participants having more equality in terms of who controls the discourse. This is not characteristic of traditional classes, which tend to exhibit teachers controlling all aspects of interaction.

6.7.1 Extract 7-Opening the Class Phase

Extract 7 highlighted how Korean weakened the vertical discourse of the classroom, allowing more horizontal discourses in to the classroom, which in turn weakened the teacher's control over the class.

The first instance of Korean was in the first utterance by the teacher, where she had seen that one of the students did not have their book on their desk, so she asked them to get their book (성준이 책이 없네? (You don't have your book?) 영어 책 준비 하세요 (get your book ready please) OK, are you ready?). Then she turned to the class, made an intersentential code-switch to English, and asked if everybody else was ready. After they had responded, she then turned back to the first student, code-switched back to Korean and confirmed that the student was also ready. The regulative register was foregrounded in this beginning exchange as the teacher sought to move the students into the ideal pedagogic subject position. Imperative, interrogative and declarative mood choices gave the phase strong framing, allowing the teacher to establish discursive order. The immediate use of Korean with one student strengthened this framing as it ensured that the student knew exactly what the teacher wanted, it also sent a message to the other students that it was time to start class. If the student did not have his book out and ready, it would have created disruption to the lesson later. Although mood choices, IRF sequences and the predominant use of English provided the phase with a strong classification, Korean weakened this classification as the use of Korean for classroom management is the norm in other non-English subjects within the school environment. This interaction created the vertical discourse in the class, with the teacher establishing control over the interactions. All of this is expected, however, what happened next undermined this established control.

The second instance of Korean use was in the following stage of the phase, where the teacher

was asking questions about the students' lives in order to strengthen the classification of the lesson through the use of simple English questions. In response to one student's answer, the teacher intersententially code-switched to Korean to mention that she had received some chocolates as a gift, which is part of a special day in Korea, called Pepero Day (hungry? 선생님은도 껌 껌로 받았어요 (I received a pepero gift)). Students interpreted this as an invitation to talk about this topic themselves, and reacted by excitedly speaking in Korean about the day. The level of excitement from the students was quite noticeable, as they sought to offer her more chocolate, or even ask for chocolate in return, as is the custom on this day. The teacher realized they were excited, but that she was losing control, so she declared in Korean that they would talk more about it later. The previously established strength of the framing and classification was weakened by the teacher's use of Korean in this case, as it referred to occurrences outside of the lesson, involving horizontal discourse in place of the expected vertical discourse of the classroom. The effect of this change from vertical to the horizontal discourse was immediate, with students yelling excitedly about the chocolates they had received. When the teacher realized she was losing control, she stated that they would talk about this after class, removing the horizontal discourse from the phase, and re-strengthening the framing of the phase. The effect of the code-switch coupled with the mention of a topic that was not related to classroom learning was powerful. Previous examples of code-switches to Korean had not had the same effect as this example. The topic itself therefore seemed to be the main trigger for the students' response. This topic was an example of how the introduction of horizontal discourse the classroom setting can shift the dynamics, relationships, and status of individuals in formal learning environments.

If I had not been in the room her response may have been different in that she may have continued on the discussion in Korean, as she knew that the day was a special day for the children. By initiating an exchange on this topic in Korean, the teacher was establishing a bond with the students in their L1, and she would have been aware that their response would be an excited one in the L1. This revealed the value she placed on communicating with her students and the interest she had in their personal lives, which could only be discussed in the L1. It also illustrated that she was not against students bringing their own voice in to the lesson, even if it was in the L1 and not the TL. The fact that I was sitting in the back of the classroom with a video recording device most likely curtailed the exchange on this topic to a

certain degree.

Initiation T: 성준이 책이 없네? (<i>You don't have your book?</i>) 영어 책 준비 하세요 (<i>get your book ready please</i>) OK, are you ready? Response Ss: yes, I'm ready Feedback T: OK, 성준이 됐어요 이제? (<i>Are you ready now?</i>) Initiation T: let's start, hello everyone Response Ss: hello teacher Initiation T: how are you today? Response Ss: I'm fine/ hungry Feedback T: hungry? 선생님도 빼빼로 받았어요 (<i>I received a pepero gift</i>) <i>Students speaking in Korean about how today is a special day for giving chocolate to each other</i> T: 조금 있다가 빼빼로 얘기 는 하구요 (<i>let's talk about pepero day a little later</i>)
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Extract 8. Teacher 4-Observation 2

6.8 The Effect of English on the Framing and Classification of the Curriculum Genres

The following extracts provide examples of phases in which teachers did not speak Korean. Phases without Korean were alike in the use of grammatical mood choices and the prevalence of IRF routines, therefore only two samples from the teachers who used the Korean the least are examined here. Extract 9 came from Teacher 1, and the second extract came from Teacher 5. The first extract was from near the beginning of the lesson, and students were generally well behaved. The second extract was from near the very end of the lesson, and students had become more restless as they started to lose focus. The following table presents the grammatical mood choices used in the phases. Extract 9 came from Teacher 1, and the second

extract came from Teacher 5.

6.8.1 Extract 8-Opening the Class Phase

The following table presents the grammatical mood choices used in the phases. Without Korean to strengthen the framing, the grammatical mood choices were essential for maintaining the rules of the discursive order within the instructional register. In the first extract, the instructional register was foregrounded throughout the phase. The following table provides examples of how the rules of discursive order were realized in the extract below

Rules of discursive order	Evidence	Examples
Selection	Teacher chose pictures to use	<i>We're going to look at the picture and the sentence on the screen</i>
Sequence	Teacher decided the order of the pictures	<i>Good, let's start. John is short (showing a picture of John who is tall)</i>
Pacing	Teacher initiated all exchanges	Initiation T: <i>John is short (showing a picture of John who is tall)</i>
Criteria of knowledge	Teacher declared what was right and what was wrong	<i>Then what is right?</i>

Table 12. Realizing Discursive Rules without the L1

Classification for these phases was very strong, as the presence of English without Korean is unique to the English classroom. In extract 8, the teacher relied on visual aids to assist students in understanding her instructions. Visual aids assisted in strengthening the framing as they made the discursive order accessible to most students in the class. Students who did

not understand the instructions were witnessed to imitate the actions of students who did. The activity type did not allow for any discussion or freedom of choice for the students as the teacher dictated all rules of discursive order, which left the students no opportunity to use the target language as they would have liked.

Initiation T: OK, good job. Before we start the lesson, let's review the last lesson. It's right or wrong. We're going to look at the picture and the sentence on the screen. If the sentence is right, please repeat after me. But if the sentence is wrong, put your hands on your head. So what will you do if the sentence is right?
using screen with pictures to provide visual information about the activity

Response S: repeat

Feedback T: repeat the sentence

Initiation T: and if the sentence is wrong?

Response S: no

Initiation T: show me *gesturing to put hands on the head*

Response Ss: *put your hand on your head*

Feedback T: Good, let's start.

Initiation T: John is short *showing a picture of John who is tall*

Response Ss: *Students put their hands on their heads*

Initiation T: what is right?

Response Ss: John is tall

Feedback T: Put your hands down

Initiation T: Lisa has green eyes *showing a picture of Lisa who has blue eyes*

Response Ss: *Students put their hands on their heads*

Initiation T: then what is right?

Response Ss: Lisa has blue eyes

Feedback T: OK, down

Initiation T: She has long straight hair

Response Ss: She has long straight hair

Initiation T: OK, Mimi has long hair *showing a picture of Mimi who has short hair*

Response Ss: *Students put their hands on their heads*

Feedback T: OK

Initiation T: what is right?

Response Ss: Mimi has short hair

Feedback T: hands down.

Initiation T: He has a big nose.

Response Ss: He has a big nose.

Initiation T: she has curly hair

Response Ss: she has curly hair

Initiation T: he is very short

Response Ss: he is very short

Feedback T: OK, great job.

Extract 9. Teacher 1-Observation 1

6.8.2 Extract 9-Language Learning Phase

In extract 9, the teacher resorted to an elaborate set of rules which meant that students had to remain silent as part of the activity. These game rules allowed the teacher to maintain a strong framing over the phase, even though the students were quite restless as they knew the end of the lesson was near. Students were starting to use Korean a lot more at this stage, and the teacher used the activity rules to limit this. This involved the students being divided into teams, having to put their heads on their desks and not look up unless told to by the teacher. After starting in the instructional register, the teacher quickly moved back to the regulative register once she realized she was losing control (OK, look at me, May I have your attention?). Once she had gained control she switched back to the instructional register to deliver her instructions. Switching between registers occurred throughout the activity as she struggled to maintain control over the class. She initiated all interactions and limited students to responding to her. Grammatical mood choices coupled with the IRF sequence strongly framed the phase, and the activity type and exclusive use of English strengthened

classification. Students were positioned in to the ideal subject position early in the phase and these linguistic and interactive elements meant they could not move from it. Again the teacher controlled the rules of discursive order. She also controlled the rules of social order by foregrounding the regulative register when students did not respond to the instructional register.

T: OK, we have fifteen minutes but I will skip... *Inaudible* so it's time to play a game

Students start shouting in excitement

T: OK, it's time to play a game. OK sleeping elephants, so you have played this game before, OK, one person from each group...

One student from each group comes to the front to collect materials for the game

Initiation T: OK, look at me

Response Ss: look at you

Feedback T: Look at me close you books, close your books

Students put away their books

Initiation T: OK, may I have your attention? May I have your attention? So I will explain how to play this game the sleeping elephants, we have four elephants, four elephants, for each team, so this guy, this person should be one, OK, one one two three four, K, one two three four. So, one, number one raise your hand, two, three, four, OK, *students respond accordingly but start to make a lot of noise* look at me

Response Ss: look at you

T: don't talk, don't talk, OK, when I say go to sleep, go to sleep, and then wake up number one, wake up number two, wake up number three, wake up number four, and then wake up elephants I will say and then make a sentence *shows on the screen* cute, like this. Ready? Ready? Ready? *One group is unsure of their numbers* one two three four *teacher points out their numbers* ready? Ready? Number one wake up? stop, two wake up, three

wake up, four wake up ok wake up and write down

Students write down the answers on a board

Initiation T: ready, three two one go

Response Ss: *students hold up boards, teacher checks who has the right answer*

Feedback T: no period.

Initiation T: Everyone, everyone

Response Ss: he has brown eyes

Feedback T: he has brown eyes. No period *referring to some groups who didn't add a period at the end of the sentence so they don't get a point*. Put a period, period.

Initiation T: OK round two, round two. Number one wake up, two wake up, three wake up, four wake up

Response Ss: *students write their answers*

Initiation T: OK, three two one show me

Response Ss: *Students hold up their boards, teacher checks*

Feedback T: wow, everyone got it.

Initiation T: Everyone, everyone everyone

Response Ss: Mike is tall and handsome

Feedback T: one more time

Response Ss: Mike is tall and handsome

Initiation T: round three, please calm down, please calm down, please please. Number one wake up, two wake up, three wake up four wake up, write it down

Response Ss: *Students write their answers*

Initiation T: three two one go

Response Ss: *Students hold up boards*

Feedback T: I saw you *teacher checks the boards and writes down scores*.

Initiation T: OK everyone

Response Ss: she is pretty

Feedback T: One more time

Response Ss: she is pretty

Initiation T: OK next round, ready go, go to sleep, number one wake up, two wake up, three wake up, four wake up. Write it down

Response Ss: Students write down their answers

Initiation T: Ready 10, 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1, three two one up, up!

Response Ss: *Students hold up boards*

Initiation T: Ok everyone, everyone

Response Ss: long curly blond hair

Feedback T: everyone

Response Ss: long curly blond hair

Feedback T: everyone

Response Ss: long curly blond hair

Initiation T: OK repeat after me long curly blond hair

Response Ss: long curly blond hair

Feedback T: long curly blond hair

Response Ss: long curly blond hair

Feedback T: Curly

Response Ss: curly

Initiation T: R and L sound together so curly

Response Ss: curly

Initiation T: and blond, blond is what? What?

Response Ss: *answer in Korean*

Feedback T: yes, and sometimes no E, blonde or blond both are fine OK.

