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INVESTIGATING TEACHERS' AND LANGUAGE LEARNERS' USE OF LANGUAGE IN PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS

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Dedication

To my parents and my sister Xenia, who offered me the opportunity to discover myself. Any success I have is a direct result of your love.

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I would like to mention a number of people and institutions that have helped me in the completion of this thesis.

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Abstract

The current research investigated the ways language was used by mainstream primary school teachers and language learners whose native language was other than the official language of instruction. The setting of the study was the island of Cyprus, where the mainstream population's language, Standard Modern Greek, is taught as the educational first language to native speakers of the Greek Cypriot dialect. At the same time, Standard Modern Greek is taught as an additional language to non-native Greek speakers. The main aim of the study was the investigation of the teachers' and language learners' use of language in the multilingual schools, to provide information regarding the way participants managed to 'get along' socially and academically. Upon examination of this use, the existence of the sociolinguistic phenomenon of bidialectism (the coexistence of two varieties), presented a further complication. The investigation was set within a sociocultural framework, following a neo-Vygotskyan perspective. The investigation was approached through a multiple case study conducted in three first grade primary school classrooms in Cyprus, in which ten language learners and three mainstream teachers were observed for more than 1500 minutes in the classroom and in the playground area. The study was also supported by interviews with the teachers and the GAL learners. In addition, interviews using the young learners' drawings and persona dolls were conducted to investigate the perspectives of the children. The originality of the study was reflected in the variety of the research methods used, the inclusion of young children in the research, the consideration of bidialectism, the reflection upon both socialising and educational purposes through the use of language and, finally, the different settings where the participants were observed. The results of the study revealed that the instructors used the various linguistic varieties to achieve educational goals through the communication process, in that way prioritising communication over a preferred language. It also became clear that the teachers' use of language was shown to prioritise communication rather than language learners' socialisation in a preferred language culture. Moreover, teachers seemed to use the unofficial variety more often than any other linguistic variety as one of the most powerful means of communication they had with the language learners. Similarly, language learners were observed

using the unofficial variety almost exclusively while the official variety use was observed only inside the classroom and only in activities that were related to written texts. Also, the playground area was observed to allow young learners to use language more freely, without worrying about mistakes and thus a much more extensive use of verbal speech was noticed. Finally, language learners seemed to use the language first and foremost to become equal members of their school and their class, while their use of language for educational purposes through communication was not a priority as it was for the teachers. None of the previous studies reviewed in the field managed to apply such a rich methodological design, include young students' voices and examine the language use taking into account the bidialectal phenomenon.

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List of Abbreviations

GAL	Greek as an Additional Language
EAL	English as an Additional Language
ELL	English Language Learners
GCD	Greek Cypriot Dialect
SMG	Standard Modern Greek
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
TL	Target Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MT	Mother Tongue
IRF	Instruction-Response-Feedback
SLL	Second Language Learning
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TC	Turkish Cypriot
GC	Greek Cypriot
ZEP	Zone of Educational Priority
UG	Universal Grammar

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Rationale of the study

My very first experience in a classroom as a teacher was frightening despite the numerous hours I had spent in preparation. This was due to an engaging girl called Aysegul, who seemed to understand nothing of what I was saying since she was not aware of the language I used for instruction. By the end of that lesson my self-confidence as a young teacher was considerably undermined. As a new teacher this was a salutary reminder of the prime importance of the needs of the child and that there is a constant need for training and pursuing knowledge in order to address similar challenges and opportunities alike.

My experience as a young teacher was a direct consequence of a changing social context in my native country of Cyprus, where this study was conducted. Here, there was until very recently a homogenous student population. The majority of the mainstream teachers in Cypriot primary public schools were trained for this homogenous student population. Nevertheless, due to the numerous sociopolitical changes that have taken place over the last decade, the diversity of the student population has increased dramatically. One of the main reasons for this change was the abandonment of the restrictive immigration policy in 1991 (Trimikliniotis, 2006). This policy was lifted in order to address the need for low-skilled labour, which was generated by the economic development model of the era of mass tourism and services (Trimikliniotis, 2006). In addition, the partial removal of the restrictive measures along the borders in 2003, which had prevented Turkish Cypriots (TCs) from visiting the south (Papamichael, 2009), also affected the heterogeneity of the country since many TCs started to work in the south. Eventually, the membership of Cyprus within the European Union in 2004 (Papamichael, 2009) allowed many people from other countries to move to the island in search of better employment and higher living standards.

Currently, Cyprus has an estimated population of 952,100, consisting of Greek Cypriots (GCs) (71.8%), Turkish Cypriots (TCs) (9.5%) and other foreign residents

(18.7%) (Statistical Service Republic of Cyprus, 2012). Moreover, according to the 2012-2013 statistical data on the student population from the Ministry of Education and Culture in Cyprus (MOEC, 2013), there were 6672 foreign language learners in Cypriot primary schools. This represents 13.09% of the total student population (MOEC, 2013). MOEC has implemented some measures to try to provide equal educational opportunities for these students.

However, due to insufficient research, most of these measures are inappropriate for teachers of young language learners and the learners themselves, since they respond to the needs of schools in Greece or Cypriot secondary schools (MOEC, 2010; Pedagogical Institute, 2011). The inappropriateness of these measures is based on the fact that they do not take into consideration the bidialectism of the Cypriot setting (Skourtou, 1995). Bidialectism in the Cypriot context refers to the concurrent use of the official language variety, which is Standard Modern Greek (SMG), and the unofficial one, which is the Greek Cypriot Dialect (GCD). The educational measures are also unsuitable because they do not address the needs of very young language learners in primary schools (Skourtou, 1995). The complexity of the present project's setting lies in these two basic elements. Initially, SMG is taught as the educational first language to native speakers of the GCD. At the same time, the same variety, SMG, is taught as an additional language to non-native Greek-speaking students. In addition, the simultaneous use of SMG and GCD by the target community further complicates the language learning procedure for learners who have Greek as an Additional Language (GAL learners).

Current theories of the Second Language Learning (SLL) field argue that multilingualism is without doubt an advantage for any student (Conteh, 2012; García & Sylvan, 2011; Yiakoumetti, 2006). Nonetheless, there are findings that demonstrate that a complex sociolinguistic setting, such as the one in Cyprus, may cause some delays in the rhythm in which the two varieties are learned by foreign language learners (Pavlou & Christodoulou, 2001). There is a clear need for bilingual programmes to be implemented in Cypriot schools as well as a move away from an ethnocentric to a more pluralistic approach (Angelides, Stylianou, & Leigh, 2004). These bilingual programmes will be able to address the relatively

new multilingual and multicultural student population in Cyprus, which is poorly educated in a bidialectal setting, where the unofficial variety is constantly sidelined.

1.2 Research aims and significance of the study

In this era of transition in Cyprus and as a Cypriot primary school teacher myself, I am extremely interested in exploring how to address better the educational needs of my student population, regardless of its ethnic and cultural background. This situation triggered my research interest, and was my main motivation throughout the process of conducting this project. The main purpose of this study was to gain a deeper insight into the way language was used by the teachers and the GAL learners in the multilingual mainstream classrooms and in the playground area, to provide information regarding the way participants managed to ‘get along’ socially and academically.

At this point, it should be mentioned that the phrasing of this experience as ‘getting along’ has caused extensive discussion and revisiting in my meetings with my supervisors. This was due to the fact that any word or phrase needed to find a way of accounting for the role of languages in the lives of these very young learners in a way that was assumption-free. One of the words that was excluded because it carried assumptions was ‘thriving’. Thriving often implies that the participants are managing to progress in the situation found. On the other hand, the use of the words ‘coping’ or ‘managing’ also signals that the participants are less successful in any situation given. In addition to these suggestions, there were words that were linguistically implying particular behaviours, due to their close connection with SLL theories. These included words such as ‘negotiate’, which is often linked with the investigation of the communication process. Communication competence is only one of the many approaches to language use investigation. A second example was the word ‘participating’, which is often linked with another approach to language use investigation: language socialisation. Active or non-active participation in various activities is often linked with the language socialisation process. Last but certainly not least, words such as ‘accommodation’ or ‘assimilation’ were very quickly rejected due to their link with political assumptions in multicultural settings.

Simple as it may be, the phrase ‘get along’, managed to avoid all these theoretically loaded links. It should be mentioned that apart from being assumption-free, the term ‘get along’ has also been used in research to emphasise the simultaneous processes of constructing a system of communication, cultural understanding, acquiring social language proficiency, acquiring a new language and literacy development (Long, 1998; Wong-Fillmore, 1986). All of these processes are considered crucial in order to provide the full picture of the situation under investigation.

From the outset it was clear that a study of this nature would be both complex and problematic, requiring as it did the need to explore the way the participants managed to participate in various learning or social activities, communicate with each other and the way the target linguistic varieties are learned and taught. The participants of the study were not observed to evaluate whether they managed to say something correctly in the target language (as is usually the case in SLL studies) but how they managed to get along in the setting in which they found themselves. The specific focus of the study was to explore the language use of these very young learners in the Cypriot context where, as in many other countries around the world, the main aims of the teaching practice are curriculum goals and not the teaching of the language of instruction as an additional language.

Sociocultural theory, which was the theoretical baseline of this study, perceives language as a social and cultural phenomenon (Firth & Wagner, 1997). From this perspective language learning is believed to be constructed through interactions in which the learners are engaged, in specific settings (Eisenchlas, 2009). In this study, those interactions were approached from a socialisation language perspective, where participants were investigated regarding the way they socialised through the use of language, and the way their socialisation influenced that use of language (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995). The aim of these interactions is that participants become competent members of the target community (Duff, 2003). In addition to the socialisation language perspective, the interactions were also investigated through the communicative competence approach. Applying this approach, participants were researched on the way they were using any means

they had at their disposal (various linguistic varieties and non-verbal cues) to accomplish meaningful communication conjointly (Firth & Wagner, 1997). These interactions were mainly aimed at educational purposes (Eisenchlas, 2009).

Finally, in this context the definition of language learning was quite a complex process itself. I used the term ‘additional’ (Block, 2003) since Standard Modern Greek could be the second, third or fourth language for the GAL learners, who are the participants of the study. The GAL learners had as their native language any language other than Standard Modern Greek or the Greek Cypriot Dialect. At the same time, language was viewed and investigated in a way that included not only language socialisation and communication competence approaches, but also the consideration of social problems and social functions. Language use was investigated for the way it was affected by those issues, and how it was modified to serve those functions (Block, 2003).

Due to the sociocultural theoretical baseline adopted, language learning was not considered to be found only in instructional settings (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Therefore, not only the mainstream classrooms of primary Cypriot schools, but also playground areas were considered as appropriate and contrasting settings for investigating language use.

The originality of this study is based on a number of considerations. Initially, the combination of two approaches (the language socialisation and the communication competence approach) to language use investigation is relatively rare. In addition, the study investigated whether that language use was conscious or unconscious since interviews and discussions with the participants allowed for the investigation of their awareness of their personal language use. Moreover, language was investigated in terms of whether it was verbal or not, and whether it was employed by mainstream teachers, GAL learners or native-speaking students in the mainstream classroom or in the playground setting. Not only that, but the official variety was also investigated through its relation and coexistence with an unofficial variety. In addition, it included the under-researched group of young learners. It should be mentioned that perhaps this complexity of the problem as well as the

various methodological challenges might be two of the main reasons why there are so few examples of studies of this kind with very young learners. This mixture provided a unique framework for exploration, where the various inferential social, cultural and historical factors were taken into consideration through the adoption of the sociocultural framework. During my own literature research, I found that there has not been a study such as the one under investigation to combine all these dimensions to address similar problems.

1.3 Overview of the thesis

The outline of this thesis presents the seven main chapters that constitute this project. The present introductory chapter presents the contextualisation of my personal motivation and interest to investigate the problem in focus.

In the second chapter, I provide contextual background information about Cyprus, the history of the country and how that historical journey affected the language policies and eventually the language use on the island. I also provide information about the people of particular interest to this thesis (student population and teachers in Cyprus). Finally, I discuss the current policies applied and the measures implemented to address multilingualism in public primary schools.

In Chapter 3, in the review of the literature, I present the theoretical framework that I used to understand language learning and language use. Then, I explain the current theoretical knowledge in the SLL field, related to the processes of socialising through a language, as well as communicating and learning a target language. I also discuss various issues related to multilingualism and bidialectism, as well as a review of contemporary studies conducted in the playground and with young participants.

In Chapter 4, I discuss the methodology used in this study, where I defend my philosophical stance and explain how it affects the research process. I also present the research procedure, giving details related to the methods used to collect, record and analyse data. Issues of research quality and ethical considerations are also provided and these were mindful of and developed to address the demands of working with such a young group.

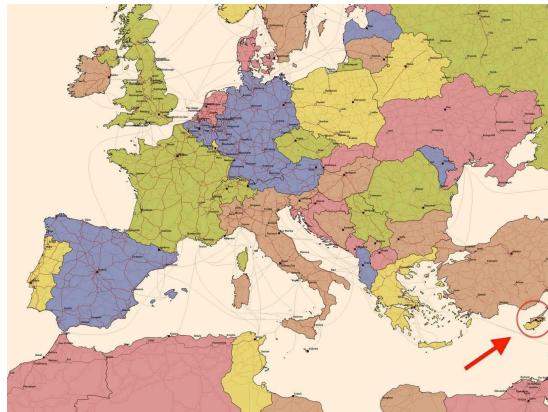
Chapter 5 is the analysis of the findings as they were identified through the various data sets used and the participants involved. Different extracts from the transcriptions of observations and interviews, as well as pictorial data, accompany this presentation in this chapter.

Chapter 6 is the discussion of the findings that have been generated from this investigation. I initially explain the approaches of investigation used, and how their conceptualisation facilitated the way data were approached. Then, I provide a discussion and an interpretation of the language use employed by the two different groups of participants, in the two different settings in which they were found, through the two distinct varieties, as the emerging themes were generated from the findings.

In the final chapter, Chapter 7, I present some recommendations for pedagogical implications, and implications that can inform future policies and research. Acknowledged in this chapter are the limitations of this study. Finally, I include my personal reflections from the research process.

Chapter 2: Background of the Study

This particular chapter presents the country where this study was conducted. It comprises a complete profile of the particular features of Cyprus that readers should be aware of before proceeding with the thesis. It includes the historical background of the country and the way this history has influenced the shaping of the various linguistic practices and policies on the island. Following this, the way the immigration wave has modified the synthesis of the country's population is also reviewed. Finally, the chapter is completed with a presentation of the various characteristics of today's primary public schools, considering the heterogeneous student population.



2.1 Geographic, historical and political background to Cyprus

Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean Sea. The island's geographical position, adjoining not only Europe and Asia, but also Africa, has been both a blessing and a curse for the country. Due to its strategically important position, Cyprus has witnessed cycles of civilian unrest with increasing violence for hundreds of years. Despite this politically turbulent historical setting of the island, Cyprus became an independent country in 1960 after a five-year (1955-1959) armed struggle against the British colonial authorities, when Greek Cypriots were aiming for political union with Greece (Papadakis, 1998). Before the armed struggle the internal political life of the island was dominated by conflicts between the communist left wing and the right wing, the latter allying itself with the forces of the Church (Papadakis, 1998).

In 1960, when Cyprus became an independent country, the two major communities recognised by the constitution of the Republic of Cyprus were (and still are) the Turkish-Cypriot and Greek-Cypriot groups (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2013). Other ethnic groups found on the island are the Armenians, Maronites and Latins who

constitutionally belong to the Greek-Cypriot community, while the Turkish-speaking Roma are affiliated to the Turkish-Cypriot community (*ibid*).

Since 1960, the two officially recognised state languages have been both Turkish and Greek (Karyolemou, 2002). English was never considered as a state language despite the constant effort during the 80 years of British rule to promote English as the medium of instruction for a unified educational system between the two communities. This effort was not received positively by the country's population, resulting in endless protests by both communities, who viewed the English language as a symbol of oppression, resulting in its not being used (Karyolemou, 2001). However, there were a number of official documents that were written in English while it was also taught as a foreign language in secondary schools (Karyolemou, 2001, 2002). It was also the language that was used among the upper class of both Greek Cypriot (GC) and Turkish Cypriot (TC) communities, and in law as an interethnic communication means. These uses were stopped immediately after the geopolitical separation of the GC and TC communities in 1964 (Karyolemou, 2002).

Currently, Turkish is used in the northern part of the island, where the Turkish Cypriot community lives. Here, Greek is not used apart from some older people who live in the villages. Greek is used in the southern part of the island, where the Greek Cypriot community live, which is internationally recognised as the Republic of Cyprus. In the southern part, Turkish is not used apart from in some rare cases of older people (again) found in rural areas. It should be mentioned that despite the actual use of these two languages, in the southern part of Cyprus, where the internationally recognised Republic of Cyprus is, the official languages remain both Greek and Turkish (Karyolemou, 2002). Turkish may not be used in everyday communication (in the southern part) but it is still found in official documents such as passports, currency, birth and death certificates, and stamps (Karyolemou, 2001, 2002). As far as the English language is concerned, it managed to consolidate its position in past decades due to the educational and career needs of the young generations. A number of young students attend universities in the UK in order to receive a high standard of education to pursue a career of their

preference. Tourism remains the main source of employment on the island and English is used as the medium of communication (Karyolemou, 2001).

It is logical to wonder that since the island has two officially recognised languages, and the two constitutional communities have existed on the island for hundreds of years, why then are its inhabitants not bilingual? The geopolitical separation of the two communities, along with the extended hostile environment on the island for a long period of time, explains why Cypriots do not speak both Greek and Turkish. Not only this, but also the existence of two parallel ethnically oriented educational systems, whose languages of instruction are Greek and Turkish respectively, reinforce the prevention of large-scale bilingualism (Karyolemou, 2001). The rare cases of bilingualism are found in rural areas (as already mentioned), and it is mostly noticed among the Turkish minority rather than the other way round (Karyolemou, 2001). The educational policies of the two communities after 1960 served as vehicles of the ethnic and cultural identities of the TC and GC communities and thus Greek and Turkish were the means of distinction between one community and the other (Karyolemou, 2001).

2.2 Bidialectism's history and impact

In the GC community, the internationally officially recognised state, there are two linguistic varieties that are used concurrently: the regional Cypriot dialect (Greek Cypriots' mother tongue) [GCD] and Standard Modern Greek (the educational variety) [SMG]. The GCD is a dialect that belongs to the southern dialects of Greek and is spoken by the 700,000 GCs, the majority of the Armenian and Maronite communities living in Cyprus, as well as by a small percentage of TCs (Papapavlou, 2001). It is also spoken by the majority of GCs of the diaspora (Papapavlou, 2001). On the other hand, SMG is based on the Peloponnesian vernacular, which was spoken when the very first Greek independent state was formed (Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005). In a society where many varieties are present and respected, there comes a time when one of those varieties plays the role of the vehicle of unity to a specific population (Hudson, 1996; Petyt, 1980). In the case of Cyprus, due to the fact that SMG derives from mainland Greece – which is the dominant social, economic, political and cultural group – SMG has

managed to acquire the role of the unifying variety. This choice supports Hudson's (1996) claim that language itself and what constitutes subcategories of language are decisions that are based on non-linguistic reasons. At this point, it should be clarified that terms such as 'standard' and 'non-standard' do not always refer to clearly identifiable linguistic codes (Yiakoumetti & Esch, 2010). But there are cases, such as Standard High German and the Swiss German dialects, which present differences in people's speech variation and can actually be conceptualised as switching from one discrete system to another (Cheshire, 2005). The latter describes the relationship between SMG and GCD.

This sociolinguistic situation in Cyprus is considered to be bidialectism. Bidialectism is the coexistence and concurrent use of one or more regional varieties and a standard variety of the same language in a speech community (Yiakoumetti, 2006). It is considered to be a sociolinguistic phenomenon due to the focus on both linguistic issues and the way linguistic features are used in various contexts and circumstances (Pavlou & Christodoulou, 2001). The phenomenon of bidialectism is an issue that concerns various areas and countries around the world, as will be discussed later on (McKenzie, 2008; Mohanty, 2006; Starr, 2010; Yiakoumetti, 2006). In the case of Cyprus, the standard or high variety is SMG, and the unofficial or low variety is the GCD with its various local idioms (Papapavlou, 1998). The two varieties occupy different domains of usage; this is the functional relationship between the two varieties according to Delvedouri (2012). The unofficial variety is used mainly for oral communication and in GCs' daily activities with friends and family, whereas the official variety is used for written production and formal situations (Papapavlou, 2001).

There are various reasons why GCs have a lot of difficulty in supporting and promoting GCD inside education and a brief historical journey will explain those reasons. In the GC community, the two varieties present were treated in a rather interesting manner during the last two centuries. During the British rule (1878-1959), due to the lack of a formal republic, the Church was the main policy maker for the education of the GC community (Ioannidou, 2012). This continued even after the birth of the Republic of Cyprus in 1960 and its aim was the reinforcement

of the Greek identity among the GC community. The fact that the GC community acknowledges and accepts SMG as the official language serves as a unified force and at the same time as the distinguishable figure among them (the Greek Cypriots) and the 'others' (Ioannidou, 2012). Especially after 1964, when the geopolitical separation of the two communities occurred, the GC educational system became identical with the Greek one (Karyolemou, 2001). This was mostly done for practical reasons; however, even after the end of the British rule and despite the various changes in government, the educational policy remained the same (Ioannidou, 2009). Therefore the official variety, SMG, was dominant in education while the unofficial variety, GCD, was not taught either as a subject for study or as a medium of communication.

SMG was promoted as the unified language to cover the need for national unity. In Cyprus, as in other places around the world, there is the underlying belief that those who object to the nation's hegemony are preventing its unity (Phillipson, 1992). Very recent proof of this claim is provided by the current Archbishop of Cyprus, Chrysostomos II (2013), through the composition of a circular that was read in all the churches at the beginning of the school year 2013-2014. In that particular circular he demanded that the Minister of Education reconsider the new educational curriculum. Through the new curriculum, critical literacy was introduced, which meant that both linguistic varieties, not only SMG but also GCD would be used in parallel throughout the language lesson. Chrysostomos II opposed this idea in a rather strong manner, claiming that if this new pedagogy, the official introduction of GCD, was implemented in the schools, the students' identity was in danger. The Church always had the role of the GCs' identity protector, especially during the Ottoman occupation in 1571-1878 (Karyolemou, 2001). The Church's role as the identity's protector was based on a nationalist-Hellenocentric approach, essentialising GCs' identity through an emphasis on shared attributes with mainland Greece, such as the SMG variety and the Christian religion and history (Spyrou, 2000, 2002). It was believed that this identity kept 'us' (the Greeks) separate from the 'rest' (Spyrou, 2000, 2002). It seems that the Church continues to hold the role of the identity protector, even if it seems that it is trying to protect it from invisible enemies. It should also be added that there are no

research findings evaluating the critical literacy pilot phase because the schools immediately abandoned it. From my personal experience and discussions I had with colleagues, the schools seemed to dislike it, not because of its philosophy but because there was no organised scheme by MOEC to follow.

This need to protect GCs' identity is resourced from the fact that Cyprus had long periods of ethnic rivalry (Ioannidou, 2009). Unfortunately, nowadays this need has become a habit at the expense of ignoring our own mother tongue; throughout this constant effort of national unity and GCs' identity protection, GCD has been repeatedly neglected. It is quite surprising actually that GCD managed to survive over the years. Despite the fact that SMG is established, GCs have not abandoned their mother tongue (to enjoy a relatively higher social status), due to the ethnic identity associated with the unofficial variety (Papapavlou, 2001). Also, GCD remains a form of resistance to the existing power of institutional structures that were imposed on the GC population by various conquerors (Hudson, 1996; Ioannidou, 2009; Schilling-Estes, 2004). This is the reason why GCs' attitudes towards GCD are not as negative as attitudes towards unofficial dialects around the world (McKenzie, 2008; Pavlou & Christodoulou, 2001; Richards, 1972; Van De Craen & Humblet, 1989). This has resulted in the maintenance and reinforcement of bidialectism even inside Cyprus' linguistically monopolised educational context. It should be mentioned, though, that GCD has undergone various changes to be closer to the standard variety (SMG) over the years (Tsiplakou, 2007). This, according to Petyt (1980), is rather common across all multilingual and bidialectal countries.

Currently, the educational policies around the linguistic varieties used in the schools of the Republic of Cyprus remain extremely vague (Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005). The country's report provided for the Council of Europe presents the language education policy of the country. In the report, there are various references either to SMG or GCD as being the mother tongue, not making it explicitly clear which is which (Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005). Pavlou and Papapavlou (2005) argue that since there is no official document that clearly states which one should be the language of instruction, the policy that is nowadays

implied is a covert one. Since 2010, ‘critical literacy’ has been introduced to a limited extent in the Cypriot educational curriculum. Critical literacy promotes activities through which both varieties are extensively used and taught, whilst parallel comparison among the two is made. There is strong support from numerous scholars (Hadjioannou, Tsiplakou, & Kappler, 2011; Ioannidou & Sophocleous, 2010; Yiakoumetti et al., 2005) that this policy and way of teaching and learning provides better outcomes. This is because critical literacy leads to children’s development of linguistic, metalinguistic, and communication strategies in their native language, which eventually they can practise in any other language. To date, I have not come across any research data from the Cypriot classrooms on the implementation of this particular education policy.

All things considered, it is generally agreed that by having a standard variety, equity is provided to all the students regardless of their home language (Ioannidou, 2009). By providing the opportunity to all the children to acquire the official language of instruction, it offers access to the main domains of power and public life (Ioannidou, 2009). However, because each country’s educational policy usually defends the rights of the majority or the people who hold most of the power, they tend to promote a particular linguistic variety over the rest (Ioannidou, 2009). Because of this, not all of the people are given the right to use, elaborate and develop the linguistic variety they use in their homes (Brumfit, 2001). The use of more than one linguistic variety of instruction in schools is an idea that has been supported and promoted quite extensively around the globe (Cummins, 2008; Dutcher, 2004). Cyprus is not the only example where a single linguistic variety is promoted as the official educational variety in schools. This one-sided policy is also found in other countries such as South Africa, Lebanon, Peru, Ethiopia and India (Garcia & Menken, 2010).

2.3 The diaspora and the impact of immigration on life in Cyprus

Due to the numerous sociopolitical changes that have taken place over the last decades, the diversity of the country’s population has increased dramatically.

Cyprus, despite its political turbulence, has managed to develop economically, due

to the concerted effort by the government, trade unions and political parties (Trimikliniotis, 2013). Since the early 1990s, Cyprus evolved from an emigration to an immigration country, due to the abandonment of the restrictive immigration policy in 1991 (Trimikliniotis, 2006). This policy was lifted in order to address the need for low-skill labour, which was generated by the economic development model of the era of mass tourism and services (Trimikliniotis, 2006). This rapid immigration increased considerably also due to the partial removal of the restrictive measures along the borders in 2003, which prevented TCs from visiting the southern part of the country (Papamichael, 2009). In addition, the reduced restrictions offered by the country's entry into the European Union in 2004 (Papamichael, 2009; Trimikliniotis, 2013) contributed to this immigration wave considerably. Despite the economic growth, in 2009 the economic crisis hit Cyprus due to the Cypriot banks' connection with the Greek economic crisis (Trimikliniotis, 2013). However, even after the intensification of this economic crisis from 2011 to 2013, 20% of the working population is still made up of migrants, from developing countries or the European Union (Trimikliniotis, 2013).

The great majority of the migrants are employed in low-skill, labour-intensive jobs, and come mainly from the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and India (Trimikliniotis, 2013). A number of immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe, and particularly the Balkans, are also employed in hotels, restaurants, and trade (Trimikliniotis, 2013). Despite the various political changes, these migrants and asylum seekers face a rather hostile environment in Cyprus society (Trimikliniotis, 2006). This is quite obvious from the unfriendly media and the unsympathetic immigration regime (Trimikliniotis, 2006).

This hostility, however, is not addressed at all the migrants of the island. Cyprus, even before its entry into the EU, was the only country that allowed Russian citizens to enter the country without visas (Trimikliniotis, 2006). This initiative was taken in order to attract businesses and tourists, resulting in thousands of Russians migrating to Cyprus and establishing offshore Russian businesses, schools and Russian churches (Trimikliniotis, 2006). It is interesting to observe that while the previous sectors of tourism, private household services and low-skill labour jobs

mainly employ people from Asia, the workers in the offshore business sector workers, if not Cypriots, come from Russia and the former Yugoslav Republic (Trimikliniotis, 2013).

Another ethnic group of particular interest is the case of Roma. There is no official recognition of Roma as a separate ethnic minority group such as the TCs and the GCs, or as a separate religious group such as the Armenians, Maronites and Latins (Trimikliniotis & Demetriou, 2009). After the geographical separation in 1974, most of them moved to the northern part of the island, where they lived along with the rest of the TC population (Trimikliniotis & Demetriou, 2009). This is the main reason why both the Republic of Cyprus in the south, and the internationally unrecognised Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (in the northern part of the island), considers Roma to be TCs. After 2003, when freedom of movement between the occupied north and the Cyprus Republic in the south was achieved, a considerable number of Roma moved to the southern part, where they have been repeatedly criticised for their lifestyle, and many residents have requested their eviction (Trimikliniotis & Demetriou, 2009).

As was expected, this sociopolitical situation deeply affected the homogeneity of the Cypriot schools. Regardless of the official educational policy of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) to provide equal educational opportunities for all children, whatever their socio-economic, ethnic and cultural background, and their religious belief (MOEC, 2012), not all of the aforementioned migrant and minority groups receive proper education (Trimikliniotis & Demetriou, 2009). In addition, despite the fact that formally MOEC is against the isolation of Greek as an Additional Language (GAL) learners, it has been noticed that there is a high concentration of migrants, minorities and GC from poorer backgrounds in particular schools around the island, while they also present a significant reduction white, middle-class GC students, indicating the racial prejudice against these groups (Trimikliniotis & Demetriou, 2009).

Very few studies have been conducted in Cyprus to investigate students' perceptions of, and attitudes towards, minority groups and migrants either in schools or not. A study by Spyrou (2009) asked 10-12-year-olds to express their

perceptions of Sri Lankan and Filipino women who were employed in Cyprus as domestic workers. The results indicated the ambivalence and the complexity of GC students' attitudes towards these Asian workers. In another study, Panayiotopoulos and Nicolaidou (2007) interviewed GC students, and their findings revealed racist attitudes towards GAL learners, mainly because of the way they were dressed, the financial difficulties that their families were dealing with and their skin colour. Not only this, but two years later Philippou (2009) also found from her mixed method study the prejudiced and stereotyped assumptions GC children held of migrants. Moreover, Zembylas (2010) provides evidence of racist incidents from both GC students and teachers' discourse and perceptions towards Turkish-speaking students in particular. These attitudes seem to be rooted in the unresolved political issue of Cyprus (Zembylas, 2010). Theodorou (2011) also presents data demonstrating the marginalisation of the GAL learners. Finally, in Zembylas and Lesta (2011), a study questioning thirty GC students about their feelings and perceptions towards migrants and migrant children in Cyprus, children seemed to display an emotional ambivalence, since they would express their respect, acceptance and friendship towards them, but at the same time they would also express their concern about their increasing presence in Cyprus, thus indicating their suspicion.

2.4 The current situation in schools

"Multilingualism and multiculturalism have been viewed with scepticism ever since the tower of Babel." (Ioannidou & Sophocleous, 2010, p. 1)

It is true that multilingualism and multiculturalism have always created confusion in the educational field, let alone in – until very recently – a homogenous monolingual and multicultural country such as Cyprus. The link between dialect and education, and any problems deriving from it, has been extensively discussed and researched, especially over the last forty years (Cheshire et al., 1989). It is striking to realise the numerous similarities found in the educational settings across Europe for dealing with the exigencies of promoting the standard variety (Cheshire et al., 1989). This study aimed to approach this matter in a rather innovative and

informative way. To be able to understand further the problem under investigation, there is a need to present the current situation inside Cypriot schools.

2.4.1 Bidialectism in schools

The way bidialectism is present in schools is strictly linked to the teachers' practice. The mainstream teachers in the public sector in Cyprus are both teachers of the bidialectal GC students and teachers of the multilingual student population, which has steadily increased in the past 10 years. The great majority of them are native speakers of GCD, while they are obliged to use and teach SMG in these newly multilingual classrooms. They teach SMG as the first institutional language to GCs and as the additional language to GAL learners (who also come across GCD in the playground, sometimes in class, and in their everyday interactions with the target linguistic community). All in all, they are confronted with a combination of various linguistic varieties and ethnic backgrounds. Educational leaders generally agree that teachers are well educated and informed on how to address this student population if they are in-service trained. What is really happening, though, is that teachers are feeling lost and incompetent.

In reality, as far as the bidialectal phenomenon is concerned, teachers receive extremely vague guidelines on how to deal with this phenomenon in the classroom (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004; Yiakoumetti et al., 2005). Teachers' stances towards the unofficial variety of Cyprus are also antithetical. Teachers acknowledge the power of expression and richness of the unofficial variety (Tsiplakou, 2007) but they do not believe that GCD should be one of the instructional languages (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004). The fact that teachers do not believe in the instruction of GCD is due to the widespread belief held among policymakers that students should be able to learn and become competent in the official variety (Ioannidou, 2009), totally ignoring the need to parallel instruct GCD. The consequences from this deficiency of the Cypriot educational system are much more severe than is widely admitted. It is certainly common for teachers to speak more than one variety. Teachers admit to using GCD in the class for making jokes, for personal behaviour remarks, or to explain something complex (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004; Tsiplakou, 2007). However, in order to avoid possible confusion with the learners

from the teachers' concurrent use of the two varieties, it is argued that they should provide adequate sociolinguistic evidence of each variety, enhancing in this way learners' communicative competence (Pavlou & Christodoulou, 2001; Starr, 2010). In this way, bidialectism can be viewed as it really is, not as a permanent problem but a linguistic richness to be treasured.

2.4.2 GAL learners in Cyprus

Until recently, as has already been mentioned, schools in Cyprus had a homogenous population of students, whose mother tongue was the GCD. However, with the arrival of the GAL learners, the consistency of classrooms began to change. According to the 2012-2013 statistical data on the student population from the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), there were 6,672 GAL learners in Cypriot primary schools. This represents 13.09% of the total student population (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004; Tsiplakou, 2007). In addition to this, it is interesting to observe that there has been a rapid increase in this percentage during the past years, since in 2009-2010 this percentage was just 10.5 % (MOEC, 2013).

It should be primarily and most importantly explained what is meant when I refer to GAL learners. As Conteh (2012) explains, students studying English as an Additional Language (EAL) does not only refer to children who are new to English. The same 'term problem' lies in Cyprus. By referring to GAL learners, I am not only referring to children who are new to Greek, but it can serve as an 'umbrella' term that incorporates students with various competencies in the Greek language or in other languages, cultures or even educational system experiences. It is also important to mention that in almost all official circulars of MOEC from 2004 until today, when referring to GAL learners they differentiate Turkish-speaking students from the rest of the GAL learners, indicating the political influence that is still present in today's educational system.

The student population in Cyprus is not only noteworthy due to its rapidly changing nature. Native speakers of GCD, the 'traditional homogeneous' student population, are also dealing with another issue based on the teachers' perspectives

(Tsiplakou, 2007). Teachers believe that GC students, who have always been part of the GC public schools, have long been confronted with a ‘linguistic deficit’, which according to the teachers, is linked with the ‘problem’ of the dialect as a ‘restricted code’ (Tsiplakou, 2007). This informal theory about linguistic deficit is based on the evaluative distinction between the ‘elaborated’ and ‘restricted’ code, where the ‘restricted’ code is believed to be less linguistically rich and analytic and thus unsuitable for the development of abstract thinking (Bernstein, 1973; Tsiplakou, 2007).

2.4.3 Measures taken for addressing multilingual Cypriot schools

Prior to Cyprus’ accession to the European Union in 2004, European influences, mainly in the form of European institutions, pressured MOEC to refrain from monolingualism and monoculturalism (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2013). On that account, Cyprus had to evidence its capacity to design a multilingual and multicultural policy (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2013). To this end, during the 2003–2004 school year, MOEC launched the Zones of Educational Priority (ZEP) programme on a pilot basis (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2013). Eight public primary schools became part of the Zone of Educational Priority (ZEP) but unfortunately there are also a number of other schools with a high concentration of GAL learners that are not in a ZEP network (Tsiplakou & Georgi, 2008; Zembylas, 2010). The schools which belong to a ZEP network have additional supportive language lessons for GAL learners (Spinthourakis et al., 2009), but without any promotion of multiculturalism or fostering closer links between the schools and the community (Zembylas, 2010). It is believed that the policy of ZEP constitutes a strategic choice of MOEC to address issues related to intercultural education (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2013).

Apart from launching the ZEP programmes, MOEC sent various circulars to schools and approved the “Policy Document of the Ministry of Education and Culture for Intercultural Education” in 2008 (Hadjisoterious & Angelides, 2013). With this ‘new’ policy directive, MOEC aimed to create an intercultural school to avoid exclusion and promote immigrants’ inclusion in the education system and

society of Cyprus (Hadjisoterious & Angelides, 2013). Despite the fact that MOEC adopted this rhetoric of intercultural education, they failed to provide a concrete definition of intercultural education. It referred to knowledge of other cultures, instead of the interaction and interchange between GCs and others (*ibid*).

Apart from failing to provide a definition of intercultural education, MOEC's documentation and official policies do not seem to differentiate educational inclusion and bilingualism from other physical and cognitive needs, as is the case in the UK (Safford & Drury, 2013). This is reinforced by the ZEP programme, which includes schools which deal with children who either have language or learning needs (Spinthourakis et al., 2009). Also, the supportive pull-out sessions' ideology supports this argument, since they are provided for children who have either learning or language needs (MOEC, 2012), without making any kind of differentiation between the two kinds of help needed. These two different needs are so often met together that it is logical to express concerns on whether misconceptions are generated among either the instructors or any other member in the educational field.

MOEC has implemented some measures to try to provide equal educational opportunities for these students; however, due to insufficient research, most of the measures are inappropriate since they respond to the needs of either schools in Greece or Cypriot secondary schools (MOEC, 2013; Skourtou, 1995). The only measures concerning the education of GAL learners in the state primary schools that are actually implemented are the teachers' training seminars (MOEC, 2013). However, there are still a large number of educators who have not been informed. There are also other individual efforts made by teachers to implement inclusive practices that are not the official policy (Zembylas, 2010).

Additionally, training centres provide a series of sessions on how to learn Greek as an additional language, as well as translation and interpreter services (MOEC, 2013). Parents and family of GAL learners are eligible for these services. However, only two out of the ten GAL participants of this study had parents who were attending these sessions.

Eventually, in order for multicultural and multi-ethnic schools to be properly established in Cyprus, all GC pupils need to be taught universal values and principles regarding how to respect and understand different cultures, ethnic identities and religions (Panayiotopoulos & Nicolaïdou, 2007). Research has been conducted in the Cypriot schools showing that Christianity/religion is one of the most commonly used reasons why GC students self-categorized themselves as Greeks (Philippou, 2005). There is an imperative need for GC students to be cultivated and educated in a way that they can avoid the danger of excluding themselves from others based on the differences found among them in the language they speak or the God they believe in and focus on the similarities that connect them, such as universal respect and human rights and values.

There are future plans to add multicultural and multilingual features in the new curriculum and school textbooks. However, the new curriculum, which is based on the pedagogy of critical literacy that supports multilingualism, even if it had been slowly introduced in 2010, is still under serious attack. The lack of trained personnel, links between the communities and the schools, as well as the inconsistency between the processes needing to be conducted and the means used, are present in Cypriot multilingual classrooms.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

In Chapter 2, I have described in detail the setting where this study was conducted. Cyprus as a context is linguistically interesting, challenging and informative to investigate the use of language. There is a need to investigate the use of the two linguistic varieties (SMG and GCD) by both groups of participants (young GAL learners and mainstream teachers) to understand better how they get along in the newly multilingual and multicultural schools of Cyprus. This study, therefore, has the potential to inform many areas if not the majority of countries around the world, since bidialectism is not something solely found in Cyprus.

In this chapter, I consider the literature on Second Language Learning (SLL) and how that has informed my own conceptual understanding of language, second language learning and use of language. In doing this, I provide a brief historical overview on how language use and learning is configured through SLL theories, namely behaviourism, cognitivism, psycholinguistic theories and eventually sociolinguistic and sociocultural approaches. Then I justify and discuss my own understanding of participation, communication and language use through the sociocultural approach. I put forward my argument for adopting a sociocultural approach by contrasting it with the cognitive and psycholinguistic approach, which, I will argue, pays little attention to the influence of context. In this study, the two contrasting contexts of classroom and playground will be pertinent in understanding the way context might shape language use. On the basis of presenting my own understanding of language use from a sociocultural perspective, I explain the concept of multilingualism in detail. I reflect upon the literature that investigates children's and teachers' use of language in multilingual settings and discuss social justice factors by exploring the current research in multilingual settings. I further elaborate on the concept of bidialectism and how much of the literature considered ignores unofficial linguistic varieties. Finally, I conclude this chapter by discussing the importance and problems of using young participants and review innovative approaches that have sought to address these issues.

3.1 Theories of SLL: A historical overview

Research into SLL is written against a background of shifting theoretical perspectives. During the relatively short history of the SLL field, much has been questioned and modified (Block, 2003). The aim here is to map this change in order to understand how research is differentially influenced by these wider debates, while also outlining the range of the various perspectives held by researchers in the field.

3.1.1 Language learning theories

SLL history is divided into three main historical periods (Block, 2003), during which diverse researchers' perspectives were observed and various approaches were incorporated in the studies conducted in the field. The initial period (the 1940s to the 1950s) contained studies that were extensively based on habit-forming ideas supported by a behaviourist theory of learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2007). This idea applied in the SLL field means that in order to learn a new language, learners need to experience a series of practices such as pattern drills, memorisation of dialogues and choral repetition of the grammar rules, followed by feedback from the teacher (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Pica, 2005). Thus, in behaviourism, language use is extensively controlled and limited to the teachers' practices used in the classroom.

From the 1960s to the 1970s, studies began to be informed by the work of psycholinguistics, which was particularly concerned with the cognitive powers of language learners (Larsen-Freeman, 2007; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999a). It should be mentioned here that the major roots of cognitivism in the SLL field were set by Chomsky (Brown, 1996; Pica, 2005). Chomsky's main argument was that all humans are born with an innate ability to learn language (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). He also argued that this ability resides in a language acquisition device that includes basic linguistic structures that are universal for all languages (Universal Grammar) (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). He did not reject the importance of the social world; however, he believed that the social world serves merely as a trigger for the innate human capacity for language learning (Gass &

Selinker, 1994).

It was only after the 1980s that research went beyond controlling instruction of SLL in classrooms and began to be oriented towards investigating the importance of the social context in learning. This shift of focus was based on the idea that social context was considered as a valid and resourceful environment for language learning (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). This era was characterised by the interactionist models of SLL, initially the ones put forward by Krashen (1982; 1985), Long (1985), and eventually Swain (1985). It is claimed that these theories foregrounded this model of learning, and took deeper consideration of the social context since they tried to explain how interaction through the negotiation of meaning modified comprehension input (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). However, social context through this perspective (both inside and outside classrooms) was considered only as a catalyst of learning.

Researchers that draw on the work of Vygotsky (1962; 1981) go further by arguing that the environment should not be considered as a catalyst of the new knowledge required, but that all learning is mediated from the outside world. Sociocultural theory (which is also extensively derived from Vygotsky's work) mainly highlights the process of mediation of learning from outside to inside the learner through the use of cultural tools – language in particular.

3.1.2 Towards a more social orientation in SLL

In Firth and Wagner's (1997) provocative article "On Discourse, Communication, and (Some) Fundamental Concepts in SLA Research", a reconceptualisation of SLL was proposed. This reconceptualisation consisted of three main transformations: "(a) significantly enhanced awareness of the contextual and interactional dimensions of language use; (b) an increased emic sensitivity towards fundamental concepts; (c) broadening of the traditional SLA database" (p. 268). Firth and Wagner's intervention stimulated SLL researchers to design and conduct more methodologically and theoretically pluralistic studies. In the following paragraphs, I will try to explain further what those three transformations entail, and

how they contribute to the methodological and theoretical pluralism of the research in SLL.

One of these transformations was considered essential since research in the SLL field was generalising its findings based on studies conducted in a limited range of settings (mainly in the classroom), where only standard varieties of the target language were investigated (Hawkins, 2004; Siegel, 2003). Most of these classrooms are contexts where language learners attend sessions with the purpose of learning a target language, while immersion or multilingual classrooms are rarely researched. The deficit of these studies is that they failed to take into consideration the fact that in real life language is learned by using it in various contexts and for various purposes.

Research conducted until the late 1970s also considered that the target language and the ultimate aim for every language learner was the native speaker's speech (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). This misconception, which was extensively based on Chomsky's belief that a native speaker is perfectly aware of his/her native language, began to be questioned. Due to consideration of the social context, researchers began to argue that a native speaker could be equally influenced by irrelevant factors such as distraction, limited memory and so forth. In addition to these, language learners' interlocutors could also equally be non-native speakers themselves (Firth & Wagner, 1997). According to Siegel (2003), to avoid these misleading circumstances, SLL research needed to address both speaker's and hearer's speech as they were used in their everyday life.

Moreover, the notion of the second language learner has shifted through time. Firth and Wagner (1997) contend that in the history of SLL there was an orthodox social hegemony, which ignored the social identity of the participants and social beings were investigated as 'subjects'. This way of viewing people had a deep effect on the research design (experimental instead of naturalistic settings), the data that were collected (quantified data instead of qualified) and the interpretation of the findings (based on underlying cognitive processes) (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Following the realisation that SLL can occur outside the school environment, the term 'student' could not always be used and was replaced by 'learner' (Kramsch &

Whiteside, 2007). Additionally, the realisation that being a learner was a state from which a person would eventually graduate contradicted the use of the terms ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speakers (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). This was based on the belief that the gap between these two could never be filled due to the inability to learn an additional language as a mother tongue (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). Neglect in considering language learners’ social identity is also shown through the lack of description of communication successes (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Most of the previous studies only described communicative failures because language learners were viewed as a factual resource instead of a topic of investigation themselves (Firth & Wagner, 1997).

Finally, there was also a changing attitude in the way errors were viewed. In the very initial steps of SLL research, errors tended to be viewed negatively. They were interpreted as a result of the learner’s lack of lexical, grammatical or syntactical knowledge without even trying to find explanations provided by the possibility of interactional and sociolinguistic affective factors (Firth & Wagner, 1997). This belief changed over time, and learners’ errors were viewed as positive evidence of learning, where the teacher could have concrete indications of what and where he/she should intervene to improve learners’ second language performance (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). The change in the way errors were viewed had a strong effect and readjusted the whole second language teaching approach.

The theoretical shift in thinking of SLL that has been discussed in this section can be summarised by Firth and Wagner’s (1997) claim that the social turn of the SLL field focuses among other things on the enhanced awareness and acknowledgment of various contextual and interactional characteristics and dimensions of language use.

3.1.3 Sociocultural theory and SLL

As shown in the previous section (3.2.1.), the field of SLL can be discussed and investigated through the lens of various theoretical approaches. After the discussion of the social turn in SLL research (3.2.2.), I argue here for a

sociocultural understanding of SLL. Sociocultural theory derives mainly from Vygotsky (1962; 1981). Vygotsky's work is particularly interesting because of its focus on the social nature of human development and learning in contrast with the individualistic theories of learning such as behaviourism and cognitive psychology. Despite the fact that Vygotsky was speaking in the context of first language learning, his ideas are also influential in theorising and researching SLL.

Trying to unfold what the theory entails, the concept of mediation is centralised by Vygotsky. Mediation is one of his greatest contributions, through which he explains the procedure by which a person manages to regulate his/her relationships with himself/herself and with other people (intermental processes) (Lantolf, 2000). Vygotsky claims that these regulations are conducted through the use of artefact – symbolic tools that are influenced by the cultural context where they are found at a specific point in time (Lantolf, 2000). Some examples of physical artefacts are considered to be newspapers, books or even computers, while symbolic artefacts include numbers and, of course, language. He views artefacts as social in nature, since they are created by our ancestors and are passed down to us in ways that are inevitably constantly changing (Wertsch, 1985). The regulation of the intermental relationships is performed through thinking and other high-level, human mental activities such as voluntary attention, logical thought, learning and problem solving (intramental processes). Thus, sociocultural theory considers that both the social settings and the psycholinguistic processes occurring in each learner are mutually represented in the SLL process (Ohta, 2000).

The importance of social learning, which comes mostly from our conversation companions, lies in the fact that the language we use in both intermental and intramental processes is extensively defined and formulated by that social context (Mercer, 1995). The tool of language is viewed as part of how we interact with the world and it is also claimed that while children develop they acquire better control over it. That is why Vygotsky postulates language as the most significant artefact in learning and puts precedence on oral interaction as the medium through which learning occurs. In addition to this, sociocultural theory also promotes the indispensable role of non-verbal language. The various high mental activities in which a human being is engaged are not only formulated by linguistic means but

also from gestures (Lantolf, 2000).

Understanding SLL from this perspective also entails application of a holistic qualitative methodology that can shed light on the learning processes taking place during situated second language interaction (Ohta, 2000). Therefore, adopting a sociocultural understanding of SLL the way to investigate it will necessarily be based on how language is used in various kinds of interactions. Adopting a theoretical framework requires that the investigation of language use in various interactions should also consider the surrounding learning environment. For Vygotsky (in or outside the classroom), language use and learning is always a socially situated activity that is strictly culturally bound and forms learners' cognitive and linguistic development (Ohta, 2000). Thus context is central to the investigation since learning does not occur abstractly in the mind of the individual, but in the social context.

The inextricable link between context, language and language learning is indicated by Van Lier's (2004) comment that context is not something that surrounds the tool of language; it defines language while simultaneously it is defined by language. He continues by saying that if we do not take into account the importance of context in our investigations there is no more language left to be investigated (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992). Therefore, in a sociocultural investigation, the tool of language has to refer back to its context, where the field of action is and within which the event is embedded (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992). This way of thinking about context, as a quality of embeddedness, is not only linked with language investigation but with context cognitive development in a more general sense (Cole, 1990).

It could be summarised that the sociocultural approach investigates language by trying to understand how the subject(s), who could be the people involved in an interaction, utilise the various tools they have at their disposal to reach a particular aim. Eventually, the intertwined relationship between these three sources of information provides a further layer of investigation, since they may be influenced by each other in particularly interesting ways.

3.1.4 Moving away from language competence to language use for a new understanding of SLL

The interaction between second language learners and their context, emphasised by sociocultural theory, managed to convert the traditional second language teacher's obsession with linguistic correctness into a concern with appropriateness (Dixon et al., 2012). A move away from language competence towards language use has been noticed in research and in the effort of understanding SLL.

One of the particular examples that illustrates the differentiation between competence and use is the realisation that understanding the learning of another language does not mean researching the translation act from one code to another. On the contrary, sociocultural perspective argues that the affective sensibility of language use is one of the most sophisticated things we do with language (Lemke, 2002). Affective sensibility is almost exclusively sidelined once the movement from one code to another is considered through the dry translation process.

Equally important in understanding the substantial difference between focusing on competence and focusing on use are the changes which have occurred in L2 teaching and learning. By bringing attention to the social and cultural dimensions of languages, the sociocultural approach has changed the role of the teacher and the goal of L2 learning. The aim of L2 learning is seen far more complex than the acquisition of a new linguistic form (L2 learning considers language use too), while L2 teaching has been redirected to assist individual learners in finding their own effective ways of communicating in various contexts (Dixon et al., 2012). This particular emphasis on the communicative component of language has transformed the way SLL is viewed. This is because being able to transmit a message successfully is now considered more important than using each code correctly (Dixon et al., 2012).

Effective communication can also be accomplished through code switching or code mixing. The sociocultural approach acknowledges the social collaborative uses of language, especially when found among multilingual groups of people, where

members concurrently use their multiple languages (and/or dialects) to communicate (Lemke, 2002). To investigate this, we need to explore skills such as code switching and code mixing, which have been extensively ignored by modernist notions of autonomy of languages (Lemke, 2002). On the one hand, code switching is observed when two different linguistic varieties are juxtaposed in a single event (sentence level) that is interpreted as meaningful by the participants only (Auer, 1998). Usually the speakers are highly proficient in both varieties, but this does not mean that there is a balanced proficiency among the two (Auer, 1998). Code mixing, on the other hand, is when two linguistic varieties are juxtaposed in a meaningful way to participants, not in a local but in a more global manner (Auer, 1998). Code mixing, unlike code switching, is more linked and restricted to the syntax of the sentence, and one of the reasons is that it occurs in turn-intervals and not at the sentence level (Hudson, 1996). It should also be mentioned that code mixing requires speakers who have a more balanced proficiency in the two varieties than the speakers who code switch (Auer, 1998). Creese and Blackledge (2010) acknowledge the fact that across linguistically diverse contexts this juxtaposition is natural. These juxtapositions manage to increase inclusion, participation and understanding of the learners throughout the learning process, developing more friendly relationships with other interlocutors, conveying abstract ideas more easily and finally accomplishing successful lessons (Arthur & Martin, 2006). Therefore previous approaches did not have managed to keep languages separated, but they did repeatedly excluded real life scenarios and language uses.

Part of acknowledging the importance of investigating the juxtaposition of the various varieties is to explore how multilingualism is promoted. Through learning an additional language, a society that values and practises multilingualism is created. Learning a language is not an empty exercise that is merely academic or instrumental (Lemke, 2002). We may be learning a language in an academic environment but we will use that knowledge in the real world, where cultures, languages and ideas come into contact on an everyday basis. Language learning includes changes in the way we ‘hold ourselves’, our vocal apparatus, stance, and

posture, by adding new dimensions to ourselves and by expanding our repertoire of possible identities and ways of being a human being (Lemke, 2002).

Finally, it should also be mentioned that understanding SLL from the sociocultural perspective allows researchers to explore SLL away from the typical L2 sessions in the language learners' home countries. This broadening of scope allows investigation of SLL in other contexts and more specifically (for this project), it allows exploration of L2 learners found in schools where the language of instruction is unknown to them. The intriguing feature of this type of inquiry is that language learners have to acquire the requisite linguistic skills, and at the same time learn and accustom themselves to the academic and social practices of their schools (Hawkins, 2004). Socioculturally-oriented research views classrooms and generally schools as complex ecological systems, with multiple and quite often interdependent components that language learners have to negotiate, either socially or academically, in order to become active participants (Hawkins, 2004). The need to investigate this aspect of language learning and use may provide answers to educators on how to improve their help and service to the language learners they are called to teach (Hawkins, 2004).

3.2 SLL research practices

In this section, particular attention is given to how the changing ideas outlined in the previous sections are realised through research practices. I begin with the cognitive approaches, contrasting them to the more sociocultural research practices that inform my study.

3.2.1 SLL through cognitive research practices

One of the most influential research traditions in the field of SLL introduced in the previous section (3.2.1.) is the cognitive psycholinguistic tradition, which includes attempts to determine the possible causal relationships between environmental factors such as quantity of input, instruction and feedback with language learning (Larsen-Freeman, Long, & Jiang, 1991). It also includes another influential line of research that derives from the Chomskyan Universal Grammar (UG) theory, which

is the investigation of the cognitive abilities-mechanisms (such as attention and memory) that the language learner is engaged with (Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999b). Despite the variations inside the cognitive psycholinguistic field – UG, interactionism or connectionism – the phenomena that were researched such as input, transfer and output were conceptualised as psycholinguistic entities and SLL was viewed as an internalised cognitive process (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). This is the reason why all of these variations are reviewed here together.

The particular strand of SLL research that has been investigating the basic cognitive mechanisms underlying learning an additional language has focused systematically on noticing. Swain and Lapkin (1995) show how adolescent language learners in French immersion classrooms in Ontario were occasionally able to notice a linguistic problem when they were trying to produce the target language. When they would manage to notice it, they would modify their output. The researchers claimed that output sets ‘noticing’ in train, which eventually triggers mental processes that lead to modified output. They believed that this realisation could be useful in informing instruction in the second language classroom. Another cognitive mechanism that Purpura’s (1997) study showed to be influential in language learning test performance was memory. His study included high school learners who had English as an additional language (EAL) from Spain, Turkey and the Czech Republic. The results also provided information about strategy use, test-taking styles and issues of particular interest for either second language teachers or learners.

The way teachers would provide feedback to the language learners’ output and its relationship with SLL is another theme of cognitive/psycholinguistic studies that attracted a lot of attention by scholars over the years. Even though there have been numerous studies to explore the type and effectiveness of interactional feedback – feedback throughout interaction – in different settings and context, very few have focused on younger language learners (Mackey & Oliver, 2002). Mackey and Oliver (2002) asked 22 young ESL learners to take part in communicative tasks that provided contexts for targeted forms and interactional feedback to occur. These communicative tasks were conducted between the young participants and

adult native speakers and indicated that children developed interactional feedback and their interlanguage seemed to be impacted by that feedback relatively quickly. Once more the correctness was centralised, since the focus was on how feedback was given in order for the language learner to produce a linguistically correct output. This investigation kept focusing on the processes instead of the outcomes (Dixon et al., 2012), which is why no interest was paid to whether the message was transmitted and communication was achieved.

Typically research focusing on cognitive processes has been conducted in laboratories and not inside real classrooms (Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999b). This is a consequence of a methodological approach that prioritises experimental designs, in particular those involving priming tasks. More recently, these laboratory-based studies have been using online experimental methodologies (Dixon et al., 2012; Marinis, 2003). Marinis (2003) argues that this has changed the nature of a typical psycholinguistic laboratory and provided us with insights into the relationship between grammar and processing. This kind of design is concerned with removing contextual influences in order to identify cause and effect processes. They might also view context as a compounding variable rather than the key to understanding behaviour. Therefore, it is not surprising that it fails to take into account the real life classroom interactions, which it is agreed lead to a better understanding of the classroom language (Spada & Lightbown, 2010).

Nonetheless, there is a sufficient body of cognitive-psycholinguistic research that has also been conducted inside the school premises. Some of these studies that investigated classroom interactions, such as the research conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997), have examined different aspects of feedback provided by teachers. They investigated the relationship between the type of feedback and the learner uptake in four French immersion primary classrooms. Ellis et al. (2006), using an experimental design with low-intermediate learners of second language English, studied the effects of implicit and explicit corrective feedback on the acquisition of the past tense -ed. Similarly, Mackey (2006) explored the positive relationships between feedback, instructed ESL learners' noticing of L2 form during classroom interactions and eventually their subsequent L2 development (output). Van Lier's

study (1991) claimed that attention to input is necessary so that it will become intake for further mental processing by the language learner. Murano's (2000) experimental study with 91 Japanese EFL learners examined the role of interaction enhancement, and whether language learners could produce modified output by focusing on form. In Canada, Lyster (2004) employed a comparative analysis of five quasi-experimental studies, involving approximately 1,200 students, from 49 French immersion classrooms, ranging from seven to 14 years old, investigating the effects of form-focused instruction and grammar learning. More recently, Lyster and Saito (2010) conducted a metanalysis on 15 classroom-based studies to explore whether oral corrective feedback positively influenced the target language learning development, and argued that its effectiveness was based upon the types of feedback, the types and timing of outcome measures, the instructional setting, the treatment length, and finally the learner's age.

Despite the fact that these studies were conducted inside classrooms, they did not consider either the social or the cultural context where SLL occurred. They viewed each participant as another unit of the inquiry. If the participant-unit failed to produce output based on the input and feedback he or she was exposed to, it would not be further investigated on an individualistic level. These studies explicitly investigated language learners' and teachers' cognitive mechanisms in order to produce outputs. Thus, they categorised the behaviours observed, based on the patterns the mind worked with. However, they missed the opportunity to draw information from the context that could provide evidence on why each participant was behaving the way he or she was. Their explicit focus on correct output production also contributed to them missing other acts that were equally informative. Such acts are language learners' socialisation, which is achieved through school-embedded activities. Also, the way a message is transmitted and communication is achieved, even with incorrect language use, is another act that has failed to be considered by the cognitive-psycholinguistic research approach. The core difference between these two research approaches lies in whether context is viewed as a valid investigation variable of understanding SLL and L2 use.

3.2.2 SLL through sociocultural research practices

Cognitive studies, such as the ones discussed above in section 3.3.1, were questioned as soon as social and contextual views of language began to emerge with the sociocultural turn during the 1980s (Block, 2003), where communicative instead of the grammatical competence of the individual was promoted. With the turn towards more socially oriented studies investigating second and foreign language learning, we acquired a broader and wider understanding of language as a tool and of language learning as a process, leading research of language learning into more naturalistic settings. Such studies went further than investigating acquisition of language accuracy (Dickson, 1981; Eisenchlas, 2009; Finnegan, 2002), by exploring language use through communication and socialising processes.

3.2.2.1 *Investigating language use through the socialising process*

This section deals explicitly with socialising as a process and as an approach to the investigation of language use. Socialising is a theme that informs aspects of both research questions (see 4.2). More specifically, when language use is the vehicle and the goal of that socialisation act then the topic of investigation is language socialisation (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). On the one hand, the language socialisation approach is the exploration of the language people use and how that use enables or hinders their socialising in a particular context. That context might be a community, a school, or a classroom. On the other hand, the language socialisation approach includes the investigation of individuals' participation in socioculturally embedded activities and whether that participation can partially shape the language skills that are employed and eventually acquired.

Language socialisation both as a theoretical and as a methodological perspective initially focused upon the exploration of children's first and sometimes second language socialising in various societies (Heath, 1983; Schieffelin, 1990; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986; Watson, 1975). However, it quickly expanded into SLL classrooms, focusing on both oral (Harklau, 1994) and written language (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995). Language socialisation research in SLL classrooms has

been undertaken within different levels of education, from university learners (Poole, 1992) to kindergarten students (Kanagy, 1999).

In the context of classrooms, even the minimum participation of the learners is considered to be enough for production, in collaboration, of course, with the teacher in order to understand the discourse (Willes, 2012). To facilitate this participation, teachers often offer models for their learners to imitate. Learners will either imitate in order to please the teacher and receive positive feedback, something which is not always well-received by the teachers, or they will use imitation as an initial step towards understanding enough of what is happening around them to be able to engage in tentative, initial participation (*ibid*). The positive side of this type of participation is also demonstrated by research, which shows that by being socially included in school life, language learners are motivated and have more interactional opportunities with their interlocutors, where they observe, mime and repeat behaviours they have witnessed recurrently in various circumstances (Hawkins, 2004). This participation, even if it sometimes does not produce any linguistic output, leads the way to a more fertile ground where actual learning can take place. Ultimately, such kind of participation prevents disappointment and negative outcomes through children's adjustment (Le Pinchon, 2010; Morita, 2000; Schecter & Bayley, 1997).

The socialising process and its effect on language learning process and language use has been foregrounded by the studies mentioned in previous paragraphs. The following sections illustrate more specifically several elements of the context that influence how language learners socialise through language use. The importance of context is once again highlighted and believed to influence the use of language significantly.

Interactional types

The initial context element that has been extensively researched in language socialisation line of inquiry is the type of interaction through which language is used. Each type of interaction addresses different people, at different times and in different settings.

One such type of interaction is the instructional type. The instructional type of interaction is the interaction that is used most extensively inside classrooms. Different instructional language uses were revealed by the ethnographic study of Harklau (1994) conducted at a high school in California. The findings illustrated that the instruction in the low track classroom emphasised literal comprehension and decoding. On the other hand, in the high track classroom instructions emphasised reading instruction, the comprehension of content and the instrumental use of reading towards further analysis.

Other kinds of interaction types related to classroom practices were researched by Toohey and Day (1998). They employed an ethnographic study in Canadian mainstream primary classrooms, arguing that the use of choral speech such as poems, chants, songs and rhythms were activities that facilitated language learners' participation. On the other hand, types of interactions that caused difficulties and received no or minimal participation from the language learners were teacher-led practices such as IRF (Interaction-Response-Feedback) discussions and small-group discussions. There was no mention of whether there were any interviews conducted with the language learners that could provide information about the way they were experiencing class practices.

Interactional types related to disciplinary behaviour have also been researched. Cekaite (2007) with his longitudinal study stressed that the more novice learners developed their linguistic resources and the more they were able to fulfil classroom activities, the more they were found to follow the rules of the classroom, and the less they would contradict their teachers and be the object of teasing by their expert peers. Harklau (1994) also investigated the types of interactions that could be avoided or lengthened based on whether the behaviour of the learners was disciplined. Teachers in high track classes would rarely feel the need to control student talk or activities in general, and this facilitated the organisation of group work and debates, providing more opportunities for extended talk among peers. In low track classes, teachers spent more time on asserting their authority and policing learners' behaviour. Consequently, this led to activities such as individual deskwork that afforded minimum spoken language use or exposure during

classroom time. The influence of group work was also investigated by Kanagy's (1999) study, which demonstrated that throughout group work activities, language learners observed and modelled their peers' actions and language.

Finally, Vickers (2007), investigating an advanced language learner in science and engineering courses, argued that four specific types of interactional events helped Ramelan (the advanced language learner) move from a peripheral to a core member of the engineering course activities. These interactional moves were: the provision of access to observations of core members interacting; the scaffolding he was receiving by other core members both inside the lab and in the team meetings; the funny interactions initiated by core members; and eventually the provision of opportunities for successful design experiences as well as for chances to explain these design processes to others.

Various interlocutors

Interactional types are a major characteristic of the context that, as has been claimed, can influence language use and the socialising process to a great extent. However, the person being addressed also has the potential to greatly affect the socialising level a person reaches in a host community. The interlocutors are considered to be an indispensable source of information and therefore an important aspect of this investigation.

Teacher-learner exchanges through teacher-fronted and student-centred interactions were investigated by Poole (1992). The investigation of the typical teacher-fronted interactions showed that the most common accommodations made by the teachers were: the use of test questions (referring to the ones to which the teacher has an answer in mind); the forming of incomplete sentence frames; the request of expansions; and eventually scaffolding that can include a wide variety of interactional forms, such as rephrasing or simplifying a task. On the other hand, in student-centred interactions, students took the centre stage while the teacher maintained an accommodating stance, in a style very different from the teacher-fronted example. The findings of the teacher-learner interactions illustrated that the teacher offered assistance only when students seemed uncertain of what to say.

