CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

"To advocate the judicious use of mother tongue is to swim with the irresistible flow of common sense but against the tide of 30 years of Western, Direct Method orthodoxy" (Deller & Rinvolucri, 2002, p. 93).

This excerpt represents one of the current voices that advocate re-examining the role of mother tongue, or learners' first language (L1), in English language (L2) classrooms. It is in line with many other recent voices that call for re-instating L1 in L2 classrooms after it was firmly prohibited for the last 120 years. The issue is particularly important in monolingual classrooms, where the teacher speaks the language of the students. The use of learners' L1 remains a controversial issue in EFL/ESL education. It has a long history surrounded by controversy and on-going debate over its role and value. The debate is generally traceable to the "Great Reform" of the 20th century during which the Direct Method in English teaching was introduced and implemented. The Direct Method promoted a monolingual approach to language teaching, or "English-only," as the ideal method of teaching and communication in the classroom, thus forming the foundations of language teaching that dominated the 20th century (Cook, 2001a). This approach affected many generations of students and remained unchallenged for many years.

However, some started to question the reasons behind L1 avoidance and interpreted it as lacking concrete pedagogical justifications and based on ideological, political, or convenience reasons (Auerbach, 1993). Phillipson (1992) argued that the exclusive use of L2 is a form of linguistics imperialism when imposed on classrooms around the world. Yet again, despite the lack of evidence to support the issue either way, calls for L2-only continued. For example, in the 1990s the English and Welsh National Curriculum for Modern Foreign Languages strongly emphasized that English should be the medium in which class work is conducted and managed, and therefore the sign of a good modern language course involves using the target language for all communication (Cook, 2001a). Teaching entirely in L2 was justified, according to Macaro (2001), because it makes the language real, allows learners to experience unpredictability, and develops the learners' own in-built language system.

While many people have begun to recognize the importance of L1 in the classroom, the absence of a systematic approach that deals with the issue of L1 use has its effects on teachers who are left reluctant and wondering when, why, and how to use L1. Despite L1 prohibition in the L2 classroom, teachers might use L1 at times leading to inconsistency in their approach, and may lead to other problems such as overuse. Therefore, it is important to address this issue so that L1 is carefully managed.

It is within this context that this research begins with the aim of investigating teachers' attitudes toward L1 use in teaching English, and practices they follow in their classrooms. The purpose is to find out to what extent the teachers' attitudes and views match how they practice teaching English. The following sections provide a brief description of the debated issue of L1 in EFL education, and describe the status of English in the UAE society and its language education.

An Issue under Debate

The use of learners' L1 in English language classrooms is one of the controversial issues in ESL/EFL education. In general, language learners and educators are discouraged from using L1 in their classrooms. There seems to be an on-going debate on this issue and a wide range of opinions. A review of the literature reveals two opposing views: On one end of the spectrum, there are those who believe that the primary language of instruction should be exclusively L2 and thus call for L1 prohibition (e.g. Ellis, 1985, 2005; Krashen, 1981; Polio & Duff, 1994). On the other end are those who believe L1 is a useful resource to students and teachers and thus promote its judicious use in education (e.g. Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001b; Harbord, 1992; Rinvolucri, 2002; Turnbull, 2001, 2002).

Researchers who reject L1 use believe that a new language is acquired only through maximum exposure (Ellis, 1985, 2005; Krashen, 1981; Polio & Duff, 1994). They believe that using L1 in the classroom deprives students of valuable opportunities to listen, use, negotiate , and process L2. Therefore, everything the teacher does or says provides an opportunity for learning. Recent findings , however, indicate that there has been a gradual move away from "English-only" in the classroom and that a judicious use of L1 may be a useful tool in L2 learning. One of the earliest voices who called for greater attention to the role of L1 in monolingual

classrooms was Atkinson (1987), who strongly supported its use, and believed it has a great potential as a classroom resource which deserves more consideration by TESOL specialists. Another recent argument that sparked attention to this issue came from Cook (2001b), who argued that L1 can be valuable in the classroom to promote language learning and to help create authentic L2 users. Many more arguments were put forth in recent years (Auerbach, 1993; Harbord, 1992; Schweers, 1999; Tang, 2002; Turnbull, 2001) all justifying the use of L1 in teaching L2. This has led to the re-opening of this controversial debate on the role and value of L1 in teaching L2.

English Language Teaching (ELT) in the UAE

The UAE is a truly multicultural and multilingual environment. The predominant languages in the UAE include Arabic, English, Urdu, Hindi, and Malayan. They are used in different domains and within their own ethnic communities. Although English has a special status in the UAE, it is the second most important language after Arabic. It is not only necessary for individual development, but also for the development of the whole country in all sectors including education, commerce, technology, international communication, and everyday life. "Policy makers have intrinsically linked development and modernization with English, and it is taught as a subject or across the curriculum at all levels" (Syed, 2003, p. 338).

In public schools, English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), while it is taught across the curriculum in the private schools and at the tertiary levels. English is a compulsory subject which is taught in public schools from grades 5 to 12. It is taught daily for 45 minute periods. English classes are the main environment where students use English and practice it. Teaching decisions and English curricula are set by the UAE Ministry of Education which regulates all academic policies. It is necessary to pass English in order to graduate from secondary school and to proceed further in higher education. According to the UAE Ministry of Education, English must be taught using "English-only" in the classroom, thus the use of Arabic (L1) is prohibited in the English language classrooms.

The education system in the UAE public schools consists of three levels: Elementary, preparatory, and secondary. The distribution of years for each level includes six years for elementary, three for preparatory, and three for secondary, which is a total of twelve. The age for starting school is between six and seven. The

series of textbooks used in public schools is called *English for the Emirates*.
Materials consist of teachers' and pupils' books. They are also supplemented by a
range of audio materials supplied by the Ministry of Education to teach listening.
Also, teachers rely on a wide range of techniques to teach structure by making use of
visual aids and technology such as overhead projectors and Power Point presentations.
The English language teaching staff at public schools is made up of Arab nationals,
whereas it consists of large number of expatriate teachers at the tertiary level. "While
most teachers at the tertiary level are North Americans, Britons, and Australians, with
some Arab nationals, English at the school levels, from K-12, is taught by Egyptians,
Palestinians, Jordanians, and other Arab nationals" (Syed, 2003, p. 338). Another
characteristic of public schools and public universities is that they are gender
segregated in contrast with private schools or international universities. In public
schools, female schools are taught by female teachers and male schools are taught by
male teachers.

L1 in the English Language Classrooms in the UAE

The English language classrooms in the UAE public schools are truly teacher-
centered. The relationship between students and teachers is based on respect and
dependency. The teacher is seen as the highest authority figure. According to Kharma
and Hajjaj (1989), L2 learners in the whole region of the Arab world and the UAE as
well have rich experiences in the past with examples of using Arabic (L1) in English
(L2) classrooms. In these classrooms the use of translation as a teaching method or as
a learning method is very common and it is used at all levels, beginning, advanced,
and even at tertiary. Recently however, with its continuous attempt to improve the
curriculum, the UAE Ministry of Education prohibited L1 use in English classrooms
and the monolingual approach or the "English-only" policy has been implemented in
all school districts. This means that the Direct Method is the dominant teaching
method used in public and private schools in the UAE. Accordingly, language
learners and teachers are taught and trained not to use L1 in the classroom.

Even with this restriction on L1 use in the English language classrooms, many
teachers are under the impression that L1 prohibition is loosely enforced. For
example, teachers and students have reported that the students are most likely to use
their L1 to understand new vocabulary and to intuitively compare new structures in

4

L2 with equivalent L1 structures. Also, many have reported that teachers are reluctant to use L1 and their inclination not to use L1 comes from fear of their administration that strictly imposes this ban.

The Purpose of the Study

During my experience as a language teacher and learner, I was trained not to use L1 in the L2 classroom. Nevertheless, my experience with learning and teaching foreign languages has helped me to understand that dismissing L1 totally may not be warranted. Using L1 sensibly may lead to accurate learning of abstract concepts and vocabulary, and more efficient use of time for teaching, thus allowing the teachers to cover other materials that students need.

Recently, interest in the role of L1 in L2 learning stems from my personal experience as a tutor at the American University of Sharjah Writing Center. At times during tutorials, I used Arabic (L1) with students when I needed to emphasize a point, to give a quick translation of a word, or to raise awareness of the differences in the writing styles of English and Arabic. The use of Arabic (L1) seemed to be helpful to my students as it gave them a head start, and they seemed to gain quick insight into how each language works. It also saved a lot of time given that tutorials are short in nature. The issue of whether or not to use L1 in teaching is worth examining because a systematic approach toward a judicious use of L1 is needed to provide appropriate answers to reluctant teachers and administrators who feel uneasy about using L1. The question is whether L1 can be used as an additional learning and teaching resource, and as an option in the hands of teachers and students who would like to have it in their repertoire of teaching. Understanding that L1 is beneficial when used in the right context may change the negative attitudes and diminish the reluctance that policy makers, administrators, and language teachers presently hold. It is hoped that this study will provide educators and teachers with insight regarding the use of L1 in teaching a foreign language.

Also this research hopes to draw attention to the value and qualifications of non-native teachers who can contribute their knowledge of L1 to enhance the learning of L2. These teachers have often been labeled as less valuable because of their non-native status. Instead, by understanding the role of L1 in teaching, non-native teachers may be empowered and may gain confidence knowing that they themselves

are successful language learners who overcame L2 obstacles. As stated by Rinvolucri (2001), "it is professionally weak not to know the language of the learners" (p. 12).

Research Questions

This research originally set out to explore the uses of Arabic (L1) in English language (L2) classrooms. In particular, it aimed to address the following questions:

1. What goes on in the English language classrooms? Do teachers actually use Arabic L1 in their teaching?

2. What are the situations that prompt teachers to use Arabic (L1) in their teaching English (L2)?

3. What are the perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students toward the use of Arabic in their English classrooms? Do attitudes match classroom practice?

Initial observations conducted at a private School in Sharjah, UAE revealed that Arabic (L1) was not being used in the English language classrooms. Further investigation confirmed that Arabic was prohibited by the school administration. The school principal acknowledged that the teaching of English in private schools implements the "English only" paradigm, which is recognized as the only successful means of teaching a foreign language. This finding is consistent with similar conclusions of a study made by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) who observed that the Direct Method is implemented successfully in private schools in the Arab region. As a result, a decision to change school and pursue classroom observations in a public school was taken.

Classroom observations were resumed at a public school in Sharjah to investigate whether or not teachers use Arabic (L1) in their English language classrooms. However, just as in the private schools, initial observations confirmed that public schools also followed the "English only" paradigm. A discussion with the school's principal revealed that public schools follow curriculum regulations set by the UAE Ministry of Education, which prohibit the use of Arabic (L1) in English language classroom. As a result, the first two questions regarding whether or not teachers use Arabic (L1) in L2 classrooms, and what are the situations that prompt them to use Arabic (L1) in their teaching L2 became irrelevant. Consequently, it was necessary to revise the focus of this research to what strategies and techniques teachers employ to teach English without the use of Arabic (L1). Particularly,

classroom observations were focused on the teaching of vocabulary, since the area of vocabulary is supposed to benefit from the use of L1.

Toward this end, this research was resumed to address the following questions:

1. What are the perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students toward the use of Arabic (L1) in their English language (L2) classrooms?

2. Are there any differences in opinion among teachers and students regarding the usefulness of L1 in L2 teaching?

3. How do teachers teach vocabulary without recourse to L1?

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

The issue of whether or not to use the learners' first language (L1) in the second/foreign language (L2) classroom in not new, yet it still generates interest and controversy. The debate on the role of L1 in L2 classrooms was renewed with the publications of two articles by two prominent scholars, namely, Cook, (2001b) and Turnbull, (2001) who argued that L1 should be incorporated in education and that it can be used as a resource to further students' proficiency in L2. They differed, however, as to the extent to which it should be used.

The view toward L1 use in L2 teaching has varied depending on the method in vogue. A look into the history of methodology reveals that L1 use underwent cyclical fluctuations over the years. L1 was viewed in different ways depending on the prevailing methodological framework of different periods. While the use of L1 in the classroom flourished during the Grammar-Translation Method, it was discouraged and even stigmatized after the introduction of the Direct Method at the turn of the 20th century (Anton & Dicamilla, 1999). Consequently, the "English-only" in the classroom became the dominant and favored paradigm in L2 classroom and research. Also, in the 1990s it was argued that the less L1 is used in the classroom, the better the teaching. According to Cook (2001a) the English National Curriculum confirmed this idea by stating that "the natural use of the target language for virtually all communication is a sure sign of a good modern language course" (Cook, 2001a, p. 153). This encouraged the avoidance of L1 use in the classroom even further, and L1 ban was taken for granted. According to Cook, "this anti-L1 attitude was clearly a mainstream element in twentieth-century language teaching methodology" (Cook, 2001b, p. 4).

Lately, however, there has been a gradual questioning of the "English-only" in the classroom. Skeptics of the ban argued that there were no concrete pedagogical justifications for L1 avoidance except for ideological or political reasons, as well as for convenience reasons, especially when the teacher does not speak the language of the students (Auerbach, 1993).

The Place of L1 in Methodology

Some methods gave L1 a central role in the classroom while others doubted its importance or questioned its role. For example, L1 was the language of instruction during the Grammar-Translation Method because language teaching placed heavy emphasis on the written word. However, in the 20th century the trend reversed itself to meet the goals of language teaching which shifted toward an emphasis on the spoken word. Therefore, L2 was the only medium of instruction during the Direct Method. Therefore, according to Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) the role of L1 was emphasized according to the theory of language teaching, and the theory of language learning underlying each approach.

The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was the oldest method which emerged at the end of the nineteenth century. It was also called the classical method because people wanted to learn foreign languages such as Latin and Greek. Teaching was based on comparisons between two languages; therefore translation was considered the best technique for learning a foreign language. Its focus was on linguistic description of ancient languages and on explaining grammar. Accordingly, learning grammatical rules were emphasized along with memorization of vocabulary, translations of texts, and written exercises (Brown, 2001). As stated by Larsen-Freeman, "The meaning of the target language was made clear by translating it into the students' native language" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 18). The students' native language was used as a reference point to make sure L2 grammatical rules and vocabulary were fully understood. Teaching grammar of the new language received maximal attention, while speaking and listening were not given much attention. Later, the Grammar-Translation Method became the focus of heavy criticism and was regarded as responsible for the failure of foreign language learning. According to Brown (2001), "it did virtually nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language" (p. 19).

The Direct Method emerged in reaction to the Grammar-Translation Method. It gained immediate popularity because the goal of instruction was to teach a foreign language to communicate. According to Larsen-Freeman (2000) it was founded on one basic rule: "No translation is allowed" (p. 23). Larsen-Freeman added that the Direct Method received its name from the fact that meaning was to be conveyed

directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids with no recourse to the students' native language. According to Brown (2001), the Direct Method drew on the assumption that "second language learning should be more like first language learning – lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation between the first and second languages, and no analysis of grammatical rules" (p. 21). Consequently, proponents of the Direct Method argued that teaching a foreign language should be achieved without recourse to L1, and all classroom interaction should be carried out using other strategies to convey meaning such as modeling, practice, demonstration, visual aids, drawings, realia, etc. For example, teaching speaking could be achieved by relating the words of the new language to their referents in the outside world (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989).

The Direct Method was very popular at the beginning of the 20th century, and it was widely accepted in private schools where students were highly motivated and where native-speaking teachers could be hired. However, it was not so successful in public schools because of budget limitations, class size, time, and teachers' background. Also its focus on oral skills of another language was not very practical. It was also criticized for its weak theoretical foundations. Brown noted that "Its success may have been more a factor of the skill and personality of the teacher than of the methodology" (Brown, 2001, p. 22).

These two approaches presented two extreme positions. Other approaches that stood half way between the two extremes included the Audio Lingual Method (ALM) and the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The Audio-Lingual Method came as an extension to the Direct Method. According to Brown," the Audio-Lingual Method was a redirected and a revived version of the Direct Method" (Brown, 2001, p. 22). It gained significance and became an influential approach in the 1950s. It was developed as a result of findings from linguistics, anthropology and most importantly the behaviorist (habit-formation) theory of learning. Its fundamentals included that language learning was a process of habit formation based on repetition, practice, and drilling, until accuracy was reached and errors did not occur. It was argued that the stronger the habit the greater the learning. "The behavior of the teacher and the techniques she used provided students with a good model that needed to be learned through imitation and forming correct habits from the start" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 43). The teacher presented the structure and the students practiced and produced

similar structure as accurately as possible. This step was repeated until errors did not occur.

ALM was criticized because students were able to identify linguistic structures but were unable to use the language. Educators noted that being able to communicate in a foreign language required more than understanding linguistic structures. In the 1970s, the Communicative Language teaching (CLT) replaced ALM and emphasized communicative fluency instead of linguistic accuracy production. The philosophy of the communicative approach relie d on students' exposure to authentic samples of language to help them learn and understand language as it was actually used (Swan, 1985). CLT did not allow the use of the students' native language. It emphasized that the target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for explaining activities, and assigning homework. Larsen-Freeman (2000), noted that "students learn from classroom management exchanges, and realize that the target language a vehicle for communication not just an object to be studied" (p. 132).