Initiation T: Go to sleep, number one wake up, two wake up, three wake up, four wake up. Wake up

Response Ss: *Students write down their answers*

Initiation T: OK, be quiet, be quiet, be quiet be quiet, ready go up up up

Teacher checks answers

Initiation T: everyone

Response Ss: she is wearing glasses

Feedback T: everyone

Response Ss: she is wearing glasses

Initiation T: one more time

Response Ss: she is wearing glasses

Initiation T: one more time

Response Ss: she is wearing glasses

Initiation T: one more time

Response Ss: she is wearing glasses

Initiation T: OK next, last round, last round ready ready, are you ready? Number one wake up, two wake up, three wake up, four wake up, write it down

Response Ss: *Students write down their answers*

T: three two one up up

Teacher checks answers

Initiation T: everyone

Response Ss: I have brown eyes

Feedback T: everyone

Response Ss: I have brown eyes

Feedback T: OK, we all have brown eyes. OK *so checking who the winners are and giving reward to them* one two

Ss: no no no

Extract 10. Teacher 5-Observation 1

6.9 Consistency between Beliefs and Actions

This section will briefly highlight the degree of consistency between what the participants stated as their beliefs about language use, and their observed actions. Four of the five

participating teachers had practices that aligned with their stated beliefs. The only teacher, 2, who did not, acted differently to her stated beliefs due to her current working situation, where the English only policy was strongly enforced compared to other schools. Even then, she still spoke Korean when she felt it would benefit her students.

6.9.1 Teacher 1

Teacher 1 stated that she believes that she should use as much English as possible, if not all the time. She said she believes that exposing her students to English is a vital function of her class, especially in South Korea, where students are not exposed to English outside of the English classroom. Her beliefs are in line with the observations, as she limited her use of Korean to 8% or less of her initiations, and 6% or less of her responses to students. These uses of Korean were for maintaining control of the classroom, or giving instructions for more complicated activities, which again is consistent with her stated beliefs.

6.9.2 Teacher 2

Teacher 2 stated that she believes exposing her students to English in her classes is important, but that using an English only approach is not necessary. She stated that she finds students with weaker English proficiencies become demotivated in the classroom, which can lead to discipline problems, so she feels there is a need to use Korean to help keep all students engaged with the lesson content. However, as she was working in a special English center at the time of the study, she curtailed her use of Korean to satisfy the requirements of the center. This explains why she was observed using more English than she stated she thought was necessary, with 6% or less of her initiations in Korean, and 4% or less of her responses in Korean.

6.9.3 Teacher 3

Teacher 3 stated that exposing her students to English is important, but she feels that Korean has a definite role in her classroom. She stated Korean was important for motivating her students, and she felt more comfortable expressing herself in Korean than English. This greater acceptance of Korean was observed in her classes, as she used Korean for up to 17% of her initiations, and 19% of her responses, by far more than the previous two teachers.

6.9.4 Teacher 4

Teacher 4 differed from the other teachers in that she openly preferred to use at least as much Korean as English in her classes. This was observed in one of her classes, where she employed Korean in 48% of her initiations and 49% of her responses. Her other observation revealed slightly less Korean used, 33% for initiations and 38% for responses, but was still considerably more than all other teachers in the study, and suggests a strong congruence between her stated beliefs and her classroom practices.

6.9.5 Teacher 5

Teacher 5 stated that she only uses Korean in her classes for control, and teaching grammatical points. She stated that she strongly believes in using English as much as possible, and thinks exposure is very important for her classes. This is corroborated by the observations, where she was observed using Korean for less than 1% of all of her initiations and 3% or less for her responses. In fact, as there were no control issues (possible due to my presence) she only used Korean once, to explain a grammatical feature, as she stated.

6.10 Their Story Continued

As stated in chapter 5, teachers 1 and 5 both had positive experiences with TL only approaches when they were in school, and both believe in maximizing the TL use in their classrooms. Both teachers were observed using English for more than 90% of the interactions in their classes, showing a strong link between their past experiences, current beliefs, and current practices.

Teacher 2 has less correlation between her past experiences, current beliefs, and current practice due to the pressure of working in a school that actively promotes itself as an immersion school where no Korean is spoken.

Teacher 3 shows a strong correlation between her limited experiences with TL only approaches when younger, her stated beliefs about the using both the TL and the L1 in the class, and her observed teaching practices. As she stated, she believes in using Korean for maintaining motivation and this was observed in her classes.

Teacher 4, who had no experience with TL only approaches when younger, and who stated that Korean played a big part in her classes, was observed using Korean for up to 50% of her

classes. This again shows the link between her past experiences, current beliefs, as well as current teaching practice.

Based on these findings, there seems to be a connect between teachers experiences as learners, their current beliefs, and their current teaching practices. The degree to which these teachers have been observed to act in accordance with their beliefs was mediated by the context in which they were observed. For teacher 2, the contextual factor of school policy is a major consideration when researching the interaction between her current beliefs and practices. Researching teacher beliefs in relation to the lens of classroom interaction (L. Li & Walsh, 2011) has allowed for a more complete understanding of participating teacher beliefs.

6.11 Summary of the Analysis of Language Choices

As can be seen from the extracts and the analysis that accompany them, the use of Korean or English during different phases of different curriculum genre affected the social construction of the classroom by defining who maintained power and control in the lessons. Korean strengthened framing in all lessons, as it made the rules of social order and the rules of discursive order more explicit for the students, which allowed students to understand what the teachers wanted in their lessons. The use of the L1 to maintain control has been seen in other studies (Duff & Polio, 1990; Kang, 2008, 2013), although these studies have based their findings on teachers stated beliefs about the role the L1 can play, or from observations which led to functional descriptions of how the L1 is used in class. The level of detail described in this study reveals more than just functional observations of how the languages were used, detailing how different registers affected the classroom.

The use of Korean had different effects on the classification, or power relations, of the curriculum genres. It had the ability to strengthen the power of the teachers, especially when they chose to not use it, or give more voice to the students, such as when they were allowed to speak Korean by the teacher. The following chapter synthesizes these findings with those of chapter five to provide a full account of how the beliefs that teachers have about TL or L1 use affect the social construction of the classroom.

Chapter Seven: The Influence of Beliefs on the Social Construction of the Classroom

7.1 Revisiting the Research Questions

This chapter discusses the findings from the analysis of the classroom observations and the interviews in order to answer the three general research question. The three general research questions are:

- GQ1: What influences the formation of assumptions, attitudes, and beliefs about L1 and TL use in the classroom?
- GQ2: What are the beliefs about the TL and L1 as languages of instruction in Korean elementary school English classrooms?
- GQ3: How do these beliefs about L1 or TL use affect the social construction of the classroom?

7.2 Influences on the Formation of NNESTs Assumptions, Attitudes, and Beliefs about L1 and TL use in the Classroom

7.2.1 Tracking the Origins of Teachers' Beliefs about Language use in their Classes

Teacher beliefs originate in, and are transformed by, a myriad of influences. These start from when teachers were learners themselves, to their experiences when learning to teach, and then actually teaching. Tracing the origins and evolution of beliefs in this study utilized ideas put forward in Barnard and Burns (2012), who suggested differentiating beliefs into three discrete periods of development: initial assumptions, tentative attitudes, and firmer beliefs. Differentiating between these periods allows for an isolation of the influences into distinct sets specific to the stage of development. This section will define the stages and detail the sets of influences that act within the stages.

7.3 Primary Influences Acting on the Formation of Initial Assumptions

Initial assumptions are defined as axioms which enable pre-judgements about the surrounding world. These axioms are generally formed after limited experience with a phenomenon. For

teachers, axioms about teaching develop during their experiences as students learning a second language throughout their school years. Based on teacher profiles created and presented previously, the primary set of influences found to be acting on the formation of initial assumptions about language use in the classroom were:

- Traditional language teachers' language use
- Alternative language learning experiences
- Enjoyment of classes
- Teacher training courses

Each influence acted in conjunction with other influences within the set to create initial assumptions about TL/L1 use. The following will detail the influences and provide examples as given by the participants in the study.

7.3.1 Traditional Language Teachers' Language Use (TLT)

While at school as students, all participants had NNESTs who did not use the target language for anything more than reading texts allowed. This influence worked in conjunction with the other influences to develop assumptions about the role the Korean language plays when teaching English. For participants who did not experience any early form of alternative language education, this resulted in the assumption that Korean was standard practice and essential when teaching a foreign language, as stated by many of the participants.

7.3.2 Alternative Language Learning Experiences (ALL)

ALL experiences provided the participants with another view on how to teach languages. When experienced while at school, this influence countered the assumption that the only way to teach a foreign language was in Korean. ALL experienced while still in school was described as enjoyable in comparison to the TLT experiences. Teachers 2 and 4 did not mention any ALL experiences when in school, only while at university. Teacher 1 attended private language learning academies in addition to her regular school, which exposed her to ALL classes which were dominated by the target language. Teachers 3 and 5 both spoke of enjoying learning languages other than English; Japanese and French respectively. Teacher 3 enjoyed learning Japanese as she was interested in the pop culture of Japan at the time. Teacher 5 enjoyed her French classes due to her teacher, who spoke French well and spoke

French while teaching French. The ALL experiences were pivotal in the creation of alternative assumptions about language teaching for participants 1, 3 and 5.

7.3.3 Enjoyment of Classes

Enjoyment of the English classes was universally mentioned when asked about learning experiences, with most participant teachers stating that they did not enjoy their TLT classes; participants used the word “boring” to describe their English classes. Teacher 3 did not experience any alternative form of English language learning experience when in school (she did however experience Japanese classes which she enjoyed), and her experiences of learning English were generally negative throughout her school years. The fact that Teachers 1, 3 and 5 all enjoyed their ALL classes, and had generally positive emotions associated with these experiences, but disliked their time in the TLT classes, and therefore had generally negative emotions, is important in the formation of their assumptions about the role of English as the main language of English class. Teacher 4 did not have any early ALL experiences; her first encounter was in university, which she did not discuss much. She disliked another experience in an English-only, in-service teacher training program, which reinforced her belief about the need for Korean in the classroom. Likewise, Teacher 2 only experienced an ALL upon reaching university, where she experienced native speaker teacher led classes for the first time, suddenly becoming aware of what she perceived to be her own deficiencies as an English speaker. This experience was not an enjoyable experience at first, but did raise awareness about how she felt her previous experiences in TLT classes had left her deficient in her English communicative abilities. This ALL experience formed a new assumption about the role that English played in class, one that had not formed due to a lack of ALL experiences. However, unlike Teachers 1,3 and 5, this assumption formed much later compared to her assumptions about the role of Korean in the classroom, which would prove significant in the eventual formation of her beliefs about TL or L1 use in the classroom.

7.3.4 Teacher Training Programs

Participants experienced teacher training programs that espoused monolingual, or English-only, approaches to teaching English at different times of their careers. Training programs exposed participants to alternative forms of English education in which exposure to English was both explicitly and implicitly encouraged. Participants who experienced them prior to

becoming English teachers, but already established as teachers, were more susceptible to the programs' values than those who experienced them after becoming English teachers. For Teachers 3 and 5, these experiences aligned with positive ALL experiences and negative KTLT experiences to assist in the formation of assumptions that were positive about the role of English. The objectives of teacher training courses can influence how much of an impact they have on teachers. The teacher training programs experienced by the participants were solely geared towards improving the teachers English proficiency, and resulted in Teachers 3 and 5 teaching exclusively in English upon first becoming subject teachers.

7.3.5 The Importance of Primary Influences

Initial assumptions that were positive about using English in the classroom consisted of a combination of negative TLT experiences and positive ALL experiences. Additionally, the attendance of teacher training programs prior to English language teaching experience also facilitated the formation of positive initial assumptions about English use. Teachers 1, 3 and 5, had positive initial assumptions about the role of English, and generally unfavorable initial assumptions about the role of Korean when teaching English. Teachers 2 and 4 did not have ALL experiences while in school or attend training programs that espoused the value of an English-only approach prior to becoming English teachers. This resulted in Teacher 4 having generally unfavorable initial assumptions about the role of English. And although they experienced ALL experiences while in university, they reacted differently, with Teacher 2 questioning the effectiveness of a Korean dominant approach to language teaching, and Teacher 4 not mentioning it as a significant part of her development. Due to the relative lateness of these experiences, they managed to foster more favorable views of Korean than Teachers 1, 3 and 5.

Although the experiences had as learners are important (Bailey et al, 1996; Hall & Cook, 2012; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996) in the formation of beliefs, there is not a lot of literature focusing on this with NNESTs in regards to the of L1 or TL use. The combination of own teachers' language use and the emotions that are experienced in conjunction with this have long lasting effects on teachers. McMillian and Rivers (2011) revealed how Japanese teachers cited their own English teachers, who never spoke English, as a reason for why they chose to use the L1 when teaching the TL, and despite this not being explored in any great

depth, it does reveal the strength of these initial assumptions about language use. As will be seen later, experiences had as students learning a language are powerful influences that shape the origins of beliefs about language teaching, often in ways not always realized by teachers themselves. Nevertheless, this subject still seems to be underexplored considering the level of debate about how and why the L1 or TL should be used when teaching a language.