Particular accommodations that were made consciously by the teachers in teacher-learner interactions were explored by Willett (1995). Willett's (1995) research focused on four first grade ESL learners in a mainstream classroom in the US and reported that classroom teachers' continual re-enactment of morning classroom activities and teachers' highly predictable talk resulted in ESL learners' gradually increasing participation. He used a research project that was particularly strong methodologically due to the many years spent in the field and the plurality of methods used. ESL learners were able to give one-word answers, echo answers given by peers, or even announce whenever they would finish an activity (mainly boys). Similarly, Kanagy (1999) investigated the use of routines in teacher-students interactions. The particular use of routines by the teacher served as a mechanism for socialising and language use by kindergarten children in a Japanese immersion school. Using the social frame of three daily routines – greeting, attendance, and personal introduction – the teacher and the language learners achieved a higher level of participation and more extensive use of the target language.

Apart from the accommodations made in teacher-learner interactions, there have been a number of studies to observe the stances and feelings of the interlocutors and their impact on the students' socialising. Godwin and Perkins' study (2002) demonstrated that the teacher-learner interactions facilitated language learners' participation inside the classroom once the teachers were able to make them feel confident and independent in their own learning. Teachers managed to boost language learners' confidence and independence by modelling language use by using children's own experiences and existing knowledge and eventually through verbal encouragement. This resulted in the students' increasing involvement in classroom activities. Likewise, Harklau (1994) stressed that teachers' low expectations affected the opportunities and exposure novice learners had to instructional language or peer interaction in terms of workload and participation. It was argued that this is the reason why the majority of novice learners would work silently on individual tasks.

Willett (1995) was also one of the few to investigate the social relationship and

interactions between the language support personnel and language learners. It was suggested that their language use when helping ESL learners presented particular similarities to the classroom teachers' language use. This use included slower speech rate, pausing longer, using emphatic tone, mime, pictures, rephrasing, repetition, and circumlocutions. Afterwards, they would begin giving ESL learners greater roles in the interactions, asking them to read the instructions and decompose a problem together.

Meanwhile, studies in this line of research were also concerned with peer-to-peer interactions and how these informed both the social relationships among peers and the language socialising of the language learners. Quite discouraging to peer-to-peer interactions were the two following studies. Toohey (1998) suggested that when language learners were positioned away from peers with whom they were sharing the same L1, they missed the opportunity to ask an older ESL student to help them through a particular activity. Additionally, it was claimed that the more students lend or borrow material, the better the relationships that were established and the more they would participate in classroom activities. However, the sharing of intellectual resources seemed to socially distance language learners from their peers. Helping among students for a particular task was commonly perceived by the students as an inappropriate practice that implied a negative stance whereby language learners were perceived as copying or repeating their peers' work or words. Students in the class became much more physically vigilant about protecting their written work from other peers. Hostile relationships were also found among Harklau's (1994) participants towards immigrant students, probably due to racial tensions, or due to their inability to speak in the class. This resulted in infrequent peer interaction, where various discourse forms could be negotiated and this heightened language learners' isolation, limiting their opportunities to speak the target language.

By contrast, Willett's (1995) exploration of peer-to-peer interactions, claimed that even if teamwork was an activity that was not officially authorised in the classroom, there were many instances where one child would help another. They would use chunks they had picked up from adult/child interactions. However, these chunks

would be used more playfully, and provide more discourse roles that would lead to longer interactions. The ESL learners of this study seemed to be fairly able to socialise, interact and establish social bonds with others and at the same time display their own identities as competent students. Similarly, Siraj-Blatchford and Clarke's (2000) findings demonstrated that when the children felt they were socially supported by their peers, this boosted their confidence and they were more willing to participate. Finally, Cekaite and Aronsson's (2005) investigation of everyday L2 interactions in a Swedish immersion classroom reported that peer-to-peer interactions were characterised by serious and non-serious peer teaching, such as repair work, word definitions and explanations of language use. Moreover, language learners explored several levels of grammar and recurrently employed form-focused language play, which also increased the attention they received from their peers.

Eventually, Iddings (2005) investigated the invisible communities (Spanish-speaking students) found among the students of a multilingual elementary classroom. One of these communities included English language learners and the other included the English dominant students. This study argued that even if teachers tend to view the classroom as a single site, students might view it and experience it as a multi-sited context in which language socialising may or may not take place. In this particular case, this multi-sited context had a direct effect on the interactions occurring between peers, where very little L2 socialisation was actually happening, thus language learners were not able to gain access to the language, due to their peers.

Learners' individuality

Apart from the types of interactions and the people we are addressing, language use is often influenced by the individual who is using the language. All three are intertwined elements of the general context that deeply influences language use through the socialising act. A learner's individuality, linguistic and cultural background, previous educational experiences, understandings and knowledge are

considered as an informative aspect of the investigation and of understanding language use.

Pease-Alvarez (2002) conducted a seven-year language socialising study with bilingual Spanish-English speakers, and argued that over the passing of time, the way learners would use language to socialise was greatly influenced by how the actual learners perceived ‘success’, ‘good’ identity, and ‘good socialising’. In addition, the home background of every individual learner seemed to affect the way they perceived an appropriate identity for them, and eventually this also affected their use of language in school.

A small case study by Pagett (2006), conducted in the west of England, indicated that the language used by language novices was often based on which part of their self they wanted to project. The findings illustrated that ESL learners avoided using their L1 or code switch in school to avoid the social distance that might be generated between them and their fellow pupils. However, in their homes they would speak their mother tongue after their parents’ insistence to maintain their language and culture of origin.

In Barnard’s (2005) study, it was suggested that in order to avoid the aforementioned behaviour, cooperation between language learners’ parents and teachers should be promoted to bridge the languaculture challenges (knowledge of grammar and vocabulary but also past knowledge, local and cultural information, habits and behaviours). The researcher asserted that by acknowledging the particular linguistic and cultural distance between the home country and the host country of each individual language learner, the more empowerment, control and responsibility is given to each learner’s education. Similarly, Yoon’s (2007) study in two mainstream classrooms in the USA presented two different approaches towards the individuality of each learner. One of the teachers would rarely ask ESL students to share their experiences or information about their cultural background. As a result, ESL learners were disengaged and were rarely motivated or able to participate in any of the classroom activities. This situation had a direct impact on

the social relationships of ESL learners with the rest of the students, who did not welcome them, and this led to their isolation. On the other hand, the second teacher expressed her responsibility to teach ESL learners; she celebrated the multiculturalism of the class and encouraged learners' participation by asking them to share their own experiences. She would also try to promote acceptability by the rest of the class by pairing an ESL learner with a native speaker, and exploit multiculturalism as a source of knowledge for the whole class. The ESL learners of the second class acted as powerful participants in the classroom activities while they were also accepted as a part of the community as time went by. The particularly detailed information given in this study may be due to the methodological design, which included interviews with the language learners themselves, not only with the teachers. Embracing the diverse background that language learners bring with them in the mainstream classroom was also supported by the exploratory study conducted in six high schools, again in the US, by Lucas et al. (1990).

To sum up, these studies seem to reflect that the types of interactions, the interlocutors of each interaction, as well as the individuality of each learner involved in the interaction are all elements of the context that may influence the use of language and eventually language learners' participation in academic and social activities inside the classroom. This participation eventually helps language learners become competent members of the classroom, inside which they use language resourcefully. The following section will focus more specifically on the act of communication.

3.2.2.2 Investigating language use through the communication process

The previous subsection 3.3.2.1 presented the study of the use of language through the socialisation process. Nevertheless, these studies were investigating the use of language, by either the learners or the teachers, which aimed at the increase of in socialisation of those people in that given community. Socialising, however, does not always serve educational purposes. The extent of learners' participation is not a sign of their comprehension (Willes, 2012). There are

numerous moments inside the context of the classroom where a learner could ask comprehension questions, but does not because his conversational rights are limited in a typical classroom (Willes, 2012). Thus, he does not achieve comprehension, and learning is minimised. This section deals with previous studies that have approached language use through a communication act that was aimed towards more educational purposes. Almost any kind of experience that engages learners in meaningful interactions is assumed to promote opportunities for learning a target language (Pica, 1987). However, it has been argued (Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Pica, 1987) that when learners modify their conversations to achieve mutual understanding, as happens in communication interactions, then the opportunities for both language use and learning are enhanced considerably. Communication is another theme, along with socialising, which also informs aspects of my two research questions (see 4.2).

There has been a shift from perceiving language solely as a specific set of forms towards viewing language as a functional system (Tarone & Yule, 1989). Due to the fact that language is now viewed as a functional system, the learning of language is channelled through the use of language, and that use of language is described as communicative competence. Leaver et al. (2005), in their book *Achieving success in second language acquisition*, made the distinctive differentiation between knowledge and communicative competence. They explain that knowledge refers to the situation when a person is aware of the grammar and vocabulary of the target language. However, the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary are only the baseline for a person to use the language and develop communicative competence. This is the main reason why people who have very limited grammatical and vocabulary knowledge are sometimes able to use a language, whilst others who have more extensive knowledge fail to communicate with native speakers or other interlocutors.

The discussion in this section deals with the way language is used to reach mutual understanding. Particular importance is given to the context, since in order for communication to take place and achieve mutual comprehension, information is drawn from the links between the various means used along with the numerous

details found in their context (Dickson, 1981).

Interactional modifications

One imperative element of the context, and therefore an informative aspect of this investigation, is the interactional accommodations made by the participants of a conversation to achieve successful communication. Interactional modifications or communication strategies refer to the various conscious or unconscious actions made by an individual to make his or her message more comprehensible to another individual (Tarone & Yule, 1989). These modifications have managed to attract a significant amount of interest related to the investigation of language use through the communication act. Communication strategies that teachers employ with ESL learners in their classes have been examined by the qualitative study of Hite and Evans (2006). Data were collected through surveys and interviews, including practising first grade teachers from Florida. Regardless of the fact that the findings of the study were not cross-referenced with the actual practices of the participants inside the classrooms, the study revealed informative aspects of language use. Teachers concurrently used visuals, manipulatives, repetition, tried to simplify their speech, modified the material used and avoided the use of idioms or figurative language and avoided making assumptions about what their ESL learners knew. Moreover, teacher or student modelling was also found to help facilitate the language learners in comprehending an instructional talk. Teachers also encouraged peer assistance between native speakers or more advanced ESL learners with other ESL learners. Finally, teachers used ESL learners to provide assistance through translating. Repetition, non-verbal demonstrations and praise were also found equally useful in Kanagy's (1999) investigation. Moll (1988), through observations of one Spanish-English bilingual and one English monolingual teacher of a fifth grade classroom, further demonstrated the use of clarifications, expansions and monitoring of students' understanding. The use of visual aids and the reduction of speed was additionally supported by a more recent ethnographic study by Long (2002) in a mainstream primary classroom in Iceland. The study was solely based upon one participant and showed that language learners seemed to experience difficulties when the teacher talk contained puns,

sarcasm, or irony. Some teachers, regardless of the lack of training, knew from experience to place L2 students in desks close to the front of the room so they could scan students' faces for signs of confusion, and use extremely explicit directives and transitions. Ultimately, the use of familiar language, routines, and altering the tone of voice activated language learners' prior content understanding by using topics of their everyday life, and facilitated language learners' comprehension of classroom language use.

A distinctive kind of interactional modification from the aforementioned is code switching. This has been investigated mostly in bilingual studies as a competence in understanding (whether the language learners had accomplished a specific proficiency level in both varieties to be able to code switch) and less frequently in the SLL field as a learning and communicative strategy. A study with first-year learners of Danish (Arnfast & Jorgensen, 2003) claimed that it is an increasingly sophisticated linguistic skill that is used throughout interactions even at the very early stages of learning a language. The findings illustrated that learners code switched when they were presented with shortcomings in the target language and they used their L1 to clarify, check, or comment. Thus, code switching serves as the mechanism that fills in the gaps in the learner's L2 vocabulary and serves social negotiation purposes.

Interlocutors

Despite the fact that the previous subsection presented a rich amount of information regarding the communication strategies found either in teacher-learner interactions or in peer-to-peer interactions, this subsection specifically highlights the distinctive characteristics of language use that are employed based on who is the interlocutor. The participants are an integral part of the context and ultimately the communication process, and manage to affect deeply the language that is used by both the receiver and the transmitter of the message.

A by-product of the analysis of the research conducted by Wilhelm et al. (2004 as cited in Mohr & Mohr, 2007) is the discussion presented in Mohr and Mohr's article (2007). In this article, it is argued that mainstream classroom teachers missed a number of opportunities to help Spanish-speaking immigrant students to communicate inside the class, not allowing them to be fully involved in oral interactions. Some of the reasons that seemed to hinder this communication were the poor repertoire of question formation, emphasising the need for teachers to rephrase their questions and the restricted waiting time for the students to provide them with an answer. Also, the lack of students' motivation to communicate by not being able to create a community of respect and acceptability among all students was also another hindering factor. Eventually, teachers tended to forget possible differences between the home culture of the students and the culture of their host country. Teachers' consideration of the linguistic and cultural knowledge and experience each learner brings along was also supported by Lucas et al.'s (1990) investigation in seven high schools in California and Arizona with ESL learners. Finally, the need for teachers' talk modification in the regular class of students with limited English proficiency was also highlighted in the survey conducted with classroom teachers by Penfield (1987). Penfield stressed that in classrooms, in order to modify their speech accordingly, teachers needed proper training.

Regarding whom adolescent students were addressing, the qualitative study of Macintyre et al. (2011) reported that students felt much more willing to communicate when speaking to their teachers, but not when teachers were considered too critical. Students also seemed to be willing to communicate with their peers, especially when they were also fellow immersion students. However, language learners seemed to avoid communicating with other immersion students if that meant their exclusion by the other peers or if it caused teasing from other peers with whom they did not share the same L1. Finally, it was reported that the immersion students were happy to be mentored or have the role of mentor while communicating, but error corrections had to be handled with attentiveness so that no unpleasant feelings would be generated.

Peer-to-peer communication was also explored by Moll (1988), Garcia (1983) and Hite and Evans (2006). Hite and Evans (2006) reported that language learners were spontaneous when paired with native-speaking students and other language learners working together on their own, indicating the ease in peer-to-peer interactions that is often absent from teacher-to-peer interactions. Moll (1988) and Garcia (1983) stressed the general importance in language use and development that can be accomplished through peer-to-peer interactions.

Learner's individuality

The last element of the context that is considered informative for investigating language use through the communication act is the learner's individuality. Individuality consists of different distinctive features, one of which is the cultural and linguistic background of each learner. Individual difficulties faced by L2 learners when trying to communicate in the target language might stem from the gap between the languages and cultures of their country of origin and of their host country (Blum-Kulka, 1982). Blum-Kulka (1982) found differences in the social appropriateness of language use and the linguistic realisation of particular forms of languages that may be governed by different conventions of usage. Also, differences were found in marking that refers to the linguistic devices that carry a different force based on the context in which they are used. Mitigating and aggravating (as language usages) were the final two devices in which differences were found, which refer to the intentional softening or increasing of the force of the message. All of these differences, which are inextricably linked to the context, may negatively influence language use and the communication act.

Another individual difference affecting the communication act is the willingness or not to use a target language and communicate through it. Hashimoto's (2002) socio-educational study with Japanese ESL students claimed that motivation, along with the willingness to communicate were the two main causes for the target language use inside classrooms. In addition, the higher the language learners' self-confidence was, the more frequently L2 use was observed. However, L2 anxiety was proven to have a negative influence on motivation and willingness to use L2 in

the classroom. While the previous study did not compare its interviews' findings with what was actually happening inside the classroom, Zhong (2013) used a number of instruments (in-depth interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, learning logs) and argued that Chinese language learners in a New Zealand language school were willing to communicate and use the target language in collaborative learning situations, supporting the argument that willingness was context embedded. When the learners were communicating with teachers they seemed to be reticent due to a mixture of linguistic, affective and sociocultural factors such as concern for accuracy, learners' perceived self-efficacy and fear of losing the social position they were holding in that context.

Once more, due to the broadness of investigation provided by language use research instead of language competence, elements of context, such as interactional modifications, interlocutors and individuality of the interlocutors were examined. The discussion presented here reveals a number of input modifications undertaken either by the mainstream teachers or language teachers that facilitated the comprehension of language learners and led to successful communication processes. These accommodations enhanced language learners' motivation to communicate, enabled the development of social relations among the language learners and created a community of respect for sharing and learning. Finally, they stressed the importance of the underlying perceptions held by the practitioners when educating linguistically, and culturally diverse students, and their impact on successful communication among them. One limitation of these studies is that they had not taken into account the setting of the playground and the language used in it. The following section deals with the work that has done so and presents the information related to the language use in that particular setting.

3.2.3 Investigating language use in the playground

Language and play are critical to Vygotsky's theory of how higher mental activities such as thinking, reasoning, and voluntary attention derive from interaction and participation in social life (Vygotsky, 1981; Wertsch, 1991). This is the main reason why language use through play has also been theoretically supported by neo-Vygotskyan theories of sociocultural learning. Apart from the theoretical support,

research findings have also reinforced this claim. García Sánchez (2006) argues that language is essential for social life as one of the primary tools used to mediate all human mental activities, while play creates its own zone of proximal development for the child. Language use in social settings – such as the playground - has also been discussed extensively by Cummins (1984; 2000). Cummins suggests that the playground is a context-embedded setting in which conversation participants can negotiate meaning in face-to-face interactions, where paralinguistic and situational information are provided making comprehension much easier. On the other hand, in a context-reduced setting, like a school classroom, language learners have to be aware of the exact meaning of the wording used so that misunderstandings and communication failures are avoided; otherwise there will be more serious consequences than in the playground (*ibid*). Cummins formalised the distinction between the two different kinds of language use in these two different settings. He referred to it as a continuum between the basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and the cognitive-academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1984). Cummins claims that BICS is usually acquired much faster than CALP, since the former refers to pragmatic communicative skills, which are developed rather rapidly, while the latter refers to relatively superficial aspects, based on which educators evaluate language learners' proficiency (*ibid*). Moreover, Cummins argues that these language learners tend to receive help in the early stages, when in fact they are managing to learn the basic language to communicate, but that they do not receive the help that they need later on when they need to develop CALP (*ibid*). Since play and social interaction occur mostly outside in the playground rather than inside in the classroom, it is perceived as a shortcoming not to take into serious consideration the context of the playground as well. The setting of the playground informs the aspects of the first research question (see 4.2).

One of the initial studies in the field that explored language play in the playground dates back to the 1970s. Fillmore (1976) was one of the first to explore the cognitive and social factors that facilitated children's language use and learning in naturalistic settings, such as the playground. She stressed the importance of peer social interaction in the playground setting because the language used there is

highly predictable, repetitious, and embedded in context. The repetitive nature of play interactions and copying models demonstrated from other interlocutors (experts) and its importance in achieving effective participation in joining social activities and to socialise children into communicative competence was also supported by the studies conducted by García Sánchez (2006) and Pinter (2006). They claimed that play as an activity allows for mirroring and imitation and provides the prerequisites for language use and eventually SLL.

The language use of language learners in the playground and their success in doing so was explored by Ervin-Tripp (1986). She argued that the use of language by language learners was developed and expanded in the playground because the topics were children-chosen, based on here and now, and due to the fact that they included physical activity, language learners' use of language could be scaffolded from the language used by their peers. The context-embedded nature of playground interactions was further investigated by Blum-Kulka and Snow (2004). They argued that language learners manage to pick up the language in real life contexts and not in fictional ones, such as the ones created in the classroom, through particularly organised oral activities, and communicate in pragmatically appropriate ways.

Finally, Goodwin (1998) and García Sánchez (2006) both showed that speech activities become more elaborate in the playground since children are able to engage in linguistic practices such as mocking, arguing and insulting that are actively discouraged by adults. Goodwin (1998) also argued that game settings constitute an excellent opportunity to investigate how children establish social hierarchies, construct conflict and eventually acquire the linguistic skills and resources through which power is constructed (García Sánchez, 2006). Likewise, Rogoff (1994) claimed that children manage to contribute to each other's learning, since through play in contexts, such as the playground, they can experiment not only with the meaning of rules of the actual games but also with the meaning of sociocultural rules in other daily-based domains.

The data and findings related to playground interactions seem to agree upon one particular conclusion: the main reason for all the effort put into playground

interactions seems to be the strong motivation language learners have, which is their wish to play and make friends. The sociocultural studies that have been conducted either inside the classroom or outside in the playground provide us with unquestionable and multidimensional insights about the SLL process and language use. Nevertheless, it is extremely surprising that studies, which have investigated the language use of the language learners inside the classroom and outside in the playground at the same time, are quite rare.

3.3 Multilingualism and social justice in contemporary contexts

During the 19th and early 20th centuries, language education was used as an instrument to promote the ‘one-nation-one-language’ paradigm for developing what was considered back then as a strong, homogenous nation where diverse linguistic groups were assimilated (Wright, 2004). However, this myth, and the overall worldview on multilingualism, has changed dramatically. Throughout the last century there has been a remarkable increase in immigration, where people come into contact with many different linguistic and cultural communities all over the world. In previous years it was considered that monolingual countries were the norm, while in reality multilingual countries are the norm rather than the exception (Dutcher, 2004). Dutcher states that in a world where more than 6,000 languages and perhaps 6,000 more sign languages exist, having residents of one country who speak only one language is fairly impossible. One such example of a newly multilingual country is Cyprus, as has been described in Chapter 2.

Researchers from various fields such as the disciplines of anthropology (Sorensen, 1967), psycholinguism and sociolinguism (Blommaert, Collins & Slembrouck, 2005) have for some time been fascinated by the complexity of the linguistic repertoires of various speech communities around the globe as well as the functions of those linguistic varieties.

In the previous sections 3.2 and 3.3, the discussion was focused upon the way an additional language is used and learned by an individual at various ages. Furthermore, it was discussed how this is represented in the mind, how it facilitates or hinders the socialisation process in a given community and eventually whether

comprehension and educational goals are achieved. Nevertheless, language is not a phenomenon that influences and affects only the individual, but also society. The following subsections deal with multilingualism as it is represented in educational contexts and the way language learners and teachers choose and use various linguistic varieties in those multilingual communities. Finally, it will be argued that the vast majority of the research conducted in this domain has repeatedly ignored various aspects of social justice towards language learners and, most importantly, it has failed to consider the various stages of proficiencies language learners undergo. Multilingualism is a topic that informs features of the third sub-questions of research questions 1 and 2 (see 4.2).

3.3.1 Multilingualism in educational contexts

Based on the aforementioned information, it is no surprise that multilingualism is not only present but holds the majority percentage among the schools across Europe. Tuijl et al. (2001) and Hanson et al. (2003), through their studies conducted with children aged four to six and seven to 12 years old respectively, indicate the large percentages of children from Turkish and Moroccan immigrant groups in the Dutch schools. Lasagabaster (2008) also reports various studies including 12 different countries in Europe with a multilingual student population, while at the same time he presents a study that was conducted in multilingual secondary schools in the Basque country.

Due to their intense linguistic and cultural diversity, these schools and others like them are faced not only with linguistic but also social challenges, for which they are ill prepared (Sridhar, 1996). This is the reason why it is argued here that the investigation of language use should incorporate the investigation of societal aspects. Even though schools and education cannot directly influence social changes, the way we think and use various linguistic varieties unconsciously forms particular stances and attitudes towards them, and allocates roles to particular varieties and the population who speaks or uses them (Lemke, 2002).

3.3.1.1 *Multilingual educational programmes adopted around the world*

More specifically, Ioannidou and Sophocleous (2010), discussing the choices and uses of various linguistic varieties inside the multilingual classroom, argue that there is a multidimensional conflict between the language of instruction and the other linguistic varieties that students bring. This conflict refers to the demand by the students to develop competency of the written form of the instructional linguistic code through literacy. In this way, they can become effective communicators in the instructional code and eventually this code has to manage to provide a stimulating linguistic environment for them. However, the majority of these language learners are young in age and often do not have any prior exposure to any schooling practices that have to do with text or print, either in their mother tongue or in other languages (Hawkins, 2004b). This particular feature creates further complexity and difficulty in what language learners have to face. Due to this complexity, many researchers have investigated various programmes being applied across the globe. Here, I summarise the four main approaches related to teaching foreign language students, from which education authorities typically choose, as identified by Moore (1999).

The first approach assigns to a regular class with no support, a practice that is found when there are quite a few language minority students in each class (Moore, 1999). One such case is described in the ethnographic study conducted by Duff (2002) in Canadian high schools. Data from social studies courses indicated that the teacher would deliberately allocate turns through classroom discussions to language learners, to provide them with opportunities to make connections based on their own personal cultural and linguistic backgrounds and experiences. The language learners would not produce elaborate personal responses because they were afraid of being humiliated by the rest of their classmates. Thus, even on occasions when the teachers made efforts to provide a fertile educational context for all students, even if the classroom did not support language learners' L1 use, language learners rarely took the opportunity to use the target language even if it meant presenting their own linguistic and cultural background to bring the rest of the pupils closer to them. These classes are part of the submersive system, which refers to the situation where the school is based on a monolingual scheme that

does not include in its curriculum any of the mother tongues of other subgroups of children (Le Pinchon, 2010). It refers to the actual schooling experience of these minority language students, who due to the fact that they do not speak the language of the majority, since they find themselves in the specific countries, they have no other choice but to attend a school that has as a language of instruction a language that they have not yet mastered. What is even more intriguing is the fact that submersive schooling often finds itself linked with 'a sinking process' (Le Pinchon, 2010, p. 6) since it often results in poor educational achievement for these children, leading to early school drop-out, lower income, higher unemployment rate, and the enhanced likelihood of juvenile delinquency.

The second approach describes the situation where language learners are assigned to a mainstream classroom but they receive additional help through pull-out sessions with a language support teacher (Moore, 1999). A research study that collected data from such a programme was one conducted in New Zealand by Barnard (2005). The four language learners-participants of the study were placed in mainstream classrooms with a few hours of English language tuition throughout each week in withdrawal classes, which is mainly the case in New Zealand's primary schools. Barnard argued that those children received inadequate education, and in order for the learners to bridge the linguistic and cultural gap between them and their classmates there was a need for cooperation between the immigrant parents and the teachers. Equally Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006) claimed disappointing findings in Ireland, who stated that pull-out sessions were conducted by a number of language support teachers that was quite disparate compared to the number of EAL learners that they were assigned to. They claimed that the unequal nature of the support teacher provision was due to the funding rules set by the government as well as how these rules were applied in each school. The great majority of support teachers who were interviewed had diverse training and educational backgrounds and had participated in at least one training seminar related to EAL students. Whilst they all agreed to having access to the curriculum materials and training handbook, they were also asked to be responsible for other school and community affairs. The particular study based its findings almost exclusively on one research method: individual semi-structured

interviews. Nevertheless, it argues that based on the findings extracted, it was quite obvious that the Irish government policy appeared to deal with the issue of EAL learners as if it was something short term.

The third approach refers to a situation where the learner remains inside the mainstream classroom but he or she receives assistance from a language support teacher (Moore, 1999). Smyth (2006) investigated the use of L1s with bilingual learners of all ages in a primary school in Scotland and claimed that the use of EAL learners' L1s in play activities inside the class enabled them to bring their own cultural knowledge and facilitated their cooperation with other students and teaching personnel. The use of L1s was of course possible due to the existence of English language support teachers and provided insightful information since those learners took initiatives, took control and developed in ways which their teachers did not expect, and this eventually led to their cognitive, social and cultural development.

The fourth approach is the case where the mother tongue of the learner is used for instruction (Moore, 1999). One example of such instruction was investigated by Martin-Jones and Saxena (1996) who examined the bilingual support provided to language learners in primary schools in Britain. Regardless of the variation in practice from school to school, bilingual support in the UK entails the occasional use of learners' L1, or community language, or sometimes even both, along with English use in particular teaching/learning events across the class's curriculum. The findings of this ethnographic study, based on very rich data, were insightful as to how the policy of bilingual practitioners was translated in two different classes. It seems that bilingual practitioners were placed as assistants, while the mainstream teachers seemed to view languages and use of bilingual resources as an extracurricular activity and not something inextricably linked with the class's everyday life. Finally, both mainstream teachers agreed that the main objective of bilingual practitioners' work was to provide access to the curriculum for the minority language learners until they had developed sufficient confidence in the target language. More positive results were given by a more recent study, which focused upon the relations between the mainstream teachers and the English language

support teachers in the Midlands and west of England (Gardner, 2006). The findings indicated their full teaching partnership and showed that their collaboration increased as time passed, providing a much richer linguistic environment for the bilingual students. Another bilingual educational success is the story of Singapore. Dixon reports that Singapore embraced an officially bilingual education policy, where English is the medium of all content-area education, while students' official L1 is a compulsory single subject (Dixon, 2009). The students' mother tongues that are taught in schools are Mandarin for Chinese, Malay for Malays and Tamil for Dravidian-speaking Indians. For Indians who speak non-Dravidian languages at home, Hindi, Punjabi, Bengali, Urdu and Gujarati are offered as options for mother tongue study in weekend classes. Singapore's education system has gained worldwide recognition, making it a fascinating case study of government language planning.

3.3.1.2 *Juxtaposition of linguistic varieties*

Apart from the various multilingual programmes implemented in a number of countries with diverse student populations, information regarding the use of languages in these settings is also provided by studies which focused particularly on the possibility of linguistic varieties' juxtaposition. One of the few studies that investigated the juxtaposition of languages and the particular use of the minority students' L1 both inside the classroom and in the playground was Bourne's (2001) study in the UK. Bourne claimed that the use of L1 was regular in a variety of discursive practices inside and outside the classroom. She observed that the existence of heteroglossia inside the school was not solely imposed by the teacher on the pupils, but it was also jointly constructed through a complex of interactions and among several interlocutors. She also made explicit that the existence and use of minority students' L1s in primary schools was present regardless of whether it was supported by official policies or not. These findings support the claim of a number of scholars who argue that juxtaposition is natural in multilingual classrooms and that teachers should harness and build upon the multilingual competence of their students (Conteh, 2012; Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

In contrast to the above, in one of the few studies found to use creative methods (drawings) with young participants, Pagett (2006) explored language learners' experiences at schools in the west of England and found that code switching was rarely observed between language learners and their family members who worked in collaboration with mainstream teachers. The findings indicated the extensive use of English, which was the target language of the school, as a desire to bridge the social gap between them and their friends at school. These results indicate the extent to which English was valued and rewarded both institutionally and socially. The study by Pagett (2006) is a testimony of Creese and Blackledge's (2010) argument, that varieties' juxtaposition is a practice that is embedded into the sociopolitical and historical environment as well as the local ecologies of schools and classrooms.

In this subsection, a presentation of the dominant multilingual schemes found across the globe has been reviewed, focusing especially on various linguistic varieties used either by the teachers or the language learners. Moreover, factors influencing the choices and uses of those varieties have also been highlighted. Finally, the possibility of the juxtaposition of the available languages in those multilingual educational contexts has been considered. Nevertheless, this discussion has not considered how social justice is maintained for the language learners as well as whether their various proficiency levels in various languages are addressed.

3.3.2 School as a context where social issues are both advocated and perpetuated

Regardless of the fact that multilingual and multicultural settings have been investigated quite extensively across the globe, these studies do not always consider a number of social justice aspects. Theoharis (2007, p. 223) argues that social justice is a process through which educators and educational leaders "make issues of race, class, gender, disability, sexual orientation, and other historically and currently marginalising conditions a central point to their own advocacy, practice, leadership and vision". The reason for the choice of this definition is due to the attention given to the prevention of marginalisation of any group of students.

On the one hand, the school may be advocating for social justice through its use of language in its official policies, curriculum, and sometimes through its practice. However, there are occasions where the school, through its hidden curriculum, inadvertently causes injustice through the use of language. These highlight the need for different social groups, with different views on society to be maintained through education (Walker, 2003). The consideration of this line of research advocates the viewing of language use beyond the process of translation and language competence, beyond the communication or socialisation acts seen before, since issues of a more societal character should be taken into consideration.

Nowadays, as classrooms become more linguistically diverse, it is a great challenge to educate all students equitably and meaningfully (García & Sylvan, 2011). Imposing one school-standardised language without providing any flexibility of norms or practices means that the learners whose L1 practices show the greatest distance from the standardised one will be disadvantaged (García & Sylvan, 2011). Edelsky (2006) conducted two studies 'trying to study a minority language and whether this entailed different strategies than was the case for minority speakers learning a dominant language. In the first study, the findings showed that mutual SLL was not happening, despite the fact that the conditions were optimal. Even if Spanish served as the vehicle of instruction, the relative political positioning of the two languages led to learners tuning out of hearing Spanish. In the second study, even though it was in a different classroom with different circumstances, mutual SLL was not occurring due to many social factors, and not because of absence or of individual failure. Edelsky (2006) explained that in both cases, mutual SLL was achieved due to the condition of markedness. Markedness is one form of social injustice in our educational system that explains why only one language usually becomes the target language.

García and Leiva (2014) argue that in order to reduce the phenomenon of dominant languages the pedagogical practice of 'translanguaging' might be effective. Translanguage is the practice where learners are asked to alternate various linguistic varieties for the purposes of reading and writing or for receptive or

productive use (García & Leiva, 2014). This term refers to the flexible use of linguistic resources by bilinguals in order to make sense of their worlds. It has been applied in classrooms because of its potential in liberating the voices of language-minoritized learners; for example, where the US Latinos, through translanguaging, managed to present the alternative of performing a dynamic bilingualism. The results of its application have minimised the constraints of both an “Anglophone” ideology, which demands English monolingualism from US citizens and a “Hispanophone” ideology, which blames them for speaking Spanglish (García & Leiva, 2014).

The application of the translanguaging pedagogical practice goes hand in hand with raising the awareness of those in educational multilingual settings as to who multilingual and bilingual learners really are (Gibbons, 1991). Bilingual or multilingual children are capable of operating in more than one language domain, but that does not mean they have full competence in any of their languages (Gibbons, 1991). Conteh (2003), in an effort to explain further what the notion of ‘bilingual children’ includes, contends that they may be at the very early stages of developing skills or expertise instead of actually knowing what a new language entails. Similarly, Blommaert, Collins and Slembrouck (2005), reflecting on data collected from fieldwork conducted in immigrant neighbourhoods in Belgium, claim that multilingualism should be comprehended as a linguistic competency that is organised topically, chronically, and purposefully and does not imply that the individual holds full and identical competence in the different languages he or she is aware of. This means that speakers may creatively appropriate voices in various linguistic varieties, while possessing a very limited actual knowledge of those varieties. Once more, the distinction between knowledge of a language and using a language is highlighted.

Not knowing what the term ‘bilingual students’ entails has a direct effect on teachers’ unawareness of their learners’ general linguistic knowledge. In this case, being aware of what L2 learners know does not come as a contrast to the investigation of language use. On the contrary, if L2 learners’ awareness is explored, it can inform the behaviour and language use observed. Bezemer (2007)

managed to illustrate how knowledge can inform language use by demonstrating that teachers overgeneralise language learners' mistakes. Through data obtained from mainstream primary classrooms in the Netherlands, it was clear that attributions of linguistic resources to multilingual students easily turned into overgeneralisations. Teachers' behaviour seemed to be expected by the researcher, since mainstream teachers are not always able to make an analytic examination of the linguistic interactions. As far as the misattribution was concerned, individual students' mistakes were documented as a result of the lack of a certain resource. These mistakes were categorised in a way that they were perceived to belong to a particular group, including all foreign students. Apart from these events, external resources such as textbooks, research and policy documents also suggested that there are differences among native and non-native students. Thus, social injustice from the school was observed not only on a practical level but also on a 'hidden curriculum' level.

In contrast to the case previously presented by Bezemer (2007) is a study by Lucas et al. (1990), who investigated the efforts made by teachers, educational leaders and schools' systems to view language learners as individuals. The particular study reports data from six schools in California and Arizona that identified the key factors found to be integral to the success of these schools. The fact that each school was visited for only three days, regardless of the massive amount of data collected, creates a question as to whether the data were influenced by the researcher's presence. Nevertheless, the data revealed that students' languages and cultures were valued; teachers, school leaders and everyone involved in language learners' education held high expectations of them; and school leaders also made their education a priority. As far as the staff development was concerned, it was explicitly designed to help not only teachers but other staff as well to serve language learners effectively, since there were various proficiency level courses and counselling programmes offered to the language learners. Finally, their parents were encouraged to be involved, and the school staff shared a strong commitment to empower the learners through education. Through the actual practice of the school, and through its organisation, it was apparent that an effort was being made to provide social justice.

More specifically, the cooperation between teachers and language learners' parents has been extensively researched as a means of considering each learner individually. The qualitative research conducted with 22 teachers of first grade classrooms in Florida by Hite and Evans (2006) indicated that the teachers in their study believed that the productive cooperation with ESL learners' parents allowed them to acquire information regarding the personal and cultural background of each child. This information eventually helped teachers to gain a better grasp of their learners' educational needs by knowing how to motivate them, drawing information from their background by getting to know which pedagogies they were more familiar with back in their country and eventually by being aware of their linguistic knowledge. In France, another project that explored the participation of the parents was conducted by Hélot and Young (2006). The study explored the positive outcomes of a language awareness project that involved language learners' participation in three primary school classrooms. The teachers, together with the parents, were able to adopt an inclusive approach for all the languages spoken by their pupils. Eventually, they managed to transform the linguistic and cultural diversity of the classrooms' populations into a learning resource, and change the attitudes towards multilingualism. Less encouraging were the results by Willett et al.(1998), who conducted a study in a combined first and second grade classroom with a linguistically and culturally diverse student population. The objective was to explore the classroom's language practices that valued and built upon the social origins, linguistic knowledge, experiences of the language learners, the outcomes from these practices and how they were accomplished by various forms of language. The findings of the study revealed that even if language practices were well organised and language learners' parents (during their school visits) were positioned as the experts inside the classroom, there were instances in which, unintentionally, learners and families were positioned badly, which could stigmatise and silence ESL learners' and families' voices. Therefore, regardless of whether the actual practices of the school encouraged justice, some implicit behaviours or acts in the area of school unintentionally led to the malpositioning of these students.

The studies reviewed in this subsection have examined multilingual settings, and at the same time highlighted the importance of taking into consideration the individual language learning needs of each learner, by acknowledging his or her linguistic and cultural background. It has also been extensively argued that in order to avoid overgeneralisations and ill-preparedness, a fertile cooperation among teachers, educational leaders and parents is essential. Due to the fact that focus is given to language use and not language competence, schools are viewed not only as knowledge arenas but as places where societal justice can be either supported or jeopardised. This realisation was reached due to the broad spectrum of investigation that prevents us from failing to take into account aspects that are influential in the language that is used inside institutions.

3.4 Bidialectism: a constant negligence

In the previous section (3.3) a presentation of the way language is used in the contemporary educational multilingual contexts was provided. In this section, it is argued that many of the previously mentioned contexts have more than one linguistic variety that is used and spoken by the target community of the language learner. The immense variability due to the thousands of official languages that are spoken, but also due to the subvarieties each of these languages contains, has attracted a certain amount of research but it is still largely under-researched (Schilling-Estes, 2004).

According to Cheshire et al. (1989), linguistic diversity can be of many forms. The first form of linguistic diversity they argue for is multilingual countries, where different languages are spoken in the same country, such as Belgium, Switzerland and Canada (Norris, 2007). Secondly, there are countries such as the Netherlands (Belgian Dutch-Standard Dutch) and Switzerland (Swiss German-Standard German), where variations exist within the same language (Goeman & Jongenburger, 2009; Seiler, 2004). There are also countries which deal with variations within the same language in the same country, such as Cyprus (Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005). They also explain that the range of these variations

differs because their distinguishable difference may or may not be found in some or all linguistic levels: phonetics, phonological, prosody (Cheshire et al., 1989).

These various forms of linguistic diversity in a single community usually generate another issue and that is which linguistic variety should be used in education as a medium of instruction. As previously mentioned, there have been numerous debates about which code should be used in multilingual or multidialectal societies (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004). The most common solution to this debate is the adoption of the one-language policy, in which the official linguistic variety is used as the medium of instruction (Custred, 1990). There are a few who prefer the use of the unofficial linguistic variety (Stinjen & Vallen 1989), and finally there is also a group of researchers who support the simultaneous teaching of both (Papapavlou 2001; Pavlou 1999).

Each of these policies is governed by quite distinctive philosophies. However, regardless of which policy is implemented in a multilingual and multidialectal community, the needs of the official and the unofficial speakers should be taken into serious consideration. The same issue arises also, as already discussed in the previous section, when a multilingual programme is implemented. While implementing a policy, either multidialectal or multilingual, it is quite common to observe phenomena where a specific group of individuals are given very few professional, socio-political and economical opportunities (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004). It is claimed that a way of dealing with such situations would be the promotion of receptive multilingualism and/or multidialectism, whereby individuals speak their own linguistic variety and understand and respect the linguistic variety of others (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004).

It is interesting to observe that the linguistic code that is chosen to be used as a medium of instruction is again ruled not by linguistic but rather by political reasons. A great majority of the aforementioned linguistic varieties do not share the same position and recognition as others in the communities in which they are found. Ferguson (1959) was one of the first to talk about the distinctive role between the high and low variety through his definition of ‘diglossia’. He claimed that in order for

two linguistic varieties to coexist in a specific community of people, there was an imperative need for each one to serve a different purpose. The low variety was the one which would most probably be used in everyday activities, while the high variety would probably be the variety that was used in more official contexts and circumstances (Ferguson, 1959). Even though Ferguson's definition was extended afterwards to include not only related linguistic varieties but also different ones, here it is used in its initial scope: to describe the relationship among related languages/vernaculars. Because the terms 'low' and 'high' carry a value judgment, in this thesis I have chosen to use the terms 'official variety' and 'unofficial variety' as the most objective and assumption-free terms allocated to any linguistic system.

In this section, various studies conducted around the world are reviewed along with the policies that they have chosen and implemented. The following section, which reviews the concept of bidialectism, informs the third sub-questions of research question 1 and 2 (see 4.2).

3.4.1 Bidialectism in multilingual educational contexts

Since there are still communities where unofficial varieties remain officially unrecognised, marginalised or under-researched, this gives rise to educational concern. Current educational practices are deficient for the increasingly multilingual and multidialectal student population. It is argued that the main reason for the marginalisation of these varieties is that we are forced to bow to dominant political and ideological pressures, to ensure that languages remain 'pure' and separate (Lemke, 2002). As a direct outcome, we have people who are perceived to be poorly educated, since they have not been properly prepared to communicate and interact in all possible linguistic varieties found in their target communities.

The UK, which does not often come to mind as a multilingual country, presents a number of variations. English language learners, around the world, constantly struggle to learn the lingua franca. Nevertheless, very few of them are aware of the variations of the language they will come in contact with when visiting the country (Grabe & Post, 2002). Most of the traditional research in the UK on dialectology has investigated either older speakers from the British Isles, or the variations on

intonation and pronunciation among the various British dialects (Grabe & Post, 2002; Knowles, 1978; Pellowe & Jones, 1978). One of the few studies to provide information about what immigrant students will come across once settled in UK schools is that by Hudson and Holmes (1995). Their report presents an investigation with 350 teenage British students' use of spoken English. Data were collected from four different regions of England. The data were gathered from audio-recordings in which children were most likely encouraged to use official rather than unofficial English. The findings illustrated (among other things) that 68% of the children in the sample were using some unofficial English forms even in the rather official texts that were recorded. They also managed to support the claim that girls tended to use fewer unofficial English forms than boys. Age did not seem to be a significant factor in the use of English.

It has been extensively supported by various scholars that the unofficial varieties' lack of recognition is often the outcome of previous conflicts in the specific community (Cheshire et al., 1989) or for other economic, political and cultural reasons (Hudson, 1996; Petyt, 1980). A research example that supports this claim comes from Cyprus. The literature-based study conducted by Karyolemou (2001; 2002), used data and information from various resources and fields to explain how and when choices were made that defined GCD as the unofficial language variety and SMG as the official variety of the country.

Apart from exploring the underlying reasons for the use of the various linguistic varieties, research has also tried to examine the settings and contexts in which code switching among these varieties is observed, either by the teachers or by the students. The study by Merritt et al. (1992), who observed classroom interactions in three Kenyan primary schools, investigated the pedagogical and the socialising factors influencing the language use and the juxtaposition of English, Swahili and their mother tongue (more than 30 dialects are spoken by Kenyans). The data illustrated that the general language use and code switching was greatly influenced by four main factors: the school's policy, the cognitive concerns, the classroom management concerns, and finally the attitudes towards what was considered appropriate use of English. More specifically, the teachers employed code

switching to focus or regain the attention and interest of the learners, and to clarify, enhance and reinforce the educational material used. Finally, the attitudes towards these linguistic varieties seemed to be socially, politically and culturally influenced, since English was considered to be the most official of all, while mother tongue the least official. Code switching between the unofficial and the official variety was also investigated by Arthur (1996) in mainstream schools in Botswana. In that particular community, the first four years of primary education are taught through the national language, Setswana, while English is the medium of instruction after Grade 4. There are also other languages of Botswana that have no official classroom role. It was observed that teachers would code switch to encourage participation by pupils, while students would rarely code switch due to their low proficiency in English. Students were also observed to have quite a minimal role in the classroom interactions for the same reason.

In another study by Makoe and McKinney (2009), an investigation of both multilingualism and bidialectism occurred in a multilingual primary school in Johannesburg, South Africa, where the official language of instruction is English while African languages are used in social activities such as singing, drama activities or scripture reading. Despite the fact that the whole project was based on a single case study of one learner, and data were drawn only from field notes, the findings provided information on how the focus child self-positioned herself as the interpreter and translator of the teacher's instructions in order to draw her peers into the routines and meaning-making processes of classroom life to induct them into ways of doing and being at school. She managed to do this through her powerful proficiency both in English and in the local linguistic varieties of Sepedi and Setswana. Moreover, her extensive knowledge of the discursive practices of the classroom was also a strong facilitator to construct a classroom community.

Apart from code switching, researchers have also investigated how the use of unofficial varieties facilitate or hinder students' participation inside the classroom. One such study was conducted by Sterzuk (2008), who focused on the classroom behaviour and general experience of four indigenous English-speaking children and two white standard-English-speaking children in a standard English classroom,

Grade 3, in Saskatchewan. Despite the fact that the article provides more of a literature review on the related problems faced by the indigenous English-speaking students, it was also claimed that silence, storytelling and teasing were important characteristics of indigenous English-speaking students' classroom behaviour. In addition, it also revealed that indigenous English-speaking children did not progress as well as the rest of the students in the school and they tended to follow modified programmes that included additional support from classroom assistants, resource room teachers, and speech pathologists in order to address their phonological and spelling difficulties. These measures are similar to the measures found in studies in the section above (3.4), indirectly indicating that, in this case, bidialectism was somehow treated as multilingualism.

In order to increase students' participation, in another study investigating teachers from Cypriot mainstream classrooms, the findings showed that they would occasionally use the unofficial variety (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004). The data, even if they were focused only on teachers and collected only from interviews and not actual classroom interactions, revealed that the teachers used the unofficial variety when they wished to explain difficult concepts or to enhance the relationships they had with their students.

The investigation of the uses of unofficial varieties led to the realisation that the majority of these children and schools tended to use the unofficial varieties regardless of the official educational policies. In addition, the majority of the children whose mother tongue was marginalised or ignored tended to fail systematically at school (Le Pinchon, 2010). These are the main reasons for the intense effort to implement programmes that take into account the unofficial varieties of a particular community in the schooling experience of the children. Examples of such programmes are found in North American schools, where West Indian students' English creole variety was taken into account (Coelho, 1991). In Europe, and more specifically in Sweden, an experimental study by Osterberg (1961) was conducted that explored the teaching of a group of children through the parallel use of their unofficial variety of Swedish and standard Swedish. The control group continued to be taught entirely in standard Swedish. The findings illustrated

that the experimental group of students learned to read more quickly and assimilated new material much more rapidly. A similar experiment was implemented by Yiakoumetti (2006) in Cypriot primary schools, where a parallel teaching experiment with the dialect and the standard was implemented. The programme aimed at the explicit and conscious comparison between the two varieties. The sixth-grade participants of the study that belonged in the experimental group illustrated positive progress in both their oral and written production in the standard variety.

Eventually, one of the few studies that investigated the use of official and non-official linguistic varieties in multilingual settings with immigrant minority pupils is the one conducted by Spotti (2008) in a Flemish primary school. He conducted an ethnographic educational case study that investigated the construction of identities of immigrant minority pupils through their choices and uses of various languages. The findings revealed that both Flemish native pupils' identities and those of immigrant minority pupils were homogeneous since they were all considered to be at a sociolinguistic disadvantage because they were all speaking the local variety. It should be mentioned that the learners themselves did not view themselves as linguistically disadvantaged, but rather as multilingual and multicultural individuals. The way these learners were perceived through the choices and uses of various linguistic varieties links to the previous discussion of social injustice that is sometimes generated by the hidden curriculum of each institutional context. In contrast, a study by Pavlou and Christodoulou (2001) investigated the use and attitudes towards official and non-official linguistic varieties held by teachers and adult language learners in Cyprus and it was claimed that the low variety was considered inferior to the official variety. Nevertheless, the teachers tended to use and teach some general grammatical and morphological rules of GCD (the unofficial variety) and they agreed that the parallel use of both varieties increased the vocabulary of the learners and helped them to thrive better in the host country. From the different behaviours the language learners of these two studies have presented it seems that the stance language learners will have towards the unofficial varieties may also relate to age. An assumption that can tentatively be made is that younger language learners are more positive towards unofficial

varieties because they help them in their socialising process with the native language learners. Another tentative assumption that can be made from my personal experience is that older language learners' main motivation for acquiring a language in a host country is employability. They probably believe that knowing the unofficial variety does not help them in the pursuit of that goal.

Tsiplakou's (2007) findings partially align with Spotti's (2008) on the point made about learners being perceived as sociolinguistically disadvantaged because they speak the local variety. More specifically, Tsiplakou's (2007) refers to the teachers' argument that GC students have a linguistic deficit, which according to them is linked with the 'problem' of the dialect as a 'restricted code'. Nevertheless, Tsiplakou's (2007) findings indicated that GC students were aware of the social use of the two linguistic varieties. The same research also argues that the official policy of the country, even if it tolerates use of the unofficial variety in the language lesson, also encourages indirect correction through repetition of the unofficial phrases to official ones (Tsiplakou, 2007). However, by 'correcting' students' dialect we run the risk of creating negative feelings towards the teachers and the schools in general while also affecting negatively students' own identity construction (Delpit, 1997).

The research on bidialectism has suggested that the investigation of the unofficial linguistic varieties can provide useful information regarding the ways they are used by teachers and students in various classrooms. Based on this realisation, it can be argued that a large amount of the research that has been mentioned in previous sections of this chapter fails to take into consideration the unofficial varieties, and eventually this leads to an inconsistent exploration of the language use in multilingual settings. The consideration of the unofficial varieties of an educational context, especially when language use is in focus, can only provide a rich and detailed presentation of the realistic scenery in those contexts. Surprisingly, this has been repeatedly avoided by a large number of SLL studies. This study takes this into consideration, hoping that it can also facilitate the investigation of the underlying factors of the particular uses of languages and how these ultimately affect the language learners' thriving and coping in a host school.

3.5 Including young participants: obstacles and benefits

In the previous sections, the way language is used in various multilingual and bidialectal educational settings has been discussed. In this section, it will be argued that investigating young language learners' language use is equally informative. The discussion surrounding young learners as participants informs the first research question (see 4.2). Despite the dearth of studies in the SLL field, there are very few that were based on data from younger language learners. The main belief behind avoiding researching young learners lies in the fact that children were viewed as variables rather than as human beings and subjects of the research (Gkaintartzi & Tsokalidou, 2011). This means that research did not draw information about how they experienced the situation they were found in, in order to allow them to present their own perspective. This is due to the fact that they have been traditionally considered as unreliable and as one of the variables that affects other participants, mainly teachers, in their behaviour. This is why the current children's perspectives and experiences have been repeatedly devalued and most of the societies have only appreciated their future potential (Greene & Hill, 2005). However, this has changed over the years and young participants are now considered as a valuable source of information (Greene & Hill, 2005). Their importance and contribution in the research lies in the fact that they can provide insights into something only they themselves are aware of: their personal opinions and experiences. Interpretive sociocultural studies should not sideline children, because once there is investment in collecting as many perspectives as possible to avoid subjectivity, a richer picture of the context under investigation can be built.

It will also be claimed that the second main reason for not including young participants in the research process is due to the fact that a substantial amount of researchers have been afraid of the obstacles that may occur in the process. Researchers tend to use traditional research methodological designs that have repeatedly failed in researching younger participants (Greene & Hill, 2005). This failure was caused mainly because of the power relationships that were created in observation and interview settings between teacher-students and researcher-students (Greene & Hill, 2005). Also, many researchers have repeatedly avoided

using other methods of research because of the uneasiness that something new may cause (Greene & Hill, 2005).

In recent years, a slight move away from the previous well-held views regarding children's development research has been noticed, and more studies have dared to include younger participants, using creative research methods. One such research example is the study conducted by Graziano (2011). Graziano (2011) investigated the progress of 16 Spanish ELLs in an urban elementary school in the US. He employed an innovative methodological design using the methods of documentary photography and storytelling, the so-called 'photovoice' technique. The data collected from either photographs or other visual means illustrated that ELLs learned much better when abstract ideas were contextualised and when visual aids accompanied verbal speech. The use of technology was also supported to increase ELLs' motivation. As far as the photovoice technique is concerned, it was claimed that the young participants managed to develop oral and written linguistic skills. Similarly, Bligh (2011), in her ethnographic study, investigated the experiences of early years bilingual learners during the emergent stage of English language acquisition, where the silent period is noticed. Her multi-method ethnographic approach included both traditional methods of observations and interviews, alongside auto-ethnographic accounts constructing individual vignettes. Due to this research design, she was able to include participants as young as three years old and the data she managed to collect revealed that the silent period was a crucial time for learning since during that period learners were observing closely, listening intensely and copying what was observed.

MacNaughton et al.'s (2003) action learning programme for early childhood staff within the Australian Capital Territory Children's Plan helped participating staff to use 75 children of three to five years old and eight more of two years old or younger. The younger participants generated data through drawings, CDROM, poems, audiotapes and text, while adults generated data through observing children, photographs and audio-recordings. The multi-method research design provided opportunities to initiate and at the same time shed light on the various and complex understandings of young children regarding the social world they lived in.

Ming-Fang (2006) investigated 17 Taiwanese children's voices and experiences in an English learning immersion programme. Data were collected through observations from the English lessons, children's interviews, and children's drawings illustrating their classroom experience. The findings showed that children were able to provide information related to their perceptions of the English class, highlighting the fact that the lessons' demands were gradually becoming more challenging. Also, they managed to comment upon the learning process, by indicating awareness of the appropriate use of their L1 and L2 (English). Moreover, they commented on whether they were enjoying the class, by stressing how fun it was as a process when they were playing educational games. Apart from these, they were also able to discuss and illustrate the differences between their English language teachers and their mainstream teachers. Eventually, they stressed as their main motivation that English was an obligatory subject for elementary school. The vivid accounts provided by nursery children in all these aspects of L2 learning is further proof of how informative it can be when the children's voices are heard.

Particularly interesting seems to be the use of the persona dolls method both through teaching as well as through researching (Brown, 2001). Jesuvadian and Wright (2011) used persona dolls in their research to investigate possible racism incidents in nursery students' peer choice. They used semi-structured interviews using persona dolls. The dolls acted as facilitators through which the four-, five- and six-year-old children managed to engage in conversations with the researcher. The findings illustrated that these young children, through the use of dolls, realised and showed empathy for the ways in which (mainly white) children perceived immigrant children as less attractive and were more often excluded from the peer groups.

Regardless of the possible limitations that may exist when including young participants, and especially children who are still trying to acquire a target language, there is an undeniable gain to be acknowledged. The recognition of their individuality, the particular characteristics of children, their knowledge and experiences, provide fertile ground for constructive research to be conducted,

especially when this research is investigating both socially and culturally diverse child populations. The literature reviewed here has shown that by employing a more innovative methodological design, a voice can be granted even to the most seemingly ‘silent’ participants.

This subsection is positioned here because it seems to be a link between the literature and methodological discussion related to the situation under investigation. One of the main contributions of this study is its acknowledgement of listening and taking into serious consideration the young participants whom the research is all about. It is possible to do this through an innovative and multi-method research design. Further details will be presented in the following chapter. However, despite the innovative methodology, this contribution would not have been possible without the theoretical idea presented in this chapter. This idea, as has been repeatedly mentioned in this literature review, is that language should be investigated in terms of how it is used in real life situations, moving away from whether language learners have managed or not to use a new code correctly.

3.6 Concluding remarks

Having reviewed the related SLL literature, it can be summarised that language use may be affected by various factors. Initially, it has been argued that language use is informed by the goals speakers wish to achieve: either socialising or communication/educational. Equally informative seems to be the complex relationships between socialising and the communication processes. Moreover, language use seems to be influenced by the setting where it is used since different educational systems, schools, classrooms and playground areas require a distinctive and separate language use. Additionally, it has been argued in this literature review that when speakers are found in multilingual and bidialectal contexts, they have various linguistic varieties at their disposal. A study conducted in these settings has an obligation to consider the various competencies of the participants in the various linguistic varieties they have. Eventually, the subjects involved – both teachers and language learners – are a further aspect of the investigation. The outcomes of the usages of these linguistic tools provide

information on how the learners and teachers manage to regulate their relationships with other people through social interactions eventually to mediate the knowledge they receive from the outside world to internal and personal understanding.

It should be mentioned, however, that the exact influence of these factors on the learners' and teachers' use of language is never certain. What is certain is that studies such as the one presented here take into consideration these various factors that synthesise the conceptual framework of this study, to be able to understand better the relationship between them. Understanding the interplay between them allows me and other interpretive researchers to understand how both learners and teachers manage to get along in the newly multilingual and multicultural schools and country in which they are found.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The literature review has established the sociocultural framework for this study; this in turn has implications for the research intentions and methodological approaches taken. The first section sets out the research questions and it is followed by a discussion of my personal philosophical stance on educational research. After discussing the various theoretical, philosophical and methodological challenges, I locate this study within the interpretive paradigm. Then I move on to the presentation of the research procedure followed. This starts with details of the research tools employed, followed by the data collection procedure and the analysis used. Finally, issues regarding quality and ethics are considered. Further details are given in Appendices A, B, C and D regarding the participants' backgrounds, the research tools used and the procedure followed for data analysis.

4.2 Aims of the study and research questions

As has been mentioned previously, the general purpose of the present study was to investigate the way language was used by GAL learners to get along in the newly multilingual Cypriot primary schools and how it was used by mainstream teachers to support GAL learners.

More specifically, through this study I aimed to investigate the setting in which learners were found, and identify the linguistic varieties they had at their disposal, how they used these varieties, with whom and for what purpose. The intertwined relationship of these aspects of investigation was expected to provide insights into how GAL learners were managing to get along in the Cypriot public primary schools. Collecting data from such a young group, but also an under-researched one, presented various research challenges during the collection of the data. On the other hand, as a teacher myself, I was interested in the ways educators facilitate this process for GAL learners, help them with their adjustment in the new school and eventually educate them. Or conversely how they might inadvertently constrain and limit these processes. Therefore my investigation was focused not

only towards the learners, but also towards the teachers' general behaviour and language use.

Stemming from both personal research interests and as a response to the gap that exists in the literature (as identified and presented in the previous chapters), the following questions were developed and used as my main compass throughout this research.



How do seven-year-old GAL learners get along in the Greek Cypriot classroom and playground?

- How do they take part in classroom and playground activities?
- How do they communicate?
- How do they use Greek language (SMG and GCD)?



What is mainstream teachers' role in the Greek Cypriot classroom?

- Which factors do they feel enable or hinder GAL learners' participation in classroom activities?
- How do they communicate with GAL learners?
- How do they use Greek language (SMG and GCD)?

4.3 Philosophical perspectives

Educational research is characterised by various philosophical approaches. Each of these approaches is based on a different philosophical background that guides the choices of the methods and techniques that can be used in a particular investigation. However, these methods should not just be regarded as a ‘technical exercise’ (Cohen et al., 2007). In order to be able to make sound judgments on the selection of the methods, research should be comprehended as a process of understanding what is out there (*ibid*). In addition, research is also the process of realising what we consider as understanding and what we consider as the main purposes of this understanding (*ibid*). These realisations are the theoretical assumptions that underpin each project and give consistency to its design and conduct. The two main traditions influencing educational research, which present different views on the philosophical assumptions about the nature of the social reality and meaning, are the scientific paradigm (positivism) and the interpretive paradigm (interpretivism). I will initially discuss the various worldviews related to these paradigms and then I will justify my choice for employing an interpretive paradigm for the present study.

4.3.1 Theoretical paradigm

A paradigm, as Guba and Lincoln (2005) suggest, is a worldview which represents an individual’s perception of what the world entails, where a person is to be found in it, as well as the variety of possible relations between the world and its various parts. They continue by asserting that an inquiry paradigm explains what is considered as a legitimate inquiry and where its limits are. Based on this definition of a paradigm, it is easy to comprehend its importance to researchers. In their wish to investigate the truth, researchers need to challenge themselves by questioning their personal beliefs related to the aforementioned concepts.

I am sharing the interpretive paradigm’s worldview, which supports the idea of multiple truths and rejects the belief of the positivism paradigm that all human behaviour is influenced by similar, general universal norms (Cohen et al., 2007). The ultimate purpose of interpretive research is the comprehension of a social

reality through the various interpretations of how each person sees it, and at the same time how each person's perspective influences his behaviours in that reality (Radnor, 2001). I do not consider myself as a critical researcher, because the critical theory views reality only as structural and historical insights that are represented in social (not individual) constructed values (Cohen et al., 2007). I do not consider my project as a positivistic study either, because the focus is on subjective contextualised perspectives and not objective generalizable truths subject to the laws of cause and effect. Taking into consideration that the main purpose of positivism is to describe and explain the world and extend the boundaries of our understanding on the assumption that truth about the world is there to be discovered, while interpretivism seeks to understand an individual or group's socially constructed experience of it, I believe that the latter allows me to reach my aims, as they have been stated in previous sections.

Presenting the adoption of the interpretive paradigm's worldview gives only a glimpse of my personal consideration of the theoretical concepts underlining a legitimate enquiry. Further along, I will describe the ontological and epistemological perspectives in social sciences and which of them manages to encapsulate my understanding of the world and how I can acquire knowledge of that world.

4.3.2 Ontology

The ontological question is related to the very nature of the world and ultimately what can be known about its nature (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The answer to this question is one of the parameters that defines what kind of paradigm each project should be adopting.

The scientific approach towards this ontological question builds on the techniques of the natural sciences that explores the physical world and focuses its investigation on how things really work (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The specific ontology is considered to be realism, where an understandable reality does exist and it is also driven by unchallengeable natural laws (*ibid*). The objectivity of this ontological stance is based on the fact that these laws remain indisputable

regardless of when, where and how they are implemented. Realism assumes that there is a world out there regardless of our lives, our social practices, indifferent to all our human behaviours, intuitions and beliefs (Scott & Usher, 2011). The knowledge that derives from the research adopting a realist ontological perspective is presented at a specific period in time, where context-free generalisations can be made, and usually that knowledge has the form of cause and effect regulation (*ibid*).

The core ideas of the relativist approach to the ontological question are individuality, intentionality and subjectivity. The relativist ontological approach that this study adopts believes that reality lies in the individual consciousness of each and every person in the world (Cohen et al., 2007). Therefore relativism asserts that the way to view the nature of the world is as an internal social construct, not an external fixed reality, as is supported by realism (Crotty, 1998). The participants, through the interpretivist paradigm, are viewed as people full of emotions and intentions, who are influenced by the specific context of the social world and at the same time, these people influence that context in return (Radnor, 2001). This view of people incorporates the creative nature of human beings inside their social life, where they are both subjects and agents (*ibid*). This creative nature of people helps them recognise the existence of the structural conditions of the situations they confront but at the same time they do not follow these socially and culturally constructed sets of rules (*ibid*). On the other hand, regardless of their recognition of these structures, people are also emotionally involved in a way that allows them to construct new forms of functions in those situations (*ibid*). Therefore, people are viewed as the intelligent creatures they are, to recognise particular structures around them. But since they are not machines, they do not follow the rules in every single situation. Relativism allows and examines the possibility that they may bend those rules because their emotions, agency and self-determination drive them to.

The critical paradigm, as a subcategory of the interpretive paradigm, also assumes that the world is not found beyond the human experience of it. Historical realism (the ontological approach of the critical paradigm) views reality as plastic and shaped by various factors such as political, historical, cultural and others, as reality

is supported by relativism (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The main difference is that historical realism also demonstrates that reality has taken the form of structures that are wrongly considered as real by relativism (*ibid*). The difference between the two is that the latter's main purpose is to challenge and transform social, cultural and historical norms by acting to erode ignorance and transform the existing social structure (*ibid*). The need for these transformations is to prevent any injustice caused by these structures. These social transformations are considered to be extremely powerful and influential for theory building and thus knowledge is considered to be equally dependent on our own existence and our reality (Hoffman, 1987).

4.3.3 Epistemology

The epistemological question seeks the basis of the knowledge that the ontological assumption has identified: its true nature, its different forms, how it can be acquired by the researcher and finally how it can be communicated to the researcher's audience (Cohen et al., 2007). The knowledge that can be acquired and transmitted to the readers, and what is considered as truth, is significantly linked to the previous ontological question. Therefore, the epistemological question is already affected by the way the previous ontological one has been answered.

The positivist researcher strives for complete detachment and objectivity in order to be able to make the appropriate discoveries and answer the question of how things really are and how things really work in the phenomenon under investigation (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Both the knower and the object of knowledge are considered independent from and unaffected by each other (*ibid*). According to Scott and Usher (2011), positivism is the epistemological stance that perceives the content of reality to be cogent facts. They further explain that it examines measurable phenomena in order to maintain its objectivity and the unaffected relationship between knowers and objects. The way social reality is theorised through positivism is by accepting that there are rules of logical explanation which are irrelevant to the setting found and the various beliefs, ideas and opinions of the people involved and the social practices in between (Scott & Usher, 2011).

As an interpretivist researcher myself, I have investigated the realities and the participants' interpretation of these realities by focusing on the social construction of that reality and the ways in which social interactions provided information on the participants' definitions (Radnor, 2001). The knowledge of this epistemological stance comes from the interactions in which the researcher and the researched are involved (*ibid*). Therefore, the knowledge in this case does not consider knower and knowing subject as two independent elements. The role of the researcher in this approach is to interpret and make sense of his or her own experience of the behaviours of others or interpret the experience of the people he/she is investigating (*ibid*). Therefore, the researcher's job is not to control variables and link causes to effects as for positivism, but to comprehend and interpret the people involved and their actions at a specific time and place. The researcher then has to go beyond words to try to reveal the prejudices, myths and stereotypes, assumptions, biases, presuppositions, feelings and thoughts that may have influenced the participants' or his/her own interpretations (*ibid*). All these are influential and potential sources of explanation of why people reacted the way they did while the researcher was researching.

