

The Use of the Mother Tongue in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Libyan Higher Education

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Abstract

This research examines the role of mother tongue use in the teaching of English as a foreign language within the context of Libyan Higher education. The present research aims to explore the extent of Arabic use, attitudes towards this use and reasons for it among Libyan teachers and students. Literature within the field indicates that there has been much controversy surrounding the use of the mother tongue in teaching English with shifting views over the centuries. However, recently there has been a swing towards a recognition of potential positive roles that the mother tongue could have in the language classroom. Yet, despite this recognition, the issue is far from resolved and despite research within the field, there are still substantial gaps in knowledge and understanding of teachers and students' extent and reasons for L1 use, as well as attitudes towards this use.

The ongoing debate surrounding this issue requires further empirical research as proposed by the present research, with a focus on the unexplored Libyan context, aiming to add new insights to current discussions. The present research investigates this issue through a mixed method approach, allowing for an elaborate understanding as well as offering greater confidence in conclusions reached. I carried out three studies, in which I employed questionnaires, interviews, and observational as data collection methods with each expanding and adding depth to findings. The results of the three studies indicate that various factors within the Libyan EFL classroom, including lack of teacher training, proficiency level in the TL and course content, lead with some exceptions, to an overall high use of L1 (Arabic) among teachers and students.

I also found that attitudes of teachers are mostly positive, and those of students differed according to proficiency level. I reasoned that teachers' practices could be constrained by many aspects and conditions both internal and external to the teacher. In this regard, I drew out insights to factors leading to teachers' L1 use within the Libyan EFL classroom, raising awareness of their potential effect on the process of teaching and learning. This highlights the need for future policy change and improvement allowing for a more judicious and well-informed teacher use of L1 based on appropriate, practical, and effective teacher training and continuing professional development programs.

Declaration

I certify that the content of this thesis is my own account, based upon work that I carried out myself. I also declare that any part of the work of others incorporated from published or unpublished sources, has clearly been acknowledged as such.

Rania Mansor

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my dear parents, husband, and daughters who have been a constant source of support and encouragement.

Contents

| | |
|--------------------|----|
| Abstract | 2 |
| Acknowledgement | 5 |
| List of figures | 11 |
| List of tables | 12 |
| Abbreviations Used | 13 |

Chapter 1 Introduction

| | |
|--|----|
| 1.0 Background | 14 |
| 1.1 Rational for the study | 20 |
| 1.2 Research Aims | 22 |
| 1.3 The studies | 22 |
| 1.4 Definitions of terms used in the study | 23 |
| 1.5 Organization of the thesis | 24 |

Chapter 2 Literature review

| | |
|---|----|
| 2.0 Introduction | 26 |
| 2.1 Language teaching and mother tongue use up to the 18th Century | 27 |
| 2.2 English language teaching and the shifting mother tongue status: 18th –20th Century | 31 |

| | |
|--|----|
| 2.3 The Reform movement | 32 |
| 2.4 The Direct method | 36 |
| 2.5 The Audiolingual method and Situational teaching | 40 |
| 2.6 Dodson's Bilingual method | 45 |
| 2.7 Alternative approaches and methods | 50 |
| 2.8 The Natural approach | 52 |
| 2.9 Communicative language teaching | 54 |
| 2.10 Language teaching based on the communicative approach | 58 |
| 2.10.1 Task based approach | 58 |
| 2.10.2 Co-operative Learning | 61 |
| 2.10.3 Content and language integrated learning | 64 |
| 2.11 The Post Communicative Period | 67 |
| 2.11.1 Criticism of the communicative approach | 67 |
| 2.11.2 Eclecticism | 70 |
| 2.12 The Debate on Mother Tongue use | 74 |
| 2.13 Monolingual arguments against mother tongue use | 77 |
| 2.13.1 Maximum exposure | 77 |
| 2.13.2 Interference | 80 |
| 2.13.3 Translation | 83 |
| 2.14 Bilingual arguments | 85 |

| | | |
|--------|---|-----|
| 2.14.1 | Roots of the monolingual arguments | 86 |
| 2.14.2 | Maximum exposure from the bilingual perspective | 88 |
| 2.14.3 | Interference from the bilingual perspective | 94 |
| 2.14.4 | Translation and the bilingual argument | 98 |
| 2.15 | Summary | 102 |
| 2.16 | Conclusion | 104 |

Chapter 3 The Libyan Context

| | | |
|-------|---|-----|
| 3.0 | Introduction | 108 |
| 3.1 | Brief history | 108 |
| 3.2 | English language teaching in Libya | 111 |
| 3.3 | English language teaching Curriculum in Libya | 112 |
| 3.4 | English language teaching approaches and methods in Libya | 117 |
| 3.4.1 | The communicative approach in Libya | 117 |
| 3.4.2 | Traditional practices | 121 |
| 3.5 | Teacher beliefs | 123 |
| 3.6 | Sociocultural influence | 129 |
| 3.7 | Teacher training and continuing professional development in Libya | 133 |
| 3.8 | Summary | 140 |
| 3.9 | Conclusion | 140 |

Chapter 4 Patterns of L1 Use among Libyan EFL students

| | |
|--|-----|
| 4.0 Introduction | 148 |
| 4.1 Ethical considerations | 149 |
| 4.2 Methodology | 150 |
| 4.2.1 Sample of participants | 150 |
| 4.2.2 Questionnaire preparation | 152 |
| 4.2.3 Validity of research instrument | 157 |
| 4.2.4 Data collection | 159 |
| 4.2.5 Data preparation | 159 |
| 4.3 Results | 163 |
| 4.4 Discussion | 169 |
| 4.4.1 Frequency and functions of teachers' use of L1 | 170 |
| 4.4.2 Frequency and functions of students' use of L1 | 173 |
| 4.5 Conclusion | 183 |

Chapter 5 Patterns of L1 use among Libyan EFL teachers

| | |
|----------------------------------|-----|
| 5.0 Introduction | 180 |
| 5.1 Ethical considerations | 181 |
| 5.2 Methodology | 182 |
| 5.2.1 Sample of participants | 182 |
| 5.2.2 Data collection instrument | 183 |

| | | | |
|-------|---------------------|------------------------|-----|
| 5.2.3 | Question | preparation | 185 |
| 5.2.4 | Conducting | the interviews | 186 |
| 5.2.5 | Validity | of research instrument | 187 |
| 5.2.6 | Data | analysis | 187 |
| 5.3 | Results | and discussion | 189 |
| 5.3.1 | Teachers' frequency | of L1 use | 190 |
| 5.3.2 | Teachers' functions | for L1 use | 202 |
| 5.3.3 | Teachers' attitudes | towards the use of L1 | 215 |
| 5.4 | | Conclusion | 219 |

Chapter 6 Classroom observations for patterns of L1 use among Libyan teachers and students

| | | | |
|-------|--------------|----------------|-----|
| 6.0 | Introduction | | 224 |
| 6.1 | Ethical | considerations | 225 |
| 6.2 | Methodology | | 226 |
| 6.2.1 | Observations | schemes | 231 |
| 6.2.2 | Field | notes | 233 |
| 6.2.3 | Audio | recording | 234 |
| 6.2.4 | Data | analysis | 234 |
| 6.3 | Results | | 237 |
| 6.4 | Discussion | | 240 |

| | | |
|-------|--|-----|
| 6.4.1 | Frequency of teachers' use of L1 | 242 |
| 6.4.2 | Functions of teachers' use of L1 | 250 |
| 6.4.3 | Students' uses of L1: frequency & function | 268 |
| 6.5 | Conclusion | 274 |

Chapter 7 Conclusion

| | | |
|-----|--|-----|
| 7.0 | Introduction | 279 |
| 7.1 | Libyan teachers' frequency, function and attitudes towards the use of L1 | 280 |
| 7.2 | Libyan students' frequency, function and attitudes towards the use of L1 | 287 |
| 7.3 | Research limitations | 291 |
| 7.4 | Research Contributions | 292 |
| 7.5 | Suggestions for future research | 293 |

Appendices

| | | |
|--------------|--|-----|
| Appendix 1a: | A sample of skill book content year | 294 |
| Appendix 1b: | A sample of skill book content year | 295 |
| Appendix 1c: | A sample of skill book content year | 296 |
| Appendix 2: | Role play activity pair work-skill book (year 3) | 297 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Appendix 3: Peer assessment activity-skill book (year 3)..... | 298 |
| Appendix 4: Student questionnaires (Arabic version)..... | 300 |
| Appendix 5: Student questionnaires (English version)..... | 303 |
| Appendix 6: Interview questions..... | 308 |
| Appendix 7: Observation scheme..... | 309 |
| Appendix 8: Extracts from classroom observations | 310 |
| Appendix 9: Ethics check form..... | 320 |

References

| | |
|-------|-----|
| | 321 |
|-------|-----|

List of figures

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 1: Chart showing questionnaire results for teachers' uses of L1 | 160 |
| Figure 2: Chart showing questionnaire results for students' uses of L1 | 161 |

Figure 3: Chart showing observational data results for teachers' L1 use
.....238

Figure 4: Chart showing observational data results for students' L1 use
.....238

List of tables

Table 1: Group A (native Arabic teacher) results for categories A,B,C & D157

Table 2: Group B (native English teacher) results for categories A,B,C &D158

Table 3: Most frequent teacher uses of L1 as reported by students162

Table 4: Group A and group B students' attitudes towards the use of L1 as found in the first study162

Table 5: Group A and group B students' reasons for the use of L1 as found in the first study163

Table 6: Functions and examples of L1 uses found in the data for participant teachers who took part in the second study203

Table 7: The total number of observed and audio recorded classes in the third Study227

Table 8: Teachers' uses of L1, L2 & total talk time based on data from the observational study239

Table 9: Students' uses of L1 & L2 based on data from the observational study.....240

List of abbreviations

| | |
|------|--|
| ALM | Audiolingual Method |
| CA | Contrastive Analysis |
| CLL | Community Language Learning |
| CLT | Communicative Language Teaching |
| CLIL | Content and Integrated Language Learning |
| CPD | Continuing Professional Development |
| EA | Error Analysis |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| ELT | English Language Teaching |
| ESL | English as a Second Language |
| FL | Foreign language |
| FLT | Foreign Language Teaching |
| L1 | The first language / the native language |
| L2 | The second language / the foreign language |
| MT | Mother tongue |
| TBA | Task Based Approach |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Background

English language teaching (ELT) has over the centuries witnessed shifting views in relation to the use of the mother tongue; while it was generally accepted up to the 18th century within the language classroom, such would alter following this period. There would be various attempts over time to recognise the MT as a resource but these would largely have limited influence. During the 16th and 17th centuries, Latin was considered as the classical and hence the best model of language (Moulton, 1963; Howatt, 1983). Therefore, during this period, language study was a reflection of the long-established status of Latin.

Although the 16th and 17th centuries witnessed emergence of some new perspectives of the role and function of language studies (Ascham, 1570; Bacon, 1605; Webb, 1622); for example, during this period, Montaigne, among others, and in the 17th century Comenius and Locke, attempted the introduction of alternative approaches to education. However, such attempts were fruitless, and the role of language study continued to reflect the prevalent dominance of Latin with a traditional grammar translation approach (Moulton, 1963; Howatt, 1983; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). As part of this type of classroom, the use of the L1 was regarded as acceptable practice.

In the 18th century, modern languages were taught as part of European school curriculum, and here the same techniques used for teaching latin were employed, an important component of which was the practice of the mother tongue (MT) (Howatt, 1984). The grammar translation method (GTM) would develop and indeed reign within the field of FL teaching up to the 19th century, with a primary focus on translation, emphasis being on the written word over the spoken word, and practices which utilized the mother tongue considered the norm (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Growing discontent with the GTM's subordination of speaking and the practice of translation of disconnected sentences would start to gain momentum during this century (Stern, 1983; White, 1988; Nunan, 1999). From around the mid-1800s, this would start to take shape through the work of a number of European language teaching experts, for example, Sweet, Passy, and Vietor, who by the 1880s clearly identified the need for speaking proficiency. The development of what would be termed the reform movement would parallel a move away from the written form to the spoken form of language (Gouin, 1892; Jespersen, 1904; Sweet, 1900).

During the methods period, Berlitz Method and the Direct Method voiced rejection of L1 in the language classroom (Stieglitz, 1955; Gouin 1892; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). The Audio-lingual Method would reject the use of the L1 on 'scientific' bases, asserting its use should be avoided to minimize negative transfer (Selinker, 1972; Corder, 1978). Other methods, for example, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, and Silent Way, allowed limited use of L1.

Although some methods and approaches have attempted to incorporate the L1 as an integral part of the teaching process, for example, Dodson's Bilingual method (1974), yet English language classrooms have not practiced these widely, nor do these attempts represent a complete approach that teachers could use in various situations. What these do share is an appreciation of the potentially positive role that the L1 can have. The general negative view of the L1 has influenced a wide range of teaching methods, though such has not been explicit. Communicative language teaching has no necessary relationship with the L1 and, as detailed in chapter 2, reference is typically made to the L1 in the process of cautioning against its use (Crookes & Gass, 1993; Nunan, 1989). Mainstream ELT literature describes the ideal classroom as one that has minimal contact with the L1, mainly by avoiding any reference to it.

The dominant monolingual position is based on the need for maximum exposure to the target language, to the difficulties L1 would cause through interference and various issues linked with translation. The first argument gained strength through claims in relation to the similarity between L1 and L2 acquisition, with a proposal that humans are innately equipped with the means to support the process of language learning (Chomsky, 1972). Hence, exposure becomes almost undisputable.

In Krashen's view, language acquisition develops over time, with listening preceding speaking, and no necessary need for the teaching of grammatical rules. For Krashen (1985) exposure to comprehensible input in the context of real communication is the main component required for language proficiency. Second, proponents of maximum TL use state that the use of L1 can have

negative effect arguing that it can obstruct or interfere in the process of L2 learning (Selinker, 1972; Corder, 1975; Ellis, 1999).

Finally, a challenge to the use of translation dates back to the early reform period as mentioned earlier (Jespersen, 1904; Sweet, 1900; Gouin, 1892); Lado (1964) argued that translation as a teaching and testing tool hinders the achievement of some generally accepted foreign language teaching aims. These include the arguments that translation causes hindrance in achieving fluency in spoken language and that it is different and independent from the four skills.

More recently, there has been a shift in attitudes towards the position of the mother tongue. Opponents of the monolingual approach have questioned the pedagogical and theoretical roots of such widely held views and have offered counter arguments to the above in favor of mother tongue use (Auerbach, 2003; Butzkamm, 2003; Wharton, 2007; DiCamilla & Anton, 2012; Levine, 2014; Liu, 2015). Despite the insistence on keeping the MT out of language classrooms, McMillan & Rivers (2011) suggested that such was not possible with reference made particularly to contexts where the teachers and students share the L1. The arguments forwarded put into question the notion of exposure in a natural environment, and state that insistence on achieving this could be counter-productive. TL use is linked with the assumption that pupils will acquire the foreign language through engagement in a similar way to the manner in which they acquired their first language (Krashen, 1983).

Opponents of this view argue that the main environments necessary for such process are artificial and often lacking in the FL classroom, "The simple truth is that the call for 'real' communication and the ban of the MT are conflicting

demands” (Butzkamm, 2003:33). The MT supports the establishment of a class environment which is near enough to the called for natural environment through, for example, “personal remarks to a student”, and “for light banter creating warmth and acceptance” (Butzkamm, 2003:33). It has also been highlighted that exposure alone without the aid of L1 jeopardizes potential of attaining “comprehensible input” and hence acquisition (Cook, 2001).

Opponents of the monolingual approach also argued against the notion of interference. According to Cook (2001), interference is an obstacle to the learning of a foreign language that learners can overcome only if they separate the MT and the TL. At any given time, the learner was recognized as having an interlanguage, combining features of both the L1 and the TL of the learner (Selinker, 1972). Different to interference errors, intralingual errors arise from characteristics of the target language and are observable among children learning it as their first language (Dulay & Burt, 1973, 1974). Finally, Ivanova (1998) disputed that translation is not independent of the other four skills since it cannot be accomplished without a great deal of reading, writing, speaking and listening. Additionally, Ross (2000) maintains that translation is as a crucial social skill as it encourages communication as well as support understanding. Furthermore, translation involves complex language processing requirements including selection, coordination and monitoring of information at different levels. Additionally, translating does not function within one language and denotes the skill to relate two language systems to one another appropriately. Here Malmkjaer (1998) suggests that negative interference is minimized while positive interference in selecting the most appropriate translational equivalents is maximized.

Furthermore, the validity of the monolingual position would be put into question with findings from various studies revealing the role that the mother tongue plays within different contexts (Duff & Polio, 1990; Macaro, 1997). These studies showed that there is variance in quantity of L1 use amongst teachers, true even of context that are based on CLT and an emphasis on TL use; however, despite such considerable variance in L1 use within foreign language classrooms, the purposes for such use are quite common across different contexts.

Some studies, for example, Swain & Lapkin, (2000), have found that the first language can offer cognitive support in the process of learning a foreign language. These findings led some researchers to reconsider the 'virtual position' (Macaro, 1997), which views no value in the use of the L1 and stresses its avoidance proposing instead a maximum use of the TL (Turnbull, 2001). Though there is agreement amongst advocates of the maximal position that L1 can be beneficial, yet warn that its excessive use could amount to reducing exposure to the L2. The maximal position has however been criticized, for example, for not being distinct enough from the virtual position as it views the ultimate ideal is the use of L2 as much as possible. It is possible to link this aspect to the dominant view that the native British or American as the ideal "teacher" of the L2. One may suggest since monolingualism appears to be the default position of Anglos, a multilingual classroom would have been a challenge.

Opponents of the mother tongue mainly support a more 'optimal' (Macaro, 1997) use of the L1 based on the premise that the L1 has numerous "pedagogical, discursive and social functions" (Levine, 2014:332). Schweers (1999) advocates the judicious use of L1 as an aid to learning the TL. Far from being a

cause of interference, the role of L1 is recognized as offering scaffolding which allows for building new knowledge on the existing one (DiCamilla & Anton, 2012). Additionally, the use of the L1 offers cognitive support making possible the exploration of language and production of more advanced level of work (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). Cook (2001) proposes that L1 and L2 knowledge is interlinked in the students' minds through discovering similarities between the two languages.

Tang (2002) points to the benefits of occasional teachers and students' use of the L1 pointing to its potential in increasing comprehension and aiding the process of L2 learning. An additional facilitating function of L1 in language classes has also included allowing students to express themselves in a more effective manner (Wharton, 2007). The optimal use of the L1 has also been justified on the basis that it offers a secure environment in which there is recognition of the lived experiences of learners (Auerbach, 1993). Liu (2015) proposed that "using L1 may increase learner interaction in the L2 classroom related to the socio-cognitive negotiation of pedagogic roles, intersubjectivity, and intrapersonal constructs of inner and private speech" (p. 2434).

Despite shifts, that are more recent recognizing a facilitating role for the mother tongue in the EFL classrooms within various contexts, "the issue of the roles of the learners' first language (L1) in language pedagogy and classroom interaction is far from settled" (Levine, 2014:332)). Indeed, it may still be described in Prodromou's (2001) terms as a skeleton in the cupboard. Even with the given potential functions of L1, some practitioners continue to reject to various degrees its place in the language classroom, "the status quo in language teaching has approached the L1 as if it were something, if not dangerous, then

at least undesirable and stigmatized” (Levine, 2014:332). This ongoing and unresolved debate on the issue of the mother tongue requires further empirical research in terms of frequency, function, and attitude towards this use. I propose this in the present research, with a focus on the Libyan context, aiming to add new insights to current discussions.

1.1 Rationale for the study

The 20th century witnessed continued professional and methodological debates within the field of language teaching with the assumption being English is best taught and learnt without the reference to the students’ L1. More recently such has been challenged, and the need for a reevaluation of the role of the MT is gaining greater recognition. However, there are substantial gaps in knowledge and understanding in terms of the extent and function of MT use, as well as the attitudes towards this use. The present research offers valuable contributions towards filling this gap with significant and rich empirical data on these aspects.

It is from my personal experience as a teacher in Libyan HE that the issue of MT use held a particular importance. That is, the question of L1 use and its potentially advantages or disadvantages in terms of teaching and learning within this context. Further, on reviewing literature specific to ELT within the Libyan context, it became apparent that there is a clear absence of research similar to that conducted in the other parts of the world in relation to the significant issue of mother tongue use. According to Reza et al (2007) within the Libyan context, teaching practices continue to rely widely on the use of L1 in EFL classes at

both Libyan schools and universities; however, no research into the extent, frequency, and attitude towards this use have been conducted to date.

As such, in this study I will initiate new research in a highly significant area and explore all three aspects in relation to both teachers and students. An investigation of attitude, frequency, and function of L1 use allows for a better and vital overall understanding of the issue in the Libyan EFL classroom. This will contribute significantly in preparing ground for future policy makers' developments of such aspects as curriculum and teacher training programmes that would support constructively a more selective and balanced use of the MT in the EFL classroom.

1.2 Research aims

In the present research, I aim to investigate the following three points in the Libyan HE context from the perspectives of students and teachers:

- 1) The extent to which Arabic is used in the teaching and learning of EFL.
- 2) The main reasons for the use of Arabic in the teaching and learning of EFL
- 3) Attitudes towards the use of Arabic in the teaching and learning of EFL.

1.3 The studies

I explored the issue of MT use in three chapters (4, 5, & 6) which include both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods to examine the frequency,

function, and attitudes of teachers and students towards this use. For a research area that is largely unexplored, as in the case of Libya, it is advantageous to combine both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Through the whole research I will adopt a mixed methods approach based on the view that this is “inclusive, pluralistic, and complementary” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:17), and that it allows one to “draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both [quantitative and qualitative paradigms] in single research studies and across studies” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:4). Dornyei (2007) suggests that a better understanding of a complex phenomenon can be achieved “by converging numeric trends from quantitative data and specific details from qualitative data” (p. 45). Such a convergence and corroboration of findings has the powerful advantage of improving the validity of outcomes. Hence, in the present study, by using a mixed method approach I would present an elaborate understanding and greater confidence in conclusions in relation to the issue of MT use in the Libyan context.

For the three studies, I employed questionnaires, interviews, and observational data collection methods. I conducted the first study (chapter 4) through questionnaires completed by a hundred students selected randomly from the University of Benghazi in Libya. Based on findings from this study, I prepared a number of questions and explored further in more depth the research aims through a second study (chapter 5). The latter I conducted through semi-structured phone interviews with 11 teachers from the university. To explore the research questions further and to seek any emergent data, I undertook a final observational study (chapter 6). As the first two studies relied on self-report methods of data collection, I deemed it necessary to overcome any potential

shortcoming associated with these methods through undertaking observations in the third study. I conducted this through direct observations and audio recording of a total of 7 EFL classes in Libya.

1.4 Definitions

Before embarking on the following chapters, it is necessary to define some key terms used, namely what is meant by the terms “Mother tongue (MT)”, “first language”, “native language (NL)”, “foreign language (FL)”, “target language (TL)” and “L2”:

Mother tongue (MT), first language and native language all refer to the language a person first learns as a child. Foreign language (FL) refers to a non-native language outside of the community of speech where it is commonly spoken (Freed, 1999; Stern, 1983). An L2, according to Sharwood-smith (1994), is “...unless otherwise specified, a particular ‘non-native language under discussion’” (p. 7). An L2 is also frequently referred to as the target language (TL). I will use FL, TL, and L2 interchangeably in the following chapters

1.5 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters presented as follows:

Chapter 1: introduces background to the research topic, explains the rationale for conducting the research in the Libyan context and outlines the aims. It also offers a description of each of the thesis chapters.

Chapter 2: details ELT methods, approaches, and their shifting views on the use of mother tongue in a foreign language classroom since the 16th century. It also explores the debate initiated in more recent times following a reassessment of the role of the MT within the field.

Chapter 3: explores the teaching of English as a foreign language in the Libyan context in two sections, the first details FL teaching in Libya from the Italian occupation up to 1986 and the second focuses on English language teaching from 1986 to the present time.

Chapter 4: present the first study, outlining the research approach, development of the research tool, sampling technique, methodological steps taken, ethical issues considered, and the procedures for data analysis. Finally, it presents and discusses the findings of the questionnaires.

Chapter 5: presents the second study, detailing the research approach, development of the research tools, research participants, methodological steps taken, ethical issues considered, and the procedures for data analysis. Lastly, it shows the findings and offers a discussion of the teachers' interview data.

Chapter 6: details the third study, identifying the research approach, development of the research tools, research participants, methodological steps taken, ethical issues considered, and the procedures for data analysis. Finally, it presents the findings and the discussion of the teacher and students' results.

Chapter 7: will attempt to synthesize the empirical findings from the three studies with research and literature in the field of EFL to add new dimensions and contribute to the debate on the use of MT.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.0 Introduction

In the following chapter, I will explore the development of language teaching since the 16th century with emphasis on the position of mother tongue (MT) use. To gain a better understanding of factors affecting attitudes and practices of the English language teaching (ELT), it is vital that one traces these back to their roots (Baugh, 2012). Hence, in the subsequent sections I will detail the

principles and procedures of some of the most prominent methods and approaches, which have proliferated over the centuries in search of the best way forward in language teaching. Hence, in detailing the development of each of these approach or methods' articulated theoretical orientation and collection of strategies to reach specified goals and achieve learning outcomes, it will be possible to trace the role given to the MT during the various periods covered.

In the first section of this chapter I will demonstrate that although there have been shifting views within ELT over the centuries; these have mainly been away from any widely accepted role of the MT. In fact, the general trend has been one of rejection of MT use on some level (Ellis, 2005; Krashen, 1981; Polio & Duff, 1994). This developed throughout the reform period and culminated in the establishment of the direct method. Following this stage, the Audio-lingual method and the Situational approach viewed the L1 equally disapprovingly.

Although one may trace the occasional appearance of alternative views to the use of the MT, which offer it a more central role in the teaching and learning process, these were never widely discussed nor accepted. With the development and dominance of the communicative Approach, the role of the MT would continue to be minimal during the 20th century. Furthermore, even in a post-communicative, post-method era the general status of the MT has not improved substantially (Swan, 1985a, 1985b; Ur, 1996; Levine, 2014; Hawkins, 2015).

In the second section of this chapter, I will explore both sides of the debate initiated as a result of recent research viewing a positive role for L1 in language teaching. Here the arguments forwarded by proponents of mother tongue mainly

focus on the perceived need for maximum exposure to the target language; a constant concern of interference or transfer impeding learning; and numerous negative issues associated with the practice of translation. Such views have been met with opposition from opponents' of the bilingual approach (Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Auerbach, 1993; Rinvoluceri, 2002; Turnbull, 2001). The latter question the very roots of the monolingual views and present counter arguments to the notions of maximum exposure to the TL, interference, and translation. From the arguments of opponents of the monolingual approach, one gathers that the judicious incorporation of the use of L1 as part of the teaching and learning process is welcomed and even necessary (Tang, 2002: Cook 2001; Auerbach, 1993; Schweers, 1999).

2.1 Language Teaching and mother tongue use up to the 18th century

MT use was generally approved of during the early period, as is realized from the fifteenth century through the spread of double manuals, whereby two languages are used (Howatt, 1983). In addition, it was a key feature of refugee teachers' practices in the late 16th century as they maintained a bilingual style. Hence, use of the MT was not a matter of discussion rather considered the norm, later taking shape with the establishment of the grammar translation method (GTM). During the late 16th century, in the 1570s and 1580s, there would emerge new textbooks compiled with the purpose of teaching English as a foreign language following the arrival of French Huguenot refugees. Interest in learning English was ongoing earlier than this, however, among members of the mercantile community, particularly Flanders. At the end of the fifteenth century,

there had been double-manuals to teach English to French speakers and teach French to English speakers. These manuals are a clear indicator that during this period a bilingual practice was necessary in the process of teaching a foreign language. William Caxton 1483 would be the first to develop double manuals which consisted of dialogues and other texts (Howatt, 1984).

The late 16th and early 17th century education witnessed two schools of thought regarding the role and function of language studies. The Humanistic tradition, clearly described in Roger Ascham's influential book *The Schoolmaster* (1570); and the puritanical philosophy detailed in Francis Bacon's *Advancement of Learning* (1605) in which he claimed that the only knowledge of significance was that which could be discovered by observation, empirical knowledge rooted in the natural world. Ascham was critical of the foreign language teaching methods and had much concern for the total education of the child. This would in itself highlight the needs of the young as a unique group of learners during this period. While Ascham placed a greater significance on texts rather than grammar, by 1620 Joseph Webb would go further and dispense with grammar entirely "No man can run speedily to the mark of language that is shackled and ingiv'd with grammar precepts" (Webb, 1622, cited in Howatt, 1984:34). From Webb's perspective, language learning should start with the exercise of communication skills, leading to knowledge of grammar through use. Significantly, he kept a bilingual, comparative approach though he opposed the common word for word translation of foreign language texts. Webb's method was based on the insight that translation should occur at the level of the clause rather than the word; however, his ideas died with him, as he left no successors (Howatt, 1984).

Throughout the 17th century, the teaching of modern languages remained a small-scale enterprise. Although there were some attempts at schools to teach both classical and vernacular languages, for example, Holyband's attempt, these remained very few. Up to the eighteenth century, schools were focused on the teaching of Latin and Greek, leaving the classical curriculum unchallenged. This curriculum entailed the teaching of Latin grammar rules and definitions based on the language teaching textbook *A Short Introduction of Grammar* by William Lily (1468-1522). *A Short Introduction of Grammar* was the standard Latin schoolbook in 16th and 17th century English grammar schools; in fact, it was in common use even in the US well into the eighteenth century. Lily's Grammar remained central to the curriculum as long as the attainment of fluency in Latin was the primary goal of education, "for over 250 years 'Lily' and 'Language Teaching' were virtually synonymous" (Howatt, 1984:37).

The 16th century witnessed a rebellion against the philosophy of deductive learning by some scholars who viewed the memorization of rules as an obstacle to fluency. Georgius Cominis claimed that readers were either "bored by the detailed grammars or confused by the shorter ones" (Wheeler, 2013:39). He further argued that language success was more likely to occur through the use of language rather than studying rules. Doubtless, as a reaction to this type of mindless rote-learning and sample sentence writing, that by the 16th and 17th century a language teaching reform movement would develop. This movement expressed itself through various groups, who all had one underlying similarity, a concern for text rather than rule.

The Czech educator, Jan Comenius, would formulate new teaching methods of language teaching based on new principles. What he attempted to achieve was

very much a greater focus on imitation, repetition and practice in reading and speaking while focusing less on rules which would be acquired inductively (Kelly, 1969). In 1631, Comenius published *The Gates of Languages Unlocked*, followed in 1632 by the *Didactica Magna*. This second work is particularly significant, as it would lay the foundation of modern pedagogy. By 1658, he would also put forward the first endeavor at teaching language through pictures in his work *Orbis Pictus* (Mackey, 1972). Comenius, following Bacon, would aspire to guide his pupils in their exploration of nature through the senses. As much of his educational plans were too ambitious and impractical, his influence on language teaching practices was negligible until later in the 19th century.

During the 17th century, Lamy (1645-1715) put forwards the idea that language learners acquired the L2 in the same manner as one's mother tongue, learning vocabulary first. This would be followed by grammar, that is, the aim of putting words together in imitation of good models would be the natural next step (Kelly, 1969). This later becomes the keystone of nineteenth-century natural methodology. By late eighteenth century language teaching was very much based on translation. The philosopher John Locke, towards the end of his life, had proposed interlinear layouts as a tool for an inductive approach to the learning of languages in keeping with his larger scheme for educational reform. Hence, Jean Joseph Jacotot (1770-1840) and James Hamilton (1769-1829) put inductive schemes involving interlinear translation suggested by Locke into practice. More than a century later John Taylor, better known as Keat's publisher, took up Locke's ideas and brought out his own series of books under the title 'Locke's classical system' which was contemporaneous with the Hamiltonian.

In the 16th century, Montaigne, among others, and in the 17th century Comenius and John Locke, attempted the introduction of alternative approaches to education; however, since Latin was the classical and the most recognised model, the study of language would reveal its established status (Moulton, 1963). In the eighteenth century, with the introduction of modern languages into the European school curriculum, these would be taught using the same basic techniques as those for teaching Latin. An important component of this was an acceptance and practice of bilingual methods. The grammar translation method, as it would be termed, would develop and indeed reign within the field of FL teaching up to the 19th century. Because of the method's primary focus on translation with emphasizes on the written word above the spoken word, teachers used and considered normal mother tongue presence in the FL classroom during this period.

2.2 English language teaching and shifting mother tongue Status: 18th-20th century

In the following section I will consider development of different language teaching methods and approaches and paying attention to their employment of L1, if at all. Here, one finds that although the GTM offered the L1 a central role through translation and explanation, however, by the end of the 1800s with the decline in interest of this method as a result of new philosophies in language learning came the beginning of a voiced and clear statement disapproving of L1 presence as part of the teaching and learning of L2. This developed throughout the reform period and culminated in the establishment of the direct method.

Following this stage, one can see the status of L1 continuing to be viewed equally disapprovingly with the rise of ALT and the situational approach. Although a few efforts, such as Community Language Teaching and Dodson's Bilingual method offered the MT a better status in the 20th century, yet their influence and acceptance would prove to be minimal. With the rise and dominance of communicative language teaching (CLT), the role of the MT would continue to be marginal in the West. Indeed, even in a post-communicative era one may observe a similar general trend, that of minimal use if not exclusion of the MT in this part of the world.

2.3 The Reform Movement

The GTM would be criticised towards the end of the 19th century "as a cold and lifeless approach to teaching foreign languages and blamed for the failure of foreign language teaching" (Stern, 1983:454). The increased communication between Europeans would initiate a call for greater oral proficiency in foreign languages. This raised questions amongst language specialists about modern language teaching practices in secondary schools. With time, it became apparent that the public education was failing in its responsibilities. As such, attack on the GTM in Europe culminated by the beginning of the twentieth century into the the Reform Movement. This prepared ground for the growth for new ways of teaching languages, significant among which is the negative stand on L1 use. Thanks to a number of European languages teaching specialists, various methods rose, aimed at revolutionising the teaching of which modern languages. These specialists, including Marcel, Prendergast, and Gouin,

recognised the need for speaking proficiency. This period witnessed greater attention to the manner in which children acquire languages, hence leading to principles of teaching grounded on it.

However, Marcel, Predergast, Gouin, and others' proposals didn't spread widely since they were not part of the more established education circles. The main obstacle in the way of allowing these ideas to evolve into an educational movement was the fact that there did not exist any secure support, for example, in the form of professional associations or journals. It has been argued that perhaps what these pre-Reform Movement scholars proposed amounted to the production of "teaching method and materials which implied a more radical change than the majority of ordinary language teachers were prepared to contemplate" (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004:167). Today the work of the pre-Reform Movement is not well known since their ideas, since the reformers either completely ignored them, or viewed them as out of date, and belonging to the traditional methods school (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

By 1880, reformist ideas would receive greater creditability and acceptance at the hands of linguists including Sweet in England (1845-1912), Passy in France (1859-1940), and Vietor in Germany. The Reform Movement saw its real beginning with the publication of latter's treatise in 1882. Along with the other early reformers, Vietor called for an emphasis on the spoken skill. The reformers revitalized the discipline of phonetics; and through Passy, they would form The Phonetic Teachers' Association in Paris in 1886. Overall, it is apparent that reformers were voicing their opinion against the subordination of speaking in the traditional method. Hence, they stressed that the appropriate basis for the study of language should not be grounded on the written language, additionally that

expertise at written translation is not indicative of the learner's mastered a language. Reformers used the language of text as data for grammatical rules rather than to exemplify rules already learnt.

The role of translation was oral, that is, a teacher could say aloud the translation of a word from the foreign language. A student may also be required to translate a part of the reading aloud confirm understanding. Reformers regarded oral translation into the foreign language as problematic as well as fruitless. Some of the reformers were non-native teachers, who doubtless held views based the monolingual view. Reformers permitted written translation exercises only used at a later stage of language learning, though by no means considered absolutely necessary. Reformers had a negative view of written translation as they linked these with the traditional methodologies, and texts consisting of disconnected sentences (Jespersen, 1904; Sweet, 1900).

By the turn of the century, the Movement had established a clear statement of its aims, principles, and practical classroom methods. The main two works in achieving this were Sweet's *The Practical Study of Languages* published 1899, coupled with Jespersen's *How to Teach a Foreign Language* 1904. In addition, it was through these writers various works that views on the old method were further shaped. Vietor also had a direct role through a series of summer schools and an indirect one through a language teaching institute in Marburg. When looking at Jespersen's (1904) work, it is apparent that he is interested very much in giving the new method a name and attempting to characterize the old method when he writes "anticlassical, anti-grammatical, and anti-translation" (p. 2-3). Jespersen also refers to the practices of a German teacher:

His method of procedure is simple: no grammar; no translation from the mother tongue. Jespersen states that he wanted to draw out lessons that may be learnt from it, first of which is the need to dispense with translation where it is unnecessary (Jespersen 1904: 88-90).

For Jespersen, this method represented a reformed method, as is clear from his focus on reading aloud, recommending the oral mode of translation, which is important in his view to check student comprehension. However, for Jespersen even this form of translation should eventually be stopped. Jespersen and the Reforms uphold that the translation of reading material should be mainly as a comprehension check. Jespersen makes reference to the translation of the old-fashioned kind, “We thus risk all the dangers which are commonly associated with the old fashioned method of translation from the native to the foreign language” (Jespersen 1904: 93). Jespersen denotes the dominant position of translation in the “usual method”. Here he highlights inadequacy regarding the short-term value of translation.

The work of the other influential reformer of this period Sweet provides a good reference for principles of the Reform Movement. Particularly important are his *Handbook of Phonetics* (1877) and *The Practical Study of Languages* (1900). Sweet recalls an occasion when his teachers used a sentence of the GTM, “the philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen” He further expounds on the “arithmetical fallacy” that he regards as leading to “insipid, colourless combinations” in the “strange sentences” of writing exercises as well as translation into the FL as promoted by the old method. The result, in Sweet’s view, is to omit the natural combinations and to produce insipid combinations,

which are not likely to be recalled for long. The mathematical approach amounts to missing colourful expressions in “natural and idiomatic combinations” (Sweet, 1900:73-74).

Hence, Sweet’s “arithmetical fallacy” may be indicative of his view of “the fallacy of translation.” Sweet, Jespersen, and other reformers had by the late nineteenth century clearly agreed that any new approach should be grounded on the following:

The spoken language is primary and that this should be reflected in an oral-based methodology; the findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training; learners should hear the language first before seen it in written form; words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be presented in meaningful contexts...; grammar should be taught inductively; translation should be avoided, although the native language could be used in order to explain new words or to check comprehension (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:10).

2.4 The Direct Method

Though the ideas of reformers lay the foundation for the discipline of applied linguistics, as well as pointed to how best to implement principles in this field, yet such suggestions did not seem to amount to a method as such. At the same time, Reformers were also paying attention to naturalistic principles of language learning and hence developed teaching principles based on this notion. This would eventually culminate into the Direct Method. The greatest characteristic of this method grounded in the notion of child language learning process of their MT. This method seeks to completely immerse learners in the L2, viewing any deviation from this as negative; with a native foreign language speaker guiding this environment (Gouin, 1892).

If one attempts to trace the DM back to a point in time, it becomes apparent that, “As a matter of fact, this method had been a common practice in private home tutoring using a foreign language since the 16th century” (Ferreira, 1999:359). Generally, this method of teaching was common before 1800 as increasingly people preferred to teach their children at home. As a consequence of this, there would be a rise in the employment of many Huguenot refugees as private tutors of French with more financially able families. Several scholars have contributed to the formation of the direct method, such as Howatt and Widdowson (2004), Marcel (1796-1876), as well as Sauveur (1826-19). However, many link its origins with Gouin and Berlitz (1852-1921).

Berlitz succeeded in founding the highly popular Berlitz language schools in 1878 in Providence, Rhode Island. However, neither Gouin nor Berlitz succeeded in developing his method through scientific or systematic manner. In *The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages*, Gouin highlights both his personal failure at learning German through the old method while also detailing the inspiration behind this method. In his book, he attacks the old GTM as it had failed him in attempting to learn German while in Hamburg. Gouin undertook this endeavor without the assistance of a teacher, while also adopting the same manner of learning in which he was taught Latin and Greek. After numerous attempts at learning German through employing the same classical method approach and the use of different textbooks, Gouin comes to the conclusion that

The classical method, with its grammar, its dictionary, and its translations, is a delusion – nothing but a delusion. Nature knows and

applies another method. Her method is infallible; this is an undeniable, indisputable fact. And with this method all children are equally apt in learning languages. Do they not all learn their mother-tongue, and this within a time sensibly the same? (Gouin, 1892:35).

Gouin's upholds his stance towards GTM and mother tongue use throughout his book. He believes that translation interferes in thinking directly in the FL, doubtless having negative implications in his view. The following passage illustrates his views of the use of the mother tongue:

So far as regards our mother-tongue, each of us has learnt the construction directly while learning to think, and we apply it intuitively. Our own language is not, therefore, the place to study it, at least with the view of its practical application (Gouin 1892: 279, Swan, & Betis, Trans).

Gouin goes on to recount the beginning of his own 'Series Method' through his initial inspiration to formulate his method after noting his 3-year-old nephew pick up new words in French during a visit to a grist mill (Gouin 1892:34-39). He observes that the child creates his own conceptualization of the experience, divides it into parts, and seems to focus on verbs. The child then repetitively executes these steps. In this process, Gouin views a potential new manner of learning a language. The following describes the series method:

Each lesson is written in a series of sentences, each of which tells of an action. Gouin believes that this manner of teaching, which he models on the way children learn, makes learning a language easier. Gouin works out a linguistic system that ought to include the entire vocabulary of the language to be taught (Handschin, 1913:98).

Charles Berlitz, who is most closely associated with the Direct Method, would similarly denounce the use of mother tongue and translation. The origin of Berlitz has been associated with an occasion when he needed the assistance of a French teacher in his absence, and upon returning discovered that there was positive response among learners to this assistance's exclusive use of French. This led to the establishment of the Berlitz Method and the foundation of the first Berlitz language school. The Berlitz Method was based on the principles that there exists a direct link between that which the learners observes and thinks in terms of the speech sounds of the FL; and the principle that the exclusive use of the FL in the teaching and learning process is crucial. The Berlitz's method was based on the notion that second language learning and first language learning are fundamentally alike. As such, oral interaction should be maximized, the use of language should be spontaneous, prohibition of translation, and a general objective amounting to the presentation of minimum grammatical rules and syntactic structures.