7.4 Secondary Influences Acting in the Formation of Tentative Attitudes

Tentative attitudes evolved from assumptions, shaped further by experiences with the teaching of English. Some initial assumptions were completely changed into unrecognizable concepts, while other assumptions generally remained intact. For language teachers, initial experiences with, and reactions to, language teaching influenced the formation of tentative attitudes. The secondary set of influences worked in conjunction with each other during the formation of tentative attitudes about language use in the classroom:

- Teacher training programs
- Colleagues
- Language teacher identity
- Students
- School contextual factors

During this stage of development, duplicate influences affected participants differently, largely due to the initial assumptions that the participants had formed. The following will elucidate these influences and how they acted upon the already formed initial assumptions of the participants.

7.4.1 Teacher Training Programs

For teachers who had positive initial assumptions about English use, the training programs were well received. Teacher 1 enjoyed the programs and had her positive initial assumptions strengthened by attending the training courses. Teacher 4, on the other hand, had negative initial assumptions reinforced as her focus was not so much on the content of the programs but the fact that the content was delivered exclusively in English. Teacher 2, who had a more positive assumption about English than Teacher 4 due to a late ALL experience, responded more positively to the training programs as well. For teachers who attended the training

programs as in-service English teachers, the effect was minimal in comparison to teachers who attended the same programs as pre-service English teachers (but were already established as teachers).

7.4.2 Teaching Mentors

The influence of colleagues is common in the formation of beliefs (Hall & Cook, 2012), and is a factor in the socialization processes that teachers go through when joining a new school environment. The support that teachers get in the form of emotional support and teaching skills, while not well understood (Farrell, 2003), was evident with some teachers in this study. Mentor teachers, older teachers with more teaching experience, meet with practicing English subject teachers once a year to discuss teaching and offer advice. Teacher 3 had conversations with a mentor that led her to speak English out of the class (but still in school) as well as in the class. Her mentor's advice assisted in strengthening her assumption into an attitude as it allowed her to conceptualize more appropriate language without resorting to Korean. The fact that her mentor had favorable views on the role of English revealed the underlying 'philosophy, cultural values and accepted sets of behaviors' (Farrell, 2003, p. 97) that were held by the school. As Teacher 3 was already an established teacher within this school, her transition to that of English teacher was probably smoother than that of a true novice teacher as she was already aware of these values. The values associated with language teaching most likely did not contrast too much and were easy to accept for her.

Favorable initial assumptions about the role of English accommodated secondary influences that supported the role of English. However, the presence of positive assumptions did not guarantee the secondary influences would reinforce an assumption. Teacher 5 witnessed a more experienced teacher's class, a teacher she said that she admired and respected, and found herself reevaluating her assumptions about the role of English and Korean. Being able to watch a more experienced teacher, one who she felt had a greater command of the English language, communicate in Korean in class, challenged her assumption about the role of Korean in the classroom. This experience led to a conscious effort to use Korean in her own classes where she felt appropriate. This challenge led her to a more tentative attitude that accepted Korean could have a role in class, and that an English-only approach may not be as desirable as she first assumed. This again revealed the teaching philosophy and values of the

school she was in. It would seem that these were not aligned with those espoused by the training programs, where in school the use of Korean in the English class was acceptable.

The influence of mentors while teaching differed for the participant teachers. The amount of experience a teacher had teaching language was important when it came to the influence of other teachers. For participant Teachers 1 and 4, who had more experience teaching English as they started earlier in their teaching careers, little was mentioned of the influence of mentors. For Teachers 3 and 5, who had different paths to becoming English teachers, as mentioned previously, the influence of other teachers proved important factors in the evolution of their attitudes out of existing assumptions. Teacher 5 had the least experience teaching English, and this may be why her attitude to using Korean differed to her initial assumption about Korean.

7.4.3 Role of Language Teacher Identity

Another influence that shaped assumptions into attitudes was the different perceptions surrounding the identities of English subject teachers and homeroom teachers who taught English. Identity involves the understanding people have about their relationships to the surrounding world, how these relationships are constructed across both time and space and how people understand their possibilities for the future (Norton, 1997). Teacher identity construction ‘must be understood with respect to larger social processes’ and is influenced by coercive or collaborative relations of power (Norton, 1997, p. 410). Participant teachers who taught English as a homeroom teacher discussed how they used more Korean when teaching English as a homeroom teacher than as a subject teacher. For Teacher 2, teaching experiences as a homeroom teacher differed from those as a subject teacher, while contextual factors as an English subject teacher and then an English center teacher enabled her to use English more. Teacher 2 stated that her identity as a homeroom teacher and as an English subject teacher were important determinants in how she used languages in the classroom. When she became an English subject teacher, she felt she started using more English. These identities were shaped by the context of the classroom, and more specifically the students’ perceptions of the participants as a teacher.

Most participant teachers believed that as a homeroom teacher, students wanted them to use Korean, while students were more comfortable with them using English as an English subject

teacher. For Teacher 5, being an English subject teacher who used a lot of English allowed her to distance herself from her students' day to day problems. Alternatively, Teacher 1 stated she felt her use of English made her students feel more comfortable. When teachers became English subject teachers they changed their attitudes towards the use of English, believing that there was a perception that they must speak more English as that was their assigned role in the school. This perception change led the participant teachers to believe they needed to increase their use of English, but how much they increased it varied. For teachers with assumptions that favored using Korean in class, assumptions changed in favor of using more English, whereas teachers who favored using English the change was more pronounced in favor of using English.

The identities experienced by the teachers at varying stages of their careers were influential organizing structures which gave the teachers both recognition and positive reinforcement of what they were doing (Farrell, 2011). The views students had of them were powerful influences that created very different reactions from the teachers, where students were less willing to accept an English-only approach by homeroom teachers compared to that of subject teachers.

This relates directly to the idea of how identity is involved in creating the uniqueness of a category of teaching. Uniqueness in a category is established in identity, in voice and in the rules or internal relations (Bernstein, 2000), and this uniqueness is preserved by power. Within the traditional classroom it is the teacher who has the power to control the strength of classification of a classroom or subject. Uniqueness in a category of teaching leads to strong classification, and classification relates to the power relationships within the classroom. By embracing this perceived role of the English subject teacher, the participant teachers in this study gave themselves greater access to power in the classroom by establishing a stronger classification than that which is established in homeroom teacher English classes. The degree to which they chose to, or were even allowed to, employ English as a subject teacher then allowed them to decide how well they would preserve this power. This role changed teachers' assumptions about English and Korean use in the classroom as they realized that by using more English, they can change the behavior of students in the classroom. This was achieved by creating a learning environment that built on students' initial acceptance of English as the norm, something which, apparently, did not happen when English was taught as a homeroom

teacher. Not all teachers chose to act upon this difference in role identity. Teachers 2 and 4 did not use English as much as the other teachers, and this was tied to their previous assumptions about using Korean in the class. Teachers 1, 3 and 5 did act upon this and used English to further establish their position of power in the classroom.

7.4.4 Students

All participants mentioned the need to use Korean as a direct result of their students' inability to successfully operate in an English-only learning environment, and given the attention paid to this in the literature this was not a surprise (Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Giannikas, 2011; Liu, Gil-Soon, Baek, & Han, 2004; Macaro, 1997; Mitchell, 1988). Teachers 3 and 5 first started teaching English with no Korean what so ever in their classes, and chose to ignore students that did not understand them, instead relying on ideas learned during training courses that suggested increased exposure would eventually allow students to comprehend what they were saying. This was also reported by Van der Meij & Zhao (2010) in their study of Chinese English teachers. These teachers stated that learner proficiencies should not be treated as source of justification for teachers using the L1.

Teachers 2 and 4 favored the use of Korean when teaching, and therefore the language competency of students was a source of justification for their Korean use. However, student ability was not as significant as other influences in determining how much English or Korean is to be used. Decisions to use more of one language had already been determined to a certain degree by their initial assumptions. For teachers such as 2 and 4, who had experiences which led them to believe that there is an important role for Korean in the classroom, Korean had a prominent place in class. For the other three teachers, who had experiences which led them to minimize the role of Korean in class, student level did not drastically alter ideas about English, although it prevented them from only using English in their classes to ensure that they maintained control over the learning environment. The teachers felt their own language ability was not a factor in determining how much English they used. They felt the curriculum was simple enough as to not prove to be too troubling to teach, and also did not fear not knowing something, freely admitting that they were not native speakers and did not know everything.

7.4.5 School Related Contextual Factors

In addition to the previously mentioned influences, within the school other physical, socio-economic, and political factors were evident via the teachers' comments. Teacher 2 worked where both physical and socio-economic factors affected her assumptions on English and Korean language use. She explained that the English center she worked at saw all students in the district only once, and that some areas within this district were more affluent than others, with more proficient English speakers coming from these wealthier areas. The socioeconomic status of students indirectly affected the language use in her classes, where she spoke more Korean to students from lower status socio-economic backgrounds. Another contextual factor was the center, which had themed rooms and an array of materials that made it easier for teachers to use English, especially compared to normal schools which lacked such rooms or materials. In addition to the physical facilities, the presence of native speaker teachers enabled her to use more English in the classroom. This contextual factor linked to her experiences of when she was a homeroom teacher or subject teacher in normal schools. As nobody spoke English outside of the class in regular elementary schools, transitioning to English for English class was burdensome. This burden influenced her to use less English compared to when she worked in the English center school. Contextual factors strengthened her assumption that it was more difficult to maintain higher amounts of English in class unless you had classrooms which were very conducive to using English. The average classroom was seldom endowed with the available facilities at the English center, and Teacher 2 was well aware of this. Just as the status of the teacher as a homeroom teacher or a subject teacher can weaken or strengthen the classification of a classroom, so too can the physical environment of the classroom itself strengthen or weaken the classification of a subject. It would appear that Teacher 2 believed that it was easier to use English with students from more affluent backgrounds as well as in specialized English subject classrooms.

Another area of influence was government policy. Teacher 4 stated that the new government had not officially stated a change in its stance on Korean use in the classroom, but she felt that it was less concerned with this issue, something she believed the majority of English teachers were aware of. Teacher 4's early assumptions about the need for Korean in the English classroom were strong enough to resist government attempts to create an English-only teaching environment, because as soon as a pilot program that implemented an English-

only approach with first and second graders was discontinued, she quickly reestablished the presence of Korean in her teaching again. This experience on the pilot program appeared to have hardened these assumptions into an attitude that Korean was very important for teaching English. She interpreted the new government's inaction over discussing the TETE policy as an opportunity to abandon the policy all together, further strengthening her attitude towards Korean in the classroom.

7.4.6 The Role of Secondary Influences

These secondary influences occurred while the participants were actively teaching English, which distinguished them from the primary influences. The secondary influences worked on existing assumptions by reinforcing them into attitudes. Any difference in practice was not always accompanied by a deeper attitude change to the use of L1 or TL. Teachers viewed the new influences through the lens of their assumptions, with different teachers experiencing similar influences in ways unique to them. The efficacy of these influences compared to that of the primary set of influences would appear to be less. However, on one occasion (Teacher 5) the efficacy was such that it saw the teacher make a substantial adjustment to her beliefs in terms of L1 or TL use in the classroom.

Teachers who started teaching English after already establishing themselves as teachers (3 and 5) used more English upon becoming an English teacher than those who started their teaching careers as English subject teachers (1 and 2). When teachers move from learning to teach to actual teaching, they undergo a socialization into the professional culture of a teacher, which requires the learning of 'certain goals, shared values and standards of conduct' (Calderhead, 1992, p. 6). Realities of the classroom tend to overwhelm new teachers so that any ideals that may have formed during teacher training are often replaced by 'the reality of school life' (Farrell, 2006, p. 212). It would appear that for the teachers in this study, becoming English teachers after they had already established themselves as teachers meant that they were able to maintain the assumptions about language teaching they had learned during the training programs more so than those teachers who had to cope with the challenges of being a new teacher as well as teaching in a foreign language. The exception to this was Teacher 4, who was involved in a government pilot program which used an English-only approach with first and second grade students. Because of the high stakes surrounding this

program, Teacher 4 had no choice but to follow the English-only approach when she first started teaching. Other teachers did not have this pressure, and so relied on their L1 in the first years of teaching English.

Changes from assumptions to attitudes happen over time, and teachers who started off with assumptions that favored the exclusive use of English saw those assumptions refined by a complexity of influences into attitudes that allowed for Korean at certain times. This is not new, and has been written about before (Atkinson, 1993; Auerbach, 1994; Burden, 2000; Mattioli, 2004). What was different in this study was how this trend could occur in reverse, by starting out with less TL and then moving to more TL as time progressed, as in the case of Teacher 1.