Critical theory as part of the interpretive paradigm also contends that the researcher and the researched are linked with each other, and their ideas and beliefs influence the research (Cohen et al., 2007), acknowledging in that way its subjectiveness. This is the reason why the findings extracted from this kind of research are considered value-mediated as well as the findings extracted from an interpretive research. Nevertheless, it is a type of research that is particularly interested with norms that have been historically imposed somehow through cultural and political norms. That is why its main aim will eventually be to transform interests and actions in order to prevent inequalities (*ibid*).

4.3.4 My position

During the previous subsections, I have presented the two main approaches to research which currently dominate social sciences (Pring, 2004). Undoubtedly, positivism has been under a great deal of scrutiny due to its opinions regarding

what reality is and how we come to know about it in a detached and objective manner (Scott & Usher, 2011). The idea of objectivity that positivism supports cannot always be guaranteed since those studies are also described through language, which inevitably carries the personal beliefs and ideas of the researcher (Pring, 2000). However its influence in the theorising of social science research has been indisputable (Scott & Usher, 2011) and is therefore respected and acknowledged here. However, positivism does not include the crucial role of subjective and social factors that do indeed contribute to the production of knowledge (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). Carr and Kemmis (1986) claim that the importance of knowledge in most cases is better understood through sociological and psychological terms than purely logical and epistemological ones.

Radnor (2001) acknowledges that every researcher is a subject himself/herself and thus personal characteristics and behaviours are an integral part of the researcher, since in order to be able to comprehend something it has to be done through the filters of one's ideas, thoughts and experiences. The misrecognition of the cultural confusion eventually leads to lack of reflexivity and researchers are unsuccessful in acknowledging the complications that exist in their own practice (Scott & Usher, 2011). This means that the researchers fail to admit that everything that it is done or said by them throughout the research process cannot be done in a vacuum, and they themselves are not machines that follow specific steps. This happens due to the fact that positivist researchers follow an idealistic and universal logic of scientific explanation, which provides them with predetermined understandings of the world, truth, knowledge and research (Scott & Usher, 2011). The advantage of an interpretive research on this occasion is that he or she chooses to make explicit the individual values of the investigator (Creswell, 2007).

Any research in social science takes place in social communities, where everyone and everything is driven by values, beliefs and ideas circulated around that community (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). Research that ignores the power of these features could only be misleading. Interpretive research can fulfil the failure of positivism to recognise the cultural and historical influences upon reality and truth and positivism's inability to be aware of the reflexivity of the participants and the

researcher upon the situation under investigation (Scott & Usher, 2011). For this particular study, underpinned by sociocultural theory, the social, historical and cultural dimensions of the situation under investigation were considered as the main influential and driving forces of most of the behaviours investigated and observed. However, the main distinction that separates this interpretive study from a critical one is that in adopting an interpretive approach, knowledge is viewed at an individual level and not a societal one. In this study, the interpretive approach allows for an informed and sophisticated reconstruction and experience of the settings where GAL learners were found. It does not wish to form generalisations based on the similarities found in the current situation under investigation with previous situations reviewed by the critical theory researcher (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that critical theory is extremely informative in areas where criticism of the existing social order is essential, indicating this approach's intention to effect change (Hoffman, 1987). For that particular point, the importance of critical theory is recognised here, as it was with positivism earlier.

The interpretive approach adopted in this study viewed every teacher and GAL learner as unique. None of their linguistic or general behaviours observed could fall into universal laws or be critiqued because they obey specific political or societal structures. The information that I collected was based upon both the teachers' and the students' verbal and non-verbal behaviour inside the school environment, which was considered to be influenced by the norms that existed in that particular context. The outcomes and findings of the study did not aim for generalisation but to inform contexts with similar characteristics. The complexity of the problem that the people in these settings faced was taken into serious and detailed consideration. I used my discussion with both teachers and GAL learners to collect each participant's interpretation, while at the same time I compared their interpretation with their observed behaviour in their everyday life (Scott & Usher, 2011) through observations from the classroom and playground. In the end, a copy of each participant's interpretation and the researcher's interpretation of the situation was provided for the readers. Transparency was also adopted in the processes of data collection, analysis and the presentation of findings. This was

achieved by providing data as they were collected before they were analysed (see Appendix B) and by presenting a detailed analysis of the data (see Appendix C). In addition, throughout the presentation of the findings I tried to draw tentative conclusions and reminded my readers that it was my personal interpretation of my participants' interpretation of the situation.

Finally, it should be highlighted that interpretive research can be innovative and ground-breaking despite being less structured than the research positivism advocates. The interpretive approach allows us to explore areas that have not been researched before, and avoid researching the same status quo situations just to be able to stay in control of all of the confounding variables (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). Interpretivism is the paradigm that was adopted because it was the paradigm that allowed me (due to its flexibility) to explore this problem in depth, daring to include elements and features in order to connect the pieces of the puzzle and understand the particular situation I was interested in.

4.3.5 Methodology

The methodological question addresses how the knower goes about finding what he is searching for (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The main reason for thinking and trying to identify the methodology of each study is to help us consider the process of the scientific research as a whole (Cohen et al., 2007), which eventually enables every researcher to achieve more consistency in his or her research. This question too is constrained by how the inquirer has answered the previous ontological and epistemological questions. The relationship between the methodological, ontological and epistemological questions implies that methodology is also theoretically loaded (Silverman, 2010) and this is the main reason why the interpretive paradigm uses mainly qualitative methods. Qualitative methods are considered to encapsulate the more subjective and authentic investigation of the human experience (Silverman, 2010) because any situation is viewed through the eyes of the participants (Cohen et al., 2007). The particular manner in which the

interpretive paradigm and qualitative methodology were applied in this investigation is presented in more detail in the following paragraphs.

The kind of methodology that was employed here was a descriptive multiple case study. On the one hand, I employed a multiple case study (Robson, 2011) because I wanted to focus on and investigate the viewpoint of each particular participant involved. Therefore, each participant was a case. On the other hand, I was also engaged in a descriptive study. The main aim has been to describe the language use of each teacher and each language learner investigated. I did not intend to test hypotheses formed by preconceptions I had before entering the field or use this project as a pilot as exploratory studies do (Yin, 2003).

Since one of the advantages of a multiple case study style of inquiry is that it takes into consideration the perspectives and behaviours of the participants (Pring, 2004), I employed a multi-method research design that included interviews, observations as well as more innovative tools. I also employed an 'emic' research approach (Creswell, 2007), which allowed me to understand the topic of investigation by organising the findings on emergent patterns rising from teachers' and learners' linguistic and general behaviour. Therefore, this kind of investigation was inductive (bottom-up) since it took as a primary investigation point the perspectives of its participants. The purpose of using different methods was to construct meaning resulting from the viewpoints of my participants. However, it should be acknowledged here that, in some cases, patterns of behaviours that were identified in my data had also been found in the literature. It could be claimed that part of this research's originality is also the fact that in addition to adopting an inductive research approach, it simultaneously uses a deductive research approach. The patterns of behaviour that were found in the literature served as a platform, on which comparisons were made between the various contexts noting where the behaviours were observed and the context of these settings.

As Robson (2002) points out, the use of multiple methods and tools throughout the research allows the answering of different but complementary research questions, which was the aim of this project. Throughout the study, I was able to investigate

both teachers' and GAL learners' language use inside the classroom, through the acts of communication and socialisation of language, and at the same time investigate the participation and communication acts fulfilled by the GAL learners outside in the playground. I was also interested in the way the participants perceived these acts in both contexts, which is the reason why interviews with all the participants, persona dolls' meetings, drawing activities, and discussions with GAL learners were conducted. It should also be mentioned that the interviews using the persona dolls, and the interviews conducted about the drawings that the young participants made, were innovative approaches that were developed in order to address the language barrier and other issues raised by having these young language learners as participants. The design and the purpose of each of these methods will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

A multiple case study is considered to be prone to the researcher's bias due to the close relationship between the researcher and the subject; possible over-involvement may have influenced the natural setting observed (Robson, 2002). For this particular reason, the transferability of the findings was possible, since I presented the procedure followed in full detail (Silverman, 2010), along with various contextual information.

Moreover, by conducting a multiple case study, I knew that as a researcher I would be investigating events over which I had no great control, and that I would focus on a contemporary phenomenon in the naturally-occurring settings visited, where the contextual conditions were considered. These characteristics are always found in this kind of inquiry, according to Silverman (2010) and Yin (2003); multiple case study inquiries are also considered to be 'a step to action' (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 184) signifying their ability to contribute to decision making. This specific study particularly aims at and hopes to contribute in influencing future decision making by MOEC as well as by other educational administrative bodies in various areas around the world which deal with similar sociolinguistic situations.

4.3.6 Participants

As has already been mentioned in the previous section, this study is a descriptive multiple case study, where each case corresponds to each of the participants involved. For this particular reason, in this section the schools, the teachers and the seven-year-old GAL learners that were participating in the study are explicitly presented. Further details are provided in Appendices A.1 and A.2, where participants' profiles and database information are found:

Table 4.1: Participants of the study

School pseudonym	Class pseudonym	Teachers' pseudonyms	GAL learners' pseudonyms
School KE	Class K	Kristia (1 st and 2 nd phase)	Katrina Kyla Kabir Kaif
	Class E	Elena (2 nd phase)	Elijah Emanuel Evgeny
School T	Class T	Tina (1 st and 2 nd phase)	Tamara Timofei Tahir

4.3.6.1 Research sites

The two schools chosen were considered the most appropriate within which to gather data since they satisfied the criteria I was working with: they both had a linguistically and culturally diverse student population and they were both in a geographic proximity, therefore shared a similar demographic and so presented comparable contexts. The first criterion was linked to the purpose of this study, while the second was for convenience reasons.

School KE (see Table 4.1) was a public primary school. Its student population had various socio-economic and educational levels. It has been a multilingual and multicultural school for the last ten years. The majority of the students were GAL learners, coming mostly from Russia, Romania and Syria. The school had sessions both in the mornings and in the afternoons. The whole programme of the school

indicated that particular accommodations were made to meet the needs of its multilingual and multicultural student population. It is one of the few public primary schools in the town, which has one head teacher for the first three grades (seven-to nine-year-old students) of the school and another for the three older grades (10-to 12-year-old students). I had been liaising with this school since 2009, during my MPhil. It has always been supportive and interested in participating in research projects.

School T (See Table 4.1) was also a public primary school, located in a low-grade area in the centre of the town, which used to be a Turkish-Cypriot district (not far away from school KE). The majority of the student population had a low socio-economic and educational level. A large number of students also had family and learning issues (MOEC, 2013). It was one of the few schools in town that had a large number of Turkish-speaking students (MOEC, 2013). These were some of the reasons why the school became part of the ZEP programme in 2003. ZEP is a programme applied by MOEC to provide equal educational opportunities to all students in order to minimise school failure and illiteracy (more details are provided in Chapter 2). Due to its inclusion in the ZEP programme, this school provided breakfast for all Turkish Cypriots. It was also one of the few schools where Turkish language lessons were provided for Turkish-speaking students and there were extra periods given for psychological support. The playground area was fully equipped with brand new games and the majority of the classrooms had interactive whiteboards. All of these extra sessions and resources were not available in school KE.

4.3.6.2 *Key characters: Teachers*

This subsection presents some basic information related to the teachers who participated in this project. These teachers were part of my purposeful sampling since they were all mainstream teachers of first grade classrooms in the particular schools chosen. All the details provided are based on the time when the first and second data collection phases were conducted (late 2011 until mid-2012):

Table 4.2: Teachers-participants of the study

Name	Kristia	Elena	Tina
School	School KE -In school KE for three years	School KE -In school KE for three years	School T -In school T for one year
Class	Class K	Class E	Class T
Age	29	29	30
Teaching experience	-Paphos and Limassol -Six years in A grade class -Multilingual student population	-Nicosia and Limassol -First year in A grade class -Multilingual student population	-Paphos and Limassol -First year in A grade class -Multilingual student population (adults)
Ethnicity	(Greek) Cypriot	(Greek) Cypriot -Born in South Africa	(Greek) Cypriot
Place of residence	Same as school	One hour away from school	Same as school
Family status	Married and pregnant during the 2 nd phase	About to get married	Married, just returned from maternity leave
Studies	-BA in Primary School Education -Master's	-BA in Primary School Education -Master's in Cross-Cultural Education	-BA in Primary School Education -Master's in TESOL
Phases participated	1 st and 2 nd	2 nd	1 st and 2 nd
Willingness to participate	Very willing	Extremely willing	At the beginning some concern, but later very willing

4.3.6.3 Key characters: GAL learners

Apart from the mainstream teachers, the ten young participants of this project were considered equally important for the research process. The young participants were 6 to 7 years old (apart from Kyla who was 8 years old by phase B) and they were all attending the first grade. The selection of the GAL participants was based on a number of different characteristics. Initially, the teachers of the three classrooms were asked to fill in an information database for each student in their class (see Appendix A). After collecting this information, and after the time I spent in the field during the A phase of data collection, I had identified the students who

had as their L1 a language other than Greek. In addition, I excluded from that list all students who, even if they had Greek as their L2 or as an additional language, had very good proficiency in Greek. The reason for excluding those children was that they were not facing daunting problems of settling in to a new school environment due to the language of instruction and communication. Finally, the last characteristic was the gender. The equal number of boys and girls participants was not achieved initially due to the fact that Class E had more male GAL learners than female, and because two female participants of the initial 12 GAL participants had left the country by the time of the B phase. Nevertheless, gender did not affect my investigation to such a great extent, since this was an interpretive study and not a positivistic study, where variables such as gender should be scrutinised and measured. The following tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 provide information about the language learners in an effort to provide a more detailed picture so that the readers can make their own interpretations when reading this thesis:

Table 4.3: GAL learners-participants of the study – class K

Class K	Kaif	Kabir	Katrina	Kyla
Mother tongue	Arabic	Arabic	Russian	Filipino and perhaps Arabic
Gender	Male	Male	Female	Female
Character	Shy, made some progress until the 2 nd phase, spoke in low tone	Sociable, seemed to make friends easily	Outgoing, sociable, seemed to enjoy school	Shy, introverted, did not make friends easily
Willingness to participate	Missing school often but seemed willing to participate	Seemed very willing, appeared to enjoy the attention	Seemed very willing, appeared to enjoy the attention	Willing but problems were created due to her low proficiency in Greek
Attended school KE	Beginning of the school year	Beginning of the school year	Beginning of the school year	Second year in the school-same grade
Proficiency in Greek	Low	Medium	Medium	Extremely low
Mother's ethnicity	Syrian	Syrian	Russian	Filipino
Father's ethnicity	Syrian	Syrian	Russian	Yemeni
Siblings at school	Sister in the same class	Older sister	No siblings at school	No siblings at school

Table 4.4: GAL learners-participants of the study – class E

Class E	Elijah	Emanuel	Evgeny
Mother tongue	Arabic	Bulgarian	Romanian
Gender	Male	Male	Male
Character	Less sociable at the beginning but more outgoing in 2 nd phase	Active, sociable but less popular among students of his class	Willing to participate in school activities, made friends easily
Willingness to participate	Not very willing	Often absent but willing to participate, enjoyed the attention	Willing
Attended school KE	Three months later than the rest	Beginning of the school year	Beginning of the school year
Proficiency in Greek	Low (medium of communication was English - attended a private school in Kuwait)	Good	Low
Mother's ethnicity	Saudi Arabian	Bulgarian	Romanian
Father's ethnicity	Saudi Arabian	Bulgarian	Romanian
Siblings at school	Older sister	No siblings at school	No siblings at school

Table 4.5: GAL learners-participants of the study – class T

Class T	Tahir	Timofei	Tamara
Mother tongue	Turkish	Romanian	Turkish
Gender	Male	Male	Female
Character	Active, sociable, made friends easily but got into fights	Shy but made GC friends easily	Did not make friends easily
Willingness to participate	Very willing, absent a few times, enjoyed the attention	Not always willing	Absent from school a lot of the time
Attended school KE	Beginning of the school year	Beginning of the school year	Beginning of the school year
Proficiency in Greek	Medium	Low	Extremely low
Mother's ethnicity	(Turkish) Cypriot or Turkish	Romanian	(Turkish) Cypriot or Turkish
Father's ethnicity	(Turkish) Cypriot or Turkish	Romanian	(Turkish) Cypriot or Turkish
Siblings at school	No siblings at school	Older sister	No siblings at school

4.3.7 Data collection methods

The study consisted of two main phases. In the initial phase, which happened late in 2011, I visited the two schools, met the head teachers, teachers and students, observed some lessons and playground times, and I also tried some of the data collection methods I wished to use. I took the opportunity, from the various challenges raised (see Appendix D.6.), to decide what changes could be made during the main data collection, in order to gather the best possible data. Phase B occurred during the end of the school year in 2012. It was the main data collection phase, during which all the data that were collected were used for the findings that will be presented in the following chapter. More details regarding these two phases will be provided in section 4.3.8. The following diagram presents the chronological order in which the data collection methods were employed during the main data collection phase:

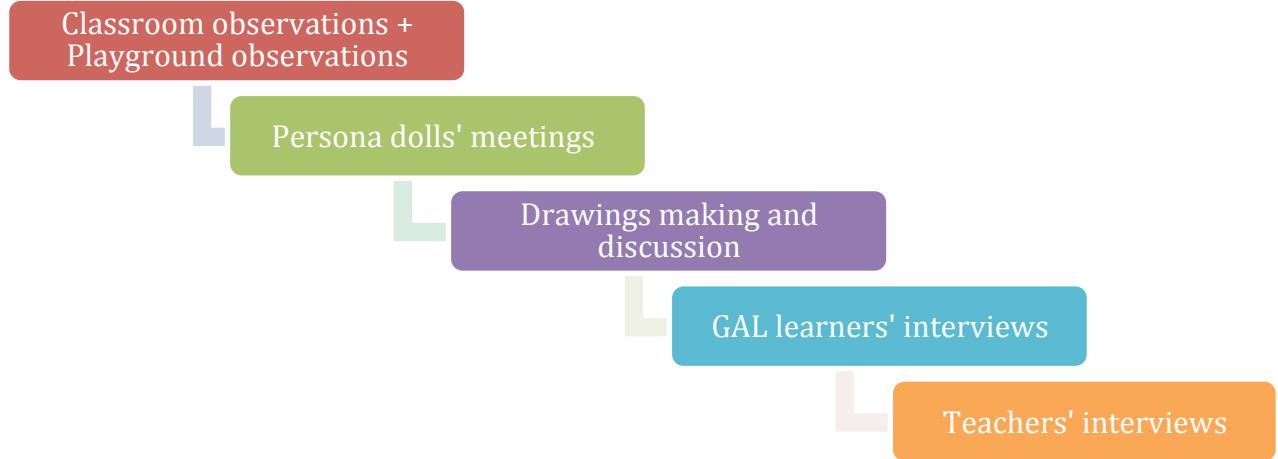


Figure 4.1: Chronological order of data collection methods

In the following Tables 4.6 and 4.7, these methods are succinctly presented based on how they were delivered, which participants were included and for what purpose:

Table 4.6: Details of data collection methods used

Main data collection methods	Special delivery of each method	Participants included
Observations	Classroom observations	Teachers GAL learners
	Playground observations	GAL learners
Interviews	One-to-one interviews	Teachers (Elijah-GAL learner, English as medium of communication)
	Group or paired interviews	GAL learners
	Interviews with the use of visual aids	GAL learners
	Interviews after the drawings	GAL learners
	Interviews with the use of persona dolls	GAL learners

Table 4.7: Purposes of data collection methods used

Data collection method	Purpose	RQ
Classroom observations	To establish how language use is related to participation and communication in teacher-learner and peer-to-peer contexts.	RQ1 AND RQ2
Playground observations	To establish how language use is related to participation and communication in peer-to-peer contexts.	RQ1
Learners' interviews with persona dolls	To establish children's conscious awareness of their language use related to participation and communication, as well as their emotional state in peer-to-peer and teacher-learner interactions.	RQ1
Learners' interviews: group and paired	To establish children's conscious awareness of their language use related to participation and communication, as well as their emotional state in peer-to-peer and teacher-learner interactions.	RQ1

Learners' interviews after drawings	To establish children's conscious awareness of their language use related to participation and communication, as well as their emotional state in peer-to-peer and teacher-learner interactions.	RQ1
Teachers' interviews	To establish teachers' intentions and their conscious awareness regarding their pedagogic choices in relation to GAL learners.	RQ2

4.3.7.1 *Observations*

The first method that was implemented was observations. It is generally acknowledged that one of the main advantages of observations is that they allow the researcher to watch each participant individually as to how he or she interacts with others within a particular context (Silverman, 2010). Observations allowed me to observe and investigate each of the 13 participants individually as they were found in the settings of the classroom and playground. Observations also enable the researcher to answer questions regarding what his/her participants do (*ibid*). Given the focus of this investigation on language use for socialising and communication purposes, observations allowed me to explore what that language use looked like as well as the variety of ways these language uses were exhibited. I could observe how different learners interact with other learners and with the teacher in different contexts, the extent of these interactions, their particular nature, and their possible consequences. Thus, through this data collection method, I not only observed each participant on his own, but I could also observe how he thrived or coped among others in specific settings. Finally, observation is a tool that can be extremely interesting and helpful in cases where the participants are unable to communicate in a comprehensible way for the interviewer (Greig & Taylor, 1999; Tisdall et al., 2009). This last point was of paramount importance for the particular project since the majority of the participants could not communicate effectively in the main language of communication (Greek).

However, I was aware that the implementation of the observations technique had to be employed carefully due to the various potential dangers regarding the quality

of the project. Many researchers advise that drawing inferences from naturally occurring behaviours should be done extremely tentatively (Dunn, 2005; Robson, 2011). I have tried to provide my readers with enough detailed contextual information in order to avoid any misleading interpretation. In addition to this, I have tried to avoid the generalisation of any behaviours observed. Another concern was that observations usually take data from extremely busy settings. Dunn (2005) suggests that observational data should focus on what is a significant aspect for the problem under investigation. In this study, both classrooms and playgrounds hosted a large number of teachers and learners. Therefore, in order to remain focused, I had in my notes a list with keywords alongside the participants' names that helped me concentrate my attention on the related issues under investigation. These keywords were based on the research questions set at the commencement of the research (see Appendix B).

4.3.7.1.1 Classroom observations

More specifically, classroom observations have been extensively and successfully used in various areas of the SLL field, such as second language teacher education (Farrell, 2011; Richards, 2008), adults' second language learning (Ramírez-Esparza et al., 2012) and in the enhancement of language learners' motivation (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). For this particular study, observations of the mainstream class aimed to provide insights into a quite complex situation. The fascinating part about classroom observations was that the language of communication and socialising was observed for its use as a tool in a setting where it was also the main subject of learning (Greek language lessons). In this context, the main aim of the classroom observations was to establish the language use regarding the socialising and communication process between teacher and GAL learner and peer-to-peer interactions. This method was used to facilitate collecting information for both RQs.

4.3.7.1.2 Playground observations

On the other hand, observations in the playground can provide us with another type of information. This argument is based on the belief that playgrounds are generally considered one of the few, if not the only, school settings where

spontaneous peer interactions are condoned and where everything is monitored by the children themselves (Borman, 1979). Children talk and act the way they want, or perhaps the way their friends want, but without any input from adults. By observing children, we provide them with the opportunity to be ‘heard’ through their actions, views and opinions, a contrast to the interviews, where children can be reticent, introverted, marginalised or uninterested (Swain, 2006). A total of 35 playground observations were held (during phase B). In this setting, the main aim of the playground observations was to determine the language use in peer-to-peer interactions, during socialising and communication processes, and whether that use presented any difference from the language use in the classroom setting. This method was used to collect information for the first RQ.

4.3.7.2 *Interviews*

Another source of data was interviews. Interviews are a unique method where both the interviewer and the interviewee have the opportunity of a direct approach through which they can discuss their interpretation of the world through a topic of mutual interest (Cohen et al., 2007). Interviewees have the opportunity to express their own point of view about a particular aspect in contrast to observations or filling in questionnaires, where the answer will probably be ranked on a five-point scale. In this project, semi-structured interviews were conducted with both GAL learners and teachers to provide more flexibility on the questions asked and the responses given (Robson, 2002). Although I prepared a list of predetermined questions (see Appendix B), by using semi-structured interviews I allowed my interviewees to explore issues they felt were important (Longhurst, 2010). Moreover, face-to-face interviews allowed modifications based on the person I was addressing and the format of the discussion that was generated (Robson, 2002).

Of course, it should be mentioned that interviewees might provide answers to please either the interviewer or the rest of the group in the interview. For this particular reason, the data collected from the interviews in this study were cross-referenced with the data collected from the observations. More specifically, interviews and observations were used in order to provide a richer picture and to check for any apparent contradictions in the data. Possible differences between the

two sets of data were not an indication that participants were untruthful, but a reflection of the possible constraints they were facing in the circumstances in which they found themselves in order to realise those beliefs they stated. Thus, the combination of these data sets provides a window to the complexity in human beliefs and behaviour. Therefore, it is claimed that the data collected from these two research methods were integrated to provide useful insights into the participants' conscious awareness of the specific problem under investigation. Integration of the data and methods occurred at several points throughout the research project. (Moran-Ellis et al, 2006). In this study, I developed the 'following a thread' integration approach, which allows researchers to generate several data sets such as interview, narrative visual and multimedia data (*ibid*). With this approach, I was able to position all the data sets alongside each other conceptually, and start identifying key themes and analytic questions (based on the literature and the original research questions) that required further exploration (*ibid*). Then, each analytic question or theme was analysed in one data set and continue investigating the theme across the other threads to create a constellation of findings (*ibid*). By the end, it was possible to generate a multi-faceted picture of the phenomenon. This method was used to address the second RQ.

4.3.7.2.1 Group and pair interviews

The interviews with the GAL learners were slightly more complicated than those with the teachers. Teachers were interviewed once in each phase, while GAL learners were participating in either group or pair interviews. Group or paired interviews have some different characteristics from one-to-one interviews. They provide the opportunity to gather a large amount of data in a relatively quick way (since more than one interviewees are present in each interview), and if an individual cannot respond to a question, the researcher can always ask another to express his or her thoughts (Hennessy & Heary, 2005). Group and paired interviews were used to collect information for the first RQ. My participants, due to their low level of proficiency in Greek, had some difficulties comprehending my questions, and sometimes they were just shy. Either way, as soon as another child was giving an answer, the child who was silent would try to contribute after

listening to his or her peer. Through group and peer interviews, some topics are also more easily discussed, while peers can be generally supportive during the whole procedure (Hennessy & Heary, 2005; Kellett & Ding, 2004). Thus, peer support was not only helpful in comprehension issues but for stress release as well. Young children also tend to feel more comfortable in this type of interview because they outnumber the adults, and the power relations that exist between the researcher and the child are minimised (Greene & Hill, 2005; Lobe et al., 2007; Tisdall et al., 2009). There is also the possibility that some of the children will provide answers that have been influenced by the desire to fit into the group (Hennessy & Heary, 2005). This disadvantage for some other studies was an advantage for this particular research since it allowed me to investigate how the participants' ideas and perspectives were shaped and determined by the setting they were in. This would not have been possible if information was not also collected and compared with the other methods, which provided a richer and more in-depth understanding of the participants, the settings found and the data obtained.

Unfortunately, these interviews come with a number of disadvantages as well. Firstly, it is difficult to obtain individual perspectives and beliefs from every single participant due to the danger of having one student or more dominating the conversation (Robson, 2011). When that was noticed, I would turn to the child who was silent to give him/her the opportunity to express himself/herself. Also, sometimes there is the need to moderate group discussion in a way where possible conflicts can be resolved, or personal exposure can be avoided (Kellett & Ding, 2004; Robson, 2011; Tisdall et al., 2009). I had to deal with such an occasion once with participants of Class T and I tried to address it discreetly. Timofei had expressed his objection when Tamara declared him as one of her friends. I tried to discuss this with Timofei, presenting him with the possibility that if Tamara felt that way, perhaps he should think of the idea and possibility to create a friendly relationship in the future. However, I did not stress that matter to any great extent so neither of the children felt uncomfortable and we proceeded with the interview process. Apart from this, there was also the possibility that children would be distracted (Cohen et al., 2007), or drift off the topic (Tisdall et al., 2009).

Fortunately, due to phase A, I had gained some experience and I was better prepared to maintain their interest. I would alter the tone of my voice, be more theatrical, change the place where the interviews were happening, and try to include in the interviews characteristics of their daily lives or personal interests of theirs I had discovered through my time in the field. Finally, Westcott and Littleton (2005, p. 141) comment that “It is easy to forget that children may rarely be spoken to, or seriously listened to, unless they have done something ‘wrong’”, therefore the child may be responding as if he or she is defending himself/herself. Also since most societies are based on educational systems which follow the IRF model of interaction, the child may not ask for clarification if something was not understood (Westcott & Littleton, 2005). Due to all of these challenges while interviewing young children, I was extremely careful both in my planning and in my conducting of the interviews with the learners, in order to provide them with proper explanations of the process while giving them the latitude to express themselves. In addition, I used some more child-friendly approaches that I will describe in the following subsections.

4.3.7.2.2 Interviews with the use of visual aids

The previously mentioned group or paired interviews, during phase A, were conducted with the use of visual aids for affective labelling tasks. These visual aids took the form of facial expressions. Each of these faces represented a different feeling (see figure 4.2). The researcher, through the use of these faces, asks the children to express their own feelings by pointing to faces as responses to his questions (Greig & Taylor, 1999). I used this technique during my very first interactions with GAL learners, since there was no need of a verbal answer from them. It is considered a socio-cognitive and socio-emotional task as well as a form of self-report, during which the participants are asked to assess their feelings through various activities and tasks (Greig & Taylor, 1999). Thus, GAL learners had the opportunity to self-evaluate their emotional state without having any external intervention. With the use of these visual aids, GAL learners were able to answer questions regarding their feelings about the school, their relationships with others and their feelings about particular aspects of the lesson. It should be mentioned that these visuals were used as triggers to initiate discussions and thus

the goal was not to receive black and white answers, but to support the understanding of such young participants:

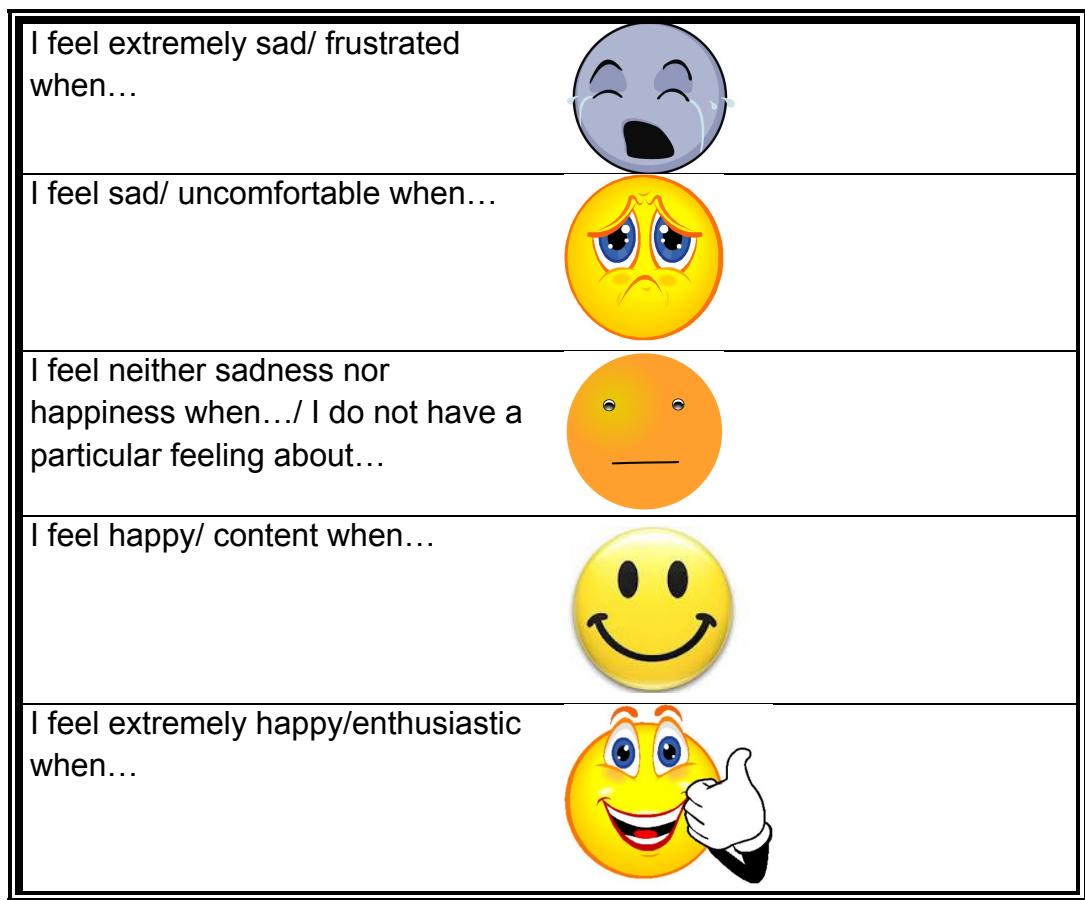


Figure 4.2: Translation of visual aids

4.3.7.2.3 Interviews after the drawings

Due to the fact that the children in this study were young, playful activities were introduced in phase A and reinforced during phase B (see section 4.3.8.). These activities stimulated children's responses and produced data that were directly created by them (Greene & Hill, 2005). Interviews after drawings were conducted only with the language learners and thus this method was used to collect information for the first RQ.

The creative method of drawing was used because it lifted the barrier of verbal communication caused by participants' low level of proficiency in Greek. Anning (1997), in her effort to indicate the kind of communication we can have with young

children through drawing, claimed that it is such a rich source of information and evidence that could easily compete with verbal communication through language. Also, since participants were asked to comment upon their drawings (in phase B), it gave children the opportunity to comment upon their representations of the class and the yard. These kinds of discussion provide incredibly interesting insights into children's experiences and perceptions and a more valid way of exploiting them (Veale, 2005).

However, when interpreting children's drawings it is necessary to be aware of the potential influential factors of their own self-expression. When children try to make sense of the world that surrounds them and communicate that understanding to someone else, they are probably influenced by various factors from the surrounding, contextual environment (Anning, 1997; Cox, 2005). Not only that, but they may also alter their answers based on the person they are addressing (Rufo, 2011). For this reason, the interpretations I made from the drawings were presented alongside the contextual cues (place, time, particular characteristics of the participant) and the parts from the interviews conducted afterwards that were related to that particular point of interest (see Drawings' analysis at Nvivo in Appendix C).

4.3.7.2.4 Interviews with the use of persona dolls

The last kind of interviews used was through the utilisation of persona dolls. Again, this method was only used with language learners, and thus it was used to collect information for the first RQ. Persona dolls is a method that is extensively used, not only for research purposes but also for teaching purposes (Feen-Calligan et al., 2009; Sherman & Thompson, 1994). Brown (2001, p. ix), in trying to illustrate the power of these dolls in discussions about discrimination, described them as "a magical conduit that enables children to understand feelings and examine the way they respond to children who are perceived as different and treated as different by their peer group." More specifically, persona dolls are a specific kind of doll that are given stories with a start but no middle and end, through which equality issues can be raised with young children (Brown, 2001). In this study, I initiated the stories

carefully and GAL learners were able to fill in the gaps (see transcripts of interviews with the persona dolls in Appendix C). Brown (2001) advises that researchers should respect children's involvement, which is why I accepted any storyline participants gave me. Through the stories, children find common characteristics of themselves and the dolls to help them empathise and believe in the story they are listening to and try to find solutions to the doll's situation (Brown, 2001). For this reason, I included characteristics of each of the GAL learners in the story I initiated. One such example was the use of Evgeny's best friend's name, Mario, to name the persona doll after him. This kind of interview engages children in something that attracts their interest while they are able to express their feelings in a safe and non-threatening environment (Brown, 2001). This unthreatening environment was crucial since sensitive issues such as discriminatory behaviours and actions were discussed for this project. Even though persona dolls are supposed to be used on a regular basis throughout the school year, in order for the children to bond with them, they were easily used in this study because GAL learners loved them:



Figure 4.3: Images of the persona dolls used

All of the above innovative research methods that were used in order to address the challenges of investigating young participants with whom I did not share the same L1 aimed at answering the following goal: To establish children's conscious

awareness of their language use related to participation and communication, as well as their emotional state in peer-to-peer and teacher-learner interactions.

4.3.8 Data recording methods

The various aforementioned data collection methods produced data that were recorded in different ways. The following Table 4.8 indicates which recording methods were used for each data collection method:

Table 4.8: Data recording methods

Main data collection methods	Special delivery of each method	Data recording methods
Observations	Classroom observations	Field notes Audio recordings Video recordings
	Playground observations	Field notes Audio recordings
Interviews	One-to-one interviews	Field notes Audio recordings
	Group or paired interviews	Field notes Audio recordings
	Interviews with the use of visual aids	Field notes Audio recordings
	Interviews after the drawings	Field notes Audio recordings
	Interviews with the use of persona dolls	Field notes Audio recordings

4.3.8.1 Field notes

One of the many advantages of using field notes, and the main reason for using the technique in this project, is that they provide the observer with the opportunity to describe consistently in his own words what he is interested in without using a formal coding scheme (Asher & Gabriel, 1993). The absence of a formal coding scheme gives the latitude to adjust an observation according to the specific characteristics of the participants, settings and time periods observed. It is also a technique where no specific guidelines can be given, since there is no real right or wrong way to keep them (Swain, 2006). Field notes are generally an individual

construction that is developed over time to suit the person who is doing the research (Swain, 2006). Thus, the freedom provided is expanded not only to meet the investigation of a specific participant but also to the individual characteristics of the researcher himself. Apart from this, field notes are much less costly than any other recording technique (Asher & Gabriel, 1993), since they do not require any special equipment. Additionally, taking field notes in contrast to audio and video recordings runs less danger of reactivity (Cohen et al., 2007).

However, there are a number of shortcomings when keeping field notes. Asher and Gabriel (1993) argue that they do not provide a complete verbatim sequence of the speech events nor an accurate transcript. My personal experience in the field confirmed that point when recorders were not given to the first two participants during the playground observations. For this reason, audio and/or video recordings were conducted for the rest of the methods afterwards. Field notes are also known to deal with the researcher's limitations of memory (Swain, 2006; Walford, 2009). To address this issue, when I was used the recordings I tried to expand my personal notes as soon as I left the field. Generally, field notes are more helpful in fields where there is limited physical activity and the people observed are usually in dyads rather than in groups (Walford, 2009). This was one more reason to keep field notes in conjunction with audio and video recordings for this particular study.

4.3.8.2 *Audio recordings*

Audio recordings are mostly favoured due to the accurate and complete records of the speech actions they can collect (Asher & Gabriel, 1993). The reason for their accuracy is due to the fact that details such as whispering and private speech, and paralinguistic features such as the pitch, volume and rate of the speech can be collected (Asher & Gabriel, 1993). Paralinguistic information was particularly interesting in this project, since it provided indications as to what the participants were feeling when they were using their L1. Additionally, audio recorders are usually less intrusive than video cameras (Asher & Gabriel, 1993). This was noticed in phase A, when children paid more attention to the cameras instead of the tiny audio recorders found somewhere near them. Nevertheless, all the equipment was soon forgotten as time went by. It should be mentioned that one of

the shortcomings of this recording method is that it may cause difficulties in identifying the direction or even the identification of the speaker (Asher & Gabriel, 1993). This was addressed through the use of both field notes and video recordings simultaneously.

4.3.8.3 *Video recordings*

The last method of data recording was video recording, which was used only in classroom observations. The use of cameras is one of the very few methods that can provide the best comprehension of classroom talk due to the allowance of investigating the participants' verbal and, at the same time, nonverbal behaviour (Robson, 2011). In this project, audio recordings did not capture the non-verbal behaviour of the participants, and video recordings strengthened the notes taken regarding this issue. Video recordings also allow the researcher to come really close to the data since he or she can go through them over and over again (*ibid*). Due to the multi-layered phenomenon under investigation, this possibility was an extremely helpful feature. However, there is always the possibility that the participants may react differently in the presence of cameras (*ibid*). This concern was well acknowledged from the beginning, which is why during phase A I allowed time for my participants to accustom themselves to the equipment.

4.3.9 Data collection phases

In this section, I provide explicit details related to the particular events that occurred during each of the two data collection phases as well as the purposes each of them served:

Table 4.9: Data collection phases

Phase A 28/11/2011-20/12/2011		Phase B 23/04/2012- 08/06/2012	
Amount of data collection methods	Data recording methods	Amount of data collection methods	Data recording methods
4 x 40 minute classroom observations in each class	-Field notes taken after -2 cameras -2 audio recorders on learner's desk	10 x 40 minute classroom observations in each class	-Field notes taken in the field, expanded after -2 cameras -2 audio recorders on learner's desk
1 playground observation for each GAL learner (15-20 minutes each)	-Field notes taken after -Audio recorders on GAL learners	35 playground observations with GAL learners (15-20 minutes each)	-Field notes taken in the field, expanded after -Audio recorders on GAL learner's desk
1 one-to-one interview for each teacher	-Field notes taken after -Audio recorders near them	1 x one-to-one interview for each teacher and Elijah	-Field notes taken during and after -Audio recorders near them
2 paired interviews with GAL learners of Class T- use of mediator in one	-Field notes taken after -Audio recorders near them	3 paired and 1 grouped interview with the use of visual aids and peers as translators	-Field notes taken during and after -Audio recorders near them
2 paired interviews with the 4 GAL learners of Class E	-Field notes taken after -Audio recorders near them		

-use of visual aids			
2 drawings by Class K No interviews after	-Field notes taken after	2 drawings by all GAL learners 1 interview with each GAL learner after	-Field notes taken during and after -Audio recorders near them
No interviews with persona dolls	-	3 interviews using persona dolls in each class	-Field notes taken during and after -Audio recorders near them

4.3.9.1 Phase A – Trial Methods

During this initial phase, I tested my methods by investigating their applicability, identifying any possible shortcomings of the equipment used and familiarising the participants with the process, in order to make any changes needed in the main data collection phase.

During phase A, the very first visits at each school involved a constant effort to communicate with the parents and the children to obtain their informed consent. Four classroom observations of 40-minutes length were observed in each of the three classrooms. I chose to observe four lessons in order to have enough time in each class to identify the GAL learners I would include in the study, to test the placement of the equipment, to allow the participants to accustom themselves with the equipment, and finally to avoid the possibility of observing a ‘fixed’ lesson. The main problem faced during this phase was the changes in the timetable, due to various unexpected school functions (see Appendix D). Nevertheless, the amount of time in the Greek language lessons was achieved, providing a sufficient amount of data. The first of the four teaching periods that were observed in each class was the detecting period. During this period I tried to identify which of the students would be most suitable as participants. This decision was made if neither of the student’s parents was Greek or Greek Cypriot and the student’s proficiency in Greek was medium or even poorer (see section 4.3.5.3). After that first period, and

my discussions with the teachers (see students' information sheet in Appendix A), the four GAL learners of each class were chosen. During this time, none of the participants were absent from the school or attended any support sessions (additional Greek language sessions) – a fact that did not warn me of what was going to happen during phase B.

In addition to the classroom observations, one playground observation with each GAL learner was conducted. During this initial phase, I had placed the recorders on two GAL learners each time, during the same break. This choice was less time-consuming but I realised that if the participants were playing far away from each other it caused me great difficulty while observing them. As far as the use of the audio recorders was concerned, while the initial plan was to place them on the participants, Mrs Kristia discouraged me from doing so in case they dropped it. That was why during the first playground observation with Kaif and Kabir, I was the one holding the recorder, trying to be as close to them as possible. When I realised that it was impossible to walk next to them and have them react normally, I decided to place the recorder on the participant's arm, like a bracelet. This allowed me to gather richer and more authentic data. Unfortunately, even by having the recorders on them, there were still many problems to deal with (see Appendix D). Some of these problems were the accidental pressing of the recorder's buttons, the dropping of the recorder due to intense physical movement, and the background noise, which made conversations inaudible. Nevertheless, I managed to provide time for the participants to get used to the equipment.

As far as the interviews were concerned, I exploited this phase in order to determine the amount of time needed to conduct the interviews by testing myself as a listener and as an interviewer who was able to elicit the information required, finalising the interview schedule (see Appendix B) used (Silverman, 2010). Teachers' interviews were held in classrooms or the teachers' lobby, where we would not be interrupted. They were stimulated recall interviews to provide them with the opportunity to reflect upon their teaching practices and use of language. I would bring up a topic I had observed in the class and ask them to reflect on it. I thought this would be less intimidating and less judging than showing clips of video recordings. As it turned out, due to the safe and friendly environment created in the

interviews, teachers took the initiative to share details of their practice and critique them (see Appendix D).

The GAL learners' interview schedule was more complicated. I tried to use different kinds of interviews due to the difficulties faced while investigating young children. I used icebreakers, eye contact and thought hard about the structuring of the questions (Hennessy & Heary, 2005), while I also considered the seating arrangements. These were considered in order to keep their interest and to prevent them becoming bored. The relaxed seating on cushions and a roofed yard area provided me with a risk-free environment. My main aim was to create a friendly atmosphere to minimise any possible power relations that could be generated between me as a researcher and them, or between the children themselves. Not only that, but their low proficiency level in Greek was also a great concern of mine. For this particular reason, I tested different types of interviews, such as interviews with visual aids. All of the participants were extremely pleased to interact with the faces, due to their young age. I also used an interviewer-moderator with the Turkish-speaking learners of Class T.

Eventually, I asked Class K to draw two pictures. I asked the whole class (GAL learners or not) to produce a drawing of themselves inside the class and outside in the yard (see Appendix D). The drawings were made inside the class at a specific time given to me by the teacher. The reason for asking all the children to draw was to minimise the participants' anxiety and it was a good way to compare the different views from different children. By the end of the phase, when I realised how challenging it was to try to interpret and make meaning out of their drawings, I acknowledged how vital it was for their voices and comments to be heard through a follow-up discussion.

During this phase, I avoided taking notes in the field to avoid causing further anxiety to the participants. Only afterwards when I was alone I tried to recall (sometimes by listening to the recording again) what had happened in order to write a summary (see Appendix D). Audio recorders were used in all observations and interviews and the recorders were placed as close to the participants as possible. During the classroom observations conducted in phase A, I used two

cameras: one at the front of the class focusing on the students and one at the back focusing on the teacher. The use of tripods also helped me for a better capture of the classroom data.

4.3.9.2 *Phase B – Main Data Collection Period*

Phase B was the main phase of data collection for this study. Miss Marilena (the replacement teacher of Class E) had left and Miss Elena returned from her sick leave, while two out of the 12 GAL learners had left the country due to immigration issues. These changes in participants caused further complications. Nevertheless, despite the difficulties, the amount of data collected was considered to be sufficient (see Appendix C).

During phase B, I observed 10 Greek language sessions of 40-minutes length from each class. The number of classroom observations was chosen in order to provide me with rich data on the linguistic and general behaviour of all of the participants in each class. Also by spending so much time in each class, I was able to be considered part of the setting and collect as much natural data as possible. I continued being a non-participant observer, sitting at the back of each room. Nevertheless, there were a number of challenges to be dealt with as well (see Appendix B). There were days during which observations were held when some of the GAL learners were either absent from the school or attended support sessions (additional Greek language lessons). Moreover, the various school functions caused further delays to the completion of the number of observations for each class. During phase A, I had the opportunity to decide the placement of the recording devices I was going to use (audio recorders and video camera), as well as the length of each observation conducted to collect a sufficient amount of data. During phase B, cameras were placed in the same positions as in phase A. Unfortunately, one of the two cameras caused some problems with the recordings but the second camera recorded everything, operating as a back-up plan.

Due to the various school events, the timetable for playground observations had to change as well (see Appendix B). The main issue in phase B was that the recordings from the playground observations suffered from background noise, the

unwillingness of some of the GAL learners to participate, or their absence from school. Most of the children who refused to take part wanted to play freely (without worrying about the recorder) or because they felt generally uncomfortable. Of course, I respected their decision without pressuring them and I tried to observe them from a distance. The fact that they felt comfortable enough to say no was an indication of their general ease with the research process. It was hard to keep an eye on them at all times, because the weather was much better than during phase A and the children explored all the available grounds at each school. Not only this, but there were days during which they accidentally stopped the recording due to their intense physical movement, causing delays and loss of data. Regardless of the numerous challenges, GAL learners felt more comfortable with the equipment and some of them seemed to enjoy the attraction of interest they were receiving from their peers.

During this phase, the only change that occurred with the teachers' interviews was that Mrs. Elena had returned to the school. The interviews were again conducted after the classroom observations in order to discuss previously noticed behaviours (see Appendix C). The settings of the interviews were either an empty classroom or the teachers' lobby. On the other hand, GAL learners' interview pairs of this phase were chosen based on gender, proficiency level and the absence of two GAL learners since phase A. For this reason, I had to conduct a group interview in Class T and an individual interview in Class E (during which the language of communication was English). Even though a translator-moderator was used in phase A, this was not feasible in phase B for two reasons. The specific teacher was absent on sick leave and children understood more Greek, with some of them taking the initiative to explain to others what I was asking. I used the same visual aids as in phase A. However, I realised that the children were perfectly capable of expressing their feelings in words. Even if they were used in all of the interviews conducted with GAL learners, at this stage children enjoyed the faces but did not use them as a means of communication.

Interviews with the use of persona dolls were introduced in phase B, after a suggestion from my supervisors to address the problem of getting GAL learners to

talk as was experienced in phase A. Initially, the plan was that each class would have three interviews using the persona dolls. In the first one, the children chose the doll they wanted to talk about, with my influence (I was trying to allocate dolls based on their external characteristics). During the meetings, some initial information about the dolls' background was given. I would try to add characteristics from the participants to find common things they were interested in and empathies with the doll. Children could gradually contribute to that story, while in the two last interviews an incident of discrimination was introduced in order to discuss issues of injustice and discrimination they may have witnessed or experienced (see Appendix C). Unfortunately, during some of the meetings with Classes K and E, some participants were absent. It should be mentioned that the participants of Class T refused to talk to me during the second interview, because they were bored. All in all, it could be said that the application of this method was quite problematic because the amount of time was not enough and the proficiency of the participants negatively affected the generating of a fruitful discussion. However, by taking an extended look at the discussion that did occur, many interesting points were revealed that clarified ambiguous answers and revealed facts from the rest of the interviews and observations.

Eventually, GAL learners from all three classes were asked to draw a picture of themselves inside the classroom and outside in the yard. In this phase, the participants drew the pictures at school; I did ask them to do them at home in their own time, but none of them remembered. There were participants who misunderstood the guidelines of the activity due to their low proficiency level in Greek, which led to the repetition of the activity. The discussion after the drawings was added in phase B, something that did not occur in phase A. The discussions we had afterwards were audio recorded while I tried to keep field notes as they were drawing. These interviews were one-to-one, and the discussion involved the different features that each of the GAL learners had included in his or her drawing (see Appendix C).

4.4 Analysing data

The initial phase of analysis, according to many researchers (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Robson, 2011; Silverman, 2010) is claimed to commence by the time we have identified the specific topic we wish to investigate. Afterwards, a process of minimising and reducing the amount of data we have in front of us follows. Therefore, from the moment the research questions were set and the research methods were chosen (as presented in previous sections), analysis had already begun. In this subsection I will present the process of analysing the data from the various methods, in a chronological order, as it happened:

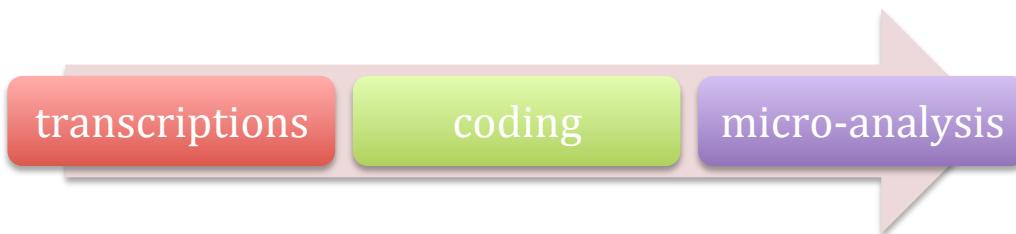


Figure 4.4: Chronological order of data analysis

4.4.1 Phase 1: Transcriptions

In order to be able to code my data, I knew I would initially have to transcribe the video and audio recordings, to have a written form of them (field notes were already in a written form). Due to the large amount of data that I was expected to record, I had initially planned to carry out transcriptions that would focus only on specific events of particular interest. However, by the time I started the analysis and after the time spent in the field, I decided to transcribe the whole text of GAL learners' interviews (RQ1) and creative activities (RQ1), and teachers' interviews (RQ2) (see samples of transcriptions in Appendix C). This was decided because the particular methods were not part of the participants' everyday routine, thus everything occurring during them focused directly on the study. Additionally, the amount of data received from them was less than anticipated and therefore, I could not risk losing any of what had already been captured. On the other hand, the

transcriptions from the classroom and playground observations focused only on specific events of particular interest, following the initial plan (see Appendix C). The identification of those critical events, according to Cohen et al. (2007), should be based on whether those incidents shed light on specific parts of the research. My criterion of what was considered as important participant behaviour was whether those behaviours linked to any of my research questions. Classroom behaviours were considered regarding whether they were informative either for the first or the second RQ, while playground behaviours were considered in relation to whether they illuminated parts of RQ1.

There was, however, a further complication during the transcription process. The majority of the data were in Greek. The initial plan was also quite different for this stage. At the beginning, I thought it would be better to make full written transcriptions in Greek and finally translate them into English. However, during the process of translation I found it easier and less time-consuming to translate them immediately (since the language that was used was quite simple) and have as a written form only the English text. Of course, due to the complexity of the use of various linguistic varieties I underlined the use of GCD, using bold for the use of SMG and the use of language, which could be equally considered SMG use, and GCD use at the same time was neither underlined nor bold. During this process, I tried to be as thorough as possible, since there is always the concern whether the researcher has managed to record adequately and precisely what was said by the participants (Cohen et al., 2007). It should be mentioned that during the transcription process, special attention was given to the text's lexical content and its cohesiveness in structure, since these are indications of joint activities (Mercer, 2004).

A standard transcription system was used, which facilitated my personal organisation and would also help the reader's investigation later on (Silverman, 2010). This transcription system was adopted by Bucholtz (2007) and was modified to meet the particular needs of this research (see Appendix C). This system was chosen due to its simple and comprehensible representation of the non-linguistic features accompanying verbal talk. My main additions to this system were the

abbreviations: pseudonyms of the people in the recordings and the symbols used to identify the various linguistic varieties used by the participants.

Finally, the transcription process was conducted through the use of a simple word processor, even if later on it was decided to use Nvivo for the subsequent analysis. This decision was wisely taken after my supervisors' suggestion. Their suggestion was based on the fact that having to learn how to use new software and the new challenge of analysing data at the same time would have been intimidating. On the other hand, the transcription process did not need the Nvivo programme, since it could be completed perfectly through the use of a simple word processor.

It should be mentioned at this point that drawings were analysed differently because of their form and since transcription was not possible. For the drawings' interpretation, Greig and Taylor (1999) refer to specific clues, such as the alterations of the line quality, specific distinguishable shapes or the use of uncommon symbols, which were taken into serious consideration during my interpretation (see Appendix C).

4.4.2 Phase 2: Coding

The process of the data coding that was followed throughout this study related to all of the transcribed data collected from the classroom, playground observations, interviews with the teachers, the group interviews with the GAL learners, the interviews with the GAL learners using the persona dolls and the interviews after the drawings were made. Only the actual drawing analysis occurred in a rather different way as mentioned above. However, their analysis contributed to the construction of the themes I developed for my thesis regarding language use. Further information about the drawing contribution will be given later on.

At this point, it should be mentioned that there were two distinct types of coding used for the analysis of my data. The first type was thematic analysis, a qualitative analytic method that is mainly used in psychology but which also informs other fields (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns/themes within data, describing them in rich detail (Braun &

Clarke, 2006). Usually, while conducting a thematic analysis, it often goes further than describing, since it also interprets various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998). The themes capture something significant about the data in relation to the research questions and provide a more detailed and nuanced account of one particular theme, or group of themes, within the data. During my analysis, I identified broader topics related to the language use investigation, such as participants' relationships. Then I analysed the topics in great detail as they are presented in the thesis. The themes can be identified in one of two primary ways: in an inductive – 'bottom up' way, or in a deductive- 'top down' way (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In this study, there were themes identified in the literature review, such as teachers' expectations and GAL learners' and Greek speakers' relationships. In addition, thematic analysis can be conducted at a semantic/explicit level, or at a latent/interpretative level (Boyatzis, 1998). This study tried to conduct a thematic analysis at the latent level, which goes beyond the semantic content of the data. This kind of analysis involves interpretative work and allows for the identification and examination of underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualisations that inform the semantic content of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The second type of coding used in the study was linguistic, which was more straightforward than the thematic analysis. In qualitative studies, language is both the tool and the object of analysis, since the interactants negotiate an understanding of the subject matter in question, which subsequently becomes the object of linguistic analysis and textual interpretation (Jensen & Jankowski, 1991). The three main levels of linguistic coding initially involved the identification of the most fundamental elements of discourse, the utterances or statements, which are referred to as 'speech acts' (*ibid*). At this level, each statement is defined literally as an instance of linguistic action (*ibid*). Here, I identified the language used by both teachers and GAL learners. At a second level, language serves to establish a mode of interaction between communicators, most clearly in the case of interpersonal communication (*ibid*). In this case, I tried through the linguistic analysis to distinguish the different types of interactions between the interactants (usually this was visible from the linguistic variety chosen to be used). The final

level is at the level of discourse at which the various linguistic categories can be seen to come together as a coherent structure (*ibid*). At this point, each researcher tries to find the message within the text and interpret it. In this study, I coded the focus of the language use to be able to interpret each speaker's intention.

The coding process commenced by entering all of the transcribed texts in the Nvivo programme. Initially, I coded items from the transcribed texts (see Table 4.10). These codes were words or phrases that stood out as relevant to the investigation in general and the research questions in particular. There were of course words or phrases that seemed to be relevant to the investigation through the literature review, which was also conducted before entering the field. Thus, the approach followed for both the coding and the analysis of the data was neither an emic nor an etic one, but rather a combination of the two. This phase informed both of the RQs:

Table 4.10: Codes used for coding

Codes for thematic coding	Codes for linguistic coding
Humorous remarks	For discipline purposes
Personal remarks	To make a joke or personal comments
Teachers' feelings about their class	To ask practical/procedural questions
Teachers' views of students' feelings	To encourage
Discrimination issues between teachers and students	To provide instructions To explain SMG words
Teachers' on students' relationships	To give feedback
Discrimination issues between students	For comprehension questions To 'correct' GCD words to SMG
Peer work promoted (or not) by teachers	For vocabulary explanation For comprehension questions
Showing confidence in GAL learners' abilities	For encouragement To comment upon something
Use of encouragement and praise	Clarification requests
Breaking down an activity	Asking for teacher's help
Teamwork	Procedural questions
Communication goals	Request for feedback
Social skills	To read something directly from a book
Academic skills	To address their siblings
Appropriateness inside school	To address other peers
Expect teacher to take initiative	To ask for translation
Group work when they have the same L1	During games Through isolated words and broken

Asked clarifications from a peer Repetition and rephrasing Speech intonation Slow speech rhythm Vocabulary explanation Use of isolated words Clear explanations-provision of examples Multiple choices Encourage students to ask for help Take nothing for granted Use of empirical learning Use of visual aids Body language, gestures, pantomime Routines Differentiation Integration Authenticity and honesty Friendly relationships Hostile relationships Confusion related to ethnicity Feelings about being in the class Least or most favourite subjects Least or most favourite activities Prayer Raising hands Reading as a group Request for feedback at desk Mime a peer Non-participation Asked for repetition Comprehension questions	sentences To express intense feelings Use of repetition of something previously used To form requests For the negative form and the use of future tense To provide explanations
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After the coding of the items, these codes were collected into clusters (see Table 4.11). It should be mentioned that quite often a code was allocated to more than one cluster. For the second level of coding, I used a manual analysis in the Nvivo, where parts of the texts (words, phrases or even whole paragraphs) were dragged and dropped into the ‘nodes’-clusters (see Figure 4.5). Once more, these clusters were linked to both RQs:

Table 4.11: Clusters stage 2

Clusters for thematic coding	Clusters for linguistic coding
Relationships between teachers and GAL learners Teachers' practices Teachers' language uses Students' language uses-teachers' views GAL relationships with other peers GAL relationships with themselves GAL learners' feelings Activities GAL learners' communication methods with teachers GAL learners' communication methods with peers GAL learners' communication strategies with others Understanding of Greek	L1 in the classroom GCD in the classroom SMG in the classroom English in the classroom L1 in the playground GCD in the playground SMG in the playground English in the playground

The screenshot shows the Nvivo interface with the following details:

- File Bar:** Home, Create, External Data, Analyze, Explore, Layout, View.
- Toolbar:** Cut, Copy, Paste, Merge, Clipboard.
- Format Bar:** Cambria, 12pt, Bold (B), Italic (I), Underline (U), Merge, Paragraph, Reset Settings, Styles.
- Search Bar:** Look for: Nodes, Search In: Nodes.
- Nodes View:**
 - Nodes:** GAL learners communication methods with peers, GAL learners communication with teachers, Teachers' practices, English inside the classroom, gal learners english use, teachers' language use, GAL learners' as research facilitators.
 - Sources:** 55, 30, 23, 0, 1, 4, 6.
 - References:** 195, 88, 222, 0, 1, 23, 9.
 - Created By:** NK, NK, NK, NK, NK, NK, NK.
 - Modified On:** 9/21/2012 9:01 PM, 9/21/2012 8:51 PM, 9/21/2012 8:50 PM, 4/26/2013 3:10 PM, 4/26/2013 3:13 PM, 8/24/2013 9:05 AM, 4/26/2013 3:12 PM.
 - Modified By:** NK, NK, NK, NK, NK, NK, NK.
- Detail View:** Shows a conversation between Kemal and L. Kemal asks if it's going to be yours, L. says no, Kemal gives it to her later, L. asks why, Kemal says she told me like that, L. asks if you will break it, Kemal says no output for 44" and then speaking in their L1.
- Bottom Navigation:** Sources, Nodes, Classifications, Collections, Queries, Reports, Models, Folders.
- Bottom Status Bar:** 8 NK, 64 Items, Nodes: 12, References: 12, Editable, Line: 141 Column: 15, 100%, EN, 6:48 PM, 11/24/2014.

Figure 4.5: Nodes/clusters' creation in Nvivo

I did not use ‘queries’ to explore my coded data or any other automatic features of Nvivo to identify themes, because this process does not allow you to come closer to the data. When this initial coding was completed, I opened each ‘node’-cluster and I further explored the references that were gathered in each one of them. From this exploration, there were occasions where further coding was needed, since some of the initial clusters were overly generalised. More specifically, after re-examining the clusters used in the linguistic coding and after an additional literature review I added two new clusters (see Table 4.12). The code mixing and switching in the playground was linked to the first RQ while code mixing and switching in the class was linked to both RQs:

Table 4.12: Clusters stage 3

Clusters for thematic coding (stage 3)	Clusters for linguistic coding (stage 3)
No new clusters for this type of coding	Code mixing and code switching in the playground Code mixing and code switching in the class

Following the identification of the codes and their collection into clusters, I drew these clusters together into bigger themes (see Table 4.13). Nvivo was a magnificent way to produce these themes by using memos, which allowed me to group data together, regardless of their length (see Figure 4.6.). The grouping was focused either on particular connections, causes or correlations among the participants’ language use and general behaviour. This categorisation enabled the investigation of intentionality and the exploration of possible trends and patterns among the participants (Cohen et al., 2007). This grouping was also a useful way to capture my own ideas, views or intuitions I had at that stage of the data analysis (Robson, 2011). Nvivo allowed me to allocate annotations and comments in particular categories, keeping track of my own thoughts. This process resulted in being extremely helpful because it facilitated the development of my interpretation of the data:

Table 4.13: Themes of coding

RQs	Themes for thematic coding	Definition of themes (for further information see Table 4.15)
RQ2	Teachers' classroom relationships	This theme includes data related to feelings and behaviours observed by the teachers towards the GAL learners at a more personal level in the classroom.
RQ2	Teachers enabling participation	This theme includes pieces of information related to the way teachers enabled GAL learners' socialising and participation in activities in the classroom.
RQ2	Teachers' classroom communication	This theme includes all kinds of means employed by teachers to transmit a message to GAL learners in the classroom.
RQ1	GAL learners' classroom relationships	This theme includes data related to the relationships between GAL learners and themselves, their peers and their teachers, in the classroom.
RQ1	GAL learners' classroom participation	This theme includes pieces of information related to the way GAL learners socialise and participate in activities in the classroom.
RQ1	GAL learners' classroom communication	This theme includes all kinds of means employed by GAL learners to transmit a message to their peers (GAL learners themselves or not) or to their teachers in the classroom.
RQ1	GAL learners' playground relationships	This theme includes data related to the relationships between GAL learners and themselves, their peers and their teachers outside in the yard.
RQ1	GAL learners' playground communication	This theme includes all kinds of means employed by GAL learners to transmit a message to their peers (GAL learners themselves or not) outside in the yard.
RQ1	GAL learners' playground participation	This theme includes pieces of information related to the way GAL learners socialise and participate in activities outside in the yard.
Themes for linguistic coding	Definition of themes (for further information see Table 4.16)	
RQ2	Teachers' use of linguistic varieties	This theme includes the use of GCD, SMG, English, GAL learners' L1 and the juxtaposition of these varieties by the teachers.
RQ1	GAL learners' use of linguistic varieties	This theme includes the use of GCD, SMG, English, GAL learners' L1 and the juxtaposition of these varieties by GAL learners.