In contrast, other approaches ga ve L1 a significant role. These included the humanistic, or the "designer" methods of the 1970s , a term borrowed from Nunan (1989, as cited in Brown, 2001, p. 24). The Community Language Learning (CLL), which was based on Curran's (1972) counseling-learning model of education, placed extensive emphasis on L1. In the 1970s, the affective domain was increasingly recognized, and this method was developed as an example of an affectively based method (Brown, 2001). The classroom was not regarded as a "class" but as a "group" whose members were encouraged to learn from each other in a non competitive manner. Developing a community among the class members built trust and could help reduce the threat of the new learning situation. Students' security was enhanced by using their native language so as to provide a bridge from the familiar to the unfamiliar (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). So classroom directions, instructions, and literal translations were conducted using students' first language. In this sense, CLL resemble d the Grammar Translation Method in its use of translation and explanation, but differed on the emphasis. While the Grammar-Translation method drew on explaining grammar and describing languages, CLL emphasized language as a social process involving people in contact.

Other humanistic or designer methods of the 1970s that gave a role to the students' first language included the Total Physical Response (Asher, 1977), the

Silent Way (Gattegno, 1972), the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), and Suggestopedia (Lozanov, 1979).

Total Physical Response (TPR) and the Natural Approach shared with the Direct Method its interest in basing L2 learning on the same process of L1 acquisition. Both of them emphasized the comprehensible input that was provided by the teacher which should be understandable to the learner or just a little beyond the learner's level. The idea of TPR was based on observing children who do a lot of listening before they speak and their listening is accompanied by physical responses such as reaching, grabbing, moving, looking, etc. (Brown: 2001) . The principles of TPR were based on listening carefully to teachers' instruction and responding physically by performing the actions. The meaning of the target language was conveyed through actions, and the memory was activated through learners' responses. Larsen-Freeman (2000) noted that 'TPR was usually introduced in the students' native language; after that, the native language was rarely used, and the meaning was made clear through body movements" (p. 115).

Krashen & Terrell's Natural Approach was based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the use of the native language, thus learners were not allowed to speak until they have acquired sufficient L2 competence for speaking. The Natural Approach suggested that learning takes place at three stages: "the preproduction which is marked by listening, the early production marked by errors, and extending production involving role play, complex games, open-ended dialogues, discussion, and group work" (Brown, 2001, p. 31).

To sum up, the role and value of L1 in the L2 classroom had many ups and downs depending on the prevailing methodological framework of different periods. While the Direct Method saw no place whatsoever for L1 in the classroom, and the Audio-Lingual Method thought L1 was a source of interference with students' attempts to learn the target language, other methods especially the Grammar-Translation Method and the designer methods regarded L1 as useful. In fact, the designer methods of the seventies gave a clear role to the use of mother tongue in the classroom, which was regarded as a source to overcome negative feelings and anxiety caused by learning a new language. Recently, the Natural Approach became predominant and the use of L1 was not encouraged.

The following section presents a description of arguments, which were put forward against L1 use in teaching L2. These arguments, which came from research

on second language acquisition provide d justification for the rejection of L1 and supported the monolingual approach, or "English-only" paradigm in teaching L2.

Theoretical Arguments against L1 Use

The history and philosophy behind the avoidance of L1 in the L2 classroom and the development of teaching strategies around the traditional "English-only" in the classroom can be traced to three main arguments from second language acquisition research (SLA), outlined by Cook (2001a, p. 154). These theoretical justifications include:

1. The L1 acquisition argument: L2 learning should model L1 acquisition in that children learning L1 do not fall back on another language.
2. The language compartmentalization argument: The L1 and L2 should be kept separate at all times.
3. The communicative approach: Students should be exposed to L2 and see its importance through its continual use.

1. The L1 Acquisition Argument

According to the L1 acquisition argument, learning of L2 should model the learning of L1. It was argued that since children acquire d L 1 through maximum exposure to L2, and without another language to fall back on, L2 learners should acquire L2 in the same way without referenc e to another language. Therefore teaching L2 should be based on the characteristics of L1 acquisition.

As a result, many teaching methods were founded based on the L1 acquisition argument. For example, Total Physical Response simulated the stages of infants' experiences in acquiring the first language in a highly speeded up pace (Cook, 2001b). Other teaching methods which supported the L1 acquisition argument include d Krashen's Natural Approach, and Krashen's Comprehensible Input. Krashen's Natural Approach suggested that people learning foreign languages followed basically the same route as they acquired their mother tongue, so the use of the mother tongue in the learning process should be minimized. Also Krashen's Comprehensible Input called for learning L2 by means of a maximized L2 input which can become comprehensible through negotiation of meaning. He considered that learners negotiate meaning through the use of conversational devices such as

13

repetition and clarification requests, and thus the input becomes comprehensible and learning takes place.

The claim that a second language was acquired through maximum exposure to L2 input became one of the most powerful pedagogical claims against the use of L1 in L2 classrooms, which found a lot of support in the literature. Krashen adopted a very strong position against L1 use in teaching L2. He asserted that "students acquire a new language only in one way, which is by exposure to comprehensible input" (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 39). Krashen also emphasized surrounding students with a rich L2 environment where they would not be deprived from hearing or interacting in L2. Thus a teacher must create enough opportunities for students to interact in L2 and to allow them to produce written and spoken output. In general, according to Krashen (1981) "the more exposure they receive, the more, and faster they will learn" (Krashen 1981, as cited in Ellis, 2005, p. 10).

Empirical research provided additional discouragement for the use of L1 in L2 classrooms as noted by the works of Duff & Polio (1994). They investigated instructors' use of L2 in 13 different university level language classes. They found that instructors used L1 in many administrative situations in which the L2 could have been used. In their opinion, using L1 in these situations deprived students of many good opportunities to hear and process the language for a range of communicative functions. They concluded that students were not engaged in meaningful interaction in the FL during class time, and instructors often dealt with communication breakdown by switching to L1 rather than negotiating in the L2.

Turnbull (2002) considered maximizing L2 in the classroom as a "favorite practice" especially in EFL situations where teachers were often the students' primary source of linguistic input. Turnbull explained that "maximize" meant "optimal exposure to L2" where students needed to be exposed to L2 input if they were expected to learn. Students needed to be given maximum opportunities to produce and interact in L2 only. Turnbull recommended that teachers must aim to make maximum use of L2 during classes especially when students did not encounter L2 outside the classroom. Turnbull cited cases in point such as "core French in Canada, Spanish instruction in the east coast of the USA, or EFL instruction in most parts of the Middle East." He added in these contexts the teacher was often the only linguistic model for the students and their main source of L2 input (Turnbull 2002, p. 207).

Likewise, Cook (2001a) observed that the teacher's language can be the prime model for true communication. She emphasized that coming to the L2 classroom and saying "good morning," represented a real use of language for communicative purposes. Also, explaining grammar in English, such as talking about something in the past that was still relevant to the present moment, one should use the present perfect. Additionally, telling the students to turn their chairs around and instructing them to work in groups gives them real opportunities to use L2. Cook concluded that hearing all this through L1 would deprive students of genuine examples of language use. Cook added that the "use of L2 for everyday classroom communication sets a tone for the class that influences much that happens in the L2 activities" (p.153).

Similarly, Ellis (1985; 1994; 2005) adopted a strong position against L1 use in the classroom. He explained that "to maximize use of L2 in the classroom ideally means that the L2 needs to become the medium as well as the object of instruction" (Ellis, 2005, p. 10). He described a study conducted at Aukland secondary schools which revealed that teachers of French, German, Japanese and Korean used L2 between 88% to 22% of the total L2 input. He criticized this variation in the extent of L2 use in EFL classrooms, and recommended that all classroom interaction between teachers and students should be conducted in L2. He emphasized that "everything the teacher does or says in the L2 classroom provides an opportunity for learning the new language, and the use of L1 deprives students from valuable opportunities to use, communicate, and process L2" (p.10). Ellis called for more use of L2 for classroom management because these were common functions of classroom communication. He also advised teachers to create opportunities for students to receive L2 input outside the classroom such as encouraging graded extensive reading programs appropriate for the levels of students.

Cook (2001b) criticized the L1 acquisition argument as not valid. She argued that if L1 was to be avoided, it had to be for other reasons than the way children learn their L1. She added that there were many parallels and many differences between L1 and L2 acquisition. They were parallels since both take place in the human mind and both were driven by communicative and social needs. The differences included different linguistic systems between learners which have been shaped and influenced by many factors such as background experiences, motivation, and goals for learning. The goals of L1 acquisition and L2 learning, which were treated as identical was not convincing. In the case of children, they achieve native speaker competence in one

language, and L2 achieve competence in more using more than one language (Cook, 2001b). Cook concluded that the comparison of L1 and L2 acquisition revealed the unconvincing nature of such model. L2 learners have more mature minds, greater social development, and larger memory capacity. There were other important variables affecting the learning processes, such as age, situation, and differences introduced by prior knowledge of first language. Therefore it was unlikely that L2 acquisition was similar to L1. Cook agreed with Dodson (1985) who stated that the argument for avoiding L1 based on L1 acquisition was not in itself convincing because it seemed the same as suggesting that "since babies do not play golf, we should not teach golf to adults" (As cited in Cook, 2001b, p. 5).

2. The Language Compartmentalization Argument

This argument assumed that the two languages were in different parts of the mind and therefore L2 learners must keep the L1 and L2 as separate entities. It entailed developing a second language by learning to use it independently of the first language, and eventually to think in it. Therefore, L1 was not needed during the process of learning a second language because it had a separate system. Supporters of the monolingual approach believed that "The native language and the target language have separate linguistic systems; they should be kept apart so that the students' native language interferes as little as possible with the students' attempt to acquire the target language" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 42).

Support for keeping the two languages apart came from research findings in the literature which also disapproved of heavy reliance on translation and regarded it as a poor learning and teaching technique. Atkinson (1987) argued that excessive dependency of L1 use created problems such as failing to observe distinctions between equivalence of form, meaning, and pragmatic features, and therefore, students tended to oversimplify to the point of using inaccurate translation. More research findings supported keeping the two languages apart and claimed that a word-for-word translation did not exist between languages. It was argued that some words did not translate well, or simply did not exist. For example, Arabic language has different concepts of time, and consequently has different vocabulary words to express that. For instance, Arabic has two words for evening time, *Maghreb* and *Isha*, whereas English has only one word: *evening*. Such Arabic time words may pose a problem if translated word-for-word because in Arabic one starts earlier than the

16

other. As a result, translation as a method to teach L2 was discouraged and the idea of keeping the two language systems apart was promoted further.

The claim that L1 should be avoided based on the language compartmentalization argument was criticized as not to be valid. Cook advocated that the policy of avoiding L1 assumed that the only valid form of L2 learning was coordinate bilingualism which kept the two languages apart, thus excluding compound bilinguals, who have one meaning system from which both languages operate, just as in code switching. According to Cook, language teaching that worked with realities was more likely to succeed than teaching that worked against it. Stern (1992) also noted, 'The L1-L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life" (as cited in Cook, 2001b). Keeping the two languages apart in language teaching was contradicted by the invisible processes in the students' minds. Cook (2001a) argued that even if the two languages were distinct in theory, in practice they were interwoven in terms of phonology, vocabulary, syntax and sentence processing. She criticized coordinate bilingual training as making it hard for L2 students who needed skills to mediate between two languages rather than staying entirely in the L2. She claimed if the aim of learning a language was to improve the students' minds cognitively, emotionally, and socially, then L2 should not be insulated from the rest of the mind.

3. The L2 Communicative Approach Argument

Another argument that came from research on second language acquisition, which supported the exclusion of L1 from L2 classroom, came from supporters of the Communicative Approach. The Communicative Approach believed that monolingual teaching was the best way to learn a language. Communicative researchers, not only believed in the use of L2 as the medium of teaching, but many others also believed that L1 use actually interfered with L2 learning and brought about "error transference," which prevented learning.

In fact, one of the major adoptions of the communicative approach to language teaching involved the avoidance of the learners' L1 and the adoption of the idea of maximized L2 input, in which classroom activities were designed to maximize learners' use of the target language (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). It was justified on the grounds that maximizing communication in L2 was particularly important in EFL classrooms, where teachers were often the main source of L2 input. Therefore, it

was argued that the teacher who used L1 in the classroom was wasting a golden opportunity by depriving students of the only true experience of the L2 that they may encounter (Ellis, 1994). Also, Cook noted that the "cliché that you learn English by speaking English," became very popular, and teachers and students embraced it (Cook, 2001a, 153). Accordingly, teachers emphasized in their teaching that a new language was acquired only through maximum exposure to L2 input, and they tried to use L2 for all kinds of communication. Caroll (1975) found a direct correlation between foreign language achievement and the teachers' use of the target language (as cited in Turnbull, 2002, p. 205). Turnbull (2002) regarded this finding as the most persuasive theoretical rationale for maximizing the teachers' use of TL in the classroom. Also, proponents of the communicative approach believed that using the monolingual approach demonstrated the importance of L2 for successful communication. They claimed that the students needed to experience L2 in a meaningful way, and the only way to do so was to demonstrate its importance by using it exclusively in the classroom, and by creating a variety of activities for the purpose of using language in authentic contexts.

Implications for language teaching were extended to emphasize that the ideal model for English teaching was the native speaker (NS), and that the goal of language learners should aim at emulating the native speaker. Phillipson (1992) argued that this belief became very common, and it was indeed identical to the claim that English was best taught monolingually. He added that both tenets privileged the interests of the dominant groups and reinforced inequalities. The concept of the native speaker as the perfect model for teaching English was so powerful that it was hardly challenged. Its dominance was obvious in many ways: Literature concerning language teaching used terms like "native speaker competence," "native-like proficiency," or "native-like" (Murakami, 2001, p. 2). Also, job ads in papers proclaimed that their programs were taught by native speakers, or qualified native teachers. Braine (1999) admitted that native speakers of English were more likely to be hired as ESL/EFL teachers even without qualifications, than qualified and experienced non-native speakers (NNS) especially outside the United States. Hawks stated the pedagogical rationale for using native speakers to include their fluency and better knowledge of English in terms of their appreciation of the cultural connotations of the language. Ellis (1985) argued that very few NNS are ever able to achieve full fluency equal to that of NS. Phillipson (1992) disagreed, and pointed out that the advantages that a NS might

have, can be acquired by a NNS through training. He described speakers of more than one language as having a sophisticated awareness of language, and ability to relate to students' needs. Nevertheless, some NNS teachers have reported that many of their students resented being taught by a non-native speaker until they were able to prove they were as effective as a native-English-speaking teacher.

The native speaker phenomenon has been recently questioned. Cook (2001b) argued that language teaching should adopt the successful L2 user rather than the native speaker as a model for the L2 learner. Cook added that second language teaching should stop aiming for native speakers and should stop considering L2 learner as "deficient" native speakers. Instead they should be viewed in their own rights. Cook claimed that language learning would benefit from paying attention to the L2 user by promoting their positive image as successful L2 learners, and by using L1 in teaching activities to facilitate learning. Medgyes (1994) also identified strengths of NNS to include: effective providers of learning strategies, better anticipators of language learning difficulties, being sensitive to language learners' needs, and facilitators of language learning as a result of a shared mother tongue.

To sum up, the three arguments presented above relied on a comparison of concepts that were ultimately unequal Cook (2001b) believed that Learning L2 was neither L1 acquisition nor L2 users were the same as L1 users. Cook claimed that avoiding L1 in L2 classrooms based on these three arguments had no theoretical rationale. She concluded that it was an anti-L1 attitude, which prevented language teaching from looking rationally at ways in which L1 can be involved in the classroom in a systematic way.

Practical Arguments against L1 Use

The avoidance of L1 in L2 education was taken for granted by most teaching methods and consequently by teachers and language professionals. Given the theoretical justifications for the avoidance of L1 in L2 classrooms, which were made by second language acquisition theories, there were additional practical or ideological reasons that promoted this neglect even further. They included the following:

1. The association of L1 with the Grammar-Translation Method
2. Multicultural classrooms
3. Ideological perspectives

1. The Association of L1 with the Grammar-Translation Method

The close association of L1 with the Grammar-Translation Method of language teaching, which was heavily criticized as being uncommunicative, represented a powerful ideological reason to promote the avoidance of L1 in L2 education. Accordingly, the use of L1 was discouraged, even stigmatized, and regarded as a reminder of an approach which alluded to an era that has fallen out of interest. Cunningham (2000) argued that translation was acceptable when the goal for learning a foreign language was to read literature in L2. However, when the emphasis on learning a foreign language changed from the written word to the spoken, the trend changed for language teaching also. A shift toward the spoken word and language communication was adopted, especially with the introduction of the Direct Method that replaced the Grammar-Translation Method.

The arguments that were put forward against translation helped further discourage L1 use, and associated it with a method that was heavily criticized. Some of the arguments against L1 included its use in L2 classes as a "crutch," and as a "threat that L2 class may become an L1 class with some L2 thrown in for decoration" (Folse, 2004. p. 61). Folse (2004) added that some use of L1 might be useful, but he advised teachers to maintain L2 use in the class so that students would try to speak it. He admitted that students would not try to speak L2 if teachers "did not stomp out the use of L1 in English class" (p. 61). He also admitted that during his early years of teaching when he was not sure of how to handle the use of L1, he often used Spanish in his ESL classes, until two non-Spanish speaking students complained to the director. He conceded that these students were right that the class should be taught with a great deal of English input. However, Folse believes that there was a need for a systematic approach to deal with L1 in the classroom to avoid situations where teachers were reluctant or unsure how to handle L1 in their teaching.