As Stieglitz (1955) puts it "the objective of the Berlitz Method is the fourfold aim of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing, with emphasizes on speaking from the very beginning. ...the primary objective of the method is oral communication ...its secondary objective are reading and writing" (p. 300). Additionally, translation in learning a foreign language was an area completely abandoned by this method, "We can develop new speech habits only by continuous practice in the new language, not by consciously applying rules, nor by translation" (Stieglitz, 1955:302). That is, from the beginning teachers only present the TL to learners. This was justified on a number of reasons including the fact that in all translation methods:

most of the time is taken up by explaining in the student's mother tongue, while but a few words are spoken in the language to be learned; he who is studying a foreign language by means of translation does not become accustomed to think in it; a knowledge of a foreign language, acquired by means of translation, is necessarily defective since there doesn't exist for every word of the one language the exact equivalent in the other; furthermore, the ideas conveyed by an expression in one language are frequently not the same as those conveyed by the same words in the other (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004:224).

Thus, Berlitz offers a method that, in lines with Gouin abandons translation and bans the use of mother tongue. In this sense, the Direct Method finds its origins with both Berlitz and Gouin's methods. Clearly, Berlitz and Gouin established an ideal for most methods, avoidance of translation and disapproval of MT use. At the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, the direct method would be highly popular but due to constraints on things such as budget and classroom size such would lead to a period of decline; however, the with the rise of the Audio-lingual method, the direct method was revived again.

2.5 The Audio-lingual Method and Situational Language Teaching

With the outbreak of World War II and pressures for greater oral proficiency came the rise of the audiolingual method in the US and situational language teaching in Britain and yet again teaching practices largely marginalized use of the mother tongue. When the US was thrust into a worldwide conflict, it would become evident that they needed to gain oral proficiency in the language of allies and enemies. Up to that point within the US the direct method was not as popular as it was in Europe in the first half of the twentieth century, a fact

doubtless related to difficulty in finding native-speaking teachers of modern foreign languages (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

The growing development of the reading approach in the US was another factor amounting to a degree of abandonment of the direct method. The Coleman Report would lead to change with its emphasis that foreign languages benefited more from a reading approach as oppose to an oral approach. Such would many educational institutions become highly convinced that this was the best way forwards (Moulton, 1963). Consequently, the priority in studying the target language was first, reading ability and second information of the history of the country where the TL is spoken. Learners are trained in the grammar essential for reading comprehension only. Both pronunciation and conversational skills were paid minimum attention. There is much emphasis during the beginning on reading in L2, with significance given to the acquisition of vocabulary which is to be expanded as quickly as possible. This approach would allow for the resurfacing of translation as a respectable classroom technique linked with the comprehension of written work.

The outbreak of the war necessitated a US military funding of new language courses the courses under the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) or Army Method. During this stage, the armed forces were “far more interested in a practical speaking knowledge, and not interested in grammar at all” (Moulton, 1963:84). Hence, these were typically rich in oral activity, drills and much practice of conversation. These classes were characteristically different from the traditional ones with their avoidance of the grammar and translation. As the Army method grew more successful, various educational institutions embraced

it. In the 1950s, in all its adaptation, the Army Method took the name of the audio-lingual method (Brown, 2014).

The Audio-lingual Method (ALM) was rooted in various disciplines, one being structural linguistics theory, second contrastive analysis, the third aural-oral procedure, and finally behaviorist psychology. During this period, structural linguists paid much attention to the scientific descriptive analysis of numerous languages. Methodologists perceived of a direct application of such analysis to teaching linguistic patterns (Fries, 1950). Additionally, behaviorist psychologists supported models of conditioning as well as habit-formation (Skinner 1957). The main characteristics of the ALM included new points taught in dialogue; reliance on repetition of model sentences; as well as memorization of set phrases. Hockett (1950), highlights such characteristics, “we must continue to practice until those motions for the new language are as habitual, as unconscious, as effortless as are the more or less different motions of our own language” (p. 262). Teachers used contrastive analysis to arrange structures, which they then taught one at a time, and they taught patterns with continuous drills (Hockett, 1959; Tarone, 2005). Contrastive Analysis, popular during this period, supported the idea that L2 learning should happen solely through the L2 (Lado, 1957). The rationale being that teaching needs to avoid use of L1 since difficulties are arising from transfer from it. Other characteristics of the ALM include inductive grammar teaching, involving little or no grammatical explanation:

The ordinary speaker is quite unaware of the mechanisms of speech: the structure of the phonology, of the morphology, and of the syntax of his native language. Such things are produced 'out of awareness': the ordinary speaker is aware only of what he says, not of how he says it. The learner, too must be taught to handle the mechanisms of the new language out of awareness. (Moulton, 1963:87)

Finally, there is an insistence on limiting and contextualizing vocabulary; immediately reinforcing successful answers, additionally teachers put in much effort to get students to produce error-free utterances; with little-permitted teacher use of the L1.

The ALM as based on the respectable theoretical perspective of the time would be popular for many years. However, River's (1964) would challenge the status of the ALM, showing disapproval of the perceived fallacies of the method, as well as its failure to empower students in the communicative skill. During this time, there was a shift among theorists away from the upheld behaviouristic interpretations. Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* (1957) would be the most influential of these. Language, according to Chomsky, was rule-governed and creative:

He believed that a basic rule system that underpins all languages is innate and that, given exposure to a specific language, children will naturally create the specific rules of that language for themselves. Learning is seen as a process of discovery determined by internal processes rather than external influences (Leaver & Willis, 2004:4–5).

Specialists no longer held negative views of errors, with the need to avoid them being crucial, and that structural linguistics did not offer all the necessary answers about language (Brown, 2014).

In the 1970s, the ALM would also face the development of a functional-notional syllabus introducing innovations to the manner in which materials were structured. The functional-notional syllabus endeavoured to demonstrate what learners should do with language and what meanings they need to

communicate; the syllabus is organised around functions and notions. Zainuddin, amongst others, argued that the ALM “was not successful at accomplishing the main goal. It was too prescriptive; there was no opportunity provided for “true” communication to take place in the ALM classroom” (Zainuddin et al, 2011:65).

Just as the Second World War made it imperative for U.S military to teach foreign languages, in Britain the same historical pressures gave rise to the Situational Approach. The term Situational Approach was in fact coined by one of the most influential British applied linguists from the 1920s onwards, A. S. Hornby. Although American Audiolingual Approach influenced the Situational Approach, it was less dogmatic. However, the two considered necessary an L2 rich classroom environment. In Larsen-Freeman’s (2000) words, “The habits of the students’ native language are thought to interfere with the students’ attempts to master the target language. Therefore, the target language is used” (p. 47). The two differed on the ground that the audio-lingual method had a relative lack of contextualization, whereas in the situational approach, “the presentation and practice of new structures were contextualized in classroom situations in a manner reminiscent of Gouin and Berlitz” (Howatt and Smith, 2014:85).

What Hornby had come up with was a “continuation, of course, of Direct Method ideas as well as those of Palmer” (Howatt & Smith, 2014:87). Both Hornby and Palmer attempted to develop a more scientific foundation than that of the Direct Method for the teaching of English along the oral approach, which is different to the Direct Method, and was developed in Britain from the 1920s onwards. The principles and procedures of the Situational Method are systematic, with a focus

on vocabulary and the control of grammar. During the 1960s, there would be much focus on the notions of presenting and practicing language in a situational setup. During this period, 'situational' was progressively used to denote the Oral Approach. Therefore, what Palmer succeeded in achieving was "to synthesize and systemize ideas from the Reform Movement and Berlitz Method traditions, which were then carried forward via Hornby to inform the post-war UK methodological orthodoxy of situational language learning" (Howatt & Smith, 2014:85).

2.6 Dodson's Bilingual Method

The Bilingual method would develop in the 1960s which supported L1 use in the EFL classroom and regarded as a reaction against the direct method of language teaching. C.J. Dodson (1967/1972) developed this method and attacked the direct method arguing that:

It is only possible to teach a second language by direct method techniques at the expense of the first language, and it is sheer hypocrisy to claim that the final aim of such teaching philosophies is bilingualism. Every aspect of the direct method teaching is directed towards keeping the two languages as far apart as possible, thus destroying the bridge which the learner must continuously cross to and fro if he wishes to be truly bilingual (1974).

This method is characteristically different from the GTM mainly as it highlights the need for oral language. The L1 in the Bilingual Method was regarded as an aid for students to grasp the meaning of the language, "Mother tongue equivalents are always and immediately given in contexts, which is a far cry from isolated vocabulary equations" (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009:106).

Translation in the bilingual method is used to express the meaning of complete sentences; practice is initiated with an L2 sentence given by the teacher and then translated into the L1. Although Dodson's method techniques fall in line with a modern communicative approach and has indeed inspired research in a number of different countries, it has not however been embraced by consent on the prevailing notion of avoiding the use of the mother tongue, highlighting perhaps that "The problem lies not in the new ideas, but in escaping from the old ones" (Butzkamm, 2003:3).

In Dodson's opinion, a good method should promote thinking in the language. He specifies the specific features that a new method should have and these include that it must be simple, needs to train learners in both the written and the spoken skill. Also, that it offers an approach to translation which is original. In addition, it needs to offer teaching opportunities that nurture teacher-pupil intercommunication. Furthermore, that a new method should be flexible allowing for handling different classroom conditions as well as students' abilities. The aims of this method are to make the pupil fluent and accurate in the spoken and written words and aim to make possible the achievement of bilingualism in the true sense. The main principles of the bilingual method include controlled use of the L1, the early introduction of both reading and writing and combining the skills of writing and reading (Dodson, 1974).

The technique in Dodson's Bilingual Method of the teacher reading and giving meaning in the L1 is interpreting rather than translating. Subsequently, the students repeat the sentence in chorus and then individually. Teachers assess students' comprehension through the teacher saying a sentence in the L1 while pointing to a picture, and the students then respond in the L2. It is better

understood in terms of PPP (presentation, practice, and production). Teachers support students in achieving conversational proficiency in a short space of time through the use of ordered activities (Butzkamm, 2003).

Dodson offered a verified procedure where teachers present written and oral utterance concurrently from the beginning. Teachers read the text out to students one time with books closed, but once they can repeat the lines books should be open again allowing them to check the text while other students are repeating, and to stop when it is their turn to speak. For Dodson, the key is to confirm that within the classroom the spoken component is the main stimulus. Hence, the imitation of sentences could be faster with no bearing on intonation and no excessive intrusion from the printed text. With access to the printed word, it is less challenging for students “to segment the amorphous sound stream into manageable units and so retain the fleeting sound image” (Butzkamm, 2003:1). Therefore, having contact with both the printed word and the sound leads to greater retention.

Dodson offers a manner through which meaning of newly learnt words and structures are conveyed through the use of the MT at the level of the sentence. Teachers present the most natural equivalent option, and according to Butzkamm (2003), this accomplishes the task of offering accurate and communicative value to utterances. The view in this method is that since a word equivalent standing alone may have a neutral intonation, it is now possible to present a true reflection of the meaning of an utterance in L1 and its equivalent by utilizing the teachers’ voice as well as body. Hence, a student will grasp with ease the meaning of an utterance. This is unlike the word lists used traditionally and different from parallel texts often seen in the audiolingual classroom. What

Dodson achieved through experiment was to reveal that through written word, use of L1 equivalent, and pictures, students could succeed in learning a given point in a speedy manner when given the opportunity to act out a situation in a natural manner. A significant point associated with this technique's insistence on meaning is that it allowed students at all levels, including beginners, to encounter authentic, literary texts. Hence, here Butzkamm (2003) argued that such eliminated the need for the discouraging content vacuum material typically given to beginners.

A significant point regarding the bilingual method is that it proposed support of the generative principle. Howatt (1984) states that this is an "ancient principle" yet one which professionals have not understood well and as such have not developed (p. 149). It is concerned with the idea that having a finite grammatical competence could enable a person to produce infinite utterances. It has had a traditional and more modern view which advocates the specific incorporation of the mother tongue as part of its technique. Prendergast (1864), and Palmer were both aware of the generative principle of language, which was coined by Palmer (1968) as "ergon" stating that "the number of sentences being infinite, recourse must be had to the study of their mechanism in order that, from a relatively lesser number of ergons (p. 22). An infinite number of sentences may be composed at will. The idea here is that enabling student to recognize the exchangeable as well as the structure-forming elements of a sentence, he/she will also have grasped an entire array of further possible sentences (Butzkamm, 2003).

In modern times, the problem highlighted is that generative principle has been interpreted in structuralist or syntactical terms only. It became apparent that the

traditional generative principle suffered from a real deficit, the issue in transferability of fluent sentence variations to fluency in communication. The recommendation was that teachers use drills that are both form and content specific. Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009) argued that cues from the mother tongue can play an essential role here, but once the exercise develops, the teacher should be less involved allowing students to create their own sentences leading to a monolingual drill. Prompts for potential exchanges are offered by the teacher with additions presented in the MT. Hence, such a bilingual technique avoids the production of empty responses by students and allows for the variations in sentences to lead to concept variations, revealing in a given structure the full communicative potential. Butzkamm (2003) considers this a significant development from conventional pattern practice which emphasized the automatization of structures. In Butzkamm's (2003) words "it is syntactic and semantic manipulation at the same time, a cognitive engagement in mental gymnastics, which prevents the process from becoming mechanical" (p. 2).

With the bilingual technique, gaining linguistic knowledge and conceptual development are closely linked. Providing the appropriate type of equivalence by a teacher, allows students to see how the structure can be valid and applicable to their communicative needs. In addition, once students are in control they would have been empowered to make up their own sentences, linking them together and potentially experimenting with new possibilities. At this point both students' L1 and to an extent the teacher are not needed, a stage referred to as 'independent speaking of sentences' by Dodson and considered as leading to communication which is message orientated. The focus for

Dodson was on a detailed structure of steps leading to progress from a mastery of words and structures to meaningful communications. Hence, one-third of the whole teaching is dedicated to authentic communicative activities.

Dodson's work has seen some follow-ups, particularly in Germany. Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009) following Dodson called for a paradigm shift in foreign language teaching. Hall & Cook's (2012) would conclude that "The way is open for a major paradigm shift in language teaching and learning" (p. 299). Butzkamm validated Dodson's ideas following a survey of European literature on the use of the MT as a fundamental part of foreign language teaching. Heuer and Heyder undertook similar experiments to those run by Dodson and found that his conclusions can be validated. Walatara's investigations in Sri Lanka also confirmed Dodson's results. Sastri in India also undertook an important experiment with two groups of students based on a pre-test and found that the Dodson's work was far better than the direct method. Despite both Dodson's experiments as well as follow-ups by other researchers in many countries that validate his work, mainstream ELT practice indicates that the accepted is a negative view towards the mother tongue.

2.7. Alternative approaches and methods

The 1960s also witnessed a significant development in linguistics triggered by Chomsky. This led to a heightened emphasis on the structure of language amongst linguistics as well as teachers. At the same time, psychologists became highly interested in the affective and interpersonal nature of learning. The outcome took shape in the form of new methods that focused on the

significance of psychological influences at play in the language classroom. During the 1970s and 1980s, the set of approaches and methods visible would include suggestopedia, Total Physical Response (TPR), and community language learning (CLL) (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Some of these methodologies disapprove of the use of the L1, for example, Total Physical Response; others, for example, Suggestopaedia and Community Language Learning, allow its use to a degree. Although some attention was paid to these methods, it is apparent that they were never truly embraced in ELT, giving way after the 1980s to the emergence of another set of methods which draw on new language theories.

The first method Suggestopedia developed in the 1970s by Georgi Lozanov, and the name stems from suggestion and pedagogy. Lozanov aimed at eliminating barriers that obstruct learning. Here art, physical exercise, drama, and desuggestive–suggestive communicative therapy as well the four language skills are all used teaching process (Larsen-Freeman, 2011). This method focuses on the classroom environment, ensuring that it is relaxing and not threatening in any way. This type of classroom seeks to ensure that the learner grasps the lesson's teaching objectives through avoiding any form of anxiety and becoming overtired. Within this setting the teachers' use of L1 is permitted to a degree to support the establishment of this desired environment (Larsen-Freeman, 2011).

The second method is Total Physical Response (TPR), which the psychologist James Asher (1974) developed. This is based on the notions that learning is improved when students are involved physically as well as mentally. Asher (1977) was guided by first language acquisition in developing his method. These

considerations encompassed child comprehension of much of the input received prior to production of oral utterances. Additionally, that the input a child receives is characteristically rich in action and physical manipulation. Such a relationship between action and language aids natural acquisition due to stimulus and response association. Furthermore, in his method, Asher incorporated humanistic principles and paid attention to the affective aspect of language. This model has an obvious audiolingual orientation and a similar disfavor of the use of L1.

The final method that I will be covering in this section is Community Language Learning (CLL), developed by Curan (1972). This rejected the hierarchical relationship between student and teacher and embraced a relationship based on a counsellor-client nature. This method aimed to remove potential situations whereby the learner is having to take risks or is being challenged. Hence, this would ideally allow the client to acquire L2 without much effort. CLL is part of humanistic methodologies in language teaching and learning introduced in the 1970s. These also include the Total Physical Response, the Silent Way, and Suggestopedia. The counsellor's responsibility is to translate and gently assist all learning activity. A clear inspiration for this method was Rogers' (1951) theory that a person is habitually obstructed by both aspects of the environment and those which are linked with personal complications to live to their full potential. CLL sees the learner's MT as a way to offer meaning in the L2 in complete sentences. Hence, CLL creates a clear association between native language and the target language.

An important aspect of CLL is its use of L1 in language alternation, similar to other bilingual educational programs (Mackey, 1972). As the class commences

students talk to each other in the target language with facilitation from their L1. At a first stage, the student makes some utterance in their L1, which the teacher translates into the L2 and the student repeats in the L2. Meanwhile, the rest of the class can listen to L1 and L2 sentence utterances. Learners are encouraged to pay attention at this point to another group counsellor-client interaction so that all group members fully comprehend any communication taking place within the class (La Forge 1983). Student dependence on L1 translation is reduced as they progress.

2.8 The Natural Approach

The 1980s would witness yet another change in the field of language teaching as was evident through the work of Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell (1983). Through their publication of *The Natural Approach*, they initiated the notion that language is about communicating meaning. This, they point out, can be realized by gaining knowledge of the target language lexicon. Krashen and Terrell suggested that students should be allowed to undergo a period of silence till they reach the point of having the ability to speak in a natural manner. This should transpire through the establishment of a setting with minimal risk-taking involved through integrating at the early level TPR, and by lowering communicative skills aims. The natural approach allows the use of L1 in preproduction (comprehension) stage. Additionally, Students can respond in either the target language, their native language, or a mixture of the two.

The Natural Approach is grounded on Krashen's monitor model, though it does not follow the theory strictly. For Terrell learning of grammar should be

conscious as such can be beneficial. The monitor hypothesis regards conscious learning of grammar as having no role in terms of generating new language. This model comprises of five hypotheses; the first is Acquisition as opposed to learning. The view here is that language learning occurs naturally through a subconscious manner, similar to MT acquisition. The alternative is conscious learning, which amounts to mastering grammatical rules of the foreign language. The second is Natural Order hypothesis, here language learners gain knowledge of L2 rules in a set manner, guided primarily by innate mechanisms. The third is the Monitor Hypothesis, which means the monitor drives learning, not an acquisition which plans and corrects student output. The monitor may at times affect the process of acquisition. The fourth is the Input Hypothesis, which details the manner in which acquisition takes place.

The view here is that acquisition of the L2 involves processing of comprehensible input. If such an input is beyond the learner's level, then he/she would not understand it, and hence, this input in Krashen's (1983) is of little use. This was explained in terms of $(i+1)$, that is input just above the level of a learner for acquisition to be achieved. To assist the learner in understanding, he/she is permitted to seek further clarification through the context, use of pictures, and that of mime. The fifth is the affective filter Hypothesis, which emphasizes numerous aspects, for example, motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence that affect acquisition. Such factors nurture or hinder acquisition, however, they are not responsible for the production of acquisition (Krashen, 1985).

Natural method Classroom activities aim to encourage communication. According to Terrell (1977), error correction is undesirable due to its potential negative impact on motivation and attitude. This approach views acquisition in

a similar manner to that of the L1, progresses from a silent period, According to Krashen and Terrel (1983), "Learners may 'fall back' on first language grammatical competence when they have to produce too early in a second language" (p. 60). Learners can use the, "L1 plus Monitor Mode, using the syntactic rules of the first language, vocabulary of the second, and the conscious Monitor to make necessary repairs" (Krashen and Terrel, 1983:60). The use of this mode is minimized by allowing students the necessary time required for the natural production of the L2, as well as paying little attention to errors. The view being such allows "the students to use their naturally acquired competence and does not require them to rely on less natural modes of production in early stages" (Krashen and Terrel, 1983:60). Teachers permit students to reply in their L1 at the early stage since the emphasis is on listening comprehension. A student responding in his/her L1 is in effect demonstrating comprehension. At the same time, teachers offer students opportunity to deal with various topics and yet are still able to communicate comfortably.

2.9 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The 1970s would witness a growing dissatisfaction among British linguists with Situational Language teaching. By 1967 linguist D. A. Wilkins would offer proposals to structure language teaching in terms of functions and notions leading to the Notional Functional Approach. Similar proposals for communicative or functional approaches were made by other British linguists including Brumfit, Candlin, and Widdowson, whose work expanded through Europe and would be collectively referred to as Communicative Language

Teaching (CLT). Though procedures of the traditional communicative approach have evolved and differed in its off shots appearing over the years, yet the key concept of CLT is communication “Language learning is learning to communicate” (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983: 91). The view within such a communicatively oriented environment is that students are expected to avoid the use of their L1. Hence, as CLT evolved gaining consensus, this equated to further marginalizing of L1 within the field of language teaching. Larsen-Freeman describes the role of the mother tongue in Communicative Language Teaching:

Judicious use of the student’s native language is permitted in CLT. However, whenever possible, the target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for explaining the activities to students or in assigning homework (2000:132).

Howatt, among others, makes a distinction between a strong and weak version of CLT. The latter considered standard practice the need to create opportunities for learners to practice their language communicatively. The strong version stresses the acquisition of language through communication. According to Howatt (1984) “If the former could be described as ‘learning to use’ English, the latter entails ‘using English to learn it’” (p. 279).

With new academic ideas in Britain and evident disapproval of the efficacy of the dominant situational language teaching mounting, CLT would gain greater recognition. No doubt such ideas were a reaction to insights into the creativity and variety in language as forwarded by Chomsky. Furthermore, linguists including Candlin and Widdowson questioned the effectiveness of structure in assisting language. They argued that it was crucial for students to develop not

only language structures but also communicative skill and functional competence. Developments in Europe and the United States would also contribute to the rise of Communicative language teaching to prominence. In Europe, “with the increased interdependence of European countries came the need for greater efforts to teach adults the major languages of the European Common Market” (Richard and Rodgers, 2001: 154). With the advent of the European Common Market, there would be increased migration in Europe necessitating, for work or travel, the need to learn a foreign language.

The Council of Europe would tackle the issue through a notional-functional syllabus doubtless influenced by D. A. Wilkins’ study (1976). There would be an emphasis on various functions, for example, location, time, travel and attempts to reconstruct conditions in the classroom that resemble real life conditions (Dornyei, 2009). Activities in CLT include information gap, games, role playing, interviews, and group and pair work. Teachers don not introduce grammar rules overtly, but instead these the students discover themselves. Teachers support their learners in gaining L2 proficiency through presentation, practice, and production. Here a teacher would present the TL through selecting some daily situations; students are then given the opportunity to practice the language dialogues in a structured situational manner; finally, they are expected to produce the L2 independently (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

As part of CLT, there has been much debate on the potential role of teaching grammar. Generally, the aspect of grammar didn’t receive much attention, rather emphasis was made that this was only one of many other aspects contributing to the communicative ability of learners. On the other hand, there has been concern voiced over learners embarking on communication before

mastering basic linguistic structures with the potential concern that such may lead to fossilization of incorrect forms, and hence limit the potential of learners achieving proficiency of high levels. Today, the majority of programs based on the communicative approach see a place for grammar instruction even at an early stage.

Various scholars and researchers state that CLT is not a method as such since it lacks clear definition in terms of content, a syllabus, and teaching routines (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). In this regard, Dornyei (2009) points out that “...the extent to which the term covers a well-defined and uniform teaching method is highly questionable” (p. 33). ELT professionals suggest that CLT does not adhere to one text, or a specific model that is collectively recognized as undisputed (Richards and Rodgers 2001). In general terms, within a given learning context, CLT adopts materials and makes use of methods deemed most appropriate for it. CLT, in Dornyei’ (2009) terms encompasses “a very wide range of variants that were only loosely related to each other” (p. 33).

While CLT was initially concerned with identifying most suitable designs as well as best practices, later there would be a suggestion for proficiency guidelines aimed at describing language and valuating competence in a language. With the development of various models of communicative competence grew a need to detail and evaluate learners’ skills at any given proficiency level. The 1970s to the 1980s would see the development of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Proficiency Guidelines. In Europe, there would also be similar developments during the 1990s culminating in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. These have had an impact on how content, structure of textbooks, and on teaching practices.

Students were to be offered as many opportunities as possible to practice all four language skills in a communicatively L2 rich context (Nunan, 1991), which minimises use of the L1.

2.10 Language Teaching based on the communicative approach

The influence of the communicative approach since its “genesis in the 1970s” is evident from the appearance of new and varied proposals for language teaching based on it (Dornyei, 2009:33). Three of the more widely used developments of CLT will be considered here, namely Task-based Language Learning, Cooperative Learning, and Content and Language Integrated Learning with the intention of highlighting the general stance of language teaching towards the use of L1. It will become apparent in the following sections that if teaching approaches and methods have not completely disregarded the use of the L1, then only mentioned as one of the given potential problems or else not embraced fully in more recognised literature for the given method.

2.10.1 Task-based Approach

The 1980s would witness the development of the Task-based approach (TBA), which finds origins in Cognitive theories (Anderson, 1985), and cognitive processes of memory, attention, and recall. Additionally, developments in psycholinguistic research and bilingualism influenced TBA. All such advances became influential during the CLT era. From a linguistic point of view, the notion of the communicative nature of language extends from previous times developing with addition from other disciplines, for example, Computational

Linguistics, Pragmatics, and Discourse Analysis. TBA embraced and incorporated into its framework CLT approaches. There are different applications of TBL, but here reference will be made to what has become the most popular, the framework presented by Willis (1996). When reflecting on TBL it may be observed that there is absence of reference to the use of L1 as part of this approach, but if one considers the centrality of the aspect of student interaction, coupled with various research findings in terms of student group interactions revealing a high L1 use in different contexts (Carless & Gorton, 1998; Carless, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012) then surely this insistence on disregarding the L1 in such a classroom would be a challenge, and has been found so, for example, Carless (2008). Clearly, this insistence is indeed reflective of the theoretical underpinnings as traced back to the notion of monolingualism.

Activities within TBA approach are based on tasks to be carried out by learners; this notion of tasks necessitates a clearer explanation of what the term actually means. When looking at the literature, it is evident that it has had numerous definitions over the years with some variations; however, the shared view is that teachers need to draw learners' attention to communicative nature of language. Nunan (1989) identified real life tasks grounded on learners' needs analysis and are a reflection of potential real life tasks that he/she may encounter later. Another task specified by Nunan is pedagogical, based on research and theory of psycholinguistic in second language acquisition (Nunan, 1989).

TBA stresses the process rather than the final product, whereby significance is given to the method, the learner as well as procedures of the lesson. A possible definition of TBA is the way in the which the learner puts into practice their

communicative skill in a range of tasks. The latter is regarded as techniques that could be undertaken in a single lesson or a series of lessons aimed at communication, or otherwise gaining knowledge of linguistic rules permitting better student contribution in communicative tasks. In the recent interpretations of the TBA, there is a greater focus on form. As such, learners need to recognize critical aspects of the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Criticism directed at this approach has been based on the possibility that overemphasis on tasks and communicating meaning could affect the correct use of form (Seedhouse, 1999). The view is that communication involves more than a mere performing of tasks. A concern expressed by Skehan (1996) regards this approach is the danger that if not well executed, it may affect the development of the language learners' interlanguage, hence leading to some type of fossilization hindering their progress. Furthermore, some argue that TBA remains an opinion rather than a certainty and hence largely unconvincing (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Swan (2005) states "that it is based on unproven hypotheses, and there is no compelling empirical evidence for the validity of the model" (p.376).

One may add an additional challenge that TBA sets in terms of disregarding the MT in such an environment that potentially, and many would say, naturally leads to its presence. Though it is clear that TBA has received much attention, yet there is absence of a direct investigation or connection with the use of L1 in language classrooms in which it is adopted (Hung, 2012). Swain and Lapkin (2000) suggest that since in TBA student interaction and participation in pair or group activities is necessary, the L1 will inevitably find its way into the classroom. Yet, that literature that offers overviews of this approach does not

reflect a positive perspective in relation to the use of L1 within TBA classroom. This MT presence and insistence on task work in the TL has the risk of leading to teacher frustration and potentially threatening the abandonment of interactive tasks for more “whole class teaching” (careless, 2008:334). Such negative views of the MT in TBL may also be observed in Ellis’s (2005) work, in which it is considered that monolingual groups of learners’ potential use of their L1 when interacting together as “An obvious danger” (p.23). However, Swain and Lapkin’s (2000) argue that L1 can support students

[...] to understand and make sense of the requirements and content of the task; to focus attention on language form, vocabulary use, and overall organization; and to establish the tone and nature of their collaboration. Without their L1 use, the task presented to them may not have been accomplished as effectively, or perhaps it might not have been accomplished at all (p. 268)

Clearly, such a stance has not influenced the different variations of TBL. Hence, the theme of non-explicit expression of approval or wide recognition of the role of L1 evident is generally in keeping with the overall theme within the field for many centuries.

2.10.2 Cooperative Learning

Another communicatively based approach considered here is Cooperative learning, which involves groups of learners working together to collectively complete assigned goals (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Naughton, 2004). This approach seeks to encourage student cooperation as well as develop critical thinking in a dynamic learning process. Teachers expect students to monitor as

well as evaluate their work. Teachers should assume the role of facilitators and create a well-structured teaching environment, which nurtures successful group work. As for L1, it is interesting to note here again that literature only mentions it as part of the potential negative aspects to this approach, and once more, there is fear of its use without much other detail. Yet, considering the fact that research into student group work has highlighted a wide L1 presence in various context, such a rejection of its use runs a risk of failure.

Literature highlights that there exists an enormous variety of possible cooperative learning techniques, Naughton (2004) highlight three of the most often mentioned including Jigsaw, this involves the breaking into sections academic material, with each allocated to a member of the team. This would be followed by group meeting to discuss their given sections, following which they rejoin their original group and instruct them in that section. Another technique is student teams achievement divisions. As part of this, students are placed in groups working together to gain a better understanding of the lesson. A final technique is learning together. Cooperative lesson fall into the structure which includes setting of an objective, making decisions, communicating tasks, observing, intervening, and lastly assessing and handling.

Numerous beneficial aspects for the language learner in the cooperative classroom include, the most prominent is that it allows for input, which is both more comprehensible and appropriate for the development level of students. Output is more efficient, frequent and importantly communicative; while also offering a supportive environment, rich in communication and feedback, presenting crucial elements which nurture language attainment. In addition, those who practice CL in their classrooms highly regard the affective factors.

Cooperative learning is flexible and may be used for numerous tasks as well as with varying syllabus material. In addition, CL supports the development of critical thinking and nurtures metacognitive awareness. Finally, it plays a positive role in enhancing cross-cultural understanding (Naughton, 2004).

Nonetheless, the implementation of CL presents some difficulties such as the potential inadequate use of it if teachers are not well informed and trained in CL theory and practice. Another issue is how well teachers are able to adapt to respond to CL demands and to their expected new roles. There is a danger of language fossilization if teachers do not offer students with the relevant level of input. It various researchers also argued that the most competent students may not benefit from CL as much as weaker ones (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Naughton, 2004). There is also a risk of non-student cooperation and student overreliance on their L1. This method views with concern that students may, and one would expect, resort to the MT use as a potential disadvantage; and the focus and no doubt pressure on teachers and students to eradicate its use. Yet, methods that are based on student interaction, if reconsidered, can be compatible with the use of the MT, for example, as Careless (2008) has pointed out:

Jigsaw reading tasks (when students read different parts of a text or receive different input on the same topic) create an information gap and may provide suitable input through the texts to encourage use of the TL, whilst also permitting negotiation of meaning through the MT. Written tasks in pairs or small groups may be useful in promoting both collaborative dialogue in the MT and the creation of text in the TL (P.337).

Rance-Roney (2010) also suggested that:

When the objective is to master challenging content with language learning as an auxiliary goal, grouping learners by L1 groups is reasonable. For example, when you are teaching the finer points of English punctuation, allowing learners to use some L1 to discuss the nuances of punctuation leads to more efficient learning, in addition to the value added discussions of punctuation differences between languages. Furthermore, when the academic task requires the cognitive processing of highly abstract information, allowing the shared language groups to codeswitch during discussion leads to greater analytic depth (p. 23)

Yet despite these possibilities and advantages, neither this approach nor similar ones have taken into consideration such on any wide scale, revealing the pattern of continued neglect of the use of the MT as perhaps both expected and correct, and any deviation from it as a setback in the EFL classroom.

2.10.3 Content and Language Integrated Learning

The final approach to language teaching to be covered is Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). This first appeared in the 1980s and gained increased popularity throughout the 1990s and the early years of the new millennium. This approach is based on the integration of instruction with instruction in specific content areas. Emphasis is primarily on content while learning a language is a by-product of the process. Teachers offer instruction in the L2 and hence students achieve learning a subject content through the L2. In broad terms, integrating L1 is permitted in CLIL and perhaps its distinct feature is flexibility regards the potential role of the L1 within its lessons (Gonzalez and Barbero, 2013; Ardeo, 2013).

Lin (2015) details that amongst its aims, CLIL offers the intention to develop awareness of both L1 and L2. Additionally, that CLIL allows for the potential systematic as well as functional L1 and L2 use in various points of learning; for example, as reported by Laupenmuhlen (2012), a German teacher involving his learners in using comparative analysis in his biology classes of terms in the subject. CLIL is grounded on the notion that successful language learning is best achieved when learners take part in meaningful activities, as well as when they are interested in the given task, regard it as beneficial, and lead to a particular desired aim (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Additionally, CLIL takes into account learner needs as well as links prior experiences with new learning (Fernandez and Sanchez, 2001).

With its link to communicative language teaching (CLT), this type of classroom is learner centered. In CLIL learning is based on learners' active participation in the learning process. Hence, the teacher is not the sole guide of the whole class nor the only information provider. As a main principle in CLIL, teacher input is not the only driving force for successful learning, rather more as a result of input and interaction between learners. In such a classroom, students adopt active, social roles with learning being interactive, allowing for negotiation, collection of information, and the potential of co-construction of meaning (Lee and VanPatten, 1995). As a student-centred environment, CLIL aims to maintain high levels of interest and motivation among learners by ensuring that both content and material are stimulating. CLIL draws upon a wide range of traditions, hence reflecting the several models according to which it can be organized (Fernandez and Sanchez, 2001).

With the prospect of using learners' native language in classes that adopt the bilingual approach and in CLIL, many researchers have more recently proposed 'trans languaging' instruction, supporting students' use of their linguistic repertoires in the learning process. In a recent article by Lo (2015) entitled 'How much L1 is too much' in the CLIL classroom, the author recognizes the potential role of the L1, "using L1 can help students better understand the abstract content knowledge" (p. 280), and proposes a number of approaches to the systematic use of the L1. However, the author goes on to state that generally using the L1, "reduces L2 input and may go against the rationale of CLIL to facilitate L2 learning. Hence, whether teachers should use L1 in CLIL lessons is still an unresolved issue" (Lo, 2015:285).

This use, as many would argue, should be judicious, and limited (Lo, 2015). Some suggest that CLIL may pose a particular challenge in terms of judicious L1 use as content subject teachers usually pay greater attention to teaching subject matter and lack awareness of language as well as of the role of language teaching. Lin (2015), on the other hand, draws attention to potential negative teacher attitudes that "have made breakthroughs in the research on and conceptualisation of the potential role of L1 use difficult" (p. 70).

No doubt, the benefits of CLIL have overall led to its increased popularity and to the European Commission report (2005) referring to it as "an excellent way of making progress in a foreign language" (p. 5), yet it has also seen some criticism highlighting various perceived limitations (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). These included that fact CLIL can pose a great cognitive challenge for many students; hence, leading to a feeling of confusion. There is the additional issue of time limitation to reach a desired educational level. A challenge for

teachers is that they need to have a strong knowledge in both the subject content as well as the L2. There is also the issue of assessment, which is complicated as this needs to cover the subject content and target language skills (Lo, 2015). One may also add the potential injudicious use of the L1. That is, when responding to classroom realities, “Teachers need to be informed about how to deal with the explicit-implicit interface in both foreign language learning and CLIL contexts, but so far little is available on how to boost this interface through L1 use in a principled manner” (Lasagabaster, 2013:16).

Thus far, one can state that pedagogical approaches to language teaching based on CLT are still developing in this era. A selection of the more prominent ones which I explored above were the Task-based Approach, Cooperative learning, and content and language integrated learning. In these examples, it was evident that the first two either ignored or cautioned against the use of the L1. While the last approach, (CLIL), there is a potentially greater acknowledgment of L1 use.

2.11 Post Communicative Period

The communicative approach has more recently faced an articulated theoretical and practical criticism, as is voiced for example by Swan (1985a, 1985b) and Ur (1996). This has given rise to a new post-communicative disciplined and cautious eclecticism. In the following, I will detail criticism of the communicative approach including the avoidable rejection of MT use. Because of developments in teaching views, the potential for the combination of various methods, and parts of methods or approaches together is potentially possible in the new

eclectic approach. This, in theory, leaves the door open for the potential use of L1 as an additional teaching aid. However, the extent to which a truly eclectic approach to teaching is applied is questionable, with the continued acceptance of CLTA, and even suggestions of eclecticism also appear to have restrictions. Here it will become apparent that even within this new era in language teaching limitations of previous times in terms of L1 use still persist.

2.11.1 Criticism of the Communicative Approach

Critics of the communicative approach in more recent times have included Swan (1985a, 1985b), Ur (1996), Segalowitz and Lightbown. Ur (1996) states that expressing reservations about the communicative approach has not been an easy task as good language teaching was considered as synonymous with the communicative approach. However, recently some have questioned the key principles of this method. One of the distinguished methodologists who is among the earliest to express such views as regards CLA is Swan (1985a, 1985b), who acknowledges that CLT has made some valuable contributions, yet argues that, “ A dogma remains a dogma, and in this respect the ‘communicative revolution’ is little different from its predecessors in the language teaching field” (Swan, 1985a:2).

He details the major issues this approach presents both theoretically and practically. On the theoretical plane, Swan’s (1985a) initial reservation is in relation to CA’s certainty that language possesses meaning on two levels, “usage” - “use”; “signification” - “value”; “rules of grammar” - “rules of communication.” Swan also finds the concept of appropriacy disagreeable,

though this is one of CA's primary objective. Here again, he stresses that this is not a new idea as well as being rather limited since it applies only to specific items. Swan argues, "A limited but valuable insight has been over-generalized and is presented as if it applied to the whole of language and all of language teaching" (1985a: 7). What is more, he highlights that the undue emphasis that appropriacy receives overshadows the need to ensure learning of lexis, arguing that this is what the learners need, not appropriacy. He also points to the aspect that lexis is necessary for learners, rather than teaching skills and strategies, which have received much attention in the CA.

CLT also leads to practical difficulties in terms of the design of a syllabus. As part of Communicative teaching, a semantic syllabus is implemented, ranking meaning above structure. Here, Swan (1985b) detects numerous difficulties with the communicative syllabus. First, that structurally dissimilar items are grouped (Swan, 1985b). He suggested that difficult structures should be isolated and practiced before their incorporation in real life like communicative activities. Furthermore, some regarded erroneous for the framework of a syllabus to be based on one particular principle. Swan (1985b) believes it is necessary to consider various factors such as functions, situations, phonology, topics, vocabulary, and structures. Additionally, swan suggests that semantic and official syllabuses can work together; in fact, that there is an interdependence and as such these need to be integrated. Swan further adds that when considering functional categories there is a lack of clarity since they do not specify what teaching needs to cover. For Swan (1985b), lexis should be the focus, as "functions without lexis are no better than structures without lexis" (p. 81).

The communicative approach has also faced criticism from Ur (1996), and Segalowitz and Lightbown (1999) amongst others. A highlighted issue has been a lack of focus on formal aspects, which, could lead to fossilization of the students' linguistic competence. Furthermore, should formal elements receive greater attention learning could be faster and increased in effectiveness. Various arguments forwarded by Ur (1996) include the significance of accuracy and the need for a thorough grammatical awareness which leads to learners progressing to a greater degree than those who had intuitively acquired the L2. Both Segalowitz and Lightbown (1999) draw the conclusion that focus-on-form, as well as communicatively based tasks, can be effective, and that CLT's persistence on restricting teaching the structural elements of a TL is a clear drawback.

Further, Swan (1985b), among others, has critiqued CLT activity types and materials, and argued that although ensuring the use of life like language is a noteworthy CA contribution, yet the language used in the classroom cannot be completely genuine (Swan, 1985b). Other practices such as translation, repetition, and drill, to name some, are all effective. Both Swan (1985b) and Ur (1996) suggest that the focus on authenticity is unnecessary. Hence, they state that simplifying language within material of good quality is perfectly acceptable. Furthermore, that the classroom should utilize different types of materials at different stages; hence, there is room for material which is authentic and that which is scripted. Another activity significant to CLT and which Swan (1985b) suggests requires revision is information-gap as it could result in learners rapidly losing interest. Hence, personal-type communication is more appropriate, and this teacher can realized by involving learners in talking about themselves.

Finally, Swan (1985b) draws attention to the fact that the at least according to the British version of CLT “students might as well not have mother tongues” (p. 85). Here he argues that the L1 is almost non-existent, and goes on to highlight the essential role that the MT plays in the process of learning a language. Here he points to offering instruction, making meaning clearer, in raising awareness with the use of contrastive analysis. Translation is unavoidable, and that on-going comparison between the L1 and the L2 allows the students to use their existing knowledge and to overcome “returning to infancy and learning to categorize the world all over again” (Swan, 1985b:86).

2.11.2 Eclecticism

There is the opinion that this is “a post-communicative”, “a post-methodological” era (Ur, 1996: 7). That in language teaching there is no particular method considered sufficiently effective. This view warns that methods should not be exported from one situation to another, a position referred to by Larsen-freeman (2000) as “relativism” (p. 182). This view sees stresses that different methods are appropriate for different teachers and learners within differing context. Yet another version of relativism, one referred to as pluralism, according to which there is some value in each method. Pluralism points to the combination of methods or specific aspects of methods within a given context. Here “when teachers who subscribe to the pluralistic view methods pick and choose from among methods to create their own blend, their practice is said to be eclectic” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:183). Widdowson (1990) points out:

It is quite common to hear teachers say that they do not subscribe to any particular approach or method in their teaching but are ‘eclectic.’ They

thereby avoid commitment to any current fad that comes up on the whirligig of fashion” (p. 50).