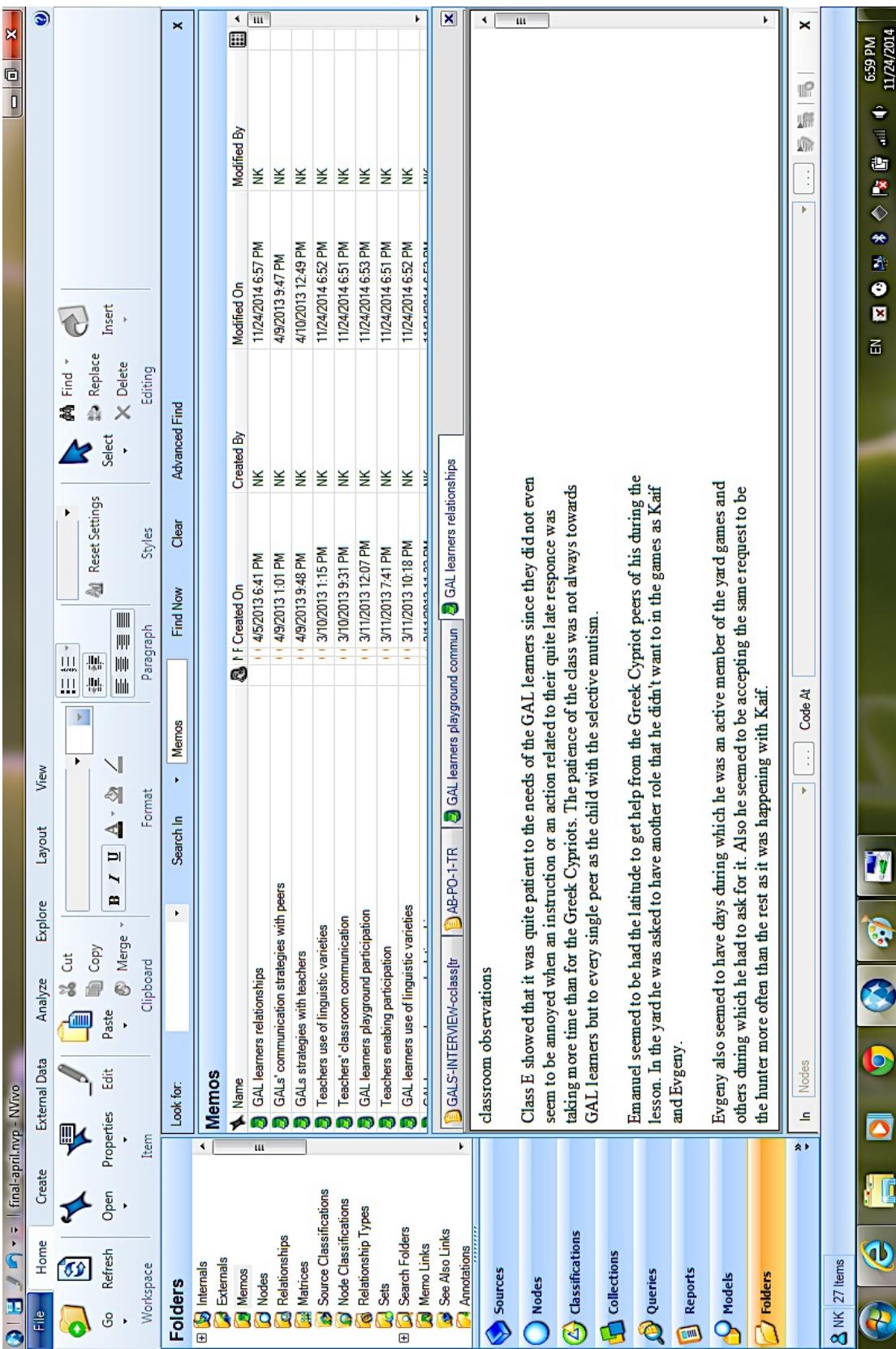


Figure 4.6: Memoing for the creation of themes in Nvivo

The fifth stage of the analysis included the use of these themes to develop the larger categories for the organisation and the development of my thesis (see Table 4.14). This fifth stage came after analysing the data and after completing a third stage of literature review (there were three main chronological stages of literature review throughout the completion of this thesis - the third stage refers to the last one). At this point, no major changes were made in the linguistic type of coding since the themes were quite straightforward (see Table 4.13 above). This stage was completed by copying memos (themes) from Nvivo to a Word document. It should be mentioned that using Nvivo allowed me to analyse and work with various kinds of data (texts, pictures and videos) in a short time and provided rigour to the analysis process (Robson, 2011). It also enabled me to apply detailed consideration of all the data I had, on a line-by-line basis, where consistent coding schemes were developed (*ibid*). However, at this point Microsoft Word allowed me to create full texts and was less time-consuming for the production of the initial drafts of the findings chapter. In the document used for this stage of coding, data from the learners' drawings were also copied and used to support the categorisation of the themes:

Table 4.14: Categorisation of themes

Categories for thematic coding	RQs
Teachers' language use for socialising	RQ2
Teachers' language use for learning	RQ2
GAL learners' language use for socialising in the classroom	RQ1
GAL learners' language use for learning in the classroom	RQ1
GAL learners' use of language to enable learning	RQ1

Table 4.15: Concentrating table for thematic coding

Categories	Themes	Clusters	Codes (only some examples)
Teachers' language use for socialising	Teachers' classroom relationships	Relationships between teachers and GAL learners	1. Humorous remarks 2. Personal remarks
		Teachers' impact on students' relationships with GAL learners	1. Teachers' influence on students' relationships
	Teachers enabling participation	Teachers' practices and language uses	1. Peer work promoted (or not) by teachers 2. Showing confidence in GAL learners' abilities
		Teachers' aspirations	1. Teamwork 2. Communication goals
Teachers' language use for learning	Teachers' classroom communication	Teachers' practices	1. Use of empirical learning 2. Use of visual aids
		Teachers' language uses	1. Repetition and rephrasing 2. Speech intonation
		Students' language uses - teachers' views	1. Expect teacher to take initiative 2. Group work when they have the same L1
GAL learners' language use for socialising in the classroom	GAL learners' classroom relationships	GAL relationships with other peers	1. Peer assistance 2. Friendly relationships
		GAL relationships with themselves	Confusion related to ethnicity
	GAL learners' classroom participation	GAL learners' feelings	1. Feelings about being in the class 2. Least or most favourite subjects
		Activities	1. Prayer 2. Raising hands
	GAL learners' classroom communication	GAL learners' communication methods with teachers	1. Isolated words 2. Body language, gestures questions
		GAL learners' communication methods with peers	1. Isolated words 2. Body language, gestures

GAL learners' language use for socialising in the playground	GAL learners' playground relationships	GAL relationships with others	1. Friendly relationships 2. Relationships with siblings
		GAL relationships with themselves-identity	Confusion related to ethnicity
	GAL learners' playground participation	GAL learners' feelings	1. Positive feelings 2. Unclear feelings 3. Negative feelings
		GAL learners' uses of language	1. Avoid using L1 2. Familiarise themselves with the Cypriot culture
		Activities	1. Football 2. Hide and seek
	GAL learners' playground communication	GAL learners' communication strategies with others	1. Peer help 2. Ask peers/siblings with whom they share the same L1 3. Ask for repetition 4. Comprehension questions
		Understanding of Greek	1. Harder outside in the yard 2. Easier outside in the yard

Table 4.16: Concentrating table for linguistic coding

Themes	Clusters	Codes (only some examples)
Teachers' use of linguistic varieties	GCD	1. To express anger /discipline purposes 2.Comprehension questions
	SMG	1. For providing instructions 2. To explain vocabulary 3. To give feedback
	Code mixing and code switching	1. For vocabulary explanation 2. For procedural talk
	English	1. For providing instructions 2. For comprehension questions 3. For encouragement
	GAL learners' L1	Not available
GAL learners' use of linguistic varieties	L1 in the classroom	1. Asking for translation 2. To comment upon something
	GCD in the classroom	1. Clarification requests 2. Asking for teacher's help 3. Procedural questions 4. Request for feedback
	SMG in the classroom	1. To read something directly from a book
	English in the classroom	No data recorded
	Code mixing and code switching in the class	No data recorded
	L1 in the playground	1. To address their siblings 2. To address peers
	GCD in the playground	1. During games 2. Through isolated words and broken sentences
	SMG in the playground	1. For requests 2. Through isolated words and broken phrases 3. Throughout games
	English in the playground	1. Through isolated words 2. For football terms
	Code mixing and code switching in the playground	1. Mixing instead of switching for phrases they heard from other GCs

All the procedures followed for the coding and organisation of the data were carried out with critical thinking and cross-referencing from all the disposable sources of information available to me.

4.4.3 Phase 3: Micro-analytical interactional approach

After the coding process, I moved on to analyse the contents of each of the codes. I applied a micro-analytical interactional approach, which considered individual behaviour to reflect the various broader social factors of the setting where they are found (Siegel, 2003). More specifically, I revisited the codes in Nvivo and reread my field notes. During this stage, I selected the codes that were relevant to the broader social factors identified and copied them into Microsoft Word. Throughout this process, I tried to identify relationships between existing codes and broader social factors. An example of such was the analysis of the codes: GAL learners' relationships with themselves and with others with the broader Cypriots' stances towards non-native Greek speakers of Greek. During the creation of memos, I was able to consider the broader social and political issues with the Turkish Cypriot community and the other ethnic groups that could have affected the relationships of the participants. At this point of the analysis, my experience of the field throughout the data collection phases, as well as my being a Greek Cypriot, helped me identify these important social factors.

The next stage of analysis included the consideration of time and place. The language used was also explored based on the institutional and cultural context where it was observed. Again, I revisited the memos created after the coding, developing my own thoughts after investigating and experiencing the institutional changes over the past few years in the context of Cyprus, such as ZEP schools and the critical literacy programme and how these affected the schools visited. During the revisiting of the existing codes, language use was also examined regarding whether it was used in or outside the classroom, whether it was used in teacher-learner or learner-learner interactions, and whether there were any particular characteristics observed that seemed to be influenced by the general institutional context of the two schools affecting language use. This part of the

analysis was conducted as the previous one, where related codes were copied into a Microsoft Word document and a full text was created.

After these, the emergent patterns and the repeatedly observed behaviours were explored, not only based on their systematic appearance but also on the way they changed or evolved through the passage of time. This refers to the dynamic nature of the data, the constant change of the contextual base of the shared knowledge of the participants (Mercer, 2004). Despite the fact that this was not a longitudinal study, a considerable amount of time was spent in the field to capture the dynamic nature of the use of language by both teachers and students. Due to the fact that the first phase of data collection occurred immediately after GAL learners arrived in the school, while the second occurred at the very end of the school year, this allowed me to observe whether there were any differences or similarities in the participants' linguistic and general behaviour. One example of this was the investigation of GAL learners' relationships and how they evolved over the months as well as how they might have affected language use of the participants. This happened by exploring the extracts grouped in Nvivo under the related codes and copied into Microsoft Word where a full text was created. The importance of this dynamic approach was the ability to investigate whether particular behaviours enabled or nor the participants' capacity to 'get along' in that context.

Throughout the analysis, on a more general level, I tried to avoid having under-analysed data (Antaki et al., 2003). I tried to avoid summarising and tried commentating on particular extracts where contextual factors were considered (*ibid*). More specifically, I focused on the main purpose of the use of language. Language use was not only examined as to who used which variety and where, but also as to which aim was fulfilled by its use: socialising, communicating or learning. As a researcher, I tried to provide only the quotes and the transcription of text that were relevant to the point I wanted to make, and proceeded to detailed examination and commentary only upon the specific extract, based on the patterns identified and the influential factors that were considered important.

During the data analysis process, which lasted for an extensive amount of time, various concerns were addressed. Initially, I tried to make my readers aware of any

possible factors that could have influenced my interpretation during the commentary of the data. Over-quotation (Antaki et al., 2003) was also addressed by carefully selecting a small number of quotations, enough to support the claim I wanted to make each time. Finally, the findings extracted from the analysis were not presented in a way that they could be overgeneralised in large categories of the population (*ibid*). I presented them in a way that every contextual or conflicting variable which could influence their interpretation was fully transparent to the readers to allow them to make their own interpretations. The main aim of the analysis was not the exploration of regularities to generalise specific behaviours or ideas, but the capturing of the uniqueness of each individual and the way he or she was experiencing the specific circumstance (Cohen et al., 2007).

4.5 Research quality

It is generally acknowledged that there is an on-going debate regarding how validity and reliability criteria should be considered in interpretive research or even if there should be any predetermined criteria at all (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Rolfe, 2006; Siegel, 2003). This debate arises from the uneven comparison between qualitative and quantitative research projects. The way that the issues of validity and reliability should be addressed varies according to the type of the specific project (Cohen et al., 2007). This is no surprise since the two main types of data – quantitative and qualitative – differ substantially and cannot be critiqued with the same criteria. The whole discussion on whether specific criteria should be used for interpretive research is extensively discussed by Schwandt (1996), who does not eliminate the need to have a set of criteria, but introduces a new way of rethinking about social inquiry as a practical philosophy. Smith (1993) argues that the validity and reliability criteria needs to be radically transformed in order to survive with the needs of the most recent research. Therefore, it is believed that the appropriate way to examine the quality of an inquiry should be based on its theoretical and methodological assumptions.

The inquiries, which adopt the positivism paradigm, tend to be evaluated based on four main features: their internal validity, generalisability, reliability and objectivity.

These features, even if they are considered as benchmarks of quality for this kind of research, should not be considered for studies such as the one presented here. The reasons for the appropriateness of using these features are the context-embedded findings, the value-loaded settings, participants and researcher, which have been acknowledged and which the readers have been reminded about repeatedly. To indicate this specific qualitative study's robustness, it is necessary to address the three main elements of rigour in quite a different manner, making explicit the reasons for choosing those criteria in order to confirm that the quality and rigour have been attended to avoid the undermining of this qualitative study as a scientific process (Tobin & Begley, 2004). The criteria I have adopted as appropriate for my research are credibility, transferability to other similar contexts, and dependability (Scott & Usher, 2011).

The need to examine the quality of this specific work, which was based upon social practices and refers to social beings, resulted from the possibility that policy makers, practitioners or researchers will use it or act upon it. For this reason I examined the research's rigour by carefully selecting, well ahead, the most suitable criteria of quality for this specific kind of work. As Morse et al. (2002, p. 14) claim, thinking about issues of quality in the end "runs the risk of missing serious threats to the reliability and validity until it is too late to correct them." For this purpose, I refer to actions that have been made throughout the study and not strategies that researchers usually think about in the end of the study to persuade their audience about the research's rigour.

4.5.1 Credibility

Credibility addresses the issue of the fit between the participants' opinions and the researcher's interpretation of them (Schwandt, 2001), which is why it depends on the ability and effort made by the researcher (Golafshani, 2003) to achieve this fit. Since the researcher's interpretation occurs during the data collection and the data analysis process, credibility is related to these particular procedures of research (Denscombe, 2003).

A number of choices and actions were taken throughout the research to achieve

credibility. First, the data sets from various methods - classroom observations, playground observations, teachers' interviews, GAL learners' interviews, persona dolls meetings and GAL learners' drawings and discussions - were integrated to provide a fuller picture of the human complexity of the participants' experiences of the situation under investigation. All of these methods were audio recorded and field notes were taken. In addition, classroom observations were also video recorded. The questions asked in the interviews and during the various activities with the learners aimed to examine the observed data from the classroom and the playground from a different perspective.

Moreover, an extended period of time was spent at the schools, both in the first and in the second period of data collection. Approximately 1,700 minutes of video and audio recorded lessons, 700 minutes of audio recorded interactions in the playground area, more than 120 minutes of teachers' interviews, and 200 minutes of discussion and activities with the GAL learners were collected by the end of the fieldwork. These amounts guaranteed the credibility of the data by being sufficient in the richness and the scope of the data (Creswell, 2007).

Since credibility derives from the researcher's abilities and efforts throughout the study (Golafshani, 2003) as already mentioned, I tried to be invisible as an observer. I also tried to minimise biased behaviours by maintaining a distance from the learners outside in the yard. The organisation of the interviews and activities were carefully planned after consideration and consultation from the initial phase of data collection. The participants also had the opportunity to get used to the equipment in the various phases, resulting in a natural behaviour.

4.5.2 Transferability

Transferability is often and commonly used to refer to the external validity or generalisability of an inquiry. However, since interpretive studies support the fact that there is not a single or right interpretation of what they are researching, there is the need to acknowledge that transferability may not replicate exactly the role played by generalisability in positivistic research (Denscombe, 2003). What it does certainly refer to is the transfer of knowledge acquired in a specific case under

investigation to another case (*ibid*). To recognise and reject generalisability in its traditional type is not a weakness. On the contrary, as Donmoyer (1990) argues, it is an acknowledgement of the core element of the interpretive study, which is the individual subjective meaning.

It is believed that through the steps taken, the conclusions from this specific project can be applied in similar settings. This is possible because I have provided sufficient and appropriate details for teachers working in similar situations to relate their decision making to the multiple case study described in this thesis (Bassey, 1981, as cited in Bell, 2006). Readers of this thesis are also provided with all the details and contextual factors of the surrounding environment under investigation (McKay, 2006) to exploit the conclusions and main ideas presented.

4.5.3 Dependability

The notion of reliability is used extensively for evaluating quantitative data but the general idea is frequently used in all kinds of research (Golafshani, 2003). The difference between examining reliability in quantitative studies and qualitative ones is that the former evaluates quality trying to explain while the latter evaluates quality trying to understand (*ibid*). In qualitative research, dependability is the term that is used for the evaluation of the quality of the study, to understand what is researched, and can be achieved through a process of reviewing (Tobin & Begley, 2004). This reviewing is the logical, traceable procedure that is followed for the completion of the study that becomes explicitly documented for the readers (Schwandt, 2001).

Dependability can be achieved through a twofold process. On the one hand, it can be achieved through an audit trail, which refers to others examining the researcher's documentation of data, methods, decisions and of course the final product (Tobin & Begley, 2004). This study has been presented in a number of conferences and seminars over the three years of its production, where other researchers reviewed the papers of the presentations. On the other hand, there is the reflexivity process, where researchers keep a self-critical interpretation of the whole research progression, where both internal and external dialogue is included (Tobin & Begley, 2004). During my observations, I kept notes with details that were

considered important throughout the analysis of the data collected, which are provided in this chapter. Even if there is a sustained claim that no act of observation can be free from the underlying assumptions that guide it, I tried through my detailed data presentation to avoid personal reconstructions (Silverman, 2010). In the interviewing procedure, the use of the different kinds of interviews allowed me to avoid, as much as possible, personal reconstructions of what the respondents had said. Even if the dependability of data from the interviews might have been enhanced if I used closed questions (Silverman, 2010), I used open questions as well, since I wanted to obtain the respondents' personal views. However, I tried to be careful with my phrasing to avoid any leading questions and to maintain impartiality in order to pursue an equal understanding of all of my questions by all the respondents.

4.5.4 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations concern any kind of research and in most cases the researcher does not anticipate the issues that are raised. In this part, various considerations related to this project, such as gaining ethical approval and the use of the British Educational Research Association (BERA) guidelines, will be further discussed and presented as to how they were handled.

Access was one of the initial considerations I had to deal with. Firstly, ethical approval had to be granted by the University of Exeter, where I was studying, which I finally managed to gain from the university ethics committee (see Appendix B). In addition to this, I also had to gain approval from MOEC, as is requested for all researchers who conduct a study on the island of Cyprus (see Appendix B). During the approval process, information was provided regarding the instruments intended to be used, the aims of the study, the expected outcomes and the possible consequences to the participants involved. The approval was finally granted after I was asked to get permission from all parents (participants' parents or not) to video record their children (see Appendix B). That turned out to be an extremely time-consuming procedure, because the majority of the parents didn't speak either Greek or English. That was why I asked another teacher in school T

to help me translate the form into Turkish. On the consent form I informed the participants about the study's aims and the participants' rights (BERA, 2004). Regardless of the precautions received, an extremely low percentage of parents returned the form to me. There was a possibility that the children did not understand the importance or forgot the form completely. After that, I asked the schools for the contact details of all the parents. I called every single family and tried to explain to them what the study was about. There were cases when the parents put another member of the family on the phone, a friend or a neighbour, to translate to them what I was requesting. In the end, I had only one parent who refused. That mother also came into the class the following day. As soon as she realised that I was not interfering in the lesson in any way, she allowed me to film her son.

The wording of the consent form and its organisation also merited special attention. During the preparation of the form, I was extremely concerned about issues such as how informative it should be, what kind of information should be given and to whom (BERA, 2004; Cohen et al., 2007). I realised that by mentioning the general interest of the study without revealing particular themes I was interested in, I was not jeopardising the validity of the data (see Appendix B).

Because a large number of my participants were children, I also felt obligated to ask for their consent too. Sometimes this is not always possible due to time constraints or overreliance on the approval of the children's caregivers (Hill, Laybourn & Borland, 2007). I tried to make children comprehend the goals of the study and their rights as participants (Hill et al., 2007). Of course, this was not always easy, especially because of their intellectual maturity (Cree, Kay & Tisdall, 2002). A further complication in this study was the language barrier, which was somehow handled with the help of their peers. In the end, most of the participants seemed to comprehend and also used their right to decline to take part on some occasions.

Another concern was the relationships between the researcher and the participants. I was aware that the researcher should not be viewed as an authority

figure (Cohen et al., 2007), since power relations between us could deeply influence the situation under investigation (Burgess, 1989; Malone, 2003). Knowing that the nature of that relationship could affect the study's outcomes and the nature of the information collected (Burgess, 1989), I tried to be extremely careful. I tried to avoid intimacy so that the participants would not feel the need to impress me, or to hold an unreachable stance that could cause hesitation from them (Cohen et al., 2007). I tried not to initiate any interactions beyond the research's needs, and I tried to make them feel comfortable during the collection methods. They seemed to enjoy my presence; some even said they were sad to see me leave; others felt comfortable enough to refuse to take part in some methods. All things considered, a general balanced level of intimacy was maintained.

As far as the sample's confidentiality was concerned, the research guaranteed the total anonymity of the participants, where no reference to real names or disclosure of the participants' information was made (BERA, 2004). The sense of confidentiality and anonymity was not lightly applied. I described and used with caution the contextual characteristics of the setting that were provided to the readers, due to the theoretical baseline of the study. Hence, any possible violation of our confidentiality agreement was dismissed.

Another confidentiality threat can arise in the situation where the researcher witnesses or hears something that is unethical (Cohen et al., 2007; Lobe et al., 2007). I knew I had to be prepared and decided that I would either maintain my non-interventionist position and protect my participants' privacy or I would disclose it, based on the gravity of the incident. The only incident during which I felt the need to understand a bit better the situation, was when one of my participants mentioned during the group interviews that he was hit at home. After the completion of the discussion, I talked about this incident with their teacher, without revealing which participant specifically. She informed me that she would transfer this information to the therapist of the school, who had sessions with most of the children and specifically with the GAL learners, since they were facing the challenge of a totally new environment.

Finally, the conclusions were presented by acknowledging the possibility of possible contextual variations or conflicting variables that influenced the data and were beyond my control (Pring, 2004). I also provided a detailed presentation of the limitations of the study as a personal obligation to avoid misleading the audience due to fallible information. As far as the consequences for the participants of the study were concerned (Cohen et al., 2007; Pring, 2004), I had a careful consideration of all the possible ethical dimensions (as discussed in this section) to avoid the smallest possibility of causing any harm to any of my participants.

4.6 Final remarks from the chapter

This chapter has described how this study's originality derives from its theoretical framework, the settings used, the participants addressed and the context where it was based (as discussed in the previous chapters) enhanced by the various methodological features. It is a study that has dared to use creative, innovative methods, moving away from the traditional ones that are typically found in similar educational-linguistic studies, in an effort to solve the problems that were raised by having such a young cohort. Additionally to this, studies which adopt a micro-analytical, interactional approach are rarely found in SLL research (Siegel, 2003). This methodological originality was not lightly applied, since various concerns both theoretically loaded and practically implemented have been seriously considered, as discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5: Findings

Up to this point of the thesis, all the thinking undertaken and choices made before the data were collected have been presented. In this chapter, everything that is included relates to the data collection phase and the analysis. The presentation of the findings is initially organised based on the way language is used for socialising or for learning by each group of participants. Initially, the focus is on teachers' language use inside the class and then GAL learners' language use inside and outside the class. The last sections of the findings' chapter present the use of the different linguistic varieties by both groups of participants.

The following figure (Figure 5.1.) indicates the six data methods used throughout the study and they are presented in the chronological order in which they were implemented. This is to help with the exploration of the findings presented afterwards:

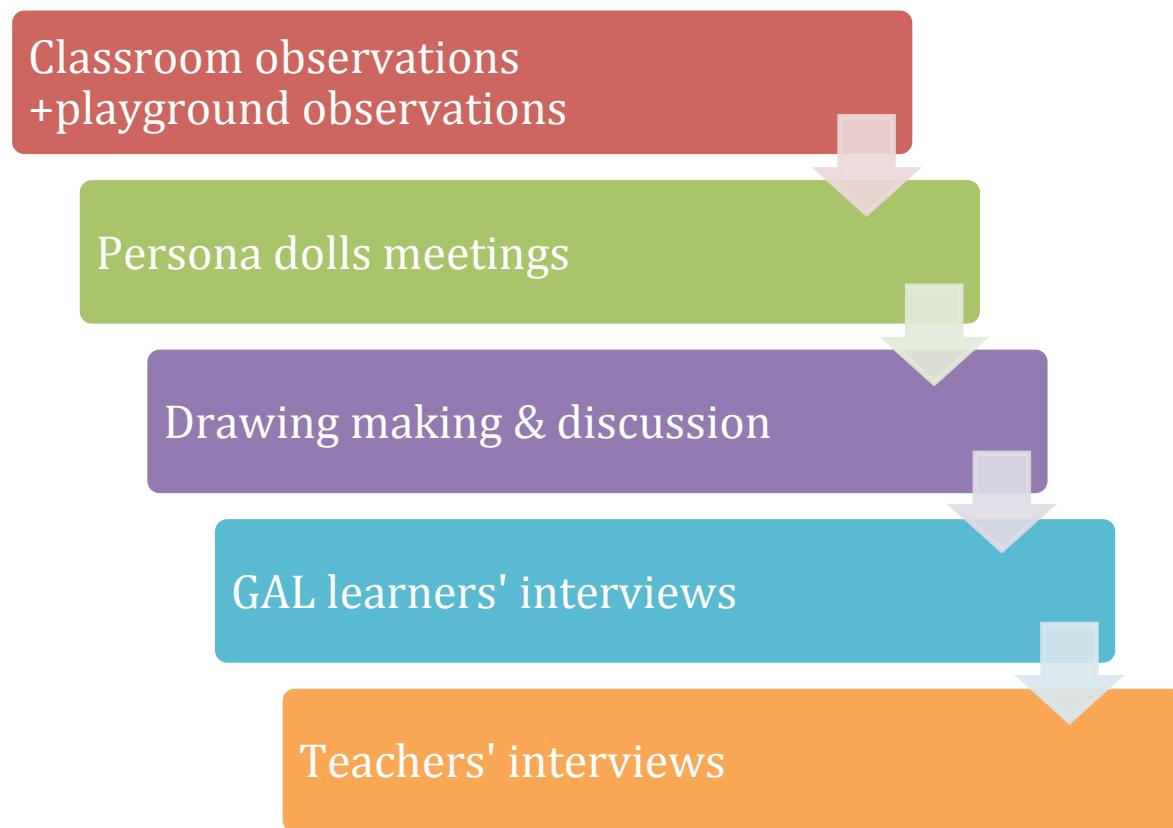


Figure 5.1: Chronological order of the data sets

5.1 How teachers shape classroom language practices to enable socialising and to enable language learning

In this initial section of the findings chapter, the way language is used by teachers both in terms of classroom relationships and socialising on the one hand and also to support learning on the other, is presented. At the beginning of this section (as in all the following sections), a table is provided that summarises the different labels, codes, themes and categories that were used to explore the uses of language and its apparent purposes to be accomplished inside the classroom. These labels, codes, themes and categories were created throughout the five phases of coding during the data analysis. It should be mentioned that the reason for starting the presentation of the findings with the use of language for this particular purpose (for socialising) is due to the fact that the study's main aim was to investigate how these children were "getting along" and "fitting in" in the setting in which they were found.

5.1.1 Language use to enable socialising

As is shown in Table 5.1, teachers' use of language was examined to assess whether it enabled GAL learners' socialising inside the classroom. These findings were directly linked to RQ2 and more significantly to the role of the teachers in terms of how language learners were getting along in the classroom. This particular language use incorporates two different topics: teachers' use of language that was explicitly related to the relationships built inside the classroom and secondly, the use of language that was associated with the way teachers were facilitating (or not) GAL learners' participation during the Greek language lesson's activities:

Table 5.1: Coding of teachers' use of language for socialising

Categories	Themes	Clusters	Codes
Teachers' language use for socialising	Classroom relationships	Relationships between teachers and GAL learners	1. Humorous remarks 2. Personal remarks 3. Teachers' feelings about their class 4. Teachers' views of students'

			feelings 5. Discrimination issues between teachers and students
		Teachers' impact on students' relationships with GAL learners	1. Teachers' influence on students' relationships 2. Discrimination issues between students
	Enabling participation	Teachers' practices and language uses	1. Peer work promoted (or not) by teachers 2. Showing confidence in GAL learners' abilities 3. Use of encouragement and praise 4. Breaking down an activity
		Teachers' aspirations	1. Teamwork 2. Communication goals 3. Social skills 4. Academic skills 5. Appropriateness inside school

5.1.1.1 *Classroom relationships*

Throughout classroom observations and during teachers' interviews, data were collected regarding teachers' linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour that affected the relationships between teachers and GAL learners and between GAL learners and other students. Initially, the relationships between the teachers and the GAL learners were investigated through the humorous or other personal remarks that the teachers would make to GAL learners during the observed Greek language lessons. These teachers' actions that had a more social character aimed (as the teachers' revealed during their interviews) to relax the atmosphere in the class and help students feel closer to them:

EXTRACT 5.1

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	My Kyla, did you cut your hair?	
2.	Kyla:	Yes!	
3.	Mrs. Kristia:	Oh... turn around to see.	
4.	Kyla:	No verbal	She turned around,

indicating her understanding

5. Mrs. Who cut it for you?
- Kristia:
6. Kyla: Mum!
7. Mrs. Yes? She knows?
- Kristia:
8. Kyla: Yes.

In this episode (see Extract 5.1), Mrs. Kristia helps Kyle to share something about herself, even though she was a particularly introverted child. In Mrs. Kristia's class there were a lot of moments during which children would share things about themselves, indicating that there was a comfortable atmosphere and time for bonding during classroom time. Mrs. Elena had also managed to create a comfortable atmosphere, during which children would share important personal moments and experiences. On the other hand, Mrs. Tina didn't allow too much time for the children to share. Perhaps this happened because there were a few moments in her class, during which children were rude to each other, making it relatively easy for racist incidents to occur. Even if teachers were unquestionably holding a power position in the class, behaviours such as allowing time for more personal remarks seemed to be aimed at minimising the gap between themselves and their students. From my personal experience both as a learner and as a teacher in the Cypriot schools, I am aware that it is not surprising for Cypriot teachers to try to build a closer relationship between themselves and their students. All in all, none of the teachers were recorded as behaving disrespectfully towards any of their students. In addition, incidents such as the one described above also directly influenced GAL learners' linguistic behaviour, since they were "forced" to contribute to a discussion that was about them. Here, Kyla replied back to her teacher using isolated words, which was a huge linguistic contribution for Kyla. Therefore the teacher's role in this setting allowed Kyla to get along with the discussion even with the minimum linguistic output. This particular teacher role was also found in other studies conducted in Cyprus (Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005;

Tsiplakou, 2007) and thus it should be considered as a deductive approach to this study's analysis of data.

Teachers' relationships with their students were not only explored through the various comments that were made during the language lessons. During the discussion I had with the teachers, during the interviews, they were also able to express their feelings about their classes. All of them expressed a mixture of emotions. Mrs. Kristia initially claimed to be relaxed by the end of the school year but at the same time worried about whether she had done whatever she could as a teacher. She also seemed concerned about how her students would progress in the future. Mrs. Elena said that her worry resulted from the lack of communication with the parents of GAL learners. She claimed that this obstacle was negatively affecting the learners' progress. In the end, Mrs. Kristia added that she felt lucky to be teaching in a first grade class, because she felt it was more difficult and it was easier to panic when teaching older multilingual groups. Mrs. Elena said that she was also happy to be in her class, not because it was a first grade but because it was a class where racism was absent. The last of the three teachers, Mrs. Tina, expressed quite different feelings towards her class. Even though she did not directly refer to her students, she admitted to having an extremely hard time throughout the year, during which her patience was tested. When she referred directly to her students she expressed some very positive feelings such as pride because she felt they had improved, and that in the end, no matter what, she loved them.

Regardless of the teachers' individual differences (as professionals) and the situational differences (as they were experiencing different classes), all three of them seemed to be concerned about whether they were doing the best they could to provide a safe, equal and fair educational environment for their students. This was an indication of them being caring and responsible teachers, and had a direct impact on the relationship they had with their language learners.

Part of the investigation of the teachers' relationships with their students was borne out by the teachers' interview data again, as Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Elena presented

a discrimination-free stance towards their classes. Both of the teachers seemed to acknowledge the heterogeneousness of their classes, not because of the GAL learners' diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds but because every single child was different in her own way, as a person and as a character, and each one had different potential and educational needs. However, during my discussion with the third teacher, Mrs. Tina, she made constant differentiation between the Roma and the Turkish-speaking learners and the rest of the GAL learners. At this point, it should be mentioned that in Mrs Tina's school the majority of the GAL learners were Turkish speaking while Mrs Kristia's and Mrs. Elena's classes were in a more plurilingual school. Mrs. Tina said that sometimes her own behaviour was different and she was somehow obligated to yell at Turkish-speaking learners to achieve discipline goals because they were used to that way. She referred to the Turkish-speaking students as gypsies and Roma (it is unknown to the school and to me whether those children were indeed Roma or not). Previous studies (Godwin & Perkins, 2002), investigated teachers' stances towards their student population, and claimed that the teachers' stances and overall role can affect students' participation and self-confidence inside the classroom. It could be tentatively suggested that one of the reasons language learners' in class T were less involved and had less participation than the language learners in classes K and E was because Mrs. Tina presented a different stance towards her student population than Mrs. Elena and Mrs. Kristia.

Nevertheless, classroom relationships consisted not only of the relationships between teachers and GAL learners, but also between GAL learners and other students (see Table 5.1). Since, in this section the data that are presented come directly from the teachers, the relationships between the children were explored through each teacher's eyes and whether or not the teacher facilitated healthy relationships between the students.

From the data collected during the classroom observations, teachers appeared to have a great influence regarding the way relationships between students (regardless of their background) were shaped. Due to the great diversity in the classes, it was difficult not to come across situations during which students would

express their curiosity about that diversity. Most of these incidents were recorded in one particular lesson in Class T and a single incident was also recorded in Class K. Both Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Tina handled the situation in a way that curiosity was diffused:

EXTRACT 5.2

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Kyriakos:	Mrs., why is her surname Bibere?	Klara was near Mrs. Kristia and she was asking for her help on how to write her surname
2.	Mrs. Kristia:	Why is yours Mantalusis?	

In this episode, a Greek student was asking why the surname of a GAL learner who was Bulgarian-speaking was sounding the way it was. Mrs. Kristia tried to address the curiosity by asking him back his own question. Both parties started laughing and they realised that there was no point to the question. The discussion ended there, since another content-based question followed this.

Apart from these ‘rescuing moves’, these three teachers (less so Mrs. Tina) were also recorded promoting the different ethnic backgrounds of their students. Some of these incidents included teachers asking the translation of Greek words to the learners’ L1, promoting peer cooperation between learners who shared the same L1, or asking them to bring something from their home countries for the rest of the class to explore. Gillanders (2007) agrees that by including printed materials, videos and songs of GAL learners’ country of origin, this helps to build a trusting relationship between the teachers and their students.

During the discussions I had with the teachers throughout the interviews, I asked them about how they viewed the emotional state of their students. Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Elena said that if some of their students were sad, this was caused by other family issues. They believed that since the school and the classrooms were so

multilingual and multicultural, it was almost impossible for a child to be unhappy just because he was a GAL learner. Mrs. Tina and Mrs. Kristia talked about the possibility that some of their students may have been sad due to the cultural distance between the educational customs in Cyprus and their home countries-cultures. This inductive approach of data analysis was based on the comments that the teachers provided during the interviews, allowing the investigation of the teacher's role in the language learners' "getting along" process in a more pluralistic way. Despite the fact that teachers' claimed that the emotional state of their language learners was not affected by their cultural or linguistic differentiality, it was recognised that teachers had thought of this possibility, thus they were ready to react in order to protect their students.

When Mrs. Tina was asked how she viewed children and their emotional state whenever they were at school, she said that children generally felt happy except for the Roma students since they were not used to being educated and restricted (see Extract 5.46):

EXTRACT 5.3

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	<u>Now, if you were asked, do you feel, do you believe they are enjoying the school? Do you think that there are moments that they are unhappy?</u>	
2.	Mrs. Tina:	<u>There are children who come often.</u> <u>They like coming to school.</u>	
3.	R:	Yes.	
4.	Mrs. Tina:	<u>There are children who are coming with great difficulty!</u>	
5.	R:	<u>Yes, and is it because, because it is, it is in the specific atmosphere?</u>	
6.	Mrs. Tina:	No.	
7.	R:	<u>Because they feel somehow like outsiders... or?</u>	
8.	Mrs. Tina:	<u>No, this race.</u>	
9.	R:	Yes.	

10. Mrs. Tina: The Roma.
11. R: Yes.
12. Mrs. Tina: They are not used to getting education.
13. R: I see.
14. Mrs. Tina: They learned it from their parents and so on. They didn't learn like us...
15. R: Yes.
16. Mrs. Tina: We will go to our kindergarten, the majority didn't go to kindergarten, no one from them basically has been to kindergarten.
17. R: I see.
18. Mrs. Tina: It is like we are starting, we know! We are going to study...
19. R: There is a constant...
20. Mrs. Tina: There is a...
21. R: Organisation...
22. Mrs. Tina: Yes. They know that they just come to school, so that their parents would get the benefit...

It should be mentioned that what Mrs. Tina was describing here I had also witnessed during the first phase at the school. I would see the head teacher locking the outside door so that no one would run out in the middle of the lessons. I would also hear teachers describing or discussing incidents during which Roma children would be wandering around in the schoolyard and refusing to enter the classrooms. It should be emphasised at this point, that the majority of the Roma/Turkish-speaking children in that school came from the northern part of the island, the unrecognised Turkish speaking community of the country. In addition, it should be taken into consideration that all of these incidents were anecdotal accounts. However, the attitudes I encountered in the particular school (regardless of whether they were influenced or not by the political issue in the country) had to be taken into consideration in order to fully understand every single participant's

point of view and to investigate the way their perspectives, stances and relationships were affecting their language use.

Throughout the interviews with the teachers, I also had the opportunity to raise the issue of racist incidents among the students. Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Elena strongly believed that their classrooms were working as a whole, and due to their own heterogeneity no one was feeling nervous or acting strangely against another:

EXTRACT 5.4

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	And especially us, where we have Eleonora.	
2.	R:	Yes.	
3.	Mrs. Elena:	Which is a serious case of elective mutism.	
4.	R:	Yes.	
5.	Mrs. Elena:	<u>Meaning, there hasn't been any racism against her AT ALL, 5, 6 times she spoke saying only one word, they got excited instead of saying OUOOO... she talked or...</u>	
6.	R:	Yes, yes.	
7.	Mrs. Elena:	<u>They got excited and I can see them telling her 'come on dear Eleonora say it!'</u>	
8.	R:	They encourage her.	
9.	Mrs. Elena:	Yes, yes... <u>talk, come on.</u>	

The extract provides a clear example of the relationships between the students in class E and the possible use of language that these children would perform. In the extract above, Mrs. Elena mentions the behaviour of the rest of the children towards a GC child with elective mutism and that even that kind of heterogeneity was handled with care by the rest of the class. Interestingly enough, none of the rest of the students in class E had any kind of learning disabilities or “special needs”.

This is in contrast to the interview data from Mrs. Tina, who claimed that there were GC students who would ask her not to place them next to ‘them’ (meaning the language learners and specifically TCs). She added that an explanation for this behaviour might have been that there were parents who were negatively influenced either socially or politically towards TCs and they would confess to her that they wanted to change school because of the existence of Turkish-speaking students in that school. It should be mentioned that during the classroom observations, there was an incident, during which a GC student (Teo) asked not to be paired with a TC student (Tamara) in a classroom activity. The teacher immediately changed the pairs. This incident had a direct impact on Tamara’s language use, since after this she did not participate in the activity at all. These antithetical results were also found in Zembylas and Lesta’s (2011) study. Thus, the particular context of each class, part of which is the teacher, seemed to have a huge influence into how the students’ stances were shaped towards their foreign language classmates.

5.1.1.2 *Enabling Participation*

The second part of the teachers’ language use for socialising, includes the exploration of whether their use was enabling (or not) GAL learners’ participation in class activities.

During classroom observations, Mrs. Elena and Mrs. Tina seemed to facilitate language learners’ participation by promoting peer work between them and their peers. Mrs. Tina, however, was not observed to promote peer work between Roma students and GC students because she claimed that there was a huge gap between their proficiency levels in Greek. Apart from Mrs. Tina, Mrs. Kristia was also recorded on specific occasions preventing GAL learners working together and encouraging them to go to her for explanations. This seemed to be happening because both Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Tina assumed that the children would give the answers to their classmates instead of helping them understand what the activity was requesting. Peer work was used as a way to enable GAL learners’ participation in class activities, but it was also indicative of how teachers foster relationships, both through their interactions as well as through their practices

(influenced by their perceptions of ability). This ambiguous value and use of peer work in the language learners' getting along process is obvious in a number of older studies too (Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005; Harklau, 1994; Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke, 2000; Toohey, 1998; Willett, 1995). Teachers involved in my study were usually sceptical when peer assistance was offered from an older language learner to a newer language learner or from a native speaker to a language learner, and this also seems to be in line with teachers-participants of older studies (Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005; Harklau, 1994; Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke, 2000; Toohey, 1998; Willett, 1995).

Apart from peer work, data collected from both classroom observations in class K and the interview with Mrs. Kristia indicated that showing confidence in language learners' abilities was enabling their participation. She particularly claimed during her interview that she would deliberately ask GAL learners to reply to questions that she was convinced they had the answer to. In that way, she appeared to be trying to increase their self-confidence for future participation in classroom talk. I also observed during the Greek language lessons that she would ask Kaif to give an answer to a comprehension question that had been answered by another student a few moments ago. This was an indication of the impact of teachers' use of language and practice involving Kaif's participation in the activity and Kaif's language use. Willes (2012) argues that when teachers offer learners the ability to imitate, it leads to increased learner participation, something that was also observed in class K. However, I did not manage to record any similar behaviours from Mrs. Elena or Mrs. Tina in class E and class T. It could be tentatively claimed that one of the reasons language learners in class K (apart from Kyla) were actively involved in the language lessons was the fact that the teacher's expectations gave the opportunity to imitate either her or the learners' classmates.

Not only these, but also teachers' use of language use for encouragement and praise seemed to be enabling language learners' participation as well. This use is slightly different from when teachers' use language (and practice) to show confidence in the language learners' abilities. This is due to the fact that praising did not always signal that kind of certainty from the teachers' perspective. All three

teachers were observed to enable language learners' participation, by encouraging and praising them throughout the language lesson, something that was also observed in Godwin and Perkins' (2002) study. It should be mentioned though, that from my personal experience as a student and a teacher in Cyprus, teachers' verbal reinforcement is extremely common and something that is almost expected and demanded in the Cypriot public schools.

Another use of language by teachers observed during the language lessons that seemed to facilitate GAL learners' participation was when teachers broke down an activity into smaller steps. Mrs. Elena and Mrs. Tina were the ones who were recorded to explain various kinds of instructions thoroughly, especially those related to grammatical activities. These explanations included breaking down the activities into smaller steps in order for them to be more understandable and manageable by the language learners. This particular teacher behaviour seemed to facilitate language learners' participation. Interestingly enough, this behaviour emerged from the teachers' interviews, while I did not come across previous studies referring explicitly to it.

However, besides these various facilitating behaviours, there were other behaviours that seemed to hinder language learners' participation to a greater or lesser extent. The first quite obvious example relates to the Roma students in Class T. Mrs. Tina would urge Roma students to sit at the side tables to draw, without asking them to be part of the lesson. Tahir was the exception to this routine, due to the fact that he had a better proficiency in Greek than the rest of the Roma children. However, whenever he felt tired he had the option of moving back to the side tables. Mrs. Tina would easily allow him to move from the centre to the side tables. That had a direct effect on the GAL learners' use of language inside the classroom, since they were addressing other TC peers (thus talking in their shared L1) for a longer period of time. This organisation of the classroom's tables was not found in class E or class K. It could be tentatively claimed that one of the reasons language learners used their L1 more extensively in class T than the language learners in class E and class K was the tables' arrangement organised by the teacher of the class.

Finally, from the teachers' interviews, it was borne out that teachers' aspirations were one more factor that seemed to affect GAL learners' participation. Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Elena talked about the goals they set for themselves and their classes at the beginning of the year. They admitted with pride that many of those goals were achieved even further than their initial aspirations. Mrs. Kristia specifically referred to reading and writing goals, writing on the line and practicing handwriting. She also admitted that there is always room for improvement, from herself as well as the students. Mrs. Elena specifically referred to the progression of students' communication and social skills. Finally, Mrs. Tina seemed rather content just by the fact that some of her students were able to remain seated on their chair while that was impossible at the very beginning of the year. She also added that their communication had improved but also admitted to paying more attention to communication than learning goals. Nevertheless, from the observations inside the classroom, it was found that almost any effort at communication was directly or indirectly linked with an educational goal or activity.

5.1.2 Language use to enable learning

In this second section, data are presented to support whether teachers' use of language enabled learning or not. This particular language use includes one main theme (see Table 5.2), which is classroom communication. Classroom communication was further explored based on who the communicators were and under which circumstances their communication, mainly orchestrated by the teachers, enabled learning or not for GAL learners:

Table 5.2: Coding of teachers' use of language for learning

Categories	Themes	Clusters	Codes
Teachers' language use for learning	Classroom communication	Teachers' practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Use of empirical learning 2. Use of visual aids 3. Body language, gestures, pantomime 4. Routines 5. Differentiation 6. Integration 7. Authenticity and honesty 8. Teamwork

		9. Students as translators
	Teachers' language uses	1. Repetition and rephrasing 2. Speech intonation 3. Slow speech rhythm 4. Vocabulary explanation 5. Use of isolated words 6. Clear explanations, comprehension checks, provision of examples 7. Break down an activity into small steps 8. Multiple choices 9. Encourage students to ask for her help 10. Take nothing for granted
	Students' language uses -teachers' views	1. Expect teacher to take initiative 2. Group work when they have the same L1 3. Asked for clarifications from a peer

5.1.2.1 Classroom Communication

The data presented here illustrates how teachers' use of language and general practices supported GAL learners throughout their learning during the Greek language lessons. Communication inside the classroom occurred either between teachers and GAL learners or GAL learners and other students. The investigation of the classroom communication between teachers and GAL learners was divided into three main themed clusters: teachers' general classroom practices, teachers' uses of language and finally GAL learners' uses of language to facilitate their own learning (as these were identified by the teachers). The end of this section will further discuss teachers' enabling classroom communication between GAL learners and other students.

Teachers' practices included a variety of different methods and approaches (where particular uses of language were employed) that were either observed inside the classroom or claimed by the teachers' as facilitating communication during the interviews. The presentation of these practices is organized based on which ones were used and employed by all three of them and which were less popular among the teachers in the study. The use of empirical learning was one of the practices that was observed by all three of the teachers. This practice included the utilization of various physical activities. All three teachers were observed employing this kind

of activity. Mrs. Elena, in her interview, specifically commented upon the strength of the empirical approach through which examples are provided as well as explanations for every single task. All three of them were observed asking their students to stand up and present an answer on the board, work with their hands, create crafts, accompany notions with shapes, dance or sing. Snow (1987) agrees on the importance of these activities, since hands-on activities promote multi-sensory experiences and evidently facilitate students' comprehension.

Another popular teaching practice was the use of visual aids throughout their lessons. All three of them were observed to use visual aids to attract their learners' attention. Mrs. Kristia was the only teacher who specifically acknowledged this practice of hers during her interview. Mrs. Tina was the only one who had an interactive board in her class, through which the visual aids were more attractive for the children to engage with. Nevertheless, there were times when even with the use of visual aids and other equipment, GAL learners seemed inattentive and disengaged throughout specific activities. Visual aids, apart from engaging the students in the lesson, were also used to explain the meaning of a word or to remind them of the symbol for a particular Greek letter. These visual aids were found on the walls of the classroom, in the students' textbooks or in something else brought in by the teacher for the particular lesson. At this point, it should be mentioned that all three classrooms were filled with visual aids on the walls relating words, letters and sentences with pictures. From my personal experience both as a learner and as a teacher in Cyprus, this kind of classroom decoration was extremely common even if the classroom had native speakers only. It seems that this particular teacher choice was helpful for both native speakers and language learners. Snow (1987) agrees that the use of visual aids helps teachers associate language with concrete references through pictures and real life objects. It should be mentioned here that the use of visual aids is one of the situations where the teachers' linguistic behaviour and the general behaviour accompanying these episodes could easily aim simultaneously to help with socialising, communication and education.

Another teaching practice that was observed during the Greek language lessons, by all teachers was the use of body language. Teachers would use facial expressions, gestures or they would even mime to reach mutual communication with their learners, to facilitate their learning. Interestingly enough, it was one of the few practices which all of the teachers acknowledged in their interview responses. The use and importance of these non-verbal strategies in the communication act has been recognised beyond doubt in many fields, such as psychology, psychiatry and anthropology (Kellerman, 1992). The non-verbal communication behaviours that were observed repeatedly in all three teachers were the use of body language, facial expressions and the use of gestures to accompany their speech:

EXTRACT 5.5

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	My Evgeny, where did you put your exercise book? <i>She formed a square with her hands to show the shape of the book</i> The exercise book.	
2.	Evgeny:	<i>Evgeny searched his bag</i>	No verbal
3.	Mrs. Elena:	That one. <i>Evgeny had found it and Mrs. Elena helped him open it</i>	

In this extract, Mrs. Elena accompanied her instruction with the appropriate gestures using her hands. It is certainly not unusual to observe this kind of behaviour in a Cypriot class, while the exact opposite – having a teacher not using body language to accompany his/her speech – would have been more intriguing. However, it was observed that the teachers' gestures and bodily movements or facial expressions were better defined when they addressed GAL learners. On the other hand, teachers with GCs mainly used a simple nodding gesture. Therefore, the possibility of these facial expressions and gestures being more incidental than essential to the communication process is redundant to some extent.

The use of routines was the last teaching practice that was observed in all three classrooms. Mrs. Elena also specifically referred to them in her interview. The teachers had established different kinds of routines, such as discipline routines,

reading routines, tidying up routines or even writing routines. Writing routines would include all students of the class being aware that they had to get their exercise books from their shelves, bring them to their tables, write down the date and wait for instructions (if these were not already given). Previous studies stressed that teachers' use of routines in multilingual and bidialectal settings facilitate learners' participation and communication (Kanagy, 1999; Long, 2002). These studies' claims are in line with this study's findings, where repeatedly teachers were observed employing routines for various aspects of their lessons and teaching practices in general.

Apart from these practices, there were other teaching practices that influenced classroom communication and eventually learning that were less evident in the classroom. Mrs. Elena was the only teacher who acknowledged that she employed differentiation in her lessons based on the particular educational needs of every single child. In her class, it was observed that she would either provide more support to students who needed it, or give extra work to students who would finish what they had to do sooner than the majority. Another kind of differentiation that was noticed during the classroom observations was in class T. Mrs. Tina would ask the TC students to draw pictures, or fill in writing practice worksheets while the rest of the students (and the rest of the GAL learners) were having Greek language lessons. During her interview, she commented that the reason for that is that the majority of the TC students had not attended kindergarten, thus they did not know how to hold a pencil. These two teachers employed different kinds of differentiation addressing specifically the individual needs of their language learners, in order for the learners to communicate their needs and the knowledge received inside the mainstream Cypriot class. Interestingly enough, I did not come across studies that explicitly referred to differentiation as a teacher strategy in multilingual classrooms. This inductive approach to data analysis was generated both from my observations in the classrooms and from the teachers' interviews.

Authenticity was also one of the main practices that was mentioned by Mrs. Elena in her interview. She specifically commented during her interview that children can actually "feel" when someone is honest and authentic with them, and that was

extremely important for her. The value of honesty led to the discussion about integration. Mrs. Elena said that since the whole school was cross-cultural and GAL learners were not the minority, she felt that she did not do anything different from what she would have normally done in a monolingual classroom, and that she was trying to integrate and not assimilate GAL learners. None of the rest of the teachers specifically referred to integration practices; however, activities that promoted multilingualism and multiculturalism were observed in class E and class K and less often in class T. Such activities included the creation of a multicultural corner, where every child brought a souvenir from a country he or she had visited, or from the country of his or her origin. Previous studies also suggested that bridging the distance between language learners' home culture and the culture of the target community facilitates the learners' getting along process, and it provides them with more empowerment (Barnard, 2005; Yoon, 2007).

Finally, teamwork and the use of GAL learners as translators were two practices inextricably linked with each other and the ones that intrigued me the most. This was due to the fact that teachers' beliefs about them were quite controversial. Initially, Mrs. Kristia, in her interview, commented that she would sometimes exploit the situation if two children shared the same L1 so that one could be the translator. However, when she realised that there was persistent talk among the students she would ask them to go to her for help. Thus teamwork was promoted only in particular circumstances in class K. This was supported by the classroom observations in class K. Mrs. Tina promoted teamwork but not between children who shared the same L1 and only between children of approximately the same proficiency level. This was also supported by the classroom observations in class T. Eventually, Mrs. Elena was the one who freely admitted in her interview that she deliberately promoted teamwork in her class. In support of this, during almost all of the classroom observations in class E, teamwork was present between all students (GAL learners or not). As has already been mentioned, previous studies regarding peer work are in line with this study's findings since they differentiate in which circumstances peer work facilitates the language learners' getting along process (Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005; Harklau, 1994; Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke, 2000; Toohey, 1998; Willett, 1995).

Apart from the various teachers' practices, there were also a number of their uses of language that were explored in terms of whether or not they enabled communication and eventually learning. They are presented below and include the ones which were found in all three classes and the practices that were found in specific classes.

The first quite popular use of language that was observed in all three classrooms was the use of repetition. Also, Mrs. Kristia was the only teacher of the three to acknowledge her use of repetition in her interview. Repetition is interesting because it led to communication successes or failures equally often. The times during which repetition led to successful communication were when they were usually accompanied with rephrasing. That is the reason why these two are presented together. Snow (1987) and Pica (1987) mentioned that both repetition and rephrasing are extremely common in multilingual classrooms. All three teachers used repetition and rephrasing during instruction giving and comprehension questioning:

EXTRACT 5.6

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	Kyla. <i>She also made a nod with her head to indicate to Kyla that she should start. Kyla was looking at her book and Mrs. Kristia was waiting for her There.</i> <i>Mrs. Kristia nodded positively again to encourage her to start. Kyla looked at her again and Kyla nodded at her once more</i> <i>Who? This was the word from which Kyla should start reading and Mrs. Kristia read it to encourage her</i>	
2.	Kyla:	Who.	
3.	Mrs. Kristia:	Look inside my love. <i>Kyla was staring at Mrs. Kristia</i> <i>Did you read it at home? Slow speech rhythm</i> <i>Read it? Yes?</i>	

4. Kyla: Yes.
She also nodded positively
5. Mrs. Kristia: Ah! I am listening to you. Do you want to start **from** the beginning? Do you want to start **from** the beginning?
The second time she made a gesture with her hand showing the start of the text
Come on read me any part you want.
Come on. Yes.
Mrs. Kristia kept nodding positively to encourage her, while Kyla kept looking either at Kyla or Katrina who was next to her

In this episode, Mrs. Kristia gives an instruction to Kyla, but when she realised that Kyla did not correspond accordingly, she tried to simplify the activity even more by telling her the starting point of where she should read and by telling her exactly what she was expecting her to do. Thus, by rephrasing her instruction and by providing additional pieces of information to Kyla, apart from the repetition of the initial instruction, Mrs. Kristia allowed Kyla to comprehend her teacher's message to her. It should be mentioned that there were a number of moments during which all three teachers did not manage to proceed to further explanations and repetitions when language learners were confused. There were various moments during which all three of them would either give the answer themselves or they would ask another student to do so. Inevitably the teachers' choices of whether they would rephrase and insist on something were crucial to the language learners' communication successes.

All of the three teachers in the study also used emphasis or slow rhythm particularly often. Mrs. Kristia acknowledged these uses as well during her interview. These methods were observed when teachers wanted to explain an instruction or new vocabulary. Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Elena also seemed to use them throughout the explanation of a grammatical phenomenon, making their speech even more theatrical. The use of different velocities, intensities, tone and pitch variations to convey meaning are extremely common in multilingual classrooms (Hurley, 1992; Wolfgang, 1977). Both previous studies' and this study's

findings seem to agree that these kinds of teachers' speech modifications facilitate language learners' communication.

Comprehension questions, clear explanations and the provision of examples were all used in the three classrooms as a way for the teachers to make sure that mutual comprehension was achieved. Only Mrs. Kristia commented on them in her interview but they were all observed in the three classrooms visited. This particular use of language for communication was found throughout the Greek language lessons and mainly when a new element was introduced or a new activity was starting. The use of comprehension questions is quite a popular teacher's strategy that is often discussed and researched by researchers investigating multilingual settings (Moll, 1988; Snow, 1987). It seems that previous studies' findings along with the findings of the present study agree upon the fact that comprehension questions can be useful throughout teachers and language learners' communication.

The two final teachers' uses of language observed by all teachers that seemed to enable communication and learning were vocabulary explanation and the use of isolated words. Mrs. Tina and Mrs. Kristia both acknowledged this use in their interviews. Mrs. Kristia was the teacher who was observed asking the whole class explicitly whether they were aware of the meaning of a particular question or word. With the other two teachers it was observed that the learners would ask the question first and the teacher would explain it afterwards. On one occasion, Mrs. Tina was recorded making a slight giggling sound when Timofei asked the meaning of a word. The interesting detail was that Timofei had initially asked his native Greek-speaking peer and not the teacher directly. The native Greek student, unable to explain, asked Mrs. Tina to explain it to Timofei. There is a possibility that Timofei did not feel comfortable asking for vocabulary explanations by Mrs. Tina due to similar giggling behaviours in the past. As for the use of simple sentences or isolated words, this was often found in teachers' questions and instructions during the Greek language lessons. It is quite logical to assume that the teachers were trying in that way to ease the comprehension of GAL learners by not overloading them with long incomprehensible speech.

Apart from the language uses that were observed in all three of the teachers, there were others that were observed more specifically in one or two of them. Two language uses that were mostly shown by Mrs. Elena were the use of multiple choices and the breaking down a task into smaller steps. In Mrs. Elena's speech, it was observed many times that she provided language learners with possible answers to a question she was making. The other teachers did not utilise this technique. She also commented in her interview that she believed that by breaking down an activity into smaller steps, it was less daunting for a GAL learner. Interestingly enough, I could not find explicit reference in previous studies regarding this multiple-choice strategy used by this teacher of the present study. However, providing clear instructions was a strategy that was investigated by Akbari and Allvar (2010) and it was found that good teachers had classrooms where instruction was clearly organised and students knew exactly what was expected from them. It should be mentioned that Mrs. Elena's clear instructions were recorded throughout the classroom observation, supporting her argument. Mrs. Kristia, during the interview, also claimed that she always tries to teach in an analytic way, taking nothing for granted, and whatever she teaches, she starts from scratch. She also added that she tends to encourage students to talk to her and ask for her help. Both of these uses were obvious from the classroom observations in her class.

Apart from the teachers' practices and language uses discussed earlier, classroom communication was also explored through students' use of language with their teachers or with their peers. In this particular section, students' use of language to enable communication and eventually learning are explored based on what the teachers' believed about their GAL learners' language use. It seems that teachers believed that the language learners did not ask them for clarification questions, as often as they should. This is borne out by the interview data as Mrs. Kristia says that the students usually held back and they expected her to take the initiative but there were also children who, due to their outgoing character, would approach her first. This was also observed in the classroom observations in that particular class. Interestingly enough, when the classroom communication had a more social than

educational character, GAL learners were observed asking for clarification questions much more often in all three classrooms. Mrs. Kristia also added that she observed students helping each other, especially when these children shared the same L1. Mrs. Elena also confirmed this, while Mrs. Tina said that beneficial peer working was only noticed on specific occasions such as Timofei (a European GAL learner) but not with Roma children.

5.2 Teachers' linguistic profiles

In this section of the findings chapter, after reviewing the data related to the investigation of teachers' use of language that enabled (or not) socialising or learning, each teacher is viewed separately based on her personal linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour. The reason for deciding to present teachers' uses of language and then GAL learners' (in the following sections), was decided without wishing to favour and give gravity to teachers' behaviours over the learners' but to provide a fuller description of the setting where each GAL learner was found for a more rigorous interpretation of the data. Each of the three teachers is presented based on the chronological order I was in their classroom, and their linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour is presented here on whether or not it was enabling socialising and learning for GAL learners. These findings were directly linked to RQ2 and more specifically, with the teachers' behaviours to facilitate language learners' getting along.

5.2.1 Mrs. Kristia

5.2.1.1 *Mrs. Kristia's use of language to enable socialising*

During the classroom observations, Mrs. Kristia was always respectful towards her students. One of the reasons for this behaviour may have been the fact that she had (as she commented in the interview) very positive feelings towards that particular class and her students. Nevertheless, even though she had said that there were not any racist incidents in her class, one such incident was recorded but she managed to restore the balance in a way that indicated her own stance towards the diversity of her class. She managed to address the class's curiosity by emphasising that every single student is different, not only because of his or her

ethnic or linguistic background but simply because they are different human beings. In general, she would take any opportunity provided in the lesson to promote the diversity of her student population. Some examples were when they had a discussion regarding the different kinds of surnames while children were making their own "fake" identity or when the teacher was asking GAL learners for translation of a word in their L1s. In that way, all of the class had the opportunity to hear the different representations of the same word in various languages.

Mrs. Kristia would try to interact socially with her students by making jokes or by making personal comments. The fact that the children were indeed happy in the class (based on what she said in her interview) was obvious from the students' responses in the discussions they had with me. Kyla was the only student who expressed some neutral feelings in her drawings and responses. She was the language learner with the lowest proficiency in Greek (based on my observations and teacher's evaluation) and she did not have any other peer with whom she shared the same L1.

Mrs. Kristia also tried to facilitate language learners' participation in classroom activities through controlled peer work, praising, use of visual aids, encouragement, trusting their abilities, breaking down an activity or by using hands-on activities. She did not try to any great extent to include all of the GAL learners in comprehension questions related to texts. This differentiation in stances towards varying activities may have been a result of the expectations she had of them. She admitted to being content with what they accomplished while she prioritised communication goals and then academic ones. However, it would be an omission not to mention that she admitted to being surprised during her career with cases where language learners achieved much better results than GCs. This indicated that she was perfectly aware of the potential each child had regardless of his or her L1.

5.2.1.2 *Mrs. Kristia's use of language to enable learning*

From the comparison of the information collected by the classroom observations and the interview conducted with Mrs. Kristia, it was apparent that she was

extremely conscious of her practice. A large number of methods that were observed and recorded, such as using encouragement, body language, facial expressions and gestures, mime, visual aids, speech intonation, slow rhythm of speech, provision of examples, repetition and rephrasing were also mentioned by her during the interview. The only thing that was mentioned by her in the interview and not seen during the observations (perhaps it just did not occur on the days I was observing) was to use a GAL learner as a translator for another one. Finally, a method that I recognised from her teaching but was not acknowledged by her during the interview was the thorough explanation of vocabulary she gave her students. The reason why she did not include it may have been the fact that such a strategy served the whole class and not just the language learning needs of GAL learners.

When she was asked whether she was aware of how students dealt with their communication needs for educational purposes, she did not refer to explicit methods or strategies but she highlighted their tendency to expect her to take the initiative. Therefore, she was constantly alert and checked that they had understood what was asked of them. This was in alignment with her analytic style of teaching, which was extensively observed throughout the fieldwork.

5.2.2 Mrs. Elena

5.2.2.1 *Mrs. Elena's use of language to enable socialising*

Mrs. Elena was a teacher whose practice was obviously affected by her studies on multiculturalism. She was a teacher who promoted the ethnic background of each child at every opportunity, as did Mrs. Kristia. She based the majority of her language lessons on peer work, in contrast to Mrs. Kristia or Mrs. Tina who applied it with restrictions. Eventually, she was the one who managed to create a class that truly felt and acted as a group, as she had claimed in her interview. There was not a single racist incident recorded, unlike in the other two classes. On the contrary, there were a number of incidents during which various GCs would take the initiative to help their GAL learner peers.

The only negative feeling she expressed was her disappointment at the lack of communication with the parents of the GAL learners. That is why she was constantly reminding them, through the students, that she was always available to help. This was apparent from the teaching instructions she gave to the children to take home (homework and anything else that the parents should be aware of).

She also mentioned and stressed quite intensely that she was not doing anything different from what she would usually do in a monolingual class and that she was trying to be honest with her students. This was also profoundly evident by the relationship she had built with all of her students and her attempt to diffuse any difficulties through the power of peer work.

She had also been recorded using a variety of methods to facilitate students' participation through peer work, especially praising, use of visual aids, encouragement, breaking down an activity and through the use of empirical activities. She was not recorded rephrasing or repeating any comprehension questions related to texts in order to increase GAL learners' comprehension and participation, as did Mrs. Tina and Mrs. Kristia. As already mentioned, this could be linked to the different expectations she had regarding communication and educational goals. Mrs. Elena also highlighted her efforts in the development of social skills.

5.2.2.2 *Mrs. Elena's use of language to enable learning*

In her interview, Mrs. Elena stressed the underlining multicultural ideas that governed her general practice while stressing to a lesser extent the actual methods she was applying. She claimed that her goal was integration and not assimilation, that she was trying to be honest and authentic with her students and that she kept using differentiation due to the different levels of her students. In her practice, I had not seen different material being used but her own instructions differed based on whom she was addressing. She also grounded the lessons in teamwork, which was also apparent in the recorded lessons. She then went on to give giving

examples of methods she was using that indicated her consciousness of specific parts of her practice, such as providing examples, instructions, by breaking down the activity into smaller steps and providing guidance every step of the way. She did not refer to the use of her body, facial expressions, speech intonation, visual aids and gestures that were extensively applied by her, or the repetition or rephrasing throughout her speech. She did refer to the use of routines, which, as she explained, were more dominant at the beginning of the year when the initial reading tasks were done.