7.5 The Beliefs about English and Korean as Languages of Instruction in Korean Elementary School English classrooms

7.5.1 Firmer Beliefs

Firmer beliefs were differentiated from tentative attitudes about language use in that they were less likely to change. They found their origins in the initial assumptions about language use which formed when at school or prior to teaching English, as well as the tentative attitudes about language use. The secondary influences that refined tentative attitudes into firmer beliefs continued to be present in the daily lives of the participants, and served to maintain them. These firmer beliefs are unlikely to change. The following table summarizes the beliefs that each participant had about using the TL and the L1 in the classroom. It also includes the influences experienced by the teachers throughout the formation of the beliefs. As mentioned previously, Teacher 5 was still believed to be forming beliefs from her tentative attitudes due to her lack of experience at the time of the study.

T	Influences	Beliefs about English	Beliefs about Korean
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Alternative language learning experience ● Negative experiences with Korean teachers ● Assumptions reinforced by secondary influences ● English use associated with teacher identity ● Student level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● English exposure important ● Should use as much as possible, even 100% ● Distinguishes her classes from other subjects/teachers ● Makes class atmosphere better, lowers student affect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Allows control of lower level students ● Makes her like other (non-English subject) teachers in school/ more authoritative ● Used with boring activities/ in effective teaching methods
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Limited ALL experiences ● Negative experiences with Korean teachers ● Assumptions reinforced by secondary influences ● Positive teacher training experiences ● English use associated with teacher identity ● Student level ● Physical and socioeconomic factors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● English exposure important ● Do not need 100% though ● English can demotivate weaker students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Needed to ensure all participate ● Motivates weaker students ● Has important place in class as is L1
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Limited ALL experiences (Japanese) ● Negative experiences with Korean teachers ● Positive teacher training experiences ● Influential colleagues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● English exposure important ● Distinguishes her classes from other subjects/teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Allows better control of class ● Needed to ensure all participate ● Motivates weaker students ● Can express herself

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● English use associated with teacher identity ● Student level 		better in Korean
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● No ALL experiences ● Negative TL only teacher training experiences ● Student level ● Government policy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Difficult only using English ● Exposure is important for some students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Allows better control of class ● Needed to ensure all participate ● Motivates weaker students ● Can express herself better in Korean
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Alternative language learning (French) ● Positive teacher training experiences ● Influential colleagues ● English use associated with teacher identity ● Student level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● English exposure important ● Amount depends on level of students ● Distinguishes her classes from other subjects/teachers ● Good role model for students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A little is OK ● Allows better control of class ● Needed to ensure all participate

Table 13 The Influences and Beliefs about Using English and Korean in the English Language Classroom

7.5.2 Beliefs about Exposure to English

All teachers felt that English exposure was important. However, Teacher 4 felt that exposure to the TL was only beneficial to certain students, namely those with a high enough level to understand it. Only Teacher 1 felt that 100% was desirable, whereas the other teachers felt 100% to be unrealistic, or in Teacher 4's case, undesirable. Both Teachers 2 and 4 believed that English could prove to be a demotivating factor for some students. However, Teacher 1 believed that her students preferred her to use English rather than Korean, as she believed that students liked her better when she used English. Teachers 1, 3 and 5 all felt that English was important for creating a unique environment which distinguished themselves from other subjects in the school, with Teacher 5 believing that by using a lot of English in class she was acting as a good role model for her students.

7.5.3 Beliefs about the Role of Korean

All teachers believed that Korean allowed them to better control the class. They also believed that Korean allowed all students to participate fully in their respective classes, especially the weaker students. Teachers 2, 3 and 4 believed that Korean allowed them to better express themselves in certain situations, with Teacher 2 believing it had an important place in learning English. Teacher 1 on the other hand believed that using Korean made her classes too similar to regular classes, taking away from the uniqueness of her classes, and that Korean was usually only used with boring or ineffective teaching methods and activities.

7.6 How Beliefs about L1 or TL use Affect the Social Construction of the Classroom

This section discusses the relationship between the beliefs that teachers had about using L1 or TL in the class and their actions. Using the framework previously discussed, it describes the effects that teachers' beliefs about TL and L1 use had on the social construction of the classroom.

7.6.1 Factors Affecting Pedagogic Discourse

The key elements affecting the classification and framing at the phase level of the curriculum genres were as follows

- Prevalence of IRF sequences
- Grammatical mood choices within speech functions of system of negotiation
- Use of English
- Use of Korean

There was a high level of consistency amongst teachers in regards to how these four factors interacted in the pedagogic discourse of their classrooms. Figure 5 presents how these different factors influenced the pedagogic discourse of the classroom. On the left, the horizontal discourse, which represents discourses not traditionally associated within educational contexts, is shown. On the right, vertical discourse, which represents discourses traditionally associated within educational contexts, is shown. The lines joining these two discourses are labelled classification and framing, with movement to the left deemed to weaken classification and framing, and push the discourse more towards a less rigidly controlled horizontal discourse. A move to the right was deemed to strengthen classification and framing, and push discourse towards a more controlled vertical discourse. The elements influencing the strength of framing and classification were the four elements identified above, namely, IRF prevalence, grammatical mood choices, the use of English, and the use of Korean. IRF prevalence and grammatical mood choices are in the center as they were constant features of the curriculum genres observed. When there was an increase in the frequency of these elements, a shift to the right occurred, and there was a strengthening of both classification and framing. Likewise, a decrease in the frequency of these elements saw a shift to the left and a weakening of both classification and framing.

May 7.6.2 The Role of Korean and English in the Pedagogic Discourse: Classification

The effects of the English and Korean languages differed slightly, so they have been placed outside the lines of classification and framing. Firstly, an increase in the use of English saw a strengthening of the classification of the classes as seen in extracts 9, 10. An increase in the use of English was considered to strengthen classification because other subject classes did not use the English language, so any increase in the use of the English language in English classes served to strengthen the boundaries between English classes and other subjects. English was situated as not only the content and competence to be learned in class, but also as a mode of transmission in how the content and competence was transmitted. English was found in the regulative register and the instructional register of the pedagogic discourse of these classrooms: in the instructional register as it was the content and competence to be learnt, and within the regulative register as it was one of two languages that controlled how the knowledge was transmitted.

In contrast, an increase in the use of Korean in the English class weakened classification, as Korean was the language of the other subjects in school as well as everyday life in Korea, which is contrasted against English as the content to be learned. Examples of this are found in extracts 1 to 4, as well as extract 8. Korean spoken during an English lesson potentially resulted in a decrease in the amount of English content and competency that was worked on in the class, so Korean in an English class weakened the boundaries between English classes and other subjects. A strengthening of the classification resulted in a move towards the vertical discourse box, just as a weakening of classification resulted in a move towards the horizontal box, as witnessed in extract 8. Essentially, for English language classes, the more English spoken in the classroom, the stronger the classification. The teacher was the most prominent influence on the use of English in the classrooms. If a teacher chose to use a lot of English in the classroom, and chose to forbid or ignore students' L1 use, it meant that the teacher was socially constructing the boundaries of the classroom to exclude Korean from the classroom, effectively positioning the teacher in a position of power over the students as the teachers' English proficiency was generally accepted by all in the classroom as the strongest. On the other hand, if a teacher was open to the use of Korean in the classroom, as seen in extracts 3 and 4, then this decision weakened the boundaries of the classroom and allowed for

a more egalitarian setting, as students could express themselves in Korean more effectively than in English, and therefore could initiate exchanges. That being said, the use of Korean to provide access to the meanings of target expressions (i.e. competencies and content) via the way of translation, as seen in extract 5 and 6, did not weaken the classification of the phase as the use of translation is a common teaching strategy for language learning classrooms as opposed to non-language classrooms. The use of translation in the classroom was dependent upon the beliefs of the teachers. Teacher decisions, and consequently beliefs about the role of the L1 or TL, were decisive in establishing the boundaries of a classroom, as well as who retained power in the relationship between the teacher and the students.

7.6.3 The Role of Korean and English in the Pedagogic Discourse: Framing

The effects of the English language and the Korean language on the framing of a phase within a curriculum genre differed to those on classification. Increases in the use of English weakened framing of the phases and curriculum genres. Teachers perceived that the use of English in the regulative register, or when they were trying to control student behavior, led to many lower level students not being able to understand their attempts at controlling student behavior, which for the teachers was unacceptable, as seen in extracts 1 to 4. This saw most teachers admit that they used Korean when disciplining students to ensure that they were understood. Also, within the instructional register there was a perception that the use of English became a hindrance at times, because it meant that students were unable to follow instructions for activities or understand key lexical items which were necessary for completing the LLA phases. Therefore, the teachers made use of Korean to strengthen the framing, as the use of Korean made the rules of social order in the regulative register and the rules of the discursive order within the instructional register more overt for all levels of students. The use of Korean by the teachers consequently allowed them to maintain control over the classes as it strengthened the framing during the different phases. A good example of this is in extract 4. In contrast, when students were permitted to use Korean, it allowed them to add more voice to the construction of the learning environment within the classrooms, which in effect gave students a greater sense of control over the proceedings.

Due to the nature of the regulative register, shifts in tone were observed, as teachers sought to control the classroom and ensure that the students were paying attention. This was observed

in both the L1 (see extract 1 in particular) and in English (extract 9 provides a good example). These shifts in tone saw the teachers raise their voices in order to relay that they were unhappy with the current behavior of the students. In addition, teachers would position themselves at the front of the classrooms in order to ensure that they could see all students, and that all students could see them. This allowed teachers to also use posture in conjunction with tone and register to gain attention and control of the classrooms. Similar acts were observed within the instructional register as teachers used tone, position and posture to maintain control in conjunction within the fore fronted instructional register.

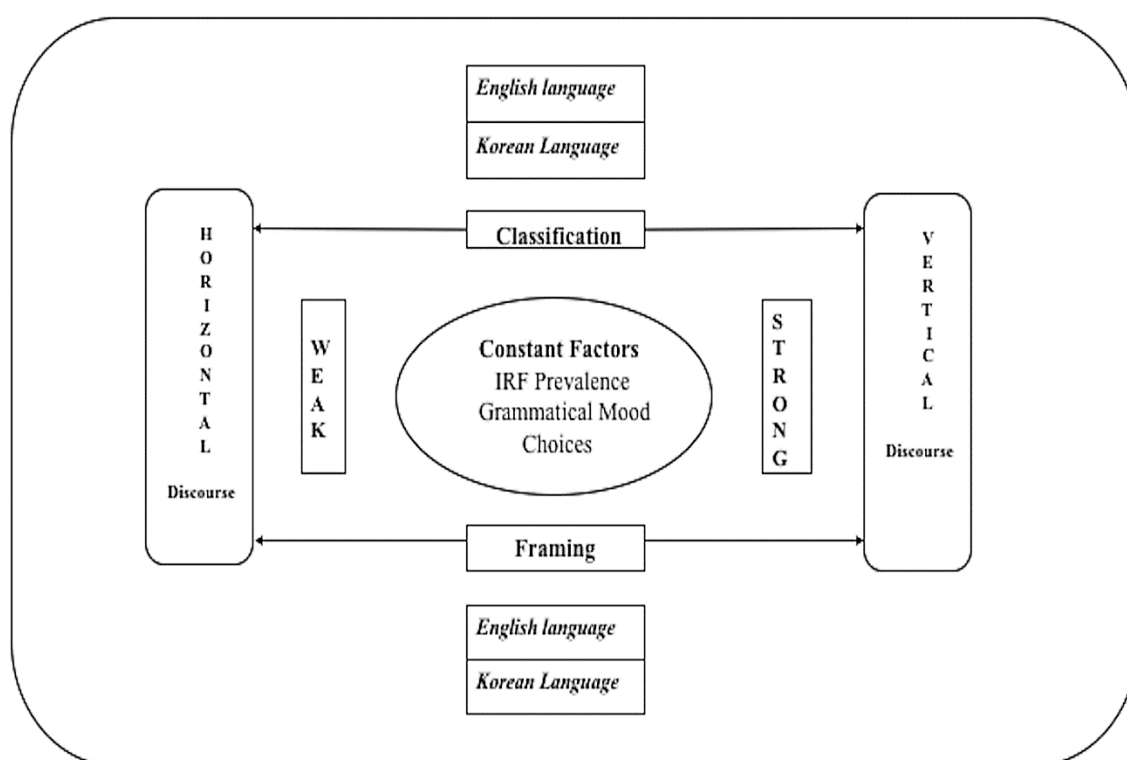


Figure 5. Elements acting in pedagogic discourse

7.7 Summary of the Effects of Different Languages in the Classroom

7.7.1 Recontextualization

The process of recontextualizing content into EFL classes granted teachers an opportunity to

impose their beliefs on the role of both the L1 and the TL. The recontextualization of content from outside the EFL classroom to activities within the class allowed for a change in the original social and power relations from the appropriated discourse, as they were replaced by new, virtual social and power relations of the classroom. It was the teachers who were in position to decide upon these new social and power relations, and the beliefs they had about the roles of the L1 or TL were important in influencing the strength of the classification, or power, and the framing, or control, of the lessons they were teaching.