2. Multicultural Classrooms

Perhaps the most powerful argument in favor of the monolingual approach was multicultural classrooms. The emphasis on teaching English through "English-only" due to multicultural and multilingual classrooms was quite a convincing argument against L1 use. However, this situation applied to ESL classrooms which was found mainly in the US and other inner circle settings, and did not apply to EFL classrooms in the rest of the world. Multilingual classrooms helped educators "refocus

their lessons from smaller translation oriented classes to bigger classes and most importantly from students with a common L1 to students with a mixed L1" (Hawks, 2001, p. 47). The only way to teach multicultural classrooms was to use the L2 as the medium of teaching.

Classes with different mother tongues presented a compelling reason to avoid L1 because it seemed the right thing to do when students spoke several languages. It seemed to be inappropriate to speak L1 with one party of students who shared the same L1 with the teacher and excluded other parties who might feel isolated or left out. Cunningham acknowledged the arguments, which were made against the use of L1 in multilingual classroom, as valid. She stated, "L1 ineffectiveness was seen in classes consisting of students with different mother tongues" (Cunningham, 2000, p. 2). In such multilingual ESL contexts, interacting with some students using their L1 might alienate other students in the class who did not speak that L1. Also, as Krieger pointed out that "the teacher's job is to serve as a model of fairness and neutrality, and interacting with some students using their L1 can cause all students in the class to feel that speaking English is not a high priority. So using only English is the surest way to achieve this in a multilingual classroom" (Krieger, 2005, p.4).

In addition, as English became the predominant language in the world, the increased need for English teachers assisted in the development of ELT as a casual career for young people visiting Europe. This in turn justified the necessity of using only English in EFL classrooms taught by monolingual English speakers. The "English-only" was very desirable because many teachers themselves were monolingual. They did they perceive the need to speak the L1 of their students. Tang (2002) argued that the prominent authors of most introductory books on SLA were themselves native speakers of English, so the issue on students' first language did not concern them because their classrooms were comprised of multilingual groups of students, and they did not need to know the students' first language. By enforcing an English-only policy, the teacher could assume control of the class, and would naturally be in a position of strength. Harbord (1992) argued that the multicultural classrooms which were formed as a result of colonialism and mass immigration from Europe to the US combined with the appearance of the Direct Method reinforced the avoidance of L1 even further. Harbord further explained that "The subsequent growth of a British-based teacher training movement out of the need to provide training for teachers working with multilingual classes served to reinforce the avoidance of L1"

(Harbord, 1992, p. 350). As Swan (1985) pointed out, "The "English-only" in the classroom has made it possible for us to teach English all over the world without the disagreeable necessity of having to learn other languages" (Swan, 1985, p. 85).

3. Ideological Perspectives

The consequences of the implementation of "English-only" policy and the introduction of the Direct Method were felt on L1 use. This rejection of L1 was reflected in the works of prominent authors of some introductory books or courses in TEFL. Some authors ignored it totally, while others mentioned it as a source of interference, or referred to it casually. The majority cautioned against its use and emphasized that a new language was acquired only through maximum exposure to L2 input. According to Atkinson (1987) the courses designed for non-native speaking teachers ignored L1 entirely. Examples of these introductory books included Hubbard et al. (1983), Haycraft (1978), Harmer (1983), Ellis (1994) (as cited in Tang, 2002, p. 37). Atkinson (1987) added that "The implications of this gap in the literature were responsible for the uneasiness which many teachers felt about using or permitting the use of students' native language in the classroom" (Atkinson, 1987, p. 241).Phillipson (1992) argued that there were no justifications for implementing the "English-only" in L2 classrooms except for political reasons. He believed that the development of ELT as a profession in the late 1950s was a direct response to political imperatives which were traced to British colonial policies. English was seen as a component for advancement and development of infrastructure of the new colonies. A conference held at Makere University in Uganda in 1961 expressed the relationship between developed and developing countries through the ways ELT expertise to be shared. Five basic tenets emerged from this conference which presented the cornerstones of the domination of English worldwide (phillipson, 1992).
These tenets included:

1. English was best taught monolingually
2. The ideal teacher was the native speaker of English
3. English was better taught early to achieve better results
4. The more English was taught the better the results
5. If other languages were used, standard of English would drop.

Phillipson argued that these tenets became the cornerstones for ELT language teaching and have come to be natural and commonsense despite challenges by research. Accordingly, those who used L1 were criticized as doing something wrong. Auerbach pointed out that "despite the widespread opposition to the English-only movement and the support for bilingual education and advocacy for language rights, many U.S. ESL educators continue to uphold the notion that English is the only acceptable medium of communication within the confines of the ESL classroom" (Auerbach, 1993, p. 9).

In conclusion, there was consensus among many researchers that "English-only" should be used as the primary medium of instruction. However, the reality in the classroom demonstrated that L1 was likely to be used by teachers and students. In the following section, arguments that support L1 use in L2 classrooms are presented.

Arguments in Favor of L1 Use

While most would agree that the more English was used in the classroom the quicker the students learned, some argued that the use of L1 in certain situations was a justified strategy to facilitate teaching L2. Atkinson (1987) was among the first to support strongly the use of L1 in L2 teaching especially in monolingual classrooms. He offered three reasons which justified a limited use of L1 in certain situations which include:

1. An efficient use of time
2. Humanistic reasons
3. Translation as the learners' preferred strategy.
4. Nation (2003) added a fourth important role of L1 use in L2 environments, especially for teaching vocabulary.

Some of the arguments that were put forward by researchers to promote the use of L1 in L2 classrooms included the followings:

1. Vocabulary learning and translation

Nations's recommendation for learning L2 vocabulary through translation constituted a powerful argument in favor of L1 use in learning L2. Nation (2003) stated that "The direct learning of L2 vocabulary using word cards with their L1 translations is a very effective method of learning" (Nation, 2003, p. 7). Nation

emphasized that learning vocabulary was faster for many learners if the meaning of a word was given through an L1 translation first. He also advised teachers if they felt that a meaning based L2 task was beyond the capabilities of learners, to provide a small amount of L1 discussion because it could help overcome some of the obstacles.

Likewise, Folse (2004) acknowledged that translation gave learners instant information about the basic meanings of the L2 word. He believed that "perhaps the simplest of all definitions is an L1 translation" (Folse, 2004, p. 61). He also recognize d that "more and more research is showing that learning new vocabulary with translatio ns is in fact a very good way to learn new vocabulary" (Folse, 2004, p. 66). Folse dismissed the myth associated with translation as a poor way to learn new vocabulary by reporting on his own language experience learning Japanese. Folse presented his ow n experience during taking a Japanese intensive course in a remote area in Japan to illustrate the importance of translation. He described an incident when his teacher was trying to explain a new verb tense using many examples to convey meaning. All stude nts seemed to understand except him. He was not sure what the teacher was trying to say. The teacher kept talking about nice food, the way it looked and how small it was, which made him more confused. He was not sure whether the teacher was talking about food, a meal, a box of food, a plate, or an amount of food. The teacher explained it for the third time, and the class became restless, and he felt more uncomfortable because it was clear that he was the only one holding up the class. He became so frustrate d until a student told him it was a kind of "hors d'oeuvre." With that explanation everything became clear. He concluded "Once translation was provided, the teacher repeated her story, and everything made perfectly good sense." He was able to absorb the story and focus on grammar point being illustrated in the story. Folse provided this example to demonstrate usefulness of translation in beginning learning contexts. He concluded that "Translations are not bad. It is what most students do. I learned the hard way that a brief translation of a key concept at the right time can be invaluable" (Folse, 2004, p. 60).

Further support for translation c ame from Atkinson (1987), who argued that translation techniques were "the learners' preferred strategies" which cannot be ignored or underestimated (Atkinson, 1987). Atkinson argued that since translation was a natural phenomenon and inevitable part of L2 acquisition, therefore, methodology should attempt to work with this natural tendency rather than against it. Furthermore, he claimed that beginner and low intermediate level learners

unconsciously attempted to equate L2 vocabulary and structure with their L1 equivalent even when teachers do not permit translation or offer it. Allowing translation to be used as a comprehension check has been cited as effective and thus recommended as a comprehension check. Moreover, the use of translation has been justified by most teachers as a strategy which saved time.

However, translation as a teaching technique was heavily criticized. An evaluation of most translation used in the classrooms revealed that it involved single lexical items translated out of context. This kind of translation gave a wrong signal to students. They learned that word for word translation was a useful technique. Thus, it was advisable to use an alternative L2 strategy wherever was possible. Some effective techniques included "visual prompts, mime, and eliciting language by evoking situational context to create a need for the item in question together with paraphrase, definition, and multiple exemplifications" (Harbord, 1992, p. 354).

2. Affective Reasons

The use of L1 in the L2 classroom was justified as a valuable humanistic element in the classroom. Auerbach (1993) advised that "the way one approaches a task is likely to affect one's chances of success" (Auerbach, 1993, p. 29). Her claim presented a strong argument in favor of L1 use in the classroom for affective reasons. She believed that "starting with the L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners lived experiences allowing them to express themselves; the learner is then willing to experiment and take risks in English" (Auerbach, 1993, p. 9). Her belief came as a result of a study which described the situation of immigrant ESL learners studying in the USA,. Some students abandoned their studies primarily because L2 was used exclusively in the classroom which caused them a lot of anxiety. She concluded that some use of L1 may have helped those students and kept them in classes. She added that the avoidance of L1 in the classroom has no pedagogical justification except for ideological and political reasons. She believed that L1 avoidance was "deep rooted in a particular ideological perspective which reinforced inequalities in the broader social order." Nation (2001) also argued that if L1 was excluded from L2 classrooms, the learners might get the idea that L1 was a second-class language, which might have harmful psychological effects on them. Other researchers claimed that L1 use in L2 classrooms reduced stress and facilitated learning, if it was used in a moderate and judicious way (Tang, 2002).

25

Atkinson also recommended that students should try to express what they wanted to say in English as much as possible, but teachers should allow students to use their L1 in the classroom to say what they wanted if they could not say it in English. He disapproved of the position that in most classrooms, teachers would refuse to help students when they ask how to say something from L1 to L2. Furthermore, he noted that teachers were supported by contemporary course books which prohibited and discouraged L1 use in classrooms despite indications that it could serve as a motivator. L2 research has long acknowledged the influence of students' motivation on learning L2. Within a socio-cultural context it was argued that L1 use could function as "a psychological tool," as it might provide learners with additional cognitive support that would allow them to analyze language and work at a higher level than would be possible if they were restricted to L2 use only (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003: 760).

3. An Efficient Use of Time

Saving time on tasks to cover more material seemed to be a popular reason given by many teachers who advocated L1 use in the L2 classroom. In monolingual classrooms where the teacher shared the same L1 with students, using L1 to achieve a specific goal could be very efficient and time saving. Atkinson (1987) gave time-saving as one of his principle arguments in favor of using L1. He noted that "by communicating in L1, time can be used for extra productive activities" (Atkinson, 1987).

Schedule constraint was a factor that led many teachers to use L1, with the justification to cover as much material as possible in a limited time. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) reported on their long time practice teaching English, supervising, and training teachers. They concluded that non-native teachers definitely made use of the students' mother tongue for saving time in order to cover more material. Kharma and Hajjaj acknowledged that in public schools the teachers' main concern was to complete the syllabus and to prepare students to sit for a common exam at the end of the senior high school year. Therefore, rather than use L2 "the teachers' concern about his/her students passing exams makes it often unavoidable to resort to short cuts, i.e. using Mother tongue" (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989, p. 227).

Although researchers advocated L1 use in ELT for vocabulary learning, humanistic reasons, and to save time, they warned against its overuse. The following

section explores situations where L1 use was discouraged because it was described as situations of overuse.

Dangers of L1 Overuse

Atkinson (1987), who was generally in favor of L1 use, warned that excess dependency on L1 was likely to result in the following incidents of overuse:

1. The students begin to feel that they have not really understood any item of language until it has been translated.

2. The students fail to observe the distinction between equivalence of form, semantic equivalence, and pragmatic features, and thus the teacher oversimplifies to the point of using crude and inaccurate translation.

3. Students speak to the instructor in L1 even when they are quite capable to expressing what they mean in L2.

4. Students fail to realize that during many activities in the classroom it is essential that they use only English.

Turnbull (2001) advocated an open view toward L1 use in limitation, but warned against the risk of L1 overuse as well. He argued that teachers could use L1 as a resource in order to promote students' language proficiency in L2, as it could be helpful in clarifying grammar and vocabulary. However, he cautioned against pitfalls of relying too extensively on L1. Turnbull argued that licensing teachers to use L1 in L2 classrooms is "vague and dangerous" (p.4). His personal experience confirmed that it was tempting sometimes to use the L1 to save time, especially when the teacher or the students were tired. In a study that he conducted to explore four core French teachers' uses of English (L1) and French (L2), Turnbull found that the four teachers differed in the amount of L1 use which varied from 24% to 75%. He believed that the teacher who spoke 50% of the class time in L2 was relying too heavily on L1. He believed that in these studies, L2 was expected to be the teachers' classroom language. He concluded that the teachers observed in these studies obviously overused the L1 without being licensed to do so.

Nation (2003) believed that in classes where learners share the same first language, teachers need to use a range of options to encourage learners to use L2 as much as possible. Nation explained reasons why learners used L1 when they should

use L2. These reasons included: low proficiency in the L2, the naturalness of using the L1 to do certain jobs, shyness in using L2, and lack of interest in learning L2.

The circumstances of overuse cited above were often attributed to the following reasons:

Inadequate training in L2

Grammar should ideally be conducted in English. Most often however, teachers resort to L1 to explain grammar because they feel that L2 explanation is too complicated and may even feel themselves incapable of giving a clear and unambiguous explanation of the structure in question exclusively in English (Harbord, 1992). This may often be due to inadequate training in alternative L2 strategy, or to teachers' insecurities about their L2 competence and abilities, which cause them to resort to L1. Alternative techniques for teaching grammar should be encouraged such as "time lines" or "concept questions" which may be prepared in advance so that the teacher is able to communicate the meaning of structure unambiguously without recourse to L1.

Inability to maintain communication in L2

Dealing with class administration in L1 is one of the most genuine opportunities for teacher-student communication in the classroom that most think should not be sacrificed Asking or giving administrative information such as a timetable change, or allowing students to ask or answer these in L1, is a strategy usually used by non-native speakers who feel unable to maintain such communication in L2 (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). This is an unfortunate decision which is likely to reflect negatively on the status of English as a means of communication. Teachers may need help in this matter, and to be encouraged to carry on in L2, in the hope that students will become confident using L2 themselves. Similarly, using L1 to check comprehension of listening or reading seems to be an unfortunate decision to throw out a great opportunity for communication in L2. Nevertheless, this is a common practice among teachers to save time. In general it should not be recommended on any grounds.

Conversation among learners

Students are likely to get into the habit of explaining to each other any concept that has not been fully understood. This habit usually occurs with weak students and without encouragement from the teacher. Giving special treatment to weak students who do that may reinforce their reliance on L1. Krieger (2005) reported from his personal experience as a teacher that students will use their L1 whether teachers permit it or not. He added that the goal of the teacher should be to organize and structure L1 usage so that it can be used only in pedagogically beneficial ways. He concluded that "It is the teacher's job to try to preempt L1 usage, that does not serve some purpose by making absolutely clear what constitutes acceptable L1 usage and what does not" (p. 5).

While teachers and theorists may disagree about the role of L1 in the L2 classroom, most agree that in the interest of the development of language as a communicative tool, communication in the classroom should take place as far as possible in English. Nation (2003) described ways to encourage L2 use in the English language classrooms. He advised teachers to use some tasks which cover a range of affective, cognitive, and resource approaches that can be seen as complementary rather than alternatives. Some of these tasks included: using manageable tasks that are within the learners' proficiency, encourage learners to pretend they were English speakers, use repetition tasks so they become easier, and most importantly, make L2 an unavoidable task by using certain activities such as role play, retelling, and completion tasks. On the affective domain, Nation recommended discussing with learners the value of using L2, and to avoid putting learners in embarrassing situations.

Conclusion

This section provided theoretical information on how the use of L1 in ELT was perceived by different methodologies, and how it was dealt with by different schools of thinking. In particular, it showed that there were two different directions toward dealing with the issue. One direction believed in a total prohibition of L1 in L2 classrooms, which was supported by proponents of the Direct Method and the "English-only" paradigm. The other believed L1 can be used judiciously for many reasons such as in teaching vocabulary, for affective reasons, and for time saving to

cover more material in the class. This section also examined the pedagogic justifications for L1 avoidance in L2, and discussed the practical and ideological arguments that promoted its prohibition even further. Counter-arguments that included those who supported L1 use were also discussed. Finally, this section provided reasons and examples of L1 overuse in the classroom and presented suggestions for encouraging L2 use in the classroom.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOGOLOGY

This study was set to answer the following questions:

1. What are the perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students toward the use of Arabic (L1) in their English language (L2) classrooms?

2. Are there any differences in opinion among teachers and students regarding the usefulness of L1 in L2 teaching?

3. How do teachers teach vocabulary without recourse to L1?

To answer these questions, data were collected by means of the following procedures:

1. Classroom observations were conducted to examine the practice of teaching English in the Arabic context.

2. Teachers were interviewed to clarify findings obtained through classroom observation.

3. Questionnaires were designed and administered to teachers and students to measure their attitudes toward the use of Arabic (L1) in English language (L2) classrooms.

The collected data was then graphed and analyzed to uncover trends and patterns. The attitudes of teachers and students toward the use of Arabic in English classrooms were also considered from a qualitative analysis of their responses. The following sections provide a detailed description of the locations where the research was conducted, background of participants, and materials and procedures used to collect the data.