When the conversation turned towards the moves noticed by the learners themselves to resolve or address any communication needs for educational purposes, she mentioned that all of them asked for help from a peer. This was confirmed from the classroom observations of Class E, and also confirmed that Class E was functioning as a group.

5.2.3 Mrs. Tina

5.2.3.1 *Mrs. Tina's use of language to enable socialising*

Mrs. Tina's class was noticeably different from the other two classrooms as far as the relationships between students were concerned. Mrs. Tina was teaching a class where Turkish-speaking students were the majority of GAL learners and they were treated rather differently by the school, by the rest of the students in the class and by herself. She had also expressed this difference in her interview. The school where Mrs. Tina and Class T were situated was in a low socio-economic area, and there was a large number of language learners and a high percentage of illiterate students. These were the main reasons why it was part of the ZEP programme. The mentality of the teaching body was characterised by extremely low expectations for that student population. This was also obvious from Mrs. Tina's comments as well as from her practice.

She expressed her negative feelings towards the system of the school, and her frustration and disappointment was also obvious in her teaching. She would rarely make jokes or make any personal comment to her students. She would of course try to protect them, indicating how much she cared, when racist incidents

happened, with no great success. She rarely promoted the multiculturalism and multilingualism of the class compared to the other two teachers. She knew that some of her students were unhappy, explaining this by the fact that Roma children were not used to being restricted.

Unfortunately, the differentiation she made between the Roma Turkish-speaking students and the rest of the language learners was also obvious from the efforts she made to include each one of them in the lesson process. Both the lack of effort in facilitating their participation along with her low expectations may have contributed to very poor participation of the Turkish-speaking students, with the only exception of Tahir. She had admitted to trying to socialise Timofei with GCs during the playtime, but she did not do that for Tamara, who dealt with extremely unsociable situations during the playground time.

5.2.3.2 *Mrs. Tina's use of language to enable learning*

Mrs. Tina was the teacher who seemed to have the least awareness of her teaching practice since she only referred to the repeated need to explain unknown vocabulary. However, from the classroom observations, Mrs. Tina was also recorded using body language, facial expressions and gestures, speech intonation, repetition and rephrasing in her speech, but none of these were mentioned in the interview.

She also added that when her GAL learners wanted to communicate with her for educational purposes they would resort to broken phrases or isolated words to convey their message. This was indeed observed in all three GAL learners of Class T on various occasions.

5.3 How GAL learners' use of language enables them to “get along” in the classroom and playground

This next section of the findings chapter illustrates the data that were collected from the five different research methods that were used with the GAL learners: the classroom and playground observations, and the interviews with the use of

personal dolls after the drawings and finally the paired/grouped interviews. This section presents the information collected related to the GAL learners' use of language that either enabled their socialising or their learning in the general area of school (class and playground area). These findings are directly linked to RQ1, particularly focusing on language learners' strategies to get along in the classroom setting.

5.3.1 Classroom language use to enable GAL learners' socialising

In this first part, GAL learners' use of language that enabled socialising is explored based on the way it influenced classroom relationships and then whether or not it facilitated GAL learners' participation in classroom activities:

Table 5.3: Coding of GAL learners' use of language for socialising

Categories	Themes	Clusters	Codes
GAL learners' language use for socialising inside the classroom	Classroom relationships	GAL relationships' with other peers	1. Peer assistance 2. Friendly relationships 3. Hostile relationships
		GAL relationships with themselves-identity	Confusion related to ethnicity
	Participation	GAL learners' feelings	1. Feelings about being inside the class 2. Least or most favourite subjects 3. Least or most favourite activities
		Activities	1. Prayer 2. Raising hands 3. Reading as a group 4. Use of visual aids 5. Request for feedback at desk 6. Mimicking a peer 7. Non-participation

5.3.1.1 Classroom Relationships

Classroom relationships incorporate GAL learners' relationships with other peers and the relationship with themselves. As was observed during the Greek language lessons, there were a number of GAL learners who asked their peers for help, or peers would take the initiative to help them when they were facing difficulties during the lesson. This was noticed with Kabir and Klementina (another GAL learner, not a participant), with Elijah and Eva (another GAL learner, not a

participant), with Emanuel and Emilos (GC student), with Timofei and Takis (GC student) and with Evgeny, who was recorded to be supported by a number of peers. Obviously, their cooperation resulted in friendly and positive relationships. It should be mentioned that peer help is discussed again later when it addressed educational purposes solely:

EXTRACT 5.7

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Evgeny:	Mrs., I can't cut it. <i>Also raised his card and went towards her desk</i>	Evgeny was still working on his mother day's card, like the rest of the children
2.	Mrs. Elena:	I will cut it for you in a while.	
3.	Evros:	<u>Shall I cut it for him?</u>	
4.	Mrs. Elena:	Yes, cut it, bravo, go! Evros will cut it for you.	Evgeny gave his card to Evros. Evros took it and Evgeny started wandering around

This episode provides an example of peer support where Evros (a GC student) took the initiative to go and help Evgeny (a GAL learner) as soon as he finished his own work. It confirms Mrs. Elena's claim that her students were cooperating a lot between each other. This is an indication of their friendly relationships, which provided a more fertile ground for socialising among the learners and the teachers. These findings, related to the language learners' peer support as a strategy to get along in the classroom, are in line with some of the findings of the studies that investigated peer support (Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005; Harklau, 1994; Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke, 2000; Toohey, 1998; Willett, 1995). At this point it should be stressed that the findings of previous studies -investigating peer support- were not always positive.

The drawings of the classes also provided insightful information regarding the relationships participants had with their peers. First, there were the participants who drew classmates as they were seated or as they found them in the class. This

may be an indication of how they viewed themselves (or wished to view themselves) as part of the classroom group, and at the same time their positive feelings towards those classmates. As was expected, there were also some participants who preferred drawing themselves alone, such as Tahir, Emanuel and Katrina, despite the fact that they were constantly surrounded by people inside the classroom. These choices could be an indication of a rather tentative relationship they may have had with other classmates and their own status inside that context. The last group of participants drew themselves with other classmates but in a rather playful situation rather than drawing the stiff representation of the classroom seating positions. These were Evgeny, Timofei and Kaif. All three boys drew friends/classmates playing, hanging around with smiley expressions on their faces. This approach to analysis of the data could be considered inductive, since I did not come across an investigation of the participants' relationships as such.

In addition, two out of the three groups of participants – Class K and Class E – seemed to have solid relationships between each other in general, based on what they replied and commented on throughout the discussions with the persona dolls. Also, during the persona dolls discussion, participants were asked to name their closest friends. Some participants, such as Timofei, Tamara, Kyla, Evgeny and Tahir, named as their closest friends other classmates of theirs, either GAL learners or GC students. Katrina particularly commented during the paired interviews that one of the main reasons she was feeling happy in the school was to be among friends. Kaif also said that he was particularly happy because no one yelled or hit him as it happened at his home, while Kabir added that he felt nice inside the classroom because they had friends they cared about. From these responses, it was clear that these children had very strong relationships with their peers at school, thus it can be carefully suggested that one of the reasons these children socialized with their classmates was because of the healthy relationships they had with their classmates.

Nevertheless, there were other occasions recorded during which GAL learners were found to have a rather hostile relationship with another peer. This was found mainly in Class T with Tamara and Tutkun (another Turkish-speaking student) and

Timofei with Tony (another GAL learner). In addition, Elijah was not always willing to assist Evgeny. The surprising thing is that these hostile incidents occurred between students who were either from the same country of origin or they were also GAL learners themselves and not GCs, as would probably be assumed. This indicates that the relationships between students vary based on who was involved in each case. One of those cases was Timofei's stance towards Tamara during the discussions with the persona dolls:

EXTRACT 5.8

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	Who are your friends, Tamara?	
2.	Tamara:	E...	
3.	R:	With whom do you hang out the most?	
4.	Tamara:	E... (first language)	
5.	R:	With whom do you...?	
6.	Tahir:	Miss, (first language) <i>He wanted me to leave him to explain to her</i>	
7.	Timofei:	She doesn't know.	
8.	R:	With Tahir? <i>She nodded 'yes'</i> With Timofei? <i>She nodded 'yes'</i>	
9.	Tamara:	Tahir, Timofei, Ilias... <i>all of them were boys</i>	
10.	R:	Yes.	
11.	Timofei:	I don't want Tamara. <i>Wrong grammar</i>	

Tamara's contribution to the persona dolls discussion was always minimal due to the language barrier. Sometimes I asked Tahir to translate and other times I provided multiple choices for her to choose. Despite the fact that I had somehow 'led' Tamara to comment upon her relationship with Timofei, that provided the opportunity for Timofei to express his negative feelings towards her. Again, this is a case between one GAL learner and another and not between GCs and language learners. In Timofei and Tamara's case in particular, based on my personal observations in the field, I realised over the weeks that there was a constant negativity towards TCs students in class T and in that school in general. There is

the possibility that the rest of the language learners wanted to distinguish themselves from the Turkish-speaking students so that this negativity was not be directed at them as well.

Classroom relationships were also explored as to how the participants viewed themselves inside the classroom, and what their feelings were about themselves and their identity in general. During the classroom observations, two incidents where participants misled their interlocutors about their true ethnicity were of particular importance. Both Mrs. Elena in her interview, as well as the results of an ethnographic study conducted by Trimikliniotis (2006), suggest that Cyprus is a racist society. The need to feel part of the country's population may arise from the behaviours the migrants face in their everyday life. The fact that Kabir and Tahir felt the need to express that they were not from their country of origin but from Cyprus was perhaps the manifestation of their wish to belong. However, it should be highlighted that these cases were only two out of the ten young participants of the study:

EXTRACT 5.9

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	Place of birth. Some of you were not born in Cyprus. Some were born... <i>Mrs. Kristia was pointing at each child each time</i>	While continuing talking about the information that an identity should have, they reached this point
2.	Kimonas:	Athens!	
3.	Kostas:	Me in America.	
4.	Mrs. Kristia:	You, Mr. Spartan, where were you born?	
5.	Kyriakos:	At Sparta.	
6.	Klara:	AH!	
7.	Mrs. Kristia:	Where were you born?	
8.	Klara:	In Rumania.	
9.	Mrs. Kristia:	In Rumania. You in Cyprus. <i>Pointing at Konstantinos You?</i>	
10.	Kabir:	In Cyprus.	

11. Mrs. Kristia: **Were you born in Cyprus?**
12. Kabir: *Nodded 'yes'*
13. Mrs. Kristia: Were you a little baby in Cyprus?
Also making gestures
14. Kabir: Yes.
15. Mrs. Kristia: Ah. E, mate, didn't you come last year?
16. Kabir: Ah?
17. Mrs. Kristia: Weren't you in Iran?
18. Kabir: No! I am from Cyprus!
He was feeling uncomfortable and you could tell from the way he was playing with his hands
19. Mrs. Kristia: Yes, you are in Cyprus my love, but when you were a small baby where were you? *Again making gestures of showing a small baby*
20. Kabir: Here. *Gesturing to indicate the place*
21. Mrs. Kristia: Here?
22. Kabir: *Nodded 'yes'*
23. Mrs. Kristia: And your sister?
24. Kabir: *Nodded 'yes'*
25. Mrs. Kristia: And your sister?
26. Kabir: *Nodded 'yes'*

Tahir also presented this multi-layered identity throughout the discussions conducted using the persona dolls. Extract 5.34 indicates the initial seconds after the commencement of the first meeting with Class T. During that time, I presented the dolls' ethnicities, along with other personal characteristics. Throughout the presentation of each of the dolls' stories, I took the opportunity provided by the comfortable environment to ask the participants some basic personal information. When Tahir was asked where he came from he gave two answers, possibly because he was feeling both GC and TC according to the setting where he was found each time. As Conteh and Meier (2014) claim, context may allow and encourage one identity or denigrate and reject another, thus it is not surprising to

view behaviours as Tahir's where he managed to construct and change multiple identities over time, influenced by the setting where he was found:

EXTRACT 5.10

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	Nice to meet you! <i>Shook hands with the doll</i>	
		Which countries are you guys from?	
2.	Tahir:	We are Turkish Cypriots... <i>pointing at himself</i> ...Turkish Cypriots... <i>pointing at Tamara</i> ... Rumanian <i>pointing at Timofei</i>	
3.	R:	Rumanian, and I am Greek Cypriot and our friend Marios here, he is also from Rumania. He is <u>from</u> the same country with...?	
4.	Tahir:	I am Greek Cypriot, Turkish Cypriot and everything!	

Tahir seemed to feel rather uncomfortable about his ethnicity and wished to drive the attention elsewhere, since he started commenting upon everyone else's ethnicity. However, it should be mentioned that during the fieldwork period, I observed that there were occasions during which participants indicated various versions of their adjustment to the host country. One of these occasions was when Kaif, during a class activity, chose as his favourite food a Cypriot traditional dish, which could be another example of him adopting a GC identity. These specific learners' strategies, such as the adoption of a multiple identity, could be considered as an effort to socialise more extensively with community members and more specifically with other classmates and teachers.

5.3.1.2 Classroom Participation

GAL learners' use of language that enabled their participation in various activities inside the class was explored through the expression of their feelings for being inside the classroom, by referring to favourite subjects and activities and then through the kind of participation they had inside the classroom.

During all three kinds of interviews with the GAL learners, the young participants expressed positive feelings about the class but seemed to be less strong in the

feelings expressed for the yard. During the discussions about the drawings specifically, the majority of the students, eight out of ten, mentioned that they felt content when they were in the class. Again there are three different groups. In the first group there were the students who liked the class but still felt that the yard was their favourite place in the school. These were Elijah, Tamara, Emanuel and Kabir, who commented that they felt content and happy when they were in the class even if they preferred being outside in the playground area. Their verbal confessions were supported by the neutral faces on the drawings they made. This was an expected answer, taking into consideration that the setting of the yard is usually more pleasant and less structured than the classroom.

The second group was Timofei and Kaif, who also seemed to be content being in the class, even if they preferred being outside. However, these two participants were the ones who specifically referred to enjoying themselves in the class because they were having lessons. Both of the participants drew children with smiling faces or neutral expressions. During my observations, I realised that both of the boys tried to socialise and communicate inside their classrooms, each in his way. The fact that they were trying their best in the classroom could be considered as a strategy so that they could be part of the classroom group and also to be able to communicate successfully and learn the target language. It could also be that these two participants preferred the order of the classroom setting than the yard's less structured setting.

The third group was Katrina and Tahir, who seemed to prefer the class to the yard. Katrina chose to draw the moment where she was in the class just before going out for a break (see Figure 5.2). She drew a very detailed picture of her class, as if looking at it from the ceiling, with the chairs, the desks with books on them, the school bags, and both she and the teacher seemed to be smiling. Nevertheless, it should be noted that her choice to draw that particular moment just before she goes out of the class, with the only present person to be the teacher, might create doubts about her true feelings. At this point it should be mentioned that during the playground observations and later on during the various interviews, Katrina revealed that a few classmates of hers were "playing" with her hair. She did not

express clear negative or positive feelings about it since on the one hand she seemed to be annoyed (students were slightly rough while touching her hair) and on the other hand she seemed to enjoy the attention because most of those children were girls that admired her long blonde hair:

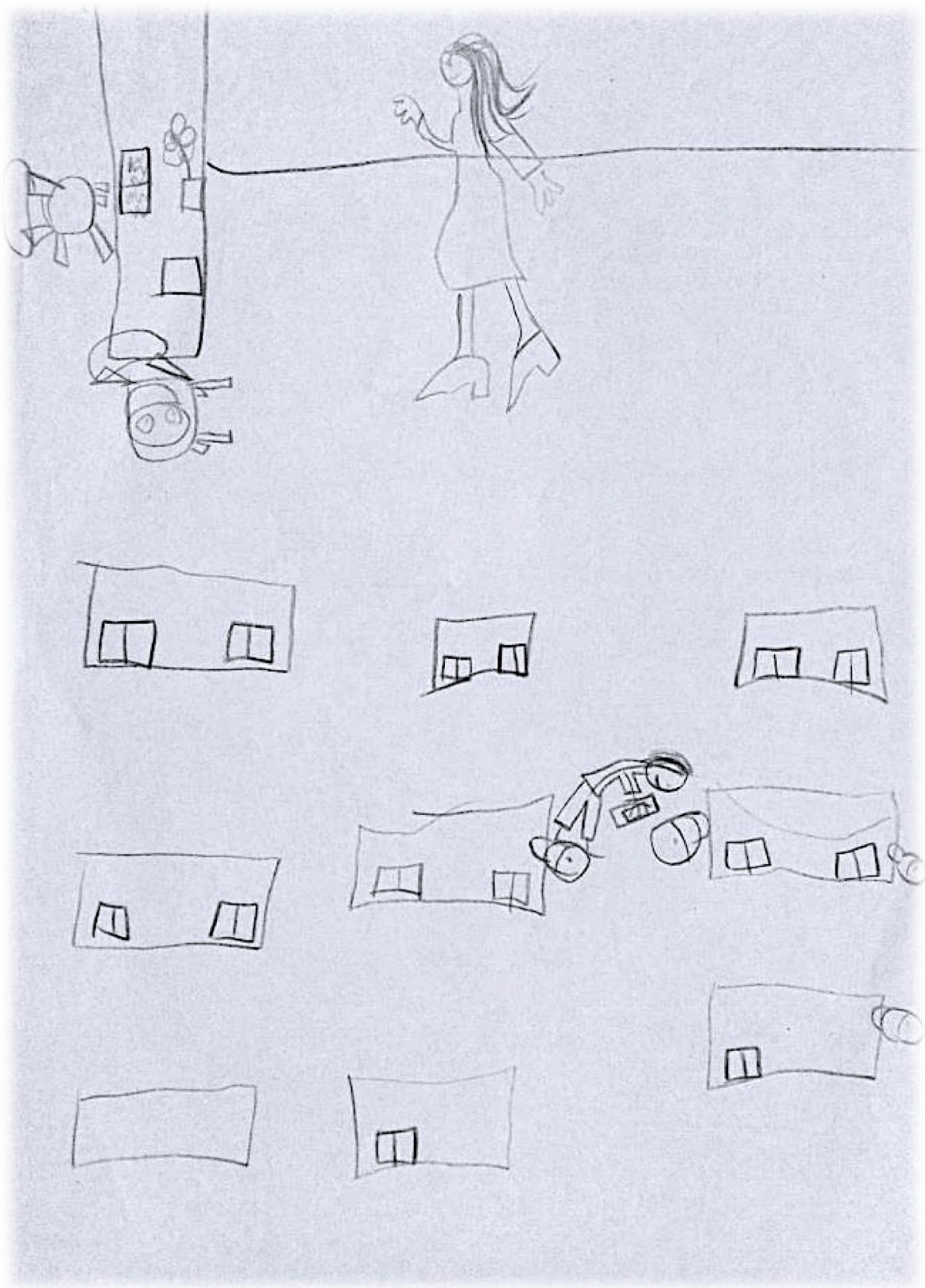


Figure 5.2: Drawing inside the classroom

Kyla and Evgeny were the last two participants who clearly mentioned that they did not like being in the class. Kyla claimed that this was due to the fact that the children did not play there. She expressed these feelings by not using a large space of her paper, and Evgeny felt somehow intimidated by the Greek lesson and this was also confirmed by the fact that his human figures did not have a smile on their faces. It should be mentioned that both of these participants had very low proficiency in Greek, making it quite difficult for them to socialise or communicate to a great extent throughout the lesson. When they were observed in the yard, the same participants seemed to be more engaged in socialising and communicating activities.

Apart from their general feelings, the young participants also referred to their favourite subjects and activities. During the first paired interview with Kabir and Kaif, it was interesting to hear that they both agreed they were very happy when they were at school, because they were learning new things. During the discussions with the persona dolls and by taking the opportunity during the presentation of the doll's story, almost all of the participants shared which subject they liked the most or least in the classroom. The subject of mathematics seemed to be the most popular among the participants. More specifically, the children who explicitly referred to the lesson of mathematics were Kyla, Emanuel, Tahir and Katrina (Katrina's answer in the paired interview supported that claim again). Evgeny and Kaif specifically referred to enjoying the mathematics lessons, during the discussions with the drawings. The second most preferred subject was art, mentioned by Kyla, Katrina and Tahir. Kabir also referred to gymnastics. All three subjects, maths, art and gymnastics were less linguistically dependent, thus even if the language of instruction was relatively new for the GAL learners, they could easily participate in the activities. Interestingly enough, Evgeny was the only participant who mentioned the Greek language subject as one of his favourite (he repeated this during the discussions with the drawings). However, it should be mentioned that during the paired interview, Kaif and Kabir also claimed that Greek was one of their most favourite subjects. This discussion was made in an effort to establish rapport with the learners and at the same time explore how these learners were getting along in the general school context. Interestingly enough, the

only student (Evgeny) who referred to the Greek language lesson was not one of the participants that had a better proficiency in the target language.

During the discussions with the persona dolls, there were young participants who also referred to their most or least favourite activities inside the classroom. Katrina and Kyla specifically referred to worksheets as their favourite activity during the Greek language lessons, while Timofei mentioned reading as one of his least favourite activities in the class. This was perhaps due to the fact that reading was the only activity during which each child was asked to work on his own and thus no peer help was available. During the drawings investigation and the discussions afterwards, Emanuel and Timofei were the two participants who shared with me that they liked the writing, while Kyla drew herself holding pencils and rubbers. Kaif also mentioned that his favourite activity during Greek language lessons was the worksheets that the teacher would provide them with (as Katrina and Kyla mentioned during the discussions with the persona dolls). Once again, the preference for reading or writing activities did not seem to relate to the proficiency of the learners.

During the analysis of the data from the classroom observations, GAL learners were observed participating to a lesser or greater extent in a number of activities. The routine of prayer was of particular interest. Kyla tried to participate in the prayer by mimicking Katrina's movements but I am not sure whether she was an Orthodox Christian herself. Kabir and Elijah, even if they were not Orthodox, stood up like the rest of the children. Kyla, Kabir and Elijah's wish to be part of the prayer activity could have been a manifestation of their wish to present an additional identity, that of an orthodox child that fits in the context in which he/she was in. Katrina and Evgeny participated fully as Orthodox Christians. All of these acts were an indication of the GAL learners' wish to be part of the activity in order to be part of the larger group of the class. Therefore, their linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour was influenced and driven by this wish. Unfortunately, Class T was not recorded during the prayer time, because it happened at the beginning of the lessons, and the observations of Greek lessons were conducted later compared to Classes K and E, which were observed during the mornings. As was initially

discussed (Chapter 2), GCs identity and ethnic identity are not solely based on the language they use but also the God they believe in. In these incidents it was observed that the GAL learners managed in a relatively short amount of time to realise the power of religion among this group of pupils, which is why they tried - as far as they could - to be part of that activity too.

Another two classroom routines that were noticed in all of the classes, which was indicative of socialisation in action, was the custom of raising hands when the students wanted to speak and receive feedback for their contribution. More specifically, all GAL learners without exception were noticed raising their hands. It is quite obvious that they knew how to react in similar situations and this made them part of the classroom culture and everyday life. Nevertheless, there were occasions during which children would speak spontaneously without raising their hands. This was mostly happening when they wanted to comment upon something irrelevant to the lesson. Students' requesting feedback from the teachers was mainly found in Class K and Class E with students visiting their teachers at their desks. All of the participants of these two classes were repeatedly observed doing this. The language learners in Class T were not observed performing a similar behaviour, but they were observed requesting feedback while in their own seats. This happened mainly because the teacher of the class, Mrs. Tina, never used her own desk for this reason. The differences found in the classroom routines among these three settings and the GAL learners' conformation to these routines indicates their understanding of how things worked in the particular class they were in and the influence of that setting on their behaviour. Previous studies (Kanagy, 1999; Long, 2002; Makoe & McKinney, 2009) seem to be in line with the findings of this study in that using various routines allows language learners to understand what is expected of them and that using them will somehow allow them to be part of the classroom group, while routines also facilitate their getting along process in the classroom.

Another activity that was of particular interest for the examination of socialisation in action was observed in Class K and Class E. The teachers would ask the participants to read out loud a part of the text along with all of their classmates.

They were asked to point to where they were reading. This activity provided a safe environment for the GAL learners to read in, during which they listened to the correct pronunciation. All of the participants of these two classes were actively engaged in this activity. Apart from the various studies that investigated peer support (Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005; Harklau, 1994; Siraj-Blatchford & Clarke, 2000; Toohey, 1998; Willett, 1995), I did not come across studies that explicitly referred to these kinds of activities and this kind of peer help. Thus, it could be argued that this part of the data analysis was more inductive and provided insights into how these specific language learners managed to feel part of the class and at the same time participate (regardless of the extent of the participation) in the actual classroom activity.

The use of visual aids during the comprehension questions was another behaviour that was received enthusiastically by Evgeny but not by Elijah in an activity proposed by Mrs. Elena. Therefore, the use of visual aids helped in triggering Evgeny's interest but it did not facilitate students' further participation in the activity. There were also incidents during which Evgeny would follow the example of a peer to do what he was supposed to do. This indicated that when comprehension was not possible through the linguistic channel, the particular participant would resort to help from his context and imitate a peer of his. Evgeny managed to get along not by imitating the teacher, as Willes' (2012) claims, but by imitating another classmate. Eventually, Evgeny managed to understand what he was supposed to do, in a way that he felt comfortable at that particular moment.

As has been discussed in this section, GAL learners managed to engage in a number of activities and routines inside the classroom in particular ways. Many of these activities could be considered as language learners' ways of acting out classroom culture. However, there were occasions during which Tamara (specifically) would do colouring or wander around the class without making any effort to participate in the lesson. It should be mentioned that Tamara and another three Turkish-speaking students were seated at side tables while Tahir (Turkish speaking boy) and Timofei (Romanian speaking boy) were seated at the centre tables. Side tables were only found in class T, while the other two classrooms had

table settings that did not present such a gap between “them” (the Turkish speaking students) and the rest of the pupils.

5.3.2 Classroom language use to enable learning

GAL learners' language use was also examined as to whether or not it enabled their own learning inside the classroom. Data from the classroom observation, and the various interviews conducted with the young participants, indicated a number of different uses of language in order to resolve communication problems or to convey the message they wanted to facilitate their own learning. The uses are presented based on those which were used by the majority of the young participants and those which were less popular:

Table 5.4: Coding of GAL learners' use of language for learning

Categories	Themes	Clusters	Codes
GAL learners' language use for learning inside the classroom	Classroom communication	GAL learners' communication methods with teachers	1. Isolated words 2. Body language, gestures 3. Mime 4. Comprehension questions
		GAL learners' communication methods with peers	1. Isolated words 2. Body language, gestures 3. Mime 4. Request peer help

All of the participants without exception communicated through isolated words or ‘broken’ phrases. What I mean by broken phrases is that there were utterances where important parts were absent (such as verbs or subjects). Nevertheless, even with these deficiencies, the message was transmitted and communication was achieved on every single occasion. Usually this kind of use of language was noticed either when the participants were addressing peers or teachers. Apart from this, another indicator of communication that was extensively noticed with Evgeny, Kabir and Tahir was the use of gestures and body language while talking. Moreover, mainly the participants of class E would mime or ask their peers for help to complete an activity. The last point, regarding asking for help from peers, could

be an indication that the young participants felt more comfortable using language with their peers instead of with their teachers to ask for help. There were only few occasions during which GAL learners would use language to ask comprehension questions directly from the teachers, as shown by Evgeny in Extract 5.11:

EXTRACT 5.11

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	Name, surname. <i>Mrs. Elena gave instructions regarding where this information should be written</i> Whoever finishes should come to choose a pot.	
2.	Evgeny:	Name?	
3.	Mrs. Elena:	Name and surname, my Evgeny.	
4.	Elly:	Mrs., I finished. Come darling, <u>let's put also the glue here to warm it up.</u>	
5.	Evgeny:	Evgeny...? (inaudible) Evgeny...? (inaudible) <i>He was saying his name and surname</i>	
6.	Mrs. Elena:	Yes, yes.	
7.	Evgeny:	And A2?	
8.	Mrs. Elena:	No no, we <u>don't</u> need the class. <i>And Evgeny continued with his writing</i>	

This episode presents an interesting behaviour to be found among the participants of the study. Most of the language learners expected the teachers to take the initiative and explain in another way when comprehension was not achieved. This correlates with Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Elena's comment that they had to be alert and see their students' reaction after providing an instruction. Throughout the analysis, it was quite obvious that the GAL learners' use of language for comprehension questions was minimal especially when addressing teachers. On the other hand, teachers' use of language for communication through the use of comprehension questions was much more frequent. It seems that this contrast in the use of language for communication was caused by the different roles each group of participants had.

This is in contrast with the data received from the interviews with the GAL learners. As was expected, I could not gather data regarding the actual communication acts of the participants but the various kinds of interviews allowed me to gather information surrounding learners' conscious actions to reach mutual communication with their interlocutors inside the classroom. When the participants were asked during the discussions with the drawings about their understanding of Greek in the class, the majority referred to the help they received from the teacher. More specifically, Elijah, Evgeny, Kabir, Timofei, Tahir and Katrina said that when they did not comprehend something they would ask the teacher to explain it to them. Thus, the majority of the participants would use this strategy to overcome any communication issues in order to get along in the classroom. There were two participants, Kyla and Kabir, who admitted that they would turn towards their peers for explanation. Peer support was found once again as one of the techniques language learners would employ to address not only their socialising needs but also their communication needs as well. Kaif was also one of the few who admitted that when he did not understand Greek he would not ask anyone in the class, he would just keep reading and try to understand. In this case, it was up to the teacher to realise that something was wrong. It should be noted that Kaif was observed not asking any kind of questions throughout activities he did not understand, something that is in line with his own comments. Finally, the only participant who admitted that comprehension of Greek was harder in the class was Emanuel because there is more use of language. Emanuel in particular, was one of the language learners that was observed using the target language more extensively for socialising inside the school context, but he did not use it as much when he had to communicate inside the class. This is probably due to the different kinds of language used in each setting – the communication language and the academic language – where the latter is more abstract and causes difficulties for GAL learners. Emanuel, along with Tahir, Timofei, Katrina, Elijah and Evgeny, were the ones who also referred to the help they received from their teachers in understanding Greek in the class during their paired/grouped interviews. Katrina added that if she did not ask the teacher she would ask children who spoke the same L1 as her to explain whatever was not understood. Elijah, Evgeny and Emanuel made a particular remark that they prefer or find it easier asking the

teacher than their peers. An explanation for this contrast between the data collected from the observations and the data collected from the interviews could have been the fact that language learners did not realise that their teachers were addressing their comprehension needs, without them even asking for it. What seemed to be happening was that teachers had to be constantly alert (as they commented in their interviews) to check language learners comprehension so that GAL learners did not even had to ask for any clarifications.

5.3.3 Playground language use to enable socialising

In this part of the findings' presentation, GAL learners' use of language that enabled GAL learners' socialising is explored based on the way it influenced playground relationships and then whether or not it facilitated GAL learners' participation in playground activities:

Table 5.5: Coding of GAL learners' use of language for socialising in the yard

Categories	Themes	Clusters	Codes
GAL learners' language use for socialising in the playground	Playground relationships	GAL relationships' with others	1. Friendly relationships 2. Relationships with siblings 3. Unfriendly relationships
		GAL relationships with themselves-identity	Confusion related to ethnicity
	Participation	GAL learners' feelings	1. Positive feelings 2. Unclear feelings 3. Negative feelings
		GAL learners' uses of language	1. Avoid using L1 2. Familiarise themselves with the Cypriot culture 3. Repetition 4. Peer as translator 5. Broken sentences-isolated words 6. Gestures 7. Rephrasing
	Activities		1. Football 2. Hide and seek 3. Basketball 4. Tennis 5. Racing games 6. Cycling 7. Hunting games

5.3.3.1 *Playground Relationships*

GAL learners' socialising was initially examined through the relationships they had with others and themselves, in order to provide a fairly solid indication of their playground linguistic behaviour for socialising.

During the playground observations, I observed Elijah and Tamara to be the two participants who were socializing mostly with their siblings during the break. They were observed to hang around other peers in extremely rare cases. This was supported by their drawings too. Elijah drew himself alone in the yard where there weren't any other children but some flowers. He tried to hide that from our discussion, by claiming that he was playing with other peers in the yard. Tamara was one of the three participants who not only did not draw any children in the yard drawing, but did not even draw herself. It should be mentioned that these two participants were the ones with the lower proficiency in the target language. It could be tentatively claimed that there was an interrelated relationship between their low proficiency in Greek and their socialising behaviour in the yard. Consequently, these two participants managed to get along in the yard setting by socializing with people with whom they shared the same L1.

Kyla and Timofei belonged to the group of participants who were observed socialising with other GCs or GAL learners, but this was not initiated by them but by other children. Kyla drew herself holding her sandwich and the rest of the children she drew were playing and eating while she was watching them. Kyla's words in the interview support her drawings, since she admitted to not being part of any game in the playground. Timofei, on the other hand, drew himself and two other children who were both GCs.

Tahir and Kabir could be categorised in the same group because they were the most outgoing children of all the participants in the study. They never missed a single game or playground activity. Other children would also ask them if they could play with them, indicating the position of power they held among the group of

students. This is in line with the study conducted by Goodwin (1998), who also argued that game settings constitute an excellent opportunity to investigate how children establish social hierarchies, something that also seemed to be happening in Tahir and Kabir's games. They would hang around GCs or GAL learners as long as they felt they were doing something they enjoyed. Kabir drew himself playing football with three classmates of mixed ethnicities. Interestingly enough, Tahir, in his playground drawing, drew himself standing alone with one single classmate, who was about to throw rocks at him. It should be mentioned that during the playground observations, Tahir may have been the centre of attention in various games but he was just as easily found in various fights with older children from his school. Interestingly enough, these two participants were the ones who presented multiple identities more often than the rest (GAL learner identity, GC identity etc.).

Emanuel, Evgeny and Kaif were the three boys who made an effort to socialise and be part of games and activities and sometimes this effort had to be initiated by them. The effort that was observed by these three participants in order to get along in the playground and achieve their inclusion in the various games supports Ervin-Tripp's (1986) findings that the use of language by language learners was developed and expanded in the playground because the topics included physical activity. It should be mentioned that Emanuel chose to draw his brother playing with him outside in the yard instead of any other peer, while Evgeny drew himself with Emanuel and Elijah playing football. Kaif on the other hand, seemed to be dealing with another extreme, that of bullying, because he drew two bullies in his playground drawing. However, he did draw some friends of his as well as he explained to me afterwards.

Finally, Katrina was the case that intrigued me the most. She seemed to favour the company of a Russian-speaking boy with whom she shared the same L1 but she also enjoyed the company of almost all of her peers. Katrina chose to draw her teacher sitting on the bench in the playground, instead of any other child.

Apparently, GAL learners' relationships with some of their peers during the playground time were not always friendly. Tahir was the one to confess during the

discussions with the drawings that Tamara was arguing with another GAL learner, Tahani. The authenticity of this claim was supported by my personal observations. It is worth mentioning that Tahir and Tamara were arguing with other GAL learners and not GCs. Katrina, during her paired interview, also mentioned an incident that happened to her that I had also observed during the playground observations. She said that the main reason why she did not like it in the yard so much was because they were pulling her hair. Moreover, the interviews using the persona dolls indicated that the participants of class T admitted to not getting along with all of their peers and that there were moments during which they would fight with each other. Extract 5.12 indicates the last comments made during the third discussion I had with the GAL learners of Class T, where the participants, despite their initial reservations, admitted to me their authentic behaviour in the playground:

EXTRACT 5.12

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R: (researcher)	With whom <u>do you fight</u> during the break? Why <u>do you argue</u> ?	
2.	Tahir:	Me?	
3.	R:	Yes, I heard <u>that you fight</u> . <i>Smiling</i>	
4.	Tahir:	Me, with older... <i>Wrong use of grammar</i>	
5.	R:	With others? <i>Misheard</i>	
6.	Timofei:	With me, in the class...	
7.	Tahir:	(inaudible)	
8.	Tahir:	He <u>bothers me</u> . <i>Wrong use of grammar</i>	
9.	R:	Why does <u>he bother</u> you?	
10.	Tahir:	I play with the balls and he does like that... <i>Showing me like he was hitting him</i>	
11.	R:	Do you hit him?	
12.	Timofei:	(inaudible) <i>Talking all together and making it impossible to understand</i>	

13. Tahir: (*inaudible*)
14. Timofei: This one Miss.
15. R: What?
They both seemed to feel shy and I did not pressure them any more
 You Tamara? Are you quiet? *Smiling*
16. Tahir: No.
17. R: What?
18. Tahir: She is arguing with...
19. R: With who?
20. Tahir: With Tahani.
21. R: With Tahani? Why is she arguing with Tahani?
22. Tamara: (first language)
23. R: Why do you argue with Tahani?
24. Tahir: And I hit it
Don't know to whom he was referring due to his grammar mistake
25. R: Who do you hit?
26. Tahir: The...
Showing me Tamara
27. R: You hit Tamara? Why do you hit her?
28. Tahir: (*laughing*)
29. Tamara: (first language)

As was shown from the data presented which related to the young participants' relationships with others, it was easy to realise that their relationships with other students were far more revealing in the playground observations than in any other method of data collection used in this study.

Apart from the relationships young participants had with others, their relationship with themselves was also investigated as was revealed in the playground area. A number of incidents during the playground observations were of particular interest for the development of the sense of belonging in that particular setting. On the one hand, Tahir and Kabir seemed to be enjoying a privileged position among the group of friends in the yard due to the fact that they were preferred by others to join

their games. The interesting fact about these two boys is that they were the ones who made most attempts to feel part of the group and at the same time they were the ones who did not refer to their original nationality when asked. Both of them, in discussion either inside the classroom or during the interviews, would not refer to their country of origin but they would claim that they were both Greek Cypriots, presenting a multiple identity. On the other hand, Kaif, Evgeny and Emanuel were three boys who were often asked to be the hunter, a less privileged role in the children's games. Nevertheless, other peers supported them when they stood up for themselves and asked for a change of roles.

5.3.3.2 *Playground Participation*

Apart from the relationships exploration, GAL learners' use of language in the playground for socialising was investigated through the feelings they expressed about the area of the yard and their participation in various games. Eight out of the ten language learners admitted during our discussions (after the drawings) that they preferred spending time outside in the yard rather than being inside in the classroom. Not much information could be extracted from the language learners about why they preferred the yard. Nevertheless, based on my observations, it could be suggested that this happened because learners were more motivated outside - they wanted to play instead of participate in classroom activities - and that it was easier for them to do so since the language use in the yard was highly predictable (especially when they were using the same football terms). This observation is in line with Fillmore's (1976) findings. Another tentative claim about the language learners' linguistic behaviours in the yard reflects Cummins' idea that basic communicative skills can be learned more quickly whereas the type of language required for more cognitively oriented interactions is less easily learned. As described earlier, Cummins posits the idea of a BICS (basic interpersonal communicative skills) and CALP (cognitive-academic language proficiency) continuum (Cummins, 1984). This is demonstrated by the data from this current study, which shows the preference of the majority of language learners for being in and communicating in the yard rather than in the class. According to Cummins (2000), it is extremely common to observe language learners being able to communicate successfully in the target language with other peers in social settings

such as the playground and at the same time not being as successful with appropriate classroom use of language.

There were three quite dissimilar categorisations of learners who belonged to this group. The first group was the group that had either confessed to not having strong relationships with other peers or they had not drawn any other child with them in their playground drawings. These were Elijah, Kyla and Katrina.

The second group of participants explained that the main reason they preferred being outside was because they could play freely. Those participants were Timofei, Emanuel and Kabir. They had either mentioned games they enjoyed through the discussion, or the drawing itself was a representation of a game, as with Kabir's drawing. Kabir's drawing was the one with the most colours, the most detailed one, where everyone was smiling. He clearly commented in the drawing he had scored five times (See Figure 5.3):

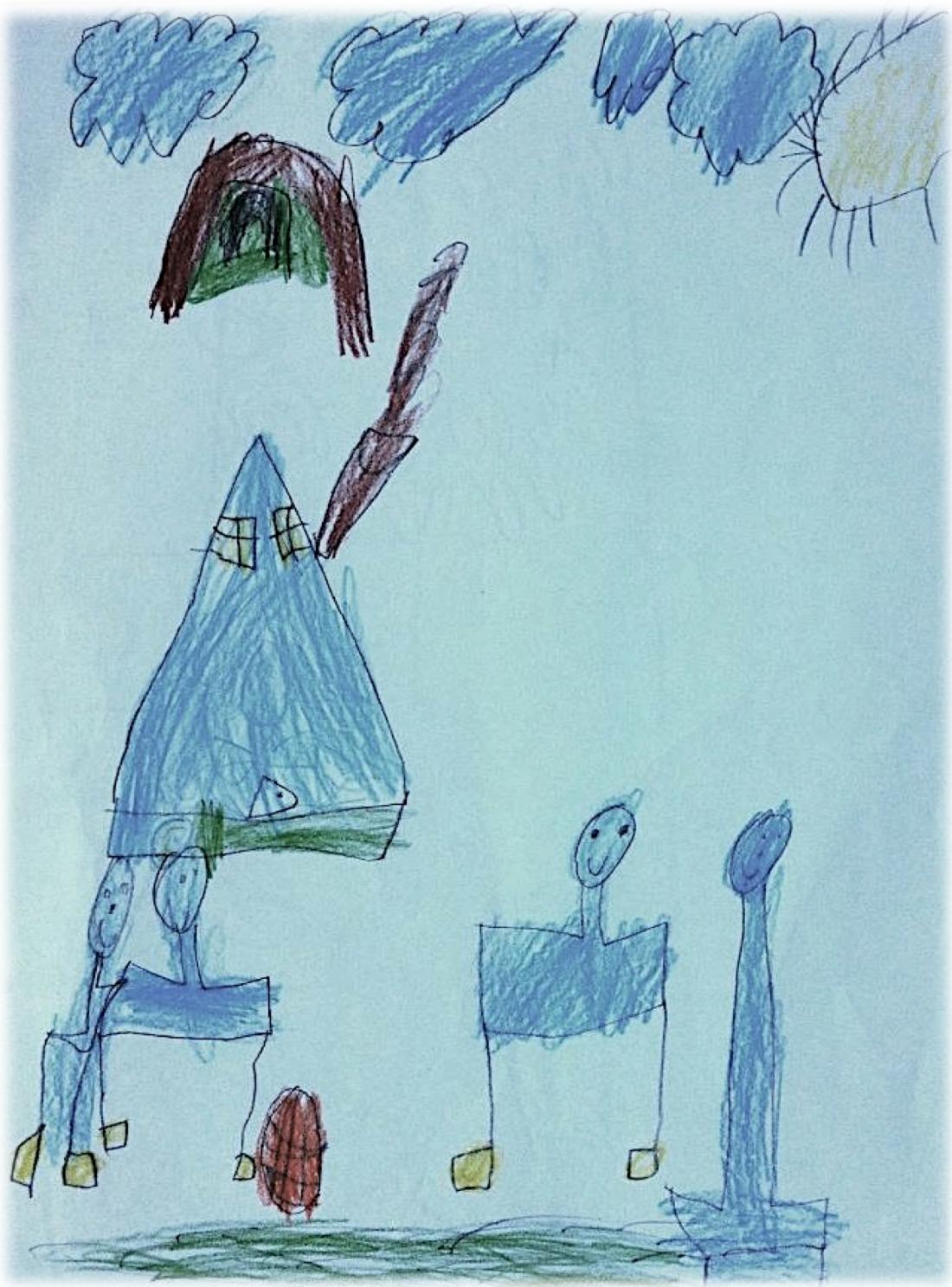


Figure 5.3: Drawing outside in the yard 1

The third group of participants included language learners whose feelings were not clearly expressed either through the discussion or through their drawings. The two GAL learners who belonged in this group were Tamara and Kaif, whose drawings and verbal answers in the discussion were conflicting.

The rest of the participants, Tahir and Evgeny, were the ones who did not like it outside. Evgeny was the learner who hesitated the most in saying why he was happy in the yard, if he was at all. Only one of the three children he had in his yard drawing had a smile. Finally, Tahir referred to bullying incidents occurring during the playground time. Tahir was the only participant who clearly stated that he preferred being in the classroom. He confessed that he was not happy in the yard because he was usually involved in fights. His drawing pictured a larger boy, who was trying to throw rocks at Tahir (see Figure 5.4):

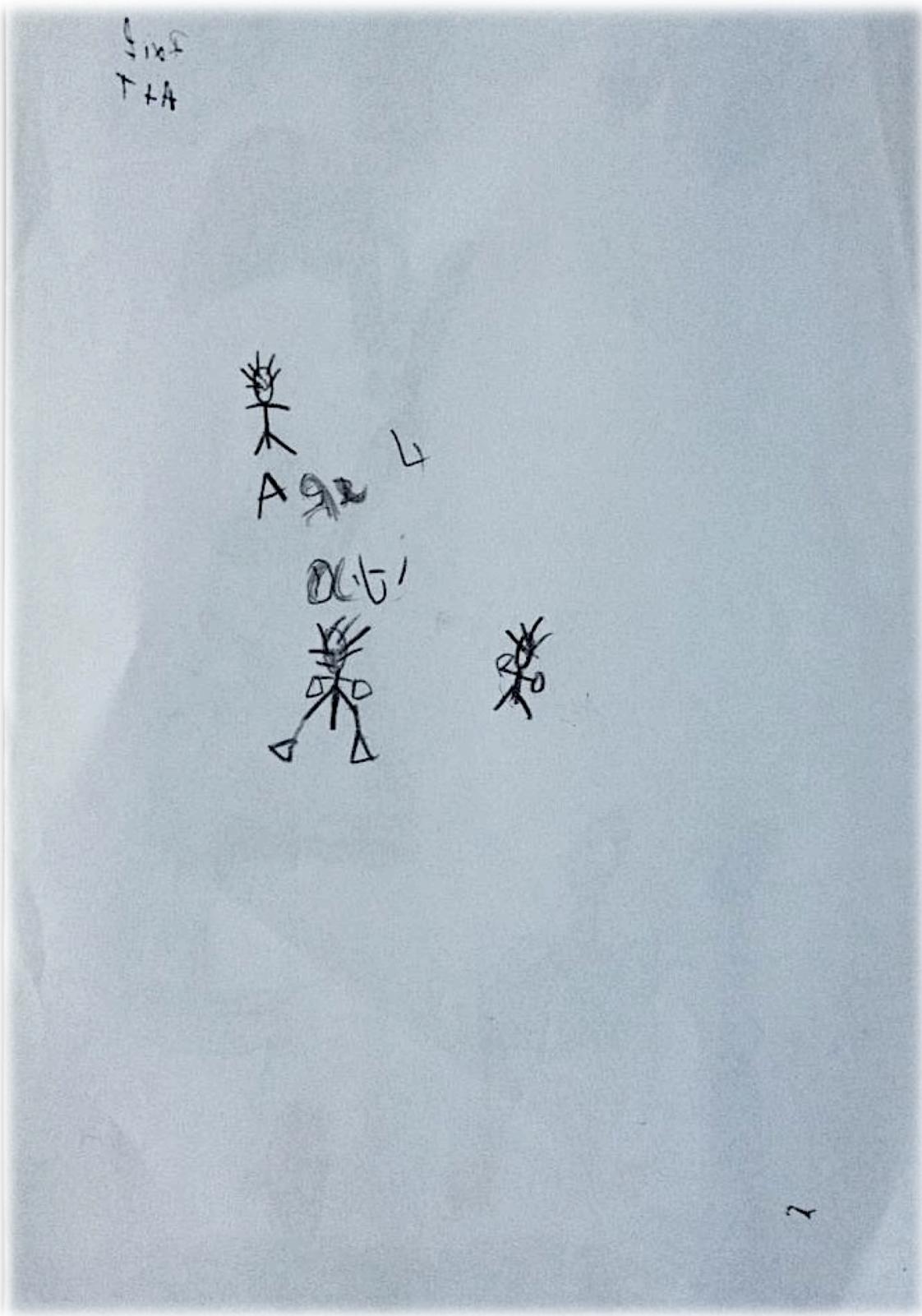


Figure 5.4: Drawing outside in the yard 2

A rather similar type of discussion was also generated about the favourite games participants enjoyed in the schoolyard in all three kinds of interviews conducted with the young participants. During the interviews with the persona dolls, the two games that were the most popular were hide and seek (more than twice) mentioned by Kabir, Kaif and Emanuel, and football, which was mentioned by Emanuel, Evgeny and Timofei. Kabir and Timofei referred to football and hide and seek during their paired interviews too, while during the discussions about the yard drawings Emanuel, Kaif, Kabir and Evgeny mentioned football games once more. It is possible that one of the reasons participants preferred football over other sports, was the promotion of football as the national sport of the country. Thus, learners' preferences could be considered as their accommodation to the host community. Evgeny and Elijah also shared that they enjoyed the game of basketball while Elijah also mentioned tennis. Elijah also drew himself playing tennis (and football). Only Tahir mentioned cycling (which never actually happened outside in the yard because bicycles were not allowed in the yard). Kabir also referred to the racing games, which was also a very popular game that all children (GCs or GAL learners) used to engage in during the break. Finally, during the discussion about this yard drawing Kaif also mentioned enjoying the hunting games he used to engage in during his break time in the playground area.

All of the games mentioned by GAL learners, were group games, therefore there was a strong possibility that these games positively influenced the socialising of these young children outside in the yard. The reason for this belief is that group games need the people involved to work together to coordinate the activity, thus, through that coordination there is a high possibility that the participants will interact quite intensively with each other. This supports Rogoff's (1994) findings, which assert that learners manage to contribute to each other's learning in the playground because they all contribute to the meaning of rules of the actual games as well as the sociocultural rules surrounding them. It should be noted than none of the three girl participants of the study mentioned any particular activity they seemed to enjoy outside in the yard. From my personal observations in the playground, most of the girls, if they were not running, would wonder around the yard with their friends instead of being engaged in a particular activity.

Apart from the language learners' feelings about the yard and their favourite games, participants actual use of language was investigated as to whether it influenced their efforts to be part of a larger group of children in the yard setting. These efforts included different ways of trying to facilitate their participation in the playground. One of these was the avoidance of the use of the L1, to include themselves in larger groups of peers. During the playground observations Kabir would talk to Kaif in their L1 but he would also talk in Greek when others were around:

EXTRACT 5.13

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Kabir:	(first language) <i>He was making sounds like something was exploding...</i> <i>Sounds of getting down the stairs and eating</i> <u>Where is Kostas?</u> Kostas...! Come on. Have you seen Kostas? Here, he missed the article in Greek. <i>Sounds of walking</i> (first language) Kostas (first language) OK? OK (first language)	
2.	L:	Hmm...	
3.	Kaif:	(first language)	
4.	Kabir:	(first language) (<i>inaudible</i>) Kostas...	
5.	L:	Ah...	
6.	Kabir:	Kostas...Kostas...	
7.	L:	(pause) What?	

The episode presents a clear effort to not exclude themselves from the rest of the peers with whom they did not share the same L1. On other occasions, Katrina, Kabir and Emanuel would loudly and clearly declare their support of Cypriot football teams, by calling their names or mentioning their visits to the stadiums where games were held. This indicates their wish to be part of the bigger group and to familiarise themselves by using as a means a strong characteristic of the Cypriot people and their culture – football. Moreover, the use of repetition was also

extremely popular almost among all of the participants involved, in order to be comprehensible to their interlocutors and proceed with their games, a finding that was also observed in Fillmore's (1976), García Sánchez's (2006) and Pinter's (2006) studies. Of course, there were cases during which repetition would be used for emphasis. The last most common use of language that seemed to enable GAL learners' participation was the use of isolated words or broken sentences. The previously mentioned studies also made reference to the children's need to find ways for the communication to succeed due to their motivation in the yard. Nonetheless, there were no explicit references to the use of isolated words, thus the analysis at this point could be considered more inductive and generated from what was observed in the field. The majority of the participants, apart from Elijah and Kyla, employed the method of broken sentences. Here, the participants were trying to explain themselves in sentences where verbs or nouns were absent, or the use of grammar or syntax was wrong. Elijah and Kyla were not recorded doing so, because they were not recorded using SMG or GCD during the playground recordings.

Other uses of language observed, which were less popular outside in the yard, were rephrasing, use of gestures and the use of a peer as a translator. Rephrasing in this case is presented separately from repetition. This is because it is a method that demands a rather rich vocabulary or at least proficiency above low in order to be flexible enough to rephrase something so that others will understand it. Katrina, Kabir and Tahir used it during their interactions throughout playground activities. As far as the use of gestures is concerned, Timofei, Kyla and Tamara, during the few times they would verbally be engaged in discussions, would point at me to indicate that they got the recorder from me, when someone else was asking. This gesture was accompanied with the word 'Mrs'. This reaction from the participants was an indication that they had understood the meaning of the question they received. Other body language was hard to record, especially in cases when the participant was far away from where I was standing during the recording. Eventually, the use of a peer as a translator was clearly recorded only once, even though I am sure it must have happened more than once. Due to my unawareness of participants' L1, I could not be certain when it was happening. However, in the

following extract various contextual elements helped me understand that Katrina asked Kirill to explain to the rest of the girls the purpose of the recorder, in order to avoid any hostility among them:

EXTRACT 5.14

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Katrina:	Kirill! Kirill! Kirill! (first language) <i>Sound of running</i> Kirill! Kirill	
2.	L:	Wow!	
3.	Katrina:	He did something.	
4.	L.:	<u>No, he didn't</u>	
5.	Katrina:	Kirill, Kirill (first language)	
6.	L:	(first language)	
7.	L:	<u>Why she did not put that on me?</u> <i>Complaining</i>	
8.	L:	Yes.	
9.	Katrina:	What? I DON'T KNOW WHY! YOU, MRS! <i>Extremely frustrated</i> (first language)	
10.	Kirill:	(first language)	
11.	Katrina:	(first language)	
12.	Kirill:	<u>Do you know what Katrina told me?</u> <u>That they put it on you and then Mrs.</u> <u>see if you are a good child or not.</u>	
13.	L:	<u>We don't care.</u> <i>Annoyed tone</i>	
14.	Katrina:	(first language)	

What Katrina did in this episode was to tell Kirill what she knew in their shared L1 and then Kirill would translate it into Greek so that all of the girls would understand.

To my surprise, there were no comprehension or clarification requests whatsoever. This was in total alignment with what the young participants Evgeny and Elijah had shared with me during our discussions: that the yard was not the ideal place to ask these kinds of questions, especially in the middle of a game.

5.3.4 Playground language use to enable learning

During the paired interviews and the discussions generated after the drawings, the nature of the communication problems GAL learners were facing in their everyday life outside in the yard as well as the way they managed to solve them, was discussed:

Table 5.6: Coding of GAL learners' use of language for learning in the yard

Categories	Themes	Clusters	Codes
GAL learners' use of language to enable learning	Playground communication	GAL learners' communication strategies with others	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Peer help 2. Ask peers/siblings with whom they shared the same L1 3. Ask for repetition 4. Comprehension questions
		Understanding of Greek	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Harder outside in the yard 2. Easier outside in the yard

When the participants were asked what they usually did whenever they were not able to comprehend something that was said to them outside in the yard, they provided different answers. During the discussions with the drawings, Katrina, Elijah and Kaif claimed that they would ask their peers to explain it to them; however, that explanation was not clarified as to whether it was rephrasing, repetition or something else. Only Katrina clearly mentioned that she would ask for repetition. Katrina's comment during the paired interview managed to clarify this point even further. She said that she would ask other children who speak the same L1 as her to explain to her. Tahir admitted that he would not ask one of his peers but his sister, perhaps also indicating that he would use their shared L1 as the medium of communication. Evgeny mentioned that he would rely on the fact that the rest of the children knew about his lower proficiency level in Greek and therefore they would take the initiative and responsibility to react accordingly. During the paired interviews, Kabir said that when he was not able to understand something he would ask his friends comprehension questions. However, this was not always possible as I realised afterwards since three other participants – Elijah, Emanuel and Evgeny – said that most of the time it was harder to ask questions of

their peers in the yard. The main reason seems to be that during the playground time the children are playing and they do not want to be distracted during it.

During the drawings' discussion, GAL learners were also asked where they felt that they understood Greek easier – in class or outside – Tamara was the only participant out of the ten to admit that she understood more outside in the yard. Elijah, Katrina and Kabir, apart from stating the opposite (that they understood much more in the class) also provided an explanation for this. Elijah said that in the yard it was harder to understand Greek because most of the children were playing while talking, making comprehension a daunting challenge. Katrina mentioned that there were older children who talked very fast and whom she was afraid to ask to repeat something for her. Finally, Kabir just mentioned that the large number of pupils in the yard compared to the number of pupils in the class made comprehension harder. Interestingly enough, I did not come across previous studies explicitly referring to these circumstances that –according to the learners-made comprehension much harder in some cases. What is also intriguing is the learners' initiative to compare the yard with the class, in order to identify exactly what seemed to make comprehension more difficult in the yard on some occasions.

5.4 GAL learners' linguistic profiles

The discussion in this fourth section of the findings chapter presents data based on each GAL learner. The presentation of this information is again divided according to the purposes I had identified for their use of language. These findings are linked to RQ1.

5.4.1 Kyla

Kyla's participation in both classroom and playground activities was quite restricted. However, she was recorded participating in the prayer activity by mimicking Katrina's movements even though there is a strong possibility she was not an Orthodox Christian herself. This indicates her wish to belong in the classroom group. The activities she seemed to enjoy the most in the class based

on her pair interview and during the persona dolls interviews, were mathematics, art and the worksheets of the Greek lessons. From her classroom drawing, it was clear that she did not have any strong relationships with her peers. This supports her answer in the drawings discussion that she preferred being outside to being in the class. In the playground she would hang around GCs or GAL learners but she was never the one to initiate this contact. However, in her interview she said that she preferred being in the class because she was on her own. During her interactions in the playground she used body language. She had mentioned during the discussion of the drawings that when she did not understand something she would ask her peers.

As for her use of language to enable learning, Kyla rarely tried to communicate either in or outside the class. When she communicated in the classroom she used isolated words or broken phrases.

5.4.2 Kabir

Kabir seemed to be enjoying school, as he mentioned during the drawing and group interviews, as he could play freely with his friends and he could learn new things. He also said that he liked the class because he was with his friends and he said he especially enjoyed the lesson of gymnastics. He would stand when the rest of the children were praying too and his GC classmate, Klementina, would help him with activities in the classroom.

However, all of his answers in interviews agreed that the yard was his favourite place to be because he could play hide and seek, football and racing games with his friends. Regarding his relationships with others, he seemed to enjoy a power role, because other children asked him to join their games during the playground time. He was extremely outgoing as a person and that helped his relationships with others. He also seemed to be accommodating of the Cypriot culture because he supported Cypriot football teams, and tried not to exclude himself from others by speaking Greek whenever a GC peer was nearby. Whenever he was asked about his ethnicity he would say that he was Cypriot, indicating a multiple identity. There is a possibility that this was happening because he wanted to feel part of the

general group of his friends. During the playground time, his verbal interactions were much more restricted than in the class because he was extremely active. He would use isolated words or broken sentences and he would also ask his peers as he would in the class. He mentioned that the playground setting was harder for him to understand because of the large number of pupils in the yard compared to the number of pupils in the class.

Kabir was recorded using gestures while talking in the class. He also mentioned during the drawings that he would also use rephrasing, asking the teacher for further explanation or his peers to facilitate his understanding.

5.4.3 Kaif

He seemed familiarised with the Cypriot culture. During the classroom observations he was recorded admitting that his favourite food was a Cypriot traditional dish. He claimed that he liked it in the class because he was enjoying the lessons, and his classroom drawing showed friends playing with smiley expressions on their faces. During the drawings discussion he claimed that his favourite activities were mathematics and brochures in Greek. During his interview he said that he was very happy when he was at school, because he was learning things and because no one yelled or hit him as was happening at his home.

As far as his playground behaviour was concerned, he seemed to be making efforts to socialise. He would always have the role of the hunter in the hide and seek game, which was a less privileged role. When he asked for a change, his peers helped him against another group of children. In order to avoid excluding himself from the rest of the peers he would avoid speaking in his L1 with Kabir in front of them. There is a possibility that Kabir initiated this change of linguistic usage, and Kaif just followed his lead. Kaif's playground drawing showed some children who were about to hit him. During the drawings interview he claimed that his favourite activities were football and hunting games in the yard. Kaif's playground communication was restricted to the use of isolated words or broken sentences.

During the drawings interview he claimed that if he did not understand something in the class he would ask a peer, while he would ask no one outside in the yard.

5.4.4 Katrina

Katrina was recorded participating fully in prayer in the classroom as an Orthodox Christian herself. She also claimed during her drawings and interviews contribution that she preferred the class to the yard. She claimed during the persona dolls and the group interviews that her favourite activities in the class were mathematics, art and the brochures in the Greek lessons.

Katrina's behaviour in the yard confused me. She seemed to favour the company of a Russian-speaking boy with whom she shared the same L1, but she also enjoyed the company of almost all of her peers. However, there were occasions during which one of the girls in her class would verbally attack her because she was getting all the attention from me. This was supported by her drawings as well. She had not drawn herself with any of her peers, either in the class or in the yard. However, during the interviews she said that she was very happy because she played with her friends during the break. She was recorded supporting the Cypriot football teams during the playground time, perhaps because she felt like that she belonged to the general group of children. Her interactions in the playground included translation from Kirill in their shared L1, Russian. She would also use rephrasing, isolated words or broken sentences. She supported this with her drawings responses when she claimed that she would ask her peers to explain something she did not understand. She would ask for repetition but she did not understand older children because they talked very quickly, and she was afraid to ask them to repeat something for her.

As far as Katrina's use of language for learning was concerned, when she did not understand something in the class she would ask her teacher or other peers. This was supported in her group interviews and the persona dolls interviews.

5.4.5 Elijah

Elijah stood up during the prayer activity in the classroom, even if he did not fully participate since he was not an Orthodox Christian himself. Elijah would also ask Eva, a GAL learner who was not participating in the project, to help him if he needed any help in the class. This indicates good relationships between him and his peers. However, there were occasions during which he was recorded to be unwilling to assist Evgeny.

In the yard he hung around only with his sister y. He was generally not very sociable and he was not recorded playing along with many of his peers. His yard drawing also supported this. He liked football, basketball and tennis. However, he claimed that he preferred the yard over the class, probably this is the reason why his class drawing showed just the seating arrangements children had in reality. During his interactions in the playground, he asked his peers to explain something he had not understood. He did mention that the difficulty in the yard was that most of the children were playing while talking. This made Greek comprehension even harder for him. He also said that most of the time it was harder to make comprehension questions to his peers in the yard because they were playing.

In the class, he communicated with isolated words or broken sentences. He would also ask his teacher, as he said in the drawings interview, if he had not understood something. During the interviews he explained further that he preferred, or found it easier, asking the teacher rather than his peers.

5.4.6 Emanuel

Emanuel claimed that he liked the school because he could play freely. He did mention though that he liked the class but his favourite place was the yard. Emanuel was recorded getting assistance from his GC peer Emilos. He claimed that he enjoyed writing activities and mathematics in the class.

In the playground, Emanuel made efforts at socialising with others. He was recorded supporting Cypriot football teams; perhaps this was an indication of his effort to try to blend with others. His yard drawing was quite lonely. He claimed that his favourite activities in the yard were football and hide and seek. During his interactions in the playground he was recorded using isolated words and broken sentences. During the interviews, he said that most of the time it was harder to make comprehension questions for peers in the yard because they were playing.

In the classroom Emanuel was communicating through the use of isolated words and broken sentences. During the drawings' interview, he claimed that comprehension of Greek was harder in the class because there was more use of language. In this case, when Emanuel was referring to the class language - the one he perceived as more difficult- he was referring to what Cummins called CALP, which, it is argued, is more difficult to acquire than BICS (Cummins, 1984). Generally, the classroom is considered a context-reduced setting where the language learner has to be well aware of the exact meaning of the wording used (Cummins, 2000). On the other hand, the playground setting is considered to be a context-embedded situation where the conversation participants can negotiate meaning in face-to-face conversations where non-verbal cues are available (Cummins, 2000). Because of these differences between the class and yard, Emanuel perceived classroom communication as more daunting than communication in the playground. He also stated that the help he preferred when he did not understand something in the classroom was from the teacher rather than his peers. Emanuel may have been aware that the two contexts require different competencies.

5.4.7 Evgeny

Evgeny participated fully in the prayer activity because he was an Orthodox Christian himself. He was also recorded during the classroom observations to observe what the others were doing when he did not understand, so that he would be able to participate in activities. He was also supported by many of his classmates, mainly by Elly a bilingual student, and Evros a GC student. His favourite activities in the class were mathematics but he clearly said that he did not

enjoy Greek lessons. That was what he said during the drawings interview. However, during the persona dolls meetings he said that he enjoyed the Greek subject.

In the playground Evgeny was recorded to make efforts to socialise with others. He was having the role of the hunter, a less privileged role during the hide and seek game in the yard. His peers also supported him when he asked for a change. During his drawings discussion he clearly mentioned that he did not like it outside and that he preferred the class. However, he seemed to have built strong relationships with a number of peers since he drew friends and classmates playing and hanging around with smiley expressions on their faces outside. His favourite activities were football and, to a lesser extent, basketball. During his interactions in the playground he would use isolated words or broken sentences. He would also rely on the fact that the rest of the children knew about his lower proficiency level in Greek, so they would take the initiative and responsibility to react accordingly. It could be claimed that Evgeny's linguistic behaviour in the yard was an indication that he had just begun to develop BICS, which is the basic form of communication that language learners need for their communication in social settings such as the yard setting (Cummins, 1984). It is also interesting that during the interviews he said that most of the time it was harder to ask comprehension questions to peers in the yard because they were playing.

Evgeny's communication in the class was characterised by gestures, while talking was conducted through the use of comprehension questions. In his drawing contributions he said that he would ask the teacher if he did not understand something. In the group interviews he added that he preferred or found it easier asking the teacher rather than his peers.

5.4.8 Tamara

Tamara's participation in classroom activities was restricted to colouring or wandering around the class without making any effort to participate in the lesson.

She was observed to be seated at side tables during the Greek language lessons. She was also recorded to have hostile relations with Tutkun, who was also a GAL learner.