7.7.2 The Effects of Maximizing English Exposure

Teachers realized their beliefs about maximizing English exposure in their classes by utilizing IRF sequences and mood choices within the instructional and regulative registers. This restricted student voice and input to topics predetermined by the teacher. Their use of English created a strong classification which ensured that students did not speak Korean unless given permission to, placing all the power in the teacher-student relationship with the teachers. Students were afforded little opportunity to question the teacher in their first language. Only students confident in speaking English had any voice in the classrooms. Korean as a cognitive tool was often denied to the students. Even when the teacher spoke Korean, it was often not intended as an invitation for the students to do likewise, but as a directive to listen to the teacher. The beliefs behind the use of English and Korean resulted in students being put in to teacher constructed ideal pedagogic subject positions, where the students' role was to listen attentively, speak in English when instructed by the teacher or an activity, and not use Korean unless explicitly directed to by the teacher. It was only when in the ideal pedagogic subject position that the teachers believed that the students could acquire the target knowledge. The nature of the target language being taught suggests that the original social and power relationships of discourse were evenly distributed amongst the participants within the appropriated discourses. Conversations about every day occurrences tend to be friendly and not about demanding an answer from each other. The recontextualization of these discourses into the Korean elementary school English language classes saw teachers, who wished to satisfy beliefs about English exposure, create a pedagogic discourse through the use of English which granted the teacher almost full autonomy over the power relationships between themselves and the students. The regulative register allowed the teachers complete control, which in turn allowed as much English believed necessary into the class. Students

were given no voice to question this belief due to the levels of control exerted by the teachers. Teachers' beliefs in the importance of English exposure restricted students' learner autonomy in these classes, as student voice was limited to what knowledge they had of English, which at this relatively young age, was little.

It was beyond the scope of this study to ratify if students felt powerless within this learning environment, and how motivated they felt when experiencing language learning classes like this. For the teachers who described their ALL experiences as fun and free compared to the TTL classes, their own classes, despite being almost exclusively in English, were rigidly controlled through IRF routines and mood choices of exclusion, and suggested a very different appearance to their own ALL experiences. These teachers have combined the tightly controlled nature of their TTL classes with the use of English. In an effort to give students the same pleasurable learning experiences that they associated with a target language only approach, the teachers inadvertently adopted the practices of their TTL classes, which involved high levels of control with the English-only approach. While this allowed the teachers to expose students to more English than if they were speaking more Korean, it may have removed the element of enjoyment that the teachers all discussed when referring to their own ALL experiences.

7.7.3 The Learned Need for Control

This highlights another belief that the teachers must all have about teaching (but seldom articulated); the need for control. The use of IRFs and restricting mood choices were in all likelihood linked to their experiences with both TLT experiences and ALL experiences. Teachers 1, 3 and 5 have taken these features and incorporated them into their classrooms via the use of English rather than Korean. They have, essentially become translated versions of their TLTs, where the need for control overrides other beliefs. The fact that they believed in conducting their classrooms in English as much as possible affected the social construction of the classroom in that by choosing to limit their own Korean, they were also limiting their students, which limited the potential voice of the students and stripped them of the cognitive tools provided by their L1. A comparison of the beliefs these teachers had with that of native English speaker teachers would provide useful insight into how teachers of different cultural and linguistic backgrounds strive to maintain control in their language classrooms.

7.7.4 The Effects of Valuing the L1

Teachers 2 and 4 had beliefs which valued the use of Korean more than the other participants in the study. Both stated and demonstrated that they believed Korean had an important role to play. Teacher 2 was teaching in an English center which was designed to give her students complete immersion in English. However, this did not stop her from using Korean when she felt it was appropriate. The use of Korean did not limit the strong IRF presence in these classes, and the same restrictive mood choice combinations were also present. This combination allowed the teachers to control the classroom and position the students into an ideal pedagogic subject position which differed to the other participant's classes; it allowed students to use Korean more often than in the other classes mentioned. It seemed that the teachers use of Korean meant less restriction on the students use of Korean, allowing the students in these classes more use of their L1 as a cognitive tool, as well as more voice in the social construction of their classrooms. Both teachers did not have any early ALL experiences as learners to contrast with their TLT experiences. Both mentioned, however, the need for enjoyment when teaching English. The allowance of Korean in their classes, and the use of this as a cognitive tool, was described by both teachers as a way for motivating their learners and ensuring all students could participate in the lessons. This contrasts with findings that an anti-apprenticeship happens (Moodie, 2016). For these teachers, the stated negativity around the use of their own English teachers L1 usage did not see them speak less of it in their own classes.

All classes were tightly framed due to the presence of IRF sequences and mood choices, no matter the language employed by the teachers. Classification, on the other hand, was stronger in classes where the teacher spoke more English and limited or banned the students' use of Korean. For these classes, the strength of the framing and classification combined to limit student voice and identity to that assigned by the teacher via their view of the ideal pedagogic subject position.

7.7.5 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position

The different beliefs that teachers had about the role of English and Korean in their classes led to different perceptions about the ideal pedagogic subject position that students needed to move in to. The following table lists the different roles the students were moved into by the

teacher during the classes observed.

Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position A	Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position B
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listen to and respond to the teacher in English • Listen to and respond to the teacher in Korean • Participate in /pair/ group activities • Focus on learning texts for listening, reading, speaking, writing • Do not interfere with other students • Have learning material ready • Sit in a position where you can see and hear the teacher clearly • Ask questions in Korean when unsure • Occasional comments in Korean accepted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listen to and respond to the teacher in English • Listen to the teacher in Korean • Do not speak Korean • Participate in /pair/ group activities • Focus on learning texts for listening, reading, speaking, writing • Do not interfere with other students • Have learning material ready • Sit in a position where you can see and hear the teacher clearly

Table 14. Ideal Pedagogic Subject Positions

Ideal pedagogic subject position A differs to B in that students in this subject position were permitted by the teachers to speak their L1 during the class. This allowed students to ask teachers about content or activities they were not sure about in the class, which in turn allowed them to participate more actively than if they were not permitted to speak their L1. The similarities of the two positions focus on expected behaviors in terms of focusing on the curriculum.

7.8 Punctuating Social Spaces

Teacher beliefs about language constructed the roles that students were expected to adhere to. These roles determined to what extent students were free to have their own, unique voice in the classroom. Traditionally, classification is determined by the cross over between content in classes. However, for a language class, the languages also affected the classification as they determined to what extent a student is able to influence the uniqueness of a class. In the

language class, the students are limited in their actions by the language they are permitted to use. If a student has a strong command of English, they have the ability to participate in the class more than if they have a poor command of the language. Students with a poor command of English tend to struggle to ask questions about content when they do not have access to their L1. The use of English increases the classification of the classrooms by creating boundaries between categories of discourses from outside the English classroom and inside the English classroom; it also produces boundaries between those who have a good command of English and those who do not, most noticeably the teachers and the students.

This creates power for the teacher by punctuating social spaces (Bernstein, 1996, as cited in Singh, 2002), and establishes 'legitimate relations of social order' (Singh, 2002, p. 578). The different pedagogic subject sets above were established by the modes of communication and social interaction between the teachers and students. Teacher monologues, triadic dialogues and seat work activities (Singh, 2010) facilitated regulative instructional registers which were not entirely utilitarian; containing ideological elements (Bernstein, 2000) which served to create and legitimize boundaries between teachers and students, and students themselves, based on the ability to function in a new language without the assistance of the common L1. If regulative registers do constitute moral orders of school, and therefore a larger social consensus, then an L1 exclusion policy might in fact be mirroring social stratification which divides citizens into groups of those who can afford to learn English and therefore do, from those who cannot, and therefore do not, based on already established socioeconomic factors, rather than providing all students, regardless of socioeconomic status, the opportunity to learn English.

7.8.1 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position A

Ideal pedagogic subject position A allowed students to use their first language. Sociolinguistically, this was significant for a number of reasons. Firstly, a student's first language is inextricably linked to its identity (Belz, 2003), and socioculturally the L1 is a psychological tool (Vygotsky, 1978) that allows the learner access to cognitive processes, which has been shown in a number of studies to assist in second language learning. The use of the L1 allows the students to create intersubjectivity with the learning task by allowing the participants to establish control of the discourse and the task they are doing (Brooks &

Donato, 1994). This provides more opportunity for students to co-construct the learning environment with the teacher. This control of the discourse and co-construction was more difficult to achieve when students were not allowed to use their L1, as in set B above.

7.8.2 Ideal Pedagogic Subject Position B

In this ideal pedagogic subject position, the students had little choice but to adhere to the teacher, as permission to utilize their L1, and inadvertently their psychological and cognitive processes, had not been given by the teacher. There was less co-construction of the learning environment when the students had limited voice. Both subject positions were realized in the ‘characteristic discourse patterns’ of the teachers (Christie, 2000b, p. 316) as outlined previously. As pedagogic subjects (Christie, 1995), students are expected to participate in the construction of the discourse so they can ‘enter into possession of the common knowledge of a culture’ (p. 221). The linguistic resources employed by the teachers’ in this study were the primary tool assisting students achieve the pedagogic subject positions. These linguistic resources within the pedagogic discourse of these classrooms, which were shaped by the beliefs of the teachers, inducted students into ways of working that were valued by society at large. The observed passiveness of the students when in these pedagogic subject positions may therefore be described as a desirable trait which had been internalized by the teachers over their own life of experiences with language learning, and which they were in turn passing on to their own students. Students who accepted the pedagogic subject position that the teachers strived for were more likely to do well than those who did not.

7.9 Patterns of Practice

Within the English classroom, different forms of classroom communication, or specialized patterns of practice, are instituted within the two principles of communication, the interactional and the locational, via classification (Bernstein, 1990b). Students who understand these principles are able to communicate appropriately in class. These recognition rules (Bernstein, 1990b) that students formulate may allow students to take on a resemblance of the pedagogic subject position. However, the possession of these recognition rules is not a guarantee that students can construct the pedagogic texts for themselves. Recognition rules are acquired by inferring the principles of selection, organization and evaluative criteria (all elements of framing) as enacted by the teachers. Therefore, the presence of recognition rules

are evidence of the internalization of the framing and classification rules used to create the ideal pedagogic subject position for the students to be in. Students being in the pedagogic position is not proof that they are learning the target language, but proof that they are learning how to behave as the teacher wants them to behave.

Both sets of subject positions above had recognition rules that the students must acquire. While the acquisition of these rules may tempt some observers to state that the students were learning the language, a more critical eye might discern that they had in fact only learned how to react to their teachers rather than learn the language. This is important for the Korean context because of the status of English within South Korean society. English is intricately linked with success on the peninsula; it is a major determinant in not only university attendance but equally in employment prospects. If students are required to acquire English for their own economic and social welfare, then the mere exposure of students to English may not be sufficient, especially when teachers employ teaching practices that incorporate such inflexible levels of control and power in the classroom so that students have little control over how they can express themselves in the target language.

7.9.1 Positions of Alienation, Detachment and Estrangement

Subject positions of alienation, detachment and estrangement are the result of disadvantaging educational policies which act through teachers via educational settings from the macro level of society. An ideal pedagogic subject position that values the voice of the students no matter the language they speak, as in set A, differs from one that does not, as in set B, in that it creates individuals who are not simply molded to be students, but individuals who can add voice to a society. Ultimately, the influences of society acting upon, and then through, the teachers create the type of individuals it desires. The fact that two sets of pedagogic subjects have been revealed in this study suggests that Korean society is still unsure of what individuals it wants to constitute its population. It also reveals how some teachers' resistance to government educational policies may represent certain opinions they have on the government or the society they live in.