Adding “if by eclecticism is meant the random and expedient use of whatever technique comes most readily to hand, then it has no merit whatever” (Widdowson, 1990:50).

There is a call for the development of informed eclecticism grounded on an appreciation of the merits and demerits of the various recognised methods. The difficulties in developing an enlightened eclectic method include that it does not offer criteria which allow teachers to decide which of the more established theories are best. In addition, it offers no principles by which to take on or else to exclude parts of existing theories or practices. According to Stern (1992), “The choice is left to the individual’s intuitive judgment and is, therefore, too broad and too vague to be satisfactory as a theory in its own right” (p. 11).

Despite such potential difficulties, it is suggested that at present what is advocated is the practice of a cautious eclecticism or integrated approach, whereby we “try out the new techniques without giving up useful older methods simply because they have been ‘proved wrong’” (Swan, 1985:87). In accordance with Stern (1983), “language teaching cannot be satisfactorily conceptualized in terms of teaching method alone” (p. 474). Specialists in the field of language teaching regard eclecticism as potential way forwards in overcoming the absence of any one method encompassing all teaching solutions.

Kumaravadivelu (2006) identified what he called the “post method condition,” (p. 43) due to what was a general dissatisfaction with the notion of method. Post

method teachers seek to accommodate local as well as contextual factors, guided also by various “macro strategies”, an example of which is “Maximise learning opportunities” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:69). The dismissal of the idea that teaching method is the main factor in successful language learning stimulated interest in the analysis of teacher language. Having rejected emphasis on the notion of method, academics would turn their attention to classroom interaction and the role that it has in learning the L2. Hence, an increased number of studies would set out to collect language data from the classroom itself. Teacher talk is evident in all aspects of classroom procedure, for example, instruction, questioning, feedback, and student discipline; hence, this has become a significant area of classroom-based research (Ellis, 1999).

However, more recently the claim which describes the present as a post-method era has been contested, “The concept of ‘language-teaching method’—a set of principles and procedures based on a theory of language and language acquisition— is still predominant in the professional literature, in spite of claims to the contrary” (Ur, 2013:464). Similarly, Waters (2012) argues

In overall terms, thus, an era which began with an anti-method stance has resulted in what is, in many ways, and ironically enough, the renewal of a strand of ‘methodism’ originally developed during the preceding period, a kind of ‘second coming’ (p 443).

It is also argued that even when alternatives are offered, for example by Kumaravadivelu (2006), they usually appear “suspiciously like a method themselves” (p. 469). In this example, components are embedded in various views of language and the processes of acquisition contributing to the endorsement of particular techniques over other. Consequently, teachers’ ability

to freely make decisions is again restricted (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). This, some scholars have argued, is evident from the fact that until the present time language classrooms are influenced by task-based language teaching, which is grounded on the CA (Ur, 2013; Carless, 2009) still dominates. This may potentially justify to a degree the continued abandonment of the MT.

Thus far this section on language teaching developments since the 16th century has highlighted that in pursuit of findings the best way forwards in ELT, there has been various theories presented, much research undertaken and varied teaching methods proposed over time. Clearly language learning has been characterized by changing phases whereby in the 1930's, for example, it amounted to the accurate translation of readings, while in the 1950's it meant the ability to successfully perform in aural comprehension and oral production. Theoretical underpinnings form the basis to this, which in turn lead to alterations in the notions of what it means to acquire, teach, or learn a language. Solutions as laying in a particular method or approach gave rise, for example, in the early part of the 20th century to the Direct Method, which was at the time considered by professionals as an improvement over the GT. In the 1950s, the Audio-lingual Method was regarded as a way forward integrating the up-to-date insights from the sciences of linguistics and psychology.

As the Audio-lingual method began to fade in the 1970s, a variety of other methods emerged, such as the silent way, total PR, and Suggestopedia. During the period from 1950 to 1980, a number of language teaching methods were proposed. By the 1990s, these methods would fall out of fashion, with various innovations emerging at different points, gaining varied levels of support. The task of finding a method that meets the need of all classrooms is no doubt

ambitious and unrealistic, so the advice to teachers is employing “a cautious, enlightened, and eclectic approach” (Brown, 2014:14). Lightbown and Spada (2006), among others, recommend eclectic approach in the language classroom.

However, despite the more recently developed outlook on language learning and teaching there remains a less than favorable view towards the use of the MT. The monolingual perspective continues to influence approaches and methods and has done so since the 1880s. For example, according to Brooks (1964), the ALM suggests “rendering English inactive while the new language is being learnt” (p. 142). In more recent times, methods have not so much forbidden MT use as ignored it. In most methods the ideal language teaching and learning environment is depicted as one that has limited contact with the L1 through a clear avoidance of reference to it. Although some methods and approaches have attempted to incorporate use L1, for example, Dodson’s Bilingual method, none of them have been practiced widely. Additionally, none of them represent a whole approach which could be adopted in different contexts. What these do share is a positive stance of L1 use.

2.12 The Debate on mother tongue use

In the following section, I will focus on the debate initiated as a result of the continued wide disapproval of MT use and more recent interest in its potential benefits. Initially, I will present the position held by proponents of the monolingual approach. Central to this position is the view that classroom communication should be conducted through the target language and that by

avoiding the use of the MT successful language learning is more attainable (Krashen, 1981). Here arguments for maximum exposure to the target language, interference from the mother tongue and issues around translation are prominent. Following this, I will present views of opponents of this monolingual position. First exploring underlining roots of such a largely held position, then considering counter arguments to these particular issues. In this process, opponents of the monolingual approach mark various potential positive effects of the judicious incorporation of L1 as a teaching aid (Tang, 2002; Schweers, 1999).

There is a degree of agreement that the monolingual principle has dominated current mainstream thinking in EFL so for many centuries (Wilkins, 1974; Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Swain, 1982; Krashen, 1982; Gower & Walters, 1983). The twentieth century revealed that for the majority of language teachers there are specific assumptions traced back to the period of the reform. Even though such has shaped perspectives in the field of ELT for decades, such traditions have not been openly discussed. Significant components of such assumptions is that written form of language is more complex than the spoken form, that teaching of grammar is undesirable, and that language should be practiced as a whole (Krashen and Terrell, 1983).

At the heart of such beliefs is some degree of rejection of the MT in the teaching and learning process. At its extreme, this position calls for a complete ban of the L1 from the classroom, while its weaker version encourages minimal L1 use in the classroom. Another version simply draws the conclusion that maximum L2 use is necessary in the language classroom, highlighting the effectiveness of the L2 without drawing attention to any perceived negative impact of L1 use,

“teachers have some sense, then, that using the TL as much as possible is important” (Polio and Duff, 1994:324). In Butzkamm’s (2003) words:

The mother tongue is generally regarded as being an evasive maneuver which is only to be used in emergencies. Effective bilingual teaching techniques are, therefore, as good as unknown in schools. It looks as though the so-called direct method, now operating under the new banner of the communicative approach, has triumphed (p. 1).

The general monolingual statement is clearly setting the L2 as positive, and the L1 as negative and hence teachers should avoid its use (Cook, 2008). Yet, here it may be argued that such doesn’t take into consideration practices in various countries whereby none centre-trained teachers, who share their students’ L1, practice with a wider dependence on the MT. Libya as will be discussed in the following chapter, is an example of how state teachers with no formal training resort to the use of Arabic widely up to more recent times (Grada, 2014; Abukhattala, 2014).

This perceived monolingual view for the need to avoid the use of the L1 by EFL teachers has influenced language teaching method and approaches. A large proportion of teaching guides take the aspect of L1 avoidance as so obvious that they do not refer to it (Halliwell and Jones, 1991). Even when it does appear, such takes the form of cautioning against its use. In Duff and Polio’s (1990) discussion of L2 use in the language classroom, they offer recommendations on increasing the L2 yet avoid taking similar steps in terms of how teachings can use the L1. This dismissal of the L1 has been evident in most language methodology manuals for decades. Cook (2001) notes that professionals of the recent communicative teaching approach have made the

assumption that the teaching and learning environment permits minimal L1; also that task-based learning indirectly dismisses any such use (Nunan, 1989). Until the last few decades, the generally accepted wisdom has been to avoid, whenever possible, L1 use in the classroom. Proponents of the bilingual approach, who argue that research findings support the judicious use of L1, have challenged this more recently. That is, L1 can be an additional tool supporting the learning of an L2 (Schweers, 1999; Cook, 2001; Butzkamm, 2003).

2.13 Monolingual arguments against mother tongue use

2.13.1 Maximum Exposure

In the following section I will focus on arguments underpinning the above view regards the use of L1. I will present three aspects, the first, and perhaps the most widely accepted one of which is the necessity for maximum exposure to provide the required environment for natural language learning and that reducing, this time, would have a negative impact on the whole process (Turnbull, 2001, Phillipson, 1992). The claim was that L2 followed L1 learning principles, as such the notion that maximum exposure to the L2 amounts to successful language learning gained strength. In this regard, Hawkins (1987) equates foreign language teaching to “gardening the gale,” as seeds planted during a lesson are likely to be blown away in between lessons hence necessitating maximum exposure to the TL within the confined time of these lessons (p. 97-98). This argument gained particular strength following Krashen’s

(1982) theory (discussed in detail in the previous section). Here Krashen (1982) makes a distinction between acquisition and learning:

[...] language acquisition, a process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language. Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language, but are only aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication. The result of language acquisition, acquired competence, is also subconscious (Krashen, 1982:10).

Through Krashen's claim that the L1 and L2 followed same acquisition processes, and the proposal that an innate ability guides people when learning a language, the view of maximum exposure becomes highly undisputable. According to Krashen, there is little room for teaching grammar in the acquisition of a new language that this process develops gradually with the listening skill preceding speaking skill. He refers to a silent period, which may last for months, during which the teacher exposes the learner to the TL in a natural context and hence develops his L2 competence through listening. Krashen's language acquisition theories advance the argument that for children and adults alike there is an element of subconscious processes that allow the intake of the L2, as such immersing the learner in an exclusive L2 environment holds many benefits.

'Input' refers to language which is understandable by the acquirer. The input hypothesis claims that in order to move from stage (i.e., what is already and easily understood) to $i + 1$ (i.e., language which is a little beyond the current level of competence), the acquirer needs to hear and understand input that contains $i + 1$. For the acquirer to understand is to use his/ her linguistic competence, the context, knowledge of the world and extra linguistic information to understand language directed to him/her. The situations where acquisition occurs are when the input is comprehensible (Krashen, 1982:21).

Therefore, Krashen (1982) argued that the most effective way of acquiring a language is through exposure to comprehensible input in the context of real communication. To support learners, the teachers are advised to use 'modified input' adjusted to the learner's level with the aim of improving communication and allowing them to comprehend what they hear (Krashen, 1982). According to the input hypothesis, such modified input, which is also natural, communicative, attuned, and comprehensible, is considered more positive for the learning process than input that directly attempts to teach any given structure (Krashen, 1982).

Additionally, it is suggested that the use of L2 in the classroom for numerous functions other than to learn the TL allows the learner to regard it as a valuable method of communicating and hence become more motivated in the learning process. Littlewood (1981) highlighted this in the following:

Many learners are likely to remain unconvinced by our attempts to make them accept a foreign language as an effective means of satisfying their communication needs, if we abandon it ourselves as soon as such needs arise in the immediate classroom situation (Littlewood, 1981:45).

MacDonald (1993) has argued more recently that teachers' maximized use of TL affects student motivation as it enables students to directly observe the manner in which TL knowledge will be beneficial to them. He further argues that over-reliance on L1 by the teacher to convey meaningful information would demotivate students as it means they do not need to further their understanding in the TL.

There is clearly a consensus amongst proponents of the monolingual approach that exposure to TL is necessary if learning is to take place; however, there is a

lack of agreement on the degree of exposure required from a theoretical and pedagogical point of view. Gass (2002) draws attention to the language learning environment as well as “how learners use their linguistic environment to build their knowledge of the second language” (p. 17). Vygotsky emphasizes the role of the social environment on children’s learning. Ellis (2008) argued that exposure alone does not guarantee that such would become intake.

Based on SAL research, learners need both TL exposure and importantly also need opportunities to meaningfully use the language through negotiation of meaning in class (Long, 1996; Brown, 2015). Hence, there is a necessity to negotiate input and output with other learners in meaningful activities. According to Swain (1985), students must attempt to make themselves understood by generating comprehensible output. In this regard, students should avoid the use of their MT and focus more on modifying their output till they reach a point whereby others comprehended them. As the argument goes, any use of the MT amounts to no negotiation taking place and ultimately little learning (Wharton, 2007).

2.13.2 Interference

The second argument of proponents of maximum TL use that I discuss here is that use of L1 can obstruct or interfere in the process of TL learning that L1 structures are transferred into the FL. The term inference denotes any form of influence originating with the MT and affecting L2 learning (Ellis, 1999). According to Cook (2001), interference is an obstacle to the learning of a foreign language that learners can overcome only if they separate the MT and the TL.

This notion of interference from the L1 and being an obstacle to language learning would between the 1940s and the 1960s dominate applied linguistics.

A typical statement of such a position is:

The basic problem of the foreign language learning arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language themselves, but primarily out of the special "set" created by the foreign language habits (Fries, forward to Lado, 1957).

Underlying much work throughout this period is the behaviorist model of language learning which perceived L2 learning as essentially the development of a new set of habits. Language acquisition would be described along an interpretation offered in 1957 by Skinner based on an experiment on rats indicating that certain learnt behaviours are triggered by positive and negative stimuli. These views would gain much widespread recognition during the 1950s and the 1960s encouraging the application of the Audiolingual Method with a focus on much drill to establish the appropriate habits. Errors were looked upon negatively, it is here that the position of L1 took on a great significance since it contributed to the failure of L2 learning. That is, firmly established habits in childhood interfere with attempts at establishing the new habits.

It is from this framework that contrastive analysis would emerge (Lado, 1957; Fries, 1945). Fries (1945) in an endeavor to rationalize and structure teaching materials specified:

The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner (p. 9).

The notion that a structural picture for any language can then be constructed and used to compare it with the structure of another one formed the bases of contrastive analysis (Lado, 1964). This would make possible drawing out aspects that differ as well as areas of similarities between the L1 and the TL. Dulay, Burt, Krashen (1982) put forward a second possible sociolinguistic interpretation of the term interference. This reflects communication that transpires when language communities interact. One example of which is fossilization, which was put forward by Selinker in the paper *Interlanguage* in 1972. Various scholars have interpreted the notion of fossilization differently since it was proposed, but in essence, it is a mechanism which underlies external linguistic material retained by learning in the form of an interlanguage (IL). Fossilization is described by Selinker and Lamendella (1978) of being a long-lasting IL cessation when the learner has not yet totally gained L2 norms in terms of all the levels of linguistic structure and in all discourse areas.

Corder proposed the idea that learner language has a structure, and through its careful study allows for a greater understanding of the learning process. Moreover, he suggested that errors were an indication that learners are attempting to structure their own given knowledge at a particular stage. Corder views errors as valuable information which accounts for learners' 'built-in syllabus;' additionally that they reveal a process involving the formation of hypothesis with ongoing occurrences of reformulation taking place. Hence, Corder (1981) forwarded the idea that learners establish a grammatical system which is not permanent and is continuously developing, similar to the TL grammatical system and that this is constantly changing closer to that of the TL, with the ideal being reaching near equivalence. Nonetheless, Selinker (1972)

suggested that this process could come to a cessation at any given stage during the L2 learning process, with a long-lasting cessation termed fossilization.

Some argue that a striking aspect of IL performance is items, rules, and sub-systems, which are fossilizable in relation to specific processes (Ellis, 1999). Further, that combinations of these lead to fossilized IL competence. One of these processes is language transfer and is directly linked to the issue of L1 use, here Selinker (1972) highlighted the potential that various language rules may be transferred from the learners L1 to that of the L2. Errors in the use of L2 are linked with L1 and that the dissimilarity between L1 and the TL accounts for such learners errors, clarifying the manner in which L1 rules transferred to the L2 account for the occurrence of fossilization. Corder (1978) claimed that the L1 presents numerous hypothesis about the L2 and that ample TL input is the best means by which to limit negative transfer.

2.13.3 Translation

The third significant argument that I present in the following section is the disapproval of translation within the FL classroom. That is, proponents of the monolingual view feel the separation of L1/L2 is vital to overcome the potentially negative results believed to accompany the practice of translation amongst language learners. The first objections regarding translation materialized due to its association with the early GTM. Members of the early Reform Movement in the late 19th century voiced this discontent. The grammar-translation method came under attack based on the movement's focus on speech, the significance of connected text and the centrality of classroom methodology grounded on oral

practices (Howatt, 1984). The aspect of connected text was linked with the notion of establishing appropriate association, as forwarded by the emerging science of psychology. The issue raised was that translation of isolated sentences would lead to 'cross association' between two languages and as such hinder FL development.

The 19th century would witness the expansion of the Natural Method which undermined the significance of translation as well as the effectiveness of the study of grammar. Maximilian Berlitz (1852-1921) first applied this method on a large scale. In Berlitz's manuals for teachers, they are not permitted to use translation under any circumstances. The 1960s would see anti-translation voices discouraging the use of translation as a substitute for language practice. Lado (1964) recommended that translation should not be used as this skill requires a high level of L2 competence and that it is complex psychologically in comparison to the four language skills. He recommends that it is only introduced once the L2 has been mastered. Gatenby (1967, cited in Malmkjær 1998) echoes Lado's objections further adding that translation is not a sufficient testing device. In his opinion teaching by translation, particularly literal translation is regarded bad pedagogy as it is not a good measure of comprehension. Additionally, Gatenby poses that our entire endeavor should involve training the learners how to dissociate the L1 and the L2 with the aim that the latter may be used without having to think. Hence, the outcome was a general attack on translation during this earlier period.

Newson (1998) has summarized some of the main weaknesses of translation as a teaching and testing tool in EFL. He states that translation can impede spoken fluency as it makes difficult the systematic introduction of selected and

graded structures. It also complicates the introduction of lexical items, as well as makes problematic controlled introduction of communicative techniques. Additionally, that there is no evidence for translation leading to vocabulary or structure learning. Finally, that it offers no support in nurturing the use of communicative language. Other objections to translation forwarded by Malmkjaer (1998), stress that it is independent and different from the four language skills; in addition, that valuable class time taken up by translation is wasted from developing the skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening; translation gives learners the incorrect impression that expression from the L1 and the TL are parallel; it causes interference and is unnatural; further that it hinders thinking in the TL; finally, that language skills cannot be soundly tested through translation.

Harbord (1992), who is an advocate of the separation of L1/L2, similarly stresses that MT use makes students think that word for word translation is a useful technique, and therefore attempt to transfer meaning in learning the TL. Harbord (1992) reasons that when students take lexical items out from real context, this hinders their attainment of awareness of the multiple meanings and uses of such items. He also argued that use of translation interposes a transitional process amid an idea and the manner by which it is expressed in the TL, hindering the ability of direct thought in the TL. Ellis (1984) claims that language acquisition will be achieved if learners do not depend on their L1, or if they do not translate.

Harbord (1992) also argues that the casual use of translation leads to the creation of a hierarchy where more proficient learners deter the less proficient ones from participating in the target language by imposing a sense of

subordination. Therefore, the rationale for using only the TL in the classroom is that, in Auerbach (1993) words, “the more students are exposed to English, the more quickly they will learn; as they hear and use English, they will internalize it to begin to think in English; the only way they will learn it is if they are forced to use it” (p. 9). However, opponents of the monolingual stance questioned this, along with the other monolingual arguments, as I will present in the following section.

2.14 Bilingual Arguments

Although the above monolingual position has dominated for centuries, over the last couple of decades there has been a move towards new recommendations for the judicious use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom (Duff, 1989; Harbord, 1992; Atkinson, 1987, 1993; Franklin, 1990; Cook, 2001; Turnbull, 2000, 2001). Such monolingual views contributed to the wide-spread rather doubtful assessment to language teaching and learning and one which led to an accepted view that bilingual instruction does not have much to offer the process of foreign language learning. The more recent view is that a degree of bilingual instruction can play a facilitative role in target language learning. Hence, proponents of the bilingual view have questioned the roots of such a monolingual position and offered some counter arguments to the previously discussed aspects of maximum exposure, interference, and translation. In addition, they not only endeavored to dispute monolingual arguments against the use of the L1 but also shed light on the potential benefits to its use.

2.14.1 Roots of the Monolingual Arguments

Proponents of the monolingual view have speculated that there may be various motives behind the insistence on such a position. Some scholars have suggested that there may be a covert reason why there has been an emphasis on L2 use, that being to protect the status of the native speaking teachers (Phillipson et al., 1992). English only policy and its application is linked to the large numbers of native English language speaking teachers who find comfort in the monolingual stance, especially since they don't speak the language of their students. Some have further argued that the blind acceptance of various methods led to the English only dominance, serving in the process the interest of native speaking teachers (Weschler, 1997). Hence, foreign language teaching materials manufactured in the US and England are not produced with bilingual teachers in mind, that is, those who speak both the L1 and the TL. Cook (2001) contended that up to the present time textbooks are on the whole produced with the monolingual teacher in mind with little reference to the L1, particularly true of books produced in England. He also adds that the economic large-scale production of textbooks in Anglo-American countries plays a role in furthering this quest for monolingualism within the field of FL teaching.

In an article by Auerbach titled '*Re-examining English Only in the ESL Classroom*', the author outlines the history of the notion of using English only in the classroom, tracing it back to colonial and neo-colonial attitudes. This notion stresses that English is best taught monolingually by native speakers, while any use of L1 would lead to an overall poorer level of English. She makes clear her view that both pedagogical and theoretical assumptions at the root of this practice ought to be challenged. Auerbach (1993) points out, "monolingual ESL

instruction in the US has as much to do with politics as with pedagogy” (P. 14) That it's tracked to invisible ideological roots that amount to linguistic imperialism, which in turn was, in her opinion, the main post-colonial strategy, a point agreed upon by Phillipson (1992). According to Auerbach (1993), “evidence from research and practice is presented which suggest that the rational used to justify English only in the classroom is neither conclusive nor pedagogically sound” (p. 5).

Auerbach (1993) also disapproves of the manner by which pre-set notions have led a feeling of guilt amongst teacher in relation to the use of the MT. Here, he argued that teachers are well aware of the facilitating role L1 can play, and so should be free to make appropriate decisions about its use within the classroom. On a similar line of thought to Auerbach, Cook (2001) also emphasizes the role played by commercial and political interest in English-only instruction. Pennycook (1994) also argues that monolingual practice has been so widespread as a result of the “language myths of Europeans”, and the view that non-European languages are less superior (p. 121).

2.14.2 Maximum Exposure from the bilingual perspective

Having considered potential roots of the monolingual view, the following will focus on the counter arguments presented by proponents of the bilingual view to the issue of maximum exposure, interference, and translation. Opponents of the Monolingual Approach have put forward two main arguments against the notion of maximum exposure. First, that the idea of natural, maximum exposure within the classroom is problematic if not impossible to achieve and that insisting

on its application creates far more difficulties than support for learners and teachers. Second, that it is highly debatable for mere exposure to lead to learning. Although benefits to teaching in the TL are valued, yet the argument is, teaching in the TL alone will not necessarily equate comprehensible input and will not guarantee acquisition (Butzkmann, 2003). However, excluding it, may impede learning; discounting the L1 in pursuit of maximizing students' exposure to the L2 is not necessarily useful, in fact, there is no evidence to support the claim that teaching in the L2 leads to better learning of the L2 (Pachler & Field, 2001).

Researchers and teachers who are in favor of using L1 in EFL classrooms believe that L1 learning and L2 learning are closely connected but fundamentally different mental processes, which occur in different settings. Cook (2001) opposes the claim that L2 learning can be modeled on L1 acquisition, and argues that

The justification for this rest on a doubtful analogy with the first language acquisition, on a questionable compartmentalisation of the two languages in the mind and on the aim of maximising the second language exposure of the students, laudable but not incompatible with use of the first language (p. 402).

A real issue here is the definition of "natural," from the perspective of monolingual proponents the way children learn their MT is the most natural way of learning a language, hence offers the ideal model. However, opponents of the monolingual view maintain that individuals' "natural" way of doing something may vary at different points of their life. Within second language learning, translation from the MT is "a natural phenomenon and an inevitable part"

(Harbord, 1992:351). According to Swan (1992), it is important to “take account of the knowledge and skills which language students bring with them from their MT” (p. 2). Mainstream ELT should view the MT a resource, as “it makes possible for us to learn a new language without at the same time requiring to infancy and learning to categories the world all over again” (Swan, 1985a:96). Furthermore, the input that learners receive in the language classroom cannot possibly amount to that of a child in their natural environment. Therefore, it is arguably rather natural for students to attempt to maximize their exposure to L2 with the aid of their already acquired L1.

Various scholars, for example, Butzkamm (2003), argued that the classroom with its artificial nature often limits maximum student and teacher TL use. Such a use necessitates demands of pupils and teachers alike to imagine that neither speaks the L1 and that classroom interactions are in fact realistic. Such can be both difficult and unwelcome in the long run. This requirement of maximum exposure could lead to reduced levels of performance of teachers and a sense of isolation from the learning process for the students. The establishment of positive teacher-learner relationships requires TL outside the scope of the curriculum and which is beyond the level of students. Atkinson (1993) argues that the use of the MT in language instruction enhances rapport between learner and teacher. Butzkamm (2003) argues that “The simple truth is that the call for ‘real’ communication and the ban of the MT are conflicting demands” (p. 33). The MT supports the establishment of a class environment which is near enough to the called for natural environment through, for example, “personal remarks to a student”, and “for light banter creating warmth and acceptance” (Butzkamm, 2003:33).

Polio & Duff (1994) similarly state that the L1 may be used by teachers for personal remarks. The suggestion here is that such a personal use of the L1 offers a sense of naturalness allowing learners to be treated as their real selves rather than, as Cook (2001) point out, some assumed L2 self. In a study conducted in England by Macaro (1997), the findings revealed that a large percentage of the modern language teachers interviewed attempt to offer feedback in the TL, yet Macaro goes on to state such feedback would be more real should teachers have presented it in the L1.

Additionally, a clear difference exists between teacher talk and native speaker talk (Macaro, 2000); hence, classroom-based exposure to TL is dissimilar to that in the real world. The issue of the decontextualized nature of TL learning in the classroom is very much a significant one for opponents of the monolingual approach. Cook (2001), Butzkamm (1993), among others, state that those in favour of the monolingual perspective have made the assumption that pupils will acquire the foreign language through engagement in a similar way to the manner in which they acquired their first language. However, they argue that the main environments necessary for this process, that is a genuine need to communicate in the TL and the continuous and wide-ranging exposure to target language and the opportunity to experiment with and practise newly learnt words, phrases, and structures, are artificial and often lacking in the FL classroom.

Other factors, such as class size, make language acquisition questionable, as large groups limit student opportunity to experiment with new words and phrases and to use the TL meaningfully restricting them to automatic standard responses. Swan (1985b) stressed here that learning the mother-tongue is

entirely contextualized; on the other hand, L2 learning is largely decontextualized. For real acquisition to take place, there needs to be the opportunity for constant reinforcement. Hence, only when students can practice what they have learnt in lessons and practise it in a variety of real situations would their learning be enhanced. It is a challenge for students to retain what they have learnt in a lesson should further reinforcement be lacking.

In the second counter argument to maximum exposure as crucial in achieving learning of the target language, opponents of the monolingual stance highlight that exposure alone without the aid of L1 jeopardizes potential of attaining comprehensible input and hence acquisition. Scholars raised an important methodological question regarding to what extent the structure of a language is to be made explicit by teachers, and the extent to which they need to stimulate more natural processes of language acquisition (Turnbull, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).. In this regard, “the case for learning the L2 ‘naturally,’ like infants acquire their L1, is not proven” (Macaro, 2000: 178). Although one may point to the fact that MT use amounts to limiting learners’ exposure to the TL, yet TL instruction ought to be systematic if it is to be effective. On some occasions, the use of the TL could impede learner understanding and hence negatively affect learning. Here it is crucial to provide learners the opportunity to “understand both what is meant (the message) and how it is said (syntactical transparency)” (Butzkamm, 2003:35).

The issue of the best manner through which to convey an L2 meaning, in terms of teacher use of words, or sentences or functions, was key in methodology during the 20th century; here one may point to the situations in situational teaching. utilizing the L1 to express the meaning of both word and sentences

indicates an interlink between the L1 and the L2 in the mind of the learner. It is argued here that the intention should not be to attempt and relate meaning to the L1 in all instances considering that not every vocabulary item and meaning can be presented simply through equivalence. However, the use of the L1 may be efficient to convey meaning in the L1, support learning and feel natural (Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001).

Although 20th-century language teaching generally called for an evasion from explicit grammar instruction, however, more recently attention is given to language awareness as well to focus on form led to some developments in this regard. Some suggested, for example, Long (1991), that grammar instruction could be used should it arise from class needs. Stern (1992) writes here that "...it is efficient to make a quick switch to the L1 to ensure that students understand a difficult grammar concept or an unknown word" (p. 295). It has also been proposed following findings of studies that explored naturalistic SLA and immersion that some linguistic structures may not advance to levels similar to the target language in classrooms which focus on meaning.

Two theoretical underpinnings to the implementation of focus on form have been presented: the first is that it is important to draw learner attention to specific linguistic structures to support them in developing beyond a given interlanguage level toward a closer approximation of the target language. Second, should it be considered that such a focus is not necessary, it can still offer a more effective as well as efficient language learning experience as it makes possible faster natural SLA processes.

However, the contributors to Doughty & Williams (1998) do not discuss the choice of language, probably following the common position in terms of L2 use. As an issue that has received much attention is regards the teaching of grammar through the students' L1 or through the TL. Here various studies of cognitive processing point to the possibility that learners are more likely to absorb information presented to them in the L1. Thus, teachers are not in favor of grammar explanation in the L2 (Cook, 1997; Macaro, 1997; and Polio & Duff, 1994).

That MT leads to comprehensible input hence to faster acquisition is further justified on the grounds that it can support processing, achieved by refining input quality through a process of code-switching amongst student. Morgan & Neil (2001) defined the concept of code-switching as "the practice of switching between the TL and the mother tongue for specific purposes" (p. 147). Grosjean (1989) also regarded code-switching as an activity requiring vast skill and that it is a natural and normal activity outside the classroom should people share more than one language. Anton and Dicomilla (19998) also pointed out that using the L1 allows for scaffolding whereby learners offer each other support during the learning process. Students can refer to their shared L1 to clarify a given task to peers, or to decide on roles, check their output with that of other students or check their comprehension.

Macaro (2000) considers code switching as a natural and valid operation and questions whether any potential MT interference is enough "to counter-balance any beneficial cognitive processes that making links between L1 and L2 might bring about" (p. 179). He theorizes that use of the mother tongue particularly for

beginners can support them in decoding texts and that both beginners and more advanced learners resort to it to assist them when writing texts

2.14.3 Interference from the bilingual perspective

Interference is the second argument raised by opponents of the monolingual approach. A long-standing question has been whether learner deviant structures and the L1 are directly linked, or whether they represent the progressive nature of acquisition order for the target language. In the case that deviant structures can be attributed to the L1, such may not be as a result of transfer. In order to associate deviant structures with transfer from the L1 or to establish if they indicate a developmental stage in learners' language, such Dulay and Burt (1974) investigated through different approaches. These include exploring the use of language structures among language learners from diverse backgrounds documenting any differences in their L2 structures. Should learners present similar errors, it is proposed that L1 transfer is not at play. The other technique is comparing errors made by children in the process of L1 acquisition and those observed in L2 learner IL. Similar to the previous technique, should similarities be noted between child errors and the IL of L2 adult learners then again L1 transfer can not be held as the main cause (Dulay & Burt, 1973).

The comparison of structures of languages is a highly regarded activity within contrastive linguistics. However, as a method to the study of the process of L2 acquisition, linguists, notably Chomsky (1959), would dispute it on numerous grounds. These included CA's association with the debated behaviourist

understanding of language acquisition. The second challenge to contrastive analysis manifests itself once researchers began collecting and analyzing data in systematic ways. Research highlighted that much of the errors made by learners could not be foreseen according to CA (Oller & Richards, 1973). It was found that many of these errors, for example, rule simplification and over-generalization, displayed a likeness to L1 errors made in child language acquisition.

As evidence mounted against CA's predictive role, a distinction would be made between two versions of the approach (Wardhaugh, 1970). One was regarded the strong version and was grounded on the predictive model. The other was the weak version, and this examined errors that occurred and attempted to account for them. Only the weak form of CA continues, which only offers a less than complete detail of the process of L2 acquisition, as it does not account for all learner errors. More recently, the weak version of CA has been merged into the error analysis approach; this analyses regular learner errors in comparison to norms of the L2. It has been suggested that in some contexts, for example, China, teachers don't always use error analysis in a constructive manner as a result of limited theoretical knowledge; yet, that there is an appreciation of its significance

we need to be armed with some theoretical foundations and be aware of what we are doing in the classroom. Here principles of optimal affective and cognitive feedback, of reinforcement theory, and of communicative language teaching all combine to form these theoretical foundations. With these theories in mind, we can judge in the classroom whether we will treat or ignore the errors, when and how to correct them (Fang, 2007:1).

The 1950s witnessed Chomsky's (1957) proposal of language as a set of transformational rules and soon various research, for example, Brown and Bellugi, 1964, would start documenting consistencies in child language. They would reveal specific rules characterizing these regularities. The notion driving such research was that the final form of the progressive process is a transformational grammar. Studies revealed that children's utterances were at times governed by their own set of obvious rules, unlike those seen in adults language. Such errors among children were mainly morphological, for example, "wented," some syntactic. What such research amounted to was the proposal that even though children made errors in comparison to adult grammar, yet their utterances had a system indicating a developing grammar with a system. Errors evident among children came to be regarded in Chomsky's terms, as a product of a core system which is not random but rather rule-governed and progressive. For researchers, the child is now regarded as an active contributor in the language acquisition process. The error analysis approach presents the impact of initial research on the L1 acquisition on research on L2 acquisition (Oller and Richards, 1973). Studies, for example, Dulay and Burt (1972), draw similarities between child L1 acquisition and adult TL learning, which research could not place within the framework of CA. Such correspondence directed researchers to the conclusion that L1 acquisition and L2 learning were alike (Dulay & Burt, 1972).

Researcher determined that L2 learners' grammar, similar to children, developed and progressed through a succession of transitional grammars (Nemser, 1971). L2 learners were recognised as illustrating an interlanguage, which was considered a language in a true sense since it encompassed

systematic rules that defined as a grammar. This IL integrates L1 and L2 features. Errors have been considered as being either interference (interlingual) type errors or intralingual type errors. The first includes inaccuracies that may be traced to the learner's native language, and these are addressed by CA. The variance here is that error analysis regarded these errors as resulting from interference of L1 habits with L2 habits. Based on the perspective that the acquisition of language is a hypothesis testing procedure, interference errors are hence viewed as representing the learner's hypothesis that the L1 and the L2 are alike (Corder, 1967). The second, intralingual errors, stem from characteristics of the TL and are visible among children in their process of acquiring their L1. Childrens' errors contain errors of simplification and overgeneralization too.

various researchers explored learner errors and attempted to examine the two L2 acquisition theories, for example, Dulay and Burt's (1973, 1974b) study. Their assumptions were the first hypothesis is proven through detection of intralingual errors. The interpretation here is that L1 and L2 acquisition are principally alike. The second hypothesis, based on the notion of habit formation, regards errors as evidence for L1 interference in language learning. Dulay and Burt's (1974) study investigated speech samples from children learning English as L2 with Spanish as their L1 from different locations in the US. The instruction the children received varied in terms of L2 input. Errors from the sample of children were "unambiguously" categorized as indicating interference, as intralingual or otherwise unique (neither of the two). The results obtained revealed that interference error accounted for only about 5 percent of 513 unambiguous errors, while 87 percent were found to be intralingual, and the rest

unique. This would be interpreted as confirming “children do not use their ‘first language habits’ in the `process of learning the syntax of their new language” (Dulay and Burt, 1974:134).

Such findings offered clear evidence against the notion of interference errors being linked to a habit-formation hypothesis. Similarly, more recently Kim (2001) conducted a study exploring interference from the L1 by analyzing college students’ written samples and concluded that there is inconclusive evidence for the occurrence of interference from the L1. Findings revealed that a great proportion of errors were in fact categorized as intralingual, thus supporting the hypothesis that adult language learners progress through similar developmental stages to children acquiring their L1.

2.14.4 Translation and the bilingual argument

The third argument forwarded by opponents of the monolingual approach is regards rejection of L1 use in translation. It is argued that the origins of such a rejection is based on the link between translation and the GTM and the persistent view that it simply involves some type of mechanical linguistic transfer of meaning. Bilingual proponents point to the fact that the process of translation has altered dramatically over recent years. They argue that it has developed substantially from its previously perceived mechanical role, into a way to enrich learners’ overall competency and hence teachers should not disregard it as part of the teaching and learning of a language without careful consideration (Titford, 1983; Ivanova, 1998; Schweers, 1999).

Translation started to regain its rightful position among teaching professionals beginning in the eighties. Significant here is Atkinson's (1987) article *The Mother Tongue in the Classroom: a neglected resource?* Some of the main advantages for the use of L1 have been highlighted by Atkinson; he draws attention to translation as a preferred learner strategy. Additionally, he highlights the misconception in relation to the significance of accuracy requires clarification in the classroom. Thus, Atkinson (1987) argued translation might be used to encourage guessing strategies. He demonstrates this by pointing to true cognate, some identified false cognates, and some unfamiliar true cognates. These review work completed at an earlier point and allow learners opportunity to increase vocabulary without assistance.

Titford (1983) also offers specific translation procedures which include the word-for-word spoof, whereby students are provided with a clearly incorrect translation in pursuit of drawing their attention more on syntax than lexical items; and hence allowing students to see the error in word for word translation, turning to the learner's existing knowledge by involving him/her in a discovery of translations. It is his belief that translations, if rightly regarded, can greatly add to the instruction of advanced learners, stating that translation is a problem-solving exercise and also a cognitive exercise, playing a significant role in this context. According to Tiford (1983) translation is hence considered, "a bridge function which enables students to relate form and function in their L1 to form and function in the L2" (p. 53). Baker (1992) devised five types of equivalence, the first is equivalence on word level, the second is above word level, the third is equivalence of grammatical structures, the fourth is textual equivalence, and finally pragmatic equivalence, which all had to be considered to avoid the

possibility of translation leading the learner to consider that structurally and lexically similar sentences in two languages are equivalent in meaning.

Malmjaer (1998) argued that the correct practice of translation for language learners can raise awareness and control interference, in Malmjaer's (1998) words

It is clearly true that translation produces interference [...]. However, bilinguals at whatever level experience interference of one kind or another, and practice in translation encourages awareness and control of interference (p8).

Raising students' awareness could support students in relating two language systems to one another correctly, minimizing negative interference, while maximizing positive interference in selecting the most appropriate translational equivalents. Schaffner (1998) suggests that

Parallel texts are analyzed, in order to compare the formal structures and properties of the text types in the two languages, in order to see how the same ideas are expressed, what lexical or grammatical structures are used for identical situations and contexts, in short, to draw the distinguishing traits of text types in the source language and culture and in the target language and culture (p. 127).

Various linguists and researchers state that the ability to move between languages is a language skill with a positive effect on competence in a foreign language. Should teachers recreate life like translation in the context of a language classroom, students will gain a greater awareness of variances between L1 and L2 expressions hence appreciating that word for word translation is not always correct (Schweers, 1999; Ivanova, 1998). Furthermore, even when they do, the contexts for the two texts can be different to the extent

that the expression made in the L2 and regarded as a best TL 'equivalent' is rather inappropriate (Malmkjaer, 1998).

Ivanova (1998) examines the issue of cognitive complexity of translation, in particular, language learner's translation processing and its underlying cognitive mechanism with a particular focus on interlanguage connections. She associates common features translation shares with metalinguistic tasks and reading-writing, hence proposing translation to be "a skill requiring highly analysed knowledge and high control;" Translation as a skill requiring deeper level processing, is regarded to have a highly complex goal structure as it may be encompassed in several contexts, "interlinguistic, intercultural, communicative, professional". Additionally, that translation involves complex language processing requirements including selection, coordination and monitoring of information at different levels (Ivanova, 1998, cited in Malmkjaer, 1998:95).

Malmkjaer (1998) in a description of translation processes also objects to various arguments that view translation as independent and fundamentally unlike the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. He disputes that good translation requires a great deal of practice in all four skills. Hence, translation is not independent of the other four skills, but inclusive of them. Researchers have suggested that translation may be an effective pedagogical tool that teachers can utilize with various levels of proficiency. Additionally, that it can offer valuable support and strengthen the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking (Ivanova, 1998; Leonardi, 2009).

Moreover, since the aim of TL teaching is to develop communication skills, Ross (2000) suggests that translation supports both communication and comprehension of the TL. That it is the fifth skill and a significant social skill. The practice of translation as a communication leads to teacher-learner interactions, as well as learner-learner collaboration and cooperation; hence, further adding to its merits in the language classroom. According to Leonardi (2009), translation allows learners, “to discuss rights and wrongs as well as problems related to the translation task” (p. 145). Students have conversations about the topic of translation, further supporting their oral skills, while listening to spoken language in class develops listening skill further.

Clearly many scholar and researchers are of the view that the MT is “the most important ally a foreign language can have...” (Butkzamm, 2003:2). In their arguments in favor of the use of the MT, many have attempted to demonstrate insisting on exclusive TL use is arguably, since according to Auerbach (1993) such is “neither conclusive nor pedagogically sound” (p. 5). The views presented above indicate that L1 use can be effective and is perhaps essential in certain circumstances. However, this does not negate the benefits of its appropriate or “optimal use position” (Macaro, 2000:184), nor is it an open invitation to its indiscriminate use (Ellis, 1984; Atkinson, 1995; Hall & Guy, 2013).

2.15 Summary

In summary, the role of the MT and the TL in the foreign language classroom has been at the heart of abundant discussions and considerable debate among linguists and language teachers. Predominantly, the view has clearly been one

in favor of a more monolingual approach, which is based on the need for maximum exposure to the target language, to the difficulties L1 would cause through interference and various issues linked with translation. The first argument gained strength through Krashen's claim first and second language acquisition are essentially the same, pointing to an innate ability guiding learners in the process of L2 acquisition. Hence, the notion of exposure becomes almost undisputable. Second, proponents of maximum TL use state that use of L1 can have negative effect arguing that it can obstruct or interfere with the process of foreign language learning (Ellis, 1999).