Locations

The data was collected at two institutions, namely, Ishbilia Girls' School in Sharjah and the Intensive English Program (IEP) at the American University of Sharjah in the UAE.

Ishbilia Girls' School, Sharjah

Ishbilia Girls' School is an all-female public school with grades from one to nine. As noted earlier, the public schools in the UAE are gender segregated. Female schools are attended only by girls and taught by female teachers, while male schools are attended only by boys and taught by male teachers. The decision to conduct

classroom observations at this particular school was taken based on the school's reputation for cooperation with the academic community. The school has about 600 students and 45 teachers and administrative staff. The majority of teachers hold BA degrees. They are Arab nationals who come from the Gulf States, Egypt, Syria, Yemen, and Palestine. Students are all UAE nationals. As in all public schools, Arabic is the official language of instruction. It is also the first language (L1) of all students and teachers.

English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) in all public schools, and it is introduced at grade 5. The language of instruction in the English language classroom is "English only." This is based on curricula decisions set by the UAE Ministry of Education, which regulates and supervises the implementation of curricula. Two Ishbilia Girls' School classrooms were observed for the purpose of this study.

American University of Sharjah (AUS)-Intensive English Program (IEP)

The Intensive English Program (IEP) at the American University of Sharjah (AUS) is a language institution that prepares students in English to meet the English language proficiency standards that enable them to carry out studies at AUS. Competence in English is a pre-requisite for admission at AUS, where English is the official language of instruction. Students who are accepted in the university, but who have scored below 520 on the TOEFL test, join the IEP to improve their English language. The IEP consists of five levels which are sequenced based on the test scores of the TOEFL.

<div align="center">Participants</div>

Teachers

Two sets of teachers, as shown in Figure 1, have participated in this study. Two teachers were observed at Ishbilia Girls' School in Sharjah. They were selected based on the classroom levels they taught. Since the research was designed to observe beginning and intermediate levels, this selection was based on the assumption that if L1 were to be used in the ELT classrooms, it would be at these levels. Teacher 1 has a BA in English and thirteen years of experience. She taught English for beginners. Her 6th grade classroom was observed. By contrast, Teacher 2 was a young teacher who held a BA in English and has four years teaching experience. She taught intermediate level English Her 9th grade classroom was observed. Both teachers spoke Arabic as

their first language. In addition, the same two teachers were the subjects of the teachers' interviews. The interviews were additional instruments used to allow the teachers to express their thoughts and attitudes toward L1 use and to allow further refinement of the classroom observations.

Furthermore, 20 teachers took part in the survey, as shown in Figure 1. Seven of them constituted the English language teaching staff at Ishbilia Girls' School, and 13 teachers were from the Intensive English Program (IEP) at the American University of Sharjah (AUS). The teachers at Ishbilia Girls' School were all females. They were all of Arab nationalities such as Egyptian, Syrian, Palestinian, Yemeni, and Emirate. Their teaching experience ranged from 5 to 15 years. All of the teachers held a BA degree in English language, and they graduated from Arab universities. Questionnaires were given to 23 instructors who teach at the Intensive English Program (IEP) at the American University of Sharjah. Only 13, five males and eight females, responded and returned the questionnaires. The IEP instructors are all expatriate teachers from the United States, Canada, Australia, Pakistan, and Asia. All of them held MA degrees in teaching English, and their teaching experience ranged from 5 to over 15 years.
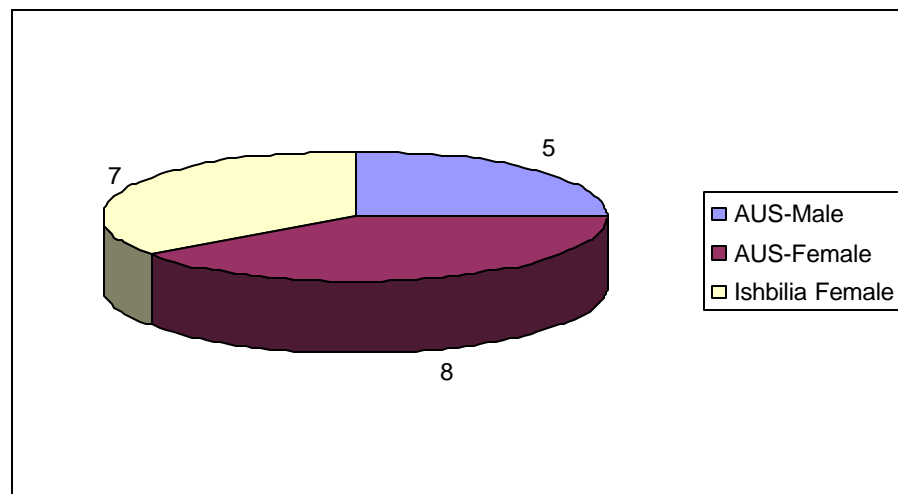

Figure 1: Participating Teachers with respect to Institution and Gender.

Students

Two sets of students, as shown in Figure 2, have participated in this study. One set from Ishbilia Girls' School and the other from the Intensive English Program

(IEP) at the American University of Sharjah (AUS). At Ishbilia Girls' School, two classes of 62 students in total were observed at grades 6 and 9. All students were females from Sharjah who spoke Arabic as their first language (L1). They have been exposed to English as a school subject (EFL) for one or 4 years.
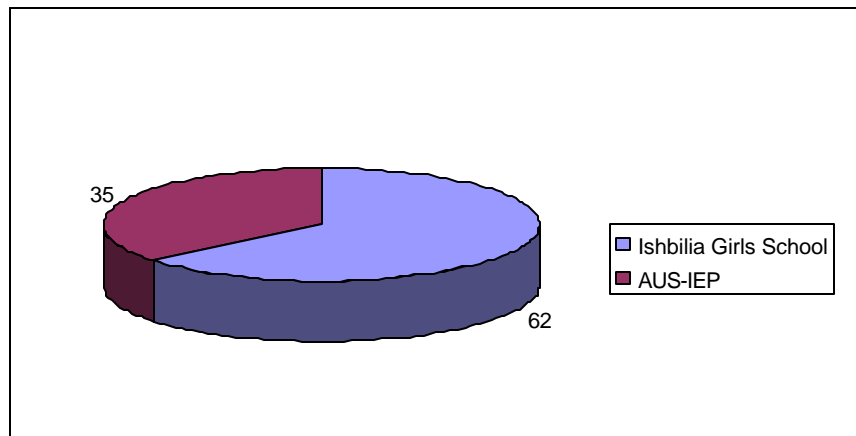

Figure 2: Participating Students at the two Institutes.

At AUS-IEP, 35 students participated in the survey. All of the students were enrolled in level 2 and have scored about 450 in the TOEFL exam. Level 2 corresponds to low-intermediate English proficiency level. All of these students' participants spoke Arabic as their first language (L1) and all were from different Arab nationalities such as Saudi, Emirates, Palestinian, Lebanese, Yemeni, and Omani. All were graduates of the Arabic high school system in the UAE, the Gulf States, or other Arab countries. They all learned English as a school subject.

Materials and Procedures

The instruments for collecting data for this study included the following:
1. Classroom observations
2. Teachers' interviews
3. Questionnaires (two versions, students and teachers)

Following is a description of the procedures used.

34

Classroom Observations

Classroom observations were chosen as the most appropriate means for investigating teaching and classroom practices. Their main purpose was to investigate teaching practices inside the classroom and how the teaching of English vocabulary was accomplished. Initially, classroom observations were set to investigate whether or not L1 was used in the English language classroom. For this purpose a "focused observation approach" was attempted, which meant, according to Hopkins (2002), "a look at a specific aspect of teaching, such as questioning techniques, or praise to help focus and refine the observation so the resulting record is factual or descriptive rather than judgmental" (Hopkins, 2002, p. 89). These forms, according to Brown (2001), can be used as a good start, but they need to be adapted and modified to accommodate the purpose of observations. Brown viewed the observation forms and lists as "resource rather than constraint on comments; teachers should feel free to add anything that they find pertinent" (Brown, 2001, p. 197). For this purpose, an observation form to investigate and document the instances of the use of Arabic in English language classroom was prepared, as illustrated in Appendix 1. The two classes were observed for two weeks; a total of 20 observations. Each class met daily for a 45-minute session. The observed classes were not recorded to avoid disturbing the classes, but notes were taken during the observations.

Based on initial observations that Arabic (L1) was not used in the L2 classroom, the focus of observation was changed and, consequently, the observation form was not used. Instead observations were resumed with a new modified focus; specifically the focus was on how the teaching of L2 vocabulary was accomplished without reference to students' L1. The techniques used by teachers to teach vocabulary without reference to L1 were noted. These techniques included the use of visuals, realia, role play, repetition, use of examples, use of definitions, and extensive use of the blackboard.

Teachers' Interviews

The two teachers, whose classes had been observed, were interviewed about the exclusive use of English in their classrooms. This was done in accordance with Wallace's (2001) suggestion that "interviews and questionnaires are bracketed together since they both involve eliciting something from informants: usually factual information or attitudes/opinions on some issue. Wallace added that "Interviews and

questionnaires require a lot of thought and organization and involve intruding on other people's time" (Wallace, 2001, p. 47).

The interviews were important research instrument because they provided another significant source of data contributing to this research. This was in line with Hopkins (2002), who stated that "individual interviews are often very productive sources of information for a participant observer who wants to verify observation he/she has previously made" (Hopkins, 2002, p. 109). In fact, interviews do not provide facts, but they provide opinions and situations. In general, they tend to be qualitative (Wallace, 2001). Data from the interviews are reported by means of quotations.

The questions were prepared and read to each teacher. Sometimes the questions were reworded for more understanding. Most of the questions asked to the teachers were based on the teachers' opinion questionnaire. Finally, notes were taken during the interviews. The questions which were asked during the interviews are described in Appendix 2.

Questionnaires

The questionnaires, as shown in Appendices 3 and 4, were prepared in two versions: One for students and one for teachers. The questionnaires were distributed to 40 students and 30 teachers. However, 35 students and 20 teachers responded. Both questionnaires were used to obtain information about beliefs and attitudes of teachers and students toward using Arabic (L1) in English language classrooms.

Both questionnaires were designed in two parts: Part 1 included demographic questions, and part 2 included responses to open-ended questions to allow subjects to reflect freely on their experience. The teachers' questionnaire was modified after finding out that teachers do not use Arabic in their teaching. New questions to examine vocabulary teaching techniques which avoid the use of Arabic (L1) were added. The techniques listed in the questionnaire included actual techniques used and practiced by the two teachers who were observed. The questionnaire was piloted and administered to the two teachers, whose classrooms were observed. After that, more modifications and refinements to the questionnaire took place.

The questionnaire was adapted from Tang (2002) and Schweers' (1999) studies on the use of L1 in teaching L2, and they were used as a basis for this study.

Some modifications took place which was made according to what I found pertinent. This is supported by Johnson (1992) who noted that "what makes a good questionnaire is building on theory and previous research; building on previous work not only helps improve the quality of instruments but allows researchers to relate the findings of similar studies to one another" (p. 113). The finished questionnaire form was the result of my readings in the literature, combined with my own reflections and understanding of the issue.

The usefulness of the questionnaires as a research instrument stems from being quick and quantifiable. According to Hopkins (2002), "the main advantages of questionnaires in research is to obtain quantitative responses to specific predetermined questions; they are easy to administer, quick to fill in, and easy to follow up" (p. 118). Also, questionnaires are ideal for providing feedback on attitudes. They provide instant data that can be usable and they provide generalized data as well. They can be valuable if the questions are structured properly and asked in a specific way. They are also appropriate for obtaining broad and rich information from participants. On the other hand, there are many disadvantages of using questionnaires. They are very time consuming and they lack the necessary depth. According to Hopkins (2002), "analysis of responses is time-consuming, and they require extensive preparation to get clear and relevant questions" (p. 118). The effectiveness of questionnaires depends on developing questions that explore the issue in depth. Some participants focus on trying to answer "correctly" rather than telling their true opinions, and that is why questionnaires should be anonymous. Also, because questionnaires lack the necessary depth, it becomes quite essential to "triangulate" in some other ways. To this effect, the teachers' interviews seem quite appropriate to verify in depth teachers' beliefs and classroom practices.

The use of questionnaires as a research instrument seemed appropriate to explore students' and teachers' attitudes toward the role and use of Arabic (L1) in teaching English, Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis were used. They are essential methods to verify objective data. As Wallace pointed out "the quantitative data is broadly used to describe what can be measured and can therefore be considered "objective," and qualitative is used to describe data which are not measured in an objective way and are therefore considered "subjective" (Wallace, 2001, p. 38). In this study, the qualitative data is obtained from classroom observations and teachers interviews. Quantitative data, on the other hand, is obtained

from the questionnaires. Qualitative data is reported by means of quotations, and quantitative data is reported by means of graphs and tables.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Classroom Observations

The research question which was aimed at investigating practices of teachers, in particular how teachers teach vocabulary without recourse to Arabic (L1), was pursued through classroom observations. Following is a description of the techniques and methods teachers used to teach vocabulary at the beginning and the intermediate levels at Ishbilia Girls' School.

Methods of Teaching Vocabulary

Two English languages classrooms were observed at Ishbilia Girls' School in Sharjah, UAE, for duration of two weeks. The English language classes usually meet daily for 45 minutes period. Classroom observations revealed that teachers used an eclectic approach which relied on the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) and the Total Physical Response (TPR) to teach vocabulary. Principles of ALM, which advocate repetition models of learning, memorization, and no use of L1, were practiced Also principles of TPR, which are based on listening and the use of demonstration, were also observed in the classrooms of both teachers. Following is a detailed description with examples.

Teaching Vocabulary through ALM

ALM was widely used to teach vocabulary at both beginning and intermediate classrooms. Meaning of words was explained by means of repetition, memorization, and emphasis on producing error free utterances, especially in the pronunciation. The teacher served as a model for imitation while the students listened carefully and learned by imitating her behavior. The teacher asked students to repeat after her, and the class as a whole followed the teacher's direction as accurately as possible. No word was uttered in the students' first language. This kind of teaching clearly illustrated principles of the Audio-Lingual Method.

The following examples illustrate teaching techniques inspired by ALM to teach vocabulary at the beginning and intermediate levels:

1. The use of flash cards

Learning from flash cards usually involves repetition of the same material because the cards themselves do not change from one repetition to another (Nation, 2001). To teach the following words: frog, clouds, rain, wind, Teacher 1 who taught the beginning class showed pictures for each item. Each flash card included a picture and a word form. Students practiced the words by repeating after her several times and attempted to imitate her pronunciation. The whole class kept repeating until the teacher decided that no errors occurred especially. These techniques were based on the Audio-Lingual Method which relied on "much use of visual aids and dependency on over learning and great importance given to pronunciation" (Brown, 2001, p. 23).

2. The use of definitions

Teacher 2 at intermediate level used definitions to explain the meaning of words. For example, she explained the meaning of the word "adult" by giving the following definitions:

"An adult is a grown up person"

"Someone who is no longer a child"

"If you are 18 years old, you are an adult."

Students had to infer the meaning. The teacher expanded her repetition by elaborating on her definitions to allow students to better understand the meaning of words. The definition of the word "adult" appeared effective and students were encouraged to put the word in sentences when asked by their teacher to do so. Although Teacher 2 tried to put the words in context, her teaching approach was based on repetition and practice, which constituted basic characteristics of the Audio-Lingual Method.

3. The use of realia and role play

Teacher 1 used realia and role play to teach vocabulary in context and to give new word meanings. A demonstration of real objects was displayed on a table in the classroom and was used to teach some vocabulary items from the students' reading text. The objects included grocery items such as milk, juice, chocolates, tea, coffee, etc. Three students were asked to perform a dialogue about buying grocery from the displayed items. The students pretended to be a salesperson, and two customers. They rehearsed a dialogue scene from their reading text. For example, a student who played

the customer said: "I want to buy a pack of tea." The other student who performed the salesperson said: "I do not have tea, I have coffee" and the student replied: "No I want a pack of tea."

Teacher 2 used actions to teach students the meaning of the word "heavy". She carried a bag full of books, and acted out being unable to carry the bag because it was heavy. She repeated the demonstration accompanied by using examples with the word "heavy". The use of demonstrations and real objects were basic principles of the Audio-Lingual Method acknowledged by Larsen-Freeman who observed that "the teacher uses actions, pictures, or realia to give meanings of words" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 42).

4. The use of drawings and posters

Posters were used extensively at the intermediate level. To teach words related to winter weather, Teacher 2 had a poster with drawings which described a winter scene including dark clouds, rain, wet and slippery ground, a car skidding with two men pushing it, and a man wearing a heavy coat with a hat, scarf, and gloves. Under each drawing, the word form was included. For example, the words: skidding, slippery, clouds, rain, coat, gloves, scarf, and were written under their corresponding pictures. The teacher spent quite some time on this activity and taught the new words through examples. The teacher asked students to repeat the examples. Through these examples that were modeled by the teacher, the students learned the new vocabulary.

Teaching Vocabulary through TPR

Both teachers approached the teaching of vocabulary by relying on certain principles of Total Physical Response approach (TPR). TPR was developed by Asher (1977) who noted that children learn their first language by listening first accompanied by physical responses such as reaching, grabbing, moving, and looking (Brown, 2001). According to Larsen-Freeman, "students can learn through observing actions as well as by performing the actions themselves; it is very important that students feel successful because feelings of success and low anxiety facilitate learning" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 112). Following TPR principles, the teachers attempted to teach words by using pictures accompanied by theatrical performance such as performing certain actions, being expressive and giving commands. The students learned the meanings of the words through observing the teachers' actions

and through performing the actions themselves. Both teachers emphasized pronunciation over the written words and they showed tolerance when students made errors in saying the words. Again there was no use of the students' first language. The following examples illustrate vocabulary teaching techniques based on TPR:

1. The use of modeling and body movements

A widely used technique to teach vocabulary at both beginning and intermediate levels included modeling and performing the actions. They provided immediate help to students to understand new words. This technique is usually associated with vocabulary items where teachers may demonstrate the meaning of something by the use of their hands or body movements (Mangubhai, 2005).