7.9.2 Hidden Issues Revealed

Bernstein's theories of pedagogic discourse revealed issues that often remain hidden from research limited to superficial levels of investigation such as language function. This study

revealed areas of concern that are not always made explicit in studies on TL only approaches to language teaching in the South Korean context. By linking beliefs to how teachers recontextualized materials in their classrooms, it is apparent that the role that teachers play may not be what they expect in regards to classroom practices. While teaching a second language is a noble profession, it would appear that the mode of reaching the goal of being bilingual and having access to more of the world may in fact not align with the desires of those involved at the classroom level. Critical thought and challenging existing notions of what is beneficial is the first step to resolving this issue, unfortunately there may already exist systemic problems within existing educational policies that will make this a difficult first step to take. A need remains to critically reevaluate practices in regards to the production of disadvantaging educational effects that may harm student ability to learn a second language that has such prominent status within any given society.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

8.1 Overall implications

The implications of this study are various in nature, ranging from methodological issues to decisions at policy-making levels. Research into the language choices of teachers in EFL contexts is now well established. Numerous studies look at language choices by identifying the functions that different languages have in the classroom. A growing body of research indicates that there are a lot of similarities between teachers in different EFL contexts (Hall & Cook, 2012). However, for research into this area to remain relevant, there is a need to continue to push for more avenues of analysis in order to continue to learn. The framework constructed for this research project was an attempt to do that, and it is believed that there is a possibility for this framework to be adapted and used in greater scope in a variety of EFL as well as ESL contexts.

As implied in the introduction, there two significant implications of this project for research into teacher beliefs. However, there are a range of implications that need to be discussed in this final chapter. These include implications for teachers, teacher educators, and policy makers in South Korea and the world beyond. Additionally, there is a number of implications and reflections for myself as a researcher. This chapter will discuss these and more, finishing with a look at certain limitations of the project and how these could be overcome in the future.

8.2 Implications for Teacher Training

The knowledge that can come from research of this kind have a significant benefit for teacher training programs. The role of beliefs in language teacher actions has received a lot of attention in the last 30-40 years (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Ives, 2015). The exploration of language teachers' beliefs and their development from initial assumptions into tentative attitudes and then firmer beliefs about language use in class is beneficial to any teacher training program that encourages or prepares EFL teachers for a target language dominant approach. In order for teachers to be able to accept government initiated innovations in regards to language use in the classroom, they should better understand their own apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). A raising of consciousness

about how a teacher has come to make classroom decisions allows for a more critical interpretation of their own teaching practices. By articulating the primary and secondary influences that have shaped the assumptions, attitudes and beliefs of teachers, a more penetrating exploration can be undertaken as to why teachers use TL/L1 the ways they do. For teachers who may be resistant to TL only approaches, the process in this study can unearth reasons for this resistance and potentially assist both pre-service and in-service teacher trainers in developing strategies for encouraging teachers to embrace changes based on their previous experiences via the enactment of more collaborative teaching-learning relationships. For teachers who readily embrace L1 exclusion theories, understanding how their beliefs may be affecting the social construction of the classroom is vital to ensuring that they understand the potential consequences of such rigid theories of language learning.

However, the methods employed here are readily adaptable to focuses other than first language or target language beliefs. Beliefs of any kind have origins and influences. To better understand beliefs, then discovering their origins and influences that acted upon them throughout development is essential. This study has shown the need and value of interviewing a participant more than once. Two or even three part interviews allow for greater depth. I often think about what else may have been discovered if I had planned for a third round of interviews with the participants, especially a round of interviews about the interviews themselves, to see how we would have reflected upon the interview interactions and to see if this would have led to more insights or memories from the teachers involved, as well as myself.

If teaching is to be seen as more than just the application of knowledge and of learned skill, as the call from research on teacher cognitions implies (Borg, 2006; J. C. Richards, 2008), then interviews of the type and focus discussed could be utilized as they allow for a more in-depth exploration of personal experiences which shape the beliefs individuals have about a phenomenon. In addition to this, pre-service and in-service teacher training needs to be more than just the application of the accepted wisdom of language teaching methodology; it needs to build grounded alternatives that include the experiences of the teachers involved (Breen et al., 2001), so that teachers can better see the value in what they do as well as appreciate the value of attending training courses that seek to genuinely assist a teacher, rather than impose on them theories of teaching which contradict every experience they have had, especially in

the case of TL only approaches.

The use of interviews is revealing, but aligning beliefs to actual classroom actions is potentially of more interest to teachers who attend training programs. In my own personal experiences with teacher trainees, they often want more concrete answers about teaching methodology or skills development. While some teachers do value the opportunity to reflect upon their own work, more often than not they want advice on actions that can be taken in the classroom to further improve their teaching. The framework used here, although complex, has the ability to help teachers better understand how their prior experiences and beliefs about an issue affect their teaching actions. It allows them to understand whether the beliefs they think they have actually transpire in the classroom in a manner they would approve of, or reveals why they do not. It also has the ability for teachers to reflect further upon what they truly believe, and how sometimes contradictory sets of beliefs can work against each other when teaching. But more importantly, by aligning their language choices and actions with actual consequences in the classroom, teachers can be shown how they can make actual changes to their practice. Linking visible teaching characteristics to beliefs heightens the value of understanding the beliefs that the teachers have.

8.3 Implications for Administrators/ Policy Makers in Korea and Beyond

Governments that seek to implement language policies centered on second language acquisition theories that advise against the use of the L1 need to reevaluate their practices if empowering citizens is their goal. Criticism of the hegemonic ideologies about language teaching and language use are now well-established in linguistic circles (Block, 2003; Phillipson, 1992), and this needs to be recognized at the government level as well. Governments that follow ‘trends of global capitalization and commodification of language’ (Heller, 2014, as cited in Mahboob & Lin, 2016, p. 9), and impose on teachers theories of language learning that act to produce citizens who are actively discouraged to voice opinion or creative thought in the classroom run the risk of creating citizens that will not be able to actively participate as global citizens. Modern research and theories of language learning that recognize the importance of context (Mahboob & Lin, 2016) need to be accepted by governments in order to best serve citizens. Failure to do so can only lead to questions of intent or competence in regards to the development of appropriate policy.

8.4 Implications for Future Research on Teachers Beliefs

First, the framework developed within this project offers new and innovative insights into the role that an L1 or a TL has in the EFL classroom. By identifying the influences that act in the development of beliefs about TL or L1 use, and then aligning these beliefs with a theory of pedagogic discourse that accounts for how these beliefs can influence socialization processes in the classroom, a new line of enquiry has been developed into evaluating the role of these different languages in the classroom. This is the second significant aspect, because new lines of enquiry are essential in pushing the boundaries of understanding and challenging the status quo of any discipline. For any academic discipline to grow and stay relevant, it must embrace challenges that increase comprehension of the subject it is concerned with.

The use of Bernstein's theories of pedagogic discourse has allowed for an analysis of how the TL and L1 are involved in the process of the recontextualization of teaching materials in EFL classes. Its use in this study has presented findings which suggest that current ideas about the desirability of L1 exclusion policies may have greater impacts on societies that choose to employ them than previously believed. This highlights the value of incorporating new avenues of analysis, and utilizing concepts from other disciplines, in order to open up new dialogues on areas of research that impact different levels of society.

8.5 Limitations of Study

The findings of the study are tempered to some degree by certain limitations of its design. The low number of participants is one such restriction. Although the use of case study methodology allows for an in-depth discussion of the issues, it also means that it is more difficult to generalize the findings to the larger population of teachers in South Korea. Additionally, and as mentioned previously, my presence in the observations means that the lessons analyzed in the study were less authentic than they would be without my presence, and the language used, as well as the general interactions between the teachers and the students were most likely different to everyday lessons, especially the teachers' use of English. The historical accounts given by the teachers are also based on subjective interpretations, and there is no real way to ascertain if the accounts given are truly accurate.

This is also true of the stated beliefs to a certain degree, however these can be tested by comparing them against teaching practices, although it is also acknowledged that not all stated beliefs actually align with teaching practices for a variety of reasons.

8.6 Personal Implications as a Researcher

Finally, and personally, the greatest implication of this project has been its influence over my own understanding of not only the subject of the study, but on my own understanding of reality in general. Just as I have shaped this project, so too has this project shaped my own notions and general understandings. The readings I have done and the conferences I have attended due to this project have had profound effects on how I conceptualize teaching for myself. As stated at the beginning of this thesis, this process started about seven years ago. And, although at times it has been a struggle and there has been frustration and doubt, I understand that it is all part of the process. And even though this thesis may signal an end to my official studies, there is no doubt in my mind that it is really only signaling the start of a new time in my life which will lead to continued growth and development, not only as a teacher, but also as a person.

8.7 Conclusion

This project started off as an investigation into teacher beliefs about using the L1 or the TL in the English classroom. Its expansion to include an analysis of how these beliefs affected the social construction of South Korean English elementary school classrooms has revealed previously unexplored effects that these beliefs can have. The debate over the use of the L1 in the classroom has centered largely on its role in either impeding or promoting the acquisition of the TL. Little has been done to uncover the sociological impact of L1 exclusion in language learning, and less has been done on the influence of this sociological impact on students' desire to continue learning a language. This study revealed that beliefs about using the L1 impact upon the ability of students to bring their own voice to the class, and possibly to grow as independent and creative members of society. In the classes observed in this study, the beliefs behind L1 use influenced teachers to use various strategies to satisfy their beliefs about L1 use. This resulted in students being positioned into subject positions which limited their ability to help co-construct the learning environment, as they were denied access to their L1, and its associated cognitive functions, during these lessons.

The beliefs driving these actions are rooted firmly in the teachers own learning experiences with language learning. Teachers who had early experiences with TL only approaches valued the role of the TL, and limited the presence of the L1 in their classes. They believed this made their classes more enjoyable for the students. However, the classroom extract analyses show that these classes were very tightly controlled, and students were given little to no opportunity to add their voice to the co-construction of the lessons. Teachers who did not experience TL only approaches when learning a language as students embraced the L1. They believed that it allowed students to participate more and was a source of motivation for students with lower English language proficiency levels. The classroom extract analyses supported this belief by revealing the subject position that the students were positioned into allowed them more opportunity to bring their own voice into the lesson. This voice was seen in students being able to ask questions, clarify knowledge, as well as participate more in the co-construction of knowledge during the lessons. These findings add support to the growing body of knowledge that the L1 needs to be considered an integral element of the learning process, rather than an impediment, especially in light of the social turn that has taken place in linguistics which acknowledges the complexity, diversity, difference and uncertainty within language learning.

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Appendix

The following provides samples only of the transcripts from each teacher only

Appendix A: Teacher 1, Interview 1

R: When did you first start learning English?

T1: When I was ten years old yeah I was third grader of elementary school, but at that time there was no English subject in the school so it was a kind of private education.

R: And whose idea was it to get that? Your mother? Why did she want you to do that?

T1: My mother's friend worked in Yoon teachers English center and she just introduced to me about learning English

Appendix A.1: Teacher 1 Interview 2

R: How much English do you think you use in class as a percentage, can you guess?

T1: About 70 or 80%

R: 70 or 80%

T1: Yeah

R: Do you think you use more or less English in class now compared to when you started teaching English?

Appendix B: Teacher 2 Interview 1

R: When did you first start learning English

T2: When I was twelve, yeah at that time I was fifth grader, yeah

R: Is that a normal age for people to start learning English?

T2: Yeah I think so, and at that time at elementary school they didn't teach English so it was a kind of private education

Appendix B.1: Teacher 2 Interview 2

R: How much English do you think you use in class when your teaching English? As a percentage?

T2: 90%

R: 90% and that's for this school

T2: For English center classes, English experience classes

Appendix C: Teacher 3 Interview 1

R: When did you first start learning English?

T3: When I was a child there were no English classes in the elementary school so I started from middle school.

R: From middle school, what age was that?

T3: 14

Appendix C.1: Teacher 3 Interview 2

R: How much English do you think you use to teach English?

T3: It depends on the class and the situation

R: For example, the grade I watch you teach?

T3: 70% 65%

Appendix D: Teacher 4 Interview 1

R: When did you first start learning English?

T4: When I was thirteen in Korean age, a sixth grader at elementary school

R: Did you have any private tutoring or go to any English academies?

T4: A private tutor program so a teacher visited my home and taught,

Appendix D.1: Teacher 4 Interview 2

R: How much English do you think you use in class?

T4: Under 50%

R: Do you think you use more or less English now compared to when you first started teaching English?

T4: I think less English yes

Appendix E: Teacher 5 Interview 1

R: When did you first start learning English?

T5: I think in my generation Korean education system is for just learning or studying English from middle school even though I didn't know just alphabet school?

R: What grade?

T5: 1st year of middle school yes

Appendix E.1: Teacher 5 Interview 2

R: How much English do you think you use in class?

T5: I think it depends on the students but currently I think more than 80 -90%

R: What grade?