Finally, a monolingual challenge to the use of translation dates back to the reform period and the development of the Natural Method. Works here suggest that the use of translation in teaching, as well as testing in EFL, hinders the achievement of numerous commonly recognised objectives of foreign language teaching (Bowen, Madsen & Hilferty, 1985). . Some examples presented in this argument include translation causes hindrance in achieving fluency in spoken language, and viewing translation as unlike as well as being independent of the skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

Proponents of the bilingual approach have questioned the pedagogical and theoretical roots of such widely held monolingual views and have offered counter arguments to the above in defence of the use of the mother tongue. Various researchers questioned effectiveness of exposure in a natural environment, pointing out that insistence on achieving this could be counter-productive (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 1997). From a monolingual perspective, the assumption is that pupils will acquire the foreign language through engagement in a similar way to the manner in which they acquired their first language.

However, the main environments necessary for this process are artificial and often lacking in the FL classroom. It is also highlighted that exposure alone without the aid of L1 jeopardizes potential of attaining “comprehensible input” and hence acquisition (Cook, 2001).

Opponents of the monolingual approach also argued against the notion of interference. At various points in their learning process, learners had a developmental “interlanguage,” which combines both L1 and L2 characteristics. Intralingual errors are a result of target language properties and observed in L1 acquisition among children. Finally, in the argument for translation is not independent of the other four skills since it cannot be accomplished without a great deal of reading, writing, speaking and listening. Additionally, Ross (2000) suggested that translation is the fifth skill and a crucial social skill stimulating communication as well as understanding in the language classroom. Furthermore, translation involves complex language processing requirements including selection, coordination and monitoring of information at different levels. Additionally translating does not function within one language and denotes the skill to relate two language systems to one another appropriately. This amounts to minimizing negative interference while maximizing positive interference in selecting the most appropriate translational equivalents.

2.16 Conclusion

It is apparent that there has been a continuous concern in language teaching to discover the most efficient and effective methods to successful teaching over the past centuries. This has resulted in a proliferation of methods and

approaches, a general characteristic of which has been a rejection of the role of the mother tongue on some level. More recent communicative language teaching and task-based learning reveal no fundamental association with the MT. In fact, the occasional reference to the L1 appears in the process of caution against its overuse. The ideal classroom is clearly perceived as one that has minimal contact with L1, mainly by opting to avoid mentioning its use. Although a few exceptions to this generally held position, for example, the bilingual method, have attempted to offer an alternative positive perspective on the role of the mother tongue, these have generally received little or no public support. Furthermore, these have not seen wide recognition nor signify a whole approach applicable in various contexts. What these do present is a positive perspective of the role of the MT (Butzkamm, 2003).

This monolingual view has dominated mainstream thinking in the field of FL teaching for years. Such has initiated numerous debates on its merits or demerits, particularly with the growth of more recent research drawing attention to benefits of the incorporation of L1 as part of the teaching and learning of L2. Hence, in defence of their position monolingual proponents mainly point to the need for maximum exposure, issues of interference and translation. The first gained strength through Krashen's claim that L1 and L2 acquisition are essentially alike, adding that learners are guided in the learning process by an innate ability, hence the notion of exposure becomes almost undisputable. Second, proponents of maximum TL use state that use of L1 can be negative as features of the L1 may be transferred to the L2 (Ellis, 1999).

Underlying much thinking in this period is the behaviorist model of language viewing the learning of language as a habit and learning an L2 as essentially a

process of developing a new set of habits. Another interpretation of interference forwarded during this period is the idea of the fossilization of learner interlanguage due to L1 use. As the argument goes, difference between the L1 and the TL account for learner errors. Hence, the transfer of L1 rules can amount to fossilization. Finally, monolingual challenge the use of translation maintaining it hinders the achievement of numerous foreign language teaching aims. Some examples presented in this argument include translation causes hindrance in achieving fluency in spoken language, and that translation is unlike and is independent of the four language skills. In addition, translation from a monolingual perspective is unnatural, takes up class time and could lead to interference. Furthermore, the translation could inhibit the learners from the ability to think directly in the TL, and that it is insufficient for testing language skills (Malmkjaer, 1998; Newson, 1998).

Proponents of the bilingual approach have debated the very roots of generally held monolingual views. They also forward counter arguments to those presented by proponents of the monolingual stance, highlighting benefits to mother tongue use. Here opponents of the monolingual stance put into question the notion of maximum exposure to the TL. They argued that the meaning of the term natural may vary in different settings and at different stages in a person's life. Furthermore, that the classroom cannot replicate the natural L1 acquisition environment and insistence on achieving this could be counter-productive. The insistence on keeping the L1 out creates an artificial classroom setting, lacking the much called for the natural environment. Maximum TL use from the monolingual perspective makes the assumption that pupils will acquire the foreign language through engagement in a similar way to the manner in which

they acquired their first language. However, the main environments necessary for this process are artificial and often lacking in the FL classroom. It is also highlighted by opponents of the monolingual approach that exposure alone without the aid of L1 jeopardizes potential of attaining comprehensible input and hence acquisition (Cook, 2001).

Opponents of the monolingual approach further question the aspect of interference from the MT highlighting for example that in seeking to explore the roots of interference, research supports that such is not necessarily linked to the L1. At given stages of their learning, learners held a progressive “interlanguage,” which integrates L1 and L2 characteristics. Here the idea of error analysis came to play a significant role, stressing that L2 errors should not be regarded as revealing interference due to habits from the L1. As the acquisition of language is viewed as a process which involves learner hypothesis testing, errors categorised as interference type are considered as revealing the hypothesis that L1 and L2 alike (Corder, 1967).

Finally, in their argument for translation proponents of the bilingual approach state that good translation involves without a great deal of practice in the four language skills. Hence, translation is not independent of reading, writing, listening and speaking, but inclusive of them. Additionally, Ross (2000) states that the aim of developing the learners’ communicative skill is supported through translation activities. Moreover, that accurate translation practice involves multipart language processing requirements. Ivanova (1998), amongst others, also argue that translation requires the learner to create accurate links between the L1 and the TL systems. Such a complex skill would denote reducing negative interference as well as enhancing positive interference.

It is evident from the above that the various views presented for the use of the L1, no matter how compelling, have not had a wide impact on the practice of many teachers who share their students' L1 within the EFL classroom. Here one can argue that empirical research to document and present a clear statement of the extent, reasons, and attitudes towards the continued use of the mother tongue within the FL classroom is still necessary. My research aims to investigate this issue further adding in particular to the Libyan context where there is a clear absence of any research on the issue of mother tongue use. This is vital as it is through such advances that the potential for an even broader reassessment of the generally held negative view of L1 use could develop, hence potentially sanctioning a reflection on a selective and balanced use of the mother tongue with the aim of improving the teaching and learning experience within the EFL classroom.

In Chapter 3, I will present a background on the nature of language teaching in Libya, preparing ground for the research studies which follow in the subsequent three chapters. These studies will investigate an unexplored issue within Libya and further add to the growing body of research in regards to teachers and students' extent, reasons and attitudes towards the use of the mother tongue.

Chapter 3: The Libyan Context

3.0 Introduction

In the present chapter, I shed light on foreign language teaching within the Libyan education system since the late 19th century with a focus on English

language teaching up to more recent times. There is generally lack of information about foreign language teaching in Libya in the eras preceding the British administration. However, what literature documents to an extent is that since the latter part of the nineteenth century and in the first few years of the twentieth century, some efforts to teach foreign languages were made by the Turks, the Italians, and the British in Libya; I will present a brief history of this in the following sections.

3.1 Brief history

The attempts by Turks at language teaching had limited success since the teaching of Turkish was centred only around Tripoli, and Libyans considered this an attempt at making Libyan young men military officers and civilian officials in the service of the Ottomans. During the 1900s in the preceding era, Italian was the language of instruction in schools. There were also attempts by Italians to learn Arabic too (Obedi, 2001). However, one has to note that despite the dominance of the Italian language within schools during this period, it never truly took root in Libya, for example, as did French elsewhere in North Africa. This was attributed to various facts including that only a scattering of Libyan children attended Italian institutions, as it was only Italian children and administrators' children who were allowed to attend these schools. Furthermore, there was a deep distrust amongst the masses in Libya of Italians, their language and culture (Obeidi, 2001).

On the other hand, interest in the English language within Libya dates back to the 1900s. Rise in its importance was especially noticeable from 1943 on during

the British administration in Libya, no doubt largely due to the fact that it was introduced as a school subject (Ali, 2008). The British policy in southern Libya aimed to spread the English language. In the 1960s interest in English was due to various factors, such included development in the social, economic, and industrial sectors as well as increased government attention to the development of HE (Barton, 1968). An important decision made by the Ministry of Education during this period was the revision of the Libyan education system with the effect of English becoming the language of instruction in the secondary schools and universities in relation to scientific courses.

Interest in the teaching of the English language is also indicative from a series of teacher and student textbooks introduced during this period. Two reading and comprehension books were in use during this period: *Basic Reading Book* by L.W. Lockhart, and *New Method* by Michael West, based on Arab culture would replace this series during the early part of the 1960s. This would, in turn, be replaced by *Modern Reader* by A. Johnson. In an attempt to advance English language programmes and textbooks, a series entitled *English for Libya* by Mustafa Gusbi's series would be introduced next and would, in fact, continue until the 1980s. This series aimed at catering for the linguistic and cultural needs of Libyan learners. It included three textbook, three workbooks, and three teachers' handbooks (Barton, 1968).

While the series for the preparatory stage focused on Libyan culture, in the secondary stage, Gusbi together with Roland John, produced *Further English for Libya*, along the 1970s and up to the mid-1980s which utilized the English culture in teaching the English language. Gusbi's material was marked by a focus on structure and form, rather than meaning, it also used drills and

exercises largely and allowed little room for group activities. Gusbi would introduce yet another textbook entitled *Living English for Libya* in 1982. Some of the criticism directed at this work included its primary focus isolated vocabulary memorizing and grammatical structures application (Abukhattala, 2016). It was argued that “Arabic often dominated the classroom interaction,” especially when teachers needed to explain, also “...Students often wrote the Arabic equivalent of the English words to help them memorize the meaning,” and “....sometimes teachers would ask the students to give the Arabic translation of words” (Orafi, 2008:9). Again student participation was limited and group or pair activities absent. Clearly Gubi’s work was based on traditional methods of teaching, “until recently, the secondary English textbook was mainly a collection of grammatical rules book in which grammar items were presented structurally with almost no interactive exercises” (Abukhattala, 2016:1).

All developments of English language teaching material in Libya come to a sudden halt in 1986. This was due to the situation following the air raid against the Gaddafi regime led by the US in April of that year. Therefore, the Ministry of Higher Education passed a resolution excluding the teaching of the English language from the education system. During this time English language resources were destroyed and “Students all over Libya were ordered to come out in large crowds and to burn many English school books” (Kreiba, 2012: 1). All the English departments in universities were closed down. HE did not permit enrolment of new students from this date until the 1990s, an exception was made for those in their third and fourth year to complete their degrees. English language teaching would only be reintroduced into the Libyan educational system once again in the 1990s. The process of reintroducing English was

overwhelmed by numerous challenges as will become evident in the following section (Orafi, 2008).

One can observe from the above that the first FL to take real shape within the Libyan education system was English. That is, the teaching of Turkish was limited. Similarly, Italian was not available to all and local Libyans viewed it suspiciously, as they believed it was simply intended to Italianize them. The rise of the English language within Libya during the British administration was associated with English becoming a school subject and evident from the preparation of a series of teaching materials introduced during the period up to 1986. The situation in terms of English language teaching came to a halt in this year following the US bombing of Libya that led to the prohibiting of the teaching of all foreign languages in Libyan schools and universities.

3.2 English language teaching in Libya

In the following section, I will focus on the development of ELT within Libya in both secondary and higher education since the 1990s. As such, I will consider the school curriculum and university syllabus. Here a significant development was the introduction of a school curriculum based on CLT in 1999-2000. Researchers have argued that one of the main current issues, and one which has shaped what goes on within the Libyan EFL school classroom, is linked to the fact that new curriculum has not been implemented well (Abushafa, 2014; Orafi & Borq, 2009). Second, I will highlight the dominant teaching approach and possible reasons for their prevalence. Research has revealed that rather than the application of CLT, some aspects of the GTM with extensive use of

Arabic have been much more evident within the Libyan EFL classroom. This is true at both secondary schools and universities and is a central feature of English language teaching and learning in Libya (Zainuddin, 2015).

In exploring factors shaping the EFL Libyan classroom, it becomes evident that the beliefs of teachers have played a significant role in guiding practices. The third point I will reflect on is the nature of the Libyan student and teacher through a consideration of the socio-cultural tradition, which plays a role in directing both practices and beliefs. The final area that I present, which has also shaped the nature of ELT in Libya, is that of teacher training and continuing professional development (CPD), shedding light on the clear negligence of both.

3.3 English language curriculum in Libya

Since 1999 high schools teaching should have been based, though teaching did not implement this, on a new curriculum prepared by the Garnet Research Centre for Culture and Education, and based on CLT; however, schools never successfully implemented this. At the university level, on the other hand, there are no national, official, or centrally prescribed syllabus requirements. The new school curriculum was in an attempt to improve the teaching and learning of EFL in Libya. A UNESCO report (1996) in relation to the state of ELT in Libya during the period prior to the introduction of the new curriculum is outlined in the following:

The communicative approach to English language learning has not yet reached the Jamahiriya (Libya). Schools lack the use of educational media; there is even no use of tape recorders and no testing of oral skills. Some schools have overhead projectors, but it seems that teachers do not have printed or blank transparencies or suitable pens to use them.

Each basic school class is taught English in the same classroom as the other subjects. There are no language laboratories or even specialist English teaching rooms (pp. 22-23, cited in Orafi, 2008:10).

Aloreibi (2016), whose work is more recent than the UNESCO report as well as Orafi's work, stresses there is little evidence that the situation has altered in current times. Phillips, Tankard, Phillips, Lucantoni, and Tankard (2008) designed the reformed curriculum. This included a subject book, skills book (A&B), workbook, teacher's handbook (A&B), and cassettes. The students have subject books, skills books, and workbooks, each of which with its specific learning aims. The subject book presents a reading text with new information and links vocabulary into it. The aim of these texts is to promote a greater understanding of the subject concerned and to present associated vocabulary rather than teach or practice reading (Orafi, 2008:11-12). The subject book covers information about a particular area in each level of study: year 1 (Language and Communication), year 2 (Language and Culture), and year 3 (Language and Society). Within the skills book, teachers are required to engage students in practising the four language skills (see Appendix 1). The main purpose of the workbook is to raise students' skills of writing through a broader knowledge of grammar points and vocabulary. Moreover, there are pair and role-play activities intended to consolidate students' communication in the classroom (Orafi, 2008:13).

Embark (2011) highlights that although the teachers' book offers a detailed clarification of "the steps and procedures" followed by lessons in the different skills, yet he argues that the language and terms used are challenging for Libyan teachers (p. 17). In theory, the new curriculum called for a classroom which

allows learners opportunities to use the TL communicatively; the teacher is considered as a facilitator guiding learners into active participation while also engaging them in discourse which is characteristically authentic, meaningful, and contextualized. According to Saleh (2002) “the idea of student-ness is embodied in the design of the new syllabus” (p. 49); however, the appropriate implementation of these activities, a selection of which is provided below, calls for teaching that promotes learner participation in such activities like games, role-playing, problem-solving and open dialogue.

Some examples of activities from the skills book English for Libya Secondary (3) include the following:

Group discussion-critical thinking: Work in groups of four. Discuss:

1) Everyone in the world should speak English; 2) You can learn better without a teacher; 3) Education should be compulsory under the age of eighteen; 4) People don't need to learn how to study; 5) Exams are a waste of time. (Appendix 2).

Role-play: Read the first conversation in pairs. Practice both roles (Appendix 3).

Peer assessment: work with another pair. Perform your conversation for the other pair. Give each other feedback (Appendix 3).

All secondary education textbooks focus on the communicative aspect of introducing reading, writing, and listening through involving students in most of the tasks by themselves. In terms of grammar, Phillips et al. (2002a) suggests that this may be deductively or inductively presented, following which students find examples in a text. Should the instructor choose an inductive approach, then he/she may point to examples within a text prior to presenting the rules and seek student explanation of these structures (Embark, 20011:17).

The publishing company details the bases for the new curriculum and outline its objectives as follows:

“For the students to leave school with a much better access to the world through the lingua franca that English has become.

“To create an interest in English as a communication tool, and to help students develop the skills to start using this tool effectively.

” To help students use the basic spoken and written forms of the English language.

” To help students learn a series of complex skills: these include reading and listening skills that help get at meaning efficiently, for example, skimming and scanning and interpreting the message of the text; they also include the speaking and writing skills that help the students organize and communicate meaning effectively” (cited in Orafi, 2008:15).

The above clearly shows an attempt at introducing communicative language teaching and learning in Libya. The tasks clearly indicate that learners need to play a more active role in their learning. Additionally, the teachers’ role in the teachers’ book is also in accordance with similar CLT principles (Embark, 2011). Teaching and learning activities within the classroom were no longer entirely based on mastering grammar and vocabulary. Generally, the aim of the new curriculum was a move away from the previous one through a greater emphasis

on the communicative aspect. The extent to which this was practically reflected in the classroom is debatable, as is evident in section 3.7 since this change brought with it significant challenges for both teachers and students who were expected to adopt new roles. Teachers would have had to embrace their new role as facilitators, while Students would also have had to take more charge of their own learning process. Obstacles to such a change are numerous, but those associated with teachers' beliefs, the socio-cultural aspect, and teacher training and CPD which I will detail in the following sections.

El-Hawat (2006) points out that at the university level, national university managers have the power to put into effect policies based on personal choice. At universities, the usual practice is that of course outlines are prepared by the English department, while teachers are then able to select material that they feel most suitable. General English for other faculties are the responsibility of the head of the department. This results in a system lacking in standardisation, such is highlighted in the findings of Abushafa's (2014) study "...The teachers bring their material with them and start teaching with that. Often... too easy for the university. Others bring a high level as they studied abroad and the students complain it is too difficult" (Abushafa, 2014:162). As such, it is often the case that teachers teach different levels across the same year groups. So it may be argued then that the English language curriculum at school level are to an extent organised and evaluated by the education authority; however, at university level there is a lack of appropriate and well-designed course structure and content, which comes as a consequence of the English departments being led by individuals, not by policy (Gadour, 2006).

3.4 English language teaching Approaches and Methods

In the following section, I will attempt to shed light on the predominant teaching practices within the Libyan EFL classroom. Here it is evident that some aspects of a traditional teaching approach, with emphasizes on the use of Arabic, is much more favoured and used. This calls for an investigation of belief as an important factor influencing teaching practices in the preceding section. Since both practices and beliefs are affected to an extent by cultural traditions, this will be the next point I will consider. The final aspects that I will explore are teacher training and CPD, and the role they too play in shaping ELT in Libya.

3.4.1 Communicative Approach in Libya

According to the new curriculum, what should have been in practice in terms of ELT in Libya secondary schools is CLT. However, research findings on language teaching in the country may lead some to argue that practically students were deprived of opportunities to collaboratively engage in class work and of interaction in the TL (Orafi, 2008, Abushafa, 2014). Saleh's (2002) investigation of secondary school teachers in the Libyan EFL context reveals characteristics of the Libyan EFL classroom. This study investigated classroom management, teachers' choice of language, as well as frequent interaction patterns in class. Saleh concluded that translation was the central strategy of presentation and that classes observed were mainly "teacher-dominated and not communicatively based" (Saleh, 2002:49).

Another Libyan researcher explored oral correction methods utilized by EFL secondary school teachers and discovered that the practices of less

experienced EFL teachers indicated that “...*accuracy is the most important element*” (Ali, 2008:270). As for the more experienced teachers, he concluded that

“...experienced teachers were able to encourage students to build their self-confidence by establishing the meaning of communication rather than accuracy; and experienced teachers believed that encouraging students’ self-correction or peer correction creates confidence and student-student cooperation” (Ali, 2008:270).

Although this reflects what is more in accordance with the communitive approach by older or more experienced teachers, yet other findings contradict this. Orafi and Borg (2009) researched the implementation of the new English language curriculum by the three experienced Libyan EFL secondary school teacher. Over the duration of two weeks, these teachers were observed. Also, semi-structured interviews were conducted with them before and after the observation sessions. This study uncovered the failure of these teachers to implement the changes embodied within the new curriculum. More recently, a teacher-training project in Tripoli also revealed that communicative language teaching methods have yet to be broadly employed in Libyan classrooms.

Hence, the researchers pointed out that a number of ideas suggested in the workshops were met with resistance from the trainees, that reading aloud is a common practice in Libyan schools, and the proposal that doing this does not amount to reading, nor is it helpful to students’ communication came as a surprise. Furthermore, it was stated that “the proposition that unmarked, error-ridden work might be pinned up on the wall for peers to read, or that writing

tasks should be set in class and not only for homework” also astonished the trainees (Aylett and Halliday, 2013:2).

No doubt, the new curriculum had various obstacles to overcome, for example, the shortage of Libyan language teachers as a result of the ban on ELT as well as the issue of the absence of teacher training institutions. Additionally, the reinstatement of ELT was not systematic and unexpected. Hence, teachers who were about to embark on their profession once again were offered minimum support in their endeavour. Other potential obstacles in the introduction of the new curriculum were prescribing textbooks in secondary schools, the absence of piloting, limitation in terms of both school facilities and resources, large students numbers, and enforcing external traditional forms of examinations (Orafi, 2008:327).

In agreement with this Elabbar (2011) states that “very poor teaching facilities”...with limited availability of “PowerPoint, OHTs, the internet, labs, resources and journals, etc.....” constrained teacher and student outputs (Elabbar, 2011:145). He also found in his study that the large numbers of students limited activities within the classroom and amounted to poor student-teacher interaction. Similarly, Sawani (2009) argues that within the university context it is difficult to apply any aspects of CLT due to large numbers of students. Furthermore, that students are unfamiliar with the type of learning involved in CLT and are much more used to “receiving information, memorising it and preparing themselves for exams rather than using a discovery (interactive) learning method”; and the selection of material by teachers is very much “based on grammatical construction and structure rather than classrooms actions”(p. 16-18).

Sawani (2009) argues that teachers' and learners' beliefs and culture of learning limit the potential for in class activities. Libyan students generally and females particularly tend to avoid taking part in classroom activities and prefer to remain silent (Sawani, 2009). In Abushafa's (2014) study, one participant described how her students were clearly worried and openly complained at attempts at the introduction of more interactive activities in the English classes. A number of Libyan researchers, for example, Aldabbus and Orafi also believe that the silent culture of learning plays a large role in the Libyan EFL classroom. I will discuss both teachers' beliefs and the socio-cultural aspect in more detail in sections 3.8 and 3.9.

Sawani (2009) stresses that applying the communicative approach is particularly challenging in the Libyan context is linked with numerous other factors including low overall teacher proficiency and poor up to date teacher training programmes, a point detailed in section 3.10. Imssalem (2001) also emphasised the impracticality of the communicative approach within the Libyan context arguing, "Methods are fixed teaching systems whereas approaches form the theory and leave the teaching system to the creativity and innovation of the teacher" (p. 41). Imssalem reasons that CLT does not offer Libyan teachers much needed direct guidance.

Thus far, it is apparent that when reflecting on teaching practices, particularly for high schools, numerous factors contributed to the failure of the implementation of CLT. Prominent amongst which was a lack of available Libyan teachers, it's unplanned and unpiloted introduction, prescribing new textbooks in schools, lack of necessary school facilities and resources, large student numbers, imposing external traditional forms of examination on schools,

and the nature of Libyan learners and teachers. Of significance also, though perhaps less investigated, is the conflict between the need to establish a communicatively oriented classroom, limiting L1 use, within a context that clearly resorts to it as an aid in the teaching and learning process.

3.4.2 Traditional Practices

Research on ELT in Libya has shown that currently use of some aspects of the GTM with dependence on students' native language is a clear feature of both school and university teaching (Saleh, 2002; Ali, 2008; Sawan, 2009; Orafi & Borg, 2009). Abushafa's (2014) study further highlighted wide use of L1, whereby one participant states that during their secondary school study they were taught English through the Arabic language. Abukhattala (2016) further confirms this in his statement "English lessons are conducted solely in Arabic, with little use of English" (p. 1).

Persistent Libyan teacher view that a starting point in language teaching and learning should be grammar rules, largely doubting the value of communicatively based learning. Hence, such views, presumably shaped by personal experiences, are reflected in their practices. Reza et al. (2007) pointed out that in the Libyan EFL setting the Grammar Translation Method is still regarded as ideal form to approach language teaching. In the classroom, the teacher stands in front of the class equipped with a textbook from which he teaches directly. He/she explains grammatical rules and text meaning, while the teacher expects learners to undertake transition activities that involve sentence

translation into Arabic and English. Yet the GTM, according to Reza, this meets the expectations of the silent, teacher centred culture of learning.

Libyan students are also accustomed to this method of teaching and learning in other subjects too. The following is an extract from a national report prepared by the Ministry of Education presented to The International Conference on Education (Session 48) which emphasises the aspect of memorization:

Predominance of the traditional character of curricular in educational programmes and the focus on memorization, without much attention to building skills, and modern teaching methods used in the developed world (National Report of Libya, 2008:44)

Vanewell (2006) points out that amongst the main obstacles in educational programmes in Libya is the issue of preference for learning through rote as oppose to reasoning. Similarly, Latiwish (2003) described the nature of language learning in Libya as grounded on the mastery of grammar and vocabulary with most of the previous curricula and teaching material encouraging this by memorization. A recent study conducted by Elabbar (2011) highlighted that most teachers were using the grammar-translation methods and much drilling. In addition, one should point out that many Libyan EFL teachers had themselves been taught through the grammar translation method, and so one may assume that teachers are simply applying the same teaching method which they had experienced themselves (Carless, 1998). No doubt, traditional Libyan culture of learning, discussed in detail in section 4.5, influences many Libyan teachers, in which the continued dominance of more traditional teaching methods is appropriate.

An important aspect of the continued use of the more traditional teaching approach within the Libyan EFL classroom is that it meets the need of the current examination system. The latter primarily assesses grammatical knowledge along with writing skills and neglects to a large degree speaking and listening skills. It seems that the Libyan education system focuses on written-form examinations as the sole means through which it measures student achievement. This highly influences the aims, content, teaching methodology and student approach within most Libyan classroom. The aim for most students is to exceed in exams, and those who do, Libyan society regards highly (Abushafa, 2014). In fact, teachers are under pressure to ensure student preparation for success in exams with high grades and they are held responsible if such was not the case.

Teachers no doubt also feel the need to support their students achieve high scores on national English examination to enable them entry into senior schools and universities. This exerts pressure on teachers to focus their lessons primarily on the skills to be examined, utilizing the students' L1 as an aid in the process. Such pressures and nature of the traditional examination system encourage certain methods of language learning. Hence, students mostly resort to learning tactics which support them handle the structurally based examinations type whereby emphasis is principally on the ability to memorize information (Abushafa, 2014).

It is clear from the above that the introduction of the new curriculum in 1999-2000 was an attempt to move away from the previous traditional educational philosophy, which reinforces the subject and teacher-centred view (Gusbi, 1984). Within this context, teachers heavy used the L1 with limited student

exposure to, and use of, the target language (TL) in many Libyan EFL classrooms. Yet aspects of traditional practices with the extended use of Arabic still meet the needs of the Libyan school and university systems, and the Libyan culture of learning and teaching. As such, continue to dominate within the classrooms until more recent times (Abushafa, 2014).

3.5 Teacher beliefs

In attempting to establish why particular teaching practices dominate within the Libyan EFL classroom, there are a range of possibilities. However, in this section I wish to focus primarily on the notion of teachers' beliefs as an influencing factor, the significance of which is highly acknowledged. Here one may observe that theoretically during the year 1999-2000 the ministry of education deemed it necessary to move towards CLT and a greater degree of TL use; however, in practice, the evident continuation of traditional teaching with a high dependency on Arabic is, among other aspects, highly indicative of teachers' beliefs and values.

When considering the concept of belief generally it would be beneficial to start with a definition, but in attempting to do so, there is a lack of consensus on its meaning. Within the context of teaching Basturkmen's (2004) definition of beliefs is "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what should be done, should be the case and is preferable" (p. 224). Within ELT a definition presented by Borg (2001) perceives the term belief as a "proposition on which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by

the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour" (p. 186).

The role and the importance of belief have been widely investigated in education generally, for example, Pajares (1992), Richardson (1996), and in the field of ELT, for example by Borg (2003, 2006). Research interest in teachers' beliefs saw development during the 1990s and emphasis on its significance in the field of language teaching has since become highly visible. Hence, one observes the view that investigating teachers' beliefs is essential because it presents "insights into the unique filter through which second language teachers make instructional decisions, choose instructional materials, and select certain instructional practices" (Johnson, 1994:440). It was also suggested that:

In order to better understand language teaching, we need to know more about language teachers: what they do, how they think, what they know, and how they learn. Specifically, we need to understand more about how language teachers conceive of what they do: what they know about language teaching, and how they think about their classroom practice (Freeman and Richards, 1996:1).

Borg (2006) reviewed research on language teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and belief which would further supported the significant position of this notion.

There have been various attempts at exploring the manner in which beliefs in relation to teaching are gained, how they develop and the role that this set of beliefs plays. Richardson (1996) advocated that the process of gaining a belief system occur progressively and incorporate subjective as well as objective knowledge. Some aspects of beliefs are regarded less complex than other, as an example, the necessity to correct grammatical errors is less complex than

the view that a teacher centred classroom yields better language learning results. Teachers' beliefs could be a result of a number of different aspects, and here Richardson (1996) points to experiences as factors that play a significant role in shaping teacher beliefs, highlighting specific types of experiences initiated at different points in the educational career of a teacher.

Personal experience as a language learner is regarded as particularly significant, as may be demonstrated by a comment made by a Libyan researcher who stated that his "...language learning experience" had a direct influence on his "...beliefs and understanding of assessment" (Grada, 2014:20). He goes on to elaborate that while at school English language teaching was based on grammar translation methods that had an impact on his assessment practices and the tests he prepared as a teacher. Hence, he found himself incorporating a reading passage and other questions testing students' knowledge of grammatical rules usage (Grada, 2014) as part of the speaking assessment. In addition, Abukhattala (2014) points out that many Libyan teachers "prefer to use methods familiar to them from their own learning days, and these beliefs are difficult to change" (p. 23). Hence, the way teachers were taught is reflected in their own teaching. This has been referred to as the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), which refers to new teachers starting their careers having an established set of beliefs grounded in their learning experiences. Such deeply rooted beliefs scholars consider difficult to change and shape (Pajares, 1992). Experience shapes to a large extent teachers' beliefs in regards to teaching; hence, through work experience, they develop a greater awareness of such aspects as specific teaching approaches and methods that support learning.

Teachers may focus on the effectiveness of a particular approach or method to language teaching; for example, Orafi's (2008) study investigated the new English language curriculum's implementation by Libyan teachers. Analysis of the findings obtained by observation and follow-up interviews revealed many discrepancies between the objectives of the curriculum and the instructional approaches used by the participants. Orafi (2008) argues, "Teachers are not simply implementers of educational innovations that are handed down to them by policy makers, but they interpret, modify, and implement these innovations according to their beliefs and the context where these teachers work" (p. 17). Hence, the same research revealed that some teachers considered giving the students opportunities to work together as a waste of time. This no doubt had a huge impact on the successful implementation of such innovations within FL classrooms in Libya. Similarly, Abushafa's (2014) study concluded that teacher practices were indicative of "their views of what was feasible in the light of their understanding of themselves as teachers, of their students, and of the demands of the system more generally, particularly in relation to assessment" (p. 243). Abukhattal's (2014) study reveals how much teachers' beliefs shape the classroom context, as is evident through a participant justifying why she believed Arabic ought to be used:

They disagree when I use English language in the class. They complain and say they are not used to that. I know we should not be using Arabic in the classroom but when I tried to use only English, everyone in the class, even the excellent students, made very simple mistakes. The second year I explained the grammar in Arabic, and then I spoke English in the class, and there was a big improvement (p.152).

Within the Libyan context, most teachers considered a priority grammar and accuracy as instructional objectives; hence, they used lesson activities that emphasized grammatical structures. Here one may argue that had these teachers held a functionally based view of language; they would have allowed their students a greater opportunity to interact in communicative and meaningful manner. The impact of belief is significant not only for teachers but for inspectors too, whose role in Libya is to monitor and evaluate teachers' performance and competence. English language inspectors regularly visit schools and observe classes to assess teacher performance. Yet clearly the ongoing practices have been left uncriticised by inspectors, perhaps since they view the teaching of English as based primarily on traditional approaches and "that speaking and listening will be achieved automatically" (Ali, 2011:37). Additionally, Abushafa (2014) states that inspectors did not have a good understanding of the new curriculum themselves since they received very brief training by publishers of the course books involving "one week of seminars showing the new textbooks and giving information about the curriculum" (Abushafa, 2014:22).

At times, there may be discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and their actual teaching practices. Shihiba (2011) explored the perceptions of Libyan teachers of the communicative learner-centred approach (CLCA) in terms of their implementation of it in the new curriculum. The findings showed that most participants were positive about the notion of implementing CLCA, the current conditions and realities in the context of study seemed to create barriers that hindered the teachers from implementing the curriculum objectives properly. The findings showed that these barriers were related to individual, contextual, and cultural considerations. These also highlighted the influence of beliefs about

students and teacher role as well as other points including traditional examinations, large class sizes, student motivation level, as well as teachers' lack of skill in establish the called for communicative tasks in class.

In another context such similar findings in relation to beliefs and practice inconsistency were forwarded by various studies, for example, Richards and Pennington (1998). This study explored the practices of five teachers trained in implementing CLT principles in Hong Kong. The findings revealed a conflict between conveyed beliefs by the five teachers in the first year of practicing and their actual teaching after that year. They point to issues such as examination pressures, problems of discipline, large numbers of students, demotivated students, and apprehension in going beyond the teaching material as factors causing their deviation from their initial stand on the application of communicative language teaching. In addition, Basturkmen's (2004) study investigated the beliefs and practices of three teachers in relation to focus-on-form in communicative classes. The results obtained showed some contradictions between stated beliefs and actual practices.

The above-mentioned studies provide abundant evidence indicating that

“Teachers’ beliefs will influence everything they do in the classroom, whether these beliefs are implicit or explicit. Even if a teacher acts spontaneously, or from habit without thinking about the action, such actions are nevertheless prompted by a deep-rooted belief that may never have been articulated or made explicit (Williams and Burden, 1997:56).

The above also demonstrate that what teachers state that they believe, and their classroom practices can contradict and that the extent of congruence is shaped

by numerous factors associated with a given context. Even when syllabus or curriculum is set precisely for teachers, for example in the new curriculum in Libya, it is still personally shaped by the teachers' own belief systems. Hence, it is crucial for teachers to be aware of their personal beliefs or perspectives and as such need to constantly reflect on these aspects to be able to grasp their own "implicit educational theories and the ways in which such theories influence their professional practice" (Williams and Burden, 1997:56).

3.6 Sociocultural influence

A significant factor at play in shaping beliefs and hence practices within EFL classroom is no doubt the socio-cultural aspect, which I will consider in more detail in this section. Tudor (2001) emphasises the principal role of the social context, stating "the classroom is a socially defined reality and is therefore influenced by the belief systems and behavioural norms of the society of which it is part" (p. 35). Such is in accordance with Nunan and Lamb (2001) who add, "Classroom decision making and the effective management of the learning process cannot be made without reference to the larger context within which instruction takes place" (p. 33).

Various scholars acknowledge that the socio-cultural aspect shapes educational processes within a given context (Tudor, 2001; Holliday, 1994). Both learners and their teachers function within a sociocultural context, the norms of which affect their beliefs and expectations. Therefore, both Libyan students and teachers enter the language classroom with set expectations and shaped beliefs in relation to roles in the classroom, choice of teaching material,

and method. Hence, key characteristics of the Libyan educational culture require consideration.

When reflecting on Libyan students one often finds that they tend to accept and generally assume a passive role, they tend to remain silent and learn facts imparted by the teacher or by heart (Orafi, 2008). Libyan learners consider it impolite to interrupt the teacher as such students display their respect by keeping quiet as much as possible. Should a learner require some clarification, teachers expect them to gain their attention by raising their hand. In fact, it is a general rule that student participation in the class comes because the teacher calls upon them (Aldabbus, 2008). The main authority in the classroom is generally considered the teacher, hence interrupting or else challenging him/her is not permitted (Orafi, 2008).

One would expect therefore that given the nature of the Libyan learners' role, they are unlikely to assume an active involvement in the classroom should a task require this. There is also a cultural norm leading to a separation between males and females. That is, Libyan society considers it necessary and important for male and female interaction to be minimal generally and especially within an educational institution. As such, from a Libyan socio-cultural perspective working in groups of both sexes is inappropriate, with contact within the classroom generally taking place between groups of the same sex (Abushafa, 2014).

As for the teachers' role within the Libyan classroom, it is primarily to impart knowledge to their students in a manner that best prepares them to succeed in final examinations. This, within the Libyan system is an indicator of the

performance of both teachers and schools (Orafi, 2008). Traditionally within the Libyan society, Knowledge is a set of facts for students to accept without any discussion. The main source of this knowledge is found in textbooks and is usually supplied to students who are then expected to learn than by heart. This is a key feature in preparation for external examinations, the results of which are highly regarded within the Libyan society. Some argue that in such a setup learning is essentially, “an individual endeavour rather than a collective and dynamic process” (Orafi, 2008:7). Therefore, students focus individually on the best possible means to tackle these exams, undoubtedly affecting their approach to the whole language learning process.

The various cultural aspects at play in shaping learning and teaching at schools also extend to include universities and according to Abushafa’s (2014) study lead to negative results. Here he argues that most students usually “end up with a certificate but they have no matching skills, as they are not well qualified” (p. 137). He goes on to stress that this is mainly due to the significance that the culture of teaching and learning pays to examination results.

The notion of teacher education in Libya is essentially a process whereby teachers acquire a greater knowledge of the English language, while methodology is valued to a much lesser extent. The justification for this is that if teachers have a firm grasp of English, then they can impart it onto their students. One can thus assume that according to such perceptions, education is essentially a process of knowledge transmission. In addition, literature reveals that within Libyan education there is a generally held perspective that teachers

need to show that they are well informed; (Elabbar, 2011). Here being unable to respond to a student question amounts to indication of teaching deficiency; additionally teacher recognition of uncertainty regarding a student question is not desirable as such points to issue of deficiency in teachers' knowledge of the English language. The view of teachers in Libyan culture within the university context may be illustrated through the fact that it is regarded as shameful if a teacher refuses or is unable to teach any courses set by the department since the belief is they have the knowledge to teach any subject and at any level (Elabbar, 2011). This requirement could amount to teachers essentially focusing on acquiring greater knowledge about the target language while neglecting to develop their teaching skills. Furthermore, such could be an obstacle in the acceptance of teaching that could potentially lead to situations whereby the teacher faces challenging questions by students.

It is evident thus far that the social and cultural factors inherent in the Libyan society are key in characterizing the FL classrooms. Here the assumed roles of teachers and students shape the nature of the interaction between them and define what is appropriate and accepted. Further, the significance placed by members of the Libyan society on the highly centralized, national examination system is another influencing aspect. Hence, the main duty for Libyan teachers is ensuring learner preparedness for examinations is through a greater teacher subject knowledge. Students are equally under social pressure to achieve high grades and pursue the best possible ways to achieve this, hence influencing their approach to the whole language learning process.

3.7 Teacher Training and continuing professional development (CPD) in Libya

The final area I consider in this section is lack of formal teacher training and continuing professional development programs in Libya. No doubt, both contribute highly to teaching English within Libya, as elsewhere. Schools are mainly staffed by newly qualified graduates from the English language department. As for university staff in Libya, till the 1980s they were mainly provided for by expatriates, who one may expect have had formal training abroad and hence differed in their approach to that of a native Libyan teacher. Since then the number of Libyan postgraduates degree holders has increased, yet they are generally criticised on the basis of their teaching styles and lack of training (Orafi, 2008). Due to this lack of initial teacher training, maintaining the view that a teacher must remain a learner during their careers is mandatory. This view is particularly relevant within the Libyan context to ensure that the inexperienced and perhaps even unqualified benefit from any possible new programmes of continuing professional development.

Lange (1990) views CPD as a progression whereby there is a constant teacher development intellectually, experientially, and attitudinally. He contends that this is crucial to be able to sustain as well as develop the quality of teachers as well as ensure learning experiences are optimized. Day (1999) also points out that:

Teachers can renew, renew and extend their commitment as agents of change to the moral purposes of teaching; and through this they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, beliefs, skills and emotional intelligence important to excellent professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives (p4).

Day highlights that CPD is structured in such a way so as to build the self-confidence of teachers, their general competence, as well as language teaching knowledge through training in the major themes and views in the process of ELT. The aims of CPD, from a second or foreign language perspective, in Rodrigues's (2004) terms encompasses:

The process of how second/foreign language development grows; learning how roles transform according to the kind of the learners being taught; reviewing theories and principles of foreign language teaching; determining learners' perceptions of classroom activities; developing an understanding of different styles and aspects of teaching; understanding the sorts of decision-making that occur during foreign language lessons and building awareness of instructional objectives to support teaching (pp.5-6).

The fact that in Libya there is no formal syllabus, nor any programmes for CPD has been the subject of discussed in the past and still hold true until the present time (Neil and Morgan, 2003; Vandewall, 2012; Elmabruk, 2009). Vandewall (2012) pointing to the educational programmes in Libya, states that they suffer from a number of issues imminent amongst which is "...a lack of qualified teachers (especially Libyan teachers)...."(pp. 40-41). Shihiba (2011) pointed to the various factors leading to failure of the implementation of the new curriculum prominent amongst which was a lack of teacher enthusiasm to develop themselves professionally (p. 326). The need to address the issue of lack of teacher training and CPD in an effective and practical manner is significant as this has been one of the main obstacles faced since formal education began in Libya (NCECS, 2004).

There had been various attempts to overcome the issue of lack of teacher training through the establishment of teacher education institutions in different

parts of Libya since the 1960s; however, none has been effective in this regard up to the present time. The ministry of education with the assistance of the British Council and UNESCO attempted developing training for teachers in 1966 (Barton, 1968). Meanwhile, the Ministry of Education would start sending English language teachers overseas to train.