For example, Teacher 1 explained the meaning of the word "fell down" by performing the action herself. She carried many books and dropped them and used the word in a sentence while still performing the action. She also used a great deal of repetition. She also asked a student to run around the classroom and to pretend to fall down. Then she followed up on the scene by using the word "fell down" in a sentence and said: "The pupil (her name) fell down."

Also, Teacher 1 explained the meaning of the word "pull" through body movements and the use of opposite. For example, Teacher 1 asked a student to stand in front of the class, and the teachers acted out "pulling" and "pushing" the student. Students were amused and practiced saying the two opposites. This theatrical performance for teaching vocabulary at the beginning level indicated principles of TPR. The meaning of words was achieved through body movements.

2. The use of demonstration

The meaning of the word "through" was also explained by means of demonstration. Teacher 2 demonstrated the meaning of the word "through" by providing two examples from the classroom's immediate environment. First the teacher pointed at the sun light beams in the classroom which appeared "through" the window. Additionally, she asked a pupil to go to the window and to look "through" to see if she could find the teacher's car in the parking lot and to point at it. This modeling and demonstration of meaning represented another example of the use of TPR as a method of teaching vocabulary at the intermediate level.

3. Facial expressions and the use of imagination

Teacher 1 used facial expressions to explain meanings of words. For example, the meaning of the word "sad" was taught with its opposite "happy", and explained by facial expressions showing signs of happiness or sadness. The students appeared amused at the teacher's facial expressions. Brown noted that "TPR seems especially effective in the beginning level of language proficiency; its appeal to the dramatic or theatrical nature of language learning is attractive" (Brown, 2001, p. 30). The facial expressions were accompanied by additional explanations of the word "sad" by asking students to use their imagination to think of situations that can cause someone to be sad. The teacher gave an example of a situation causing someone to feel sad such as lack of rain.

4. The use of role play

Teacher 1 used individual students as physical objects to demonstrate and teach the twelve months of the year. The teacher asked students to take on the names of each month, and then each student had to introduce herself as a name of a month. For example, "I am January" or "I am March." Also students displayed a flash card that had the month written combined with a drawing describing the weather: sunny, cloudy, or rainy. It seemed very effective, and students all together repeated many times the names of the months, as stated by Mangubai "At early stages of second language learning, the use of visuals and objects can be effectively used through Total Physical Approach" (Mangubhai, 2005, p. 5).

Discussion of Findings of Classroom Observations

Teaching at Isbhilia Girls' School reflected a teacher-centered approach where the teacher appeared to be the ultimate authority who provide d a good model for imitation and the students were expected to listen carefully while the teacher presented her material. The students showed a lot of respect to the teacher and learned by imitating her behavior. The teaching of vocabulary was emphasized through direct teaching of words by means of actions, pictures, realia, and repetition. There was no use of L1 in teaching. Meanings of words were explained using principles which relied on Audio-Lingual Method and Total Physical Response. The students were learning by producing correct sentences and they displayed satisfaction with learning

through these techniques. The students did not ask questions nor initiated new subjects. They were doing what they were told by their teachers, and they did not use Arabic in the classrooms.

Despite recent findings in literature that L1 is beneficial for teaching vocabulary (Nation, 2001; Folse, 2004), teachers in the UAE are forbidden from using L1. Instead, they are still relying on aspects of the Audio-Lingual and Direct Methods to teach English. According to Nation (2001), "there are a growing number of studies looking at what teachers do about vocabulary in classrooms; they have a common theme which suggests that what happens in the classroom does not take account of the full range of options suggested by theory and research" (p. 74). Some of the numerous ways and options that are suggested by research and theory to teach vocabulary and convey meaning of unknown words include according to Nation (2003) "a definition in the second language, a demonstration, a picture or a diagram, a real object, L2 context clues, or an L1 translation" (p. 4). The teachers used many of these approaches except for L1 translations.

Other techniques used by the teachers which did not implement ALM or TPR included constructing meaning through synonyms and cultural reference. Teacher 2 explained the meaning of the word "tradition" by providing different equivalent meanings such as "way of life," "customs," and "folklore" and by relating it to cultural reference. She provided many examples describing traditions and ways of life in the Arab culture such as large families and hospitability. These descriptive examples helped students understand meanings from context.

This example of teaching approach which relied on constructing meaning through cultural reference may be analyzed as building on students' prior knowledge, or schemata. The students' knowledge of their Arabic traditions helped them successfully guess and understand the meaning of the word. According to Grabe (1995), "the schema theory supports comprehension by calling up stable background representations that support and interpret the text knowledge" (As cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 282). Constructing meaning by using students own experiences provided effective technique to learn and understand meanings of words. Some use of Arabic may be useful to emphasize the identity of the students and the status of their language and also to use their prior experience to emphasize meanings of words.

Teachers' Interviews

Classroom observations were followed by teachers' interviews. The main purpose of the interviews was to ask for clarifications or explanations into how teaching vocabulary was accomplished without the use of Arabic (L1). The sequence of the interviews to follow classroom observations was in accordance with what Hopkins (2002) stated: "interviews normally occur as a consequence of observation; the individual interviews are often very productive sources of information for a participant observer who wants to verify observations he/she previously made" (p. 109). Subsequently, the teachers were interviewed to explain their vocabulary teaching techniques and to express their opinions and attitudes toward the prohibition of Arabic (L1) in English classrooms.

The questions used in the interviews, as illustrated in Appendix 2, dealt with whether or not Arabic should be used in the English language classrooms and how much percentage it should occupy in L2 teaching. Also the questions dealt with when and why do teachers think L1 use was necessary. Other questions dealt with finding out teachers' attitudes toward the prohibition of Arabic in English language classrooms and whether it constituted any obstacle. Also the teachers were asked to explain their vocabulary teaching techniques without using Arabic (L1). The following section describes in detail the interviews with the two teachers, whose classrooms were observed at Ishbilia Girls' School.

Interview with Teacher 1

Teacher 1 taught grade six, which was the beginning class. She thought that Arabic (L1) maybe used sometimes, but within limits; it should not occupy more than 10% of class time. She recommended that a second language was best taught in L2 exclusively because students should not be deprived from opportunities to listen, speak and practice the language. Her recommendations were in line with Ellis (1985) who advocated that students should be surrounded with rich L2 environment so as not to deprive them from hearing or interacting in L2. Teacher I emphasized that there were many ways to teach and convey meanings of words without the use of Arabic. Some of her preferred techniques for the beginning level included the use of flash cards, role play, realia, facial expressions, posters and transparencies. She also mentioned other techniques such as repetition, opposites and definitions. Her

techniques were common practices and in line with standard practices acknowledged by most educators, particularly Nation (2003). Nation (2003) described the use of demonstrations, role play, realia, pictures and diagrams to be among the most common ways to teach vocabulary without the use of L1. Finally when asked about situations when L1 may be needed, she mentioned the situations if students do not comprehend something, the teacher may want to use L1 as a way to check comprehension. Also, she believed that weak students may need some encouragement and assurance, and the use of L1 with those students may be less threatening and self assuring.

Interview with Teacher 2

Teacher 2 taught grade nine, which was the intermediate level. She also believed that Arabic (L1) may be used sometimes, but within limits. However, she did not encourage L1 use at all during the lesson. She thought "if L1 was allowed in the classroom even for 1%, then there would be always fear of overuse, so it was better to prohibit it totally." She thought L1 maybe useful for affective reasons but not for pedagogical reasons. She emphasized that "L1 should not be used during the lesson; it may be used for specific situations such as motivational talk, encouragement, and guidance toward best learning strategies, but not during the lesson." She described some situations when L1 may be used which included making jokes with students to establish rapport, and during tests to clarify anything students did not understand. Additionally, Teacher 2 thought that maybe the only pedagogical situations where L1 might be useful was to teach abstract vocabulary. She thought that L1 maybe the only way to ensure that students understood the meaning precisely. So she thought translations in this case may be appropriate. Also she recommended using L1 with weak students who might find it very difficult to follow the instructions in L2. Those weak students might need extra help, and the use of L1 could be helpful to encourage them to overcome learning difficulties.

Discussion of Teachers' Interviews

Although both teachers conducted their lessons entirely in L2, they both expressed their belief that L1 might be useful sometimes especially for affective reasons and with weak students. They believed that the level of students might influence the decision of whether or not to use L1. They believed that L1 could be

used as a motivational tool for weak students, and as a tool to explain abstract vocabulary. They seemed comfortable with applying teaching techniques that used L2 exclusively, and did not mind L1 prohibition by their administration.

However, both teachers emphasized that L1 use for encouragement should be applied outside the classroom but not during the lesson. They recommended that L2 should be used exclusively during the lesson because students should not be deprived from hearing or using English-only. Their recommendations were consistent with arguments presented against the use of L1, in particular, Ellis (1985) and Krashen (1982), who argued that students learn a new language (L2) through rich exposure and negotiation of the meaning.

In the following section, an analysis and discussion of questionnaires' findings is presented.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed in two versions; one was used with students in the IEP, and another used for teachers in both institutions, IEP and Ishbilia Girls' School. The questionnaire was used to examine the attitudes of teachers and students toward the use of Arabic (L1). It was meant to find out in which situations teachers and students believed L1 might be useful. It was also meant to find out the reasons why teachers and students thought L1 use might be necessary in the English language classroom.

Following is a description and analysis of findings of the questionnaire results. First an analysis of students' attitudes is described.

Analysis of Students' Responses to Questionnaire

The students' questionnaire, as shown in Appendix XX, was distributed to 40 students in the Intensive English Program (IEP) at the American University of Sharjah (AUS). 35 students responded to the survey by completing and returning it. All of the participant students spoke Arabic as their first language, and had experience in learning English as a school subject (EFL). They were enrolled in IEP Level 2, which corresponds to low-intermediate English proficiency. The students were accepted at AUS, but their TOEFL test scores were below 520, therefore they were enrolled in the

IEP Level 2 to improve their English language proficiency to enable them carry out studies at AUS.

The questionnaire had two parts: Part 1 included questions from 1 to 4 which sought to elicit biographical data, such as gender, age, educational background and years studying the English language. Part 2 included questions from 5 to 11. The questions dealt with whether or not Arabic should be used in the English language classrooms and to what extent L1 should be used in L2 teaching. Also the questions sought to elicit when and why students thought L1 was necessary. Finally, questions 9 and 11 attempted to find out students' attitudes on whether L1 would be helpful to facilitate their learning of English and whether they wanted their teachers to use L1 in the English language classroom. Following is a detailed description of the students' responses.

In their response to question five (Q5), illustrated in Figure 3, which meant to find out whether or not Arabic (L1) should be used, 51% of the students did not think Arabic (L1) should be used in the classroom, whereas 43% of the students thought it should be used "sometimes." Only 6% of the students had a definite opinion that it should be used.

Q5: Do you think Arabic should be used in the classroom?
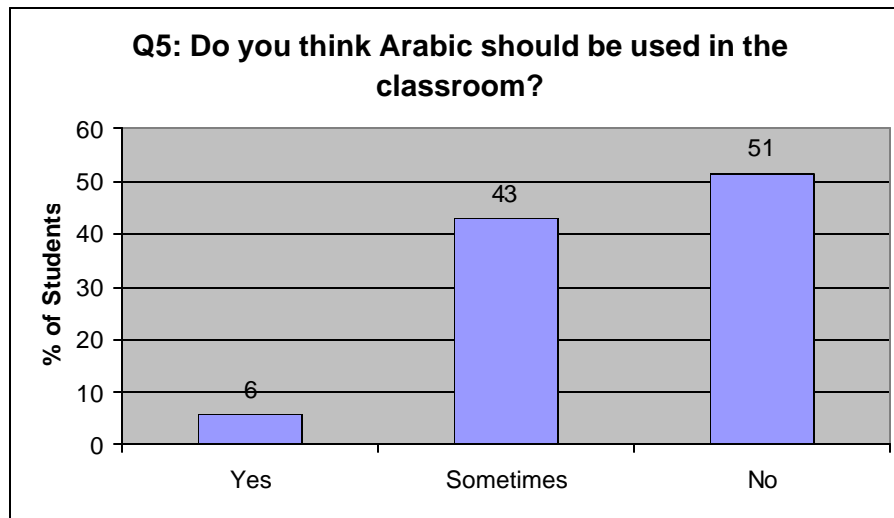
Figure 3: Students' Attitudes toward L1 Use in L2 Classrooms

In addition to their negative attitude toward Arabic (L1) use, the students also responded negatively to question eleven (Q11) which meant to find out whether students wanted their teachers to use Arabic (L1) in the classroom. The majority of students, 57% of the respondents, believed their teachers should not use Arabic at all.

However, 23% responded that they liked their teachers to use Arabic sometimes, and 20% liked their teachers to use it a little, as illustrated in Figure 4.

Q11: Would you like your teacher to use Arabic in the classroom?

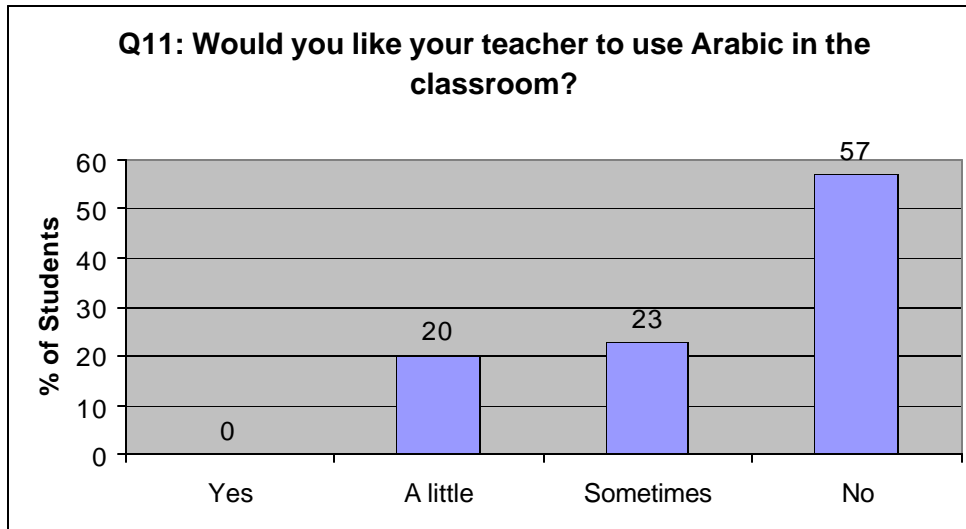| Response	% of Students
Yes	0
A little	20
Sometimes	23
No	57

Figure 4: Students' Attitudes toward Teachers' Using L1

Questions six and seven (Q6 & Q7) dealt with the acceptable amount of Arabic use in the classroom. In their response to Q6, which seeks to find out students attitudes toward how much percentage L1 should occupy in L2 teaching, 42% of the students expressed that L1 may occupy 5% of the class time, while 28% of the students expressed that L1 may occupy 10% of class time. However, 11% believed it should not be used at all, as illustrated in Figure 5.

Q6: How much percentage do you think Arabic should be used?

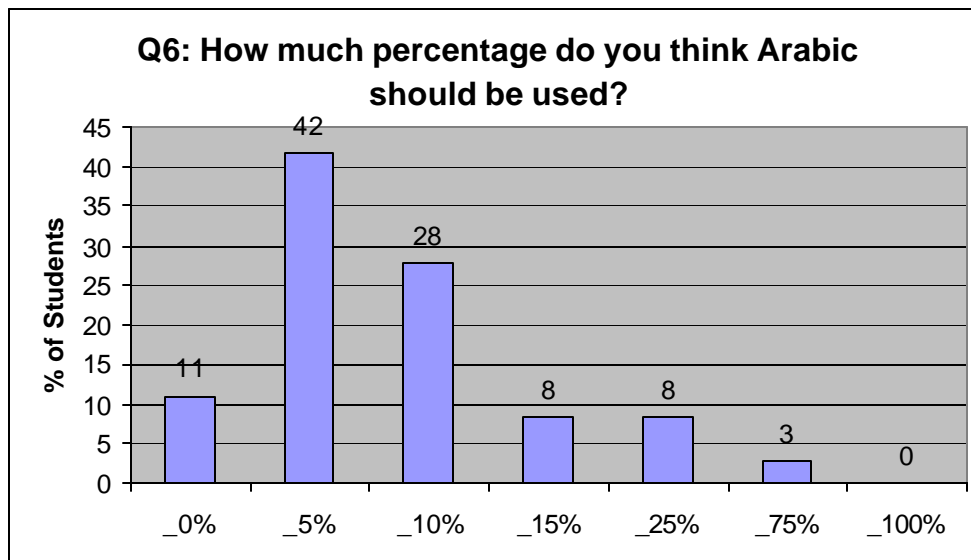| Percentage	% of Students
_0%	11
_5%	42
_10%	28
_15%	8
_25%	8
_75%	3
_100%	0

Figure 5: Students' Attitudes toward Acceptable Amounts of L1 Use

Question seven (Q7) sought to find out students attitudes toward the frequency of Arabic use in the classroom. 48% of the students believed and responded it should not be used in the classroom, while 42% believed L1 can be used "very rarely." However, only 11% of the students thought it can be used "sometimes", as illustrated in Figure 6.