In the yard she would spend a lot of time with her brother, who was in the next yard in the kindergarten area. She mentioned that the yard was her favourite place in the school because she said that she understood more Greek in the yard (I am not convinced about whether she was referring to Greek communication or her L1). However, she had drawn a rather lonely yard picture.

Tamara's communication in the yard and in the class occurred through the use of gestures, isolated words or broken sentences.

5.4.9 Tahir

Tahir stated in three out of the five data collection methods that he was Cypriot (classroom observation, drawings and persona dolls interviews). He was also sometimes seated at the side tables. His favourite lessons were mathematics and art. In the yard, he was the most outgoing of all. Others would ask him to join them in their games. He seemed to enjoy a power position while at the same time he presented a multi-layered identity, since there were instances when he felt and declared GC and others TC. During the persona dolls interviews he said that he did not like it outside and preferred the class to the yard, while during the group interviews he claimed that it was the same for him either in the class or outside. This is in line with his yard drawing, where he drew specific classmates who were about to hit him. He said his favourite playground activity was cycling even though I had not seen him cycling and I am also not sure whether he was allowed to cycle in the yard.

Tahir's specific uses of language (linguistic or not) to enable his learning were the use of gestures while talking in the class and the request for clarification from his teacher to explain something he could not comprehend.

5.4.10 Timofei

Timofei was always found at the centre tables, unlike the others, Tamara and Tahir. It seemed that there was hostility between him and Tony (GAL learner) but he was quite close with Takis (GC student), who helped him on some occasions with the activities of the class. Reading was his least favourite activity.

In the yard Timofei hung out with GCs or GAL learners without taking the initiative himself. Mrs. Tina claimed that at the beginning of the year she had urged other GCs to play with him. He managed to build strong relationships with his peers and that was also obvious from his class and yard drawings. His favourite activity outside was football. He mentioned that he generally liked school because he could play freely.

Timofei communicated in the class through isolated words and broken sentences. He would also ask the teacher if he did not understand something in the class. These were his personal uses of language to enable his learning.

5.5 Teachers' use of different language varieties

In this last part of the investigation of teachers' use of language, special attention is given to the way the various linguistic varieties were used by the teachers. Each of these varieties is further explored in the particular circumstances in which they were found. These findings are connected to RQ2 and the role of the teachers in how language learners were getting along inside the classroom:

Table 5.7: Coding of teachers' use of linguistic varieties

Themes	Clusters	Codes
Teachers' use of linguistic varieties	GCD	1. To express anger /discipline purposes 2.Comprehension questions 3.To make a joke or personal comments 4.To ask practical/procedural questions 5. To explain vocabulary providing examples of everyday life 6. To encourage 7. To provide instructions 8. To explain SMG words
	SMG	1. For providing instructions to explain vocabulary 2. To give feedback 3. For comprehension questions 4. To ‘correct’ GCD words to SMG
	Code mixing and code switching	1. For vocabulary explanation 2. For procedural talk 3. For providing instructions 4. For discipline purposes
	English	1. For providing instructions 2. For comprehension questions 3. For encouragement
	GAL learners' L1	Not available

5.5.1 Teachers' use of GCD

The initial linguistic variety explored here is the unofficial variety of the country, GCD. The reason for beginning this subsection with GCD is that it was the one most extensively used by the teachers compared to the rest of the varieties.

To express anger/discipline purposes

All three teachers were recorded making comments about how students should behave. Also they were recorded raising their voices to indicate their dissatisfaction when a child was not behaving properly. During those incidents all three of them were recorded employing GCD. Dewaele (2006) confirms that, when possible, the majority of people employ their mother tongue when it comes to expressing intense feelings, such as anger. Since all the teachers had GCD as their mother tongue, it is not surprising that they used GCD in stressful situations for them.

This topic is of particular importance because various studies report the use of both GCD and SMG for discipline purposes. In Pavlou and Papapavlou's (2004) research, teachers claimed that SMG should be used for discipline because it carries more ‘prestige’; however, in real life situations Tsiplikou (2007) found that

GCD is often used by teachers to restore order in the class. The data presented here align with the fact that, in reality, teachers do not always follow what they are supposed to do, if they believe that the “unofficial” way will be more fruitful and helpful to the situation they are found.

To make a joke or personal comments

Mrs. Elena and Mrs. Kristia were the two teachers who used the informal variety to make a joke or relax the atmosphere of the class. Tsiplakou (2007) also found that it is very common for mainstream GC teachers to use GCD to create a more relaxed atmosphere. In addition, Van De Craen and Humblet (1989) found that Belgian teachers used the informal variety when making personal comments to their students and also to relax the atmosphere:

EXTRACT 5.15

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	What is he saying below? Emanuel? <u>Read it but loudly!</u>	
2.	Emanuel:	<i>Started reading in a very low voice</i>	
3.	Mrs. Elena:	LOUDER!	
4.	Emanuel:	<i>He continued reading</i>	
5.	Mrs. Elena:	Louder! <u>Oh my God, these ears of mine are totally blocked!</u> She was making jokes so that he would talk louder	
6.	Emanuel:	<i>He continued reading and Mrs. Elena was correcting him whenever necessary</i>	

In the extract above, it is easy to observe that Mrs. Elena was slightly more official during the instructions she was giving to Emanuel, but when the time came to make a joke, she switched to GCD.

To ask practical/procedural or comprehension questions

Practical or procedural questions were not directly linked to the lesson. Most of these questions were the everyday questions that all teachers formed throughout their conversations with GAL learners, in order to help them proceed with their educational tasks and purposes:

EXTRACT 5.16

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.			Before the actual lesson started and while Mrs. Elena asked the children to get their books, this happened
2.	Evgeny:	Mrs. He waved to attract her attention	
3.	Mrs. Elena:	Yes.	
4.	Evgeny:	That green, I don't, I don't know, I don't have... He was making gestures as if he couldn't find anything and he was nodding his head as well	
5.	Mrs. Elena:	Your exercise book? She nodded her head	
6.	Evgeny:	I didn't find. He was nodding negatively	
7.	Mrs. Elena:	It's not at home? She was making a gesture as 'no' with her hand	
8.	Evgeny:	I don't know where it is. He nodded 'no' and was speaking in an extremely low voice	
9.	Mrs. Elena:	OK, maybe Elijah took it, let me check. Elijah was sitting next to Evgeny Get your books up. At the same time she was checking Elijah's bag I told you to clean your bag! You forgot? She took some books out to check whose name was on the outside Hm? You forgot?	
10.	Elijah:	Yes.	
11.	Mrs. Elena:	This one? It's not in here, Evgeny. Let's make a new one. Well, 36...(the page where they were going to read. She said the page and opened Evgeny's book at that page	

Apart from these procedural questions, Mrs. Tina was also using GCD when she asked a comprehension question, which directly referred to written text. The use of GCD in comprehension questions related to written activities was not expected since all the texts were in SMG. The other two teachers used SMG to avoid confusion when students were asked to write something they had heard orally.

To explain vocabulary providing examples of everyday life

All three teachers were recorded to have used this technique at least twice while explaining new or unknown vocabulary to the students (either GCs or GAL learners):

EXTRACT 5.17

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Kostas:	<u>It's my mum.</u>	
2.	Mrs. Kristia:	<u>Your mum</u> is a tailor.	
3.	Kostas:	<u>And my grandma was...</u>	
4.	Mrs. Kristia:	When she was younger. Who is a plumber? <i>Question was in a louder tone</i> When will I call a plumber to come at home? Where is the problem that is fixed by the plumber? Have you heard this word again? <i>Only Kostas was raising his hand</i>	
5.	LL:	Me, me.	
6.	Mrs. Kristia:	Ah? What does he fix? Who knows? <i>Kostas, Konstantinos and Kimonas raised their hands</i> Konstantinos.	
7.	Konstantinos:	<u>Houses.</u>	
8.	Kristina:	(laughing)	
9.	Mrs. Kristia:	Something <u>inside the houses, but not houses.</u> Kostas.	
10.	Kostas:	<u>This kind of cars,</u>	
11.	Mrs. Kristia:	<u>I will pass out.</u>	
12.	LL:	(laughing)	
13.	Kimonas:	Lambs.	
14.	Mrs. Kristia:	Lambs. Well, plumber. <i>Slow rhythm</i>	
15.	Kyriakos:	My father is a plumber.	

In this episode, Mrs. Kristia started providing explanations of the new vocabulary in SMG and as soon she realised that it was not successful, she gave an example from the children's everyday life and switched to GCD. The fact that the teacher switched to GCD is not something that is surprising, since there is a belief among teachers that GCD is allowed when there is the need to explain something rather complicated (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004).

To encourage

It has already been discussed (at 5.1.1.1.) that teachers would encourage students during their efforts. Here it is readdressed, due to the fact that on a number of occasions during which teachers would encourage their students, they would do this using GCD.

To provide instructions

Another use of the unofficial variety was when all of the three teachers were observed using GCD to provide instructions for various activities. These instructions were often linked with practical and procedural processes.

To explain SMG words

The final use of GCD was observed, again with all three teachers of the study, when they had to explain an unknown word. Instead of rephrasing or providing examples, they provided the learner with the GCD corresponding word that they knew would be familiar and known to them, proving that language learners came across GCD in their daily lives quite extensively:

EXTRACT 5.18

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Kabir:	Mrs., what <u>is</u> mother?	Then the children started doing their own identity card. They were all working together.

Mrs. Tina said to some of the children - including Kyla and Katrina - their surnames slowly and clearly so that they would fill the spaces. She kept answering the personal questions of each child regarding their personal details

2. Mrs. Kristia: Mum.

It is obvious that after Mrs. Kristia's explanation Kabir was able to understand what was requested from him in order to continue writing his personal details on the identity card.

There seems to be an alignment between the teachers' linguistic behaviour, as has been presented through the classroom observations' data and what they thought was their linguistic behaviour from their comments during the interviews. Mrs. Kristia was conscious that she used GCD whenever she wanted to relax the atmosphere, to make a joke and to provide examples from everyday life. What Mrs. Kristia did not mention was her use of GCD when she was expressing her anger, to encourage, and to explain unknown SMG words. Thus, it is quite obvious that the unofficial variety was used in a variety of ways, as a means and technique by the teachers to facilitate learners' getting along.

Mrs. Elena, in her interview, confessed to using the unofficial variety more extensively than the official one, without referring to specific contexts when she was. She also seemed to realise that her GAL learners also adopted or mimed her use of GCD. Learners' mimicking was also supported by Willes' (2012) findings, as a strategy that facilitated the learners' getting along. She was recorded employing GCD when she wanted to make a joke, to ask practical questions, to explain vocabulary with everyday life examples, and to encourage her students by praising their efforts. This aligns with Pavlou and Papapavlou's (2004) study, where Cypriot

teachers would use the unofficial variety when they wanted to get closer to their students or explain something challenging to them.

Mrs. Tina admitted to using both of the varieties, but she seemed to be cautious whenever she used SMG because she did not want to use a refined form of language that would be incomprehensible to the majority of the students. It was interesting to realise that I did not come across previous studies where the teachers would express this concern. She also seemed to be aware of the effect of her own use of language on the GAL learners' use because, as she characteristically described them, they were like 'parrots', repeating whatever they were listening to (once more the widespread technique of mimicking). From the recordings, it was obvious that Mrs. Tina's use of language was almost entirely dominated by GCD. Even if she was not explicit on how she was using it in her interview, she was recorded doing so when she wanted to express her anger, to ask practical questions, to explain vocabulary and to encourage her students. Taking all these into serious consideration, it is clear that GCD was one of the most powerful means, tools and techniques that the teachers-participants used inside the class.

5.5.2 Teachers' use of SMG

The use of SMG was not as extensive as the use of GCD. This is an indication that even if classrooms are considered official settings, linguistic formalities do not always follow real life use. It also supports the claim that around the world, despite the official policies, schools tend to use the mother tongue (Le Pinchon, 2010). Mrs. Kristia was the teacher who employed SMG the most compared to the other participants.

For providing instructions and to give feedback

The three teacher-participants of the study were repeatedly recorded using SMG while giving instructions to the whole class, whether they were addressing language learners or native speakers. The majority of these instructions were text related or linked with written exercises, in contrast to the practical instructions that

were usually given in GCD. As far as the feedback was concerned, usually all of the three teachers gave feedback in GCD. However, Mrs. Kristia was also observed using SMG for giving feedback. These antithetical behaviours are proof that there was not a pattern, and that each teacher employed different varieties when she believed it facilitated and served the needs of the particular student.

To explain vocabulary

Mrs. Kristia was also the only teacher who was observed using SMG to explain unknown words to the class, compared to the others who used GCD almost exclusively for this purpose. Due to the fact that usually all three teachers used GCD for this purpose, it could be claimed that it was an individual preference of the particular teacher, at that moment. This could have happened because the question was linked to a text, which was in SMG:

EXTRACT 5.19

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	<u>First of all</u> , question, what is a tailor?	Mrs. Kristia had asked Kristina to read the instructions, she explained to the students what they had to do and when she was about to request the beginning of the completion of the exercise she stopped and asked this
2.	Klementina:	<u>The one who makes</u> our clothes.	
3.	Mrs. Kristia:	The one who makes our clothes.	

From the example above, it is obvious that the use of SMG was employed through rephrasing and providing examples to explain the word 'tailor'. None of the other teachers were recorded using SMG in this way.

For comprehension questions

The use of SMG to form comprehension questions was employed by all three teachers. The majority of these questions were related to written exercises or to texts from their textbooks. Thus, it was somehow expected to use SMG and not GCD so they would not confuse their students.

To ‘correct’ GCD words to SMG

Mrs. Kristia was the only one who was recorded ‘correcting’ the use of GCD by her students. The reason was that GCD words on those occasions were part of the written answers learners had to write down. Since GCD does not have a written form, Mrs. Kristia tried to avoid confusion by immediately changing those GCD words to their corresponding SMG. It is worth mentioning that during the classroom observations, all three of the teachers made fewer “corrections” of the GCD when they were addressing GAL learners than when they were addressing GCs. Perhaps this happened because, as the teachers commented in their interviews, they were happy having the language learners’ participate and communicate in any way possible:

EXTRACT 5.20

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	Tell me a sport.	
2.	Kirill:	Punning.	
3.	Mrs. Kristia:	What?	
4.	Kirill:	Punning!	
5.	Mrs. Kristia:	Running, yes. <i>They went on saying more sports until Kabir said...</i>	
6.	Kabir:	<u>Football.</u>	
7.	Mrs. Kristia:	We don’t say <u>football</u> , we say football.	

This was not the only time that Mrs. Kristia was observed doing this. She was also observed requesting Koullis, a GC, to change the GCD word for ‘monkeys’.

Tsiplakou's (2007) findings are in agreement with the data presented here. It should be mentioned that Delpit (1997) warns of the possibility of negatively affecting students' construction of identity if they are 'corrected' in this manner.

It should be highlighted that of all the three teachers, Mrs. Kristia was the one who exploited the official variety to the greatest extent. During the teachers' interviews, Mrs. Kristia and Mrs. Elena admitted employing SMG mainly whenever they had to fill in written exercises or whenever they were working on something that was directly linked to written forms of language. However, they were both recorded to using it for other reasons as well (as presented above) that they did not mention during their interviews. Mrs. Kristia was also recorded using it to give feedback and to 'correct' the use of GCD, while Mrs. Elena was recorded providing instructions and asking comprehension questions.

Finally, Mrs. Tina mentioned that she consciously avoided refined use of language – meaning the official variety – because GAL learners would not have been able to understand. This is in contrast to what Mrs. Kristia said that GAL learners were more easily confused with GCD than with the standard variety. However, there is an explanation for both teachers' beliefs. On the one hand, Mrs. Tina was teaching in a school where most of the students came from families with a low socio-economic and educational level. These characteristics are often linked with the use of the unofficial variety. GAL learners' and their families' most frequent interactions with native speakers were conducted in GCD. Therefore they had become used to the particular variety. On the other hand, Mrs. Kristia argued that the use of SMG was much clearer for a language learner to comprehend, because he/she would not be confused with the written variety in texts. Their difference lies in the goal they had set in mind. On the one hand, Mrs. Tina wished to use GCD as a stronger means of communication with her students, while Mrs. Kristia used SMG more extensively to facilitate her students' participation and learning in linguistic activities during the language lessons.

5.5.3 Teachers' code mixing and code switching

The three teachers of this study were recorded both code switching and code mixing between GCD and SMG. This particular linguistic behaviour also follows that found in Merritt et al.'s (1992) study. Once more, the various occasions when this use of language was observed is based on their popularity among teachers.

For vocabulary explanation

One of the main occasions during which teachers were recorded mixing the two varieties they had at their disposal was when they introduced new vocabulary to the class:

EXTRACT 5.21

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	Fixes anything that has to do with water. <i>Slow rhythm</i> Do you remember when we said that, and what do I mean by water? The sinks , toilets, showers, when there is a problem and water is running from the <u>sink</u> we will call the plumber!	

In this case, Mrs. Kristia code mixed from SMG to GCD to provide explanations for an unknown word. There is the possibility that Mrs. Kristia decided to use the word 'sink' in GCD because the word in SMG would not have been recognised by the students. Thus, teachers presented flexibility in how they used the two varieties to manage to facilitate learners' comprehension.

Procedural talk

By procedural talk, I mean the talk that is happening in the class that is not directly related to the accomplishment of a task and the completion of an activity but everything surrounding those goals. All three of the teachers, without exception, were recorded code switching and code mixing during procedural talk:

EXTRACT 5.22

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
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1. Mrs. Elena: What **is** it, my Evgeny?
He pointed at the exercise book of Anna who was sitting next to him
You don't have it. I will give you another one. You **have** it at home or did you lose it?
2. Evgeny: (*answer not audible*)
3. Mrs. Elena: Do you have it at home or shall I make a copy for you?
Evgeny nodded 'yes'
 Sure at home?

This episode refers to the time during which Mrs. Elena was talking with her students as part of the regulation of one activity. Despite the fact that this activity was not directly linked to a written text, Mrs. Elena used SMG in specific moments and then switched back again to GCD. Perhaps, because she knew that the Evgeny was used to that variety from his daily verbal experiences.

For providing instructions

Both Mrs. Elena and Mrs. Tina were recorded code mixing while providing instructions related to activities:

EXTRACT 5.23

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	Come on Kimonas. <i>He had raised his hand</i> <u>Show it to us and we will have left</u> only two gaps. <i>He stood up and went to the board</i> Poop. <i>Mrs. Elena emphasised each syllable</i> Yes. Poop. I will help you with the spelling. <i>Kimonas had shown the part where poop was</i> <i>Poop. [Ipsilon] at that syllable.</i> <i>She was giving him instructions about the spelling in Greek</i> This letter, which the submarine starts with... <i>She was giving him examples to help him understand which vowel to use.</i> <i>She then pronounced the last syllable twice and slowly emphasised the sound of each letter</i>	

You first listen...

In this example, only the syntax of the phrase “show it to us” was presented in GCD, while there was a repetitive use of phrases or words that were unquestionably a use of SMG. Once more, the use of SMG was linked to written exercises, and the teacher seemed to employ this variety parallel to the use of GCD, to minimise the confusion when the students would be called to write down answers.

For discipline purposes

Mrs. Kristia was the only teacher out of the three to be recorded code mixing between the official and the unofficial variety for discipline purposes, while the other two would use GCD almost exclusively:

EXTRACT 5.24

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	Read for me the first word. <i>A couple of children raised their hands</i> Klara again?	
2.	Kabir:	Ah!	
3.	Mrs. Kristia:	Kabir.	
4.	Kabir:	Ear.	
5.	Mrs. Kristia:	Read the second one. Kyriakos.	
6.	Kyriakos:	<i>He did not do or say anything</i>	
7.	Mrs. Kristia:	Kyriakos we had a deal. <u>Yesterday we discussed and if you continue like this I will call your father. I don't know, you are so confused after every holiday.</u> Read me the second word. INITIALLY I WAS WRITING ON THE BOARD AND YOU DIDN'T EVEN SEE ME WRITING ON THE BOARD. Read the second word.	
8.	Kyriakos:	Her.	
9.	Mrs. Kristia:	Yes. Kirill, the last one.	
10.	Kirill:	These.	

In this episode the learners are a Greek and a GAL learner and this might be the reason for the mix between the two varieties.

It should be noted that the teachers were recorded code mixing more than code switching. As Auer (1998) claims, code mixing requires more balanced proficiency in the two varieties used than code switching. It is quite certain that all three teachers were almost equally competent in both the unofficial and the official linguistic varieties.

5.5.4 Teachers' use of English

The use of English was quite restricted and noticed only with Mrs. Elena, who used it with only a single student, Elijah. This occurred due to the fact that English was the strongest medium of communication between the two, since Elijah has been using it in a previous school he attended. English was recorded throughout the giving of instructions, comprehension questions and finally for encouragement:

EXTRACT 5.25

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	<i>She had read loudly the whole sentence and she said: Very good! Keep trying! This is very good job. Please try at home, don't forget it. While she was moving her head for emphasis You are responsible for remembering it. Because your mother doesn't know, OK?</i>	

Elijah would either nod to indicate his understanding or he would not speak at all. Mrs. Elena then observed his behaviour to see whether he was reacting in a manner that would confirm his understanding.

5.5.5 Teachers' use of GAL learners' L1

Finally, as far as the use of the language learners' L1 was concerned, there was no opportunity to record teachers' use of GAL learners' L1. This was observed even if

it is believed that having at least some proficiency in the L1 of the students is an important skill for L2 teachers to develop (Sešek, 2007). However, it seems quite a daunting challenge especially when the class is so multilingual.

Taking into consideration everything presented in this section, it seems that teachers' use of the unofficial variety was not only to enable GAL learners' socialising (when they were using it to make jokes), but to enable their learning as well (when they were asking them clarification questions). On the other hand, the use of SMG that was recorded was much more restricted to enable learning instead of socialising. Moreover, teachers' intertwined use of linguistic varieties occurred much more often than for the language learners' (as will be further discussed in the following section). Eventually, teachers' use of English was minimal while teachers' use of GAL learners' L1 was non-existent.

5.6 GAL learners' use of different language varieties

Finally, during the analysis of the data, particular attention was given to the way GAL learners used the various linguistic varieties inside the classroom and in the playground area. Once more, the varieties that were used by the participants are explored in the particular circumstances in which they were found. These findings are linked to RQ1:

Table 5.8: Coding of GAL learners' use of linguistic varieties

Themes	Clusters	Codes
GAL learners' use of linguistic varieties	L1 inside the classroom	1. Asking for translation 2. To comment upon something
	GCD inside the classroom	1. Clarification requests 2. Asking for teacher's help 3. Procedural questions 4. Request for feedback
	SMG inside the classroom	1. To read something directly from inside a book
	English inside the classroom	No data recorded
	Code mixing and code switching inside the class	No data recorded

	L1 in the playground	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To address to their siblings 2. To address to other peers 3. To express their anger 4. To ask for translation
	GCD in the playground	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During games 2. Through isolated words and broken sentences 3. To express intense feelings 4. Use of repetition of something previously used 5. To form requests 6. For the negative form and the use of future tense 7. To provide explanations
	SMG in the playground	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. For requests 2. Through isolated words and broken phrases 3. Throughout games
	English in the playground	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Through isolated words 2. For football terms
	Code mixing and code switching in the playground	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mixing instead of switching for phrases they heard from other GCs

5.6.1 GAL learners' use of L1 inside the classroom

Tahir, Tamara and Katrina were the only participants who were observed using their mother tongue with other peers in the class. The employment of their L1 was either for practical reasons, asking for translation from a peer with a better proficiency in Greek or just to comment upon something. It should be noted that perhaps the number of participants using their L1 in the class would have been greater if all of the participants had a peer with whom they shared the same L1. Nevertheless, there were participants, more specifically, Kaif and Kabir, who shared the same L1. They were in the same classroom but they were not recorded using their L1 inside the classroom as they used it outside in the yard. There is a possibility that they did not use it so that they would not exclude themselves from the bigger group of children of the class. None of the rest of the participants shared his/her L1 with other students of his/her class.

5.6.2 GAL learners' use of GCD inside the classroom

At this point, it should be remembered that the data presented in this part of the analysis is recorded use of GCD and not SMG. Despite the fact that there are parts of the language that are equally used in both varieties, I investigated only the use of language, which was GCD use only (as I am a native speaker of GCD, this was not hard to distinguish during the analysis).

GAL learners used GCD when addressing their peers in the class for several reasons. Unfortunately, I was unable to capture all of their discussions with their peers due to their constant moving and their quiet speech. Nevertheless, the use of GCD was not always inaudible or restricted; on the contrary it was employed in a variety of situations and rather extensively compared to SMG. One of the most common usages of the unofficial variety was for clarification requests. Kabir, Evgeny and Timofei were the participants who were recorded doing this. Two additional usages were observed from Evgeny, who was recorded using it when asking for help from the teacher or when he was dealing with other practical issues. Finally, Kabir was recorded using GCD when he requested feedback after completing the reading.

5.6.3 GAL learners' use of SMG inside the classroom

The only times during which GAL learners were recorded using SMG was when they were asked to read a text or an instruction directly from the book, something that was apparent throughout this chapter.

5.6.4 GAL learners' use of English inside the classroom

There was no use of English recorded during any of the Greek language lessons. Elijah, even if he was aware of the English language, would not use it with his teacher, even though at times she used it to make something more comprehensible to him. It was interesting to observe that he would try to reply in the target language even if his proficiency was low, in an effort to feel part of the classroom group.

5.6.5 GAL learners' code mixing and code switching inside the classroom

No code switching or code mixing was noticed from the young participants of the study. This may have happened because most of the GAL learners' speech was rather short in length and so did not allow it.

Taking into consideration the previous information presented related to teachers' use of language inside the classroom and this presentation related to GAL learners' use of language in the same setting, certain observations could be made. Initially, the use of GCD compared to the use of the official variety was more extensive from both groups of participants. Both teachers and language learners used the official variety for anything related to written activities and texts. Moreover, the use of English was only used from Elena to address Elijah; interestingly enough Elijah never replied back in English. He either replied in GCD or just did whatever he was asked to do without any linguistic output. It is possible that Elijah used the target language (in any possible way he could) in order to be part of the classroom culture. Eventually, in contrast with the teachers, language learners were not recorded code switching or code mixing between GCD and SMG. One reason for this could be their low proficiency level. In order to be able to use and intertwined two varieties, a particular level of competence needs to be acquired by the people who are using them (Auer, 1998).

5.6.6 GAL learners' use of L1 in the playground

GAL learners' use of language was not only investigated inside the classroom, but outside in the yard as well. Regardless of the fact that I did not speak the participants' L1, contextual information allowed me to investigate its use in the playground, as I did inside the classroom.

There were four main reasons that I managed to identify through the investigation of GAL learners' use of their L1 outside in the yard. The first reason was when GAL learners would employ their L1 to address their siblings (if they had any at school), such as Elijah, Tahir, Tamara, Kabir and Kaif.

They were also participants who would employ their L1 whenever there were pupils who shared the same L1. Almost all of the participants shared their L1 with other children, apart from Kyla and Emanuel. Katrina, Tamara, Kabir, Kaif and Tahir were participants who shared their L1 with a significant number of others and not just one. Evgeny was a participant who rarely used his L1 because the peers he was hanging out with did not share the same L1. Tamara, as well as the rest of the participants who shared their L1 with siblings or peers during the playground time, would use their L1 extensively. In some situations, such as with Tamara and Elijah, this worked rather negatively in their socialising and language learning process. This conclusion was made based on what was observed throughout the time spent in the field. The specific participants did not socialise with other children or teachers apart from those who spoke the same L1. Inevitably that meant that they did not use the target language, SMG or GCD. However, there were others, such as Kabir, who regardless of the fact that he had his sister close to him, was an active member in the yard and he achieved a better proficiency of the target language than the aforementioned participants. It seems that the participants' progress was also greatly influenced by their character.

It should also be mentioned that a number of participants employed their L1 when they felt extremely frustrated or angry. Other studies' results coincide with these findings, such as those of Dewaele (2006) and Pavlenko (2004), who found that the dominant choice in similar occasions is the person's L1. Finally, Katrina was also recorded using her L1 with a peer when she wanted him to translate something for her, so that others would understand what she wanted to say.

5.6.7 GAL learners' use of GCD in the playground

GAL learners also used GCD quite extensively and certainly much more often than SMG outside in the yard. The use of GCD was observed in a variety of contexts.

During games

GAL learners often employed the use of GCD when they were using particular words or phrases that were inextricably linked with specific games. Kabir was

recorded using a phrase in GCD that was linked to football, while Emanuel and Evgeny were recorded using phrases often utilised throughout hide and seek games:

EXTRACT 5.26

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	L:	<u>Freedom!</u>	
2.	Evgeny:	<u>Freedom!</u>	
3.	L:	Evgeny!	
4.	Evgeny:	Ah...	
5.	L:	Esmail! Esmail! Esmail! Esmail! Esmail! Esmail! Esmail! Esmail! Esmail	
6.	L:	Esmail! COME!	
7.	L:	Esmail <u>I found you!</u> (.) Esmail!	
8.	Esmail:	(inaudible)	
9.	L:	Alex.	
10.	L:	Michalis <u>is hidden</u> somewhere else.	
11.	Emir:	<u>No, he is lying!</u>	
12.	Evgeny:	<u>I don't know where...</u>	
13.	L:	Don't tell him Evgeny, don't tell him! I don't know!	
14.	Evgeny:	<u>Me either, me either, I don't know where</u> <u>he is.</u> <i>Wrong syntax in Greek</i>	
15.	L:	Wait, wait.	
16.	Esmail:	Ah! I saw him.	
17.	L:	<u>Come on... he will be the hunter.</u>	
18.	L:	<u>NO</u> , come on, come on!	
19.	Evgeny:	<u>NO</u> ... (first language) where is it? E...freedom.	
20.	L:	E... <u>Over there</u> , freedom Evgeny!	

Throughout the game of this episode, phrases and words such as “Freedom” and “I don’t know where he is” were used constantly almost every day by all of the children who were participating. Thus, it is not surprising that Evgeny, regardless of his low proficiency, was able to utilise the specific words and phrases in the correct context to communicate and be able to participate fully in the game. Fillmore (1976), García Sánchez (2006) and Pinter (2006) all agreed upon the fact that the repetitive nature of the playground language was helpful in facilitating language learners’ comprehension. It could also be claimed that this specific linguistic behaviour from Evgeny in the yard was an indication that he started to develop BICS, the basic interpersonal communicative skills (Cummins, 1984).

Use of isolated words and broken sentences

Another use of GCD during the playground was through isolated words or broken sentences. The participants who were recorded using this technique quite extensively were Tamara, Emanuel, Katrina, Kaif and Evgeny:

EXTRACT 5.27

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	L:	<u>Here, here.</u>	
2.	L:	<u>OK, here!</u>	
3.	L:	<u>Either you play or be the hunter, or...or you don't play.</u>	
4.	Evgeny:	<i>The other children were discussing at a distance</i> <u>Don't play.</u>	
5.	L:	<u>Time-out, time-out, don't talk to him.</u>	
6.	Evgeny:	<u>IT'S NOT ME, IT'S HIM!</u> <i>Missed the verb in Greek</i> <u>HE-HE IS TALKING HERE!</u>	
7.	LL:	<u>(inaudible)</u>	
8.	L:	<u>The last one is the hunter.</u>	
9.	L:	<u>NO!</u>	
10.	Evgeny:	<u>It's not.</u>	
11.	L:	<u>It's Michalis.</u>	
12.	Evgeny:	<u>Let's go! You, mate! You! You!</u>	

13. L: Ah yes!

Evgeny regularly seemed to miss the person out of a phrase, or use isolated words such as 'you', 'mate' and so on. The participants found in this category might not have been able to form complete sentences but they managed to communicate the message they wanted without any further complications. This particular strategy used by the language learners was not explicitly referred to in a previous study.

Expression of intense feelings

A third use of the informal variety was when children expressed strong feelings. Participants who were observed doing this were Kabir, Evgeny, Tahir and Katrina:

EXTRACT 5.28

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	L:	<u>Yesterday, to give...to give it you back.</u>	
2.	L:	Eh, yes.	
3.	Katrina:	I'll tell Mrs.!	
4.	L:	<u>I will go and get them.</u>	
5.	Katrina:	E...! <u>He can't do anything.</u>	
6.	L:	(inaudible)	
7.	L:	Ha!	
8.	L:	Stop! (inaudible)	
9.	L:	<u>If you play along with her, she will give it to you.</u>	
10.	L:	<u>Hey, give it to Kristina also.</u>	
11.	Katrina:	<u>Yes, but I don't know. It's not me it's Mrs.</u>	
12.	L:	Yes!	
13.	L:	Let's go and play!	
14.	Kirill:	(first language) <u>Have one, you have one, you have one,</u> <u>he has one.</u>	
15.	L:	<u>One? Let's go?</u>	

16. Kirill: Yes!
17. Kristina: Look what game we are playing! We go up, and we do,
18. Katrina: Who has this?
19. Kristina: Me and we do.

In this episode, Katrina was addressing a GC peer, therefore the use of Greek (regardless which of the two varieties) instead of Russian was based on her wish to be understood. Research related with the way L2 learners express their anger, confirms that a person expresses his/her anger through the variety that he has fluency in, to get the upper hand (Dewaele, 2006). It is interesting to realise, based on this, that Katrina was one of the participants who was using GCD and not SMG to express her anger. It should not be disregarded though that anger is a strong feeling whose expression is affected by many cultural, linguistic and individual variables (Dewaele, 2006). Tahir was the participant who seemed to express his anger more vividly and even use swear words during it. This correlates to the individualistic differences previously mentioned.

Use of repetition of something previously used

Fourth in the list is the repetition of a GCD word or phrase that was used previously by another interlocutor. Emanuel, Evgeny and Kaif seem to be the ones with the most frequent presentation of such behaviour. This was a version of mimicking but instead of the teachers' behaviours being mimicked as Willes (2012) also investigated, another peer's behaviour was mimicked in this case.

To form requests

GCD was also used for requests. Emanuel was one of the participants who seemed to prefer the use of GCD when wishing to ask for something. Kabir and Evgeny were also recorded using it for requests:

EXTRACT 5.29

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
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1. Emanuel: (first language) *Making sounds like shooting* (first language)
Aou...Mrs. I want pie.
Something said with 'pie' with really heavy accent
2. C: Sausage pie?
3. Emanuel: Yes.
4. C: (first language) Small? (first language)
Do you want something else?
5. Emanuel: Hmm...I want ice-cream, is there any?
6. C: Ice-cream, next break! Here, come with this one to get ice-cream.
7. Emanuel: OK.

For the negative form and the use of future tense

The employment of GCD was also quite extensively linked with particular grammatical forms. The majority of the participants, apart from Kyla, Timofei and Elijah who were not linguistically active in the target language during the playground recordings, would use GCD to form the negative form or the future tense:

EXTRACT 5.30

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Evgeny:	<u>I will make with this one</u> <i>Wrong syntax</i>	
2.	L:	Yes... <i>(inaudible)</i>	
3.	Emanuel:	<i>(inaudible)</i>	
4.	Esmail:	<u>Take everything.</u>	
5.	Emanuel:	<u>Eh, wait, he is not playing, he is not playing.</u>	
6.	Esmail:	<i>(inaudible)</i>	
7.	L:	<u>Yes, come to see.</u>	
8.	Emanuel:	<u>He is not playing. We shall play</u> <i>(inaudible) we shall play (inaudible).</i>	
9.	Emir:	<u>Who is playing? Only you? NI and AX?</u>	

10. Emanuel: No, me! Me.
11. Esmail: Who else is playing?
12. Emanuel: Me.
13. Esmail: Evgeny is playing?
14. LL: (*inaudible*)
15. Emanuel: One two three four... Go first, afterwards me.
16. L: (*first language*) (*inaudible*)
17. Emanuel: Leave them...
Background noises of children arguing and playing
Leave him!
18. L: I caught him.

To provide explanations

Finally, GCD was also employed to provide explanations. Tahir and Kabir were the two participants who provided explanations in GCD when talking to their peers. It is possible that this particular use was employed because it was closer to the participants' experiences with the GCD.

5.6.8 GAL learners' use of SMG in the playground

There were three main usages of SMG that were recorded during the playground observations. Initially Emanuel was observed employing SMG for requesting, while Emanuel, Kabir, Katrina and Evgeny would use SMG through isolated words and broken phrases. Finally, Kaif was recorded using it throughout a game:

EXTRACT 5.31

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	L:	Kaif is hunting!	
2.	L:	It's raining!	
3.	Kaif:	<u>No-not me... I am not hunting!</u>	
4.	L:	You do hunt!	
5.	Kaif:	<u>NO!</u>	

6. L: **Five hundreds!**
7. Kaif: Every day it's me?
8. L: **Because you never want to!**
9. L: He is right! Every day, it's him!
10. L: **E: who is going to be?**
11. Kaif: Marios! (*inaudible*)
12. L: No, I think I know! Kyriakos! Because he never wants to, right?
13. LL: YES!

Kaif would use the verb 'hunt' in its SMG version because the rest of his peers used it this way. It is likely that he had not heard the corresponding word in GCD. Again, the strategy of mimicking seems to be quite influential among peers.

5.6.9 GAL learners' use of English in the playground

The use of English was observed with only a small number of participants: Kabir, Kaif, Emanuel and Katrina. The use of the language was through isolated words, such as 'OK', 'yeah', 'yes' and 'thank you'. All of these words were part of everyday life and the participants who were recorded using them – Kabir and Katrina – probably had heard these words in their everyday communications with everyone else. GCs tend to include a lot of these words in their everyday communication. Also, Kabir, Kaif and Emanuel used English for football terms such as 'goal', 'foul' and 'score':

EXTRACT 5.32

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Kaif:	<u>GOAL!</u>	
2.	LL:	<u>GOAL!</u>	
3.	L:	<u>Come on!</u>	
4.	Kaif:	<u>Goal!</u>	

5. L: KYRIAKOS is... (*inaudible*)?
6. L: He is not with us.
7. L: Ah...
8. Kaif: NO!
The other team scored
9. L: (first language) One to one.
10. Kaif: They win us, we win them.
11. L: One to one mate!

It could be argued that one of the reasons for using football terms in English was because their peers were also doing this. Kabir and Kaif's peers used football terms in English (even if their peers were GCs). This indicates the influences on the two participants in the playground area that affected their own use of English. It should be mentioned, however, that it is extremely common to use these terms in all kinds of contexts, not only in Cyprus but also in other countries.

5.6.10 GAL learners' code mixing and code switching in the playground

Only code mixing was found in the speech of four participants: Evgeny, Katrina, Kaif and Kabir. It should be remembered here that during the classroom observations it was not observed at all. This was probably because of the restricted linguistic expression of the participants in the class:

EXTRACT 5.33

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	L:	Kaif YOU ARE HUNTER!	
2.	Kabir:	Kaif...! Do you hunt? (first language) RUN! <u>No, not yet - not yet, he didn't come</u> <i>Running and breathing heavily</i>	

(first language.) RUN!
*Screaming in the background of
children trying to get away from the
'hunter'*

3. L: (inaudible)...They took him.
4. Kabir: (first language)
MATE, don't go! He will come from
here... come from here! RUN!
5. L: It's close and you can't see her.

In the example above, the use of “Do you hunt?” in SMG is rather common in the younger generation in Cyprus. The corresponding version of that phrase in GCD is quite rare and belongs to some of the words/phrases that have been abandoned over the years. It should also be highlighted that the younger participants, who had lower proficiency in these two linguistic varieties, were mixing them instead of switching from one to the other as the teachers did.

The investigation of GAL learners’ use of language inside the classroom and outside in the yard presents a number of differences and similarities. Initially, it was observed that in both settings, the GAL learners’ use of GCD was much more extensive than SMG. Moreover, their use of their L1 was much more extensive outside than inside. This may have happened for two reasons: outside in the yard there were more children with whom the participants shared the same L1 that inside the classroom, and the fact that the main goal of the classroom setting was to use and learn the target language. Additionally, it was noticed that the restricted use of both SMG and English was for words linked with various games. Eventually, the mixing of the codes (between GCD and SMG) was recorded in the young participants’ use of language only outside in the yard. The great majority of these uses of language was when the participants were repeating something they heard other GCs using. Thus, it was obvious that the young participants did not reach a proficiency level high enough to be able to code switch and code mix between the two.

5.7 Summary of the findings’ chapter

In this chapter, teachers' and GAL learners' use of language inside the classroom and outside in the yard has been thoroughly investigated and presented. The participants' use of language has been explored in order to be able to address how they manage to get along in newly multilingual schools. Language learners were found to use language for socialising purposes more with their peers than with their teachers, while they used language for communication-educational purposes more with their teachers than with their peers. On the other hand, teachers were found to use language for socialising purposes more in interactions they had with the language learners than when encouraging that kind of interaction between the students in the class. Meanwhile, teachers would use language for communication-educational purposes both in interactions they had with their students as well as for encouraging interactions among students in the class. The following chapter discusses how the findings presented here manage to inform the knowledge we have on this topic.

Chapter 6: Discussion

In this chapter, I wish to present how my own investigation and findings have contributed to our understanding of the current approaches and ideas related to language use investigation. This project's contribution has a number of different layers, both theoretical and methodological, which are related to the way language is used in multilingual settings and more specifically how young language learners get along in multilingual schools. The groundwork of this contribution is the combination of features that tend to be investigated separately in the SLL field, if they are researched at all. The relationship between these features will be presented here as this relationship derived from the data of the research. I argue here that the teachers' language choices are mediated by the language learners' proficiency, and by the purpose that they wish to accomplish (whether they want their learners to be part of something or whether they want their learners to know something). In addition, I also claim that learners' language choices are mediated by the interlocutor, their proficiency in the variety used, the context they are in, and the purpose they want to accomplish (whether they want to join in an activity or whether they want to be heard).

6.1 This study's stance towards the theoretical approaches of the SLL field

As Eisenchlas (2009) clarifies, SLL is a multidisciplinary field which draws from a number of different scholarly areas. Some of these are linguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive psychology, sociology, anthropology and education. Because of the complicated nature of the SLL field, language as a notion as well as a tool has been explained and investigated in a variety of ways. Due to my wish to include the two different contexts (yard and classroom), the two different groups of participants (language learners and mainstream teachers), and the two varieties spoken in the target community (SMG and GCD), two dominant notions underpinned my investigation of language: communication and socialising. These two views, as I realised afterwards, represent two different approaches towards the investigation of language use. These approaches have a number of similarities as well as some differences. These differences and similarities are the baseline of some of the arguments that this study seeks to develop. As will be explained later,

it is the combination of these approaches as well as their intertwined relationship that helped account for the findings in this study and allowed a broader and more inclusive approach towards the investigation of language use.

At this point, it should be highlighted that the two approaches were introduced as separate ideas in the literature chapter, but here they are presented as they are understood in relation to each other, after exploring my findings. My understanding of the relationship between the two theoretical approaches occurred at a later point in the research process and was reinforced by the conclusions of this study. In the discussion, therefore, I outline my changing thinking in relation to these approaches in the light of my findings.

6.1.1 When language use aims at communication

During the 1960s and the 1970s, studies surrounding the SLL field seemed to rely heavily on the investigation of the cognitive processes language learners were going through in order to acquire a target language (Larsen-Freeman, 2007; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). These studies' main aim was to improve language instruction and to control the different variables that affected instructed SLL, where the teacher was assumed to be a native speaker of the target language (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). Until that point, none of the approaches in SLL considered the context in which the learning took place. It was only after the 1980s that research went beyond controlling instruction in SLL classrooms, and began to be oriented towards investigating the importance of the social context in learning (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). Most of this research drew on the work of Vygotsky, who argued that the environment should not be considered as a catalyst of the new knowledge required, but that all learning is mediated from the outside world (Larsen-Freeman, 2007; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). That was the main reason for adopting sociocultural theory as the main theoretical underpinning of this study, since I was looking at language in use in particular settings.

The theory of communicative competence was a mark of that sociocultural turn in the SLL field (Block, 2003). Among the most influential scholars of this theory were Firth and Wagner (1997, 1998), who proposed in their articles a radical

reconceptualisation of SLL. They asserted that language should be viewed and investigated as a social and at the same time as a contextualised phenomenon (Liddicoat, 1997). Of course, this theory opposed the previous psycholinguistic theories towards SLL research that ignored the socially constructed nature of interaction, and viewed language as a context-free cognitive construct (Liddicoat, 1997). Firth and Wagner (1998) argued that communication in SLL should be viewed as the transfer of information that can be accomplished ‘appropriately’ in a ‘native-like’ manner, or in an ‘inappropriate’ way. During this ‘inappropriate’ or ‘abnormal’ way, interactional modifications were expected, and regarded as suitable by the interactants themselves (Firth & Wagner, 1998). Firth and Wagner explained that what seemed to us as inappropriate, because we were outsiders to that interaction, was perfectly normal for the people who were involved in that interaction (Firth & Wagner, 1998). This happens because communicative meaning is locally situated and emerges between the participants themselves (Firth & Wagner, 1998). Through the consideration of the communicative competence theory, and the study’s data exploration, an imperative need to interpret language in use stressing the importance of context was met. The theory of communicative competence also allowed me to interpret my data, not in terms of whether the language learners were able to use the target language “correctly” in the contexts observed (which was quite rare), but whether they were able to use the language to get along in the context they were in (something that was happening in almost all communication acts).

Ultimately, Firth and Wagner (1997, 1998) argued that the previous research (psycholinguistic studies) had developed an impoverished view of what was considered as interaction (Liddicoat, 1997). The theory of communicative competence shares Hymes’ (1971) conceptualisation of language as a social and a cultural phenomenon that is “acquired and used interactively, in a variety of contexts for myriad practical purposes” (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 296). By viewing language as a socially contextualised construct, language is perceived as communication, where actual instances of interactions are investigated inside their linguistic and non-linguistic context in which they occur (Liddicoat, 1997). Because this view of interaction does not conceptualise language and its use as

autonomous constructs, but views language as communication, language use is the main object of research rather than its structure (Eisenchlas, 2009). This aligns with this study's focus on investigating the language use and not the language correctness at a grammatical or syntactical level.

Through the theory of communicative competence, each language learner is viewed as a social and a cultural being who first experiences communication as a social process, while the internalisation of the linguistic system of the target language comes later as an individual, cognitive phenomenon (Kramsch, 2000). Therefore, a participant-relevant perspective is adopted, in which participants manage to accomplish meaningful communication conjointly using the resources and tools they have at their disposal (Firth & Wagner, 1997). The communication is accomplished between participants in such a way that it creates and recreates the social relationships between the interactants (Liddicoat, 1997). Thus, the meanings of these communication acts are co-constructed by the participants, rather than by the activities of a single participant (Goodwin, 1995). The data in my study needed a thorough exploration focusing on each individual specifically. The theory of communicative competence allowed me to interpret each language learner's use of language through conversations as they were formed in particular contexts, between particular interactants. However, it will be further explained how my data indicated that there was a strong intertwined relationship between this theory and the socialisation of language presented below.

6.1.2 When language reflects socialisation

The second theory related to language use investigation that this study adopted was language socialisation, which was mainly developed by Ochs and Schieffelin (1986) in the 1980s. More specifically, language socialisation is a theoretical and methodological paradigm that is mainly concerned with the acquisition of what Pierre Bourdieu called 'habitus', referring to the ways of being in the world (Eisenchlas, 2009). Because it is greatly inspired by phenomenological approaches, it highlights the open-ended and negotiated (or even sometimes contested) character of the routine, acknowledging in that way its potential for

innovation and change (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). Throughout the interpretation of the data, language learners' conversations especially in the yard during football games followed a particular routine, which changed or did not change every time it was observed. That was one of the main occasions during which I realised that the communicative competence's focus on communication through conversations and the socialisation of language's focus on the negotiated nature of routine were linked.

Language socialisation research draws from a variety of areas such as linguistic anthropology, but also sociology, cultural psychology, sociolinguistics, and to a lesser extent, education (Eisenchlas, 2009; Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). These areas include understandings from a variety of theories, such as intercultural communication and pragmatics, in order to investigate the way speakers position themselves vis-à-vis other speakers, and these areas manage to also inform how speakers participate as members in the activities of a target community (Kramsch, 2000). Language socialisation research refers to the process by which newcomers in a community, through interactions with more experienced persons, gain the required knowledge in order to gain membership and legitimacy in their communities (Duff, 2007; Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). This process is mainly mediated by language and its main aim is the mastery of the linguistic conventions, and pragmatics, while at the same time it is aiming to achieve the adoption of appropriate identities, stances and other behaviours that are linked with the target group and its practices (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). A quite distinctive example from my study that needed a different kind of interpretation was Kabir and Kaif's relationship. They were both language learners but the one held a more influential position than the other in the target community. Their relationship allowed the more novice person to gain the required knowledge to get along in the yard and in the classroom. To interpret this particular kind of data I needed both language socialisation and communicative competence theories to evaluate both the dynamic of their relationship as well as the language they used in those particular contexts.

Moreover, the socialisation of language theory extends the educational

environment of SLL into the wider community and calls for a simultaneous individual and societal multilingualism (Kramsch, 2000). It encompasses not only language acquisition but child development as well, with one main difference from the fields of developmental psychology and psycholinguistics (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). Language socialisation, in contrast with the two latter fields, adopts an intense ethnographic orientation and an explicit consideration of the cultural influences on human development as a lifelong procedure, of which language acquisition is only one of them (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). It addresses the lack of culture in SLL research, and at the same time the lack of language consideration in child socialisation studies (Eisenchlas, 2009). Thus, this approach investigates the basic applied SLL phenomena (such as pragmatic competence and syntactic competence), but also includes the role of language and language learning in multilingual and multicultural societies (Eisenchlas, 2009). The consideration of the cultural background throughout the interpretation of the data was essential in this study, because every single participant had a different cultural background that had to be considered for a better understanding of what was observed. While the communicative competence theory stressed the appropriateness of language use by the individual throughout the interpretation of a single communication act, I realised that I had to also consider the different expectation of the new cultural landscape to better understand the ways they were managing or not to get along in the classrooms and the yards. This was especially needed with the Turkish-speaking language learners. Once more the relationship of the two theories was apparent.

From what has already been discussed, it is quite obvious that the language socialisation theory consists of a number of densely interrelated procedures, but it still prioritises the fact that language remains the initial symbolic means through which cultural knowledge is negotiated, communicated, transformed and reproduced (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). Eventually, this prioritisation of language leads to the conclusion that in order to become a competent member of a social group, children are socialised through language while at the same time they are socialised to use the language (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Hence, the role of language is crucial, since it is not just one dimension of the socialising process, but

also its most central element. Thus, the use of language is not only influenced by wanting to learn the language but also by wanting to get along in the classroom and playground by socialising.

While the proponents of the previous theory of communicative competence, argued against the psycholinguistic studies' lack of consideration of context, the language socialisation supporters criticised the lack of developmental psycholinguistic literature in SLL research, and the lack of anthropological literature in child socialisation research (Eisenchlas, 2009). The prioritisation of language as the initial means through which cultural knowledge is communicated is what mainly differentiates socialisation of language from previous anthropological paradigms (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). At the same time, language socialisation theory is concerned with the process of becoming socialised into particular speech communities, which is the main difference with the communicative approach, since it goes beyond acquiring communicative competence (Eisenchlas, 2009). The data has shown that the participants' use of language should be interpreted taking into consideration that GCs may judge language learners unfavourably because of their disdain for the Turkish Cypriot background. Moreover the participants' language use was also investigated and interpreted based on the fact that these language learners wanted to enter the target community. If these social and political factors were not taken into consideration, the interpretation of the language use and the data in general, would have been limited.

6.1.3 Advocating the inclusion of both theories

As has been explained at the beginning of this section, the two theories presented demonstrate a number of similarities and differences. These similarities and differences, once explicitly presented, will explain my reason for including both of them in my study.

Throughout this project, it has been extensively and repeatedly stressed that the language was viewed and examined in terms of how it was used to accommodate the participants' needs and not whether it was used correctly by them. Language socialisation theory agrees with the fact that learning a language is not just a

matter of whether a novice is able to produce well-formed utterances (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). Learning a language is also concerned with whether a novice is able to use language in socially appropriate ways in order to co-construct social meanings and participate in culturally relevant meaning-making events (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). This dual focus of language use including both linguistic form (both verbal and non-verbal) and the sociocultural context where language is used and influenced from, is also advocated by the communicative competence theorists (Firth & Wagner, 1997). This common characteristic of these approaches allowed me as a researcher to investigate linguistic naturalistic interactions, where information regarding broader issues of sociocultural reproduction and transformation were taken into consideration.

Additionally, neither of the theories views the novice language learner as a passive recipient or an empty vessel. The proponents of communicative competence theory, specifically referring to classroom communication, argue that teachers need to realise that learners are active and can be as equally important for the creation of knowledge as they are (Johnson, 1995). Language socialisation theory agrees that the novice (even a very young child, as with the participants of this study) brings to every interaction some degree of competence, while they actively use their developing knowledge to co-construct their participation in communicative and socialising interactions (Duff, 2003; Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002; Kulick & Schieffelin, 2004). For this particular reason, I included as participants in this study not only the mainstream teachers, but also the young language learners, regardless of the challenges I knew I would face during the research process. Further information regarding this issue will be given in the final chapter (see section 7.1.3).

In addition to this, both of the approaches consider whether the interactions under investigation are affected by power relationships existing among the participants involved. The proponents of the communicative competence theory claim that the way teachers perceive their learners and the way learners perceive their teachers can shape both the meaning as well as the structure of the classroom interactions (Johnson, 1995). The socialisation of language approach also acknowledges the

significance of power relationships between the two parts that interact, but views their relationship in a much broader and expanded way. It investigates the theoretical tensions found not only between individuals but also between community and individual, where issues of social and interactive engagement such as social structure, power and identity are considered (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). Issues of power and identity are of paramount importance since they can affect the interactions and language use between the different communities to which an individual belongs, while they are in turn affected by them (Eisenchlas, 2009). The consideration of these broader social justice issues allowed me to consider the local and broader context of where my interactants were found, allowing me to have a much better understanding of what I was observing. Evidence of power relations was found mostly between the Turkish-speaking language learners and their peers.

Moreover, both theories view second language classrooms as arenas where a number of cultural and epistemological assumptions are made that may differ from that of the language learner's home culture (Duff, 2003; Johnson, 1995). Differences may occur due to the participants' prior schooling experiences or their expectations that can greatly influence the way they use language in the classroom (Johnson, 1995). Hence, knowledge of and competence in the social and interactional norms that govern classroom communication are essential components of successful participation in second language instruction (Johnson, 1995).

Nevertheless, the language socialisation approach has one main difference with the communication competence approach, since the former wishes mainly to investigate whether a novice manages to become a legitimate member of the target community while in the communication competence approach the primary goal aligns with educational purposes (Duff, 2003; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002; Kulick & Schieffelin, 2004).

6.2 This study's conceptualisation and adoption of the two approaches

At this point, it is crucial to explain the way I conceptualised the two theories of communicative competence and socialisation of language and their relationship after the exploration of the usages of linguistic varieties by the young GAL learners and the teachers. Eventually, I will present how this conceptualisation is connected to the theoretical baseline I adopted, in order to present the way all of these ideas are linked to my investigation.

Taking into consideration the previous references reviewed and the investigation of the young language learners' and the teachers' uses of varieties, I came to the realisation that the main difference between the two theories is their ultimate objective. More specifically, the communicative competence theory views communication as the process during which participants use language as a means to reach mutual comprehension (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Ultimately, it wishes to reveal the way language is used in communication acts and how that process facilitates the language learning process (Johnson, 1995). On the other hand, language socialisation investigates whether language use facilitates the process of socialisation and finally the learning of a language (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Additionally, it examines language as the means through which participants manage to socialise in the target community and become competent members of this community (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Both of the approaches view the way language is used in interactions, but their ultimate goal is quite different. On the one-hand there is research which focuses on language out of an interest in how learners learn to communicate, or research which has an interest in how language is used to socialise members of society. Throughout my investigation, I found that my participants used language for their own different purposes, either to communicate or to socialise.

These objectives/goals that the participants achieve throughout the use of language are part of the triangle relationship that Vygotsky suggested in order to comprehend the various issues surrounding the investigation of a higher mental action (Vygotsky, 1986).

"The main question about the process of concept formation – or about any goal-directed activity – is the question of the means by which the operation is accomplished (...) To explain the higher forms of human behaviour, we must uncover the means by which man learns to organize and direct his behaviour"

(Vygotsky, 1986, p. 102).

Thus, these objectives or goals should be understood through the interrelationship of the use of language as the main tool and the people who employ it (Vygotsky, 1986).

In this particular study, the subjects were the two groups of participants: the language learners and the mainstream teachers of first grade primary schools in Cyprus. The participants were not viewed as passive learners or stereotyped authoritative figures, but as individuals with their own intentions, beliefs and ideas. Therefore, it was only logical to consider that these individuals influenced the setting in which they were in and used linguistic varieties in a culturally significant way. The mediational tools that these subjects employed were either verbal or non-verbal and the linguistic varieties they had at their disposal were English (for only the teachers and a GAL learner), SMG (mainly teachers again and GAL learners through reading), GCD (the majority of GAL learners were not consciously aware of which variety to use and when) and the language learners' L1. Despite the fact that young language learners were not consciously aware of which variety to use they did have a sense of appropriateness for different settings. As far as the teachers were concerned, they were perfectly conscious of which variety to use and where. Since the tools were investigated on how they were used to achieve a goal, it is recognised here that the language (which is basically the main tool) was not examined as to whether it was used correctly, but purposefully. The focus was not on its grammatical and syntactical correctness (language competence) but on its use (language use).

All of these means were used differently based on who was using them, for what purpose and where they were used. This view of language aligns with Vygotsky's theory of mediation, where all actions are mediated through cultural artefacts, from the outside world to the inside world of the subject (Vygotsky, 1978). For this particular reason, context was of paramount importance. Based on the exploration of my data, it was shown that the use of the various linguistic varieties by specific participants had either an educational or a socialising objective.

6.3 Findings of the study and the rethinking of the theoretical ideas of language use investigation

The theoretical baseline and the various theories towards the investigation of language use have been presented, both as they are conceptualised in the literature and as they have been conceptualised by myself as a researcher during my investigation of the data. Here, I will present the way the aforementioned theories are positioned in the findings of the study, through the exploration of two diagrams that summarise the findings of the study (see diagrams 6.1. and 6.2). The findings will also be considered based on whether or not they promote the rethinking of those theoretical ideas.

The two diagrams are inspired by Vygotsky's triangle relationship since this triangle facilitates the presentation of my findings while the diagrams focus on the two different groups of participants of the study. The first one refers to the language use of the teachers while the second one focuses on the language use of the learners, as they have been observed throughout this study. At the top of the triangles, there are the language choices of the subjects (in the left hand corner) and how these were mediated by factors such as the purpose each of the speakers wanted to accomplish (in the right hand corner), and the context's features (at the bottom of the diagram):

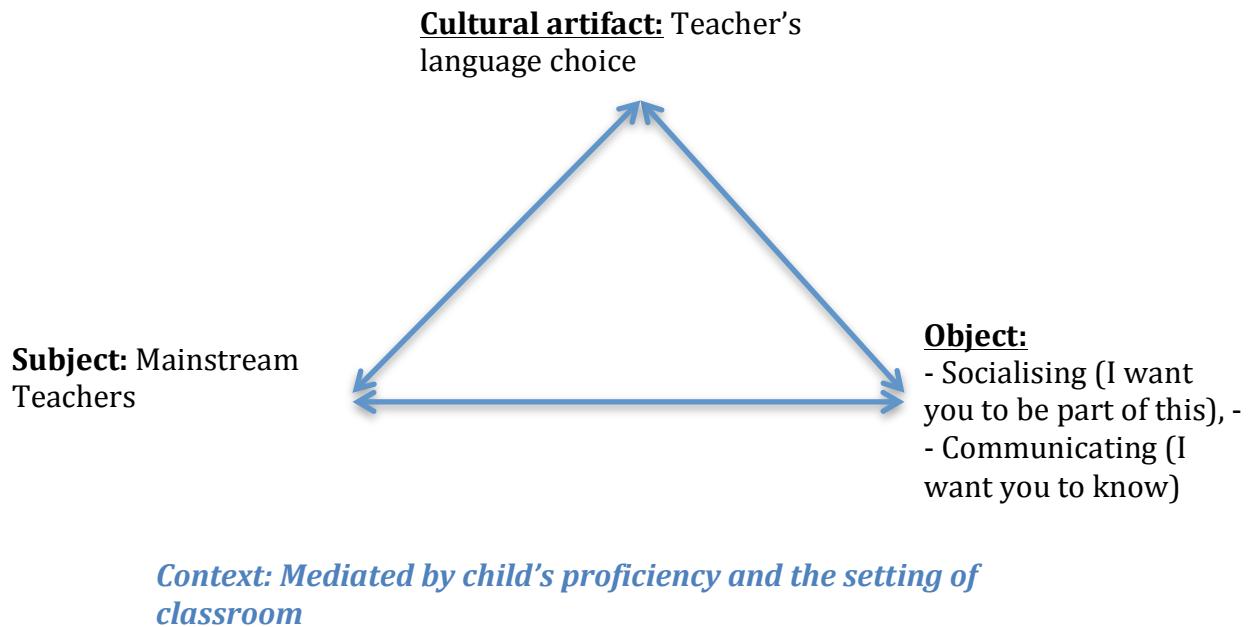


Figure 6.1: Teachers' use of language

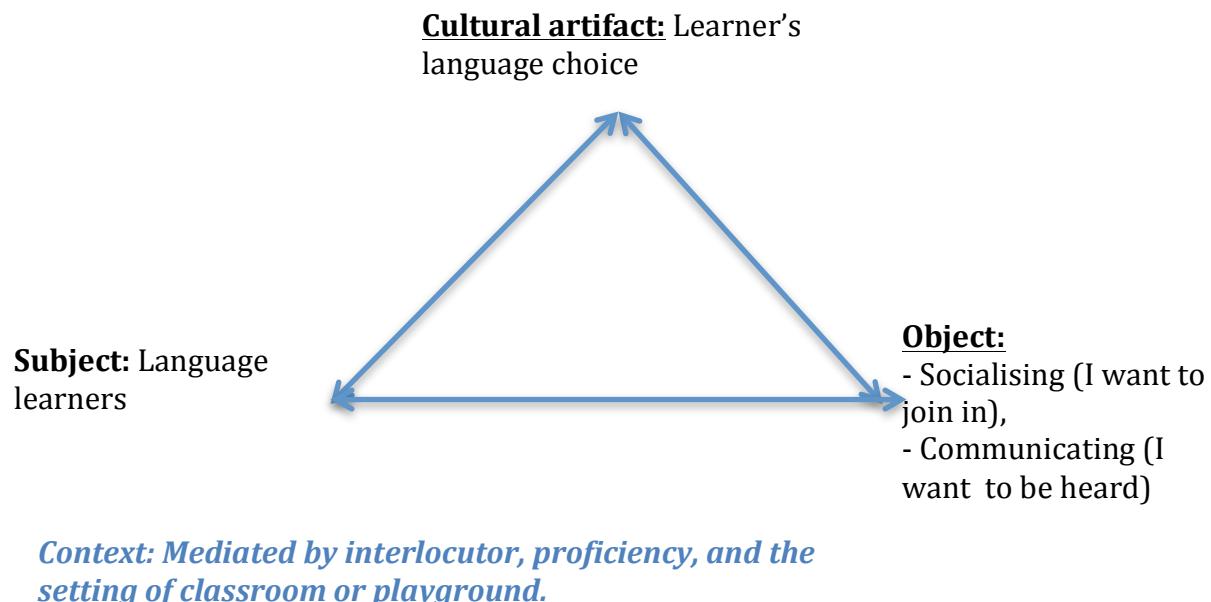


Figure 6.2: Language learners' use of language

6.3.1 Teachers' language choice

In this section, I discuss the investigation that focused on the instructors' language use. Throughout the exploration of my data and when the focus was switched to

the teachers, I was interested in the ways they were using language in order to facilitate learners' getting along in the class.

6.3.1.1 How teachers' language choice is mediated by the learners' proficiency

From the findings of the study it was soon realised that one of the initial constraints of teachers' language use was the learners' proficiencies in the varieties used. The teachers were mainstream teachers who had no training in how to teach the language of instruction as an additional language while the young participants of this study were seven-year-old language learners and had low to medium proficiency in the target language. Most of the learners had just arrived in the host country and therefore the majority of them had no prior schooling experience in any other country.

Teachers seemed to use the unofficial variety in the classroom much more extensively than the official one, regardless of the various official policies of the Ministry. Despite the variations in the classroom practices, all three of them agreed in their interviews that they felt more comfortable using the unofficial variety with the language learners because learners had better proficiency in this than the official variety. The interesting fact about teachers' use of the unofficial variety is that they did not feel the need to hide this practice of theirs during their interviews. They all admitted to using the unofficial variety without restricting that use to particular circumstances as in previous studies (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004; Tsiplakou, 2007).

Teachers used the official variety when they gave instructions, gave feedback, explained vocabulary or 'corrected' the use of the unofficial variety with the official one. It is worth mentioning that the correctness of the unofficial variety occurred more often when teachers were addressing native speakers than when they were addressing language learners. Not only this but they also code switched between the two varieties for discipline purposes, to explain unknown vocabulary and to provide instructions. Studies that I came across which investigated the juxtaposition of linguistic varieties did not explicitly discuss these uses.

The importance of the interlocutor in this particular case is intertwined with the importance of the context. The significance of the surrounding context is often mentioned throughout this thesis and is considered not only by the underlining theory of the study - the sociocultural theory - but also by both theoretical ideas: communicative competence and language socialisation.

6.3.1.2 How teachers' language choice is mediated by the purpose want to accomplish

Apart from the language learners' proficiency, the teachers' use of language was also mediated by the purpose they wanted to accomplish. Through the data obtained and the findings presented in the previous chapter, all three of the teachers seemed to use language consciously in the classroom in order to increase language learners' socialising. All three stated the need initially to make students feel comfortable enough either by socialising with them directly or by encouraging socialising between peers, before beginning to teach them.

More specifically, teachers' language use related to socialising purposes was observed at the commencement of each lesson, or during interval activities, when teachers wanted to make sure that children were comfortable enough. This particular use of language could have been a direct projection of the teachers' motives, which in this case seemed to be their wish to create a relaxed and receptive atmosphere for all students regardless of their linguistic or cultural background. Kanagy's (1999) study is aligned with these findings.