The 1970 and early 1980s saw the development of Libyan faculties of education in the cities of Tripoli, Al-Beida, and in Sabha. By 1986 all potential efforts at initial teacher training came to a halt as the ministry of education prohibited teaching of English within Libya until the 1990s. During the summer of 2003 a training course for in-service teachers was organised by the education authorities in association with Garnet Publishing as a response to difficulties faced by teachers in applying the new English language curriculum introduced in 1999-2000, yet these were brief and limited numbers of teachers took part in them (Elmabruk, 2009). In 2006, The Ministry of Education founded a specialised centre called *The General Centre for Teacher Training* that aimed at:

Improving the quality of education - Promoting the performance of all members of the ministry through training programmes: Changing the paths (routes) of the teachers; Improving the quality of the educational system; Upgrading the performance of the workers in the educational field; Treating the deficit in the performance of staff Qualifying non-educationally qualified teachers; Using and training on the use of new technologies in the field of telecommunication (Mohsen, 2014:5).

However, the centre did not organise training courses for English language teachers during 2008. The Libyan National Report on Adult Learning and Literacy Education (GPCE, 2008-2009) refers to a training centre set up in Libya

with the objective of updating teachers' skills and knowledge, particularly focusing on the English language and computer courses, yet English language teacher participants during 2008-2009 were just thirty-eight. Two British English language teachers working at International House Tripoli designed and delivered a series of teacher training workshops to Libyan state schoolteachers in a more recent project in 2011.

This project clearly indicates that the issues of lack of teacher training are still very much present. Another point raised is that Libyan teachers clearly welcomed such a project as was evident from participant enthusiasm throughout the course. The many other interested participants whose numbers far exceeded the scope of the IH project further confirm this. Such evidently indicates that a huge gap exists within the field of teacher training and CPD, a fact further highlighted in the findings of Ali's (2011) study:

Most participants mentioned their interest in further knowledge, training, promotion and CPD, as they were looking for additional pedagogical knowledge and activities. Some of them were looking for further content or subject matter activities. They were interested to learn about more approaches, the latest findings, and to understand the new techniques of EFL teaching (Ali, 2011:152)

Thus far it is apparent that lack of teacher training has no doubt contributed to certain difficulties faced by teachers, as is the case with the application of the new school curriculum. This was because there were no significant provisions to prepare teachers upon initiation of the curriculum. Teachers were only given short briefing sessions, which they considered quite insufficient (Orafi, 2008). Difficulties encountered by teachers as a result of absence of teacher training is also highlighted in Grada's (2014) study, whereby one participant stated

I know that it is logical to use the oral tests to assess speaking, but the problem is how to do it. I think this is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education to offer teachers workshops and training programmes about language assessment (Grada, 2014:234).

In fact, the findings of this study revealed that 75% of participants believed the lack of teacher training activities had contributed to their lack of knowledge of speaking assessment. A crucial role that teacher training could play within the Libyan context is raising teacher awareness of the aspect of belief discussed earlier and the impact that this could have on their teaching and application of any innovations. Hedge & Whitney (1996) point to the need to raise teachers' awareness of beliefs:

All teachers operate according to a set of beliefs about what constitutes good classroom practice, but some may never have made those beliefs explicit to themselves. Thus, an essential part of in-service education is to encourage teachers to reflect on their own professional practice, to make explicit to themselves the assumptions that underlie what they do and then to review those assumptions in the light of new perspectives and practices (p. 122)

As stated above, the Libyan system did not adequately cater for teacher training and CPD, and practically the majority of school teachers have been mainly “....fresh-faced English graduates recruited straight out of university....” (Aylett and Halliday, 2013:1). This, some researchers have argued, is due to the rapid increase in the number of these schools throughout the country and the shortage of well-trained EFL teachers (Orafi and Borg, 2009). Such a reality in terms of who staffs schools leads to the necessity for a brief reflection on

graduates' teaching preparation. That is, what subjects they were taught, potential teaching skills at the end of the course and accordingly how well equipped these graduates may be at undertaking the task of teaching at high schools, particularly following the introduction of the new English language curriculum. These teachers receive four years of English language study, with the courses' overall aim being to prepare students for further studies and research and not necessarily to develop teaching skills. Therefore, the courses of the English departments of these colleges do not include any teaching practice modules, and only offer a teaching methodology unit, which according to one of the participants in Abushafa's (2014) study, is "grammatical and traditional, very old", and taught mainly in Arabic (p. 162).

Within the Libyan university context, teaching positions have until the late 1980s been mostly taken up by expatriates of different nationalities, from Arab countries, from Asia and Europe. This was due to lack of numbers of Libyan nationals with advanced degrees. In response to this issue, the state paid greater attention to funding higher degree studies abroad with the aim of qualifying Libyans to teach various disciplines within universities. Although this resulted in an increase of Libyan university staff, the Libyan Commission for Education, Culture and science (2004) report documented concerns regarding their placement in HE positions. Here it was stated that many university staff "members are not trained for teaching despite their specialised skill that might be distinguished," and that there was an absence of standard selection criteria for HE (p. 25). The report also highlighted that the majority of universities lack training and that they agree that the faculties or department managers should design any professional arrangement.

According to a study conducted in 2011 at a Libyan university (referred to as university X), 95% of teachers were not receiving any “development or training programs” (Ali, 2011:144). Another study conducted at a Libyan university revealed that...“From the teachers interviewed in February 2011 through until those interviewed in October 2012, training continued to be highlighted as an issue” (Abushafa, 2014:179). Gadour (2006) also points to fundamental issues with university education, prominent amongst which is the absence of teacher training and CPD policies. Hamdy (2007) argues that teacher-training programmes for school teachers are not succeeding due to numerous organisational and managerial difficulties, mainly for EFL teachers, yet at least they exist. At university level teacher-training policy is clearly absent.

An investigation by Akle (2005) looked at the qualifications of sixteen Libyan EFL secondary school teachers and found that graduates generally lack in English language spoken skills. In agreement, Orafi and Borg (2009) state that “English language teachers in Libya typically graduate from university with undeveloped spoken communication skills in English” (Orafi & Borg, 2009: 251). The issue of teacher competence is further supported through Abushafa’s (2014) study, “one of the university teachers also admitted that she found it hard to carry out the interview in English as it was difficult for her to use the language”(p.148). A school teacher in Orafi’s (2008) study also stated “I cannot implement all that is in the teachers' book. Sometimes I do not understand what is in the teachers' book” (p. 173). Hence, such lack of competence would have no doubt influenced the nature of teaching practices favoured. Arguably, this limits the extent of creating a classroom environment based on CLT principles.

3.8 Summary

From the above one can observe that the teaching of foreign languages and English, in particular, was progressively developing as part of the Libyan education system until 1986. During this year, the ministry of education issued a resolution banning FL teaching, including English, in schools and universities. This ban continued up to the early part of the 1990s (Asker, 2011). Here, in an attempt to gain a clear insight into the nature of EFL in Libya since this period, such called for a consideration of a number of factors. These include failure of the implementation of the new school curriculum, issues of the absence of syllabus at the university level; the continued dominance of traditional teaching practices; the impact of teacher beliefs and the socio-cultural aspect; and finally difficulties associated with lack of teacher training and CPD.

3.9 Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be seen that the teaching of foreign languages as part of the Libyan education system was gradually taking shape up to the 1980s; however, following the US bombing of Libya, this would come to an abrupt halt. In 1991, the ministry of education issued a policy to reinstate the teaching of foreign languages including English in the curriculum (Asker, 2011). However, since research had highlighted that the teaching of English had been dated and

highly dependent on Arabic, an attempt to improve through the introduction of a new curriculum based on the communicative approach in 1999-2000. The process of re-establishing English at schools, as well as universities, met numerous challenges that continue to more recent times (Orafi, 2008; Abushafa, 2014). These have doubtless influenced the nature of English language teaching in Libya. Factors at play include the unplanned reintroduction of the teaching of English in both schools and universities.

Within secondary education not only was there an issue of inappropriate preparation and implementation of the new communicatively based curriculum but also equally arguable is the extent to which it was suitable for this context. Policies, or rather the absence of them, as regards university course syllabi has no doubt had an impact too as it amounted to a lack of standardization and doubtless raises concerns over quality assurance. Other elements at play in shaping the nature of the Libyan EFL classroom are the nature of teachers and students, in addition to various contextual factors. Furthermore, lack of effective implementation of teacher training policies for schoolteachers and the non-existence of these for university teachers are also other factors shaping language teaching in Libya.

Upon reflection on ELT in Libya, it is evident that an important component is that of Arabic in the classroom. The use of L1 has received a great deal of attention, particularly in more recent times (Khurma and Hajjaj's, 1989; Franklin, 1990; Dickson, 1996; Cook, 2001; Cameron, 2001). However, from a survey of available literature in the field of English language teaching in Libya, it is apparent that similar investigations are clearly missing. The need for such research is paramount in initiating an assessment of its role, and hence allowing

for the potential of any well-structured and judicious use. Therefore, in the following three studies (chapters 4, 5 & 6) I will attempt to fill this gap by investigating EFL classroom realities in terms of frequency, function, and attitudes towards the use of Arabic.

Chapter 4: Patterns of L1 Use among Libyan EFL students

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is the first of three studies in which I investigate teachers and students' use of the MT in the Libyan HE context. I aim in the present chapter to investigate frequency and function of Arabic use, as well as attitudes towards its use from the perspective of students at the University of Benghazi. This is considered a typical public HE institution within Libya. In the present study I will explore the research issue quantitatively through student questionnaires. According to Dornyei (2007) "Quantitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analyzed primarily by statistical methods" (p. 24). In research, this is considered as one of the main sources of obtaining data no doubt as it can be "systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled" (Dornyei, 2007:35).

This research method is not however without limitations making vital that I design questionnaires in a manner which ensures they are "valid, reliable and

unambiguous” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:438), hence making this stage of the study highly labour-intensive. Once the instrument is well designed, I can administer it with ease to a large sample, and “even in a large-scale quantitative study, it is not unheard of to have preliminary results within a week after the data has been collected” (Dornyei, 2007:33). Importantly, quantitative procedures are standardized and hence, allow for assessment of ‘objective reality,’ with the assumption that such exists, independent of the subjective perceptions of a researcher.

This chapter will be divided as follows: section 4.1 highlights ethical considerations, section 4.2 describes the methodology used: detailing in 4.2.1 the sampling technique, in 4.2.2 the questionnaire preparation, in 4.2.3 validity of the questionnaires, in 4.2.4 the data collection process, and in 4.2.5 data preparation; section 4.3 presents the questionnaire results, section 4.4 discusses the findings in relation to the frequency and function of teachers’ uses of L1 in 4.4.1, and to the frequency and function of students’ uses of L1 in 4.4.2. Finally, section 4.5 highlights key findings and conclusions drawn from this study, as well as point to question raised for further exploration in subsequent studies.

4.1 Ethics

A consideration of ethics was a critical part of this experiment design, as such, it was important for me to ensure that I informed participants of the purpose and nature of the survey. I also made participants aware of how I will use the data. Furthermore, since the right of individuals to privacy is a pre-eminent ethical

matter, it was imperative to assure participants of both anonymity and confidentiality. Finally, I obtained consent from all participants.

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Sample:

In this experiment, I selected participants using non-probability convenience sampling. Unlike the randomized selection in probability sampling, this method entails sampling an unknown proportion of the entire population, consequently “no matter how principled a non-probability sample strives to be, the extent of generalizability in this type of sample is often negligible” (Dornyei, 2007:99). However, most researchers are bound by time, money and workforce making it almost impossible to sample randomly the entire population, which inevitably leads one to the conclusion that non-probability sampling is, in fact, more realistic.

The sample of student participants for this survey totalled 100 Libyan EFL HE students and two teachers; I selected 50 students from two fourth semester groups. This constitutes about 80% of the total number of students in each group. The majority of students in each group were female, which is typical in the English language department. The two groups will be referred to as group A (GA) and group B (GB). The only criterion in the department determining

whether or not a student can join a subject group at the university is having passed the necessary module in the previous year. Otherwise, they are at liberty to choose any teacher's group as long as there were still spaces.

From personal experience in the department, upon registration groups of friends tended to prefer joining the same group. In the English language department at the University, I have observed that upon registering students' choice of joining a particular group was very much influenced by the teacher delivering that subject. It is common knowledge amongst students which teachers tend to use more L1 more than others, a fact that doubtless has an effect on their choice. This I have encountered first hand during my work in Libya as many of the students I have personally registered openly talked about this aspect.

The two participant teachers are GA teacher who is Libyan with Arabic as his first language and falls in the 50-60 age range. This teacher is an MA holder, who had been educated at the undergraduate and postgraduate level in Libya, and has over 10 years of teaching experience in Libya. GB teacher is non-Libyan native English speaker, who does, however, speak Arabic. She also falls in the same age range as GA teacher. She had completed all her undergraduate and postgraduate studies in the UK and USA. This participant also has over 10 years of experience working in Libya. Having worked and had many discussion with both these participants on various issues regarding teaching within the department, I have some awareness of their general stand in relation to the use of Arabic. Teacher A tends to give the impression that such use is unavoidable, while teacher B is less clear on her stand in respect to the use of Arabic.

The need for two groups in the present study was necessary for comparative analysis undertaken in this investigation, while the number of students taking part exceeds the minimum number required for correlation studies in addition to increasing the validity of the findings (Dornyei, 2007). On deciding this number of participants I took into consideration rough guidelines in Dornyei (2007) which suggest that correlational research should involve a minimum of 30 participants; while comparative and experiential procedures aim to include no less than 15 participants in each group; finally a minimum of 100 participants is necessary for multivariate procedures. Within quantitative research, normal distribution is necessary for a given sample; however, a study cannot reach this with fewer than 30 participants (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). Other considerations include sample composition, which is if there are sub-groups within the group it's essential that the minimum sample size applies to the smallest group. Finally, a safety margin is of importance in regards to sample size. This allows for unforeseen circumstances when participants can no longer take part in the experiment for one reason or another.

4.2.2 Questionnaire preparation

As the aims of the study were to investigate frequency, function as well as student attitude towards Arabic use, I utilized a survey questionnaire plus three open-ended questions as the research tool. I developed a Likert scale questionnaire to directly address the goals of this investigation. The Likert scale is a psychometric response scale utilized to find out a sample participants' degree of agreement with a set of statements in a questionnaire. I used a 5 point

scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' on one end to 'strongly agree' on the other with 'neutral' in the middle. The Likert scale's unidimensional nature, the potential of initial questions influencing subsequent questions, as well as peoples' general tendency to avoid extremes are doubtless negative aspects of this scale (Dornyei, 2007). However, since the responses presented accommodate neutral or undecided feelings of participants, they do not force an either/or opinion. Additionally, Likert scale questionnaires are familiar to most participants. Furthermore, questionnaire responses are easily quantifiable and subjective to computation and mathematical analysis (Dornyei, 2010).

The questionnaire was made up of 40 statements (see appendix 5), which covered four categories: A) Establishing constructive relationships; B) Maintaining control over the class; C) Communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding; D) Attitude. My decision to base the questionnaire on these categories was guided by the view that when investigating an aspect, in this case, MT use, within a classroom context it is important to approach this issue from different angles within this context. Here the consideration that a classroom is a social, instructional, and affective space (Lightbown and Spada, 2013) influenced the formation of these categories. Exploring these would offer much necessary insights into the issue of MT use, in the present study from the perspective of students. The four categories which I prepared with these considerations in mind consist of 5 items, each of which was used twice within the questionnaire. I undertook this in order to incorporate reverse polarity so as to identify acquiescence response bias (Dornyei, 2010).

Categories A, B, C & D are detailed below:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 3.0 Establishing constructive social relationships. | <ul style="list-style-type: none">-I mainly use Arabic to talk to my teacher about problems I face.-I have general conversations with my teacher mainly in Arabic.-I can offer suggestions about classwork to my teacher in Arabic.-My teacher offers me guidance mostly in Arabic.-My teacher uses Arabic when I ask her to. |
| 4.0 Maintaining control over the class. | <ul style="list-style-type: none">-My teacher mainly uses Arabic to discipline disruptive students.-My teacher mainly uses Arabic to quieten loud students.-My teacher mainly uses Arabic to caution disruptive students.-My teacher mainly uses Arabic to place us in groups.-My teacher acknowledges positive student attitude mainly in Arabic. |
| 5.0 Communicating complex | <ul style="list-style-type: none">-My teacher ends the class in Arabic to ensure that I understand key points. |

| | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| meaning to ensure understanding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -My teacher predominantly uses Arabic to define new words. -My teacher mainly uses Arabic to introduce new class work. -My teacher mainly uses Arabic to clarify complex ideas. -My teacher mainly uses English to Arabic instructions to exercises. |
|---------------------------------------|---|

| | |
|--------------|--|
| 6.0 Attitude | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -I feel anxious if I cannot translate in class. -Group activities become a burden if I cannot use Arabic. -I enjoy lessons more when my teacher uses Arabic. -I feel I would learn more English if my teacher mostly uses English. -It is easier for me to respond to questions asked in Arabic. |
|--------------|--|

I initially had to take into consideration various issues associated with the use of questionnaires. These included forcing simplistic responses upon participants to what is a complex issue. The danger here is not getting the opportunities to probe responses. This, however, I overcame to an extent in this investigation through the three open-ended items at the end. Questionnaires do nonetheless have numerous advantages, for example, they are generally easy and quick for participants to complete, allow for straightforward comparison of participant responses, easily allow for coding and statistical analysis of data, and also meet the need of less articulate participants. In addition, in a well-written questionnaire survey, the researcher's own opinion does not lead participants to respond to questions in a particular way. Furthermore, there are no verbal or visual clues distracting participants.

In order for the questionnaire survey to succeed, it was necessary that I consider a number of important points. These included providing clear instructions and

an explanation of the purpose of the questionnaire at the top of the sheet. Additionally, I inform participants at the top of the questionnaire that I will be treat participant information in the strictest confidence. Although, as Dornyei (2010) suggests, simply telling students this may not be sufficient to “convince them about the confidentiality of the investigation” (p. 77) and risks the extent of honesty in their responses particularly since a large proportion of the questions are related to their teachers’ practices. However, to attempt and limit this as much as possible, I offered students the choice of putting down their name or student ID number or to refrain from identifying themselves if they wish.

The other aspect was to make the items simple, avoiding complex sentence structure as well as the use of ambiguous words and sentences. I paid particular attention to the essential element of item wording during questionnaire preparation, particularly since I was investigating participant attitude and as such the smallest change in question formation could potentially yield very different responses (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010). Here, for example, I consulted with colleagues on item wording at the early stage of questionnaire preparation, a colleague suggested that a particular word (*rejects*) on teacher use of Arabic was considered too strong. He pointed out that the use of the word *rejects* the use of Arabic I could word better so as not to deter students from responding accurately. In addition, the wording of items is important in achieving objectivity; that is one had to be careful not to lead the respondents into giving any one particular preference. In preparing my questionnaire items, I felt it was essential to avoid using negative constructions since responses to these could be quite problematic.

Furthermore, I did not include any double-barrelled questions which may cause confusion as they touch upon more than one subject yet only allow a single answer. Finally, in order to avoid students from simply marking one side of the scale, I felt it was necessary to include both positively and negatively worded items. I did this to reduce extreme response bias, whereby participants choose either all high or all low ratings of 5s or 1s. The use of both positively and negatively worded items increases the likelihood of participants to consider the items on the questionnaire and hence provide more accurate responses (Dornyei, 2007).

Although researchers generally agree that the response rate of long questionnaires is less than that for short questionnaires; however, some research (Galesic and Bosnjak, 2009) has indicated that questionnaire length does not always affect response, with the aspect of questionnaire content being of greater significance than length. The prospect of getting better participant response is higher if questions are meaningful and interesting. Questions should be sequenced in an appropriate manner as such smooth transition between questions is attainable. The ordering of questions has also been considered as significant in affecting the manner of participants' responses. Therefore, I took such aspects into consideration while preparing the items for the present questionnaire.

I chose to insert open-ended questions as they allow the respondent more opportunity to express their opinion (Foddy, 1993). Furthermore, this type of question allows them to answer in detail and to qualify and clarify responses. Of great significance also is the potential unanticipated finding that I may not have captured in the closed questions, as well as richness of detail. I can turn any

interesting and thought-provoking comments into questions for future interviews.

When preparing these items I ensured that they led the participants to reflect and respond with a degree of detail to points connected to the four categories investigated in the questionnaire. I wrote the questions ensuring students could not respond by simply writing yes or no. I achieved this by asking student opinion on what they considered being the main reasons why their teacher used Arabic in class, describing how they felt when Arabic was used, and finally asking for main reasons why the students themselves resort to the use of Arabic in class.

4.2.3 Validity of research instrument

It was important to run a pilot study with the questionnaires before I collected data from my sample participants at Benghazi University. I piloted the questionnaire on a sample of Arabic speaking language students in Manchester. I aimed at ensuring that the language was appropriate and easy to understand and that there were no other undetected issues with the questionnaires that may cause difficulty later on during analysis. The feedback from the pilot questionnaire was informative and led to a revision of some aspects. The pilot study highlighted some important points, in terms of the addition and deletion of some items which I deemed necessary or unnecessary. Furthermore, the pilot group made some suggestions regarding the use of particular terms to clarify meaning and an improved way to express certain ideas.

I felt that it was essential to translate the closed questionnaires items and the open-ended items that followed into Arabic prior to administering (see appendix

4). I considered translating the questionnaires as significant since students within the university are generally made up of a mixture of English language proficiency levels. Hence, I considered it necessary to translate the questionnaire items into the students' L1 to further ensure that students had an equal understanding of the items presented to them. Considering that the process of translation can be problematic, it was necessary that I get the translated questionnaire checked and validated. Therefore, I undertook this with the support of two colleagues.

In order to ensure validity further, I felt it was necessary to utilize multi-item scales; therefore, I used two statements to cover each item in the questionnaire, which I randomized. To test the reliability (internal consistency) of the questionnaire items, I conducted a Cronbach's Alpha check. This was undertaken to provide a coefficient of inter-item correlations, Cohen (2007) points out that this involves looking at "the correlation of each item with the sum of all other items" (p. 506). I utilized SPSS to process the alpha coefficient reliability. First, I inputted numerical data into SPSS software to process it. Then, I checked the reliability of each category at a time (A, B, C &D) in order to examine whether the items within each section were internally consistent. All categories reached the recommended threshold for L2 research at 0.7 (Dornyei, 2002).

4.2.4 Data Collection

I sent the completed questionnaires to Libya in March 2014. With the assistance of two colleagues at the University of Benghazi, the questionnaires were administered and collected at the end of two different English groups in March

and April 2014. Although all the questionnaire copies were returned, the three open-end questions had a lower response rate than the 40 closed-ended items. That is, some participants chose not to respond at all, while others responded, but not to all three questions.

4.2.5 Data preparation

Before considering data analysis for both open and closed-ended questions, I had to take into consideration the aspect of data preparation. The questionnaire consisted of both quantitative and qualitative questions with 100 student participants. I established coding in the case of the closed-ended items through use of the numbers 1 to 5 to represent the five-point scale. Initially I reverse scored and grouped back responses into pairs for each category the closed ended items. The questionnaire gave strongly disagree a score of 1, disagree - 2, neutral - 3, agree - 4 and strongly agree - 5 for each item. This was for the positively worded items, e.g. *teacher's use of English makes me feel positive*; however, I could not use the same scoring for the negatively worded items, for example, *I feel anxious when my teacher uses English*. Instead, what I did here was to reverse score the negatively worded items which amount to having a numerical scoring scale which runs in the opposite direction. Hence, a score of 5 would be given to strongly disagree, 4 for disagree, neutral remains 3, agree would be 2, and strongly agree 1.

Once I loaded all the data into the excel spreadsheet it was necessary that I screen the data for any mistakes. During this phase, it is possible for me to point out such errors and correct them prior to analysis. The main screening

techniques included correcting impossible data, and correcting incorrectly entered values. The questionnaire had a specific 5 point range, as such if I entered 6 or 7 for a response, it is clearly a human error. Additionally, to ensure that I had not entered an incorrect score, it was essential that I went through the data checking thoroughly for potential mistakes. Once I detected such errors, I corrected them appropriately.

Finally, with the open-ended questions, I found some contradicting data and removed. For example, when a positive response was given to the first part of the question on how the participant felt when Arabic was used by the teacher, yet the second part of the question asking why they felt that way was completed by stating it would be better should the teacher use more English. In such cases I removed both parts. Another important step in data preparation is the necessity to handle missing data, recording certain values and attempting to standardise data. Once all this was completed, it was possible to run various statistical analyses (Dornyei, 2007). I ran independent t-tests to establish the difference between GA and GB uses of and attitudes towards the use of Arabic in class.

For the three open-ended questions, I thematically analyzed responses. I considered this appropriate for a number of reasons: It allows for the organisation, description and interpretation of data set (Boyatzis, 1998). Thematic analysis can suit a variety of research interests as well as theoretical perspectives and is useful since it can offer insight into questions related to peoples' experiences or views. Furthermore, it can be utilized with various data kind, and can also work well regardless of the size of the data sets. Additionally,

thematic analysis can be data driven as well as theory-driven. This method's degree of flexibility was considered as highly useful, that is, in terms of making possible approaching research patterns inductively and deductively. The thematic analysis's inductive feature may be a cause of concern for some, signifying for them the imposition of a priori theoretical framework which they regard as a disadvantage. However, some have argued, for example by Gibbs (2007), that it is extremely difficult for analysts to exclude all prior frameworks completely. He suggests that inevitably qualitative analysis is both guided and framed by some formed ideas and concepts.

Following consideration of the above aspects, I deemed it appropriate to utilize thematic analysis with the data set in the present research. I undertook the initial stage of analysis ensuring familiarity with the data through a careful reading and re-reading of students' responses. There were three open-ended questions which sought further detail on reasons for teachers' use of L1 (Q1), student attitude towards this use (Q2) and reasons for students' own use of Arabic in class (Q3). These questions guided the initial coding stage of the responses to each question. During this stage I identified word or phrases to code due to their relevance to the research questions. Each was assigned a code, for example, students referred to as A,B & C, all from GA, responded to the first question on why they felt their teacher used Arabic by saying:

A) When the students did not understand (SLU) a particular point.

B) To help students understand a difficult point he is explaining (ED).

c) My teacher uses Arabic to clarify when the students are struggling to understand (C).

I assigned the student responses above initial codes: SLU for student lack of understanding; E for explaining difficult points; and C for clarifying. Other student responses that were similar in meaning I gave the same codes. I went through all student responses identifying codes in this manner, being open at the same time to identifying any new or emergent point from the data that did not quite fit the codes already existing. Here a new code would be created and applied to the whole dataset.

Following completion of the first stage, I went through the codes identifying any sub-codes that I could group together. I merged example A, B & C, with any other similar ones. Once this was finished, I was able to group final categories into single themes. As potential themes developed it was necessary to reflect on these and whether some could be collapsed into each other, or reduced into other smaller units. Then I established final themes, the final theme under which the examples above fell was *To explain/clarify*. Hence, following careful consideration of all of the student responses, it was possible to identify and group similar codes under single themes, and in this example for the teacher specific question (Q1).

Once I completed this process for Q1, I was then able to look at and consider in a similar manner responses relevant to students' questions in terms of their attitude towards teachers' use of Arabic (Q2) and reasons why they resort to Arabic in class (Q3). I initially coded each set of responses to the two questions with one or more codes. Following careful consideration, I combined sub-groups, and these I grouped into themes relevant to the study question. Finally,

I was able to reflect on what the student responses mean and identify patterns and trends. Thereafter it was possible to look for similar traits between participants who present the same themes. It was then possible to turn to latent content analysis, which concerns the interpretative analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data with the aim of drawing significant conclusions (Dornyei, 2007).

4.3 Results

Tables 1&2 below show data for GA and GB from the questionnaire items for all four categories exploring teacher and students' uses of Arabic as well as students' attitudes towards this use.

Table 1

GA's (native Arabic teacher) results for categories A, B, C, and D

| Categories | Strongly agree (%) | Neutral (%) | Strongly disagree (%) | Missing (%) |
|--|--------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| A. Establishing constructive social relationships | 66.8 | 26.2 | 7 | 0 |
| B. Maintaining control over the class. | 69 | 21 | 9 | 1 |
| C. Communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding | 68.2 | 24.2 | 7.6 | 0 |
| D. Attitude (positive attitude towards the use of L1) | 63 | 26 | 9 | 2 |

*The figures represent mean of totals for strongly agree, neutral, and strongly disagree.

Table 2

GB's (native English teacher) results for categories A, B, C, and D

| Categories | Strongly agree (%) | Neutral (%) | Strongly disagree (%) | Missing (%) |
|---|--------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| A. Establishing constructive social relationships | 26 | 25 | 49 | 0 |
| B. Maintaining control over the class. | 34 | 22.6 | 43.4 | 0 |

| | | | | |
|--|------|------|------|---|
| C. Communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding | 35.4 | 21 | 43.6 | 0 |
| D. Attitude (positive attitude towards the use of L1) | 36.2 | 17.4 | 46.4 | 0 |

*The figures represent mean of totals for strongly agree, neutral, and strongly disagree.

In the following section I will present the t-test results for the data gathered from GA and GB:

Category A (establishing constructive social relations):

I conducted an independent samples t-test to examine whether there was a significant difference between GA and GB students in terms of the use of L1 in category A. The test revealed a statistically significant difference between GA and GB ($t = -8.54$, $df = 4.78$, $p < .001$). GA ($M = 66.80$, $SD = 3.42$) reported significantly higher levels of L1 use in category A than did GB ($M = 23$, $SD = 10.9$).

Category B (maintaining control over the class):

I conducted an independent samples t-test to examine whether there was a significant difference between GA and GB students in relation to the use of L1 in category B. The test revealed a statistically significant difference between GA and GB ($t = 10.24$, $df = 8$, $p < .001$). GA ($M = 69$, $SD = 2.54$) reported significantly higher levels of L1 use in category B than did GB ($M = 34.20$, $SD = 7.15$).

Category C (Communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding):

I conducted an independent samples t-test to examine whether there was a significant difference between GA and GB students in relation to the use of L1 in category C. The test revealed a statistically significant difference between GA and GB ($t = 3.38$, $df = 8$, $p = .010$). GA ($M = 62.80$, $SD = 7.99$) reported significantly higher levels of L1 use in category C than did GB ($M = 36$, $SD = 15.67$).

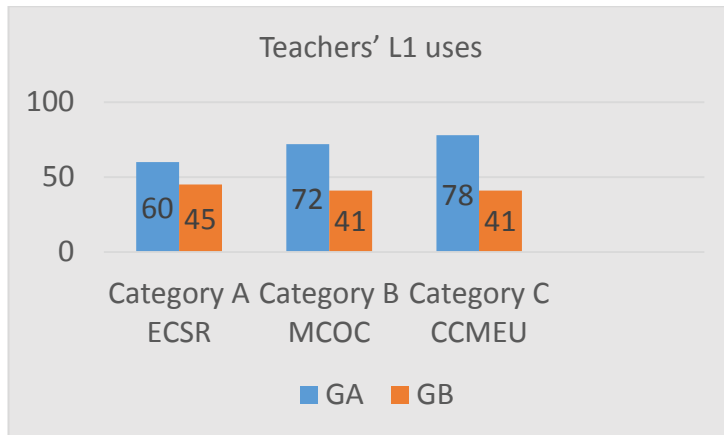
Category D (attitude):

I conducted an independent samples t-test to examine whether there was a significant difference between GA and GB students in relation to L1 in category D. The test revealed a statistically significant difference between GA and GB ($t = 8.22$, $df = 8$, $p < .001$). GA ($M = 68.20$, $SD = 6.5$) reported a more positive attitude to the use of L1 than did GB ($M = 35.40$, $SD = 6.10$).

Teachers' L1 uses (as reported by students):

Chart 1 below offers a percentage for each of the teachers' uses of L1, as reported by students, in categories A, B & C. the chart shows that GA teacher used L1 to a greater extent than GB teacher in all three categories. I conducted an independent samples t-test to examine whether there was a significant difference between GA and GB teachers in terms of the use of L1 in categories A, B & C. The test revealed a statistically significant difference between GA and GB teachers ($t = 5.07$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.007$). GA teacher ($M = 70.00$, $SD = 9.16$) used L1 significantly more than GB teacher ($M = 42.33$, $SD = 2.30$).

Chart 1



**Results presented are in percentages.*

**ECSE- establishing constructive social relationships; MCOC- maintaining control over class; CCMEU- communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding.*

Students' L1 uses:

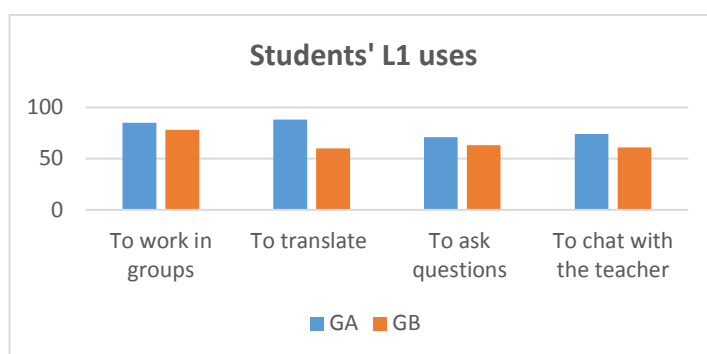
Chart 2 below reveals that overall students in the two groups used L1 in varying degrees to translate, to ask questions, to chat with the teacher and to work in groups. The greatest difference was in relation to translation, and the greatest similarity was in relation to work in groups.

I conducted an independent samples t-test to examine whether there was a significant difference between GA and GB students in terms of the uses of L1 as presented in chart 2 above. The test revealed a statistically significant difference between GA and GB ($t = 2.44$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.050$). GA ($M = 79.50$, SD

= 8.26) reported higher levels of L1 use in the above than did GB (M = 64.50, SD= 9.03).

Chart 2

Students' L1 uses



Results of the open-ended questions (GA & GB)

The open-ended questions reveal functions of L1 use by teachers and students in the two classes. They also highlight students in GA and GB's attitudes towards the use of Arabic by their teachers. I present the results below in tables 3, 4, & 5.

Table 3 below shows the most frequently appearing reasons reported by students for the teachers' uses of L1 in class. These include to explain/clarify, to give definitions, to offer students of lower proficiency level further support and to respond to student requests.

Table 3

Teachers' uses of L1 as reported by students

| Teachers' uses of L1 | Examples |
|----------------------|--|
| To explain/clarify | <i>"When we struggle with a difficult part of the lesson, he uses Arabic with us."</i> |
| To offer definitions | <i>"The teacher sometimes uses Arabic to explain the meaning of new words."</i> |

| | |
|--|--|
| To support students of lower proficiency level | <i>"Some students need more help, so it's then that the teacher uses more Arabic."</i> |
| To respond to student requests | <i>"Because students ask him to speak Arabic, that's why he uses it."</i> |

Table 4 below presents some representative examples in relations to attitude from GA and GB students' responses. GA's responses reflect an overall positive attitude towards the use of L1 in class as is illustrated by the selected comments below. GB's responses show a more negative view of the use of L1 as is indicated by the examples below.

Table 4

GA and GB students' attitudes towards the use of L1

| Student attitude towards teacher use of L1 | |
|--|--|
| GA | GB |
| <i>"Good, it helps me understand."</i> | <i>"I feel disappointed."</i> |
| <i>"I would like more English. If he used more English, it would help me improve."</i> | <i>"I prefer if she didn't, it puts me off."</i> |
| <i>"It makes me happy."</i> | <i>"I don't like it. I don't get the chance to learn."</i> |
| <i>"It makes me more relaxed."</i> | <i>"I feel bored."</i> |

Table 5 below shows reasons that students in both groups gave in response to why they use Arabic in class.

Table 5

GA and GB students' reasons for L1 use

| Students' reasons for using L1 | |
|---|---|
| GA | GB |
| <i>"I don't know enough English."</i> | <i>"I use it with other students who don't know many words in English."</i> |
| <i>"Because we are not used to using English together."</i> | <i>"If the teacher doesn't understand what I am saying in English."</i> |
| <i>"To translate things I don't understand."</i> | <i>"I don't use Arabic in class because it makes me uncomfortable."</i> |
| <i>"To avoid making mistakes."</i> | <i>" I only use Arabic if there is a new word that I don't know."</i> |

| | |
|---|--|
| “To find out what words mean.” | “I am not used to using or practicing with my friends in English even since high school.” |
| “I don’t have much knowledge of grammar and writing, and most students feel shy to speak in English, to be honest. In high school we always used Arabic.” | “I don’t usually use Arabic in class except when there is a particularly difficult point or something that I didn’t know how to say in English.” |

4.4 Discussion

My analysis of the closed and open-ended items of the present study show that the two participant teachers used L1 to varying degrees in categories A (establish constructive social relationships), B (maintaining control over class) and C (communicative complex meaning to ensure understanding). My statistical analysis to the closed and analysis of the open-ended items show that GA teacher displayed a wider use of L1 than GB teacher. This study’s results also reveal similarity and differences between the students in GA and GB in terms of frequency, function, and attitude towards the use of L1. The highest agreement was in relation to working in groups. The areas of greatest difference between students were in terms of the use of translation, and attitude. GA students reported translating to a greater degree than students in GB.

4.4.1 Frequency and functions of teachers’ use of L1:

Following analysis of the closed-ended items, I found that the frequency of L1 by GA teacher was overall high, with category A (establishing constructive relationships) showing 60% use; while category B (maintaining control over class) came to 72%; and the least percentage was for category C (establishing

communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding) calculated at 78%. This finding is in line with Tang's (2002) study on Chinese students learning English. It is also in agreement with a study conducted on Arab students learning English in schools in Kuwait (Kharma's and Hajjaj's, 1989). When considering potential reasons for this high use, one may attribute it to contextual factors as previous research in Libya indicated (Orafi, 2009).

I highlighted in chapter three that within the Libyan EFL classroom L1 plays a large role. Hence, this participant teacher would have himself as a learner had been exposed to teaching which relies heavily on its use. Therefore, one can assume that he may simply be teaching the way he was taught. The second point explored here is the potential association between teachers' proficiency level in English and their use of Arabic (Sawani, 2009). It may be the case that lack of proficiency in 2 led GA teacher to a wide use of L1. One can also suggest that this participant is doubtless influenced by the culture of teaching and learning in Libya, explored in chapter 3, which nurtures greater L1 use. That is, teacher-student roles as influenced largely by a traditional, teacher-centred, exam oriented environment.

The findings for teachers' uses of L1 in terms of the questionnaire items I expressed in relation to the three categories: A, B & C. As I reported above (chart 2), GA teacher used L1 in these 3 areas to a greater degree than GB teacher. Additionally, in the first question in the open-ended section of the survey I sought further detail on teachers' uses of L1 revealing that, for GA the teacher used L1 to explain difficult points, because students ask him/her to, and to support students of lower proficiency level. Examples I present below are

from GA and are representative of the students' responses to the first question on why they felt their teacher used Arabic:

Student: *"My teacher mostly uses Arabic to explain when we find something difficult."*

Student: *"The teacher uses Arabic because the students ask him to."*

Student: *"My teacher uses Arabic to help students who are struggling."*

Such is in line with various other research, pointing to L1 functions which included to give instruction, especially for beginners in order to confirm that all the learners understands what is required of them (Cole 1998; Cook, 2001; Tang 2002; Machaal 2012; Atkinson 1987); to offer definitions (Morahan, 2010); clarify difficult ideas; and also to present translations from the MT to the TL (Tang 2002). Here research would further support such use on the basis that use of the learners' L1 speeds up the process of TL the intake (Ellis, 2008). Additionally, that it is a time-saving tool as well as a means through which understanding is improved (Turnbull, 2001; Butzkamm, 2003).

The findings in relation to GB teacher show some variance to that of GA teacher in terms of frequency of L1 use, with a higher percentage of L2 use. For category 1 (establishing constructive social relationships) the figure was 45%; for category 2 (maintaining control over class) it was 41%, and for category 3 (communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding) the finding was 41%. This variance between GB and GA teacher in the frequency of L1 use is in line with other research which has revealed similar findings among teachers (Duff & Polio, 1990; Edstrom, 2006). As mentioned earlier, GB teacher is a native English speaking who does speak Arabic. Although it's difficult to state

with any degree of confidence the theoretical underpinnings driving this higher L2 use for GB teacher, but one may speculate that such could be linked with her training and experience outside Libya as well as her proficiency in Arabic. That is greater L2 use by this participant one may attribute to her proficiency level in Arabic. It could be that even as a speaker of Arabic, her proficiency level is not the same as that of her students and hence deterring its wider use.

One would expect that any training or experience that she would have had would have, directly or indirectly, discouraged L1 use. One could assume that she would have received training in a setting that focuses on the importance of offering an L2 rich context (Ellis, 2005; Hendrickson, 1991; Turnbull, 2001). Hence, to succeed in this endeavour teacher either minimizes use of L1 is or at the extreme, though this is not the case here, prohibit its use. The main reason for such extremes in relation to L1 use is associated with the concept that acquisition for the TL would be faster and more successful (Turnbull, 2001). Those in favour of the monolingual perspective stance hold the view that the acquisition of the L1 and the L2 are similar which means there is no need for an additional language to obstruct in the process. The view here is that the main component necessary for success in L2 acquisition is a complete immersion in the TL, demanding the avoidance of any L1 use (Gouin, 1892; Nations, 2003). Lastly, they regard the use of L1 as at the root of numerous limitations for the acquisition of the TL; L1 restricts natural L2 output, it lowers confidence and motivation levels in L2 learning. Limiting the L2 could amount to learner over-reliance on their L1 creating in the process barriers to the acquisition of the TL.

4.4.2 Frequency and functions of students' use of L1:

In the following section, I will discuss findings from the closed and open-ended items in relation to students' frequency, function, and attitude towards the use of L1. First, before I turn to students' results, it is important to note that I came to the assumption that GA is less proficient than GB based on analysis of the data, personal knowledge of the department, as well as a reflection on literature in the field. The data revealed that GA students used L1 more than GB (see chart 2) and expressed a greater need than GB for Arabic use in the third open-ended question which asked for reasons that led to their use of Arabic in class. The data revealed that out of the 50 students, 4 did not respond to this question, two answered stating they do not like its use and do not use it themselves. The rest of the students stated that they felt Arabic was necessary for various reasons, the highest of which was the aspect of lack of understanding, as based on their own limited knowledge of English; for example, one student wrote "I don't have enough English vocabulary, and I struggle to understand without Arabic in class," another student wrote "Because I find it (classwork) extremely difficult (without Arabic)," and yet another stated "one of the main reasons I use Arabic is it helps me understand better." GA students' results also revealed a more positive attitude than GB towards L1 use in the questionnaire items as the t-test results revealed. The second aspect that led me to the assumption that GA is less proficient than GB is my personal knowledge of how students tend to choose which teacher group they join at the beginning of the year. As I mentioned earlier, it is known to students which teacher teaches use less or more L1, as informed by other students usually, and this influences their group choice.

More proficient and perhaps confident students prefer to sign up with teachers who use more L2.