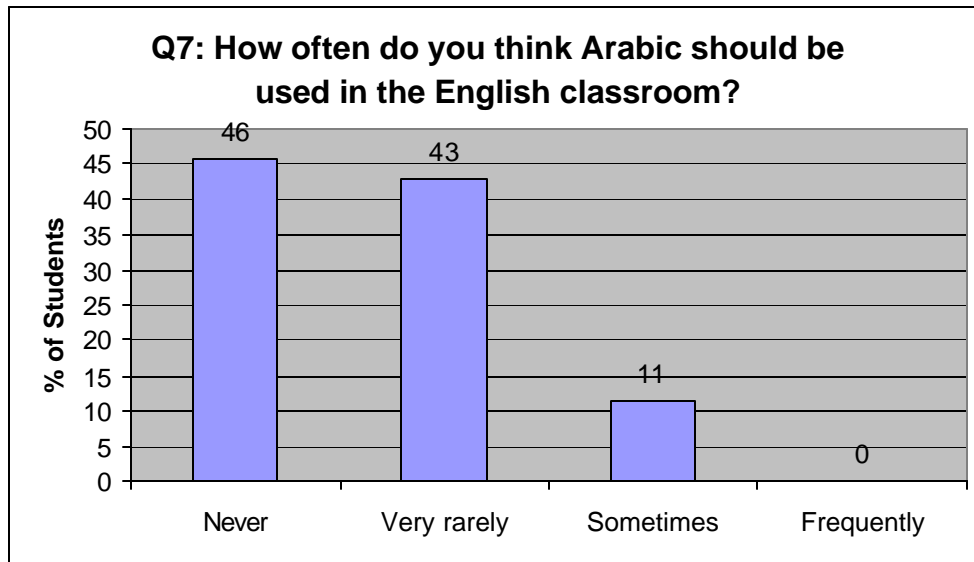**Q7: How often do you think Arabic should be used in the English classroom?**

Figure 6: Students' Attitudes toward the Frequency of L1 Use in L2 Classroom

Question nine (Q9) sought to find out students attitudes on whether L1 would be helpful to facilitate learning of English. The students were split in their opinions; 37% of the students thought L1 was not helpful "at all," and an equal 37% of the students believed L1 was helpful "sometimes." However, 17% of the students thought L1 was helpful "a little," while 9% of the students thought L1 was helpful "a lot," as illustrated in Figure 7.

Q9: Do you believe using Arabic in your English class help you learn the language?
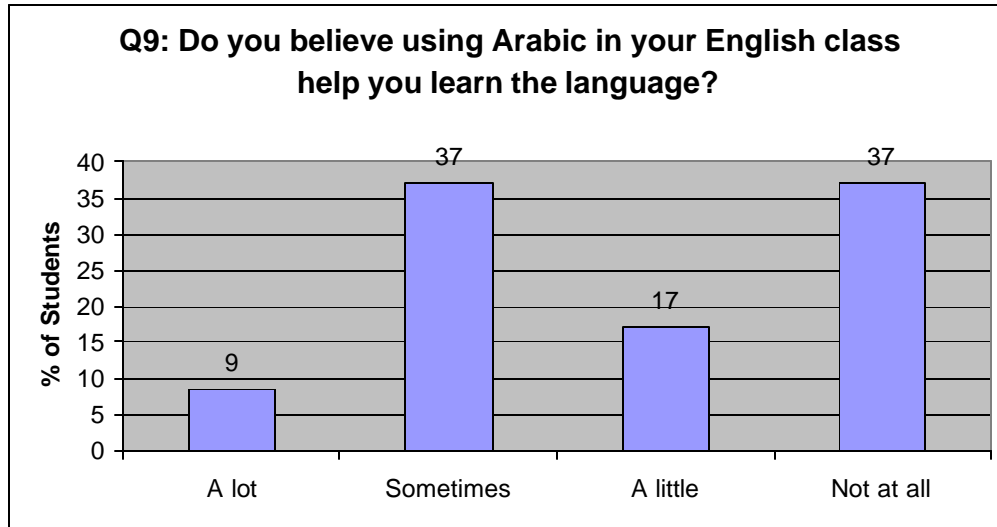
Figure 7: Students' Attitudes toward L1 as a Learning Facilitator

In their responses to questions eight and ten (Q8 & Q10), which sought to find out students' attitudes toward when and why L1 may be necessary or useful, the students believed that vocabulary was the most important area where L1 may be useful, as illustrated by Figures 8 and 9. Question eight (Q8), shown in Figure 8, elicited students' attitudes toward situations when L1 use might be necessary. The majority of students identified two pedagogical areas, mainly to learn new vocabulary and to explain difficult concepts. 25% of the students thought L1 use may be necessary to help them learn vocabulary, while 24% of the students believed that L1 may be necessary to explain difficult concepts or ideas. Also 14% of the students believed L1 may be necessary to explain the relation between English and Arabic.
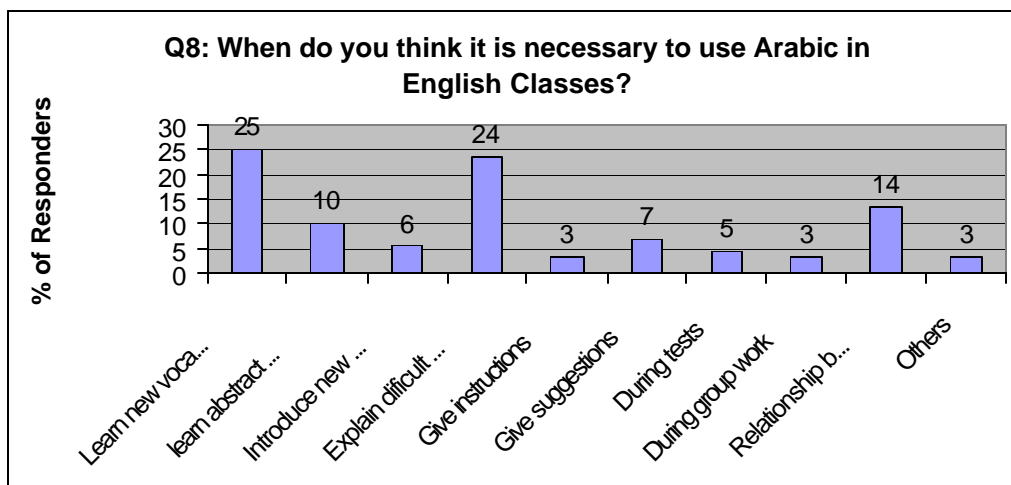
Q8: When do you think it is necessary to use Arabic in English Classes?

Figure 8: Students' Attitudes toward Necessary Situations for L1 Use

51

Question ten (Q10), shown in Figure 9, elicited students' attitudes toward usefulness of L1 in English (L2) classrooms. Students admitted usefulness of Arabic (L1) use for:

1. Learning vocabulary
2. Learning difficult concepts
3. Improving learning strategies
4. Feeling less lost.

31% of the students believed L1 may be useful to help them understand new vocabulary, and 20% of the students believed L1 may be useful to help them understand difficult concepts. Additionally, 21% of the students believed L1 maybe useful to make them feel at ease and less lost, as illustrated in Figure 9.

Q10: Why do you think Arabic would be useful in your English classroom?

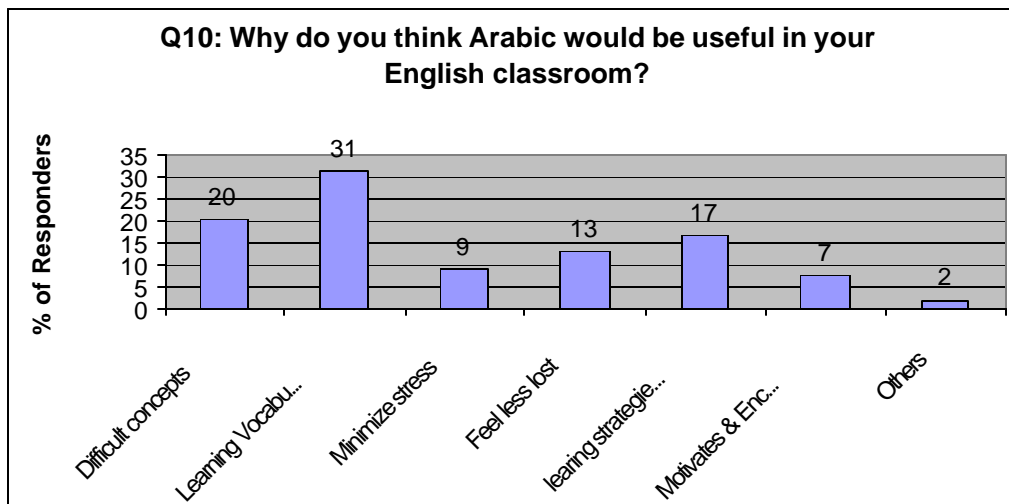| Category	% of Responders
Difficult concepts	20
Learning Vocabu...	31
Minimize stress	9
Feel less lost	13
learning strategie...	17
Motivates & Enc...	7
Others	2

Figure 9: Students' Attitudes toward the Usefulness of L1

Discussion of Students' Responses

Analysis of students' responses to the questionnaire revealed that the students were not keen on L1 use in English language classrooms, and they had negative attitudes toward it. The students disapproved the use of L1 in English language classrooms and they disapproved its use by their teachers. However, the students admitted usefulness of L1 for learning vocabulary, learning difficult concepts, improving their learning strategies, and feeling less lost. One student from the IEP, who responded to the questionnaire, acknowledged usefulness of L1 and wrote: "I

wanted my teacher to use L1 sometimes, to make me understand different vocabulary, and sometimes when I feel lost; I need to understand the meaning in Arabic because all my life I studied in Arabic, and this is how I can perceive the meaning. I do not believe in translation, though, but only I want the meaning of words."

The students' negative attitudes and thier disapproval of L1 use in L2 teaching was quite surprising. One possible explanation to this negative attitude may be attributed to the fact that all their lives, the students had been told by their teachers not to use Arabic in their English classrooms because Arabic (L1) use represented an obstacle to learning the new language. This finding maybe in line with what Auerbach (1993) has noted that "The English-only axiom is so strong that students and teachers do not trust their own practice: They assigned a negative value to "lapses" into the L1, seeing them as failures or aberrations, a cause for guilt" (Auerbach, 1993, p. 14).

In an attempt to find clarifications for the students' negative attitudes toward L1 use in L2 teaching, I asked two IEP students who participated in the questionnaire to reflect on why students disapproved L1 use in their English language classrooms. One male IEP student said he did not want his teachers to use Arabic, and he did not want to hear Arabic being used in the classroom. He thought he chose to study English at an American university because he did not want to hear Arabic being used in the classroom. Another male IEP student said that English was a very useful language which would enable the IEP students to be admitted to their studying major at the university; he wanted to learn it fast, and the only way to do so was to speak English-only in the classroom.

Generally speaking, the students were not enthusiastic about using L1 in L2 teaching. In the following section a description of teacher's responses and analysis of teachers' attitudes toward L1 use in L2 teaching is presented.

Analysis of Teachers' Responses to Questionnaire

The teachers' version of the questionnaire was distributed to 30 teachers. The teachers who responded and returned the questionnaires included 20 teachers. 7 of them were from the English language teachers' staff at Ishbilia Girls' School, while the other 13 were instructors in the Intensive English Program (IEP) at the American University of Sharjah. The teachers at the public school held BA degrees in English language and they graduated from Arab universities. They were all females and had 5 to 17 years teaching experience. On the other hand, the instructors in the IEP held MA

degrees in teaching English and they were all expatriate teachers from the United States, Canada, Australia, and England. There were 5 males and 8 females, and they had 5 to over 15 years teaching experience.

Just like the students' questionnaire, the teachers' questionnaire had two parts. Part 1 included questions from 1 to 4 which elicited biographical data such as gender, year and place of graduation, years of experience in teaching as well as type of educational institute they teach in. In addition, Part 2 included questions from 5 to 11, which dealt with whether or not Arabic should be used in the English language classrooms and how much percentage it should occupy in L2 teaching. Also the questions elicited teachers' attitudes concerning when and why they thought L1 was useful. Finally, questions 9 to 11 attempted to find out teachers' beliefs about best teaching practices to teach L2, and whether L1 prohibition affected their teaching. The last question attempted to find out which teaching techniques were mostly preferred by teachers without recourse to L1.

In their response to question five (Q5), which sought to find out teachers' attitudes on whether or not Arabic should be used in the English language classroom, the majority of teachers, expressed by 75% of respondents, believed that L1 may be used "sometimes," while 15% of the teachers believed L1 should not be used, as illustrated in Figure 10.
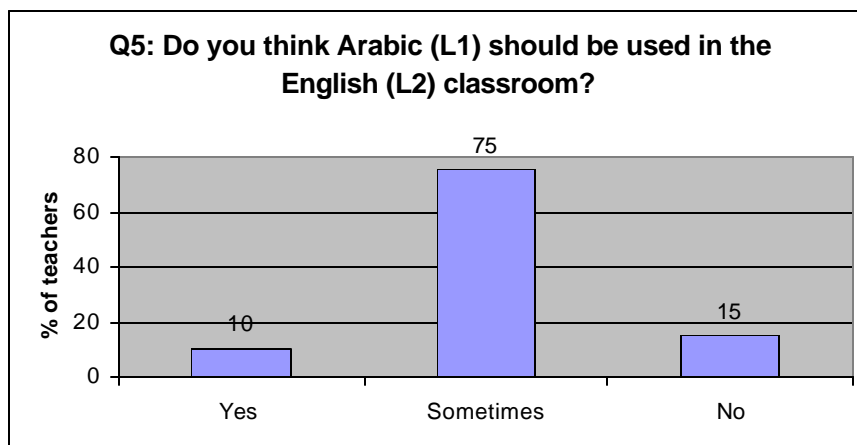

Figure 10: Teachers' Attitudes toward L1 Use in L2 Classrooms

The teachers responded similarly to question six (Q6), which sought to elicit teachers' attitudes toward acceptable amounts of Arabic use in the English classroom,

measured in percentage of class time. 50% of the teachers believed Arabic use may occupy only 5% of class time, while 30% of the teachers thought it could occupy 10% of the class time. By contrast, 10% of the teachers believed Arabic should not occupy any of the class time, as shown in Figure 11.

Q6: What percentage do you think Arabic should be used in teaching?
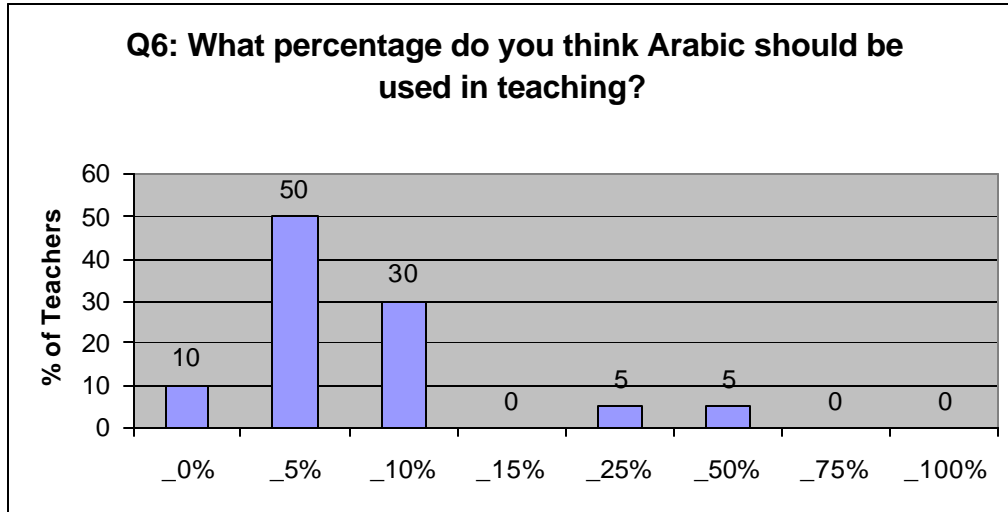
Figure 11: Teachers' Attitudes toward Acceptable Amounts of L1 Use