Language use in order to socialise should certainly not be underestimated as a process and as an approach of investigation. As Hawkins (2004) states, by being socially included in the school life language learners are much more motivated and have more interactional opportunities with their interlocutors, where they observe, mime and repeat behaviours that they witnessed in patterns in specific procedures. This participation, even if sometimes it did not involve any linguistic output, led the way for a more fertile ground where actual learning could take place. Ultimately, as Le Pinchon (2010) argues, such kind of socialising prevents disappointment and negative outcomes in the process of the children's adjustment in a new environment.

However, there were interactions (the majority of them) during which teachers' language use seemed to be consciously focusing on educational and learning goals (see extract 6.1). This could be due to the teachers' main goal and profession, which is educationally linked. This particular use of language seemed to aim at reaching mutual communication in order to achieve each lesson's educational objectives:

Extract 6.1

No	Speaker	Utterances	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Kristia:	The boy said I do gymnastics. Below the boy asks, what do you do? (.) He is asking about YOU.	Mrs. Kristia gave instructions for a grammatical activity and then went on to this example.
2.	LL:	You do gymnastics.	
3.	Mrs. Kristia:	Perfect. What is he doing? HE meaning	
4.	Kabir:	Eeeee	
5.	Mrs. Kristia:	Say it Kabir.	
6.	Kabir:	He is doing gymnastics.	
7.	Mrs. Kristia:	Perfect!	Mrs. Kristia continue commenting upon the spelling of the endings for the verbs

The extract above presents the interaction between Mrs. Kristia and Kabir during a grammatical exercise. It is one of the main instances during which teachers used language to achieve learning goals. Some other frequent language usage by teachers for educational purposes was the extensive repertoire of questions and their modification of their speech in different manners (they were theatrical and playful). Moreover, teachers would accompany their speech with body language and visual aids. Mrs Tina used the interactive whiteboard quite extensively (she had one because her school was part of the ZEP programme), while the other two teachers used colourful big pictures (no interactive whiteboard), which accompanied an activity. In addition, all three of them were observed using facial expressions to express their feelings more explicitly, such as anger, encouragement and joy or they used their hands to point at things or to indicate the

process or the link of something said. In addition, all of the three teachers consciously referred to these accommodations in their speech during their interviews. They claimed that they would alter their speech or their teaching in such a way to particularly help language learners' comprehension. The use of visuals and speech modification was also observed by Kanagy (1999) and Long (2002).

It should be mentioned that the data also indicated that when teachers were socialising to use the language and using language to socialise, educational goals were not always achieved, such as when Mrs. Kristia made a remark about Kyla's hair. However, it is difficult to judge whether educational goals were achieved at all, indeed to determine what constitutes 'educational'. The data did suggest that communication acts aimed at educational goals included the sharing of knowledge, ideas, thoughts, information, feelings, emotions, or attitudes, in sympathy with Negi's (2009) claims. Examples from the findings that support these claims were the teachers' expression of anger for discipline purposes, the teachers' use of speech intonation, which was an indication of their attitudes towards what they were saying, and their explanation of vocabulary, which was one of the main triggers for class discussion and sharing of ideas. The acceptance, comprehension and co-construction of the meaning was done implicitly most of the time by the participants of the study, and the outcomes of the process were shown through the response of the interlocutor, as Firth and Wagner (1997) also suggest. This was particularly noticed with the teachers' use of visual aids, during which language learners were either commenting or proceeding with an activity, without further discussions.

Taking all these into consideration, it is possible to conclude that teachers' language choices targeted language learners' overall thriving in the setting of the classroom. Thriving was considered as a combination of the teachers' efforts to facilitate learners joining in discussions, activities and classroom life in general, while at the same time they wanted their learners to learn the target language. Based on the findings reviewed in this section, it was clear that the primary goal of the teachers' use of language was to meet the learners' needs of socialising and learning. In order to facilitate the learners' joining in and learning, the teachers

adjusted and used the tool of language based on the learners' proficiency in the linguistic varieties used. This argument, supported by this inclusive examination, differs dramatically from other one-sided investigations of teachers' use of language in the classroom. This investigation did not restrict its foci to either learning or socialising goals but to both at the same time, nor did it focus on the investigation of the official linguistic variety ignoring the unofficial one. The combination of elements included in this investigation allowed the construction of the argument that the overall thriving of the language learner in the classroom can be influenced and affected by this multi-layered situation.

6.3.2 Learners' language choice

After the presentation of the instructor's language use, the learner's language choice is presented in this section. The investigation of the learner's language choices focused upon the ways the learners were able to use the tool of language in order to get along in the school, both inside the classroom as well as in the yard.

6.3.2.1 How learners' language choice is mediated by the interlocutor

Throughout the exploration of language learners' needs, it was noticed early on that the learners' language use was greatly influenced and constrained by the interlocutor they were addressing. Learners were interacting with other language learners, other native speaking students and of course the teachers. The interactions with each of these groups of interlocutors presented a number of interesting insights regarding learners' use of language.

One of the main observations that were made was the extensive use of the unofficial variety, compared to the use of the official variety by the language learners. This seemed to be happening because language learners were coming across the unofficial variety much more often than the official one in their everyday interactions, since the majority of their peers used the unofficial variety almost exclusively. More specifically, language learners' use of language with their peers was in order to facilitate their playing. If language learners achieved any learning goals from their interactions in the playground, it was an effect from that socialising process, which had as its main goal that language learners would become

competent members of the playground community. Moreover, learners were also observed using the unofficial variety with teachers inside the classroom, even though they were expected to use the official one due to the formality of the setting. Previous studies conducted in Cyprus specifically were only focused on the teachers' unofficial language use (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004; Tsipakou, 2007). Spotti's (2008) findings, however, agree with this study's findings regarding the use of the unofficial variety by the language learners.

As was expected, there were learners who used their L1 both inside and outside the classroom with other peers (if they had peers with whom they shared the same L1). This was observed quite extensively among the Turkish-speaking students of class T and less often from the participants of class K and E. Interestingly enough, Kabir and Kaif were also recorded using the unofficial variety with each other even though they shared the same L1. This was another strong indication of their wish to be part of the group.

On the other hand, learners used the official variety solely with teachers inside the classrooms for educational purposes as demonstrated in Extract 6.2:

Extract 6.2

No.	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	Title, title, Evgeny. <i>He looked at her.</i> The title, do you want? <i>He nodded ok.</i>	
2.	Evgeny:	<[to]> 6 seconds without output	
3.	Mrs. Elena:	<[pe]>	
4.	Evgeny:	<[pe, t]>	
5.	Mrs. Elena:	<[tro, tro, tro]> 8 seconds without output	
6.	Evgeny:	<[ka]>	
7.	Mrs. Elena:	<[ka]> 9 seconds without output <[ra]> <i>Evgeny looked at her and she nodded encouragingly</i> <[v]> and <[o]>	
8.	Evgeny:	<[vo]>!	

The phonological transcription of Evgeny's reading of a text in the extract above (presented inside <[]>) is one of the situations during which language learners

used SMG for learning purposes with the teachers. During the data collecting phases, young learners were recorded using SMG only when they were reading directly from a book. While discussing with language learners about their use of language, a number of them mentioned that in the classroom they asked their teachers either to repeat, rephrase or they asked for clarification. Only some mentioned that they asked their peers either to translate for them (if they shared the same L1) or to assist them by explaining to them what they had to do. Therefore, learners seemed to prefer interacting with the teachers inside the classroom instead of with the students.

From what was mentioned, it could be argued that the language learners used their L1, the unofficial and the official linguistic varieties in order to fit in with the setting they were in. They used the unofficial variety with other peers in order to join in the group of native speaking friends at school, their L1 to interact and feel part of the group of peers with whom they shared the same L1, while they also used the official linguistic variety in order to fit in and be part of the classroom context. Therefore, each tool was used differently either in the classroom or in the playground based on who was using it and for what purpose.

6.3.2.2 How learners' language choice is mediated by the his/her proficiency

Learners' language choices seemed to be also influenced and constrained by their proficiencies in the various linguistic varieties used. Before collecting my data, I believed that these young learners, both because they were in a new environment as well as because they were young in age, would have as their initial goal to learn the school language in order to join in. It was speculated that language learners' limited knowledge of the target language would not allow them immediately to negotiate meanings in order to achieve educational goals either. However, language learners used their limited competence in SMG and GCD to take part in activities either in the class or outside in the yard, to make friends and have fun, as demonstrated in Extract 6.3 below:

Extract 6.3

No.	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Kabir:	Pass the ball <u>mate</u> .	Running sounds
2.	LL and Kabir:	<u>GOAL</u> !!! <u>GOAL</u> , <u>GOAL</u> !	
3.	L:	Mate, <u>are you with us? We score that way.</u>	
4.	Kabir:	Eeee, yes!	
5.	L:	(inaudible) the ball?	
6.	L:	<u>Leave it!</u> <u>MATE!</u> I'll take it! <u>MATE!</u>	21 seconds no output between this and the next utterance
7.	L:	<u>I am younger, MATE!</u>	
8.	Kabir:	{Younger!} 1.28' <i>no output</i> <u>Catch it!</u>	
9.	L:	It's out!	

In the extract above, Kabir uses short phrases and isolated words either in GCD or in SMG, and he even repeats a word (utterance No.8) to be part of the football game as an active member. This extract presents a variety of competencies in GCD, SMG and English (utterance No.2) that are put in use so that the participant achieves his socialising goal. It should be mentioned that throughout the data collecting phases the rawness of these young language learners' experience and their limited proficiencies in the linguistic varieties used allowed the creative use of these varieties. It is interesting that I did not come across studies conducted in school playgrounds that specifically referred to the linguistic variety that the language learners were using.

Young language learners were observed to socialise more in the playground because they were not restricted by their low proficiency in the target language. This was happening since verbal language use was not always needed in order to participate and socialise in a number of playground activities. The language learners who still felt intimidated by the target language or just preferred the company of people with whom they shared the same L1 (siblings, peers) did not face the language barrier at all.

6.3.2.3 How a learner's language choice is mediated by the context

Information influencing learners' language use was not only drawn from the participants involved, their proficiencies in the various varieties but also from the

numerous details of the two settings. The two different settings investigated in this study are the mainstream classrooms and their playground areas. The paramount importance of the context's characteristics is also stressed by Dickson (1981). In this subsection, this further information regarding the learner's use of language is based on the differences and similarities found between the language that was used either in the classroom or in the playground. Surprisingly, I did not come across other studies that managed to provide linguistic data of various varieties spoken in a particular community, both inside and outside the classroom.

Language learners in the classroom used the official variety very rarely and almost exclusively when they were asked to read a text or an instruction directly from the book (for educational purposes). In addition, language learners in the classroom did not code switch, which must have been due to their restricted interactions in the class. On the other hand, language learners used the unofficial variety in the classroom to request feedback, to ask for clarification, and to ask for general help either from their peers or from the teacher.

In the playground, all the language learners, even those who were observed to be reserved in the classroom, were much more active. That seemed to be happening mainly because of the language learners' strong motivation, as was revealed from their answers in our discussions. Young language learners seemed to be much more motivated by their wish to play and be with their friends than by their wish to learn in the classroom with their teachers. More specifically, language learners were recorded using the unofficial variety almost exclusively, with very rare usage of the official variety. In contrast to the classroom context, learners would use their L1 much more extensively with the peers they shared it with. Moreover, they were also observed to code switch between the two linguistic varieties in the playground and between the unofficial variety and their L1, something that was not observed in the classroom.

The value of the playground in fostering participation should not be overlooked, even though the playground has not always been found as useful in facilitating as the classroom setting for the educational process. The importance of language use

through play has been stressed and supported theoretically by neo-Vygotskian theories of sociocultural learning (García Sánchez, 2006). Language and play are critical to Vygotsky's theory of how higher mental activities such as thinking, reasoning, and voluntary attention derive from interaction and participation in social life (Vygotsky, 1981; Wertsch, 1985). On the one hand, language is essential for the social life as one of the primary tools used to mediate all human mental activities, while play creates its own zone of proximal development for the child (García Sánchez, 2006).

Through this study, it was possible to examine both settings of the classroom and playground, which is quite rare in similar educational studies. This kind of investigation allowed me to make the previous comparison and investigate the overall fitting in of the language learners both in the class as well as in the yard.

6.3.2.4 How learner's language choice is mediated by the purpose

Eventually, the learners' use of language was mediated by the purpose they wanted to achieve. Learners would use language either because they wanted to join in activities or because they had something to say and wanted to be heard.

Initially, I realised both after my observations as well as through the various talks I had with the young language learners that their main wish was to become members of the setting they were in, and to join in activities, either in the classroom or outside in the yard. More specifically, in the playground children appeared to be using language in order to take part in games and to make friends. It was logical then to assume that their motivation for using the tools they had at their disposal was much stronger in the playground than in the classroom.

More specifically, language learners seemed to use words or phrases in the unofficial variety for socialising purposes mainly in the playground. These words or phrases (that they had probably heard from other native-speaking peers using them) were strictly linked to specific games, and these interactions were aimed at increasing their participation in activities with other children in order to play and be part of that playground community. Also, they used the unofficial variety to express

intense feelings, such as anger or excitement. Both of these feelings appeared to be an indication of whether language learners wanted to maintain their socialising levels in that particular setting or not. They also appeared to use the unofficial variety in the playground to form requests or to provide explanations. The assumption that the use of the unofficial variety is a conscious choice on the part of these young language learners should perhaps be offered with caution; nevertheless, they learned to use it as the appropriate variety for the social setting of playground, or for the particular purpose of socialising.

However, in the classroom there seemed to be another kind of motivation. The language learners appeared to use the language in order to feel part of the classroom team. This also signified a socialising goal as well. With regard to the kind of activities during which this use of language was observed, language learners seemed to use language to socialise in activities that had become routines during the year and activities that were context-embedded such as describing something that had happened in their life which they wanted to share during circle time. In contrast, activities that were more abstract and not part of a class routine promoted a very restricted use of language from the language learners, such as whenever the teacher introduced a new game or a new instructional activity. This was an indication that learners were concerned to learn not only what language to use but when and where to use it. It should be mentioned also that there are a number of researchers that agree that there are distinctive linguistic skills to be acquired by the language learners (Cummins, 1984; Pinter, 2006; Snow, 1987; Wong-Fillmore, 1982) in order to be able to participate in activities that include embedded language, and different skills for the activities that include disembedded language. Cummins (2008) refers to a continuum of linguistic skills as opposed to a dichotomy claiming that children need a much longer time to master the disembedded cognitive language skills required for academic needs than to master oral communicative skills. Therefore, there is a possibility that in a longer period of time, the language learners would also have been able to internalise the appropriate linguistic skills to be employed during disembedded language activities.

During my observations and discussions with the young language learners, there were a few occasions during which learners used language in order to be heard and reach mutual communication with either their peers or their teachers. As shown in Extract .4, this particular language use signified a more educational purpose since they were trying to communicate in order to take part in classroom activities and proceed with their learning of the target language:

EXTRACT 6.4

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1	Mrs. Kristia:	What is it my Kabir?	
2	Kabir:	Mrs, E::: you are not, not, going to say, say who is good?	
3	Mrs. Kristia:	You were all much better than yesterday. All much better than yesterday! Did you see how much it helps when we read something and reread it that helps us become better?	

The extract above is one of the few examples where a student indicated his wish to communicate for language learning purposes. Kabir expresses his wish to receive feedback from his teacher for his reading. It is an indication from him that he is concerned about his progress.

To address their educational goals, learners also used clarification questions only in the classroom, and most of the time with the teachers and not with other peers. They were not observed making extensive speech modifications such as speech intonation or slowing their speech rate. They were also very restricted in their expression with their body, which may have been caused by their cultural customs and their position in the class and in the yard with the rest of the children. One of the most common learning strategies that they employed was the use of peer help (asking for translation from a peer with whom they shared the same L1). Also, language learners used simple sentences or isolated words. Eventually, language learners' modifications, even if they were fewer than the ones observed from the teachers, indicate an understanding from the young learners as to the appropriateness or not of the language they were using.

Taking all these into consideration, learners' language choices were driven by their desire to get along inside the school. Their fitting in was a combination of their efforts to join in the classroom and the playground life in general, while at the same time acquire new knowledge. To investigate this a multi-layered examination was employed and here it was argued that learners' use of language was mediated by a variety of factors, the interlocutors, their proficiency, the context as well as the purpose they wanted to fulfil. Based on the findings it was claimed that learners interacted more with their peers outside in the yard using either the unofficial variety or their L1 for socialising purposes while they interacted more with their teachers inside the classroom using more the unofficial variety and less the official variety in order to be heard and learn.

Hawkins argues that an extensive number of linguistic or applied linguistic studies which investigate SLL tend to over-rely on language learning and teaching investigation, without taking into consideration the plurality of information drawn from the surrounding environment (Hawkins, 2004), where ideas such as language, culture and identity tend to be ignored. These ideas should not be taken for granted, especially when trying to examine and conceptualise schools as spaces where language skills are developed inside particular social activities (Hawkins, 2004). As has been shown from this section, the findings did not solely report upon the language use on its own as an autonomous and independent construct. Considerations of the power relationships, cultural differences and consideration of the context were explicitly taken and presented.

6.4 Final remarks

The main purpose of this study was to view how language was used in order for the teachers and language learners to get along in the multilingual schools they were in. I came to the realisation quite quickly that due to the complexity of the situation, each participant used language for different purposes and in different settings. Communication competence theory was more interested in learning goals at an educational level, while socialisation of language theory was concerned with larger issues connected with immigrant groups and the issues they are dealing with (such as alienation) in order to gain access to the language as well as the literacy

skills of the target culture (Duff, 2003). As researchers, we come across various theoretical and methodological debates and tend to accept one theory over the other. However, as has been presented and claimed throughout this chapter, each theory was more suitable for investigating language use in different settings, through the use of different varieties and between different participants.

The difference in theories is about the difference between researchers who focus on language out of an interest in how learners learn to communicate or an interest in how language is used to socialise members of society. However, the users of language use a linguistic variety for their own purposes without being interested in the theory. Through the investigation of my participants' language use I argue here that research in this field should not restrict its investigation to whether the participant aims to become a competent member (language socialisation theory), or whether he or she is able to communicate in order to learn (communicative competence theory). I strongly believe that a theory that focuses on the investigation of language use at an individual level, taking into consideration all the available information from the context that could inform the exploration, along with the participants' intentions, is the most appropriate and inclusive investigation of similar situations.

More specifically, through the data, and since sociocultural theory was the baseline here, it was witnessed that each context and each participant's intentions affected whether the language that was used was for socialising or educational purposes. Classroom context was a more appropriate context for the communication-educational approach. I believe that this happened for two main reasons. Initially, it is that the setting on its own has a very particular purpose: to educate the children found there. Also, the people who tend to dominate the language use in this context are the teachers, whose main goal and intention is educationally linked. On the other hand, the playground is a space where the teacher is absent, and children do most of the talking. Language learners in that particular context do not wish and are not obliged to follow any rules or make any effort to facilitate their language learning process (if that happens it is a consequence of their socialising). Their main intention is to make friends, play and have fun in a relaxed atmosphere.

Thus, their central purpose is to become equal members of that playground community in that particular town, in that particular country, between those particular people. This is the reason why playground language use by language learners was almost exclusively focused on socialising objectives. It could be argued also that the classroom constitutes a more interesting context to investigate since multiple goals might be at play, without this minimising the importance of investigating the playground setting.

It should be mentioned that the linguistic varieties presented an interesting pattern as well. Both teachers and learners used the official variety only for communicational-educational purposes. This observation seems to support the belief that the official and recognised varieties of a nation tend to be extensively used in law courts, education and media because they hold a particular official status, while the unofficial varieties are used more extensively in everyday situations (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004). It should be highlighted though that the unofficial variety in this study was not only restricted to everyday kinds of interactions (mainly for socialising), as is usually described as its main use by various scholars (Cheshire, Edwards, Münstermann, & Weltens, 1989; A. Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005; Petyt, 1980). On the contrary, both teachers and learners used it for communicational-educational purposes as well. Taking this into consideration, I emphasise the possibility of going through a time period during which the use of the unofficial varieties is not a subject of various educational policies around the world, but that it serves the linguistic needs of both teachers and students in multilingual and multicultural contexts, regardless of the various existing educational policies.

The reason I ultimately refused to adopt one particular theory towards language use investigation is due to the fact that I strongly believed that a single theory would not allow me to remain open to my data. An integrative perspective that includes both of these two views of language use allows us to extend our spectrum of investigation and focus on the particularity of each case (participants' intentions). Perhaps in the future this kind of investigation will also allow us to explore new ways of how languages are used, taught and learned since various contexts,

linguistic varieties and participants in focus could and would be researched simultaneously. Of course, further research is needed to even come close to developing anything like a unified theory. However, it should be acknowledged that there is a general agreement on the necessity of understanding how these young learners manage to get along in host countries and schools. In this study, I tried to conduct a multi-layered investigation to do justice to the complicated phenomenon of getting along in a multilingual school either as a language learner or as a teacher. Numerous constraints and factors were taken into consideration and it was argued that both the teachers' as well as the language learners' use of language was mediated and affected to a lesser or a further extent by the context, the interlocutors, their proficiencies in the linguistic varieties and finally the purposes they wanted to accomplish.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Summary of research and main findings

This study's main purpose was to gain a deeper insight into the way language was used by the mainstream teachers and the language learners of multilingual mainstream classrooms and in the playground area, to provide information regarding the way participants managed to 'get along' socially and academically.

The main reason for wishing to investigate this particular language use in a multilingual and bialectal setting such as the one in Cyprus was to be able to provide a full description of what was really happening in these schools, where official policies were unable to facilitate language learners' and teachers' adjustment in the newly multilingual and multicultural environments. Since language is considered the most important tool through which higher mental activities are performed (Vygotsky, 1978), it is not surprising that language investigation holds the best promise for examining the current pedagogies in multilingual educational settings.

This study's backbone was the combination of traditional and creative research methods, which were designed to meet the research's objectives as they were presented in Chapter 3. I concentrated on shedding light on the plurality of ways language was used by each language learner and teacher in order to achieve their individual goals in the settings of the class and the yard. This particular focus corresponds to the lack of studies that combined the simultaneous exploration of teachers' and young language learners' linguistic behaviour, the settings both inside and outside the class and the consideration of the official and the unofficial language varieties of the target community. In order to complete this investigation, a descriptive multiple case study was adopted where a complete and multifaceted investigation of the use of language was accomplished.

The main findings of this study regarding the use of language by the young learners indicate that these seven-year-old children appeared to be using language much more extensively in the yard than in the classroom area and mainly in their

effort to become one of the group. Interestingly, Kaif and Tahir, the two students out of the ten participants who presented a multiple identity, were the ones who socialised more than the rest, both inside the classroom and outside. There were a few moments during which I was able to identify whether they would use language in the class for communicational-educational purposes as well. Eventually, as was expected, language learners' use of the unofficial variety was more than their use of the official variety. This limited use of the official variety by the language learners was also found in Pica et al.'s (1995) study, where language learners were found to use less Standard English than the native speakers. It should also be highlighted that part of the investigation of language learners' use of language was the realisation that they would not ask comprehension or clarification questions when they did not understand something. Garcia and Sylvan, (2011), while researching the INPS programme, a U.S. non-profit organisation that supports the work of 13 international high schools, found out that when the teacher is not in front of the room talking, but sitting with the students, language learners were able to ask questions. This was considered one of the eight principles of the success of these schools.

As far as the teachers are concerned, findings related to instructors' language use were only focused in the classroom, and it was found that they would use the language for communicational-educational purposes and less for socialising purposes. Their use of the unofficial variety was also much more extensive than the official variety, contrary to the various official policies of the Ministry. Teachers in Cyprus have always acknowledged the power of expression and richness of the unofficial variety (Tsiplakou, 2007), something that was also mentioned by the teachers of this study. The teachers of this project also mentioned that since primary school classrooms became multilingual, they are willing to use the unofficial variety more extensively than in the past, something that was also observed in their practice. Thus, the previously held belief that GCD should not be one of the instructional languages (Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004) seems to have changed.

7.2 Theoretical contributions of this study

In my attempt to gain a deeper understanding of how the participants got along in multilingual schools, I employed three research elements that are often neglected in SLL research: I gave voice to the younger language learners instead of having only teachers as my participants; I collected data not only in the classroom but also in the yard; and finally I not only explored the use of the official variety of the target community, but the unofficial variety as well. Therefore, this study manages to inform theory in a variety of ways.

The implementation of a multi-method research design, using traditional methods alongside innovative ones, facilitated the inclusion of the young participants, providing them with the means to acquire a stronger presence in the research process. Throughout this project it was shown that the younger participants' voice could indeed provide insights into the problem under investigation. A tendency to address older participants, mainly teachers, only manages to present one side of the story. As an interpretive researcher, I tried to collect the viewpoints of as many individuals as possible whose opinion mattered (Pring, 2004). The fact that the learners were young and we were (me as a researcher and them as participants) dealing with the language barrier was overcome to some extent through the use of these creative methods. As research expands and as technology provides us with new means of researching, new resources can be used in our quest for knowledge, such as the ones I used for my research: audio and video recorders, persona dolls and visual aids.

Due to the various challenges faced throughout the research process, one could easily argue against including younger participants if they cannot answer our questions. However, these young learners, despite the fact that they have not yet mastered the target linguistic skills, are perfectly competent in using other means for socialising, communication and to facilitate their learning. Even a novice of a very young age, as were the participants of this study, has some degree of competence, some type of knowledge or expertise brought to the interactions he or

she is engaged with (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978). That competence is extremely informative because these young learners are probably the only ones who experience the challenge of accommodating themselves in a totally new community through the use of particular tools. The investigation of their raw experience gives a very powerful view of their sociocultural development. Throughout this research, the investigation of these young learners indicated that they were able to get along both in the classroom and in the playground setting using at least three or four different linguistic varieties in different ways (L1, English, GCD and SMG). They were not always able to use these varieties with everyone, neither were they able to form correct utterances at all times. Nevertheless, their limited proficiency did not prevent them from varied attempts to communicate and socialise in the environments they were in, either by mimicking, repeating others' words or by using body gestures, various speech intonations or even clues from the environment.

In addition to this, this study took into consideration the under-researched context of the playground, and did not solely base its findings on the traditional classroom as have most other studies. Moreover, even the limited number of SLL studies that have investigated playground language use rarely investigated classroom language use at the same time. Here, the parallel comparison of language use both inside and outside the classroom highlighted the similarities and differences found, allowing each setting to inform the other for better understanding of the way setting influenced language use. From the findings it was obvious that the young learners, due to their increased motivation, were much more resourceful and eager in using the target language. Language learners were observed in using the target language much more extensively in the playground. They would repeat, rephrase words or phrases heard from others. Also the repetitive nature of the games allowed them to remember easier words or phrases that were inextricably linked with particular games. Nevertheless, it was found that the playground area was not always a supportive context for language learning or communication since there were a lot of native speaking students who would not alter their speech because a language learner was among them, making comprehension even more daunting. Also the existence of older children in the yard did not make it easy for

the young language learners to ask comprehension questions or to be willing in participating in various conversations and games. Therefore, regardless of the increased motivation of the playground setting that enabled socialising, the playground was found a very different environment for language learning and communicating.

In addition, the study took into consideration not only the standard target variety, but also the unofficial variety of the target community. The consideration of an additional variety presents the true complexity of entering a host country that happens to be also a bidialectal community, as the majority of countries are nowadays. The realisation that the newcomer is dealing not only with one target variety but with two gives a totally new dimension of what to investigate and how. It should be mentioned that this theoretical aspect was less important than the two previous ones due to the fact that there were not enough data to support the fact that these young language learners were able to recognise the difference between the two. They would choose particular vocabulary appropriately, but other than that there were no data to support that they were conscious of when and where to use each variety. Nevertheless, the fact that the existence of the two varieties did not seem to worry the young learners and that they were just using the linguistic knowledge they had was a useful insight.

The future of SLL research is whether it will be able to provide information that has not yet been investigated or considered. As I delved further into the problem under investigation, I realised that by including these different features in my study, I also allowed myself to be open to my data. Despite the fact that my initial theoretical theory was based on an understanding of language learning as the acquisition of communicative competence, I realised from my data that the inclusion of the language socialisation theory would be equally informative. Therefore, I was driven to apply an inclusive theory considering both of these perspectives (communicative competence and language socialisation) towards language use investigation. This combination of theory helped me realise that a more individualistic approach, based on each participant's intentions and eventual language use, in specific settings and considering all linguistic varieties available,

helped me gain a deeper understanding of the use of language in multilingual educational settings.

7.3 Recommendations

In the field of education, moving from theory to practice is the most daunting task. Nevertheless, since the data obtained were from real classroom situations, which were dealing with daily problems that teachers and language learners were faced with, it is strongly believed that the findings can be informative for educational contexts. Needless to say, this is a small-scale study and thus is too limited to give a comprehensive picture of the general language use in multilingual primary schools. However, I believe that this project will serve as a useful reference, not only for those who are currently involved in teaching and learning an additional language, but also to other stakeholders such as administrators or policymakers who are interested in forming policies to address the educational needs of multilingual student populations in schools. In addition, this research might be a stepping-stone for those who wish to undertake further research in this field.

7.3.1 Pedagogical implications

Initially, there are a number of pedagogical implications that derive from the data collected from this study. The language that was used by the teachers of these multilingual classrooms in this bidialectal community appeared to facilitate the mutual comprehension between themselves and the young language learners and create a promising environment for language learning. Nevertheless, in Chapter 5, teachers' language usage was also discussed as it seemed to hinder the communication between the teachers and the learners, resulting in non-pedagogical situations. These were usages that were not appropriate for the context they were found in. The findings also suggest that there are particular language usages, as have been observed with the teachers, who seemed to facilitate language learners' induction to the community of the class, creating in that way a relaxed and friendly atmosphere. Similarly, there were other language usages that restricted language learners from becoming competent and full members of that group. Teachers also used the unofficial variety in a number of

ways, regardless of the official policies of the Ministry. It should also be highlighted that the teachers who participated in this study did not feel the need to hide this use during their interviews, while in previous studies teachers tended to admit only to a limited use of the unofficial variety, regardless of what was actually happening in reality (Papapavlou & Pavlou, 2005; Pavlou & Papapavlou, 2004). Thus, this study's findings indicate that the teachers should take into serious consideration the particular characteristics of the setting they are called to teach in while using a linguistic variety, SMG or GCD, solely or interchangeably, to create a friendly and promising environment for language learning and socialising.

On the other hand, the findings related to language learners suggest that there were particular language usages that were applied much more extensively in the playground than in the classroom that facilitated the process of becoming an equal member of the target community. The data from the playground show a variety of language learners' linguistic usages, such as repeating phrases heard from others or using language strictly linked to the repetitive nature of games that could easily be adjusted by other teachers in multilingual classrooms. Also, from the findings it appears that language learners' use of L1 with other peers, when used purposefully, can be extremely helpful for both reaching mutual comprehension as well as for entering a new environment. Therefore, these findings suggest that perhaps teachers of multilingual classrooms should find ways of using language learners' L1 in a way to help them adjust instead of alienating them, as has been described in the findings' chapter. Finally, language learners' use of the unofficial variety and not of the official variety for both communicational and socialising purposes was also observed, suggesting that instructors of similar classrooms should perhaps not exclude the use of the unofficial linguistic varieties from their classrooms.

The teachers' and language learners' use of language, together with that particular language use's effects, is presented here as it was observed in the particular situation. Each classroom and school setting is different and therefore none of these findings should be treated as a remedy for similar multilingual educational contexts. The importance of examining the particular characteristics of the setting

where each of these uses of language were found, (whether appropriate or not), before applying them in other contexts, is supported by the interpretive paradigm that guides this project.

7.3.2 Implications for educational policies

Apart from the pedagogical implications that could inform the practitioners inside multilingual schools, various stakeholders can also be informed in a number of ways by the findings of this study. Stakeholders are all the people involved in the education field that can develop and implement policies. In order for changes to be made in educational policies, certain conditions are emphasised that can only be met if there is clear communication and mutual support among all those who determine the quality of education for language learners.

One of the changes that needs to be made, as has emerged from the findings discussion, relates to the recognition and use of the unofficial variety in primary public schools. From the project, it appeared that language learners and their interlocutors used the unofficial variety much more extensively than the official variety. Based on this evidence, the unofficial variety should not be kept on the sidelines of the official educational policies of any country that deals with bialectism. On the contrary, the findings suggest that the unofficial variety was used extensively for learning and socialising purposes by the teachers with both the native speakers and the language learners. Therefore, the official policy of the Ministry does not seem to reflect what is happening in reality, and perhaps there is room for discussion and a review.

Apart from this, through the teachers' interviews it was found that there is also the need for further training and production of appropriate material for these newly multilingual schools. Teachers find themselves in the surprising position of being obliged to teach language learners without being trained properly to address the particular learning needs of these students. With these training programmes, teaching personnel will be capable of addressing the educational needs of this particular student audience. Institutional support is critical for establishing a

successful teaching education programme for diversity. Unfortunately it is not easy to change policies and curriculum due to financial constraints; however, the indisputable use and effectiveness of these training programmes has been confirmed by research conducted in the field in other multilingual countries (Baca, Bransford, Nelson, & Ortiz, 1994; Milk, Mercado, & Sapiens, 1992). Finally, it should be acknowledged by all parties involved that retraining teachers to deal with multilingualism is a necessity and not a matter of individual preference, appendage to curricula, or pedagogical whim (Chisholm, 1994).

7.4 Limitations of this study

Regardless of the various ways that this study can inform educational practice and SLL research, it would be an omission if its limitations were not acknowledged. The very nature of an interpretive study considers objectivity impossible, since interpretations of qualitative data from different people unavoidably vary. Due to the subjectivity of the interpretive research adopted, reflexivity is important in order to explore and acknowledge preconceptions held by the researcher. For that particular reason, I provided my readers with a full disclosure of the process followed (see Appendices A, B, C and D), and tried to describe as fully and in as much detail as possible the context where the study was conducted to allow them to make their own assumptions. I tried to use the knowledge acquired from the literature I reviewed to eschew researcher bias.

In addition, GAL learners' L1 has not been investigated in as much detail as SMG, GCD and English. This was because I was not able to translate any of the language learners' L1s to be able to comprehend and examine exactly how and why they were used in those moments. Their number (Arabic, Russian, Bulgarian, Romanian, Turkish, Filipino) made it impossible to employ translators without spending a substantial amount of money. If I did have the resources I would definitely pursued having assistants for translating language learners' L1s. An investigation as detailed as this would have provided useful information on how GAL learners were using their L1s, as well as easing the communication between the researcher and the young language learners.

It should also be mentioned that a representative sample of all the multilingual classrooms found in newly multilingual schools has not been included. However, the goal of qualitative studies is not to include a large number of participants, as is the case in quantitative studies. This is the reason why a small number of participants does not allow for external generalisation of the findings of the study. This stance stems from the positivist approach, which differs considerably from the interpretivism that I adopted. For interpretive research, as the one presented here, the concern is not whether the results can be generalized, but the opinions have been collected from the individuals who matter for the problem under investigation by including the appropriate sample (Mason, 2002). In this respect, the use of language in multilingual primary schools in Cyprus was understood in some depth, by collecting data from the ten language learners I chose, because they varied in their proficiency level in Greek and their socio-economic and cultural backgrounds. Also, I collected data from three teachers who varied in their teaching experience and training. If I had more resources and repeated this study, I would include schools from other towns of the country as well. If I had more time or more researchers in my team, I would also investigate parents' views as well as Ministry personnel's views in order to acquire the fuller image of the problem under investigation.

By the end of the research process, it was also realised that transcriptions of the original language (Greek), apart from the translated English text, should have been done for rigor and accuracy reasons. The reason for not transcribing them in Greek was because the language that the participants were using was simple. However, there is always the possibility that when people use different languages they may construct different ways of seeing social life (Temple & Young, 2004). Thus, if it was studied with the English text, the Greek text would allow the readers to make their own assumptions. Nevertheless, I was aware that a very limited number of readers would be able to understand the original transcription and so I decided to present a translation that was as accurate as possible. It is generally believed among scholars that there is never a single way of translating a text, which is why relationships between languages and researchers, translators and the people they seek to represent are crucial (Temple & Young, 2004). Because of this importance,

if I were to repeat the research, I would seriously consider including the original transcriptions to do justice to the participants' way of expressing themselves.

In addition, the data collection methods that were used presented some limitations as well. A number of steps were taken in order to overcome the language barrier between me and the young language learners, such as the use of visual aids, the drawings and the use of persona dolls. However, although these methods were creative and were used in order to overcome the language barrier, they provided less data than expected. More specifically, I realised that the interviews with the persona dolls should have been much more in number to have enough time to build a trusting relationship between the group and I, and at the same time to create a stronger bond between the learners and the dolls. Also, I found myself leading the discussion to some extent during the interviews with the drawings. This was caused due to my frustration whenever the discussion did not continue due to the poor linguistic abilities of the learners in Greek. Despite my initial disappointment, I enjoyed the time I spent with the children because I was able to feel, even for a small amount of time, part of that community, and managed to get a better sense of the situation they were in. The time I spent in the field while conducting these various methods allowed me to develop a better understanding of everything observed. It should also be mentioned that the data collected from these methods were extremely resourceful and insightful in ambiguous issues regarding the relationships and the identity projections of the participants, especially in the cases of Kabir and Tahir

Except from the interviews, the playground recordings also had some limitations. The fact that the only data recording method in the playgrounds was audio recordings made the identification of the interlocutors of the participants impossible. I observed from a distance taking field notes, but still that did not make it any easier to identify every single person with whom the participants were interacting. In addition, the weather conditions such as wind and rain made some parts of the recordings inaudible, while the intense movement of some of the participants caused the accidental pressing of the recorder's buttons, or made the recording inaudible as well. If there had been more time, I would have tried more

ways of placing the audio recorders on the learners, or if I had more resources I would use more powerful audio recorders to deal with the restrictions caused by the weather conditions. Also, if there were enough funds and if I had people to communicate with all the students' parents to ask for approval, I would use video cameras in the yard. Nevertheless, regardless of the various challenges I had to deal with, I certainly appreciated including playground observations because it allowed me to make a comparison between learners' use of language inside and outside the classroom.

7.5 Final thoughts

Through the completion of this study, my personal research interest in this field has been invigorated, since there are many facets concerning this topic that need to be investigated further. I believe that further research that examined the application of a multilingual programme, where the pedagogical implications suggested could be applied systematically, would be extremely interesting to conduct. I would also be extremely interested in investigating the limited but still existing pullout sessions that are employed in some primary schools to facilitate the integration of language learners in the mainstream class. Moreover, there is a particular interest in exploring the effectiveness of the existing educational material for learning a target language as a second or additional language, while there is a concurrent unofficial variety used simultaneously with the variety of instruction. Hopefully, in the future, research will begin to shed light on these matters and provide us with more theoretical and methodological means to resolve these issues.

It should also be remembered that these studies mainly aim at helping young language learners. Unfortunately, these children in primary mainstream schools are still perceived as a 'problem' to be dealt with. The multi-complexity of their adjustment in the host country where various linguistic varieties are spoken has been described in this project, but there is still a long way to go. Cultural and social variations in the use of language by a multilingual and multicultural school can be as vast as the differences between countries. In a world of more than 6000

languages (Dixon et al., 2012), bilingualism or multilingualism is the norm rather than the exception (Edwards, 1994). In this environment, multilingualism should start to be perceived as it really is: as an asset and not a deficiency. Nowadays we should not focus on “What constitutes knowledge of language?” (Chomsky, 1986, p. 3), but “What constitutes knowledge of languages?” (Cook, 1992, p. 579).

Struggling to fit in and belong is difficult at any time in a person’s life, but for a young child who cannot understand the language of the country he or she is in, it is even more so. However, even during this difficult period, young language learners surprise us with their resourcefulness. This resourcefulness in getting through and in ultimately succeeding (Conteh, 2003) out there in the multiplicity of the real world is truly remarkable. My admiration for young children’s resourcefulness is what set in motion this investigation and what illuminated a great majority of the findings of this study. If we manage to actually listen and observe these young people we will be able to assist them better in their efforts, both as researchers and as teachers. That will truly be a blessing.

I started this quest fascinated by the possible experiences and knowledge that it could give me. As an academic, I realised the effect that preconceptions can have throughout the process of conducting a study. I realised that there was a need for self-control throughout the conducting of the methods used in order to not affect the truthfulness of the data collected. I also gained extensive knowledge not only on a theoretical level but on a methodological level as well, since I adopted a rather inclusive theoretical approach towards my investigation and employed a methodological design quite different from the traditional models. As a person, I was able to explore the resourcefulness that a person can develop as well as the patience and self-discipline he or she can cultivate once devoted to completing a daunting task as a PhD. I knew from the very beginning that this endeavour could give me endless possibilities to communicate, discuss, debate and finally contribute to the building of knowledge. These possibilities were raised throughout the years of completing this work and it has been rewarding every single time. With all these in mind, based on Constantine P. Cavafy’s (1992) premise in his poem “Η Πόλις” – “The City”:

“Σα βγεις στον πηγαιμό για την Ιθάκη,

να εύχεσαι νάναι μακρύς ο δρόμος...”

.....
“As you set out for Ithaca
hope the voyage is a long one...”

(Cavafy C., translated by Keeley and Sherrard, 1992)

I truly believe that through this journey I gained not only knowledge about this particular field of research but about myself as a person. I understood the amount of effort and precision needed for a demanding task as well as the pride and self - confidence you can gain as soon as you complete it. I have learned that a person can explore himself by pushing his limits, not only in a physiological way but also in a mental way too. I truly hope that this research is only the beginning of many to come.

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APPENDIX A - PARTICIPANTS' INFORMATION
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COLLECTION**

Submitted by Nansia Kyriakou to the University of Exeter as a
thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education in
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APPENDIX A: Participants' Information

APPENDIX A.1: Database used to collect information for all the students in the three classrooms that helped me choose my participants

Table 1: Information for students in class K

Students class K	Greek proficiency level	Mother's ethnicity	Father's ethnicity	Mother tongue	Age
Kozak	Poor	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	6-7
Klara	Good	Roumanian	Roumanian	Roumanian	6-7
Kyriakos	Very Good	Greek	Greek	Greek	6-7
Kristina(adopted)	Good	Russian	Russian	Russian	6-7
Katrina	Medium	Russian	Russian	Russian	6-7
Kostas	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Kornik (health issue)	Poor	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	6-7
Konstantinos	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Kirill	Very Good	Ukrainian	GC	Greek Russian	6-7
Kaif	Poor	Syrian	Syrian	Arabic	6-7
Kabir	Medium	Iraq	Iraq	Arabic	6-7
Klementina	Good	Latvian	Latvian	Latvian	6-7
Kyla	Poor	Filipino	Yemeni	Filipino	7-8
Koullis	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Kimonas	very Good	Greek	GC	Greek	6-7

Table 2: Information for students in class E

Students in class E	Greek proficiency level	Mother's ethnicity	Father's ethnicity	Mother tongue	Age
Esmail	Poor	Iraqi	Iraqi	Arabic	6-7
Emanuel	Poor	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	6-7
Evros	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Elias	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Emir	Very Good	Iranian	Iranian	Greek Arabic	6-7
Emilios	Very Good	Greek	Greek	Greek	6-7
Eric	Very Good	Filipino	Filipino	Greek Filipino	6-7
Evgeny	Poor	Romanian	Romanian	Romanian	6-7
Eleonora	Selective Mutism	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Esmeralda	Medium	Romanian	Romanian	Romanian	6-7
Elly	Very Good	Filipino	GC	Filipino Greek	6-7
Evelyn	Good	Filipino	GC	Filipino Greek	6-7
Eva	Medium	Russian	Russian	Russian	6-7
Elijah (Arrived in November)	Poor	Arab	Arab	Arabic	6-7

Table 2: Information for students in class T

Students class T	Greek proficiency level	Mother's ethnicity	Father's ethnicity	Mother tongue	Age
Tom	Medium	British	British	English	6-7
Takis	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Timofei	Poor	Romanian	Romanian	Romanian	6-7
Tamara	Poor	TC (Roma)	TC (Roma)	Turkish	6-7
Tefkros	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Tonia	Very Good	GC	Turksih Cypriot	Greek Turkish	6-7
Teo	Very Good	GC	GC	Greek	6-7
Tahani	Poor	TC (Roma)	TC (Roma)	Turkish	6-7
Tahir	Poor	TC (Roma)	TC (Roma)	Turkish	6-7
Tibah	Poor	TC (Roma)	TC (Roma)	Turkish	6-7
Talib	Poor	TC (Roma)	TC (Roma)	Turkish	6-7
Tony	Medium	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	6-7
Tutkun	Poor	TC (Roma)	TC (Roma)	Turkish	6-7

APPENDIX A.2: Participants' Profiles

This is the story of Kyla



PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

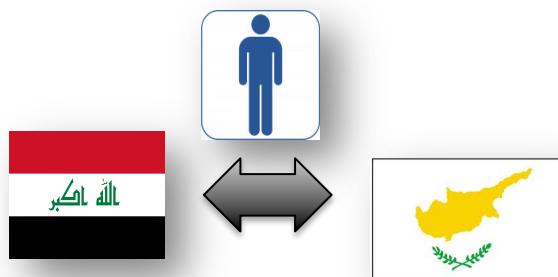
PSEUDONYM	Kyla
GENDER	Female
AGE	8
CLASS	K
SCHOOL	KE
TEACHER	Kristia
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Nowhere
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Filipino
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Yemeni
COUNTRY BORN	Not known
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	Not known
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Poor

**METHODS USED (based
on their chronological order)**

KYLA'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	8 sessions X 40min= 320 min (1,2,3,4,5, 6, 7 and 8)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	5 observations of 102' and 45" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA DOLLS	<p>-Present in the 1st meeting. Length 11' and 54", with Kaif.</p> <p>-Present in the 2nd meeting. Length: 10 'and 12", with Katrina.</p> <p>-Present in the 3rd meeting. Length: 9' and 19", with Katrina, Kaif and Kabir.</p>
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone.
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length 6' and 37", alone.
INTERVIEW	With Katrina. Length: 9' and 57"

This is the story of Kabir



PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

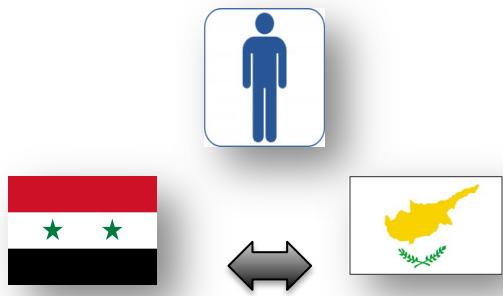
PSEUDONYM	Kabir
GENDER	Male
AGE	7
CLASS	K
SCHOOL	KE
TEACHER	Kristia
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Both inside and outside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Arabic
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Arabic
COUNTRY BORN	Not known
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One sister (as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Medium

METHODS USED (based on
their chronological order)

KABIR'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	10 sessions X 40min= 400 min (in all)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	5 observations of 92' and 22" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in the 3 rd meeting only. Length: 9' and 19", with
DOLLS	Kyla, Kaif and Katrina.
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length 5' and 47", alone.
INTERVIEW	With Kaif. Length: 7' and 21".

This is the story of Kaif



PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

PSEUDONYM	Kaif
GENDER	Male
AGE	7
CLASS	K
SCHOOL	KE
TEACHER	Kristia
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Both inside and outside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Syrian
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Syrian
COUNTRY BORN	Not known
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One sister in the same class (as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Poor

METHODS USED (based on
their chronological order) KAIF'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	4 sessions X 40min= 160 min (7,8,9, and 10)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	4 observations of 60' and 33" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in the 1 st meeting. Length 11' and 54", with
DOLLS	Kyla.
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Present in the 3 rd meeting. Length: 9' and 19", with
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Kyla, Katrina and Kabir.
INTERVIEW	Alone
	Length 9' and 9". Alone.
	With Kabir. Length: 7' and 21"

This is the story of Katrina



PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

PSEUDONYM	Katrina
GENDER	Female
AGE	7
CLASS	K
SCHOOL	KE
TEACHER	Kristia
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Both inside and outside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Russian
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Russian
COUNTRY BORN	Cyprus
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One older brother (not in the same school)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Medium

METHODS USED (based on
their chronological order)

KATRINA'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	8 session X40min=320 min (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	5 observations of 89' and 12" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA DOLLS	Present in the 2 nd meeting. Length: 10' and 12", with Kyla. Present in the 3 rd meeting. Length: 9' and 19", with Kyla, Kaif and Kabir.
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length: 5' and 34", alone.
INTERVIEW	With Kyla. Length: 9' and 57"

This is the story of Elijah



PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

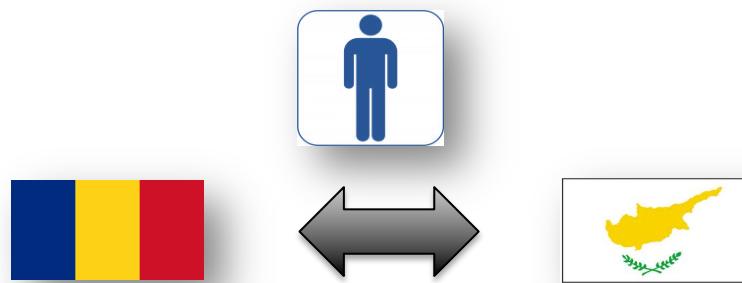
PSEUDONYM	Elijah
GENDER	Male
AGE	7
CLASS	E
SCHOOL	KE
TEACHER	Elena
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Outside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Arab
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Arab
COUNTRY BORN	Saudi Arabia- Lived in Kuwait and attended an English school
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One sister in the school (as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Poor

METHODS USED (based on
their chronological order)

ELIJAH'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	10 session X40min=400 min (in all)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	1 observation of 26'and 38" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in 1 st meeting with Evgeny and Emanuel.
DOLLS	Length 6' and 26". Present in 3 rd meeting with Emanuel and Evgeny. Length 6' and 38".
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length: 5' and 53", alone.
INTERVIEW	Alone because I used English as a medium of instruction. Length: 3' and 13".

This is the story of Evgeny



PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

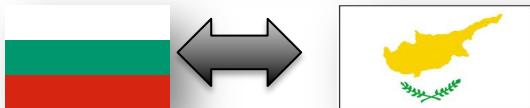
PSEUDONYM	Evgeny
GENDER	Male
AGE	8
CLASS	E
SCHOOL	KE
TEACHER	Elena
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Outside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Romanian
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Romanian
COUNTRY BORN	Romania
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	(No as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Poor

METHODS USED (based on
their chronological order)

EVGENY'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	10 session X40min=400 min (in all)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	3 playground observations of 63' 23" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in 1 st meeting with Elijah and Emanuel. Length 6' and 26"
DOLLS	Present in 2 nd meeting with Emanuel. Length 6' and 13" Present in 3 rd meeting with Emanuel and Elijah. Length: 6' and 38"
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length: 5' and 33", alone.
INTERVIEW	With Emanuel. Length: 7' and 3"

This is the story of Emanuel



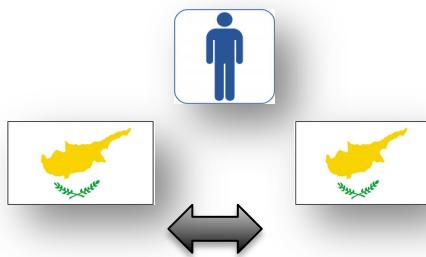
PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

PSEUDONYM	Emanuel
GENDER	Male
AGE	7
CLASS	K
SCHOOL	KE
TEACHER	Kristia
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Outside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Bulgarian
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Bulgarian
COUNTRY BORN	Bulgaria
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One brother in the same school (as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Poor

METHODS USED (based on
their chronological order) EMANUEL'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	6 session X40min=240 min (5,6,7,8,9, and 10)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	2 playground observations of 40' and 29" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in 1 st meeting with Elijah and Evgeny. Length 6' and 26"
DOLLS	Present in 2 nd meeting with Evgeny. Length 6' and 13" Present in 3 rd meeting with Evgeny and Elijah. Length: 6' and 38"
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length: 3' and 25", alone.
INTERVIEW	With Evgeny. Length: 7' and 3"

This is the story of Tahir



**Turkish
cypriot
community**

**Greek
cypriot
community**

PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

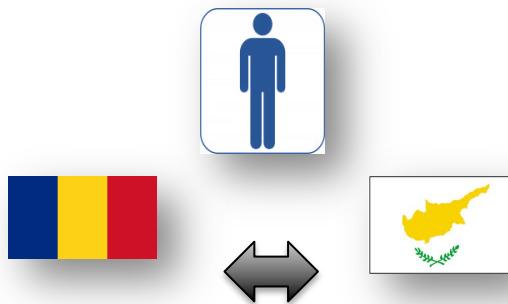
PSEUDONYM	Tahir
GENDER	Male
AGE	7
CLASS	T
SCHOOL	T
TEACHER	Tina
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Outside and inside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	TC
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	TC
COUNTRY BORN	Cyprus
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One sister in the school (as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Medium

METHODS USED (based on
their chronological order)

TAHIR'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	5 session X40min=200 min (3,5,7,9, and 10)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	3 playground observations of 40' and 20" in total.
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in 1st meeting with Tamara and Timofei. Length 8' and 15".
DOLLS	Present in 2 nd meeting with Tamara and Timofei. No cooperation- no recording. Present in 3 rd meeting with Tamara and Timofei. Length: 7' and 11".
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length: 3' and 9".
INTERVIEW	With Tamara and Timofei. Length: 3' and 33".

This is the story of Timofei



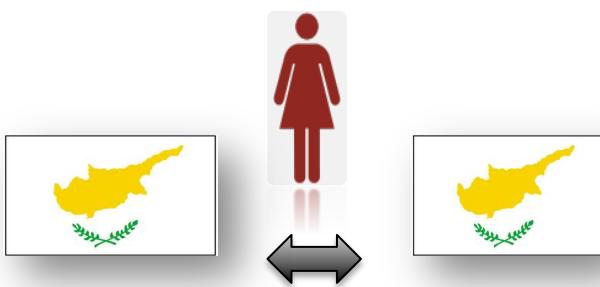
PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

PSEUDONYM	Timofei
GENDER	Male
AGE	7
CLASS	T
SCHOOL	T
TEACHER	Tina
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Outside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	Romanian
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	Romanian
COUNTRY BORN	Romania
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One older sister who was in the school (as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Medium

METHODS USED (based on their chronological order) TIMOFEI'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	10 session X40min=400 min (in all)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	1 observation of 9' and 45" in total
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in the 1st meeting with Tamara and Tahir. Length 8' and 15".
DOLLS	Present in 2 nd meeting with Tamara and Timofei. No cooperation- no recording. Present in 3 rd meeting with Tamara and Tahir. Length: 7' and 11".
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length: 3' and 18".
INTERVIEW	With Tamara and Tahir. Length: 3' and 33"

This is the story of Tamara



Turkish
cypriot
community

Greek
cypriot
community

PARTICIPANT'S GENERAL INFORMATION

PSEUDONYM	Tamara
GENDER	Female
AGE	7
CLASS	T
SCHOOL	T
TEACHER	Tina
SHARE L1 WITH OTHER PEERS	Outside and inside the class
MOTHER'S ETHNICITY	TC
FATHER'S ETHNICITY	TC
COUNTRY BORN	Cyprus
BROTHERS OR SISTERS	One younger brother (as far as I know)
PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN GREEK	Poor

METHODS USED (based on their chronological order) TAMARA'S PARTICIPATION

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	6 session X40min=240 min (1,3,5,7,9, and 10)
PLAYGROUND OBSERVATIONS	5 Playground observations of 67' and 08"
INTERVIEWS WITH PERSONA	Present in 1st meeting with Timofei and Tahir. Length 8' and 15".
DOLLS	Present in 2 nd meeting with Tahir and Timofei. No cooperation –no recording. Present in 3 rd meeting with Tahir and Timofei. Length: 7' and 11".
DRAWINGS' MAKING	Alone
INTERVIEWS AFTER DRAWINGS	Length: 3' and 35".
INTERVIEW	With Tahir and Timofei. Length 3' and 33".

This is the story of Miss Kristia

Miss Kristia from school KE and class K was the first teacher I observed during the first phase. She was a 29 year old woman (during the time of the data collection), who had been teaching in two different towns in Cyprus, for six years and all of her classes were multilingual and multicultural. She had a strong and confident presence in the class. Probably the reason for that was because all of the classes she was responsible throughout those years were a first grade. She was able to help Miss Elena –as I found out later- by providing her with helpful material and classroom organisation guidelines. She was staying in the town where the study was conducted with her husband. During the main phase she was also pregnant. She had done her bachelor degree in primary school education at the University of Cyprus while she also obtained her master degree from a UK university but it was not related to bilingual or multilingual issues.

This is the story of Miss Elena

Miss Elena was the last teacher I met, with whom I worked during the main phase of data collection. Elena was the teacher who was replaced by the replacement teacher during the first phase of data collection. She had been away for three months on a sick leave. She was 29 years old, born in South Africa. She was living a bit further than the rest and she was travelling every day for almost one hour back and forth from the school. She was in that specific school –school KE- for three years but this was her first time in a first grade classroom. She was used to multilingual classrooms but that year was the year with the highest percentage of GAL learners in her class. She had a bachelor in primary school education from university in Greece and she obtained a master degree in cross-cultural education at the University of Cyprus. She was actively involved in various research programmes regarding gender and ethnicities at the University of Cyprus. She was also extremely willing and comprehensive with my research process due to her recent experience in academic programmes.

This is the story of Miss Tina

Miss Tina was a 30 years old teacher, who had just returned from a maternity leave. That was the first year she had a first grade classroom and a multilingual one as well. In addition to this, it was her first year in a ZEP school. From the first moment I met her I realised how disappointed she was with the school's system that was based on Ministry's guidelines. She had done her bachelor degree in primary school education in Cyprus and she did her master degree in TESOL with the Open University. She was the only one who initially had a few concerns with me video recording her. After we had our first discussion and I made known my general aims she was willing to help me and participate in everything. However, I could sense that she was more uncomfortable than the rest. As she explained me afterwards, she was feeling like she was not practicing teaching the way she wanted to, due to the extremely difficult circumstances she was found in. However, by the end of the research she was glad to participate and for helping me throughout that period.

APPENDIX B: Data Collection

APPENDIX B.1: Ethical Approval and Consent Forms

University's ethical approval

Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

DISSERTATION/THESIS

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: HYPERLINK "<http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guidelines/>"
<http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guidelines/> and view the School's statement on the GSE student access on-line documents.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). **DO NOT COMPLETE BY HAND**

Your name: NANSIA KYRIAKOU

Your student no: 600048803

Return address for this certificate: BIRKS GRANGE VILLAGE F.1.2.4
NEW NORTH ROAD
EXETER, EX4 4GA, DEVON,UK

Degree/Programme of Study: PHD IN EDUCATION

Project Supervisor(s): DR. ROS FISHER

Your email address: nk261@exeter.ac.uk

Tel: 07791678651

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my thesis to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed:..........date: 28/01/2011...

NB For Masters dissertations, which are marked blind, this first page must not be included in your work. It can be kept for your records.

research, the project will be able to proceed to the data collection phase.

During my interactions (both oral and written) with the participants for obtaining an informed consent, I have and I will provide information to a point that will not jeopardise the validity of the data I will be collecting.

anonymity and confidentiality

Anonymity and confidentiality will be guaranteed throughout the data collection, analysis and presentation stages. No nominal reference or disclosure of any of the participants' information will be made. The sense of confidentiality and anonymity is not lightly applied. I am fully aware that many of the contextual characteristics of the setting that will have to be provided to the readers, due to the theoretical baseline of the intended study. All of those information will be described and used with caution. That is the main reason why I am planning to provide feedback to my participants in order to agree upon a way of presentation. Hence, any possible violation of our confidentiality agreement will be dismissed. Last but certainly not least, participants will be reassured that all the data gathered will be viewed, analyzed and examined only by the researcher and her supervisor team. Those people will be the only persons to have full access to them. In case of publicizing any parts of the research, the anonymity agreement will also be followed.

Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

The methods that will be used are:

Classroom Observations: Video and audio recordings of the normal routine of the language lessons. The researcher will not be involved in the lessons in any direct way, a fact that minimizes any potential involvement in the teachers' work or program or children's schedule. All of the participants will be given the opportunity to familiarized themselves with both the researcher's presence and the instruments' usage inside the classroom during the piloting phase. If any of the participants still feels uncomfortable will be given the opportunity to discuss with the researcher and even withdraw at any given time.

Playground Observations: Audio recordings and field notes taken by the researcher will be kept during daily breaks in each school. The researcher will not have any direct interaction or communication with the children. She will try to blend in with the rest of the teachers' group that observe children's well-being during playtime.

Interviews with the teachers: Audio recorded, semi-structured interviews will be conducted with all the teachers. The semi-structured nature of the interviews will provide to the teachers the latitude to freely express themselves in specific aspects of particular interest for the project. These will be held in the school area at a time most convenient for the participants.

Interviews with the students: The interviews with the GAL learners will be conducted either in a group or with a native speaking peer of the GAL learners. These interviews will also be audio recorded (permission from the GAL learners themselves will be asked) and semi-structured in nature for the same reasons above. These will be held in the schooling area at a time where students will have free time.

The analysis of the data obtained will be mainly conducted through discourse analysis. The video and audio recordings will help minimize the possibility of any misunderstandings, due to the possibility to go over them repeatedly.

Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project (e.g. secure storage of videos/recording interviews/photos/completed questionnaires or special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.):

As already mentioned, the only people who will have access to the data obtained will be the researcher herself and her supervision team. As far as the data storage is concern, this will be in the private space of the researcher. Additionally, I am planning to provide a detailed description of all the procedures followed to allow everyone, regardless of their educational background, to form their own assumptions. Tentative conclusions will be drawn from my findings in case of possible conflicting variables that will be beyond my control and the already known contextual variations. Finally, I intend to provide detailed presentation of the potential limitations of the study as a personal obligation to avoid any misleading of the audience due to fallible information.

Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

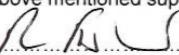
Power relations among the researcher, the teachers and the learners are may occur, especially in multicultural environments like the one I will be observing where possible discriminatory behaviours could be observed. Due to this potential danger, I will try not to create great intimacy with my participants or hold an unreachable stance, neither enhance (with my presence or my research) any discriminatory behaviour noticed by anyone.

This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's Research Support Office for the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor

This project has been approved for the period: December²⁰¹¹ until: July 2012

By (above mentioned supervisor's signature):

 date: 27/10/11

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference: 2111219

Signed:  date: 03/11/2011

Ministry's consent form



ΚΥΠΡΙΑΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ

ΥΠΟΥΡΓΕΙΟ
ΠΑΙΔΕΙΑΣ ΚΑΙ ΠΟΛΙΤΙΣΜΟΥ

Αρ. Φακ.: 7.19.46.6/31

Αρ. Τηλ.: 22800661

Αρ. Φαξ: 22428277

E-mail : dde@moe.c.gov.cy

ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ
ΔΗΜΟΤΙΚΗΣ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΣΗΣ

15 Σεπτεμβρίου, 2011

Κυρία
Νάνσια Κυριάκου
Μαρίνου Γερουλάνου 47
4154 Κάτω Πολεμίδια

Θέμα: Άδεια για διεξαγωγή έρευνας με εκπαιδευτικούς και μαθητές δημοτικών σχολείων της επαρχίας Λεμεσού

Αγαπητή κυρία Κυριάκου,

Έχω οδηγίες να αναφερθώ στη σχετική με το πιο πάνω θέμα αίτησή σας προς το Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης, που υποβλήθηκε στις 23 Αυγούστου 2011, και να σας πληροφορήσω ότι εγκρίνεται το αίτημά σας για διεξαγωγή έρευνας με εκπαιδευτικούς και μαθητές δημοτικών σχολείων της επαρχίας Λεμεσού που εσείς θα επιλέξετε, με θέμα «Έρευνώντας την εκμάθηση της ελληνικής γλώσσας ως επιπρόσθετης στα δημόσια δημοτικά σχολεία στην Κύπρο», την παρούσα σχολική χρονιά 2011-2012. Η απάντηση του Κέντρου Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης σας αποστέλλεται συνημμένα για δική σας ενημέρωση.

2. Νοείται, βέβαια, ότι πρέπει να εξασφαλιστεί η άδεια των διευθυντών/διευθυντριών των σχολείων, εκ των προτέρων, ώστε να ληφθούν όλα τα απαραίτητα μέτρα για να μην επηρεαστεί η ομαλή λειτουργία τους. Επίσης, θα πρέπει να έχετε τη συγκατάθεση των εκπαιδευτικών, στην τάξη των οποίων θα μπείτε για παρατήρηση. Η έρευνα θα πρέπει να διεξαχθεί με ιδιαίτερα προσεγμένο τρόπο, ώστε να μη θίγεται το έργο των εκπαιδευτικών, το σχολικό περιβάλλον ή οι οικογένειες των μαθητών και όλες οι δραστηριότητες που θα αναπτυχθούν πρέπει να εμπίπτουν μέσα στο πλαίσιο που καθορίζεται από το Αναλυτικό Πρόγραμμα. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί πρέπει να λάβουν μέρος στην έρευνα στο μη διδακτικό τους χρόνο. Η έρευνα θα διεξαχθεί νοούμενου ότι η απώλεια του διδακτικού χρόνου των μαθητών θα περιοριστεί στον ελάχιστο δυνατό βαθμό, ενώ για τη συμμετοχή και βιντεογράφησή τους χρειάζεται η γραπτή συγκατάθεση των γονιών τους. Οι γονείς πρέπει να γνωρίζουν όλες τις σχετικές λεπτομέρειες για τη διεξαγωγή της έρευνας, καθώς και τα στάδια μέσα από τα οποία θα εξελιχθεί. Σημειώνεται, επίσης, ότι τα πορίσματά σας κρίνεται απαραίτητο να είναι ανώνυμα και οι πληροφορίες που θα συλλέξετε να τηρηθούν απόλυτα εμπιστευτικές και αποκλειστικά και μόνο για το σκοπό της έρευνας.



Υπουργείο Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού, 1434 Λευκωσία
Τηλ.: 22800600 Φαξ: 22428277 Ιστοσελίδα: <http://www.moe.c.gov.cy>

3. Η παρούσα έγκριση παραχωρείται με την προϋπόθεση ότι τα πορίσματα της εργασίας, θα κοινοποιηθούν μόλις αυτή ολοκληρωθεί, στη Διεύθυνση Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης για σχετική μελέτη και κατάλληλη αξιοποίηση.