Finally, research suggests that there is greater L1 use in the language classroom in respect to learners of lower proficiency levels (Tang, 2002; Hall & Cook, 2012; Al -Nofia, 2010)). Other research has also pointed to students' awareness and belief that it L1 can assist their learning (Al-Nofaie, 2010; Tang, 2002; Schweer, 1999). Norman (2008) conducted a study in Japan with university students, and his findings revealed that proficiency in the L2 affected the view of L1 use in the classroom. He found that while all participants preferred some L1 use, there was variance in preference with more advanced learners preferring less L1 use than less of lower levels. The less advanced groups revealed a greater desire for teachers who shared their L1, while the opposite was true for the more advanced learners.

One may also suggest that wider L1 use by GA teacher could in itself be indicative of the students' proficiency level, that is a lower proficiency level among them, or at least the majority of them, has amounted to a wider L1 use by the teacher. Various classroom investigations have highlighted that language teachers prefer to use less L2 with learners of low proficiency (Meiring & Norman, 2002; Cole, 1998). Norman (2008) points out that with learners of limited proficiency, the learners' L1 is useful to introduce differences between the L1 and the TL, drawing attention to and raising awareness of L2 grammatical features. However, it was also suggested that this may have the negative effect of encouraging learners to become lazy, to make little effort in learning the TL, losing teacher L2 input, and risk reducing the chances of developing learners' listening skill.

The results of the present study show some similarities and difference in relation to GA and GB students' uses of L1 (see chart 2). The greatest similarity between the two groups was in relation to working with classmates, while the highest difference was the extent to which students reported the use of translation as well as their attitude towards the use of L1. The similarity between the two groups in relation working together is no surprise considering that in Libyan EFL classes, in high schools and universities, most students tend not to use L2, rather use of L1 is regarded the norm. The weaker students fear making errors, as one student in GA stated, "I worry what if I say something wrong", while even the more proficient students might still lack the confidence to interact in such group discussions in the L2.

Even if these students did have confidence in the use of L2, there is a clear awareness among this group, for example, GB results for teacher's reasons for L1 use included meeting the need of some less proficient students, that overall student proficiency is low, and this would perhaps deter them from its use with others. One could also suggest that the students may be using L1 in this context as a result of some positive association with its use with their learning. Although the point mentioned earlier by a student, and repeated by many others, with respect to the use of L1 to help them understand better, was in relation to low proficiency level, yet these examples reflect what students perceive as positive uses of L1 and such could be extended to reasons why students are using their L1 when completing work with other classmates.

This would be in line with other research, for example, Levine (2014), found that "students used L2 less when talking with each other for classroom activities, and still less when talking with each other" (p. 335). In an investigation exploring the

role of L1 among college students, the researcher reported that students used L1 to assist when working in groups (Liao, 2006). The same study also reveals that the use of L1 among students when working together promotes learning outcomes. In this regard, opponents of L1 use would forward a number of rationales for such a possibility. Research findings reveal that use of the L1 offers cognitive support, allowing scaffolding in the learning process, supports learner comprehension, and helps create positive affective learning environment (Anton and DiCamilla, 1998).

Ellis (2003) defined scaffolding as “the dialogic process by which one speaker assists another in performing a function that he or she cannot perform alone” (p. 180). Scaffolding is an important strategy that is traced back to Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory and his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). He illustrated that scaffolding is transitory assistance offered by others who have more knowledge in a given subject to an individual in the process of development. Within the language classroom, such assistance can be offered by a learner’s teacher or other learners (Donato, 1994; De Guerrero and Villamil, 2000).

Here one could suggest that by working together and using Arabic, GA and GB students were supported through their L1 to move through their zone of proximal development and played a cognitive role in scaffolding (Wells, 1999; Morahan, 2010). Research has suggested that use of the L1 allows learners to negotiate meaning and allows for successful L2 communication (Brooks and Donato, 1994). Proponents of the bilingual stance argue that by limiting the L1 learners are denied a useful educational tool (Cook, 2001; Butzkamm, 2003). A study was conducted by Anton and Dicamilla (1999) investigating the L1’s socio-

cognitive function in relation to collaborative interaction. The study explored the use of the L1 among beginner English students learning Spanish. The findings revealed that learners used L1 for scaffolding, guiding thinking in the process of private speech in addition to gauging and understanding TL meaning. Their conclusion drew out numerous functions for the L1 including meta-linguistic, social, cognitive, intra-psychological, as well as inter-psychological.

The results of the present study also reveal difference between the two groups of students (GA and GB) in terms of use of translating. GA generally reported using translation to a greater degree than GB as is shown in chart 2. This one may also attribute to the potential difference in proficiency level, with the less proficient GA students resorting to translation to a greater extent to support their learning process in some way. The use of translation among GA students is similar to an investigation (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) of students of ESL and those of EFL Spanish and Russian and the strategies they used. This research established that 30% of strategies used was in the form of translation.

The assumption that GA students used translation as it offered them some support in their language learning is in line with research which has indicated that translation can meet different goals and aims of different students (Harmer 1991, Ur 1996; Ivanova, 1998; Malmajer, 1998). One may expect that these students, similar to other language learners, translate between L1 and FL (Cook, 2007). Various research has positively regarded the practice of translation, with attention paid to the manner in which it could raise awareness and control interference (Schweers, 2000; Malmajer, 1998). The view is that learners focus on form through the practice of translation exercises (Titford, 1983; Long, 1991). Swain and Lapkin (1995) suggest that translation leads to

much consideration of the source form and meaning to be able to transfer the meaning into the TL form accurately, allowing learners the opportunity to look into words, as well as sub-word level. Additionally, learners could explore beyond words and sentences, reflecting on cultural issues. Translation tasks support generating cognitive processes allowing students to learn new information as well as to consolidate previously learnt topics.

The assumption that GA used translation as a consequence of them experiencing some beneficial effects in terms of this use on their language learning is further supported by Hsieh's (2000) study. This study reported that translation was useful for participant students in relation to reading strategies, for learning new vocabulary items, in addition to learning cultural aspects. Results of this study revealed that overall students believed that the practice of translation was positive in terms of both vocabulary learning as well as reading skill.

The statistical findings and analysis of the open-ended responses in the present study also show a difference between GA and GB in terms of their attitude towards the use of L1. GA generally held a more positive attitude towards the use of L1, while GB was more negative overall. The results for GA, as indicated by the figures in Chart 1 and through responses to the second question in the open-ended items, indicate a more favourable position towards teacher's use of Arabic in class. This I wish to illustrate by a selection of examples from student responses which are presentative of the majority:

“Comfortable, because I can communicate with my teacher.”

“Happy. It helps me understand more.”

“That I understand the whole lesson, and the subject become easy.”

Interesting to note in the findings for GA, in regards to the second open-ended item, is that although there was an overall majority preference for teacher use of Arabic, as the examples show; however, some students also added that although they wanted the use of Arabic yet not if excessive; for example, one student wrote, “Yes I like my teacher using Arabic, but not all the time”; while another also wrote “I do prefer the teacher using Arabic, but not all the time.” Perhaps here there was a feeling amongst students that at certain times greater English input from the teacher would increase their chances of improving their language skills. Clearly the suggestion being made by students is that the teacher is using L1 widely, a fact that is perhaps expected in the Libyan EFL classroom generally (as detailed in chapter 3).

This aspect of excessive L1 use one can attribute to numerous issues such as teacher proficiency level, lack of teacher training, and even to the Libyan culture of teaching and learning. Possibly, what students are suggesting here is that sensible, judicious teacher use of L1 would be ideal. Such a view is in agreement with Atkinson (1993), who regards the selective use of L1 as useful. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) concluded that the L1 should not be used excessively and that as students progress, L2 should be used to a greater degree. In other words, the recommendation is a limited and systematized use of L1 is acceptable if there is a need. As Butzkamm (2003) stresses “with growing proficiency in the foreign language, the use of the mother tongue becomes largely redundant, and the FL will stand on its own two feet” (p. 36).

The results also reveal that GB was less favourable to the use of L1 than GA as is demonstrated through the figures in table 2 and from the open-ended questions; for example, in response to the second open-ended question on how students felt if their teacher used Arabic, a selection of student responses which would be representative of many GB students include:

“I don’t like it when my teacher uses Arabic; it makes me feel disappointed.”

“Bored”

“I lose interest in the lesson.”

“That makes me annoyed.”

GB’s responses indicate a generally negative feeling towards the use of Arabic, one that potentially leads to students demotivation in class. The implication here is that students felt teacher’s use of Arabic amounted to her having low expectation of them, as well as limiting their opportunities to hear and speak English, as one student added “If my teacher uses Arabic, I feel like I am in the wrong department, how can we learn and improve.” This is in line with MacDonald (1993) who states that excessive reliance on L1 could demotivation learners; that the excessive use of the L1 by teachers to convey meaning could amount to discouraging learners from furthering their own understanding of the target language. The variance in attitude between the two groups also indicates that attitudes and motivation are not static and develop, as a result of various external and internal factors (Ellis, 2008). Gardner (1985) stated that “in the language learning situation if the students “attitudes are favorable, it is reasonable to predict, other things being equal, that experience with the

language will be pleasant, and the students will be encouraged to continue” (p.8).

Here positive and negative attitude is a psychological tendency that an individual expresses by evaluating a particular entity with some favor or disfavor. Psychological tendency denotes a person’s internal state, while evaluating refers to any form of an evaluative reaction. Such comprise affective, cognitive or behavioral aspects. A psychological tendency is a form of predisposition that inclines a person, in this case, the student, to make positive or negative evaluative responses. Evaluative responding forms the basis of an attitude; a person develops an attitude once they have made an evaluative response to a given object either cognitively, affectively, or else behaviourally. The cognitive aspect encompasses peoples’ thought in relation to an object; the affect includes emotions or feelings; while the behavioural covers people’s actions in relation to the object. The evaluative responses under the cognitive category comprise covert and overt responses. The former transpire when these links are inferred. The latter involves verbally uttering specific beliefs (Rosenberg and Hovland, 1960).

If someone evaluates an object favourably, the chances of them experiencing positive affective reactions associated with this are high; while if a person negatively evaluates an object, then they are much more likely to experience negative affective reaction associated with it. Within educational context, development of attitude is mainly in terms of the cognitive category, whereby learners establish certain beliefs in relation to the object. Beliefs attach an object with its diverse evaluated characteristics (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). Both overt and covert evaluative responding could yield a psychological tendency to react

with a certain degree of evaluation in consequent encounters with the attitudes object. Hence, an individual has established an attitude in relation to that object (Jung, 2005). The suggestion is that individuals (students in this case) whose attitude is positive towards an object are more inclined to associate it with positive qualities. On the other hand, individuals whose attitude is negative towards an object will generally associate it with negative characteristics. Hence, one may suggest that students (GA & GB) in the present study hold different attitudes towards the use of the L1 based on evaluating such use on some affective, cognitive, or behavioral bases.

The above findings in relation to student attitude suggest a potential link between proficiency level and attitude, that is, less proficient students (GA) hold a more positive attitude towards the use of Arabic than the more proficient students (GB). Various research has explored this possible connection between proficiency level and attitude towards the use of L1 (Carson & Kashihara, 2012; Prodromou, 2002a). The study conducted by Prodromou (2002a) involved 300 Greek participants divided according to proficiency level. The various groups revealed that amongst those of lower L2 proficiency there was a greater preference for the use of the MT than those of higher L2 proficiency. Another investigation conducted within a Spanish context by Schweers (1999) with EFL students and teachers explored students' attitudes towards the use of both their L1 and the TL within the classroom. Schweers's findings revealed that over 80% of participant students preferred the use of their L1, which they viewed as supporting learning. The researchers concluded that L1 use can increase students' motivation, that using the L1 in her L2 classroom amounted to higher

positive attitude towards the language learning process, even encouraging wider learning of the TL.

Schweers proposes that the use of the learners' L1 offered them a sense of security, adding that it also validated her students' previous experiences and gave them the opportunity to express themselves. Burden (2001) also investigated the aspect of teachers and students attitudes towards L1 use within HE context. The findings of this study revealed positive attitudes towards L1 use by both teachers and students in relation to explaining new vocabulary items, for grammar instruction, discussing assessment, as a comprehension check and for affective reasons. Tang's (2002) study presented similar findings within the Chinese context.

4.5 Conclusion

The results of the present study revealed that both GA and GB teachers exhibited variance in their use of L1 in relation to categories A, B and C. GA teacher used L1 to a greater extent than GB teacher. Teachers' variance in their use of Arabic has been associated with their backgrounds in this case. GA teacher's greater L1 use one can attribute to characteristics of the Libyan EFL classroom as well as proficiency in English. I also suggested that findings in relation to GB teacher's use of L1 may have been associated with her own views as influenced by previous training and work experience outside Libya. Additionally, I proposed that GB teacher's proficiency in the students' L1 may have deterred the wider use of Arabic.

The present study further revealed that L1 was used by both teachers, though to varying degrees, in areas covered under categories A, B & C. Additionally, in the open-ended questions revealed that GA teacher used L1 to explain difficult points, as a response to student requests and to support students of lower proficiency level. The findings from the closed and open-ended items for GA teacher are in line with other research findings which reveal numerous and similar functions of the use of L1 (Atkinson, 1987; Tang, 2002; Nation, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Machaal, 2012). These include explaining the meanings of words, to explain complex ideas, translate, explain grammar points, and to move tasks along.

The results also show that the two groups of students (GA & GB) displayed similarities and differences in terms of frequency, function as well attitude towards the use of L1. GA used and favoured Arabic more than GB. I predicted that GA was of lower proficiency than GB based on data analysis of the questionnaire items and the open-ended questions, as well as my own personal knowledge of the department in regards how students choose teacher groups. I found that both groups resorted to a similar extent to the use of L1 on specific occasions; the highest area was in relation to the completion of tasks. Here I suggested that students' use of L1 among both groups may support the notion that L1 promotes cooperation among learners where students share ideas and help each other using L1 (Atkinson, 1987; Tang 2002).

Differences between the two groups were mainly in relation to the use of translation and attitude towards the use of L1, a fact that I attributed to the potential difference in proficiency level. I found that GA tended to use translation to a greater degree than GB. I reported that GA students met use of L1 with a

positive attitude and higher motivation, and a negative attitude coupled with a sense of demotivation for GB students. Here, I proposed that such supports the possibility that there is a link between proficiency level and student attitude towards the use of L1. In addition, I also suggested that GA's comments in relation to excessive teacher L1 use may indicate a desire for a more judicious approach to such use. Much research has stressed the notion of judicious use, with the general advice being the use of L1 should be appropriate and timely.

The present study raised a number of question including: do the participant teachers' practices in terms of L1 use truly represent the overall practices of the majority of teachers at the university in terms of frequency of L1 use? Do teachers who use L1 agree with students' perspectives in terms of functions of L1 use? Are there any specific factors which influence teaching practices within the department? How do teachers feel about the use of Arabic? And why? What role does teacher training play in the Libyan context? As for the students, would it be accurate to assume that almost 50% of all students in the department fall into a higher proficiency category? If so, what factors seem to lead to such a variance in proficiency levels? Does such variance actually affect teachers' use of L1, how and why? In order to gain richer detail and greater understanding of the issue at hand, I will need to explore further these questions as well as others. This I will undertake through a qualitative investigation with teachers which follows in chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Patterns of L1 use among Libyan EFL teachers

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present the second study on the issue of MT use in Libyan HE. Here I seek to expand and explore further findings from the first study which I conducted with students in chapter 4 through a qualitative study which aims to investigate teachers' extent and reasons for the use of the MT, as well as attitudes towards this use. This I will undertake through teacher interviews that complement and give depth to the quantitative student study. I opted to use semi-structured interview after careful consideration of its advantages including that semi-structured interviews offer one the freedom to conduct the conversation in the manner which is considered best, to probe the questions deemed important, to give explanations, and request for clarification if uncertain about any participant response (Corbetta, 2003).

Dornyei (2007) points out mutual understanding could be reached through rephrasing or otherwise simplifying questions proving to pose issues of understanding for the interviewees. Hence, if semi-structured interviews were well conducted, they would yield more appropriate responses and, subsequently, offer more accurate data which one can record and study on numerous occasions to assist in creating a highly accurate interview report.

For the present study, I considered that semi-structured interviews would offer the most suitable method to gather valuable insights into participants' views about their teaching, and about the learning of their students and the general experience within the university presenting new and rich detail in relation to the use of the MT. My aim in applying this tool is to ensure that I have investigated the issue of MT use in greater depth and from various perspectives as far as possible.

This chapter will be divided as follows: section 5.1 presents ethical considerations; section 5.2 details the research methodology: 5.2.1 explains the process of interview questions' formulation, section 5.2.2 describes the process of conducting the interviews and section 5.2.3 draws out the qualitative data analysis steps undertaken; section 5.3 presents and discusses findings in relation to the three points investigated: 5.3.1 showing the aspect of frequency, 5.3.2 function and 5.3.3 attitude; and finally section 5.4 presents the conclusion of this chapter.

5.1 Ethics

I gathered data for the present study using phone interviews and here I obtained participants' informed consent. To ensure this, I explained to them what the interviews were about, reassured them of anonymity, and communicated how I will be using the results. It was also important that I inform participants in advance that I would be recording the interviews and that this information I will use in gathering and documenting my research findings.

5.2 Methodology

5.2.1 Sampling:

I used non-probability purposive sampling for the selection of my participants. All sampling forms in qualitative research broadly fall under 'purposeful sampling.' Qualitative enquiry usually centres on somewhat small samples while occasionally it could even focus on particular cases, purposefully selected. As a rule, qualitative research does not concern itself with the number of people in the sample, but on finding respondents who can provide full and detailed answers to the research question. In the sampling process, I kept in mind that I needed a sufficient number of participants to provide rich and complex data from a new dimension to consolidate and over depth to the research undertaken.

My sample is three male, and eight female lecturers from the University of Benghazi, with seven falling in the age range of 35-44 and four in the over 55 age range. They are all Libyan, native Arabic speakers who had been educated within Libya, and have work experience ranging from 3 to 10 years in the department. I believe that this purposively selected sample of three male and eight female Libyan lectures enabled able me to achieve gaining the quality of data deemed necessary in this study. That is, considering their position as lecturers within the university as well as their work experience in the field in Libya meant they are well informed of and were in a position to highlight what actually takes place within the Libyan EFL classrooms, possible reasons for this from their different perspectives, as well as elaborate on findings from the qualitative study undertaken with their students, as reported in chapter 4.

5.2.2 Data collection instrument

The security concerns in Libya prevented me from carrying out face-to-face (FTF) semi-structured interviews, and so I decided to use semi-structured phone interviews for my present study. Upon investigating frequency of the use of phone interviews, one finds conflicting views. One position, as reflected for example by Sturges and Hanrahan (2004), points out that "The use of telephone interviews in qualitative research is uncommon, due largely to concern about whether telephone interviews are well suited to the task" of qualitative investigations (p. 108). Yet, on the other hand, Block and Erskine state that "The use of telephones as a medium for conducting interviews is becoming an increasingly popular data collection method" (Block & Erskine 2012:248). I took the decision to use semi-structured phone interviews following careful consideration of the more compelling argument that draws attention to this method's potential advantages, and in reflecting on how these would serve the present study.

Here I would like to highlight such advantages, as they not only suggest that the quality of data is unlikely to be compromised, but that it could even result in superior data than in FTF situations. One of the main reasons forwarded by participants for choosing phone interviews is not having enough time (Sturges and Hanrahan, 2004). Time efficiency is particularly important when there is a vast distance between researcher and participants leading to time-saving in potential long travel. The second advantage, though not particularly relevant to this study, is a geographical reach whereby participants are dispersed in several geographical places, it would be financially impractical for the researcher to travel to the multiple locations. Therefore, telephone interviews offered a practical and cost effective data collection method. A third advantage, which I

found particularly important, was related to flexibility in arrangements with participants that could potentially incline them to take part in the interviews, hence amount to greater response rates; for example, I found that when there was an unanticipated disruption during a planned interview, it was easy to simply rearrange another time (Holt, 2010). The final advantage is related to researcher safety (Browning, Morris & Kee, 2011), at the time of the research, parts of Libya were simply too dangerous to enter safely.

I also considered it necessary to attempt and establish potential issues that some may associate with this data collection method and means to overcome them as much as possible. Since in qualitative research interview processes it is fundamental for the researcher to develop rapport, loss of which might reduce the quality or quantity of responses, I attempted to establish this through creating a good interview setting, offering participants the opportunity to feel more relaxed so that they would reveal more information. I improved my chances of achieving this since participants were not in my presence (Opdenakker, 2006).

In addition, I employed various tactics to put participants at ease. These include spending time to talk casually prior to the interview, carefully considering my use of words and intonation, and responding in a sensitive and non-judgmentally manner to any disclosures by participants. In cases where telephone interviews are shorter than face-to-face (FTF) interviews, then quantity and quality of data would be compromised. Opponents of telephone interviewing method argue that telephone interviews are typically kept short and so minimize opportunities for in-depth discussions. Yet some have disputed this, McCoyd and Kerson (2006) undertook interviews which lasted between 1.5-2 hours without any reported

participant problems. Hence, I attempted to overcome this issue of by ensuring that all my interviews lasted between 35-45 minutes, which proved sufficient, allowing interviewees time to relax, and to establish rapport with them, and to consider responses.

5.2.3 Question preparation

In order to keep within the 'parameters' of the study aims, I used pre-planned questions during the interviews. Here I ensured that these questions, as well as other questions that I asked during the interview, were not in any way biased, or that they do not directly relate to what I want to find out, as well as not confusing or complicated. I also aimed to ask more open-ended rather than closed-ended type questions. The open-ended questions provided me with the opportunity to identify different ways of seeing and understanding the topic at hand (Dornyei, 2007).

When considering ordering of these questions, for each of the points covered, I started with more introductory or opening questions which are general so as to get participants talking about the topic. Introducing questions included 'from your experience can you tell me how much Arabic you think is being used in teaching English at the university? What proportion of the teachers would you say that this applied to?', 'In your opinion, how much Arabic do you think should be used when teaching?' Then I asked follow-up questions through which I aimed at getting more elaboration on participants' initial answer. An example of this is 'Can you give more detail...why do you think this is so...?' I also used probing questions to follow up what has been said and to get more detail, for

example 'can you give me any examples of when you consider Arabic use necessary?' or 'Could you say more about....?' Finally ending with questions which allowed participants to add more details they find relevant, for example, 'Is there anything else you would like to add? Any points that I may have missed? Or maybe something you wish to go back to and discuss/elaborate on further?'

5.2.4 Conducting the interview

In preparation for the actual interview process, I needed to identify an appropriate interviewer style. I also had to consider how best to get the participant to talk freely. In addition, I also had to reflect on how to produce different types of questions and give useful feedback to participants, without distorting potential data, as well as considering my interview length. I attempted to ensure that my interviewing style was friendly, considerate, relaxed, and unbiased as much as possible. As such, I read questions in a conversational tone ensuring at the same time that I kept questions flowing without any awkward pauses. I also avoided any display of surprise or disapproval the participants' responses. I also attempted to use the same wording of questions to maintain data reliability and integrity.

Due to the significance of encouraging the interviewee to talk as much as possible, I probed any ambiguous and general responses by requesting further explanation or clarification when required. I did not want to influence any of the participants' responses and so did not suggest a potential answer and avoided agreeing with a position any interviewee took. I also offered the interviewees

feedback when necessary; I acknowledged insightful responses and thanked participants for them.

I also tried to tackle inadequate responses or no responses by drawing participants back to a point he/she mentioned and even reassuring them that there is no correct answer and that it is their opinion that is significant. In cases when I still got no clear response to a particular point I left it and revisited it later on in the interview (Dornyei, 2007). In terms of the length of the interviews, there was some variation, between 35-45 minutes, depending on the willingness of the participants to elaborate. I recorded all interviews, and fully transcribed these for the purposes of analysis.

5.2.5 Validity of research instrument

I aimed to improve my data collection technique as much as possible so as to enhance the validity and reliability of my study findings. In pursuit of this I considered it important to pre-test the interview questions and as such I conducted a pilot phone interview with a Libyan teacher. This gave me the opportunity to practise interview techniques and identify areas that required personal development before data collection. It allowed me to detect wording issues that needed to be resolved to avoid ambiguity and so enhance the integrity of data. It also assisted me in determining the most logical and smooth-flowing order of the questions. Finally, the pilot study also provided me with a good indication of the time required to conduct the interviews.

5.2.6 Data analysis:

Once the recording of my interviews was complete, I took the first step of data analysis which involved transcribing the recordings. To assist in achieving a more coherent and sophisticated transcription I used some writing strategies including varied punctuations, for example, to display significant “intonational contours and emphasizes” (Dornyei 2007:247), and divided each line of my transcript. I also immediately made a set of notes afterwards while the interview was still fresh in my mind. The transcription process gave me an opportunity to re-evaluate my interview and record further notes that came to mind, for example, a question directed to one participant about their teaching practices was given a response about exams. This I noted and reflected upon.

Following this, I tried to identify emerging themes from the data in the first stages of analysis and set a label or code that describes them (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Here I went through each transcript underlining and colour coding words, phrases or sentences that were relevant to my questions, for example, student level. I repeated this with all the transcripts. Then I drew up a list of these keywords, phrases, or sentences with their colour coding. My initial list was made up of 31 points, for example *“in my teaching at Benghazi University I tried not to use Arabic”, “because we don’t have much time,” “confidence building,” and “it’s useful especially for lower level students.”* I then went back and checked how often each point was repeated by participants in their transcript, for example, student level was found in all participant transcripts as such it was assigned the number 11. Next, I grouped into categories all the points which were closely connected in meaning. For example: *“students understand better with the use of L1”, “it is quicker to explain a grammar point,” “student are less anxious when L1 is used”, and “it is easier to explain cultural differences in L1.”*

I brought categories together into a theme, in this example under the heading *Reasons for teachers' use of L1*, as they had similar meanings allowing a wider understanding of the issues under investigation. I endeavoured to ensure that the analytic process progressed from description to interpretation, whereby I made an effort to theorise the importance of the patterns and their wider meanings and implications. Here I was able to link the various concepts and opinions of the participants and compare these with the data that I had gathered at different times during the study. For example, it became apparent that participants shared a negative view of the use of Arabic as can be seen from such statements as *"I prefer not to use Arabic..."* and *"I would never use Arabic outside the university,"* yet their teaching practices clearly relied heavily upon it for numerous reasons as stated by them directly. After careful reflection, it became apparent that deeper issues were at play in terms of direct or indirect influences on teachers in shaping their perceptions of what amounts to better teaching which ultimately kept L1 outside the classroom.

5.3 Results and discussion

In the following section, I will present and discuss findings for the three points underpinning the present study. First, I will explore results to the frequency of Arabic use within the Libyan EFL classroom by teachers. Participants reported high use based on issues which they linked to the public Libyan education system and administration. However, following analysis of the data I found issues with lack of teacher training and proficiency levels among teachers as potentially underlying this high use. Subsequently, the present study's findings

in relation to uses of L1 will present various pedagogical functions. Here I suggested that factors related to course content, lack of training, and teacher proficiency level in the TL were potentially influencing such uses of L1. Finally, findings on teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 reveal an overall negative attitude. Interesting here was the contradiction between extent and functions of L1 use with attitude, possible reasons for which I will detail in section 5.3.3.

5.3.1 Teachers' frequency of L1 use

When asked about the frequency of their use of L1, most participants, as represented by the following selection, reported a high use, though overall there was a degree of variance:

“Well, It’s a MUST (using Arabic) always at the university....with most semesters” (A,1,2).

“we have many weak students ... even in the second or third semester...and they need Arabic in class. I have no choice but to help them” (F,1,8).

“I don’t use Arabic unless it is absolutely necessary....I do my best not to use Arabic....but do eventually use it” (AW,1,4).

“Actually...quite frankly I do use it (Arabic).... You know... but with the first year students...it was not possible not to at all. But I did try to use less Arabic especially with the more advanced years...”(H,1,4)

The present study results revealed that 9 out of 11 participants used Arabic widely as part of their teaching of most year groups. 2 out of 11 participants stressed that after the second semester, as students are expected to have progressed, Arabic should only be used as a last resort, but were still willing to use it should the need arise. This finding can support my assumption that GA's

(Group A- greater L1 use) teacher in the previous study (chapter 4) is more representative of the majority of teachers in the department. The selected extracts above reveal the frequent use of L1 by participants as part of their teaching and are a representative of the majority of participants. This finding is in line with other research, for example, Kharma's and Hajjaj's (1989) study on Arab students learning English in schools in Kuwait.

As the interviews developed and participants offered reasons for their overall high use of L1, it was evident that they were generally attempting to draw attention to various factors such as students' levels, and difficulties linked with public HE institutions and high school learning experience. Teachers stated that high L1 use was primarily due to the low proficiency levels amongst the majority of students. This they attributed to a poor education system, as I illustrate through the following comments from participants:

"Their level was bad...you find they force you to go back to Arabic" (H, 1, 11)

"Poor...very poor. The whole system is not helping. There is a small number of good students who study English outside the public schools or university context... in the private schools and colleges in Benghazi...for example IH Benghazi...so out of 1000 students maybe 6 are good" (AW, 3:33)

In regards the aspect of student proficiency playing a major role in teachers' use of L1, such various studies have highlighted, though it may be argued here that within the present study this issue does not itself account for the high L1 use. Hall and Cook (2013) found that "Teachers working with lower level students report using the learners' own language significantly more frequently across all functions..."(p. 23). This aspect of student proficiency level as a factor affecting L1 use is one which teachers in Macaro's (1997) study also agreed upon.

Similarly, in Al-Nofaie's (2010) study there was a preference amongst participants for the use of Arabic with students of low proficiency levels. This use was mostly useful when defining new vocabulary items, explaining grammatical terms, and for exam instructions. Here Miles (2004) also highlights the need for L1 use in particular with lower level students to teach grammar to avoid potential lack of understanding on the students' part. In this regard, teachers linked this issue with a number of factors including past government educational policies in particular the ban on English language teaching, high school teachers' competence in English, and teaching based on wide L1 use; aspects which one may argue could apply to the participants too.

An important point raised by participants during my interviews was in relation to a small but more proficient group of students within most groups. This I illustrated above in AW's comment and from the following:

"I feel that some students in my groups are on a different planet from the rest...They are much more advanced than the majority of the other students...to be honest... the weaker ones never manage to get to their level up to graduation (H,2,26).

When I probed about potential aspects that led to such difference between learners, participants repeated made reference to the aspect of private colleges. In an attempt of what seems to be a defence for their high L1 use, most participants further took the opportunity to talk about private colleges as evidence of restrictions on 'good practice' (i.e. more L2 use) within the public HE system, for example, "Although instruction should be in English ...but it's difficult at the university (T). In this regard, for participants who had or were still teaching in such colleges, such student success at language learning they

attributed mainly to better teaching based on greater L2 use; this, as reported by participants, was true of their practices when teaching these private courses. Differing practices within public and private sectors is in with the findings of Hall and Cook's (2013) study, "Teachers working in state schools/institutions reported using the learners' own language more frequently across a range of classroom functions than those working in the private sector..."(p. 23).

When I asked one of the participants if the teacher would use Arabic outside the university context participant (AW) replied "No I WOULD NOT" and when further probed as to the reasons, he stated that in terms of student learning, Arabic would be "negative." Most participants in the present study explained that their practices at the university were not a true reflection of their views as regards the use of L1. Hence, one finds some of the arguments they forwarded in favour of L2 use are primarily about teaching outside the university context. They stated that maximizing exposure and thereby ensuring learning was a major reason. They stressed the need to expose students to the TL, for example, one participant said that it was important to "allow students to get exposed to English as much as possible" (T), further arguing that this would help them to progress. Such would be line with Macdonald (1993), who also suggests that there is no need to translate as guiding learners through the use of non-complex TL words and structures allowed them to deduce or understand the meaning of abstract words, phrases and challenging expressions in the TL.

Again, one would assume that participants would agree with Macdonald (1993) that it was sufficient to allow students to attend to words and linguistic structures which were new; therefore, allowing them to become familiar with the language grammar, lexis, and phonology. Here it is difficult to establish the extent to which

such views are in fact held by participants, even within a private sector. Perhaps by pointing to these various aspects of L2 use, the participants were merely displaying awareness of what they may perceive or consider as the generally held position within ELT as 'good practice,' and highlight that in fact their own wide L1 use is not their 'fault' but one to be blamed on the set up of the Libyan public HE institutions. How the participants have acquired such a view, and the extent to which it is truly a reflection of what they believe is an area that I will discuss later.

The fact that participants detail the typical classrooms as having some high proficiency students would in itself put into question the teachers' practice of wide L1 use and its implication for these learners. The difference in proficiency levels clearly amounted to mixed classes, with students falling mainly into one of two extremes. Interviews revealed that since the majority of students were less proficient, it was their needs that teachers felt obliged to meet, and from their opinion, through a wider use of L1, clearly neglecting the needs of the more proficient students. Furthermore, there was the view that should a teacher attempt to incorporate greater use of L2, students objected as "they found this strange..." (H), discouraging teacher from continuing. However, the same teacher commented that a few "even say why do some teachers not use much English." one can argue that more advanced learners would benefit more from "free conversation, more challenging written and aural input, and a more autonomous approach to learning" (McMillan & Joyce, 2011:76).

The implication of ongoing wide L1 use with mixed groups could have a negative impact, that is, on the small group who are more proficient. This I can validate from findings in chapter 4 whereby such learners voiced a clear desire for

greater L2 use. One may also argue that even if various students who were of low proficiency show signs of disapproval of greater L2 use or even voice it, teachers cannot determine how representative these are of the whole class, additionally teachers cannot overlook the potential positive impact of wider L2 use even for less proficient students. In order for the teacher to ensure that all students perform to their maximum potential they need to identify these, and other issues and means to deal with them accordingly, various means other than simply using L1. Perhaps, such was restricted due lack of training and proficiency.

Here one may state that by suggesting that having mixed proficiency level students forced them to use L1 widely may indicate issues with their lack of training. That is teachers can meet the needs of mixed-proficiency classes by differentiating instruction, additionally supporting learners through tutoring from other students and through collaborative work. Here teachers of mixed-ability classes would need to have the knowledge and ability to teach collaborative skills to students to help maximize the benefits of cooperative learning. Various research findings have stressed that pair work and small group work leads to greater levels of student motivation and interest, negotiating meaning within a group, while also using L1 as a mediating tool to successfully complete demanding tasks (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Cook, 2001). Following analysis of interaction patterns of students, Storch (2001) concluded that most collaboration was noted among pairs of students with the highest proficiency difference. He also found that least collaboration was recorded among pairs closest in proficiency level.

One may suggest that by arguing that their use of L1 is meeting students' needs, it is more a case of this being suitable for the teachers. Here it may be proposed that in addition to the lack of training, teacher proficiency in spoken English, necessary to establish a classroom environment based on L2 use, is an issue too. This argument I wish to support based on comments forwarded by teachers, in the following section, when describing high school failures and issues that caused these, as well as when detailing problems within the university and the impact that such issues have on graduate students' proficiency. It seems that all such aspects are equally relevant to the participants themselves.

The fact that pair work is not practiced widely within the university is not surprising considering that this is a teacher centred classroom. The issue of limited student interaction as a result of a more teacher centred environment within the Libyan EFL classroom, as indicated by data in the present study, is typical of the Libyan context as is revealed in the UNESCO report (1996). This states that Libyan EL students are deprived of working collaboratively and of interacting together in the TL within the classroom. However, even if such activities were practised one has to consider the view that, according to Nation (2003) "...using the L2 can be a source of embarrassment particularly for shy learners and those who feel they are not very proficient in the L2" (p. 2). Such an issue could be relevant for the Libyan university students but is not unresolvable. Clearly, such various considerations are necessary to allow for a better teaching and learning environment within an EFL classroom, but rather than explore these various aspects teachers are finding the use of L1 an easier route. This is no doubt linked to the aspect of the lack of training and potentially to teaching based on experience.

It was interesting to note that perhaps the one question during the interviews which most participants made the least effort in elaborating on was the aspect of teacher training in Libya. Initially there were short responses to this question, For example, participant (F) said “there is no training at all” while participant (A) also said “none that I know of” (training courses), and participant (AW) also said “Just a module on teaching methodology” or simply laughed, as in one instance. Such is not surprising since various teacher training programmes have existed on a policy level, yet actual effectiveness of their implementation was highly questionable as detailed in chapter 3. When attempting to gain a better idea of their view on the significance of this, I got the impression that such was an unwelcome subject, for example, as participants changed the topic or else gave shorter responses than to other questions. Perhaps this area was indeed unwelcome since it potentially drew attention to the teachers’ own lack of training and the possible negative impact that this may have on learning, in this regard through high use of L1.

Shihiba’s (2011) study highlighted that within the university system teacher training has received little attention. One can assume that classroom practices for teachers within the present study would most likely mirror their own experiences as students and teachers, a significant component of which is the extent of L1 use. This no doubt contributed to certain difficulties, for example as highlighted in Grada’s (2014) study, whereby one participant stated

I know that it is logical to use the oral tests to assess speaking, but the problem is how to do it. I think this is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education to offer teachers workshops and training programmes about language assessment (p. 234).

This study revealed that 75% of participants believed the lack of teacher training activities had contributed to their lack of knowledge of speaking assessment. It seems that Grada's participants were more aware and comfortable in pointing to implications of the lack of teacher training than participants within the present study. Perhaps, the latter felt I was an outsider looking in; one would expect such was not the case with Grada (2014) and preferred to attempt and portray their teaching in a certain light, which they believed an outside would consider positive.

I regard the issue of belief amongst participants as significant since it no doubt influences their ongoing practices as documented, and importantly their wide use of L1. It is here that the role of lack of teacher training in raising teacher awareness of such aspects and the impact that this has on their teaching is evident. Hedge & Whitney (1996) stress the need to raise teachers' awareness of their beliefs:

“All teachers operate according to set of beliefs about what constitutes good classroom practice, but some may never have made those beliefs explicit to themselves. Thus an essential part of in-service education is to encourage teachers to reflect on their own professional practice, to make explicit to themselves the assumptions that underlie what they do and then to review those assumptions in the light of new perspectives and practices” (p. 122)

As discussed in chapter 3, teacher training and CPD have not been catered for adequately within the Libyan system at both secondary and HE, as such the majority of school teachers have been mainly “....fresh-faced English graduates recruited straight out of university....” (Aylett and Halliday, 2013:1). This, it has been argued, is due to the rapid increase in the number of these schools throughout the country and the shortage of well-trained EFL teachers (Orafi and

Borg, 2009). While within the Libyan university context, there has been concern over the placement of Libyan university staff in HE, as documented in the Libyan Commission for Education, Culture, and science (2004) report. Here it was stated that many university staff “members are not trained for teaching despite their specialised skill that might be distinguished” (p 25). Research within the Libyan context highlighted that most Libyan universities do not have training or promotion organisations for their teachers, as the universities agree that the faculties or department managers should design any professional arrangement.

According to a study conducted in 2011 at a Libyan university (referred to as university X), 95% of teachers were not receiving any “development or training programs” (Ali, 2011:144). Another study conducted at a Libyan university revealed that...“From the teachers interviewed in February 2011 through until those interviewed in October 2012, training continued to be highlighted as an issue” (Abushafa, 2014:179). Gadour (2006) also points to fundamental issues with a university education, prominent amongst which is the absence of teacher training and CPD policies. Hamdy (2007) argues that teacher-training policy is clearly absent in Libyan HE. One would assume that the aspect of the lack of training and CPD played a major role in influencing the overall high frequency of L1 use among participants in the present study. Though, as I stated earlier, teachers made no effort to elaborate on the topic when asked about it. One can suggest that with such an elaboration comes a potential focus on their skills, or lack of them, as a factor determining the use of L1.

Other reasons forwards by teachers in justifying the wide use of L1 included students’ previous learning at high school. Here reference was directly made to high school learning experience and a perhaps a less direct statement implying

that such a fact influenced the participants' own practices in terms of meeting students' expectation through a high L1 use.

"... high school teachers used Arabic throughout lessons...this is a fact that every Libyan who went to school here knows" (T, 2, 28)

"...they are used to it" (use of Arabic from high school.) (T, 2, 31)

"They mainly used Arabic in teaching (high school)...". (H, 3, 30)

Here they also detailed characteristics of high school teaching turning to the aspect of the failure of implementation of the school new curriculum, as related to focus on formal exams, much dependence on L1 as well as low proficiency in the TL:

"I supervised graduation dissertation...which were appalling...full of basic mistakes and very reflective of the standards of these students. These graduates would leave the university and go to teach in high schools" (A, 4, 38).

The new curriculum was based on the communicative approach, which the ministry of education introduced following the reinstating of EFL teaching in 1992. It was "... recommended that English be used as much as possible by the teachers and students in the classroom" (Orafi & Borg, 2009). The same study showed that success of the new curriculum was restricted due to teacher failure to apply the changes necessary, for example, the absence of interaction in English and consistent translation in the EFL classrooms; additionally that the role of teachers implied within the new curriculum and the existing one were not well-matched. One would add that a major issue here is that such a new innovation in teaching could not be successfully introduced within this context without the appropriate support and training that teachers required. In terms of

the negative impact lack of teacher training has had on applying the new English curriculum in Libyan schools, Shihiba (2011) pointed out that:

The teachers' conceptions and misconceptions of this approach seemed to have a clear influence on their instructional approaches in classrooms which limited their successful implementation of the 2000 English language curriculum innovation in Libyan secondary schools (p. 326).

This he related to a number of factors one of which was the poor level of teacher proficiency, as well as their insufficient understanding of the new approach, lack of teacher enthusiasm to develop themselves professionally and the "high accountability for national examinations and the inspection process" (Shihiba, 2011:326). One may suggest that teacher's own TL proficiency could have influenced the extent of L1 use among participants in the present study too. This would be in line with Thompson's (2006) study which found that native English-speaking teachers in a Spanish language class used the least amount of L2, whereas English-speaking teacher who were least proficient utilized the TL exclusively. This study forwarded the "possibility that English proficiency does play an important role in TL and L1 use in the classroom" (Thompson, 2006:35). The view of participants in the present study was high school teachers have very little motivation for innovation in the use of the textbooks, which are based on CLT, and they tend to resort to grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods and do not use the target language communicatively.

They also stressed a high dependence on Arabic. It was almost as if the participants were, in fact, talking about themselves. But in a sense, by detailing characteristics of high school teachers and teaching, that may reveal a further attempt to shift all focus of potentially perceived, or considered as perceived by

others, error in their own practices when it came to wide L1 use. But, ultimately one can suggest that such description of high school teachers' practices, that is teacher centred, based on more traditional approaches, and relying largely on L1, equally apply to participants in the present study.