When teachers were asked about the situations in which the use of Arabic (L1) is necessary (question seven (Q7)), 22% of the teachers, as shown in Figure 12, thought that Arabic may be useful for explaining new vocabulary, while 38% believed Arabic maybe necessary to define abstract vocabulary and concepts. Only 8% of the teachers believed that Arabic (L1) may be necessary during tests and equally 8% believed Arabic maybe necessary to establish rapport with students.
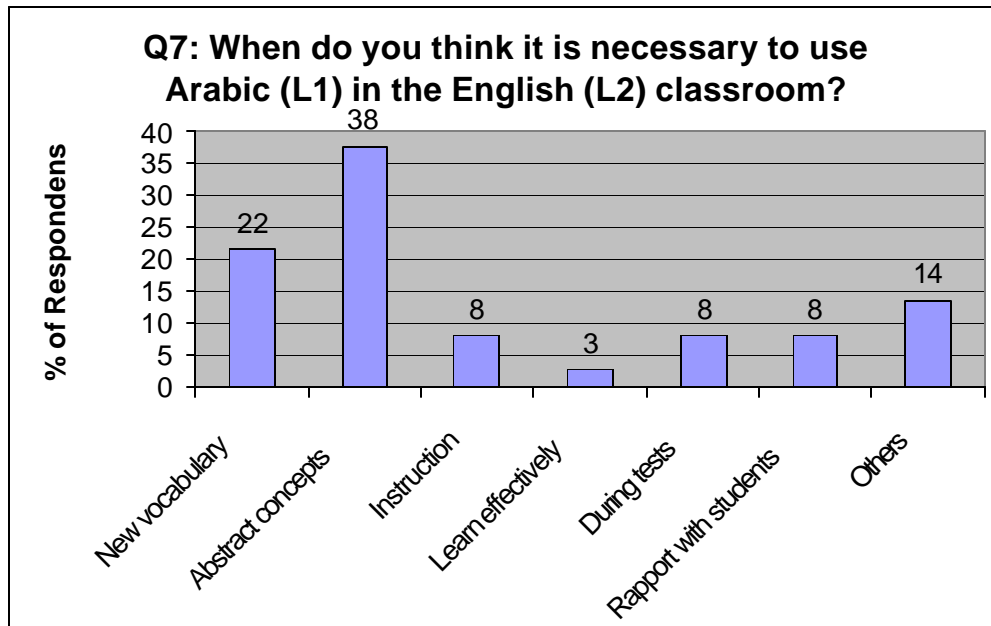
Figure 12: Teachers' Attitudes toward Necessary Situations for L1 Use

Question eight (Q8) elicited teachers' attitudes toward situations in which Arabic might be useful in teaching English. The teachers acknowledged the usefulness of Arabic (L1) use in English language classrooms for:

1. Affective reasons
2. Teaching vocabulary
3. Saving time
4. An option that teachers like to have.

Figure 13: Teachers' Attitudes toward Usefulness of Arabic (L1) in Teaching L2

The affective reasons included minimizing students feeling lost, creating non-threatening environment, establishing rapport, and enhancing students' motivation. 23% of the teachers, as shown in Figure 13, believed the use of L1 minimizes students feeling lost, 11% of the teachers believed Arabic helps create non-threatening classroom environment, 9% believed L1 helps establish rapport with students, and 6% of the teachers thought L1 enhances students' 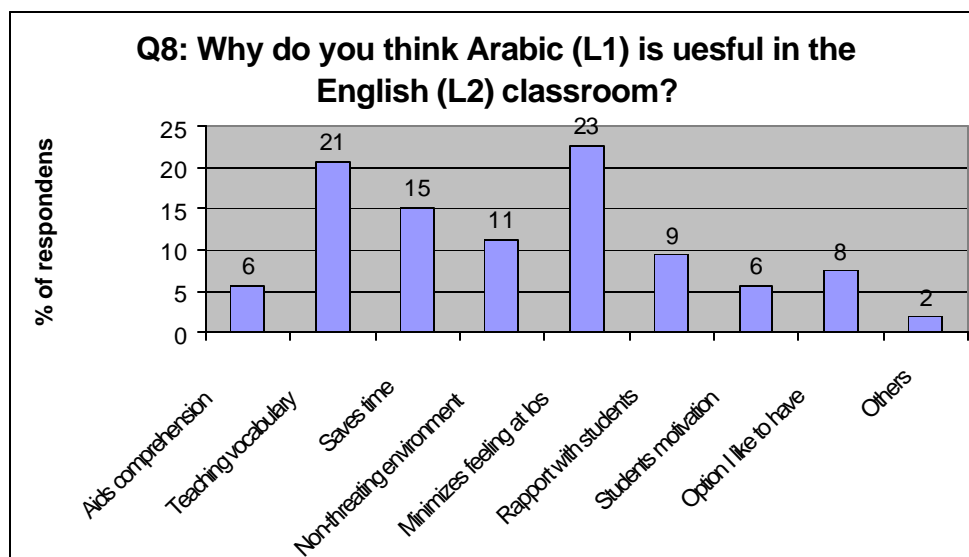motivation. The second reason for L1 usefulness in L2 teaching involved pedagogical reasons, particularly, effectiveness in teaching vocabulary especially abstract words. 21% of the teachers, as shown in Figure 13, believed Arabic maybe effective for teaching vocabulary and abstract words. Also 8% of the teachers believed L1 maybe considered as an option which they liked to have in the classroom, and finally 15% of the teachers believed Arabic (L1) was useful to save time.

Question nine (Q9) was an open-ended question. It attempted to find out teachers' beliefs about best teaching practices to teach L2. Some of the teachers' opinions are quoted below:

"I prefer a rational, eclectic method because a teacher needs to adapt to different classroom dynamics and strictly using one method won't allow it."
"I feel a teacher should be able to convey meaning in English, and the students should also make the effort to listen/learn in English."
"A combination – do what is best for students and meet their needs. This can be learner-centered or task based."
"Lexical approach combined with a variety of methods. Learners have different strengths. Allowing different methods gives them opportunities to learn."

Despite teachers' practices that implement the English-only paradigm, the above quotations from teachers indicated that teachers were open to adapt their practices to suit the students' needs. Traditionally, it is the teacher who decides what is best for the students, and I think if L1 was allowed by the institutions, the teachers themselves would not mind using it as they see fit.

Regarding teachers' responses to question 10 (Q10), which dealt with whether L1 prohibition affected their L2 teaching, the teachers criticized this prohibition, as illustrated in Figure 12. The teachers believed that L1 prohibition may affect students' feeling at loss, prevent students from comprehending precisely some concepts, and

class time may be wasted when teachers attempt to explain some concepts when translation would have been more effective to save time to cover extra material.

Q10: How do you feel about the prohibition of Arabic in the English classroom affect your teaching?

% of Responders

Slows teacher down	11
Taking away teachi..	11
Student feel at loss	26
Precise concepts no...	18
Wasting time to exp...	16
others	18
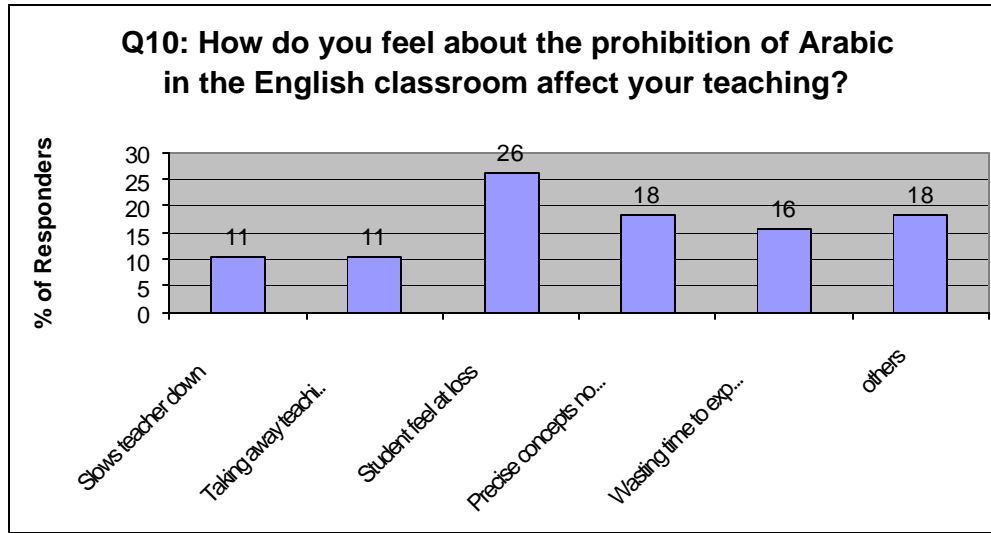
Figure 14: Teachers' Attitudes toward the Prohibition of L1 in teaching L2

Finally, question eleven (Q11) elicited teachers' alternative techniques which did not make use of L1. The teachers' responses, as illustrated in Figure 15, indicated that the most widely used techniques included simplified language, and the use of variety of examples, followed by giving clear definitions.

Q11: How do you teach English (L2) without the recourse of Arabic (L1)?

No. of Responses

use of visuals	12
Role play	13
Animation	14
Variety of examples	16
Here and now	11
Clear definition	15
Repitition	13
Rephrasing	10
Simplified language	16
Whiteboard extensively	13
Others	3

Figure 15: Teachers' Alternative Techniques to Teach L2 without Recourse to L1

58

Other popular techniques included the use of role play, repetition, use of visuals, animation, and extensive use of the blackboard.

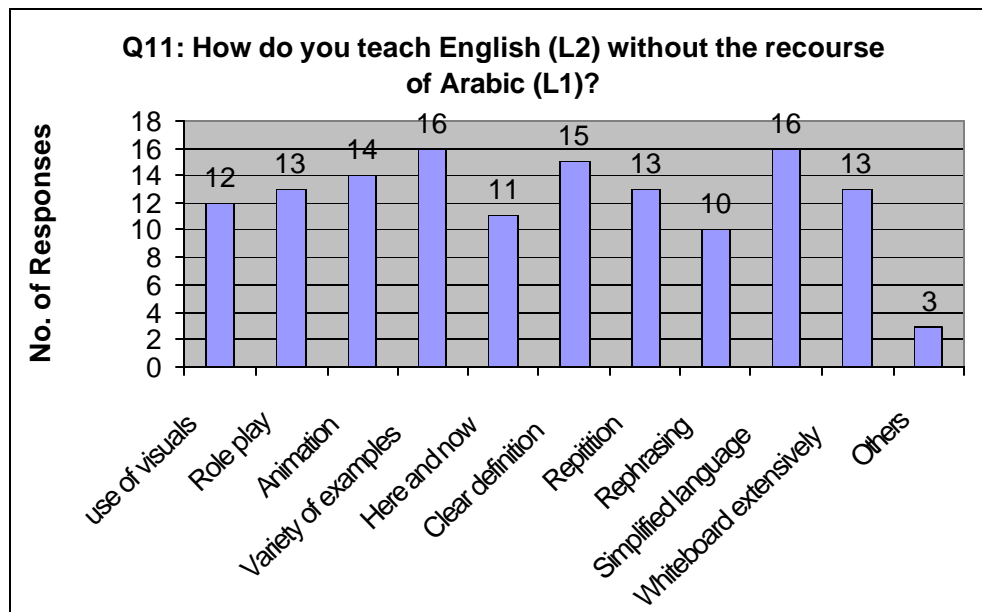Discussion of Teachers' Responses

The teachers were ambivalent. They approved L1 use sometimes, acknowledged its usefulness to teach vocabulary, to make students feel less lost, and to save time. They disapproved L1 prohibition, and they were unable to use it because of administration policies. The reluctance of teachers to use L1 and the misperceptions regarding the beneficial use of L1 are consistent with findings in literature. Similar findings were noted by Auerbach (1993), who conducted a survey to investigate attitudes among ESL educators in the USA toward the use of L1 in ESL classrooms. She found out that despite 80% approval by the teachers, who allowed the use of L1 at times, they commented that they were not ready to use L1 systematically in their practice because it was a school policy. Other similar studies were conducted by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), who studied teachers' and students' attitudes toward the use of Arabic (L1) in Kuwaiti secondary and primary schools. They found out that English language teachers used Arabic (L1) to teach mainly vocabulary, grammar and difficult concepts.

Some of the reasons as to why teachers were ambivalent about L1 use included constrain by institutional policies and teachers' unwillingness to go against them. Also, L1 was regarded as a taboo issue; those who used it were perceived as weak and incapable to use L2 proficiently. Teachers wanted to protect their image and to portray to their students and supervisors that they were really capable. A third explanation came from arguments in literature that did not support L1. The complete exclusion of the L1 in the EFL/ESL classrooms had implications in teaching. Teachers resorted to alternative techniques which do not make use of L1 in their teaching, even though the use of L1 might be effective and time efficient. For example Teacher 2 tried to explain the word "tradition" and spent about 5 minutes to explain the meaning. She described situations and brought many examples to lead students to understand the meaning of the word. Bringing examples and describing situation is fine but may be in this situation the use of L1 would have saved 5 minutes from class time and lead the teacher to move on to other tasks. The alternative techniques to teach L2 vocabulary without the recourse to L1 used by teachers were

revealed by their answers to Q11. They included the use of simplified language, variety of examples, giving clear definitions, role play, and repetition, use of visuals, animation, and extensive use of the blackboard. The teachers also revealed their preferred teaching methods in Q9. Some reported that the best approaches were the ones that adapt to classroom needs and others reported an eclectic method to be the best method which combines variety of methods so as to give students more opportunities to learn. Despite these acknowledgements, the teachers were not ready to use L1 in their practice. Likewise, the teachers practice did not reflect those attitudes. Some of the justification given for the lag between practice and attitudes were due to attitudes toward the grammar translation method which has been widely discredited and concurrent translation was criticized as ineffective. Indeed many arguments in the literature that were put forward by prominent educators in the L2 field are responsible for this reluctance. Auerbach (1993) explained that the rationale for this reluctance is often framed in pedagogical terms in the literature. These arguments include clichés such as 'the more exposure to English, the more quickly students will learn'; "they will begin to think in English only if they hear and use English"; "the only way they will learn it is if they are forced to use it" (Auerbach, 1993, p. 15).

Conclusion

The questionnaires administered to students and teachers to explore their attitudes toward the use of Arabic (L1) in English classrooms revealed some differences in their attitudes. While teachers believed that Arabic (L1) has some uses in the English classroom, surprisingly, the students were split in their opinions. Notably, the teachers' responses resembled the students' responses when asked about the occasions when Arabic use was deemed necessary. This finding concerning the difference between practice and attitudes is a very interesting finding. Therefore, I agree with Nation (2003) who stated that "A balanced approach is needed which sees a role for L1 but also recognizes the importance of maximizing L2 use in the classroom" (Nation, 2003:7).

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusion

Findings from classroom observations, interviews, and questionnaires regarding teachers' and students' attitudes toward the use of Arabic (L1) in EFL classrooms, revealed that Arabic (L1) is not being used in EFL classrooms. In fact Arabic use is prohibited in English language classrooms in the UAE, and this prohibition comes from administration policies. Accordingly students are taught and teachers are trained not to use L1 in English classrooms. Failure to do so gets teachers in trouble with their administration. This ban was observed in the teaching practices of two teachers, who were observed at a public school in Sharjah, and was also supported by teachers' and students' attitudes in their responses to the questionnaires.

Classroom observations unveiled alternative teaching practices that teachers use to teach English without recourse to Arabic. Both teachers and students appeared satisfied with these practices. The teachers' alternative techniques included the use of simplified language, a variety of examples, giving clear definitions, role play, repetition, use of visuals, animation, and extensive use of the blackboard. Additionally, the teachers at the beginning and intermediate levels relied on the Audio-Lingual and Total Physical Response methods for teaching vocabulary in English.

Furthermore, the attitudes toward L1 use in EFL, which were revealed by students' and teachers' responses to the questionnaires, indicated differences between students and teachers. While students were against the use of L1 by teachers, the majority of teachers approved limited use of L1. Both teachers and students acknowledged L1 usefulness in learning vocabulary and abstract concepts, and for affective reasons. Although teachers acknowledged L1 usefulness in some contexts, they were unable to use it in their practice. Several possible explanations for this finding can be advanced. Due to the strong hold of the methods that stress the need to maximize L2 input, which in their turn influence administration policies who are in charge of decisions and curricula planning, teachers are not confident in their attitudes toward the benefit of L1. In fact recent voices that call for reinstating L1 in English language classrooms have no effect on actual practice pedagogy in the UAE.

Cook (2002) criticized the communicative language teaching which outlawed translation and explanation in the students' first language and declared it as "illegal." Cook believed that the "outlawing of translation, not only reflects the monolingual mind-set of the English speaking world, it has also been to its political and commercial advantage, where the monolingual native-speaker teachers have been privileged and the status of "local" experts undermined" (as cited in Januleviciene & Kavaliauskiene, 2005).

Similarly, Auerbach (1993) criticized arguments in literature which discouraged the use of L1 in teaching ESL and claimed that the strong dominance of the English-only movement was responsible for this discrepancy between attitudes and practice toward L1. She argued that "The axiom underlying the English-only practice which regards English as the only accepted practice among ESL educators is so strong and widely accepted among ESL educators that…teachers assigned a negative value to 'lapses' into the L1, seeing them as failures or aberrations, a cause for guilt, but it needs to be reexamined" (Auerbach, 1993, p. 10).

Nation argued that L1 needs to be seen as a useful tool that can be used where needed, and just like any other tool it should not be over-used. He argued that L1 use should be seen as important as the use of pictures, real objects, and demonstration. He added that L1 provides a familiar and effective way of quickly getting into grips with the meaning and content of words. He recommended establishing a balanced approach that recognizes a role for L1, but also recognizes the importance of maximizing L2 use in the classroom. He asserted that "it is foolish to arbitrarily exclude this proven and efficient means of communication, to do so would be parallel to saying that pictures or real objects should not be used in L2 class" (Nation, 2003, p. 7).

Pedagogical Implications

Findings revealed by this study have important implications that can be extended to what teachers do in their classrooms, and ways to improve teaching and teachers' training and teachers' qualifications. Administrators and policy makers, who are in charge of curriculum decisions, need to understand benefits of L1 in the classroom in order to allow its use. Also, students need to change perceptions about L1 and about who teaches L2. Additionally, teachers' training programs are

responsible to educate teachers when to use L1 appropriately without falling into over use.

The affective benefits of L1 discussed in the literature justify its limited and judicious use in English language classrooms. Teaching that is based on a learner-centered approach and creates classrooms that encourage and motivate students may benefit from some use of L1. Schweers (1999) demonstrated in his research that bringing the L1 to the English language classroom as a means of cultural expression has made English appear to be less of a threat to their vernacular. The students learn that the two languages coexist. It also leads to positive attitudes toward L2 and encourages students to learn more. Similarly, Auerbach (1993) believed that allowing L1 in the classroom was critical to later success, and the use of two languages facilitated the transition to English.