Με εκτίμηση,



(Ελπιδοφόρος Νεοκλέους)
για Γενική Διευθύντρια

Κοιν.: Π.Λ.Ε. Λεμεσού
Επαρχιακό Γραφείο Πλαδείας
: Πρόεδρο Ενδοτμηματικής Επιτροπής Γλωσσικού
Επαρχιακό Γραφείο Πλαδείας Λεμεσού

AT/AT EREVNES

- Η ερευνήτρια να λάβει πρόνοια για παρουσίαση/διάχυση των αποτελεσμάτων της έρευνας.
- Η ερευνητής αναφέρει ότι θα ζητήσει τη συγκατάθεση των υποκειμένων της έρευνας, για τη χρησιμοποίηση ηλεκτρονικών μέσων καταγραφής εικόνας και ήχου (π.χ. βίντεο, μαγνητόφωνο).

Εισήγηση ΚΕΕΑ:

Η έρευνα να προχωρήσει ως έχει για υλοποίηση.	√
Η έρευνα να προχωρήσει για υλοποίηση, νοούμενου ότι θα γίνουν οι αλλαγές/τροποποιήσεις που επισημαίνονται πιο πάνω (δε χρειάζεται να υποβληθεί ξανά στο Κ.Ε.Ε.Α.).	
Η αίτηση για έρευνα να υποβληθεί ξανά στο Κ.Ε.Ε.Α. αφού ληφθούν υπόψη τα πιο πάνω.	

**Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης
Υπουργείο Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού**

Τίτλος έρευνας:	Έρευνώντας την εκμάθηση της ελληνικής γλώσσας ως επιπρόσθετης στα δημόσια δημοτικά σχολεία στην Κύπρο	
Κωδικός:	168276	
Ονοματεπώνυμο ερευνητή:	Κυριάκου Νάνσια	
Διεύθυνση στην οποία υποβλήθηκε η αίτηση:	Δημοτικής	√
	Μέσης	
	Μέσης Τεχνικής & Επαγγελματικής Εκπαίδευσης	
Ημερομηνία υποβολής στο ΚΕΕΑ	23/08/2011	

1. Εισαγωγή-Αντικείμενο της έρευνας (σύντομη περιγραφή σκοπού και στόχων):

Σκοπός της έρευνας είναι να μελετηθεί η γλώσσα που χρησιμοποιούν τόσο οι δάσκαλοι όσο και οι μαθητές στις τάξεις, στα μαθήματα ενίσχυσης και στα διαλείμματα. Η μελέτη της γλώσσας γίνεται για να εξεταστεί η επικοινωνία των εμπλεκομένων μέσω αυτής αλλά και για σκοπούς διδασκαλίας και εκμάθησής της (ελληνικής) ως επιπρόσθετης γλώσσας.

2. Μεθοδολογία έρευνας (Επισημάνσεις, απόψεις και εισηγήσεις):

2.1 Δείγμα:

Το δείγμα της έρευνας θα αποτελείται από τους εκπαιδευτικούς και τα παιδιά δύο πρώτων τάξεων από δημοτικά σχολεία της επαρχίας Λεμεσού. Δε δίνονται περισσότερες λεπτομέρειες.

2.2. Ερευνητής:

Σύμφωνα με τον αναλυτικό σχεδιασμό της έρευνας, αυτή θα διενεργηθεί από την ερευνήτρια.

2.3. Μέθοδοι συλλογής δεδομένων:

Τα δεδομένα της έρευνας θα συλλεχτούν με τα πιο κάτω ερευνητικά μέσα συλλογής δεδομένων:

- Μη δομημένη ομαδική συνέντευξη με ομάδα παιδιών από κάθε τάξη που δεν έχουν την ελληνική γλώσσα ως μητρική τους.
- Μη δομημένη συνέντευξη με τους εκπαιδευτικούς των τμημάτων που θα συμμετέχουν στην έρευνα.

Participants' Consent Form

Graduate School of Education
Luke's Campus
Heavitree Road
Exeter
Devon
EX1 2LU



An investigation in teachers' and language learners' use of language in Cypriot primary schools

You are being invited to accept the participation of your child in a research study. Before you decide whether or not your child should take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take some time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

This research is conducted due to insufficient research on how we can teach Greek to non-native Greek speaking students in Cypriot public primary schools.

Why my child has been invited to participate?

Your child has been invited to participate because he/she is in a class where there are non-native Greek speaking students or because they are non-native Greek speaking students themselves. It is up to you to decide whether or not your child will take part. If you decide that your child can take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide that your child should not take part you are still free to withdraw him/her at any given time and without giving a reason.

What will happen to my child if he/she takes part?

He/She will remain in the classroom as usual to attend his/her lessons while lessons will be video and audio recorded. He/She will also be observed and audio-recorded during playground time. Finally, he/she will be asked to participate in activities-conversations conducted by the researcher, along with one or more classmates of him/her that will be held in the school area at a time where the child will be having some free time.

Will what my child says in this study be kept confidential?

All information collected about an individual will be kept strictly confidential. Confidentiality, privacy and anonymity will be ensured in the collection, storage and publication of the study. Your child's name will be kept completely anonymous. Data generated by the study will be retained in accordance with the University's policy of Academic Integrity.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research has been approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture in Cyprus and by the University of Exeter.

Contact for further information

If you have any concerns about the way in which the study will be conducted, you should contact the researcher at nk261@exeter.ac.uk.

What should I do if I wish my child to take place?

If you agree your child to take part in this study then please fill in the consent form and return it back to the headmaster/headmistress/teacher's office.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet

Nansia Kyriakou

PhD candidate

University of Exeter
Graduate School of Education

CONSENT FORM

Full title of project:

An investigation in teachers' and language learners' use of language in Cypriot primary schools



Name, position and contact address of researcher:

Nansia Kyriakou
PhD candidate
University of Exeter
Graduate School of Education
nk261@exeter.ac.uk

Tick the box

- 1.** I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study
- 2.** I understand that my child's participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw him/her at any time, without giving reason
- 3.** I agree to my child's participation to the above study
- 4.** I agree to the classroom's observation being audio and video recorded
- 5.** I agree to the playground observations being audio recorded
- 6.** I agree to the activities-conversations to be audio recorded
- 7.** I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications

Name of participant's parent

Date

Signature

Name of the participant (student)

Τίτλος Έρευνας: Διερεύνηση για τη διδασκαλία και εκμάθηση Ελληνικών ως επιπρόσθετης στα Κυπριακά δημοτικά σχολεία.

Έχετε προσκληθεί να συγκαταθέσετε στη συμμετοχή του παιδιού σας σε μια ερευνητική μελέτη. Πριν αποφασίσετε αν θα επιτρέψετε να πάρει μέρος ή όχι, είναι σημαντικό να καταλάβετε περι τίνος πρόκειται και τι θα περιλαμβάνει η έρευνα. Παρακαλώ, αφιερώστε κάποιο χρόνο για να διαβάσετε προσεκτικά τις παρακάτω πληροφορίες.

Ποιος είναι ο σκοπός της έρευνας;

Αυτή η έρευνα διεξάγεται λόγω της ανεπαρκής έρευνας για τη διδασκαλία και την εκμάθηση των ελληνικών ως επιπρόσθετης γλώσσας στα παιδιά που δεν την έχουν ως μητρική τους γλώσσα.

Γιατί ζητήθηκε από το παιδί μου να συμμετέχει σε αυτή την έρευνα;

Ζητήθηκε από το παιδί σας να συμμετέχει είτε επειδή βρίσκεται σε τάξη που υπάρχουν παιδιά που δεν έχουν ως μητρική τους γλώσσα την ελληνική είτε επειδή τα ίδια δεν έχουν ως μητρική τους γλώσσα την ελληνική. Το αν θα επιτρέψετε να συμμετέχει το παιδί σας ή όχι εξαρτάται εξ ολοκλήρου από εσάς. Εάν θα αποφασίσετε ότι μπορεί να συμμετέχει θα σας δοθεί αυτό το φυλλάδιο πληροφοριών για να το κρατήσετε και θα σας ζητηθεί επίσης να υπογράψετε μια αίτηση συγκαταθεσης για τη συμμετοχή του παιδιού σας στην παρούσα έρευνα. Μετά την απόφαση σας να πάρει μέρος το παιδί σας είστε ελεύθερος/η ανά πάσα στιγμή να αποσύρετε τη συμμετοχή του χωρίς να δώσετε συγκεκριμένο λόγο.

Τι θα συμβεί αν αποφασίσω να επιτρέψω στο παιδί μου να πάρει μέρος;

Το παιδί σας θα παρακολουθήσει κανονικά τα μαθήματά του ενώ η ερευνήτρια θα ηχογραφήσει και θα βιντεογραφήσει κάποια από τα μαθήματα των ελληνικών. Η ίδια δεν θα επέμβει με κανένα άμεσο τρόπο στη διεξαγωγή των μαθημάτων αυτών. Επίσης η ερευνήτρια θα παρακολουθήσει και θα ηχογραφήσει κάποια λεπτά από τα διαλλείματα των παιδιών, στα οποία επίσης δεν θα εμπλακεί η ίδια. Τέλος, κάποια από τα παιδιά της τάξης θα ζητηθούν να λάβουν μέρος σε δραστηριότητες (συζήτηση υπό τύπου δραστηριοτήτων), οι οποίες θα πραγματοποιηθούν στο χώρο του σχολείου κατά τη διάρκεια ελεύθερων δραστηριοτήτων.

Θα μείνει εμπιστευτικό ό,τι ειπωθεί κατά τη διάρκεια των μαθημάτων;

Όλες οι πληροφορίες που θα συγκεντρωθούν από κάθε συμμετέχοντα θα παραμείνουν αυστηρώς εμπιστευτικές. Η εμπιστευτικότητα, η ιδιωτικότητα και η ανωνυμία θα διασφαλιστούν κατά τη διάρκεια της συλλογής, της φύλαξης και της δημοσίευσης της μελέτης. Το όνομά του παιδιού σας θα κρατηθεί εντελώς ανώνυμο. Τα δεδομένα που θα συγκεντρωθούν μέσα από την έρευνα θα καταστραφούν σύμφωνα με κανονισμό του πανεπιστημίου για ακαδημαϊκή ακεραιότητα.

Ποιος έχει εγκρίνει την έρευνα;

Η έρευνα έχει εγκριθεί από το Υπουργείο Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού της Κύπρου καθώς και από το Πανεπιστήμιο του Exeter.

Επικοινωνία για περαιτέρω πληροφορίες:

Αν έχετε οποιεσδήποτε ανησυχίες όσον αφορά τον τρόπο με τον οποίο θα διεξαχθεί η

έρευνα μπορείτε να επικοινωνήσετε με την ερευνήτρια στο: nk261@exeter.ac.uk.

Τι πρέπει να κάνω εάν επιθυμώ να συμμετάσχει το παιδί μου;

Εάν συμφωνήσετε να πάρει μέρος το παιδί σας στην έρευνα, τότε παρακαλώ συμπληρώστε την αίτηση συγκατάθεσης και επιστρέψτε την στη διεύθυνση του σχολείου.

Σας ευχαριστώ πολύ για το χρόνο που αφιερώσατε για να διαβάσετε αυτό το φυλλάδιο πληροφοριών.

Νάνσια Κυριάκου
Υποψήφια Διδάκτωρ
Πανεπιστήμιο του Exeter
Τμήμα Εκπαίδευσης

ΑΙΤΗΣΗ ΣΥΓΚΑΤΑΘΕΣΗΣ

Τίτλος Εργασίας:

Διερεύνηση για τη διδασκαλία και εκμάθηση Ελληνικών ως επιπρόσθετης στα Κυπριακά δημοτικά σχολεία.



Όνομα, θέση και διεύθυνση της ερευνήτριας:

Νάνσια Κυριάκου
Υποψήφια Διδάκτωρ
Πανεπιστήμιο του Exeter
Τμήμα Εκπαίδευσης
nk261@exeter.ac.uk

Παρακαλώ σημειώστε
με ✓ ότι ισχύει:

1. Επιβεβαιώνω ότι έχω διαβάσει και κατανοήσει το φυλλάδιο πληροφοριών για την παραπάνω έρευνα
2. Έχω καταλάβει ότι η συμμετοχή του παιδιού μου είναι εθελοντική και ότι είμαι ελεύθερος/η να ζητήσω να αποσυρθεί ανά πάσα στιγμή χωρίς να είμαι υποχρεωμένος/η να δώσω δικαιολογία
3. Είμαι σύμφωνος/η να πάρει μέρος το παιδί μου στην παραπάνω έρευνα
4. Είμαι σύμφωνος/η να ηχογραφηθούν και να βιντεογραφηθούν μαθήματα ελληνικών
5. Είμαι σύμφωνος/η να ηχογραφηθούν κάποια λεπτά των διαλειμμάτων
6. Είμαι σύμφωνος/η να ηχογραφηθούν οι δραστηριότητες-συζητήσεις των παιδιών με την ερευνήτρια
7. Είμαι σύμφωνος/η στη χρήση ανώνυμων αποσπασμάτων σε δημοσιεύσεις

Όνομα γονέα/κηδεμόνα συμμετέχοντα
Υπογραφή

Ημερομηνία

Όνομα συμμετέχοντα (μαθητή/τριας)

APPENDIX B.2: Field keywords

Classroom Observations - Keywords

Keywords	Teacher	GAL1	GAL2	GAL3	GAL4
Use of English					
Use of L1					
Use of SMG					
Use of GCD					
Non verbal linguistic behaviour					
Relationships with students/ peers/teachers					
Identity issues					
Behaviours that facilitate participation					
Behaviours that hinder participation					
Behaviours that facilitate communication					
Behaviours that hinder communication					

Playground Observations - Keywords

Keywords	GAL learner.....
Relationships with peers with whom they share the same L1	
Relationships with peers with whom they don't share the same L1	
Which activities they participate in and how they achieve that	
Which activities they do not participate and for what reason	
Use of verbal communication-which linguistic variety they use?	
Use of non verbal communication	
Place where they are found	
Other	

Teachers' interviews - Questions

ESTABLISHING RAPPORT

- If I would ask you to describe me your class what would you tell me?
- What are the feelings you are having when you teach this specific class?
What makes you happy and what unhappy during your teaching?

GETTING ALONG

- What is your main aim when working with GAL learners?
- Do you find it easy to integrate them into the classroom?
- Do you think they enjoy school?

FIRST PART

- Have you noticed how do GAL learners communicate with you during the lessons?
- What do you believe facilitates or hinders your communication due to their behaviour?
- Is there any difference in their verbal or non-verbal behaviour from the beginning of the school year?
- Have you noticed how do GAL learners communicate with the rest of their peers inside the class?
- What do you believe facilitates or hinders their communication?
- Is there any difference in their verbal or non-verbal behaviour from the beginning of the school year?

SECOND PART

- Which variety do GAL learners use inside the class?
 - o What is the variety that is used by GAL learners when they are talking to you and when they are talking to their peers?
 - o Do you believe that there are specific occasions during which GAL learners use a specific variety, or is every variety employed inconsistently?

- Are there any differences of the GAL learners' use of varieties from the beginning of the school year?
- Which variety do you think you are personally using inside the class?
 - Do you think that you are using the same variety with all or do you believe that you are using different variety with different students?
 - Do you think that you are using the same variety in all occasions inside the class or do you believe that you are using different variety in different occasions?
 - Are there any differences of your use of varieties from the beginning of the school year?

THIRD PART

- How do you manage to communicate with the GAL learners inside the classroom?
- Do you believe that you have changed your behaviour from the beginning of the school year? If so, how?
- Have you noticed any of your behaviours facilitating or hindering your communication with the GAL learners?
- Are these facilitating or troubling behaviours consistent from the beginning of the school year? If not, then which behaviours seem to not affect your communication with them any more?

FINAL REMARKS

- Is there anything else that you would like to add, that you consider important and relevant to the teaching and learning of Greek as an additional language?
- Would you like to add any final comments?

Paired and Group Interviews with GAL learners

ESTABLISHING RAPPORT

- What is your name?
- Do you know in which country you were born?
- Do you speak any other languages other than Greek?
- Brainstorming: GAL learners will be asked to say the first thoughts and ideas or feelings generated as soon as they hear the following words: School, Teacher, Classmates, Greek language, Cyprus.
- Use of visual prompts: I will provide pictures to the children to label their feelings based on my questions.
- Drawings: Each GAL learner will be asked to draw a picture of him/herself inside the classroom and outside the classroom and asked to bring them to school.
- Ranking exercises: The researcher will ask GAL learners to rate the following exercises using a scale from 1 to 5 (1: very easy; 2: easy; 3 not too easy neither too hard; 4: hard; 5: very hard): ask for help, comprehending instructions, work in groups.
- (Perhaps) allow them to control the audio-recorder

STUDENTS' PREVIOUS CULTURAL, LINGUISTIC AND SOCIAL SCHOOLING

EXPERIENCE

- Do you remember the names of the country/ies you lived before arriving in Cyprus?
- Have you been to any other school before arriving in Cyprus?
- What did you do in those schools, inside the classroom, and outside in the yard?

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NEW AND OLD SCHOOLING & EXPECTATIONS OF CLASSROOM BEHAVIOUR

- Which are your favourite subjects and activities?
- Is there anything you were doing or saying in your other school that you don't do here?
- Do you think that your teacher is helping you when you are having any trouble? How?
- When you first came in the school, or even now, how do you know how to talk and what to do inside the classroom?

WHAT THE CHILDREN EXPERIENCE IN GREEK LESSONS

- What do you usually enjoy during Greek lessons?
- What do you dislike during language lessons?

STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF TEACHERS' LANGUAGE USE AND ACT INSIDE CLASSROOM

- Why do you think the teacher talks like that or asks you to do those activities?
- How does the teacher try to explain something during activities?

PLAYGROUND EXPERIENCE

- Do you prefer being inside the classroom or outside in the yard? Why?
- What kind of games/activities do you usually play outside in the yard?
- With who do you usually play with?
- Have you noticed what language do you use during those games?
- Are there any moments, when you don't understand what they are saying to you? What do you do then?
- Do you understand more of what is being told to you inside the class or outside in the yard?

- Is there anything you do or say inside the class that you don't outside in the yard?
- Is there anything that your friends do or say inside the class that they don't outside in the yard?

FINAL REMARKS

- Is there anything else you want to share?

Interviews after the drawings

FIRST PART

- Did you enjoy this activity?
- Which of these two drawings is presenting the classroom?
- Would you like to describe them to me?
- Who are the people you drew? Why did you choose to draw them?
- Which of these figures are you? Are these people friends of yours or not?
- Why did you choose to use these colours? (Ask about intensity of lines, if there is any, or particular objects)

SECOND PART

- Do you enjoy yourself in the classroom/in the yard?
- What do you enjoy the most inside the class?
- What you dislike the most inside the class?
- How do you find Greek lessons?
- What do you enjoy the most outside in the yard?
- What do you dislike outside in the yard?

THIRD PART

- How do you speak to these people here?
- How do these people talk to you here?
- Do you understand more of what others are saying to you inside or outside in the yard?
- What do you do when you don't understand what they are saying to you?
- What do the others do when they realise that you didn't understand?

FINAL REMARKS

- Is there anything else you want to share?

Interviews with persona dolls

FIRST & SECOND INTERVIEW

- Give information about the doll's "life". Add to the story features of the participants' lives in order for them to be more empathetic. Allow the children to contribute to the story.
- Use topics such as name, age, school, favourite and least favourite subjects at school, things they like doing during their free time, whether they have friends and family members, where they were coming from etc., to ask participants information about themselves and create a safe environment among the group.

THIRD INTERVIEW

- Description of an incident that happened one day at the doll's school during which usually a child was bullying the doll because of its clothes, its skin colour or its pronunciation. Asking children for their comments.
- Asking the children whether they noticed similar incidents happening to other children in their school, their class and finally if they had experienced anything similar.

Appendix B.3: Problems faced during the main data collection phase (from field notes)

Difficulties raised during classroom observations

One of the cameras was not working in 12 out of the 30 sessions observed. Two out of three (Tamara and Tahir) GAL learners of class T, were having private Turkish language sessions during some of the sessions observed. There were days during which some GAL learners were absent from the school. Finally, the audio recordings produced by the recorders that were placed nearby the GAL learners could not always capture the interactions between the students because they were talking in extremely low tone. All of these caused loss of data. Nevertheless, due to the extensive amount of time spent in the field, it is believed that a sufficient amount of data has been collected.

Difficulties raised during playground observations

Emanuel, Timofei and Elijah were the boys who refused to have the recorder on them, thus I did not pressure them. I tried however to observe them from a distance, watching with whom they were talking to, in which activities they were engaged in and how they seemed to spend their time during the breaks in the playground area.

The main reason for not wishing to have the recorders was either because they felt like they wanted to play freely, or because they felt weird to have the recorder on them. It was strange to see that there were children that they were asking me to have the recorder more times and others who did want it at all.

Another problem that was raised during the playground observations was the highly intensive body movement that some GAL learners were presenting that was hindering my visual observation. In addition, the background noise, the weather conditions, and the children's extreme low voice tone, caused difficulties in the audio recordings too. Moreover, there were instances during which children were pressing accidentally the recorders' buttons causing interruptions in the recording process.

There was an additional difficulty in school KE, where class K and E were found. Due to the fact that the yard area was divided into many different areas, it did not allow extensive visibility of GAL learners at all times. Due to that it was not always possible for me to recognize the participants' interlocutors. The recognition of their interlocutors was also difficult due to the fact that they were spending time with children from other classes, I didn't know.

Finally, my observation in the yard was sometimes interrupted by colleagues who took the initiative to talk to me and find out more about the research that disengaged me from the children.

Difficulties raised during teachers' interviews

Comparing with the rest of the methods used, teachers' interviews were the ones, which were conducted quite smoothly. This was because of the fact that I was addressing to adults instead of children and due to the fact that there wasn't any language barrier.

The difficulties that were experienced during this method were not practical but procedural. What I mean by that is that my main concerns, regarding the teachers' interviews, were based on my own handling of my reactions to their comments. I realised that by the main data collection phase, Kristia and Tina as well as Elena (with whom we came close in a relatively small amount of time) felt more comfortable with me. This fact had both its positives and its negatives. I realised that while I was asking them they were searching for my own reactions, approvals or disapprovals. I think that there were moments that I remained as neutral as possible but I am sure that when I will be analysing my data in more detail I will identify that in many instances I did not always manage to achieve that.

Difficulties raised during paired or grouped interviews with GAL learners

The interviews with the GAL learners were planned to be in pairs so that the students would help each other and encourage each other to express their opinions. This was also supported after my initial phase of data collection that indicated that paired interviews were actually working. During the interviews I had with participants from class K, I managed to pair the two girls together Katrina and Kyla and the two boys (that were also sharing the same L1) Kaif and Kabir.

Unfortunately that plan did not work for the rest of the classes. One participant was already gone from both classes, class E and class T, by the main data collection phase. Thus, those groups of participants could not be paired in groups of two, so I thought that I decided to have group interviews of threes. That did not work also as I planned.

In class E, Elijah was absent for two consequent days from the school and I could not delay any further my data collection schedule, so I did the first interview with Evgeny and Emanuel. That decision actually worked in favour for all the children because I was helping Evgeny to contribute to the talk (among the two Evgeny was less confident in Greek than Emanuel) and I also arranged to have an interview with Elijah alone, with which I used English as a medium of communication.

As far as class T was concerned, I might have managed to do the interview with the three remaining participants but the combination of the three children was not that beneficial after all. Tamara was sharing the same L1 with Tahir, which was helpful since he was translating her some parts when it was needed. Nevertheless, Timofei did not seem to respect Tamara. There was a general tendency from the rest of her peers either GAL learners or GCs to avoid her inside and outside the class. This situation however, managed to present the true nature of the relationship between the two participants.

It should be noted that I found it extremely difficult to keep them interested during the interview. I realised that the visual prompts I used during the A' phase were not going to be useful since children were now able to express their emotions verbally. However, the fact that this talk did not include any dolls or drawings made them bored.

As it was expected, there were GAL learners that –mainly- due to their low proficiency level were less involved in the talk. There were also cases during which GAL learners were sharing the same L1 and were purposively paired to have the interview together to have one of the two translating in case of great need.

Difficulties raised during the drawings and the interviews afterwards

All 10 GAL learners were asked to draw the two pictures (one of pictures was to show themselves outside in the yard and one inside the classroom) in their free time, but none of them actually did them or remember to bring them. The reason for wanting them to do it at home was to minimise the biased factors possibly caused by the surroundings at school, such as other peers or teachers looking at their drawings or causing them anxiety. In addition, I wished them to draw them at home in order to spend as much time as they wished on their drawings without having me worrying how much time I was keeping them away from their lessons.

Since that did not work, I asked all three of the teachers to give me some extra time with each one of the GAL learners to do this activity during school time. I have to admit that the teachers had already warned me that the children would not remember to make or bring their drawings because of their young age. As it was expected not all of the children had colouring pencils to use and they all seemed to finish their drawings quite fast (even if that is not necessarily a bad thing, especially at this age).

Drawings were produced immediately after the meetings with the persona dolls. As soon as the drawings were done, I was asking each GAL learner individually to have a short discussion with me. These discussions never lasted more than 5 minutes with each learner. This was due to the fact that they were young in age and they were bored easily and because of the difficulty they had to discuss in Greek.

Difficulties raised during the interviews with persona dolls

I had three interviews using persona dolls in each class. During the meetings, there were days during which some of the participants were absent and they were missing the information that was given each time for the dolls. I was always trying to fill them in, asking for the help of the rest of the GAL learners. However, they were still missing the time spend with the doll to bond with it and with the rest of the children. I was giving them the chance to either choose one doll each or one for the whole team.

I was not content with the meetings I had with the participants of class T, since they were not cooperating. They tended to draw or talk to their peers. From the three participants of class T, only Timofei was slightly more cooperative. Tamara and Tahir were playing with the dolls without paying a lot of attention to what I was asking them, regardless my efforts to attract their attention.

In addition to these, GAL learners' low proficiency level in Greek, did not allow for an extensive discussion. Most of the meetings lasted maximum 5 to 6 minutes each.

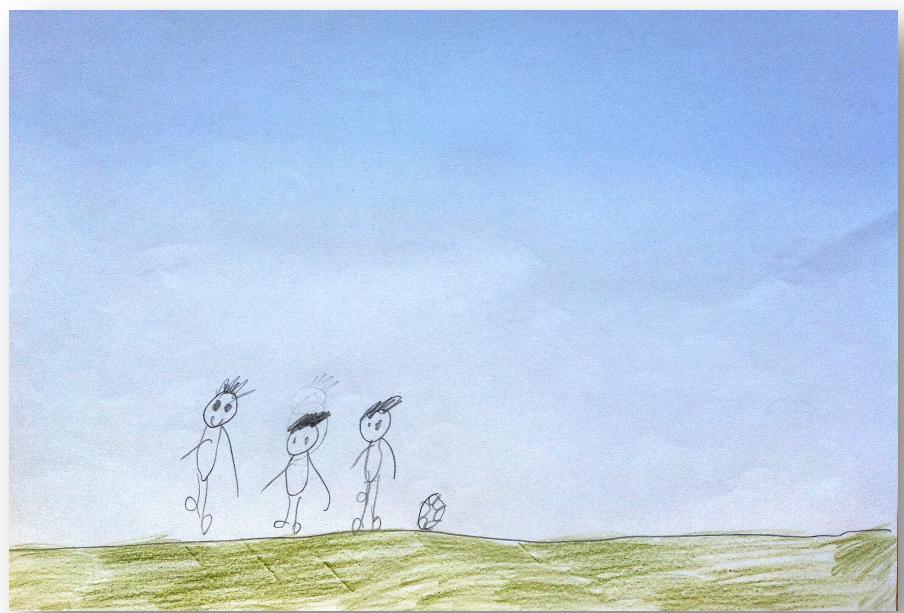
Appendix C: Data Analysis

APPENDIX C.1: Sample of Participants' Drawings

Figure 1: Evgeny's drawing inside the classroom



**Figure 2: Evgeny's
drawing outside in the
yard**



APPENDIX C.2: Transcriptions' System

Transcription Conventions adopted and adapted by Bucholtz (2007)

.	end of intonation unit; falling intonation
,	end of intonation unit; fall–rise intonation
?	end of intonation unit; rising intonation
!	raised pitch throughout the intonation unit
=	latching; no pause between intonation units
—	self-interruption; break in the intonation unit
-	self-interruption; break in the word, sound abruptly cut off
(.)	pause of 0.5 seconds or less
[]	overlapping speech
<i>ital.</i>	transcriber comments
()	Information about language spoken or laughter
{ }	stretch of talk to which transcriber comment applies

Extras

T	Unidentified teacher
TT	Turkish language teacher (TC)
TA	GC teacher in the first school.
TG	GC teacher in the first school.
Kristia	Participant-Teacher of class K
Elena	Participant-Teacher of class E
Tina	Participant-Teacher of class T
Marilena	Participant-Teacher of class E (replacement of phase A)
Tony	Professor at University of Cyprus
TM	Cypriot teacher who was in the first school, three years ago
L	Unidentified learner

LL	More than one unidentified learners
R	Researcher
C	Ladies at the school cantina
<u>Under</u>	Use of GCD
CAPS	emphatic stress; increased amplitude; careful articulation of a segment length
<[]>	Phonetic transcription
<u>BOLD+Under</u>	When something is said in English
BOLD	Use of SMG
Koullis	Male first grade learner, class K (GC)
Konstantinos	Male first grade learner, class K (GC)
Kimonas	Male first grade learner, class K (GC)
Kyriakos	Male first grade learner, class K (Greek)
Kostas	Male first grade learner, class K (GC)
Kirill	Male first grade learner, class K (GAL learner)
Kornik	Male first grade learner, class K (GAL learner)
Kozak	Male first grade learner, class K (GAL learner)
Kaif	Male participant, class K (GAL learner)
Kabir	Male participant, class K (GAL learner)
Klara	Female first grade learner, class K (GAL learner)
Kristina	Female first grade learner, class K (GAL learner)
Klementina	Female first grade learner, class K (GAL learner)
Katrina	Female participant, class K (GAL learner)
Kyla	Female participant, class K (GAL learner)
Evros	Male first grade learner, class E (GC)
Elias	Male first grade learner, class E (GC)
Eric	Male first grade learner, class E (GAL learner)
Emir	Male first grade learner, class E (GAL learner)
Esmail	Male first grade learner, class E (GAL learner)
Emilios	Male first grade learner, class E (GC)
Elijah	Male participant, class E (GAL learner)
Evgeny	Male participant, class E (GAL learner)
Emanuel	Male participant, class E (GAL learner)

Eliza	Female participant, class E (GAL learner-Phase A)
Elly	Female first grade learner, class E (GAL learner)
Esmeralda	Female first grade learner, class E (GAL learner)
Eleonora	Female first grade learner, class E (GC)
Evelyn	Female first grade learner class E (GAL learner)
Eva	Female first grade learner class E (GAL learner)
Takis	Male first grade learner, class T (GC)
Teo	Male first grade learner, class T (GC)
Tefkros	Male first grade learner, class T (GC)
Tom	Male first grade learner, class T (GAL learner)
Tony	Male first grade learner, class T (GAL learner)
Talib	Male first grade learner, class T (GAL learner)
Timofei	Male participant, class T (GAL learner)
Tahir	Male participant, class T (GAL learner)
Tahani	Female first grade learner, class T (GAL learner)
Tibah	Female first grade learner, class T (GAL learner)
Tutkun	Female first grade learner, class T (GAL learner)
Tonia	Female first grade learner, class T (GAL learner)
Tamara	Female participant, class T (GAL learner)
Temen	Female participant, class T (GAL learner-Phase A)

(OTHER NAMES ARE OF CHILDREN FOUND IN THE YARD, FOR WHOM I HAD NO INFORMATION)

APPENDIX C.3: Transcriptions' Sample of Classroom Observations

Class: E

Teacher: Elena

Classroom Observation: 1+2

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	Mrs. Elena:	Right hands ready? <i>Evgeny even if he had raised his right he changed it to his left as soon as he heard that</i>	During the pray only Elijah and Esmail didn't participate, but he stood like the rest. It should also be mentioned that inside the class there was a desk that was called the Europe desk, and on it you could find all sorts of souvenirs and objects that children brought from their countries or from countries they have visited. Also on the board there was a map and the students' profiles with links from which country they were.
2.	Evgeny:	<i>Mrs. He waved to attract her attention</i>	Before the actual lesson started and while Elena asked from the children to get their book.
3.	Mrs. Elena:	Yes.	
4.	Evgeny:	<i>That green, I don't, I don't know, I don't have. He was making gestures as if he couldn't find anything and he was nodding with his head as well</i>	
5.	Mrs. Elena:	<i>Your exercise book? She nodded her head</i>	
6.	Evgeny:	<i>I didn't find. He was nodding negatively.</i>	
7.	Mrs. Elena:	<i>It's not at home? She was making a</i>	

gesture as no with her hand

8. Evgeny: *I don't know where it is. He nodded no
and speaking in an extremely low
voice*

APPENDIX C.4: Transcriptions' Sample of Playground Observations

1st Playground Observation

Participant: Katrina

Length: 00:24:28

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	<u>Lets see if it works, it works.</u> As long as this red light is <u>on it is ok.</u> (.) <u>You should play as usual and when you finish from your break come and bring it back to me, ok dear?</u> Thanks <u>a lot!</u>	Unfortunately during the break, Katrina did not play in the yard. She was running up and down to the classroom, making it impossible for me to follow her or observing her at all times
2.	Katrina:	Finish the break?	
3.	R:	When you finish from your break.	
4.	Katrina:	(No verbal output) NO-no you should not touch it! <Sounded like she was afraid to not break the recorder>	Sounds of Katrina getting down the stairs and children talking and playing at a distance
5.	L:	[Just to see it.]	
6.	Katrina:	You should not touch it Wrong pronunciation of the verb	
7.	L:	(No verbal output) <u>What is this?</u>	
8.	Katrina:	I don't know	

9. L: (Inaudible)
10. Katrina: {Another time, gave it to me. *Wrong syntax and use of subject.* (No verbal output) when the break finishes I have to-I have to-I have to-I have to give_ When the break finishes I have to give}. *Missed the person of the sentence.*
11. L: (No verbal output) What do you have on you? What does she have on her?
12. L: I don't know.

APPENDIX C.5: Transcriptions' Sample of the Teachers' Interviews

Participant: Elena

Length: 00:30:22

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	If it is ok to audio record it, if it's not,	Elena has been doing research the couple 2-3 years for her master's degree and for a research program she was taking part so she was completely aware of the research and interview process.
2.	Mrs. Elena:	{Yes, girl for sure,}	
3.	R:	Ok, I'll put it over here so that it can record closely enough, eeee During Christmas Marilena was here and we also had a discussion like this, after I had finished with the observations, and the reason, I should explained you a little bit, the reason I had this gap from the beginning until the end of the school year,	
4.	Mrs. Elena:	Yes,	
5.	R:	It was to see the children's and generally the classroom's development,	

6. Mrs. Yes.

Elena:

7. R: And so on and so forth. Eee My general aim, the research aim it is how children generally cope not only on the Greek language learning, how children manage to survive in the specific circumstances,

8. Mrs. Yes.

Elena:

9. R: Eeee and I conducted observations both inside the classroom and outside in the yard so that I would form a more general impression, eeee now I wanted, it's my only chance to talk to you, to tell me your opinions on the topic, in general,

10. Mrs. *Sound like yes*

Elena:

APPENDIX C.6: Transcriptions' Sample of Paired and Grouped Interviews

Participants: Kabir and Kaif

00:07:21

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	Wellll how about you my dear boys, I want you to tell me, what I want to say and discuss with you, we've said because there are other children who are having difficulties with the Greek language and because you can help me help them, I came to talk to you. That's why we were doing all of these the past days, to help me help those children. Do you understand?	Kabir without being told, was using his L1 which was shared with Husyen to explain him what I had asked him.
2.	Kabir:	Yes. <i>In a low voice while Kaif just nodded</i>	
3.	R:	Nice. Wellll	
4.	Kabir:	(Inaudible)	I suspect he was talking to his L1 to Kaif
5.	R:	There are these <u>images</u> and I want you to tell me how do you feel when you are inside the school, of how do you feel when you come at school, what would you choose? <i>Referring to the visual aids</i>	
6.	Kabir:	Me, when I come at school, <i>Wrong use of tense</i>	
7.	R:	You are,	
8.	Kabir:	Happy. <i>Chose the very happy face</i>	
9.	R:	You are very happy darling?	

10. Kabir: Very_very happy.
11. R: Very_Very_very happy? *Nodded*
yes You dear Kaif? Are you
very_very happy or something
else?
12. Kabir: (talked in his L1)
13. Kaif: (Chose the happy face)
14. R: Happy.

APPENDIX C.7: Transcriptions' Sample of Interviews after drawings

Participant: Evgeny

Length: 00:05:33

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	I want you to explain me, I want you to explain me, these wonderful drawings, what are they about? What did you draw? Tell me. <i>Encouraging tone</i>	
2.	Evgeny	Hmmm	
3.	R:	You, who is you, <u>first of all?</u>	
4.	Evgeny:	<u>This one. Low tone. I am here! Louder voice tone</u>	Elijah came while we were talking to ask me about the instructions I gave for the drawing. As soon as he left, Evgeny felt more secure and his voice tone immediately raised up
5.	R:	Where is you?	
6.	Evgeny:	<u>Here.</u>	
7.	R:	Aaa <u>And who are the others?</u>	
8.	Evgeny:	Eee. Emanuel	
9.	R:	Emanuel,	
10.	Evgeny:	{Emanuel and Elijah.}	
11.	R:	Hm, I see! You are outside in the yard?	
12.	Evgeny:	Yes.	
13.	R:	<u>And are you playing football?</u>	Assumption made due to the football ball drawn
14.	Evgeny:	Yes.	
15.	R:	And do you feel happy?	
16.	Evgeny:	Yes.	

17. R: Why do you feel happy?
18. Evgeny: Eeee
19. R: Why **here** in the yard, dear Evgeny,
here in the yard, why **do you like it?**
Making gestures
20. Evgeny: Hmm
21. R: What's nice outside in the yard? (.)
Because you play football with your
friends?
22. Evgeny: Yes.

APPENDIX C.8: Transcriptions' Sample of Interviews with Persona Dolls

3rd meeting with persona dolls

Participants: Katrina, Kaif, Kyla and Kabir

Length:00:09:19

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R.:	Let's see now,	I was placing all the dolls in front of them, because this was Kabir's first time with the persona dolls
2.	Kabir:	{These are the <u>girls</u> (laughter)}	
3.	R:	{Yes, these are the <u>girls</u> , well I want you though to remember to explain to Kabir what we were saying the previous days about Helen, let the <u>girls</u> say, who is Helen, how old she is, where she is from,}	
4.	Kabir	I am, I am. <i>He pulls Helen's hair</i>	
5.	R:	It is bad, Helen <u>hurts!</u> Yes,	
6.	Kabir:	(laughter) <u>Sorry.</u>	
7.	R:	<u>Come on, do you want to hold some of them?</u> <i>Showing him the rest of the dolls</i>	
8.	Kabir:	Yes,	
9.	R.:	Come on then,	
10.	Kabir:	<u>I want this one.</u> <i>Picks up the boy doll that is not that close to his external characteristics.</i>	

11. R: Done,
12. Kabir: This is me, Kabir! *Excited tone*
13. R: {Ok! Done! Well Kaif to you remember
the previous day what we have
discussed about Helen?}
14. Katrina: Yes!
15. R: Come on then, tell us.
16. Katrina: She is 7 years old,
17. R: She is approximately 7 years old, ok,
Kabir how old are you? *Didn't want to
correct her, even if we had said 6 the
previous time*
18. Kabir: 6 eee 6 and a half, eee7!
- I initially wanted
to involve Kaif
because he was
the one that he
was the shyest
than the rest of
the participants.
However, Kaif did
not feel
comfortable
enough and
Katrina took the
floor.

APPENDIX C.9: Nvivo Analysis

Figure 3: Screenshot from drawings' analysis

Region	Content
1	This is Kaf's drawing for the school yard there is a lot of detail and use of colors that the classroom drawing did have. He has used almost all of the space he had available too. This was the first of the two that he made when he was asked to draw.
2	370.1710 - 740.2470 This is Kaf as he claimed. He has a smile on his face. He is the one holding the ball and according to him he had scored five goals already.
3	330.260 - 900.810 This one is a rainbow according to Kaf. He said that he would use more colours if he had more.
4	140.1540 - 1730.2500 Kaf is with three friends of his in the yard. Koulis, Kimonas and Kostas. All of them are greek cyprions and there seem to be the ones with the most influence in the football game they are having every break. All of these boys are smiling.
5	500.1250 - 860.1730 At the background is the school building that is full of colors too.
*	

Figure 4: Screenshot from transcribed data

The screenshot shows the NVivo interface with a transcript of an interview. The transcript is titled "GALlearners'Interviews" and contains the following dialogue:

Tahir: Yes.
 R: Who so you ask?
 Tahir: X
 R: Who?
 Tahir: X
 R: Is it your sister?
 Tahir: No.
 R: Your brother?
 Tahir: <Nodded no> My cousin.
 R: Your cousin? <Nodded yes> You Tamara
 When you don't understand what do you
 do? () Do you ask someone?
 Tamara: Yes.
 R: Who do you ask?
 Tamara: X
 R: Who is this?
 Tamara: (...) <Yelling at Tahir
 R: Is he making jokes? <Asking Timofei and
 Tamara> Timofei when you don't

The NVivo interface includes a toolbar, a menu bar, and various panels for managing projects, sources, and code. The bottom status bar shows the date and time as 11/24/2014 6:42 PM.

Figure 5: Screenshot from clusters' creation

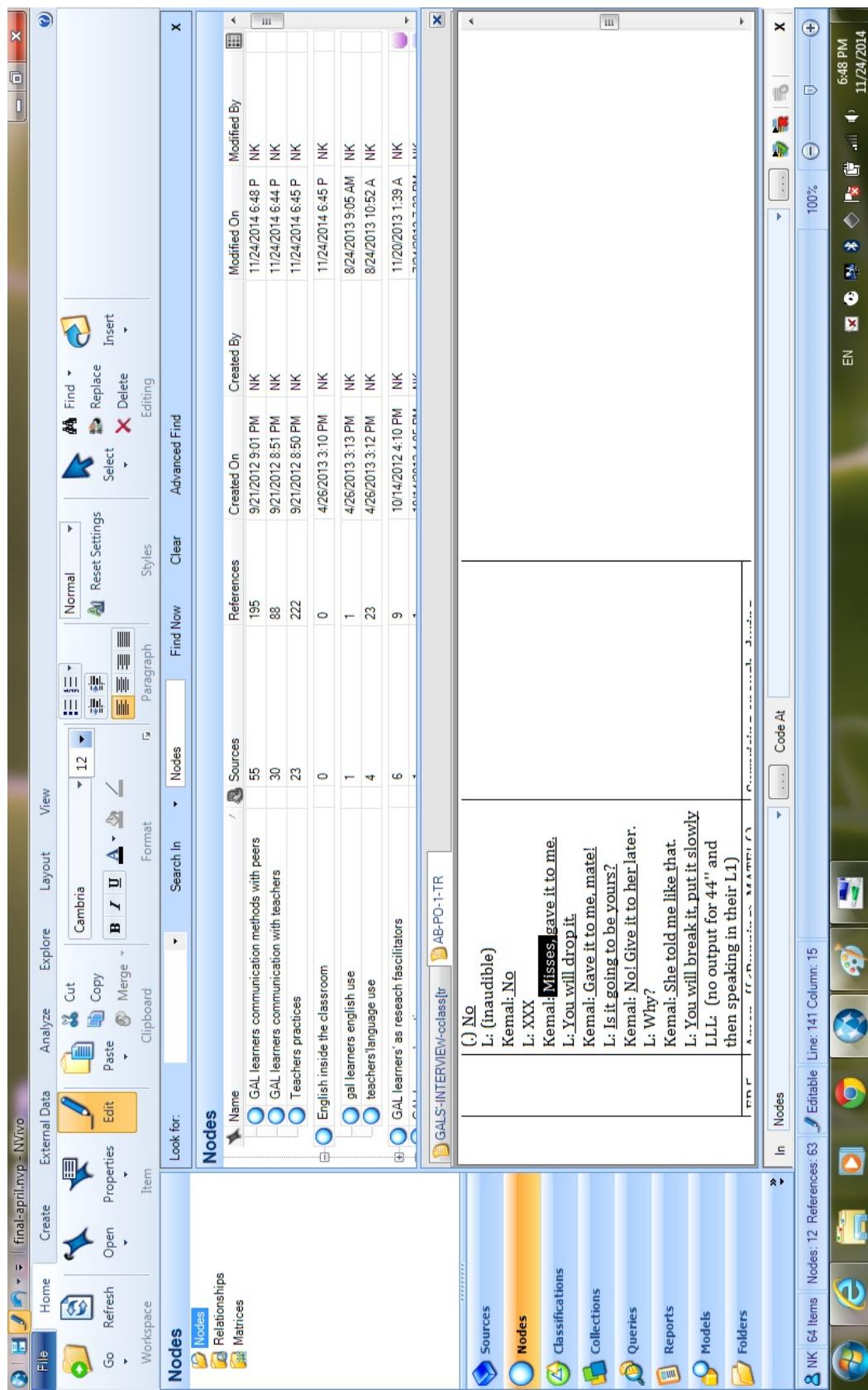


Figure 6: Screenshot from themes' creation

The screenshot shows the NVivo software interface for qualitative data analysis. The main workspace displays a list of 'Memos' with the following columns:

Name	Created On	Modified By	Modified On
GAL learners relationships	4/5/2013 6:41 PM	NK	11/24/2014 6:57 PM
GALs communication strategies with peers	4/9/2013 1:01 PM	NK	4/9/2013 9:47 PM
GALs strategies with teachers	4/9/2013 9:48 PM	NK	4/10/2013 12:49 PM
Teachers use of linguistic varieties	3/10/2013 1:15 PM	NK	11/24/2014 6:52 PM
Teachers' classroom communication	3/10/2013 9:31 PM	NK	11/24/2014 6:51 PM
GAL learners playground participation	3/11/2013 12:07 PM	NK	11/24/2014 6:53 PM
Teachers enabling participation	3/11/2013 7:41 PM	NK	11/24/2014 6:51 PM
GAL learners use of linguistic varieties	3/11/2013 10:18 PM	NK	11/24/2014 6:52 PM
GAL learners playground communication	3/11/2013 10:20 PM	NK	11/24/2014 6:52 PM

The 'Folders' pane on the left lists various project components:

- Internals
- Externals
- Memos
- Nodes
- Relationships
- Matrices
- Source Classifications
- Node Classifications
- Relationship Types
- Sets
- Search Folders
- Memo Links
- See Also Links
- Annotations

The bottom navigation bar includes tabs for 'Nodes' (selected), 'Code At', and 'Folders'. The status bar at the bottom right shows the date and time: 6:59 PM 11/24/2014.

Appendix D: First Phase of Data Collection

APPENDIX D.1: Field notes' sample from classroom observations

Class K: 1st and 2nd classroom observation

I arrived earlier at the school to collect the signed forms from the parents and to set up my equipment. Before starting the observation, the teacher asked me once again what I wanted to see in the classroom. After giving her as much information as I could, she told me that most of the times students tend to speak in their L1 if they share the same one, otherwise they tend to participate as much as they can but in a very low tone. I reassured her that I wanted her to do what she was doing on a regular base and that she should not organise a special lesson just because I was there.

Unfortunately, as it was expected due to the small space in the classroom the visibility of the cameras was limited. I changed a few positions to both of them and finally settled them down, in the most profitable place regarding their visibility. The front camera was placed on a tripod to capture students' reactions and behaviours, while the second one was placed upon a pile of books on a desk focusing on the teacher.

By the end of the first teaching period (the first 40 minutes), I placed the two audio recorders near four GAL learners to capture their voice. The use of the audio recorders was considered important after the first period, since I realised that the majority of the GAL learners whispered and it was extremely difficult if not impossible for the cameras to capture their voice.

The teacher of the classroom chose those specific 80 minutes to be observed by me, since it was the beginning of a new chapter. The teacher thought that it would be a better opportunity for me to observe the beginning of something new, since it would have been more structured.

At the beginning, it was quite obvious that both my presence and the equipment were attracting students' attention. They were either turning back to see me and smile at me, or stare at the equipment. After a while, while the lesson was progressing I realised that those previous behaviours were not noticed, as if they had forgotten I was there.

The majority of the students were GAL learners, with different proficiencies of the target language. Two of the children were absent in the first 40 minutes since they attended a supportive session. Here, I should mentioned, that as soon as the two children entered and sat in their positions, another GAL learner, turn to the girl who had just entered and spoke to her in their shared L1.

As far as the field notes' taking is concerned, I should mentioned that initially I tried to make a plan of the classroom and produce a schedule of arrows linking who was addressing to whom while talking. As time passed by, I did not keep any notes, because I thought that all this information could be collected from the video camera, avoiding having me holding a pile of papers as an examiner. However, after the observation, approximately half an hour later, I wrote down my general thoughts.

It should be mentioned that during these classroom observations, the teacher was using various routines extensively.

One technical problem realised by the end of the observations was the fact that one of the cameras, which was not a digital one and was recording upon VCR cassettes, was not recording for the last 10 minutes. This was caused due to the fact that the cassette placed in the camera, even though it was claimed on the package to be a 90 minute cassette, it was a 60 minutes' cassette.

During my first view of the recordings of the specific lesson a couple of weeks later (since I had to wait for the photographer to produce the DVDs for me), I started to expand my notes while viewing.

My attention and interest was focused mostly on the interactions and conversations conducted among the four GAL learners with their teacher and with their peers.

One of the interactions between Katrina and her teacher Miss Kristia, was regarding one of her exercise sheet' work that was done wrongly. In order for Miss Kristia to help Katrina, she made her realise that she was using the wrong letter by showing the position of the tongue in her mouth to produce each of the letters involved.

In another instance, Miss Kristia asked Katrina a question and as soon as she realised that she did not understand, Miss Kristia showed her an image picturing the setting that the question was referring to. Miss Kristia's action seemed to work, because later on, Katrina managed to answer to the initial content question of the teacher.

Later on, Katrina volunteered to participate in an activity, which was a routine (as I understood afterwards) where she had to present a small story as a television presenter. At that point, the teacher did not correct every single mistake Katrina was doing during her narration. She probably did so to minimise her anxiety and let her finish her story. At some point, when she needed some help with her story, instead of Miss Kristia to help her finish, she asked one of her peers with whom they were sharing the same L1 to help her finish the story. It was also noticed that GCD was not corrected either. By the end of the activity the teacher encouraged her to finish and helped her with the final sentence, as a reward for her fine work during the whole activity.

After a while, it was noticed that Kabir was not able to answer one of teacher's question, even if the teacher had repeated the question twice. Without the teacher making any further effort, she moved on to another GAL learner to seek for the answer. This happened many times during the session. Miss Kristia addressed then to Kaif, and he managed to answer correctly. The answer was correct but with wrong pronunciation. For that reason Miss Kristia asked Kaif to repeat his output.

The second time, after the encouragement by Miss Kristia, Kaif repeated his answer louder with more confidence and with a better pronunciation.

In another instance, Miss Kristia asked Kyla for something. After many repetitions, and adding of further details to the initial question, Kyla was still unable to answer. Miss Kristia, in order to not make her feel bad, she told her that it is ok and that she could say the answer to her later.

At some point after that, I noticed the teacher correcting GCD used by a GC student. Perhaps, she does so only with GC students and not with GAL learners.

In a following instance with Miss Kristia and Katrina, Katrina managed to answer one question, and then Miss Kristia pushed her even more by asking further details to be added to her answer. She did that, by asking her while she was making gestures and when that did not work, she started the sentence and Katrina finished it.

The following activity was a group, oral, repetitive reading activity. All the students were actively engaged in it. After that Miss Kristia asked Katrina and Kabir to read together out loud. Despite the fact that Katrina was more confident, her reaction seemed to encourage Kabir to participate. Kyla was requested to read, she started but she was not heard at all and Miss Kristia read the sentence once in a very slow, clear and steady voice. Afterwards she asked from Kyla to repeat the sentence with her and she did so.

Kabir in a request to recognise a word on the board, he did it wrongly and then Miss Kristia asked him to point to the sentence where he was reading. He was not able to do so, and his peers helped him. After that, Kabir was able to find the requested word. In a following instance, Kabir used a wrong article for a word, and the teacher corrected it without making him repeat the correct output. He managed though to participate to a routine and produce a few sentences.

Appendix D.2: Field notes' sample from playground observations

Playground Observation of Eliza and Emanuel

Both children were asked if it was ok with them to have the audio-recorders on their arms during the playground time and if the bands were not too tight.

The two participants were playing in exactly opposite areas from each other in the yard. Unfortunately, due to that I was paying attention to one of them each time, while my writing was also influenced due to the constant movement. When I realised that writing would not do any good, I decided to focus on what was going on and then try to remember them and write them down by the end of the break.

4 to 5 peers of Eliza surrounded her at all times. She was mostly wandering around without engaging in an intensive physical activity. At some point she sat on the stairs with a couple of other classmates of hers. By the end of the playground time she was chasing and running around with her friends. While she was walking and running, she was extending her arm up in the air, making it obvious that she was careful with the equipment, and that she felt strange and uncomfortable.

Emanuel on the other hand was participating in a highly intense physical activity, by playing football with a large number of children, where he was also one of the main players. He seemed to not be troubled at all for having the equipment on his arm, except from the very beginning when someone was asking him about it. Unfortunately, due to his intense physical activity, he moved his bands in a way, that the buttons were pressed and the recording stopped. He realised that something was wrong because the play button was pressed and noise was coming out of the audio-recorder and he run towards me to ask me if everything was ok.

After listening to the audio-recordings, it seemed that at the very beginning, Eliza's friends were wondering about the equipment and they spent a large amount of time, assuming whether it was placed on the specific child to view whether the

child was behaving properly. They also thought that it was capturing image and not only sound. They came and found me during the playground time and asked me whether this was the purpose of the equipment and whether I was going to do that with all the children. I was still not quite sure of my choice to not give more details about the procedure.

Many children were also repeatedly asking the child whether she was hurting having that on her arm, and they also asked from another child to repeat it to her L1, so that she will understand. The other girl, asked her in their L1 and she said that it was fine. At that time, they came close to me and I checked again the equipment while the child reassured me that she was not hurting.

During the recording, and due to the extremely windy day we were having, some problems were caused. There were parts of the recording, which were not audible. In addition to that, due to the background noise, further difficulties were caused for obtaining data.

Also the child was not speaking at all at the beginning of the break. She seemed that she needed time to familiarise herself with the equipment.

At some point another child came close to her, and he was repeatedly asking her if she wanted to play. The other child was asking the same question in GCD. Even though he did not get a verbal answer, they all assumed that she wanted to.

Another child told the girl that she would protect her, advising her not to press any buttons, in order to not break the equipment. Unfortunately I could not have data to who she was talking to, since my attention was divided to the two participants and even if I was not observing the other child at the same time, I could still not be sure whether I was making the right identifications of the participants' friends.

In the last few minutes, when the girl finally got highly involved in the game with the other children, she used a few phrases in Greek. All of the phrases were part of the game, that she could have heard from other peers. She used GCD in one of the

phrases and the rest (which she repeated a lot of times) were phrases and words that could be used both in SMG and GCD.

Emanuel seemed to need less time to get used to the equipment and most of the time he was playing football with a large number of children. He did have to explain to a couple of children who asked him what was the equipment for. He assumed that it was a camera and another boy assumed that I had placed the camera to see whether he was behaving properly.

Emanuel communicated mostly in Greek, while I could not trace or hear any use of his mother tongue. The verbal phrases and words he said out loud were mostly related to the football match he was engaged in, except from the instances when he said that the equipment was a camera provided by me.

Appendix D.3: Field notes' sample from interviews with GAL learners

Field notes from the paired interview (with mediator) with Tamara and Tahir

Both of these two children were chosen to be interviewed together because they shared the same mother tongue, and perhaps they could take advantage of this to help each other through the interview procedure. In addition to that, there was a Turkish language teacher at the school that also offered to help me communicate with them. The interview was conducted during the second period, while the rest of the children were having a lesson.

After asking their teacher for approval to leave the lesson, we sat in a roofed area outside at the schoolyard (all four of us) in a circle.

At the very beginning of our discussion I started explaining to them that I wanted to talk to them to help me help other children who were trying to learn Greek like they were. They seemed to understand and the procedure went on. I presented them the five faces-visual aids. Tahir was able to communicate in Greek and in Turkish. On the other hand, Tamara was not so able to do so even if she was having the opportunity to communicate in Turkish. Tamara was new at school and she was quite shy as a child. When I asked them whether they understood, Tamara nodded no, even if the translator had made the translation in Turkish. At that point I asked from Tahir if he would like to help explain to her what I had said. He did so and after a while, during the interview he continued explaining to Tamara even if he was not asked directly.

The first thing I asked them was how they were feeling when they were coming going to school. They both pointed at the excited face. I asked them why and Tahir replied that he is excited because he learns a lot of new things. I asked Tamara many times, both me and the translator while Tahir was also trying to explain to her what we were asking and in the end she said that she liked having exercise books. It should be mentioned that the children of this school were coming from extremely poor families.

The next question, was regarding the Greek language, how they were feeling about it and finally whether they were understanding their teacher during their conversations. I tried to ask them also if there were some things that were helping them understand their teacher more than others. Tahir replied that he understood his teacher every day (probably wanted to say that he understands his teacher quite often). Tamara was asked several times by all of us. She did not seem to understand or being willing to participate. When Tahir realised that Tamara would not answer, he said that usually Tamara yells at the teacher: "Mrs.!" and the teacher understands that she needs some help with something. Then the teacher, as Tahir continued explaining, shows her what she needs to do and she does so.

At this point, Tahir started to get bored and started playing with his toy. I realised that I had to be very short because the whole procedure with the translation and the questions was tiring for them. The following question was whether they were enjoying themselves more inside the classroom or outside at the yard. They both replied-showed excited when they were inside the classroom.

Finally, I asked them what language they were using inside the classroom. Tahir was capable to answer immediately by saying that he always uses Greek. When he was asked what language he speaks with his friends, he said the same. As soon as he answered for himself he saw me turning towards Tamara, and he replied for her that since she does not understand Greek she always speaks Turkish with her Turkish-speaking friends. After that, I decided to end the interview due to their discomfort and boredom.

Appendix D.4: Transcription Sample of Teachers' interviews

Interview with Mrs. Kristia

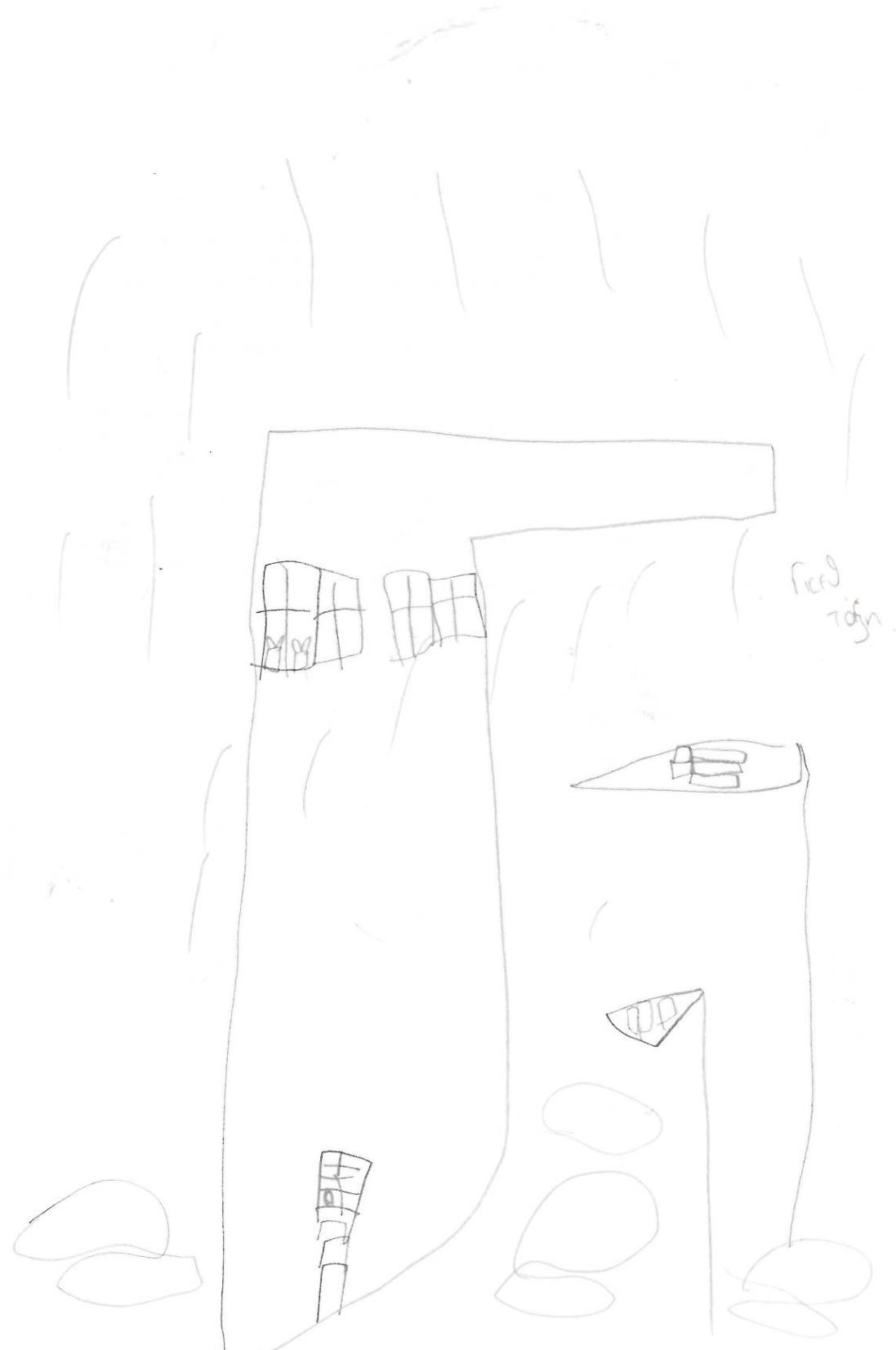
Length: 00:20:54

No	Speaker	Utterance	Commentary
1.	R:	<u>Well, I repeat that I am here only to learn from you, and of course not to check upon anyone</u> (laughter)	
2.	Mrs. Kristia:	<i>Sound like yes</i>	
3.	R:	<u>I have not even taught yet. Let's start a little bit from what you are doing inside the classroom, on a normal day,</u>	
4.	Mrs. Kristia:	<i>Sound like yes</i>	
5.	R:	<u>How do you deal with your cross-cultural classroom if we can describe it somehow like that,</u>	
6.	Mrs. Kristia:	<u>E for me it's not very difficult, the situation, because it's a first grade.</u>	
7.	R:	I see.	
8.	Mrs. Kristia:	<u>So, since it is a first grade, you have a lot of visual aids.</u>	
9.	R:	I see.	
10.	Mrs. Kristia:	<u>Because they begin from zero.</u>	
11.	R:	<i>Sound like yes</i>	
12.	Mrs. Kristia:	<u>I can't talk to you about a higher grade, where things would certainly be more difficult. But since, learning to write is something new for all let's say, to learn how to read, the same. Now we have the comprehension issue, the vocabulary: the skills, ok, there are other issues. But it's not I am not thinking thatt Oh my I have these children who don't know how to speak and what</u>	

am I going to do! Meaning, I know that the lesson, the way that's happening is through games. With images, it is with a lot of visual aids. Everything is so symbolic and vivid, where I feel that they are helped. When I will see that

Appendix D.5: Sample of the drawings from class K

Figure 7: Sample of the drawings from class K



Appendix D.6: Challenges faced during phase A

Challenges faced with Classroom Observations

The positioning of the cameras was more challenging than expected. I found it extremely difficult to capture every single child in the class. I managed though to capture both sides of the classrooms with at least one of the cameras. The front camera was placed on a tripod focusing to as many students and GAL learners-participants as possible, while the back camera was focusing mainly on the teacher. Another technical problem faced was the realisation that one of my initial recordings, recorded only 60 out of the 90 minutes, due to a wrong-labeled VCR cassette used. However, the back camera managed to recover the lost time because it was a digital one.

Unfortunately, the number of audio-recorders was not enough for all of my classroom observations. I had 2 audio recorders and 4 GAL learners-participants in each class. There were cases in which 2 were seated close enough to have a single recorder, recording both of them. However there were others that were seated away from in each other.

Surprisingly enough, students seemed to get used to the equipment and my presence quickly. I cannot be sure that this was also the case with the teachers, since adults have a better ability to hide their feelings.

Challenges faced with Playground Observations

The playground observations conducted with the first 2 GAL learners in class K did not include the use of audio-recorders. This happened after a discussion I had with Mrs. Kristia, during which I got frightened (without her realising it of course) that children would break them. After realising that I was not going to collect a large amount of data, I took the risk of placing them as bracelets to the rest of the GAL learners.

The way both of the schoolyards were, made it impossible to observe 2 GAL learners during the same break. I realised that during the main data collection phase I would have to observe each GAL learner alone. But even in that case, I knew I would not be able to keep my eyes on them at all times due to their intense physical activity. The intense physical activity of the GAL learners, the loud background noise (approximately 200 children running around in that area) as well as some weather conditions (wind) minimized the audibility of the data collected.

Moreover, some of the other children in the yard were making assumptions that GAL learners were chosen to have the audio-recorders because they were misbehaving. I tried to explain to all the children that this was not the case. I also noticed that some GAL learners minimised their physical activity, because they had not used having the recorder on them. Other children pressed the buttons of the recorders accidentally. There is nothing to do about these, except from giving them as clear guidelines as possible.

Challenges faced with interviews with the GAL learners

The main issue I faced during the interviews was the low proficiency level in Greek of the participants. The methods of brainstorming and the ranking exercises could not be employed due to this extremely low proficiency level. The pairs that were chosen for the focus group seemed to work in 3 out of the 4 cases. This was due to the fact that one of the two was always more sociable and relaxed. I also realised that I should find more “activities” (such as the faces) through which I could ask them the questions I wanted, to make them more interested and perhaps facilitate their understanding a little further. Eventually, the interpretation of the drawings was extremely challenging and I thought that in order to avoid jumping into conclusions, I should add discussions after each participant has finished with his drawing.

Challenges faced with the teachers' interviews

Teachers' interviews were conducted without any major problems. It made me wonder though whether other questions should be added to the interview schedule. Also, it should be mentioned that after listening to the recordings I felt that there were moments during which I should have restricted myself, in order to avoid expressing my personal feelings.