The teachers in the present study have themselves been educated at both high school and university level in Libya, and have acquired have been influenced by the system as a whole. An important aspect raised in relation to the use of L1 in terms of high schools, and one that clearly extends to universities too, is the significance given to exams and acceptance that L1 is essential if students were to succeed in them. Generally, as part of this exam oriented environment, achievement is based on memorization of textbooks taught mainly through the use of Arabic in a teacher centred environment (as detailed in chapter 3). Consequently, for ELT in Libya, professionalism in teaching essentially means helping students perform successfully in the final exam (Sawani, 2009). Focus is essentially on memorizing structural or formal grammatical features of English because this what is required to perform well. Here the participant (T,2,28) comment above and that which follows draw attention to such issues:

T....the whole Libyan education and this module are based on a sort of just regurgitating information (T,3,40).

However, by drawing attention to the issues with teaching and learning in the education system, the centrality of examinations and a system that encourages greater L1 use, here again, it may simply be a case of participants shifting 'blame' for any wide use of L1 away from themselves.

The majority of participants also stated that their use Arabic (L1) within the university was due to the need to help students pass their exams and used the words 'exams' and 'learning' almost interchangeably. One participant stated, "Arabic helps them learn....helps them pass their exams" (A, 2, 28), but here one may question what is meant by 'learn' in this context. Perhaps, knowing what to memorize as sketched out by teachers generally through the use of L1. One can suggest that participant teachers' own experiences as learners in the Libyan education system and later as teachers have shaped their views in relation to what they consider as standard and necessary practice, a key part of which is the place of L1 within their classrooms. This leads one to argue that such teaching is driven primarily by experience.

5.3.2 Teachers' functions for L1 use

The present study revealed that Arabic served a number of pedagogical functions within the classroom. These included teaching grammar points, explaining any difficult or new points, ensuring comprehension, saving time, dealing with cross-cultural issues, managing students, giving instructions, and affective reasons. These I present with examples in the following page:

Table 6

Teachers' L1 uses

| Function | Example |
|---------------------------------|---|
| To teach grammar | “Well...in my example of transitive and intransitive...I would give the Arabic terms and examples and explanations in Arabic first then English” (A, 1,14). |
| To explain | “It’s hard to explain to them using just English... they won’t follow what you are saying....so you look at them and see that you are on one planet, and they are in another...you can see this”(H,1,17). “I have over my teaching experience always used the translation of classwork and explanation in Arabic....They understand well this way” (A,1,6). |
| To give instruction | “for me...I used Arabic as I said for making sure students understood...also to let students know what they need to do...for example, how to complete some exercises....to make sure they are clear what they need to do”(F,1,12) |
| To ensure understanding | “I asked my students to translate ‘good offices’ into Arabic, and the result was completely wrong. They simply went for the dictionary and looked up the words ‘good’ and ‘offices’, of course, what they understood.... without my input...would have been completely misleading” (A,1,7). |
| To save time | “...it’s useful...if done in a way where you draw an analogy between whatever it is you’re doing in English and in Arabic...that way you get the idea across faster” (T,1,4) |
| To manage students | “I have VERY large groups...between 70 and 80 students... and Arabic also helps me keep their attention and to keep the level of noise down” (F,2,23). |
| To manage cross-cultural issues | “In literature, I needed to give a lot of examples in Arabic....examples from the Arab culture to get the point across...”(H,1,6) “... Also, you find lots of cultural points that you need to explain to them...you have to do this in Arabic...they say this, and we say this...they behave this way and we behave this way...there has to be a comparison...we are teaching in a different cultural context...right?”(H,3,42) |
| For affective reasons | “I feel any language learner ...the first day they go into class, elementary or beginner...it’s very comforting to know that the teacher speaks your language...so they feel calm....”(T,2,29) |

According to teachers in the present study, L1 (Arabic) included the ten functions in table 1; however, the extent to which such L1 use is in fact

indispensable is debatable. The areas of L1 use in the present study which are in line with the findings of the previous study with students in chapter four include: to explain complex concepts, manage students, and give instructions. Other areas of L1 use found in the present study include to ensure comprehension, to save time, to deal with cross-cultural issues, affective factors, as well as contextual reasons such as group size and exam pressures. In agreement with the findings of the present study similar uses of L1 in the L2 classroom listed by Auerbach (1993) included presenting grammar rules, classroom management, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instruction and checking for comprehension.

Harbord also agrees with using the L1 for comprehension checks (1992: 354). Cameron (2001), Tang (2000), and Atkinson (1987) hold the view that L1 can play a positive role when explaining language structures, explaining complex grammar as well as difficult ideas, offering feedback, maintaining classroom discipline, and time-saving. As regards the last point, Atkinson (1987) suggests that it can be highly efficient to use techniques which involve L1 use to meet specific aims. Furthermore, Cook (2001) suggests that teachers can use the L1 in a number of situations within the classroom including “to provide a shortcut for giving instructions and explanations” (p. 418).

It has been reasoned that while the various functions for L1 found can be beneficial and are in line with other research as mentioned above and in the previous two studies (chapters 4 & 5), yet it may also be the case that such uses are linked with context-specific aspects including course material, lack of teacher training, and teachers’ proficiency level. This I assumed following careful consideration of the data, which indicated that many of the participants’

uses of L1 were perhaps avoidable. The interviews highlighted the issue that course content was beyond the level of most students and hence to compensate for this the predominant view is that a greater L1 use was necessary. This is something that I will illustrate further in terms of the grammar and literature. A few participants mentioned that the course content was 'difficult' and 'dated' (H). One participant stated that most students would be 'lost' during class if the MT was not used, suggesting, among other things, the possibility that course content is beyond student level.

Additionally, participant (F) spoke about the need to use L1 to control her large groups, here again, I consider it likely that such may also be indicative of the fact that teachers demand students to operate at a level higher than their present level. Here one may add that some of the material could indeed be beyond the level of learners due to the difference of overall student levels from when these courses were initially set. That is, learners are at present considered to be of a much lower proficiency level, particularly upon first entry to the university. This I would like to illustrate through the following response from one participant after I probed about why he believed students were of a poor proficiency level in Libya:

[laughs] "Ahmad Ibrahim (minister of education)...He stopped the English language from being taught...you see prior to this ... the level of English that was taught in secondary school is the level that is being taught to university students now. The effect of this decision.... to stop English...is felt up to today" (M, 1, 10)

Most participants stressed the impact of the suspension of English language in Libya (detailed in chapter 3). No doubt, along with other issues, it would have had a negative effect on the teaching and learning of EFL in Libya.

Participants also pointed to the issue of course content being in much need of updating. One participant stated:

“I feel they are ancient (course material)...I was just chatting with a colleague about this today...we were saying that all the material needs updating....you know the material I am teaching...the same since I was a student” (H, 2,30)

“The material is out of date and doesn’t take into consideration their [students’] true level at all” (A, 2,23)

Here there may indeed be a real issue with course content, though this does not in itself justify high L1 use. It is evident that there is a lack of departmental assessment of the course content, particularly when considering that some course material has been in use even before the teachers themselves were students in the department. There is clear participant concern in this regard, and one would add a much required revision and updating of some of the material they are using. The aspect of teacher awareness of course content issues and yet a sense of inability to initiate change were also among findings when exploring the issue of teaching material; for example, participant (A) detailed how he felt that the course content was inappropriate and made a suggestion to the head of the department to introduce some new material but was simply ‘ignored.’ Overall, there was a shared sense of teacher isolation and expressed feeling that they are simply delivering with little say what they were given in a setting permitting little room for change and improvement. This I illustrate through the following extracts:

“At the university their main concern was we have 1000 students how to we group them, where do we place themwe don't CARE how they are taught, what they are taught, or the end result...I felt I was a slot filler for 4 years” (AW, 4, 40).

The same participant further added

“The heads and those close to them ran the show. They decided what was and was not happening. We were just slot fillers” (AW, 7, 40).

Such statements perhaps reveal a general participant feeling of being marginalized and not valued as individual educators. This perhaps led to a degree of resentment, the implications of which would clearly be negative for the whole teaching and learning experience an important part of which is limiting any potential for considering and initiating change. In this regard, however, even if teachers felt differently and were in a greater position of power, the aspect of potential improvement in terms of seeking less L1 would still be questionable without the necessary training and CPD allowing a reassessment of their own beliefs and opportunities to further their own knowledge of English.

The second issue that the present research data indicate may be at the heart of various L1 use is teachers themselves. That is, the practices of teachers are no doubt a reflection of the fact they too had gone through the same education system as their students, and, especially with the younger teachers, have also been affected by the suspension of English, and, with some exceptions, perhaps also lack proficiency in the language they are teaching. One participant spoke about this issues:

“I suppose these teachers [younger teachers]... it can be said have bad linguistic foundations themselves” (A, 3, 30)

Additionally, teachers are working having had no training nor offered any CPD opportunities to develop their skills. They are using course material considered dated and difficult, and, one would expect, with a greater emphasis on the written form of language. All these aspects seemed to culminate into what the present study has revealed as excessive use of the L1. Here one may speculate that these teachers had received instruction based more on emphasis on the written form of language above the spoken form, and relying on traditional teaching methods with much reliance on the MT. The interviews highlighted this point, whereby one participant stated clearly that he “always” used translation as part of his teaching. When offering more detail, participant (S) spoke about explaining first in Arabic, then in English, following which he would give students sentences to translate to drill various points.

Here one is no doubt looking at the translation of disconnected sentences with the aim of simply teaching specific grammatical structure with much dependence on the use of the MT. A potential reflection of teaching based on experience as a learner and a teacher. Furthermore, having had the opportunity to look at some of the course books used in the department, this aspect of translation of disconnected sentence is something that I have knowledge of first hand and hence would expect to see practiced. One may suggest that this focus on the written form of language and the structures of written exams one may link with teachers’ own deficiency in the skill of speaking. A consideration in terms of language learning is that teachers’ focus on form, as was the case with participant (A) for example, through this kind of translation exercises may

hamper the improvement of students' speaking skills because of its emphasis on the understanding of grammatical rules.

In relation to the use of L1 in translation, one may also suggest that having at their disposal a shared L1 with their learners, teachers also find that this offers a convenient short cut with various aspects of language teaching. However, one needs to remember that teachers should not utilize translation merely as a time-saving device nor for simplifying things for the teacher or the students. That is not to say that appropriate use of translation does not have numerous advantages in an EFL classroom. Allford (1999) suggests that "translation activities which require close scrutiny of vocabulary, structure and discourse can sensitise learners to differences between the two languages that may be less apparent if all work is conducted in the target language" (p.231). Such gives rise to the significance of L1/L2 connection or associations, whereby L1 becomes a key in making sense of the foreign language. As Harbord (1992) says:

"It should be used to provoke discussion and speculation, to develop clarity and flexibility of thinking, and to help us increase our own and our student's awareness of the inevitable interaction between the mother tongue and the target language that occurs during any type of language acquisition" (p. 355).

However, as is evident thus far, it is improbable that this type of translation is taking place. In fact, the data highlighted the inappropriate use of translation and the consequence of this in creating a greater need for L1. An example here was when participant (A) spoke about a translation exercise including the phrase "good offices." This teacher stated that his students were all giving incorrect translations after referring to their dictionaries for the two words separately and argued that this forced him to resort to Arabic to support them through an explanation. In this instance, it may be suggested that this teacher had to turn

to Arabic to clarify further as a result of his choice of a translation exercise which in this case was beyond the level of his students. One may reason that generally speaking such similar situations created by questionable teaching practice would have overall created this much argued 'need' for L1 use.

Issues in teaching practices amounting to a greater need for L1 use I may illustrate further through the use of contrastive analysis. For example, participant (A) when discussing the use of contrastive analysis during the interview made apparent that what he was applying was its weak version (Wardhaugh, 1970).

He stated the following:

“During my first session with any group...I always ask students to write down anything about a topic of interest to them. I read these later and discover their weaknesses. I tend to try and employ contrastive analysis as part of my teaching” (A, 1, 10).

The weak version of contrastive analysis developed as a reaction to the criticism of the strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). The weak version of CA does not entail predicting possible difficulties that language learners could have. This version identifies impact of interference across languages, but it also stresses that linguistic difficulty are usefully explained after they have been noticed (Brown, 2014). This participant goes on to give more detail:

An example...transitive and intransitive ... lazim and mutaadi (transitive and intransitive in Arabic).

Within his grammar lessons, he reported making some efforts to compare and contrast L1 and L2. Here participant (A) spoke of the manner in which he utilized L1 to compares and contrasts if needs be.

“Well...in my example of transitive and intransitive...I would give the Arabic terms, examples and explanations in Arabic first then English” (A, 1, 11).

When he referred to explaining, he stated clearly here and on other occasions that such would be in Arabic. The benefit of contrastive analysis on pedagogical grounds has been the subject of interest for many authors. Schweers (1999) suggested that L2 may be learnt through awareness raising in terms of similarities and differences between the L1 and the target language. Atkinson (1987) and Harbord (1992) forwarded earlier similar views. Atkinson recommends that teachers offer a non -complex explanation or demonstration of a given rule after which students use a translation exercise to show where L1 and L2 are different structurally. He proposes use of translation of a paragraph encompassing known false cognates to nurture awareness of students to what could be confusing similarities between the two languages. Harbord (1992), in a similar line, finds these comparisons helpful in that they can raise students' awareness of the danger of single-word translation.

Clearly, the finding in regards use of CA may support arguments in favour of such a technique, yet one may argue that this does not in itself account for wide L1 practise as indicated by findings in the present study. Rather this would perhaps be more as a result of teachers' preferred teaching practices based on experience. Additionally, teacher proficiency in English may also be at play. This is particularly true in relation to grammar, whereby participants are generally of

the opinion that “grammar is a difficult subject” (M), and hence to attempt and deliver it mainly through the L2 may be setting a further personal challenge to the teachers.

One can also highlight the potential impact of course content, lack of teacher training and proficiency level as amounting to greater L1 use in relation to the teaching of the literature course. For example, two participants stated that the short stories and poems which they teach were completely beyond the level of most students, making the whole teaching experience extremely difficult. One would assume difficult for them and the learners. They stated that they used L1 and its cultural ideas to discuss target language cultural differences, for example:

“... you find lots of cultural points that you need to explain to them...you have to do this in Arabic...they say this, and we say this...they behave this way and we behave this way...there has to be a comparison...we are teaching in a different cultural context...right?” (H,2,38)

This finds support in the literature, however, factors specific to the Libyan context may be at play too. Cook (2001) highlight this aspect of the culture of the target language stating that L1 could be used to gain a greater understanding of the social and cultural conventions in the target language expressions display. Kim & Elder (2008) also state that L1 is useful to discuss the target culture. They argued that there exists a strong link between the two to the extent that they are difficult to separate and influence each other. Until more recent times the view has been that learning an L2 must be accompanied

by learning that L2's culture in terms of aspects such as habits, tradition, and customs and so on Valdes (1986).

Justifiably, the relationship between language and culture has been central in language research. During the early 20th century the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (Whorf, 1956) was developed detailing the manner in which language and culture are interconnected. This hypothesis details how language influences peoples' thoughts and how they conceptualize issues in life. In research, little attention would be offered to the strong version of the hypothesis; instead, within the field of language education a greater acceptance, though still under scrutiny, was for the weak version that considers the ability to speak a new language amounts to gaining a new perspective of the world in the mind of the learner (Blackmore, 2012). This would lead to the formation of a more dynamic outlook of the relationship between language and culture, which suggests utilizing L1 culture in the process of learning the target language culture.

Much research has stressed the notion that there is native culture (NC) interference and transfer. That is that the similarities and differences between the L1 and the L2 cultures may be beneficial in the study of language and culture (Moran 2001, et al.). Therefore, much research has been exploring the study of "cross-cultural", "intercultural", and "transcultural" notions intended to analyse the means by which the L1 culture could support learning the L2 culture (Brown, 2014). Participants' statements in the present study reveal a potential agreement with this, and hence one may propose that they would agree with Moran's (2001) position that at the heart of the culture learning experience is noticing the difference between L1 culture and L2 culture, and this is achieved with the aid of the MT in the present study. Learners generally perceive this

difference through their own culture. Hence, learners respond to the unknown using what they already know, their own culture and language as the frame of reference.

However, one may argue that even if participants' views were based on an interconnected interpretation of language and culture, whereby the teacher may be more inclined to use the MT to explain a cultural aspect stemming from the Arab culture, then one would expect that such would apply equally when discussing a cultural aspect from the foreign culture. Hence, you would assume a switch back to English when discussing aspects from the foreign culture. However, as participant (H) stated earlier, they are using Arabic in both instances. Here, since teachers are using Arabic to explain aspects from both cultures using the MT, the potential of an interconnected view of language and culture detailed above is questionable. Such practice may be indicative of the teachers' own preference for L1 use based on their proficiency level and the degree to which they have the confidence to go into a detailed explanation with relative ease in the TL. This is particularly challenging when considering the difficulty, in the teachers' view, of literary texts they deliver over the course of the year.

Finally, participants during the interviews pointed to affective reasons for their use of L1. This is in line with findings from chapter 4. The affective aspect associated with the use of L1 is highlighted through an example by participant (T): "...it's very comforting to know that the teacher speaks your language...so they feel calm" (2,22). Data also revealed that L1 made students feel comfortable within the class, and it enabled them to express themselves, to ask questions and seek clarification with ease, "...they can tell me if they don't

understand something. Otherwise, they would be confused.” (F, 3, 35). Here, the notion that communication apprehension can be lowered by permitting L1 use to enable learners to express their thoughts and ideas is supported by Brown (2014). In Al-Nofiaie’s study, students expressed that the use of Arabic can create a sense of comfort for them, thus falling in line with the argument that using L1 is a natural phenomenon (Nation, 2003; Harbord, 1992).

In addition, Meiring & Norman (2002: 32) point to the ‘comforting effect’ the use of L1 has on students as it allows them to relate learning to the familiar mother tongue. Amongst Schweers’s (1999) findings of a study conducted with EFL classes in Spain, 80% of students found the MT very useful in allowing them to feel a great confidence and comfort. Anxiety in terms of negative social evaluation is reduced through the use of L1 since learners are able to directly communicate with one another in a clear manner and so they can establish positive social impressions (Brown, 2014). This may, among other things, clarify why in both the present study and the previous one I found that students mainly used L1 amongst each other. One may speculate that by stressing the positive affective impact of L1 use for their students, participants were in a sense justifying this use but also indirectly indicating a comforting effect for themselves. That is, they would probably feel uncomfortable to communicate with their students in a language in which they were not highly proficient.

The data of the present study as discussed above revealed numerous functions for the use of L1 in line with other research within the field of ELT. When further elaborating on areas whereby participants deemed L1 use necessary, for example in literature, their justifications indicated that perhaps other aspects were at the heart of such L1 use. That is, considering that in practical terms the

use of L1 was clearly avoidable. Here I suggested that such aspects at play included teaching material, teacher training, and proficiency in the TL.

5.3.3 Teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1

In response to how the use of L1 made them feel, there was an agreement amongst the majority of participants that such use was undesirable and that teachers should avoid it. This was true even of those who used Arabic extensively in their teaching. This is clear from the following extracts:

Participant 1: "I tried not to use Arabic ..." (T,1,4).

Participant 2: "It was wrong (using Arabic)...what we were doing was wrong" (H,1,7).

Participant 3: "I don't use Arabic unless it is absolutely necessary" (AW,1,4).

Participant 4: "(use of Arabic) ... sort of handicaps them eventually going up further and progressing" (T, 2, 28).

As can be seen from the above extracts participants generally expressed a negative attitude towards the use of L1. They repeatedly expressed the view that teachers should use L2 more and tended to sound guilty in stating that they did not apply this fully, as illustrated in particular participant 2 above. Much research indicates that teachers experience a sense of guilt when using the students' L1 in the language classroom (Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009). Similarly, in Polio and Duff (1994) it is pointed out that "teachers have some sense that using the TL as much as possible is important" (p. 324). Here one

would agree with Cook's statement that "the assumption is.... the L2 is seen as positive, the L1 as negative..." (Cook, 2008:1).

Macaro (2006) reports that "the majority of bilingual teachers regard code switching as unfortunate and regrettable but necessary" (p. 68) thus far, it may be suggested that participants consider use of L1 as "a source of embarrassment....a recognition of failure to teach properly" (Prodromou, 2002:6). In a survey conducted by Auerbach (1993) at a statewide TESOL conference in the US focusing on ESL student use of L1, the findings revealed that 80% of teachers permitted some use of L1, but "They assigned a negative value to 'lapses' into the L1, seeing them as failures or aberrations, a cause of guilt" (p. 14).

However, as was illustrated in terms of frequency of L1 use above and in terms of the numerous functions as reported by participants, there is a clear contradiction. That is, despite such negative participant statements, teaching practices did not reflect this in terms of L1 use.

Similarly, numerous studies have revealed that although different teachers recognise the significance of L2 use, they generally still resort to the L1 to varying degrees (Duff & Polio, 1990; Macaro, 1995; Schweers, 1999). One may propose that concern about being considered as 'bad' teachers due to the wide use of L1 was evident through the whole defence presented for why they used Arabic and the extent to which they were using it as detailed in the previous sections; yet, as was discussed, many reasons forwarded by teachers weren't in themselves enough to justify such wide use.

Here, one may suggest a number of possibilities to explain this defence. The first is that they actually perceive this use as negative, for example by saying it could “handicap” them, and here one can only speculate how such a view was established. That is, it may be through contact with native English speaker teachers or through reading generally in the field, but no doubt not as a consequence of training, generally came to the view that such is considered ‘bad practice’ within the field of foreign language teaching. Hence, such use no doubt would amount to a sense of guilt, enhanced in this case by own limited proficiency in the TL, which is making such use unavoidable. Another possibility is that teachers don’t actually believe that the use of the MT is negative but feel obliged to say this because they have by some means come to the view that this is considered ‘bad practice’ within the field. Potentially one may also propose that they do not think of it negatively but feel a sense of guilt perhaps as a result of not using it in moderation, as one participant seemed to ‘confess,’ “To be honest ...I did use Arabic.... a lot” (H).

In regards the possibility that the teachers have come to view the use of L1 negatively, such may be indicative of the extent to which the influence the English-only position has had in different parts of the world. It may be reasonable to attribute such a potential position not some much on training but more as a result of some deep-rooted misconceptions about the English only view that has reached these participants through perhaps reading or interacting with teachers who have had training that stress such a notion (Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992).

The history of the notion of using English only in the classroom is analysed in an article by Auerbach (1993) entitled Re-examining English Only in the ESL

Classroom, in which the author traces it back to colonial and neo-colonial attitudes. This idea stresses that English is best taught monolingually, while any use of L1 would lead to an overall poorer level of English. She makes clear her view that both pedagogical and theoretical assumptions at the root of this practice ought to be challenged. Auerbach (1993) points out that “monolingual ESL instruction in the US has as much to do with politics as with pedagogy” (p. 14). That its roots are very much traced back to invisible ideological roots that amount to linguistic imperialism, which in turn was, in her opinion, the main post-colonial strategy, a point agreed upon by Phillipson (1992).

According to Auerbach (1993), “evidence from research and practice is presented which suggest that the rationale used to justify English only in the classroom is neither conclusive nor pedagogically sound” (p. 5). Auerbach also disapproves of the point that using the mother tongue leads to a feeling of guilt due to pre-set notions. She argues that teachers are well aware of the facilitating role L1 can play, and so should be free to make appropriate decisions about its use within the classroom. On a similar line of thought to Auerbach, Cook also emphasizes the role played by commercial and political interest in English only instruction in his first chapter of *Translation in Language Teaching*. Cook also raises the point that the attack on the Grammar Translation method in the 19th century raised demand for natural teaching methods, highlighting the spoken skill over the written skill and led to a rejection of MT and translation.

Butzkamm (2003) suggests that there may be a covert reason why there has been an emphasis on L2 use, that English-only policy and its application is linked to the large numbers of native English language speaking teachers who find comfort in “the dogma of monolingualism” especially since they don’t speak

the language of their students (Butzkamm, 2003:2). He also adds that the large-scale economic production of textbooks in Anglo-American countries plays a role in furthering this quest for monolingualism within the field of FL teaching. The mere possibility that participants believe that notions are either true on some level or that they are aware to some degree of their significance within the field of ELT is indicative of the influence and widespread of these notions. In either case, such could have contributed to the clear contradiction between attitude and practice among participants.

5.4 Conclusion

The present qualitative data analysis shows wide use of L1, which served various functions. Attitude was a complex area to explore since participants' stated attitude and practices contradicted. Participants reported high L1 use which they based on issues linked to the public Libyan education system and administration. However, analysis of the data revealed issues with lack of teacher training and proficiency levels among teachers as potentially underlying this high use. Findings also showed various pedagogical functions for L1; however, I also suggested that factors related to course content, lack of training, and teacher proficiency level in the TL may have influenced such uses of L1.

Finally, the present study's findings in relation to teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 reveal an overall negative attitude. Interesting here was the contradiction between extent and functions of L1 use with attitude. Here I made the suggestions that participants were simply saying what they have come to believe others consider 'good practice'; another possibility was that they do view

this use negatively but are restricted by own proficiency in the TL; finally, they don't generally consider it 'bad' but feel guilty for recognising its excessive use.

Both the present study and the previous one conducted with EFL students at Benghazi University, reported in chapter four, revealed various similar findings linked with the frequency and function of L1 use by both students and teachers. An important point that was established through the present study in relation to the previous one is the probability that Group A students and their teacher's practice in terms of wide L1 use was more representative of the population than group B, whose teacher was a native English speaker relying less on L1.

According to participants in the present study, numerous challenges within the department force them to use L1 widely. This argument, which may be regarded as a defence in pursuit of justifying wide L1 use, details how the department receives large numbers of generally poor level students from high schools used to learning based on memorizing, a focus on exam results and teacher over-reliance on Arabic. In addition, these students were usually placed together in groups despite variance in proficiency levels and that teachers work with limited resources with what they described during the interviews as dated and challenging course content, beyond the level of the majority of students. Participants added that such amounts to huge numbers of university graduates whose competence is questionable, who go directly to schools with no real, practical and thorough teacher training and simply start teaching. This, one would suggest, could equally apply to participants themselves considering they have gone through the same system.

There was some reference to exceptions mainly amongst the student who attended private language courses. However, here I reasoned that this was an opportunity for teachers to show awareness of what they viewed as regarded 'good practice' in terms of use of L2, and how difficulties within the university context constrained them in this regard. The extent to which teaching practices differed in private language colleges is difficult to ascertain, but given wide L1 use in the university, such may well be questionable. One may argue that teachers were reinforcing the point that the high L1 use is not their 'fault' based perhaps on a belief that outsiders would regard this as negative. Another point highlighted was even should a teacher aspire to initiate change within the department with the aim of altering factors that lead to high L1 use, such would be fruitless; for example in terms of course content as illustrated by participant (A). Additionally, the comment made by (AW) illustrated how there is a feeling of isolation and perhaps even resentment among participants in the department. Such, one would assume, has created a sense of apathy amongst teachers as regards the whole current situation.

The present study also highlighted numerous pedagogical functions for the use of L1. These included that it provided support in the teaching of complex grammar points, to give instructions, to manage students, to save time, to deal with cross-cultural aspects, to ensure comprehension and for affective reasons. However, after exploring further areas of L1 use among participants, it became apparent to me that participants could have easily avoided such use. Hence, I made suggestion that for example, in the case of the teaching of grammar and literature the use of L1 was not indispensable. Here I reasoned that aspects

linked with the difficulty of course content, as well as the lack of teacher training and proficiency, could have been more influential in the wide use of the L1.

As for the last point that I investigated, attitudes towards L1 use, here my data revealed a negative view of the use of L1 amongst participants. In reflecting on the practices of the majority of participants, however, I concluded that there was a clear contradiction. That is, within the university even what participants referred to as “weaning” following the second semester did not eliminate the teachers’ willingness to turn to L1 if needed. Here I suggested that such a contradiction may be due to the possibility that participants feel this use is negative, though one can only speculate how such a view was established, and feel bad about it but are limited in their practices due to proficiency issues in the TL. A second suggestion proposed was that teachers were not actually of the opinion that the use of the MT is negative but felt under pressure to say so based on a conceived opinion that such is generally considered ‘bad practice’ with the field of ELT. A final proposal was that participants do not think of the use of L1 negatively but feel guilty for using it excessively.

Analysis of findings in the present chapter has revealed specific factors that were at the heart of L1 use. The most prominent of which was a lack of teacher training, the issue of teachers’ proficiency level in the TL, and course content. However, at this point, it is important to note that findings in the present study and the previous one (chapter 4) have been based on self-report accounts which may lack objectivity. Hence, in the next chapter I present a more fine-grained analysis of actual teaching practice based on classroom observation.

**Chapter 6: Classroom observations for patterns of L1 use
among Libyan EFL teachers and students**

6.0

Introduction

In this chapter, I will explore the issue of MT use within Libyan HE further by expanding on findings from the previous two studies, as well as seeking emergent data in relation to the issue. The first study was based on quantitative student questionnaires, the second qualitative teacher interviews. In the present study, I aim to investigate through direct observations how much teachers and students use L1 within the EFL classroom and reasons for this use. The method that I selected for this study is classroom observations, undertaken with the view that data from direct observation could contrast with, and potentially complement information obtained by other techniques. This method will allow me to explore the issue of MT further within the Libyan EFL classroom in a manner that overcomes any inherent weakness of the self-report techniques, which I utilized in the first two studies.

Since observations allow the researcher the opportunity to see what happens in the classroom and do not rely entirely on what participants say they do, hence, in Dorneyi's (2007) terms, "such data can provide a more objective account of events and behaviours than second-hand self-report data" (p. 185). Additionally, observations are invaluable in terms of providing highly descriptive contextual information about the research setting. Given "the formidable task of documenting the complexity of classroom reality," it was considered necessary to attempt and create some form of structure to my observations through the use of semi-structured schemes, however, attempting at the same time not to lose sight of the emergent nature of the investigation (Dorneyi, 2007:185).

Overall, I considered essential to conduct observations in Libya, as they would offer the issue greater depth and richness, permitting potential for new insights and perspectives.

This chapter is structured as follows: 6.1 presents ethical considerations for the study, Section 6.2 details the methodological tools and procedures utilized; these include observation scheme, 6.2.1, audio recording, 6.2.2, post-observation note making, 6.2.3, and a description of the data analysis process, 6.2.4, which draws on both qualitative and quantitative techniques; Section 6.3 shows the results; Section 6.4 presents a discussion of findings in relation to the study aims and literature in the field, offering various potential interpretations of the results. This section is divided into teachers' frequency of L1 use, 6.4.1, teachers' functions of L1 use, 6.4.2, and students' frequency and function of L1 use, 6.4.3. Section 6.4 will offer an overall concluding section for this chapter.

6.1 Ethics

Regarding ethical consideration, I supplied participants with information about the procedures and, in general terms, the purposes of the research. Withholding some information is acceptable if certain conditions are met. These include that partial disclosure is vital to the research aims, and that following completion of the study I would debrief participants (Iphofen, 2011). These conditions were met in the present research. I did not disclose detailed information about exact purposes of the study to participants at the beginning of the research as I deemed this necessary for the validity of data. That is, I expected that should I disclose all details this could affect the extent to which participants use L1 in my

presence as a researcher. I advised participants ahead of time that the study is about foreign language teaching and learning and that the specific features of it I will detail to them after the study. Also, I reassured participants of confidentiality and anonymity through withholding personal information in the process of data collection. As such, I used numbers rather than names for all participants, both teachers and student. With consent from the teachers, we also agreed that my presence as a researcher I would not disclose to student till after I complete observations. I decided this in an attempt to avoid potential effect on students that my presence may otherwise cause.

6.2 Methodology

I gathered data for the present research in two ways: four direct classroom observations and three audio recording of different classes (see Table 1). The classroom observations made possible the direct, systematic, and principled covering of specific areas of interest during and after observations (Nunan, 1992). I pre-planned and carried out observations purposefully to serve the specific research questions and objectives in relations to the extent of L1 use and various functions of this use for teachers and students. Due to time constraints, it was not possible for me to undertake more than four direct classroom observations while in Libya, however, it was able to gather further data through audio recordings with the support of colleagues. This had the additional advantage of being less intrusive than the presence of a researcher, hence a good possibility of presenting a typical lesson.

In the following table, I show the total number of classes used in the present study indicating with a tick the three classes which were only audio recorded and the four which I observed and audio recorded.

Table 7

| Lesson | Observed | Audio recorded |
|--------|----------|----------------|
| 1 | | ✓ |
| 2 | | ✓ |
| 3 | ✓ | ✓ |
| 4 | ✓ | ✓ |
| 5 | ✓ | ✓ |
| 6 | ✓ | ✓ |
| 7 | | ✓ |

A significant feature of my data collection method is that it does not depend entirely on what participants say they do but rather what is documented. Here I collected data from the observed classes through three instruments: observational schemes, audio recording, and note taking. I deemed it crucial to reflect on how to employ the three instruments to document the observations in a fashion that meets the purpose of the present research in an efficient manner. To this end, it was first necessary to consider the degree of observer participation as well as observer bias and ways to overcome these as much as possible.

Additionally, it was essential for me to consider the time necessary to conduct the observations. Hence, in the following section I will detail features of the data collection instruments, as well as potential difficulties.

The first aspect that I discuss here is the degree of observer participation. Observations may be undertaken either through participant or nonparticipant observation. The former involves observing and documenting activities within a class without involvement. The observer aims to, “to remain aloof and distant and to have little or no contact with the subjects of the research” (Burns, 1999:82). Participant observation, on the other hand, involves direct observer participation within the classroom. This form of observation has been criticised on the ground that such involvement could lead the participant to lose sight of those observed and their activities (Merriam, 1998). However, in a teacher centred classroom such as the Libyan one (as was detailed in chapter 3), little benefit would arise from participating with students who are generally passive. Rather, I am more likely to collect rich data through observing both teachers and students.

I also considered the possibility of conducting the classes myself, but this had the difficulty of time restraints and importantly that my aim of observing both students and teacher’ use of L1 would not be met. Hence, I decided to conduct nonparticipant observations to extract as much relevant data as possible and overcome the possibility of becoming too involved in the classroom processes potentially losing focus on particular behaviours and activities.

Further issues that I had to consider before undertaking the observations may fall under the heading reactivity; this refers to situations where a person’s behaviour is different when they know they are being observed, or that their behaviour is being studied than it would otherwise be. Also, when the person expectations about what the study is about can change their responses to the demands of the situation. An example of this is the Hawthorne effect, first termed

by observers at the Hawthorne, Chicago branch of the Western Electric Company. It was reported that in the presence of the researcher the productivity of workers was higher, irrespective of any positive working condition changes. Attention given to the workers was in itself enough to positively affect their behaviour (Dornyei, 2007).

Reactivity of participants can also refer to situations where individuals alter their behaviour to conform to the expectations of the observer. Hence, with observational research, it may be difficult to be confident that the observed classes are the same as they would be without the observation. Although it has been suggested that reactivity could decline after a while of observations (John and Turner, 2003), yet time restrictions limited such a possibility in the present research. However, to overcome effects caused by the presence of the researcher it was important to consider ways to minimize reactivity as much as possible. In so doing, the options were either not informing participants that I was observing them, that is an unobtrusive observation; the other option was withholding the real purpose of conducting the study from participants. Hence, the decision taken was to inform participant teachers of the research aims in general terms only. This was grounded on the possibility that participant awareness in relation to the specific point of the use of Arabic would have potentially run the risk of some alteration in the teachers' behaviour.

To minimize any effect on student behaviour, I deemed it necessary to withhold the reasons for my presence from them altogether. Teachers' consents were given that my role as a researcher would not be disclosed to students until the end of all observations. Throughout the present phase of data collection, the risks linked to being an obtrusive observer had to be kept in mind so as not to

cause any interferences to the lessons and hence ensure that the events observed are typical behaviour. To further attempt and avoid causing any possible disturbance to the usual classroom procedure, I ensured early arrival and set up of audio-recording and paperwork before student and teacher arrival. I also positioned myself appropriately and chose to sit at the back, with students to my right and left, making sure I caused no disturbance through either noise or movement or any other manner to the usual classroom procedure.

A further issue associated with observations is the observer bias

It is important to realize from the outset that our preconceptions about what goes on in the classroom will determine what we see. It is extremely difficult (some would say impossible) to go into a classroom and simply observe what there is in an objective way without bringing to the observation prior attitudes and beliefs (Nunan, 1989: 76).

Hence, it was essential to be mindful that like many researchers, I would be bringing my own viewpoints and background potentially affecting what I see in an observation. It is thus suggested that the researcher attempts to remain non-judgmental and check their own biases as much as possible (Dornyei, 2007). In the present study, I feel that I was able to accomplish this through a descriptive and detailed note taking process; additionally, I minimized the threat of bias as observations involved using low inference structured observational scheme. Finally, I further limited the potential of researcher bias in the analysis as I transcribed all the recorded data, and not a particular section, allowing me a thorough reflection of the content of all lessons.

The next point that I considered was the length of observations. Generally, this point is largely determined by the objectives and questions of the research.

Almost often the duration of observation depends on the objectives and questions of the research. Generally, “There is no ideal amount of time to spend observing” (Merriam, 1998:98). A distinction is made between, “single observation of limited duration and multiple observations” (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003:452). No doubt, a greater amount of time spent observing would yield data which is better and more reliable, though the extent to which this is possible is questionable (Flick, 2006). This aspect of my research was determined to an extent by time spent in Libya. However, I did not restrict my data collection to this time as I involved other teachers in recording classroom data without my presence in the classroom (see Table 1). This had advantage of eliminating any potential impact on participants because of my presence in the classroom. Hence, I did not restrict the process of collecting the necessary data to my time in Libya, but rather once I gathered sufficient amount of data for analysis.

6.2.1 Observational scheme

My next point of consideration was how best to document the observation within the classroom in an organized and reliable manner. The first of the three instrument that I used is the observation scheme (Appendix 7). In preparing this data collection method, I had to consider the potential of creating or adapting an existing scheme from numerous ones available. As generally recommended in research methods, it is less time consuming to adapt and work with an existing scheme with attention paid to how well suited it is to the task (Nunan, 1992). Another aspect of consideration is the level of inference of a given scheme. That is, they may be a low inference, or high inference or both. High-inference

categories are those that require judgments, such as in relation to the function or meaning of an observed event. Among the more widely used schemes are the Target Language Observation Scheme (TALOS; Ullman & Geva, 1985), the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching, COLT (Spada and Frohlich, 1995), and Nunan's scheme (Nunan, 1989).

I deemed Nunan's scheme as most appropriate for my research goals. Nunan's (1989) scheme was appropriate due to its category system and level of inference. In this scheme, as most observation schemes, the observer marks the frequency of observed behaviour, either employing a category or sign system. The latter documents events at regular time intervals while the former every time an event/behaviour happens. The latter was more appropriate in relation to my research questions, which needed to document functions of L1 every time they occurred. The categories that I used in the scheme were guided by my findings from previous research detailed in chapters 4 and 5.

These categories included the use of L1 to maintain control of the class, use of L1 to establish constructive social relationships, use of L1 to communicate complex meaning to ensure understanding. Through adapting the scheme, I ensured that it met needs of the research questions since observation schemes can produce valid findings only when they are appropriate and applicable to the research question. Hence, during my observations the teachers continued teaching while I gathered classroom activities using an adapted version of Nunan's observation scheme including the four categories of specific areas of teacher uses of L1, as well as an additional section counting occurrences of students' use of L1. No doubt, the highly structured nature of the scheme offered

me a clear focus on the research questions but comparison of L1 use among different teachers and learners within different groups.

6.2.2 Field notes

In the present research, I also wrote notes after the observations of any points of interest to the research questions. However, before embarking on the process of note taking it was important to consider how to accomplish this successfully, ensuring that the field notes were as clear and accurate as possible. To achieve this, I needed to include two sections; one descriptive, accurately documenting factual data, the setting, behaviours, actions and observed conversations. The second section consisted of reflective information, in which I detailed ideas, questions, as well as any issues recorded as observation are being conducted and immediately after.

I attempted to ensure a good level of description in my notes to document the observations. That is, I endeavoured to supply myself with sufficient factual data to overcome any incorrect assumptions regarding meaning during the report writing up stage. Here, for example, I described the classroom, the way students and teacher interacted, and student-student interacted, and non-verbal communication. It was also crucial to describe any impact I had and was able to observe on the class. Though, there may have been instances whereby I was not aware of such an impact.

In addition, it was crucial that all notes focused on the research problem. Since one cannot document all events observed, it was essential to include as much detail as possible relevant to the research aims. Here I attempted to limit

detailing any irrelevant information, though this process is inevitably itself selective and amounts to some assumptions being made. Furthermore, while writing, I kept considering potential underlying meaning of the observations and recorded such ideas. Following the observations, I wrote reflective notes which included insights about what I observed and speculation on reasons for these. In addition, reflective notes allowed for thoughts that arose regarding any future observations.

6.2.3 Audio recording

The final data collection instrument that I used was audio-recordings during my time within the Libyan classes and through the support of colleagues while I was not present in the classes. It was necessary to use audio recording since this is the safest way to ensure I do not miss out important data during the transcription process. No doubt, verbal data provided me the opportunity to listen carefully to and think of digitally recorded data. I considered it important to get a clear recording allowing me an easier and faster transcription process. Certainly, the accuracy of the transcribed transcript is also highly dependent on the quality of the recording. Poorly recorded observations may run the risk of having more errors and being incomplete due to them being inaudible. Therefore, the audio recordings for the present research were placed onto a smart device pretested in a pilot recording of a similar setting. Recordings were made for both the direct observations and the other classes conducted with the assistance of colleagues. Following observations, I emailed recordings, transferred them onto a laptop, and filed them to protect the data for later use.

6.2.4 Data analysis

In the present study, the data which I analysed included observational schemes, classroom recordings, and notes. I pre-categorized the observational scheme based on my findings from the quantitative study with students in chapter 4 and the qualitative study with teachers in chapter 5. The scheme I used allowed for tallying of event occurrence every time a category was hit for both teachers and students. To allow me ease of analysis of this data as well as to compare it with findings from earlier research, I calculated total percentages and charts of frequency for each category in every scheme. I undertook this for both student and teachers separately. However, statistical indicators such as those presented in the tallies lacked potential for in-depth analysis such as those provided by qualitative inquiry. This I overcame through the other two data analysis methods.

I analysed observations following the data analysis methods in qualitative research. It is upheld that qualitative data analysis involves three distinctive activities. These include discovering, coding, and discounting data (Taylor and Bodgan, 1998). The audio recordings were first transformed into contextual data through a transcription process. This was undertaken following a careful consideration of the interpretive as well as representational aspects of transcription. At the interpretive level, what one transcribed is the main focus; while at the representational level, the actual transcription process is central. On the interpretative level, with the intention of making my interpretation as neutral as possible, I deemed it necessary to transcribe all the content of the recordings.