The current standards for teaching qualifications and teachers' training need to be carefully examined. The assumptions, which are usually taken for granted, stipulating that the model teacher in EFL/ESL to be the native speaker, and teachers do not need to know the students' L1 to teach L2 were dealt with by some researchers. Auerbach (1993) argued that it was wrong to assume that just because one speaks English, one can teach it. Philipson (1992) explained that many of the qualities which made native speakers better qualified as English teachers included fluency, appropriate usage, and knowledge of cultural connotations of the language. However, Phillipson added, these qualities can be acquired by non-native teachers through training. He emphasized that non-native speakers possess certain qualifications which native speakers may not have, including going through the "laborious process of acquiring English as a second language and …have insight into the linguistic and cultural needs of their learners" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 195).

Following the arguments made by Phillipson and Auerbach, the qualified teacher is the one, who has not just experience as a language learner, but also the experience of sharing the struggles as a newcomer. Consequently, non-native speakers without proper L2 training are not acceptable, and similarly, native speakers whose qualifications are based on the grounds of their native status may not be effective also. The consequences of the prohibition of L1 in L2 classrooms on teachers (native speakers and non-native speakers) has caused non-native teachers (NNS), who make up the vast majority of language teachers to feel defensive or guilty and to be perceived as unable to "match up" to native speakers in terms of conducting a class

entirely in English (Harbord, 1992, p. 350). Braine (1999) argued that "The playing field will not be level for NNS teachers. They will have to struggle twice as hard to achieve what often comes as a birthright to their native speakers (NS) counterparts: recognition of their teaching ability and respect for their scholarship" (p. 23). However, the ban of L1 had a lot of benefits for English NS whose career in ELT flourished because of their native English status. Harbord claimed that "It is reported that some institutes refuse to hire native speakers because of their ignorance of the students L1 which renders them incapable of explaining the system of the language to the students" (Harbord, 1992, p. 351). Also, Aurebach (1993) believed that the insistence on the irrelevance of teachers' knowing the learners' languages may be a justification for maintaining the status of native English speakers. She recommended expanding the conception to include other kinds of knowledge beyond those traditionally developed and validated through institutions of higher education, such as ties between the classroom and communities of the learners.

In addition, this study found a lag between practice and attitudes. This lag can be minimized through professional development, in particular teachers' training programs. The classroom observations revealed that teachers are still holding to older methods and that they are not exposed to more current insights in the field of ELT. The new calls for reinstating L1 in the classroom are not heard of as yet. Therefore, teachers' training programs should educate both supervisors and teachers. Training courses should provide knowledge and reasoning as to why L1 may be useful in teaching. Finally, teachers who acknowledge the usefulness of L1 but who are reluctant to use it need to be assured by supervisors that they can use L1 and the best way to do so is through professional development and training programs.

<center>Recommendations</center>

Despite the teachers' and students' approval of a useful role of L1 in teaching and learning vocabulary and for humanistic reasons, there were discrepancies between what is practiced in the English language classrooms, and the attitudes revealed by teachers and students toward L1 in L2 education. Therefore, a need for a balanced approach toward dealing with L1 in a systematic way is needed This recommendation is in line with Cook (2002b) and Nation (1997) who believed that a systematic approach toward dealing with L1 in EFL is necessary. Cook recommended

<center>64</center>

that L1 should not be seen as a taboo issue in ELT, but as a natural phenomenon because foreign language use is full of translation, switching, and negotiating between languages which are part and parcel of everyday use. Cook added "translation in the classroom is quite authentic, together with the conscious focus on differences between languages. If students are aware of the differences, then interference is likely to be reduced" (Cook, 2002 cited in Januleviciene & Kavaliauskiene, 2005).

Based on this research, using L1 to teach vocabulary is recommended because it is effective, especially at the beginning stages of learning. More support for this idea is advocated by Nation (2003). Although Nation conceded that there were numerous ways of conveying the meaning of an unknown word, which included a definition in the second language, a demonstration, a picture, or a diagram, a real object, L2 context clues, or an L1 translation, he argued that in terms of accuracy and conveying meaning the studies have demonstrated that L1 translation was the most effective. Nation added that L1 translations represented essential qualities for effective learning which were clear, familiar, and concise meanings. Nation emphasized that "research shows the direct learning of L2 vocabulary using word cards with their L1 translations is a very effective method of learning…when the use of L1 translation is combined with the use of word cards for the initial learning of vocabulary then learners have a very effective strategy for speeding up vocabulary growth" (Nation, 2003, p. 4). Following Nation, the effective role of L1 in L2 education should be enhanced rather than discouraged. The important thing is to define the parameters of L1 use, how often should teachers use it in the classroom, in which situations, and for which reasons. It is important to define those parameters so that reluctant teachers can rely on a principled approach toward dealing with L1 systematically and without going against administration policies. Auerbach (1993) argued that the appropriate use of learners' L1 in L2 classrooms should be encouraged wherever this will have positive effects on the learners and their learning. Nation (1997) cited examples toward a systematic approach of using L1 appropriately, including explaining some vocabulary and grammar, explaining the procedure for a task through L1 if the task was confusing and too difficult to be understood in L2, allowing the learners to use L1 to say what matters to them, as a way to give them a role in directing the classroom, and using L1 to show it is a valued resource in the classroom. Nation (1997) claimed that research indicated that some learning goals can be achieved and enhanced if learners used the first language during certain parts of

activities. He reported on a study conducted on Samoan students which compared students' achievements learning English vocabulary through the medium of their first language, and found that the students outperformed the learners who did the task in the L2 language. The study showed that the students who used their first language to do the task were more focused on the demands of the task and were involved in higher quality discussion.

More studies have also confirmed the effective benefits of L1 use in L2 classes which justify its limited and judicious use. Schweers (1999) provided a compelling argument for the validity of incorporating the L1 into EFL education. He surveyed Puerto Rican students and teachers at his university and found that the majority of students and teachers felt that Spanish (L1) should be used in their English classes. Most of the students felt that their L1 helped them feel "less lost," and that it should be used to explain difficult concepts. Some of the teachers' responses included teachers' belief that L1 was an "additional input," good for establishing rapport with students, and useful to minimize the distress caused by language imposition on them. Some of the teachers in his survey reported that they occasionally used Spanish "to keep the students who do not understand her every word on track as to what is happening in the lesson" (p.9). He concluded that "recognizing and welcoming their own language into the classroom as an expression of their own culture could be one way of dispelling negative attitudes toward English and increasing receptivity to learning the language" (Schweers, 1999, 8). Kreieger (2005) reported that his students felt that English had been imposed on them in an almost imperialistic way, so by speaking L1 with his students, he validated their language and showed that English was not better or superior, but necessary.

Tang (2002) also conducted a similar study with Chinese speakers. He compared the results of his study to that of Schweers' (1999), and stated that "Both studies indicated that the mother tongue was used by the majority of teachers investigated, and both students and teachers responded positively toward its use" (Tang, 2002, 41). Nunan and Lamb (1996, as cited in Tang, 2002) pointed out that EFL teachers in monolingual classrooms reported that it was impossible to prohibit the use of L1 and that students will always use their L1 whether teachers permitted it or not. Finally, Kreieger (2005) recommended that it is the teacher' job to try to prevent the use of L1 that does not serve some purpose by making clear what

constitutes acceptable L1 usage and what does not, .and thus to systematize the use of L1 in pedagogically beneficial ways.

Another powerful claim in favor of L1use in EFL is considering L1 as part of the students' schemata or prior knowledge experience that should not be avoided or ignored in the English language classroom. Grabe supports the notion of building on students' schemata to enhance flue ncy and comprehension by calling up stable background knowledge (as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002). L1 can be exploited to assist students in learning rather than an obstacle that interferes in learning. For that reason L1 should not be discouraged, but rather it should be encouraged.

There are more reasons to recommend a judicious use of L1 in teaching L2. The positive and facilitating role of L1 in L2 education comes from personal experience as a tutor at the American University of Sharjah Writing Center. During tutorials I found myself at times using the students' L1. At first, it seemed that it was used to emphasize a point or an idea that can be better understood in L1, and to minimize students' anxiety, who were frustrated from their writing, and came to receive help from the writing center. Minimizing students' anxiety is an important element in tutoring because many of the students who come to the writing center have mostly studied English just as a school subject, and have not used it as a real language for communication. S o they needed a lot of encouragement, and the use of L1 in that context seemed to be appealing and helpful. Also, the use of L1 with students saved a lot of time. Given the nature of the tutorials and their limited time allowed for each session, the use of L1 for a quick translation of a word was justified. As a result students got a good head start, and their awareness as to why they made these errors became meaningful, which immediately improved their self esteem and confidence.

Another example that supports the effectiveness of L1 in pedagogical domains comes from an instructor in the IEP, who stated that "L1 should not be ruled out in teaching because sometimes there are abstract words that no matter how hard we try to explain, the students do not seem to comprehend." She cited an example from her own teaching experience when she attempted to teach the word "paganism." She said that she tried to explain it in different ways, but was unable to convey its precise meaning, until one student in the audie nce said its meaning in Arabic. T he students had a sigh of relief because they immediately got the meaning, and her lesson went on smoothly afterwards.

Finally, based on teachers' attitudes, who favored L1 use as an option in teaching, and examples cited from research studies and from personal experience, I believe L1 should be seen as an option in the hands of teachers that can be used in appropriate contexts. I also believe that teaching should not be "one size fits all." Teachers need options and freedom to adapt their teaching according to classrooms needs. Their decision should not be based on reluctance or fear from administration, but it should come from understanding and adapting to the needs of the classroom. If teachers have the option to use L1, then they have the freedom in their classroom to find the best practice for that particular class dynamics.

Limitations of the Study

Classroom observations were an essential part of this study. Observations in the public schools are usually made by supervisors or principals and made for promotion, or for improving teaching. Therefore, observations are regarded negatively and perceived as threatening. As a result, teachers usually do not like visitors to observe their classrooms. This is totally understandable because it puts a lot of strain on them. Even though teachers knew that the purpose of my observation was for research only, they may have felt threatened by my presence. I am not quite sure whether my presence in the classroom influenced their practice and made them avoid the use of Arabic or not.

Additionally, the idea of a video or a tape recorder in the classroom was completely un-favored. The teachers were very concerned about the confidentiality of their practice and their privacy. Although they were very cooperative and receptive, still they were concerned how the data will present their practice. They asked to see the final product of my thesis. I believe that the use of tape recorders or videos in the class would have supported my examples. Loss of data or forgetting things would be verified by recording or videotaping.

This study took into account teachers' perceptions toward L1 at two institutions: one was tertiary and the other was a primary school. The study took into account students' perceptions toward L1 at one location, namely the tertiary. It did not take into account the students' perceptions at the primary school. The Students' motivation and purposes in learning English at the two institutes are quite different

which may affect their attitudes toward L1. It would have been an interesting comparison between students in the public schools with students at the college level.

Concerning generalisability of data findings, I think the findings can be generalized because they are consistent with literature. However, this research did not examine the effect of other variables on teachers' attitudes. These variables include gender, teaching experiences, teacher's background and nationality, and native vs. non native teachers. Finally, it is hoped that future research will address these issues in further detail.

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Appendix 1

Uses of Arabic (L1) in the English Language Classroom (L2)

Teacher's name		Name of School				Class level			
Dates									
Teach grammar									
Explain vocabulary									
Establish rapport									
Joking									
Teach study skills									
Testing Explain complex ideas									
Create non-threatening learning environment									
Classroom management									
Give instructions Organization tasks									
Do translations									

Appendix 2

Questions for Teachers' Interviews

No.	Questions
1.	Do you think Arabic (L1) should be used in the classroom?
2.	How much percentage do you think Arabic (L1) may be used in teaching L2?
3.	When do you think it is necessary to use Arabic (L1) in English classroom?
4.	Why do you think it may be necessary to use Arabic (L1) in teaching English?
5.	How do you feel about the prohibition of Arabic (L1) in English language classroom by the Ministry of Education policy?
6.	Do you feel the prohibition of Arabic (L1) presents an obstacle in your teaching?
7.	How do you go about your teaching without using Arabic (L1)? What are your teaching techniques?
8.	Would you like to have the option of using Arabic (L1) in your teaching?

Appendix 3

Students' Attitudes toward the Use of Arabic (L1) in the English

Language Classroom: A Questionnaire

Dear Student,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out how you feel about the use of Arabic

(L1) in your English language (L2) classroom.

Please complete this survey according to your experience and believes. Your answers

will be used for research purposes only. You do not need to write your names.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Tahani Qadri

MA TESOL Program

American University of Sharjah

Spring, 2006.

Please mark your answer by circling the answer that is applicable to you.

Part 1:

1. Gender   M   F

2. Age (optional)

3. What kind of educational institution you graduated from?

4. How many years have you been studying English?

Part 2:

5. Do you think Arabic should be used in the classroom?

Yes   No   sometimes

6. How much percentage do you think Arabic should be used?

5%   10%   15%   25%   50%   75%

7. How often do you think Arabic should be used in the English classroom?

Never   very rarely   sometimes   frequently

8. When do you think it is necessary to use Arabic in English class?

    A. To help learn new vocabulary items.

    B. To help learn abstract vocabulary

    C. To introduce new material

    D. To explain difficult concepts or ideas

    E. To give instructions

    F. To give suggestions on how to learn more effectively

    G. During tests

    H. During group work

    I. To explain the relationship between Arabic & English

    J. Others, please specify

9. Do you believe using Arabic in your English class helps you learn the language?

Sometimes   a little   a lot   not at all

10. Why do you think Arabic would be useful in your English classroom?

    A. It helps me better understand difficult concepts

    B. It helps me better understand new vocabulary

    C. It makes me feel at ease and less stressed

    D. It makes me feel comfortable and not lost

    E. It helps me improve my learning strategies

    F. It encourages me and motivates me

    G. Other, please specify

11. Would you like your teacher to use Arabic in the classroom?

Yes   No   sometimes   a little   a lot

This questionnaire is adapted from: Schweers, W. J. (1999), and Tang, J. (2002).

Appendix 4

Teachers' Attitudes toward the Use of Arabic (L1) in the English

Language Classroom: A Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire aims at finding out your attitudes and believes toward the use of
Arabic (L1) in your English (L2) classroom. Please reflect on your own experience by
completing this survey.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to establish data for my MA Thesis in TESOL.
You do not need to write your names. Your answers will be used for research
purposes only.

Thank you for your utmost cooperation.

Tahani Qadri

MA TESOL Program

American University of Sharjah

Spring, 2006.

Please mark your answer by circling the answer that is applicable to you.

Part 1:

1. Gender   M   F

2. When and where did you graduate from?

3. What kind of educational institution you are teaching in?

4. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

Part 2:

5. .Do you think Arabic (L1) should be used in the English (L2) classroom?

Yes   No   sometimes

6. How much percentage do you think Arabic (L1) may be used in teaching L2?

5%   10%   15%   25%   50%   75%

7. When do you think it is necessary to use Arabic (L1) in the English (L2) classroom?

1. To explain some new vocabulary
2. To help define some abstract vocabulary
3. To explain the relationship between English and Arabic
4. To give instructions
5. To give suggestions on how to learn more effectively
6. During tests
7. To establish rapport with students
8. Other, please specify

8. Why do you think Arabic (L1) is useful in the English (L2) classroom?

1. It aids comprehension greatly
2. It is more effective for teaching vocabulary especially abstract words
3. It saves time
4. It helps create a non-threatening learning environment
5. It minimizes students' feeling at loss.
6. It helps establish rapport with students
7. It enhances students motivation

8. It is an option I like to have in the classroom

9. Other, please specify

9. Which teaching method do you believe is best to teach L2? Why?

10. How do you feel about the prohibition of Arabic in the English classroom affect your teaching?

1. Slows you down

2. Takes away teaching options

3. Students feel at loss

4. Students may not understand a concept precisely

5. Takes a lot of time to explain something they may understand immediately translation

6. Others, please specify

11. How do you teach English (L2) without the recourse of Arabic (L1)? What teaching techniques do you use to avoid using Arabic (L1)?

1. The use of visuals (flashcards)

2. Modeling or demonstrating (Role play)

3. Become animated

4. The use of realia

5. Use variety of examples

6. Connects new ideas with the here and now

7. Give clear definitions of words

8. Repetition

9. Rephrasing

10. Use simplified language

11. Use the blackboard extensively

12. Others, please specify.

Adapted from Tang, J. (2002).

VITA

Tahani Qadri was born in Nablus in Palestine, and was educated there through high school. She received her BA in Languages and Literature in 1982 from the University of Athens in Greece. She obtained her MA in Translation and Linguistics from the University of Bath in the UK in 1985. Ms. Qadri moved to the USA in 1986 where she became an American citizen. She studied linguistics at the PhD level at Northwestern University from 1987 to 1990. Ms. Qadri has worked extensively in the fields of public relations, translation, and editing. In 2003 she decided to pursue her second MA in TESOL at the American University of Sharjah in the United Arab Emirates to prepare herself for a new career in teaching English at institutes of higher education. Ms. Qadri is currently an adjunct instructor of writing in the Intensive English Program, and an academic achievement advisor at the American University of Sharjah. She has also been a writing tutor at the Writing Center of the same institution. She received two honor awards for high achievement in the MA TESOL program.