T5: 5th grade but not that ... a lot of under level students but I always try to give some English words and then just speaking in English is much better for students of course sometimes they really didn't understand anything and even some students are just even no alphabet but just say hello or something but these days when I say in English they sometimes get some information from their peers... friends so I try to use English as a much as I can

Appendix A.2: Teacher 1 Observation 1

Teacher stands quietly waiting for students to sit down and be quiet

Open class stage

Initiation T: Hello everyone

Response Ss: hello teacher

Initiation T: how are you feeling today?

Response Ss: I'm happy/ angry/ sleepy/ hungry (lots of responses at once)

Feedback T: happy, angry, sleepy, hungry

Initiation T: you had breakfast? OK, what day is it today?

Response Ss: It's Tuesday

Feedback T: Tuesday

Initiation T: and how's the weather outside?

Response Ss: it's sunny and cold

Feedback T: it's sunny

Initiation T: and..?

Response Ss: cold

Feedback T: cold

Initiation T: are you feeling cold?

Response Ss: no/ yes

Feedback T: OK

Initiation T: and what's the date today?

Response Ss: It's October

Initiation T: October..?

Response Ss: 28th

Initiation T: 28..?

Response Ss: T H 2014

Open class stage ends

Appendix A.3: Teacher 1 Observation 2

Teacher waits for students to sit down and open their books to the correct pag

Open class stage

Initiation T: Open your textbooks. Where is Jiyeon?

Response Ss: *speaking in Korean they say he is getting his book*

Response S: 괜찮아 (*It's OK*)

Feedback T: 뭐 괜찮아? (*What's OK?*)

Initiation T: are you on the right page? hello everyone

Response Ss: hello teacher

Initiation T: How are you today?

Response Ss: Fine, happy....

Feedback T: happy, tired, hot.

Initiation T: Did you have P.E class?

Response Ss: yes

Initiation T: so maybe you are happy?

Response Ss: no

Feedback T: no, you look so tired.

Initiation T: What day is it today?

Response Ss: today is Tuesday

Feedback T: Tuesday

Initiation T: and how's the weather outside

Response Ss: it's sunny

Feedback T: sunny

Initiation T: and what's the date today?

Response Ss: Today is October 28th

Feedback T: twenty...

Response Ss: eighth

Feedback T: eight..

Response Ss: th

Initiation T: and the year is?

Response S: 2014

Opening Class stage ends

Appendix B.2: Teacher 2 Observation 1

Opening class stage

Initiation T: Hello everyone

Response Ss: hello teacher

Opening class stage ends

Lesson objectives stage

Initiation T: Look at the board please, what letters do you see?

Response Ss: A ..n...i...s...m....a

Feedback T: you can make a word making these letters

Initiation T: what word can you make?

Response Ss: Nasa

Feedback T: You have to use ..you have to use every sound..Nasa?

Response Ss: nasa

Feedback T: But, that makes sense, but use everyone

Response Ss: *in Korean students clarifying what teacher has said*

Initiation T: Ok, I'll give you a hint, it starts with A

Response Ss: A?

Feedback T: And then N

Response Ss: *no answer, then one students says something inaudible*

Feedback T: One more one more..

Response Ss: Animals

Feedback T: Shhh *Indicating to raise their hands*

Students raise hands

Initiation T: Come here *to one student*

Response S: *Student comes to the front and spells out the word Animals*

Feedback T: I M A L S yes!

Initiation T: What's the letters, what's this?

Response S: Animals

Feedback T: Yes, everyone let's read together, animals

Response Ss: Animals

Feedback T: Animals

Response Ss: animals

Teacher gives a stamp as a reward to the student who spelled out the word on the board

T: so today we will talk about animals

Initiation T: do you like animals?

Response Ss: Yes

Initiation T: what kind of animals do you like?

Response Ss: dog, chick puppy

Feedback T: I have a puppy! You like chicks?

Response S: young chicken

Lesson Objective stage ends

Appendix B.3: Teacher 2 Observation 2

Opening class stage

Initiation T: OK students what classroom is here?

Response Ss: library

Initiation T: what classroom is here?

Response Ss: Library

Feedback T: Library

Initiation T: and we will learn about? *Pointing to the word animals*

Response Ss: animals

Feedback T: animals,

Initiation T: do you like animals?

Response Ss: yes

Feedback T: OK,

Initiation T: what animals do you like?

Response S: dogs

Feedback T: dog,

Response Ss: lions

Feedback T: lions,

Initiation T: what else?

Response Ss: elephant, parrot, puppy

Feedback T: puppy? I have a puppy, I love puppies,

Opening the class stage ends

Appendix C.2: Teacher 3 Observation 1

Vocabulary stage

T: OK good, let's start today's lesson, page 126, we will start lesson 9 today. And we will learn some new expressions today.

Initiation T: OK. Watch the screen please, watch the screen please, OK, what do you see, what do you see everyone? *Teacher says student's name to ask them to say something*

Response S: three children

Feedback T: three children *Teacher says student's name to ask them to say something*

Response S: 장난감

Feedback T: Toy? Toy car? Toy

Initiation T: *Teacher says student's name to ask them to say something*

Response S: Da-som

Feedback T: That's right, da-som

Initiation T: and who's that, this boy?

Response Ss: Ted, James

Feedback T: Ted...James,

Initiation T: Ok where are they? Where are they? *Teacher says student's name to ask them to say something*

Response S: in front of the subway station

Feedback T: Very good, in front of the subway station here, can you see? Can you see the sign here? Yes subway station. OK very good. I want you listen to story A first. Listen carefully please.

T and Ss watch video clip from the text

Initiation T: OK where did Ted and James go? Where where?

Response Ss: *different students answer*

Feedback T: Mu...

Response Ss: Museum

Feedback T: yes, yes. They went to a car museum.

Initiation T: Where's the car museum? Where?

Response S: next to ...

Feedback T: Next to..?

Response Ss : City hall

Initiation T: Do you know what city hall means? *Teacher says student's name to ask them to say something*

Response S: 시청

Feedback T: City means 도시 (*city*) hall means..?건물을 뜻하는거죠.(*The hall is the building*)

Initiation T: Ok did they go there by subway?

Response Ss: No

Feedback T: No

Initiation T: so how did they get there?

Response Ss: *various inaudible answers*

Initiation T: By..?

Response S: bus

Feedback T: Very good, they went there by bus.

Initiation T: And what did they do in the car museum? They did two things

Response S: Take a picture

Feedback T: Took pictures

Initiation T: and?

Response S: *no answer*

Initiation T: What did they see? 뭐 있지? 뭐 있어? (*What is there? What is there?*) There are, there are a lot of ...

Response Ss: Cars

Feedback T: Cars, right. They saw, they saw many cars and they took many pictures.

Initiation T: Ok, when will they go there again?

Response Ss: *answer with different days*

Initiation T: You didn't catch this? OK, let's check it one more time everyone.

Response S: No

Feedback T: No? Listen, listen one more time

Listen to the material one more time

Initiation T: So when will they go there again?

Response Ss: Friday

Feedback T: Friday. Good, OK, let's check new expressions. *Teacher uses screen to elicit students' answers about new vocabulary and phrases.* Very good. *Teacher shows word in English and students say the Korean equivalent.*

Initiation T: Museum, you learned this word last, last lesson. City hall

Response Ss: By...

Feedback T: By bus, by subway 이렇게 말하면 탈것으로 생각하면 좋을 것 같아

ㄹ.(*it's good if you talk about riding things like this*)

Response Ss: Subway *Now showing vocabulary in Korean first to elicit English response*

Feedback T: Subway

Initiation T:*Shows the Korean word for pictures*

Response Ss: Pictures

Feedback T: Pictures

Initiation T: *Shows the Korean word for went*

Response Ss: Go, went

Initiation T: Past tense of go?

Response Ss: went

Feedback T: went. Go, went

Initiation T: *Shows the Korean word for seesaw*

Response Ss: seesaw

Feedback T: Seesaw, excellent

Initiation T: *Shows the Korean word for take/took a picture*

Response Ss: Take a picture, Took a picture

Feedback T: take pictures, took pictures, Very good, let's read it one more time. Take pictures *eliciting repetition*

Response Ss: Take pictures

Initiation T: Took pictures

Response Ss: Took pictures

Feedback T: OK, very good everyone.

Vocabulary stage ends

Appendix C.3: Teacher 3 Observation 2

Previous lesson review stage

T: Ok very good, let's start today's lesson. Before listening to story B I want you to watch the screen and answer my question as a review I will show you some video clips and answer my questions. Please watch it carefully

Teacher shows a clip from Harry Potter which highlights different types of transportation, while students watch the teacher writes the learning aims on the board

Initiation T: Ok, how did Harry go to Hogwarts? He went there by blah blah blah, let's review *writing on board*

Response S: He went there by car

Feedback T: He went there by car

Initiation T: is it right?

Response Ss: yes

Feedback T: he went there by a flying car, right? Let's watch the second movie

Teacher plays the second clip

Initiation T: OK, how did Harry go to the leaky cauldron? How ..How..

Response S: he went there by bus

Feedback T: Bus good

Initiation T: everyone

Response Ss: He went there by bus

Feedback T: Ok, very good,

Lesson review stage ends

Appendix D.2: Teacher 4 Observation 1

Language learning activity stage

T: I will show some movie let's watch

Students watch a clip from the CD-ROM

Initiation T: 여러분 무엇을 들었나요? 한번 얘기해볼까요 (*what did you hear? Let's talk about it*)

Response S: I'm jumping and swimming 입니다

Feedback T: good

Response S: I'm swimming 입니다

Feedback T: OK

Response S: what is he doing?

Feedback T: 아주 잘했어요 (*very good job*)

Initiation T: 방금 뭐라고 했죠? (*what did you just say?*)

Response Ss: what is he doing?

Feedback T: what is he doing?

Language learning activity stage ends

Appendix D.3: Teacher 4 Observation 2

Opening the class stage

Initiation T: 성준이 책이 없네? (*You don't have your book?*) 영어 책 준비 하세요 (*get your book ready please*) OK, are you ready?

Response Ss: yes, I'm ready

Feedback T: OK, 성준이 됐어요 이제? (*Are you ready now?*)

Initiation T: let's start, hello everyone

Response Ss: hello teacher

Initiation T: how are you today?

Response Ss: I'm fine/ hungry

Feedback T: hungry? 선생님도 빼빼로 받았어요 (*I received a pepero gift*)

Students speaking in Korean about how today is a special day for giving chocolate to each other

T: 조금 있다가 빼빼로 얘기는 하구요 (*let's talk about pepero day a little later*)

Opening the class stage ends

Appendix E.2: Teacher 5 Observation 1

Previous lesson review stage

Initiation T: yes, yes. OK, anyway, anyway, let's review what we learned from last class, ten, OK everyone *showing a new screen with language for students to read* everyone

Response Ss: *Students read the language on the screen*

Students get confused about short curly hair

Feedback T: short hair, curly hair, both are fine

Response Ss: *Students continue reading*

Previous lesson review stage ends

Appendix E.3: Teacher 5 Observation 2

Language learning activity stage

T: OK so I will explain more about how to describe our looks and so he or she, and face OK, looks and things we have, so what's on your face? We have hair, eyes nose mouth ears and then we have two hands, two legs OK, and looks, short pretty handsome ugly fat ok this time is shirt hat glasses earrings OK is wearing, OK I'll explain in Korean for a short time, so 자, 우리 몸에 대해서 한번 말을 해볼게요 (*Let's talk about our body*) 이렇게 쉽게 생각을 할까요? (*Shall we simply think like this?*) 우리몸에 귀가있고 코가 있고 눈이 있어요 그래서 뭐라고 한다고? (*our body has ears, a nose, eyes so how do you say it?*) 가지고 있다 영어와 우리말은 다르지만 가지고 있다 have/has를 씁니다 (*English and Korean are different*) I have long hair, I have brown hair, I have eyes, two eyes, I have a nose, I have a mouth have를 씁니다 (*we say it like this*) have or has, he or she has, I or you have그러나 딱 봤을 때 그사람이 예뻐, 안예뻐,잘생겼어,키가작아,키가커 이렇게 할때는 어떻게 쓸까요? (*how do you say if somebody is pretty or not pretty or handsome, short, tall?*) 은,는,이,가가 들어가면 뭐라고 했죠? (*What did I tell you about these markers?*) 형용사라고 했죠? (*they are adjectives*) 형용사 혼자서 동사의 역할을 할 수가 없으니 be동사가 필요하죠 (*we need the be verb because the adjective itself cannot function as a verb*) she is pretty, she is short, he is handsome이렇게 합니다 (*Like this*) she is tall, she is pretty be+형용사 그래서 예뻐요 안 예뻐요 못생겼어요 잘생겼어요 만들 때 이렇게 씁니다 그리고 이번에는 오늘 처음으로 들어가는 거 (*be plus the adjective so is pretty or is not pretty, she is tall, she is ugly, when you want to say it like this you make it like this, this is something we learned for the first time*) 선생님에 대해서 해볼게요 지금 가지고 있는 것,입고 있는 것 (*let's talk about the teacher,*

things I have and am wearing now) I am wearing what? Hair band, wear가 뭐죠? 입다 be+~ing 현재 하고있것을 나타낼 때 씁니다 (*what is wear? Wear plus be plus ing, when you talk about things you are wearing you now you say it like this*) I am wearing hair band,

Initiation T: I am wearing what?

Response Ss: earring

Feedback T: Ok, two so earrings, OK, I am wearing jacket,

Initiation T: I am wearing..

Response Ss: pants

Feedback T: OK, blue jeans, I am wearing shirt이렇게 합니다 (*Like this*)

Initiation T: I am wearing what?

Response Ss: glasses

Feedback T: I am wearing glasses OK, I am wearing some watch I am wearing some shirt

Response S: earrings

Feedback T: earrings,

Initiation T: so this time I am describing one person, one person, just listen carefully and find who she is or who he is ok ok she or he she or he has has brown or black hair and brown eyes, he or she has brown eyes, brown eyes, he or she is so cute, so cute and he or she has long hair, long hair, he or she has long long curly hair, curly hair, and he or she is pretty, he or she is pretty and he or she is wearing blue jeans blue jeans and last clue she is wearing pink sweater, pink sweater, OK please point at one person ready go, yes she is OK, please stand up. OK, let's talk about her. What..?

Response Ss: does she look like?

Feedback T: just good things

Response S: she is curly hair

Feedback T: she has not is she

Response S: has

Initiation T: OK she everyone

Response Ss: she has curly hair

Initiation T: OK

Response S: she is wearing glasses

Initiation T: everyone

Response Ss: she is wearing glasses

Feedback T: She is wearing glasses too right,

Initiation T: OK, everyone one more time

Response Ss: she is wearing glasses

Initiation T: what else? What else?

Response S: she wears a pink jacket

Feedback T: she wears a but she is wearing is better

Initiation T: so she is wearing pink jacket

Response Ss: she is wearing pink jacket

Feedback T: OK, and what else?

Response S: she is wearing pink socks

Feedback T: pink socks, wow look at that, cute

Initiation T: everyone

Response Ss: she is wearing pink socks

Initiation T: OK, what about pretty or cute or handsome 형용사(*Adjectives*) yes yes yes I can

do it

Response S: she is pretty

Initiation T: everyone

Response Ss: she is pretty/handsome

Feedback T: handsome? OK good job,

Language learning activity stage ends

Appendix F: Consent forms



Department of Linguistics
Faculty of Human Sciences
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY NSW 2109

Phone: +61 2 9850 9603

Fax: +61 2 9850 9199

Email: philip.chappel@mq.edu.au

Dr. Philip Chappell Chief Investigator/Supervisor

Information and Consent Form

Name of Project: The Beliefs, Knowledge, Attitudes and Assumptions about English and Korean as Languages of Instruction in Korean Elementary School English Classrooms

You are invited to participate in a study of teacher language choices in the Korean elementary school English classroom. The purpose of the study is to discover why Korean elementary school teachers use English selectively in the class despite the national policy demanding full use of English. The study will focus on when both English and Korean are used in the classroom, what prevents Korean teachers from using English all the time, and the beliefs that underlie these perceptions of necessary language for the classroom.

The study is being conducted by Michael Rabbidge, from the Linguistics department of Macquarie University, NSW, Australia, cell phone number 01026310029, mikemind@hotmail.com. The research is being conducted to meet the requirements of a **PhD** under the supervision of Dr Phillip Chappell, phone number Phone: +61 2 9850 9603, philip.chappell@mq.edu.au of the Department of Linguistics at Macquarie University.

If you decide to participate, you will be observed teaching your regular English class, 2 times, with each lesson either being video recorded or audio recorded, in order to observe the language used while teaching English as well as discussing the reasons for what happens in each of the lessons. Three interviews, each 1hr long will also be conducted, after the observations have been completed in order to learn about your pedagogical beliefs and attitudes towards TETE (Teaching English Through English) as well as to discover your personal learning and teaching history.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. By signing this consent form you agree to the use of quotes, transcriptions, videos, images and audio recordings obtained during the project for future publications. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. Access to any data will be limited to the researcher and his supervisor and access will be strictly monitored by the original researcher, and no information identifying participants will be released without the explicit consent of the participants concerned. A summary of the results of the data can be made available to you on request via email or in person.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, *(participant's name)* have read *(or, where appropriate, have had read to me)* and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: _____

(Block letters)

Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Investigator's Name: Michael Rabbidge _____

(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: _____ Date: _____

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone 61 02 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

(INVESTIGATOR'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)

MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY

Department of Linguistics

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연구 내용 및 동의서

프로젝트명: 한국 초등교사(비모국어 화자)의 영어 수업 시 교실영어 사용과 신념에 대한 연구

한국 초등교사의 영어 수업 시 교실영어 사용에 대한 연구 참여에 귀하를 초대하고자 합니다. 이 연구의 목적은 영어로만 수업을 진행하도록 권장하는 국가 정책에도 불구하고 교사들이 선택적으로 영어를 사용하는 원인을 분석하는데 있습니다. 이 연구는 교사들이 언제 한국어와 영어를 모두 사용하는지, 교사들이 영어만 수업에 사용할 수 없는 원인은 무엇인지, 그리고 수업 운영을 위해 필수적으로 사용되는 언어(영어)의 대하여 그 기저에 깔려있는 교사의 인식에 중점을 두고자 합니다.

이 연구는 호주 NSW 소재 Macquarie 대학의 언어학과 Michael Rabbidge가 주관하며, Philip Chappell 교수님의 지도하에 진행되는 대학원 연구 자료로 사용됩니다.

연락처:

- Michael Rabbidge: 010-2631-0029, mikemind@hotmail.com

- Philip Chappell: +61-2-9850-9603, Philip.chappell@mq.edu.au, Macquarie 대학 언어학과

귀하께서 연구 참여에 동의하실 경우, 총 2회에 걸쳐 귀하의 영어 수업에 참관하게 되며, 영어 수업 중 사용하는 언어를 관찰하고 이러한 언어 선택에 대해 논의하기 위해 비디오 촬영 또는 녹음이 진행됩니다. 또한 영어로 하는 영어수업

(Teaching English Through English)에 대한 귀하의 교육학적 신념과 생각을 참고하고자 총 3회에 걸쳐 인터뷰를 진행할 예정이며, 모든인터뷰는 두번의 참관수업후에 이루어집니다.

귀하의 동의로 연구기간동안 수합된 비디오,오디오녹음,인용구,이미지등은 연구자의 발행문에 게재될수 있습니다. 연구 진행 과정에서 수합된 개인적인 정보는 철저히 보완되며, 본 연구 결과를 바탕으로 한 어떠한 발행물에도 실명이 노출되지 않을 것을 약속 드립니다. 연구에 사용된 자료는 연구자와 지도 교수님에게만 제한적으로 열람이 가능하며, 그 외에는 철저히 열람이 금지됩니다. 또한 연구 참여자를 확인할 수 있는 어떠한 정보도 참여자의 동의 없이 유출되지 않을 것입니다. 연구 결과에 대한 자료는 참여자가 요청할 경우, 이메일을 통해서 또는 직접 받으실 수 있습니다.

연구에 대한 참여는 자발적으로 이루어질 것이며, 본 연구 참여자들은 강요에 의해 참여하지 않았습니다. 참여에 동의하실 경우, 정당한 이유를 제공하지 않고도 연구 진행 도중에 중단하실 수 있으며 어떠한 사후 불이익도 없을 것입니다.

(참여자 성명:)은 위 내용을 모두 확인하고 이해하였으며, 모든 의문 사항에 대해 충분한 답변을 제공 받았습니다. 본인은 본 연구 참여에 동의하며, 어떠한 사후 불이익 없이 연구 진행 도중에 중단할 수 있음을 확인하였습니다.

참여자 성명: _____

참여자 서명: _____ 날짜: _____

연구자 성명: Michael Rabbidge

연구자 서명: _____ 날짜: _____

본 연구는 Macquarie 대학 Human Research Ethics Committee(연구 윤리 위원회)에 의해 윤리적인 측면에 문제가 없음을 승인 받았습니다. 연구진행 중 윤리적인 부분에 문제가 있거나 의심스럽다고 판단될 경우, 위원장에게 연락 주시기 바랍니다(전화 02-9850-7854/이메일 ethics@mq.edu.au). 보고해 주신 어떤 문제도 기밀이 유지되며, 철저히 조사하여 그 결과를 알려드리도록 하겠습니다.

(연구자 또는 참여자 보관용)

Appendix G: Ethics Approval

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-
CHANCELLOR (RESEARCH)
Research Office

cscEast Research HUB, Level 3

MACQUARIE

University
SYDNEY.
AUSTRALIA

24 May 2017

Dr Philip Chappell
Department of Linguistics
Faculty of Human Sciences
Macquarie University NSW 2109
Reference: 5201400803

Dear Dr Chappell,

FINAL APPROVAL

Title of project: "The beliefs, knowledge, attitudes and assumptions about English and Korean as languages of instruction in Korean Elementary School English classrooms"

Thank you very much for your response. Your response has addressed the issues raised by the Faculty of Human Sciences Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee and approval has been granted, effective 2nd September 2014. This email constitutes ethical approval only.

This research meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). The National Statement is available at the following web site:

<https://www.nhmrc.gov.au/book/national-statement-ethical-conduct-human-research>

The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Dr Philip Chappell

Mr Michael Lance Rabbidge

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

- 1 . The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
2. Approval will be for a period of five (5) years subject to the provision of annual reports.

Progress Report 1 Due: 2nd September 2015

Progress Report 2 Due: 2nd September 2016

Progress Report 3 Due: 2nd September 2017

Progress Report 4 Due: 2nd September 2018

Final Report Due: 2nd September 2019

NB. If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report for the project.

Progress reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/current_research_staff/human_research_ethics/application_resources

Macquarie University T: +61 2 9850 7987
NSW 2109 Australia www.research.mq.edu.au
ABN 90 801 237 1 CRICOS Provider 00002-1

SYDNEY. AUSTRALIA

CSC East Research HUB, Level 3

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

4. All amendments to the project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee before implementation. Please complete and submit a Request for Amendment Form available at the following website:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/current_research_staff/human_research_ethics/managing_approved_research_projects

5. Please notify the Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.

6. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University. This information is available at the following websites:

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-
CHANCELLOR (RESEARCH)

Research Office

<http://www.mq.edu.au/policy>

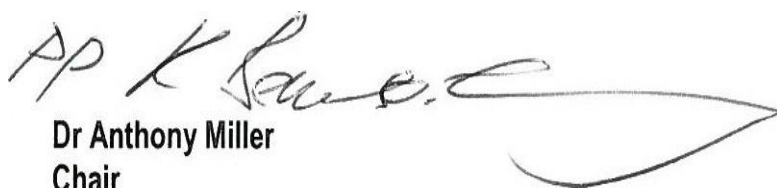
http://www.research.mq.edu.au/current_research_staff/human_research_ethics/manaqing_approved_research_projects

MACQUARIE

University

If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is your responsibility to provide Macquarie University's Research Grants Officer with a copy of this letter as soon as possible. The Research Grants Officer will not inform external funding agencies that you have final approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Research Grants Officer has received a copy of this final approval letter.

Yours sincerely,


Dr Anthony Miller
Chair

Faculty of Human Sciences Ethics Review Sub-Committee
Human Research Ethics Committee

Macquarie University

T: +61 2 9850 7987

NSW 2109 Australia

www.research.mq.edu.au

ABN 90 952 801 237 1 CRICOS Provider 00002-1

Amendment

Dear Dr Chappell,

RE: 'The Role Beliefs about language use Play in the social construction of the EFL classroom ' (Ref: 5201400803)

Thank you for your recent correspondence regarding the amendment request.

The request has been reviewed and the amendment has been approved.

Please accept this email as formal notification of approval and find the attached for your records. Please do not hesitate to contact us in case of any further queries.

All the best with your research.

Kind regards,

FHS Ethics

Faculty of Human Sciences - Ethics

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NSW 2109

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