On the representational level, I deemed it necessary to use as much detail as possible. Ultimately, data sought in the present study involved the frequency and function of L1 use within the Libyan classroom; however, it was also essential to allow room for new and emergent data. This entailed creating as detailed transcripts as possible, this made possible highlighting the points of interest for the present research and allowing for an in-depth understanding of such findings within the context. Such an approach to transcription allowed a more accurate analysis of the data.

In the coding process, I achieved my aim of establishing frequency and function of L1 use by reading the transcripts carefully. I colour coded all L1 teacher and students' utterances. I followed this by a close reading which allowed me to discover and highlight areas relevant to the research questions in relation to frequency and function of L1 use. Furthermore, I highlighted any emergent data and assigned it codes relevant to the specific points found (see table 1&2 for codes used). During this coding process, I identified each utterance in L1 as either originating with a teacher (T) or a student (S). In the second part of analysis, I went back to those various sections which I highlighted in respect of the use of Arabic and coded them according to their function in relation to either pre-determined categories or as emergent. Every time I marked a function, I wrote it onto a separate sheet and abbreviated it, and this abbreviation I used as part of the coding process. I identified a final list of functional categories through reading and rereading the transcription and categorising L1 utterances and their purposes. I made some modifications to the initial coding scheme to show the purposes of the L1 statements presented in the data. My final coding

scheme contained ten main functional categories for teachers and 7 for students.

Tables 1&2 in the results section shows all the categories that I generated from the data along with definitions and examples for teachers and students. To determine the amount of L1 used, first I carried out a word count of all L1 and L2 words, then I calculated the proportion of L1 used in each class and turned it into an overall percentage. Hence, the coding I used indicated transcript number, page number, teacher/student utterance, function, and frequency. Emergent here was the overwhelming amount that participant teachers spent talking, though expected within this context (as detailed in Chapter 3), perhaps not to the level documented; this was also deemed noteworthy, and a count of total teacher talk time counted.

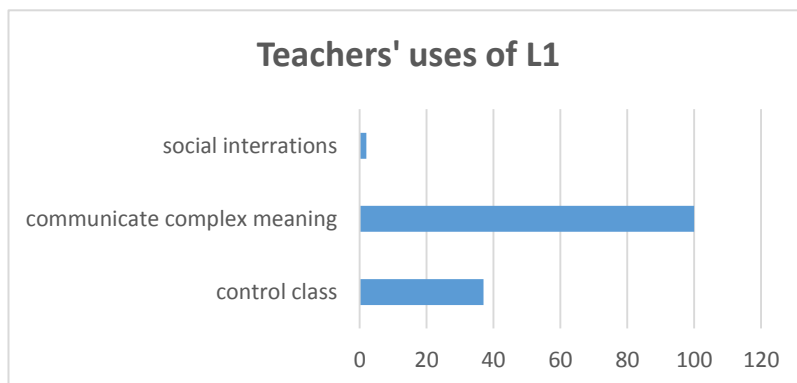
An additional stage in my analysis process of the observed classes involved supplementing the transcripts with the field notes, which were mainly descriptive. Following the observations, I typed up field notes and then read them carefully to allow for post-observation reflections and interpretations. During the first stage of careful reading, I highlighted points of interest and those most relevant to the research questions and made a decision as to which of the areas investigated they may add to. Also important in terms of analysis here is any emergent data.

6.3 Results

In Chart 3 below, I show the total tallies for teachers' uses of L1 in the total talk time (TTT) for the three categories investigated. As is clear from the chart, the

most frequent use of Arabic was communicating complex meaning to ensure understanding. This I tallied 100 times over the observations, which is equivalent to 71.9% of L1 used of TTT. The second most recorded category was the use of L1 to control the class. This category I tallied 38 times, equivalent to 26.7% of the instances of TTT. The least tally number that I recorded was for the use of L1 in establishing constructive social relations, this I tallied only two times, equivalent to 1.4% of instances of TTT.

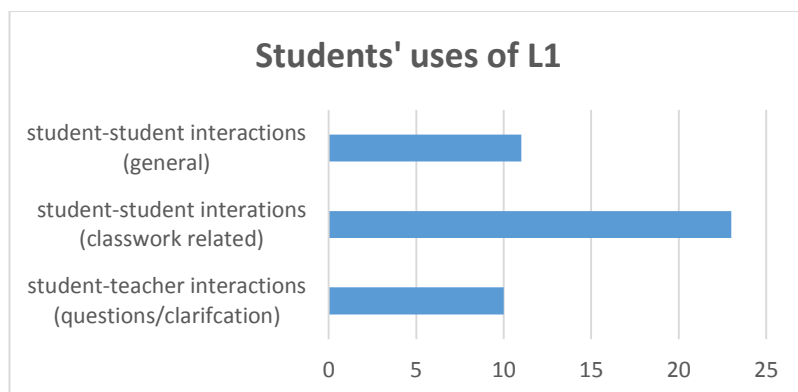
Chart 3



In Chart 4 below I show tally results for students' of L1 in the total talk time (TTT). It reveals that the highest category documented was 27, equivalent to 54% of instances of TTT, and this was for student classwork related interactions. The other two results were similar in number, general student-student interactions

totalling 12, equivalent to 25% of instances of TTT, and student-teacher interactions (asking/clarifications) 10, equivalent 20.8 % of instances of TTT.

Chart 4



Frequency:

In Table 8 below, I show percentages of the frequency of teachers' L1 and L2 use in TTT. The table also reveals percentages of total TTT. Here it is evident that there are variations, with five teachers using L1 between 31 and 85% of TTT. The other extreme was exhibited by two teachers, one in class 1 and the other in class 2, through the use of 100% L2 of TTT.

Table 8

Teachers' use of L1, L2, and TTT

| Class | T-L1 (%) | T-L2 (%) | TTT (%) |
|-------|----------|----------|---------|
| 1 | 0 | 100 | 89 |
| 2 | 0 | 100 | 99 |
| 3 | 73 | 27 | 92 |

| | | | |
|---|----|----|----|
| 4 | 85 | 15 | 92 |
| 5 | 31 | 68 | 78 |
| 6 | 40 | 60 | 79 |
| 7 | 40 | 60 | 84 |

*T-L1- teacher use of Arabic T-L2- teacher use of English TTT- total teacher talk time

In Table 9 below, I show students' frequency of L1 and L2 use. The table shows that students used L1 between 10 to 48% of total student talk time. It also shows that over the seven lessons students used L2 more than L1, with figures of 62 to 85% of total student talk time.

Table 9

Students' use of L1 and L2

| Class | S-L1 (%) | S-L2 (%) |
|-------|----------|----------|
| 1 | 40 | 64 |
| 2 | 0 | 1 |
| 3 | 20 | 80 |
| 4 | 10 | 89 |
| 5 | 36 | 63 |
| 6 | 10 | 90 |
| 7 | 8 | 92 |

*S-L1 – student use of Arabic S-L2 – student use of English

6.4 Discussion

In the present study, I set out to explore further the frequency and function of L1 use among Libya teachers and students within a higher education context. My results in terms of frequency of L1 use among teachers highlighted wide range which was 0 to 85%. However, Arabic constituted a high percentage of the majority of instances of total teachers' talk time (TTT) in what was an overall high instances of TTT. I linked teachers' use of L1 with ten functions including to explain grammar, to translate, to define, to offer instruction to exercises, to check comprehension, to control the class, to praise, to respond to student questions, to evaluate students, and for affective reasons.

The students' frequency of L1 use also varied between 8 and 40% of total student talk time (STT), while that of L2 was high accounting for 63 to 92% of total (STT). My findings revealed that the highest L1 use was for students exposed to 100% L2 and that L1 was used less among students in groups where teachers used L1 between 31 and 85% of total (TTT) time. Students' results revealed seven functions for the use of L1, which included to ask for definitions, to respond to questions, to confirm own understanding, to express concern, to translate, to discuss class work within a group and finally to chat generally with other classmates.

Results of the present study reveal similarities with the previous two studies conducted with teachers and students in chapters 4 and 5. In chapter 4, for example, 78% of students stated that their teachers used Arabic to explain difficult ideas; and 60% of students said that their teacher uses Arabic to discipline. In addition, in the open-ended items, students stated their teacher

uses Arabic widely to define new words, to teach grammar and to support less proficient students. Furthermore, students felt strongly about the need to use Arabic when communicating with each other. Findings of teacher interviews in Chapter 5 further indicated various functions similar to the ones presented in the present study such as to give instructions, to explain, and to teach grammar. Also, their use of L1 also encompassed the affective factor, for example, one participant remarked that Arabic helped students feel “more relaxed” at certain points during the class. Teachers also added the need to offer support and encouragement to students through the use of Arabic. The majority of teachers also stated that there was a high degree of Arabic use amongst students when interacting with each other. Interesting to note regarding teacher negative attitude highlighted in chapter 5, is that the present study clearly confirms that, with two exceptions, such was not reflected in their practices regarding wide L1 use.

6.4.1 Frequency of teachers’ use of L1

The present study revealed some extreme variations in terms of frequency of L1 use amongst participants, but the majority did use it. Some research into the use of L1 in language classrooms examined its extent and function (Duff & Polio, 1990; Edstrom, 2006). This study shows that there is a wide variance among language teachers. In Duff and Polio’s (1990) study at the University of California, it was revealed that L1 was used between 0 to 90% of the time. Edstrom investigated the use of Spanish in a US university and found it ranged from 7 to 70%. Despite this variance, results revealed that for the majority of

participants Arabic was used to some degree, with two exceptions who excluded such use completely. No doubt, how much L1/L2 is used within an EFL classroom is determined by numerous aspects; however, within the present study such I may link with some particular theoretical perspectives, teachers' background, and training and due to specific aspects of the Libyan teaching context.

Generally, in regards, the teachers' perception of the value of L1, Macaro (1997) presented three potential positions which encapsulate some fundamental claims in the debate regarding teacher language choices in language classrooms. These include the virtual, maximal, and optimal positions. The 'virtually all' position sees no value in the use of the L1 and stresses its avoidance. The 'maximal' position is also unfavourable towards the use of L1 but is less extreme than the virtual position. The third perspective, the 'optimal' view, consider some pedagogical benefits to the use fo the L1, and therefore, acknowledges its role to a greater degree than the other two positions. One may add that findings of the present study indicate the potential of a fourth position, which is use L1 either all the time or as much as possible. The other extreme who used 100% L2, would perhaps be more in line with the virtual position.

As stated above, the present study revealed that two teachers represented an extreme stand, unexpected within this context, on the use of L1 through a practice of 100% TL use within their classes (Lessons no. 1 & 2). Although this was a small number, but due to the extreme difference they present it is important to reflect on their practices in some detail. It is essential to note that these participants were non-Libyan native English speakers, though they do speak Arabic, and trained outside Libya. A repeated phrase recorded in Lesson

no. 1 was “English please.” This leads one to consider their view on L1 use as potentially influenced by previous training with theoretical underpinning favouring less or no L1. Additionally, another factor at play could be the teachers’ proficiency level in Arabic. Stern (1983) forwarded a model for learning and teaching identifying the teacher and learner within the language classroom as the two main actors. Various factors, including previous education, age, personal characteristics, influenced teacher’s practices. Additionally, the teacher’s language background, as well as the level of training received both as a teacher and as a linguist, all have a bearing on their practices. To these is added previous language teaching experience and to a large degree framed theoretical assumptions about language, and the process of language learning and teaching.

In terms of some theoretical influences on these teachers’ practices, first, one can make the assumption that they are of the view that L1 and L2 acquisition are fundamentally alike. Here the suggestion is learners do not need conscious learning of the L2 (Chambers, 1992). These arguments one can trace back to the naturalistic approaches to language teaching with much focus on the notion of immersion in L2 environments (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). An additional point is linked with Krashen’s input hypothesis stressing the need for maximal comprehensible input to achieve successful L2 acquisition (Krashen, 1978). If such is not undertaken, the risk would be depriving the learners of valuable target language input. Another perspective regards the separation of the L1 and the target language as essential. This is associated with the potential of negative transfer taking place. These ideas have provided some support for the exclusion

of L1 in the L2 classroom, though have been subject to questioning, particularly in more recent times.

Even with the development and dominance of the more recent communicative approach, in what is regarded as a post-communicative, a post-method era the general status of the MT has not improved considerably (Swan, 1985a, 1985b; Ur, 1996). The total exclusion of L1 among participants in the present study may indicate some theoretical influences stemming from similar arguments that view L1 as having a negative impact on the learning of the L2. The other potential reason for such an exclusion of L1 could be the teachers' lack of proficiency in Arabic, at least comparable to that of their students. Such could have inclined these teachers to avoid the use of the L1. This finding could open up the possibility that proficiency of teachers in their students' L1 plays an important role in TL and L1 use in the classroom.

On the other hand, the practices of the majority of participants in the present study revealed the use of L1 between 31 and 85% of the time which may be associated with some factors. Within the Libyan EFL context, the principle actors are also influenced by various similar factors to those suggested by Stern (1983). These have a clear impact on what goes on within the classroom, an important component of which is the extent of L1 use. Although the practices of participants in the present study may be viewed as stemming from some particular theoretical stance such as that of the optimal position, it is more likely that at the root of such use is teachers' background in language teaching, lack of teacher training, proficiency in English, and characteristics of the Libyan EFL classroom. However, despite such a likelihood, one cannot discount the possibility that some participants may be of the view that the monolingual

approach is not best suited in this particular contexts and that, according to Harmer (2001) “there is little point in trying to stamp [L1] out completely” (p. 132). Such would be based on the notion that exposure alone without the aid of L1 jeopardises potential of attaining “comprehensible input” and hence acquisition (Cook, 2001).

Despite the argument that mother tongue use denies language learners of exposure to the TL, one may suggest that TL instruction ought to be systematic if it is to be effective. Thus, at times, TL use may form an obstacle to understanding and, consequently, to learning. Here the argument is that it is crucial to provide learners the opportunity to “understand both what is meant (the message) and how it is said (syntactical transparency)” (Butzkamm, 2003:35).

Other more probable aspects at play in shaping the extent teachers’ L1 use in the present study are those pointed to earlier, lack of teacher training, proficiency level in English for teacher and the preferred teaching and learning style of the Libyan EFL classroom. As detailed in chapter 3, Libyan teachers do not get the necessary training or continuing professional development opportunities during their teaching careers (Sawani, 2009). Such would lead one to assume that their teaching practices, a significant part of which is the degree of L1 use, are very much shaped by their experiences as learners and from their experiences within the classroom as teachers. I highlighted in chapter three that within the Libyan EFL classroom L1 plays a large role. Hence, the participant teachers would have no doubt have themselves as learners been exposed to teaching which relies heavily on its use. Therefore, they go on to teach the way they were taught.

The second point that I explored here is the potential association between teachers' proficiency level in English and their use of Arabic. I suggested that L1 use especially for teachers who used it over 80% of the time, may be attributed to their lack of proficiency in the L2. One can propose, among other possibilities, for example, the culture of teaching and learning in Libya explored next, that such was due to their unwillingness to appear foolish in the presence of others.

The final point that I explored is the influence of characteristics of the Libyan EFL classroom on the frequency of teachers' use of L1. That is, in terms of the assumed teacher-student roles as well as the nature of teaching practices within the Libyan EFL classroom. Within the Libyan context, Sawani (2009) argues that teachers' and learners' beliefs and culture of learning also limit the potential for in class activities and nurtures a greater L1 use. Significant here are characteristics of the Libyan EFL classroom in relation to the role of the teacher and student and expectations of teachers and students. This has a crucial role in regards the extent of L1/L2 use.

Libyan students come to the classroom with the expectation that the teacher, who is considered as the main source of knowledge, would impart the required information, and teachers expect them to accept and learn such information. In Abushafa's (2014) study, one participant described how her students were clearly worried and openly complained when she tried to introduce interactive practices in her university English classes. Some Libyan researchers, for example, Aldabbus (2008) and Orafi (2008), also believe that EFL Libyan teachers and students are largely influenced by the silent culture of learning, particularly true of female students.

One may view the Libyan culture, similar to other Arab contexts, in accordance with Hofstede's framework. Although his work has seen some criticism, Jones (2007) argues that "the majority of his findings, have weathered the storms of time, and will continue to guide multi-national practitioners into the 'global' future" (p. 2). No doubt his work presents significant insights into various aspects of the dynamics of cross-cultural relationships. Hofstede's framework entailed four dimensions: Power Distance, Individualism vs. Collectivism, Masculinity vs. Femininity and Uncertainty Avoidance. These dimensions were considered after the results of an attitude investigation undertaken with International Business Machines (IBM) employees in seventy-one different countries (Hofstede, 2002). These involved some Arabic countries including Libya. He maintained that each dimension influenced how people behaved in different social settings including education. Looking at the Gulf Arab culture, it was found that there exists a large power distance and in terms of education such equates to a teacher centred preference, and student expectation that teachers outline learning paths.

Furthermore, this context expects teachers to initiate communication and considers them the main factor influencing the success of learning. It was also found that this region was collectivist more than individualistic, similar to what one would expect in Libya. Within such a collectivist culture, students are more inclined towards group harmony, and among other things, also the avoidance of losing face. In terms of UAI, this context had high uncertainty avoidance, as one would also predicate would be the case for Libya; students expect learning similar to their previous learning, as a result of low ambiguity tolerance. It is also expected that the teacher has all the correct answers, and gives rewards for

accuracy over creativity. As for MAS within Arab cultures, among other points, teachers acknowledge and praise good performance, and students fear failure as such they consider damaging to their self-image and family standing (Litvin, 2012).

The results of the present research also revealed that lessons were very much teacher centred, with TTT amounting to 84 to 99% of the total talk time. Such a characteristically traditional teacher centred environment no doubt nurtures a wider L1 use. The pattern observed was generally one of a teacher introducing a topic mainly through the use of L1, then asking a question to a student or the whole group, who are expected to provide a brief and correct response in L2, which is then evaluated by the teacher as either correct or incorrect. The pattern of classroom interaction observed generally fell into the more traditional IRF pattern, initiation (teacher), response (student) and feedback (teacher) with high L1 use. The rigid IRF structure with a high TTT accounts for a predominant proportion in EFL classrooms in Libya, which is similar to the findings of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in the traditional language classroom.

Even when students were occasionally offered an opportunity to work together, teachers did not give them sufficient time to integrate the knowledge that they were expected to produce. Small and group work has seen much attention (Hadfield, 1992; McDonough, 2004; Lin, 2010; Mills and Alexander, 2013), yet teachers lack awareness in relation to how long such activities should take and the manner in which to get students to progress from the aim of completing grammar tasks to communicative language use. The attention that research has given to the issue of TTT is clearly indicative of the role it plays in language learning. It has even been suggested that success or failure of teaching is

largely determined by the amount and type of teacher talk (Davies, 2011). Taking into consideration the overall low proficiency levels of Libyan learners, one may suggest a negative link between high teacher talk with dependence on L1 use and success of language learning in this traditional type classroom.

My finding of high TTT in the present study is similar to other research findings which reveal that teacher talk takes up most class time (Legarreta, 1977; Chaudron, 1988). Some scholars argue that the amount of TTT should be minimized (Wright, 1975), while others suggest that classes which maximize STT are considered the most effective (Harmer, 2000). The view here is that if the teacher is spending much of the class time in explanations or instructions, then the students do not get many opportunities to talk. Harmer (2000) advocates that “getting students to speak, to use the language they are learning, is a vital part of a teacher’s job” (p. 4). Hence, the general recommendation is that teacher talk needs to be reduced allowing for increased student talk. However, given the characteristics of the Libyan teaching-learning environment, such as lack of teacher training, this may not be easily applied.

In regards amount of TTT, an American scholar, Fillmore (1991), offered an alternative view to that presented here. She found that in teacher centred classes there was greater SLA achievement, classes with greater interaction among students indicated a lesser degree of SLA. Fillmore associated these results to the nature of classroom input; when the teacher offered accurate and sufficient input, this led to SLA success. On the other hand, the student-led classes revealed a greater dependence on the learners’ L1 and lacked valuable teacher input. Hence, Fillmore (1991) maintained that reducing TTT should only be undertaken after careful consideration. She suggested two conditions need

to be met should for successful language learning to occur. First, the students must have high-level language proficiency enabling them to interact in the L2 with their teacher and among themselves; second, there has to be a high enough desire to communicate among enough students within the language classroom. Should such conditions be lacking, the reduction of TTT as a precursor to learners' achievement in the TL would be questionable. Within the Libyan context, there remain restrictions on the potential successful application of a student-led communicative EFL classroom. These include, for example, the dominant preferred teaching-learning style (detailed in chapter 3).

Within the present study, the majority of teachers' practices reflect preference for high L1 use overall in their teaching, while a small number clearly represented the other extreme through a practice of the 'virtually all' position (Macaro, 1997). Evidently, the frequency of L1 use among teachers within the Libyan context is influenced by a number of factors. That is, not only is there a potential of some theoretical underpinning to such a finding but importantly too are teachers' background, lack of training, proficiency level in English and the preferred teaching and learning style within the Libyan EFL classroom. Through the following section, I will highlight further the impact of such factors specific to the Libyan context in influencing the use of L1.

6.4.2 Functions of teachers' use of L1

As detailed above classes observed revealed a high percentage of L1 use, and in the following section I will consider functions for such use. The ten functions found in the present study include to define vocabulary items, to explain

grammar points, to translate, to offer instruction to exercises, to check comprehension, to control the class, to praise, to respond to student questions, to evaluate students, and for affective reasons. These may be illustrated by the following examples: English utterances are provided in italics. Brackets provide further information. Some L1 occurrences comprise more than one L1 utterance, here T indicates teacher utterances, and S identifies student utterances:

To explain grammar (see appendix 8, extracts 1a, 7 and 1b):

T. *Adverbs of frequency*, These come before main verbs.

T. By saying he *always* does something we are giving a definite, strong statement that tells us how often he does this action.

T. So I can say *I always study English on Sunday*.

To translate (see appendix 8, extract 2):

T. *Are we in London now?* Are we in London now?

To define new vocabulary (see appendix 8, extracts 3a and 3b):

T. *A butcher* is someone who cuts and sells meat.

T. *Attentive*: It's an adjective and means to pay attention

To offer instructions (see appendix 8, extract 11):

T. You have to circle either *is/isn't* or *are/aren't* in each sentence.

T. We have a list of definitions on one side, and you have to find the appropriate word for each one.

To check students' comprehension (see appendix 8, extracts 4a and 4b):

T. Who can tell me where they met?

T. So why did she stop working?

To manage the class (see appendix 8, extracts 5a and 5b):

T. Quiet please [class was noisy].

T. Listen to you friends when they are answering questions [some students continued to chat while others were responding to T's questions].

To praise/encourage (see appendix 8, extracts 6a and 6b):

T. Good, you are getting good at this now [comment following an exercise completed by the class as a group]

T. The more you practice, the more spontaneous it all becomes and the more confident you will get at using complex sentences.

To respond to student questions (see appendix 8, extract 7):

S. So I can't use *doesn't* here? [with adverbs of frequency]

T. With or without use of *does* or *doesn't* it can be correct.

To evaluate students' responses (see appendix 8, extracts 8a and 8b):

T. Yes, that would be correct [T response to S's answer to a question]

T. No, no...do not use *A*, just *teachers*. [Student said: a teachers]

Affective use (see appendix 8, extract 1b):

T. Next week you will need to work in a group and present your homework to the whole class [students' reaction: noise level goes up, start asking each other questions in Arabic "what did he say" show signs of distress.]

T. [Teacher switches back to L1] ok...ok... next week you will need to work in a group and present your homework to the whole class.

T. [asks a question, all students remain silent], T: it is ok to make errors. We are here to make errors to learn, so try. It is ok if you get it wrong.

These findings are in line with numerous other studies which have revealed that in language classes teachers utilize the L1 for various reasons. These included explaining grammar, giving instructions, supporting, and correcting students (Atkinson, 1987; Tang, 2002; Cook, 2001; Levine, 2014). Additionally, in

various research teachers utilized the learners' L1 to motivate, explain grammatical points, to clarify ideas and to translate (Duff & Polio, 1990; Nation, 2003). Additionally, that L1 aids in maintaining discipline in class, as well as supports building teacher-student rapport (Nation, 2003). Teachers may resort to the L1 to ensure comprehension, to explain the meaning of vocabulary items, which, according to Thornbury (1999) is "economical and is a direct route to a word's meaning" (p. 78).

Some scholars have paid attention to other aspects of L1 use, one of which is time-saving, "a prompt 'How do you say X in English?' (Wharton, 2007:7) could require less time and could be less ambiguous than, for example, using mime. For Schweers (1999), "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 with English" (Schweers, 1999:7). However, upon closer examination of the above findings for the present study, one comes to the realization that, other than some pedagogical function, these uses of L1 may have also been due to other contextual factors. What one finds highlighted in this closer examination of findings is further confirmation that the Libyan EFL classroom is a traditional, teacher-centred type of environment that greatly nurtures a wide use of L1.

As stated above, the present study revealed ten functions but the most prevalent ones were to offer vocabulary definitions, to explain grammar points, to offer feedback and for affective reasons, hence, these will be the focus of this section. The first function for L1 discussed here is to define vocabulary items. In all the five classes whereby Arabic was used to some degree, teachers used it to offer various definitions, some examples include:

“The word *butcher* means جزار,” “Average means متوسط , and average grades is متوسط درجات,” “Responsible means مسؤول” (Appendix 8, extract 3a and 3a(i)).

Similarly, some studies have found that one of the uses of L1 is to use L1 particularly for difficult or abstract words (Tang, 2002; Lee & Macaro, 2013). Within the present study, the use of L1 to offer definitions was additionally considered as indicative of the issue of course material beyond the level of students and potential impact of lack of training as well as proficiency of teachers in the TL. Such may be illustrated from an occasion when one participant teacher asked students to read through a text and after a short while a student asked what the word ‘instincts’ meant. The teacher first asked if anyone else knew, but no one replied. The teacher then said, “it’s like...*the sixth sense*” (italics in English), but there continued to be a silence indicating a potential lack of understanding. No doubt if the students did not know the meaning of ‘*instincts*’ then they are unlikely to understand the meaning of ‘*sixth sense*.’ In fact, in the same lesson, another student had asked prior to this what the word ‘*coin*’ meant, though easier for the teacher as he simply took one out of his pocket, yet is indicative of the students’ limited vocabulary.

Following the teacher’s initial and brief attempt at explaining the meaning of ‘instincts’ in L2, he quickly gave up and offered the Arabic equivalent. In the present context such use may be attributed to specific aspects; one, the passage may be above the student’s level, and two that the teacher didn’t take the time to offer alternative means to achieve this task without the quicker and perhaps easier option of using Arabic. One may suggest that had the teacher put the word into various contexts to support the student in grasping the meaning; it may not have been necessary to use L1. Here it is can be suggested

that the issue of lack of training, and importantly, teacher proficiency may be at play.

The data in the present study also revealed that one of the highest use of L1 among teachers was to ask questions in most classes, examples of which I will present below. Here, one may through a closer consideration of this aspect come to a clearer view as regards the extent to which teaching practices within the Libyan EFL classroom are influenced by a more traditional, teacher-centred type classroom, which nurtures a wider use of L1. Generally asking questions is a technique that teachers commonly and in the present study especially through Arabic, it seemed to serve as the principal way in which they controlled the classroom interaction. Some language classrooms, similar to the observed classes, indicate that the pattern of question and answer dominates much of the class time (Richards & Lockhart, 2000).

Before I consider some potential functions of questions in Arabic used by participants in the present study, it is important to attempt and classify questions observed and potential reasons for preference of specific type questions. A distinction was made between these two types of questions; display questions are the ones that the classroom teacher already knows the answers to and which are intended to produce or display precise structures. The other type, referential questions, on the other hand, are questions the answers to which are unknown to the class teacher, and shaped by different subjective information (Ellis, 2008).

After I examined the transcripts further, I gathered that teachers in the present research tended to ask more display type questions than referential questions, in both English and Arabic. Such is illustrated by the following examples:

“What is the first person singular?”, “what’s the past participle of spend,” “Is he an engineer?”, “Are they in a hotel?” (Appendix 8, extracts 14, 4a and 2)

This one may link to the teacher training, preferred teacher method, and the specific teaching focus. Here I suggested that in classes where teachers offer information and limit student participation, referential question are more evident. This is linked to teachers’ greater focus on the aspects of form and accuracy rather than on communication or meaning of language (as detailed in chapter 3), facilitating recall and as comprehension check, according to Chaudron (1988)

“Display questions tend to elicit short answers, learners supply the information for didactic purposes only, they would have less communicative involvement in producing a display response, and thus less motivational drive for using the target language” (p. 173).

In regards to referential questions, the view is that its use would enable students to produce L2 structures which are more complex and that this will probably occur in naturalistic settings. Further, Chaudron (1988) argues that students and teachers are more likely to negotiate meaning more with the use of referential questions. This is considered positive as the theory of L2 acquisition proposes that negotiation of meaning supports the acquisition of the TL as well creates a more communicative environment. However, clearly such was not the aim of most teachers within the present study.

The use of Arabic when asking questions in the present study served mainly instructional purposes, for example, as part of grammar teaching as is also illustrated by the first two examples above and the following two:

“What’s the third tense of break? You all need to remember the *past participle tense*, what is it?” (Appendix 8, extract 15)

“How do we handle the present in this sentence ... how do we deal with now ...you said *he would have been*...yes, but this would give you the past. So here you need the present. Put the sentence into the present, what will it be?” (Appendix 8, extract 15)

For teachers focus was primarily on explicit teaching of form and structure, with the aid of L1. In This supports Sawani’s (2009) claim that the selection of material by teachers in Libya is very much “based on grammatical construction and structure rather than classrooms actions” (p. 16-18). In the present study, it was also clear that teachers favoured explicit teaching of grammar in a more traditional manner. The usual practice was to explain a rule and then use most or the entire lesson to practice through drilling. This was clear, for example, when one teacher explained the rule for constructing a negative sentence and then spent most of the lesson asking students to change various unrelated positive sentences into the negative. This would confirm the suggestion made in chapter 5 that such practices reflect teachers’ beliefs in regards what should go on in the classroom.

Here it would be useful to attempt to consider the implication of such practice in terms of the use of L1 for explicit teaching of grammar forms as it may allow for an evaluation of how beneficial such a practice is considering, among many factors, the overall low proficiency levels of students even up to graduate level. In the literature dealing with how adult learners develop grammatical knowledge

of the L2, there has been some disagreement about the relative importance of implicit vs. explicit learning of grammatical forms and patterns (Ellis, 2005), but there is some agreement that explicit learning is important (Levine, 2014).

Ellis (2005) asserts that when learners learn forms explicitly, they are aware that they have learned something and are able to articulate what they have learned. At the same time, explicit attention to forms does not necessarily lead to learning (Schmidt, 2012). No doubt, for the teacher, it is about generating as many such opportunities as possible for students to encourage learning to take place. Conscious attention to forms can support this, but simply directing learners' attention to forms or lexical items may not lead to their learning. It is about both frequency and quality of such affordances, and it is here is where the L1 comes into play.

The research on L1 use in the L2 classroom has shown that learners carrying out language tasks routinely use the L1 to focus conscious attention on grammatical forms and lexical items (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Duff and Polio, 1994; Levine, 2014). Some suggest that instruction that focuses on language form can both speed up the rate of language development and raise the ultimate level of the learners' attainment (Willis, 1996), though the extent to which this is true of the Libyan learners is debatable. Ellis (1997) argues that should learners gain explicit instruction in L2 such would support them to "notice features in the input that otherwise would be ignored" and 'compare what they have noticed in the input with output derived from their current interlanguage grammars" (p. 123). This aspect I discussed in detail in chapter 2. Hence, as students gain grammatical knowledge it would be possible for them to notice occurrences of those linguistic features learnt explicitly in subsequent encounters, till they reach

a point whereby such features are integrated into their interlanguages when they are prepared developmentally.

Findings in the present study also revealed that teachers in the follow-up stage of the lesson used L1 to offer some feedback to learners on their performance. Feedback is teachers' evaluation of the student response. Feedback given in class to student utterances could be a response to the content of spoken utterances or their form. Such teachers can offer in the form of a praise, some examples from the observations include: "well done", "that's good." In addition, a teacher may offer the students feedback through some relevant comments or criticism or not respond (Richards & Lockhart, 2000). Feedback in Arabic used by participants also included correction. Here, particular information was offered on aspects of the students' performance, in the way of additional explanation, or providing either improved alternatives, for example after asking the group if they were in London, and getting the wrong sentence structure, the teacher repeated the question, illustrated the correct structure and explained further in Arabic:

Are we in London, no we are not....we are in Baida. The question here was if we were in London now...so the answer is... no, we are in Baida. Ok? Here we have a *yes or no question*. All is expected of you is either confirm or reject the information...you confirm by saying *yes* or negate by saying *no*. You can give a full answer rather than a short *yes or no answer* by saying *no, we are not in London....or yes, we are in London* (Appendix 8, extract 2)

I linked numerous instances whereby participant teachers turned to the use of Arabic when correcting to some specific but repeated grammatical mistakes, examples of which I will present below. The findings here revealed some emergent data which, though does not account for the wide use of L1, may be

beneficial in adding to the debate surrounding the notion of interference or transfer from the MT, discussed in detail in chapter two. Here I attempted to speculate on the impact that L1 use has, if any, on errors documented. Errors due to MT influence are referred to as interlingual, transfer or interference errors. Fries (1945) and Lado (1957) would be among the earlier voices that pointed to the negative aspect of L1 use.

Other researchers focused less on interlingual errors while highlighting intralingual errors as well as developmental errors (Dulay and Burt, 1974), yet interference as a negative counterpart of L1 use still significant in L2 learning. Intralingual errors, also referred to as developmental, include simplification and overgeneralization, hypercorrection, referred to as "induced errors" (Touchie, 1986:78), faulty teaching, whereby learners' errors are due to the language teacher, or the materials used, or else the presentation order. Fossilization is an additional factor whereby errors continue for long periods becoming problematic to change.

Finally, avoidance, whereby the learner finds specific syntactic structures challenging and as such resorts to the use of less difficult ones. For example, Arab ESL learners avoid using the passive voice in English. In this regard, El-Yasin (1996) suggested that there is "no natural way of mentioning the doer" of an action in the passive voice in Arabic (p. 20). Another feature is linked with inadequate learning due to lack of knowledge in relation to rule constraints, as well as limited differentiation. Touchie presented an example of the omission of the third person singular *s* as in: "*He want.*" Finally, pointing out that learner errors are at times linked with incorrect TL learner hypotheses. learners consider [*is*] as an indicator of the present tense leading them to such use as,

“He is talk to the teacher.” Also, some learners think that [was] is marker for the past tense and as such produce sentences like *“It was happened last night”* (Touchie, 1986:79).

Some examples of student errors, the most frequent ones, which I select from the data for closer consideration include the use of prepositions, the use of second person ‘s’ and the indefinite article. The first example I chose here was teacher use of L1 to correct errors in the use of prepositions. In one of the classes, a student said *I always study at Sundays*, and the teacher responded by translating the sentences into Arabic and offering the correct preposition *on*. In this example, the student was making a similar error to that found in a study of Arab learners’ uses of prepositions which revealed amongst its findings that learners tended to use the preposition at to indicate days. One may agree with the research in this study that one may attribute such errors to “native language interference or the learners’ knowledge inadequacy of the target language, or even the multiple meanings and functions of English prepositions” (Khotaba, 2013:279).

The second repeatedly student error which I documented was in relation to the use of the third person singular ‘s’. It was evident that students were confusing the plural ‘s’ with the third person singular ‘s’. A possible explanation for this is student overgeneralization. They tended to use ‘s’ with the verb if the subject is plural while if the subject is singular they would omit it. Another reoccurring error observed among students was in relation to the use of the articles which are similar in meaning to English yet have various forms in Arabic. The Arabic article system makes a distinction between the defined, as marked by the definite article [al] and the undefined Arabic marks by absence of the [al]. An example

here was: *I am student*, it is possible that the indefinite article was dropped as indicative of a potential occurrence of interlingual errors.

Findings from the present study may support other research in the Arab region, for example that presented by Grami and Alzughaibi (2012), revealed that some student errors were attributed to interference from Arabic either partially or completely. Examples presented here include error in spelling, whereby Arab learners struggled with the English silent letters since they are accustomed to basing what they write or read on that which they hear. Thus, Arab learners could write the word *listen* as *lisen*, or else they may pronounce it as /li-st n/. Similar example that I may present from the present study include the word *assignment*. In a listening and speaking lesson recorded the teacher went through some words and phrases relevant to a new topic to be covered; he explained the meaning of 'assignments' and then decided to stop and say "Ok so the word assignment worries you somewhat...right? Here you don't read the [g]" (Italics only in English). Although I did not record any student errors in relation to this, clearly the teacher either picked up on an error not recorded or else had expected that this may be a potential issue for the learners and decided to warn them in advance.

Another point presented in the study was the transfer of L1 grapheme-phoneme correspondence. Arabic spelling depends on regular grapheme-phoneme mapping, whereas English grapheme-phoneme spelling has some variability. An English example here is the phoneme /k/ which could be spelled <c>, <k>, <ck>, <ch>. Here Arab learners who have not mastered such aspect may simply transfer their knowledge of Arabic spelling and hence make errors such as *piknik* and *fone*.

This study also points to potential L1 transfer errors in the usage of the preposition *from*. Lakkis and Malak (2000), similar to the present study, state that Arab learners of English frequently used prepositions incorrectly. This, the study mentioned concluded, was associated with transfer of L1 (Arabic) knowledge of propositions to English. Another study conducted with Arab students also highlighted some errors that may also be attributed to transfer from Arabic (Hourani, 2008). Here the aspect of word order was highlighted, an example of student error given was “*smoking is a habit bad* (bad habit). In relation to this example, the researcher argued that it demonstrated student reliance on the mother tongue in producing such a sentence (p. 5).

One may point out here that some of the various errors mentioned above may not be exclusive to Arab learners, as non-Arab learners could equally make similar mistakes. Furthermore, that not all errors students make are attributed to transfer from L1, as various studies have shown, even when languages are similar errors may still occur thus indicating that some errors are simply developmental (Piennemenn & Kessler, 2011). L2 learners have a formed linguistic system which they are likely to turn to, particularly when at an early stage of learning a new language. During the early stage of language learning, the learners are more disposed to L1 interlingual interference. The language learner has to rely on the linguistics system of his/her native language as the L2 system is still unfamiliar. It is at this stage that student knowledge of L1 and TL similarities as well as differences that research into L1 use considers particularly beneficial (Brown, 2014). Such would allow learners to draws upon their previous linguistic system, as well as make them aware of potential challenges that this system may present. In this regard, just because two languages may

be similar does not necessarily mean fewer learner errors. Languages which are related have the advantage of potentially comprising similar cognates, concepts or having a similar structural system. Some have suggested, for example Schmidt, that such holds the advantage of allowing students to tap into the schema from the native language. Despite the potential advantages of similarity between the L1 and the L2 of a learner, difficulties may arise as a result of false cognates. Swan describes how he caused unintended distress by using the phrase “dramatic” to inform his French student of his progress. This was due to the fact that “dramatique” in French means “disastrous” (Swan, 2008).

Some have highlighted that when the first language and the target language are marginally distinct in meaning or form such may result in confusion (Brown, 2015). A study conducted by Oller and Ziahossieny found that if the English language learners’ L1 used Roman script, then they tended to struggle with English spelling to a larger degree than those whose L1 was based on the Roman script (Brown, 2015). Some dissimilar languages may not share cognates, but have related concepts because of a similar culture. Unrelated languages could be distinct culturally, and hold different concepts, making the task of explaining an alien concept to students a challenging task. No doubt, various possible factors may lead to student errors, important amongst which is the use of L1, though this is inconclusive. What is clear is teachers’ use of L1 when handling such errors, perhaps in an attempt to raise awareness of similarities and differences between L1 and L2 particularly as part of grammar teaching, though here there is the potential risk that such L1 use could lead to confusion for learners.

Another finding for the use of L1 in the present study was its potential affective function. That is teachers' use of Arabic at certain times may have been in an attempt to alleviate levels of anxiety among students. In chapter, 5 teachers stressed that should they use L2 extensively their students panic and believed that through L1 they helped them feel more at ease in class. The two examples that I presented in Table 3 above in the affective category I will consider in more detail in this section in addition to a third example. First, a reflection on literature in relation to the affective reasons for the use of L1 indicates some support for this aspect (Meyer, 2008). Such is similar to a study conducted in the US and Canada by Levine's (2003) which explored both EFL learners and teachers' use of the L1 and learner anxiety towards this use. The study revealed that although there was a degree of appreciation among the learners in regards TL use, however, they also expressed some anxiety towards its use.

In Guest and Pachler's (2001) discussion of L1 and L2 use in the language classroom, they point to the necessity in creating an environment which promotes a sense of security and confidence. Polio and Duff's (1994) study investigating teachers' practices and attitudes towards the use of L1 and TL in US HE concluded that the choice of language used in the classroom was determined by teacher aim in establishing " a relaxed atmosphere" (p.318). According to the humanistic views of teaching, students should be given the opportunity to express themselves, and that when learning the L2, it is only natural that they will at times resort to their mother tongue, which is more comfortable for them (Harbord, 1992). Edstrom (2006) suggests that the issues regarding the use of learners' L1 and the use of the TL within language classroom should not only detail aspects such as management or procedures

but also encompass the notion of judicious L1 use as treating the learners as individuals, and to create a positive affective environment for learning.

I will consider though the two examples under affective uses illustrated above in addition to a third example, the extent to which use of L1 in the present study was founded to some degree on affective factors. The first one was students' observed distress when the teacher turned from using L1 to L2 to inform them of an upcoming group presentation. The documented student reaction at the use of L2 here was immediate with noise level going up, confused facial expressions and comments made in Arabic to each other indicating a degree of anxiety, for example, "what?", "what did he say", and questions to the teacher, "teacher please what are we expected to do?". In response, the teacher immediately switched back to Arabic and repeated his instructions. The students listened attentively and seemed less anxious once he finished explaining, though they still continued to ask other questions related to the assignment in Arabic, for example, how many in each group and the topic, etc. Although in this situation one can suggest that students' initial reaction to teacher's talk in L2 was linked with his switch from L1 to L2 and that when he switched back to the L1 their anxiety reduced, though one may also attribute this to other factors.

Here one may speculate, though such an aspect as anxiety is indeed a complex area, that their reaction was due to the fact that they simply didn't understand as is indicated by the examples above, or that they were concerned about the presentation being some kind of assessment and, considering the significance of this, wanted to be sure, or that they were anxious because they weren't expecting this type of assignment, and here perhaps such was influenced to

some degree by my presence in the classroom. Indeed, any or a combination of some or all of these factors could have created this situation.

The second example of another teacher's use of L1 with a possible affective aspect was an attempt to make students feel less anxious about the use of L2 in responding to questions. Here one participant teacher asked a question which some students refrained from answering. He reacted saying in Arabic "It is ok to make errors. We are here to make errors to learn...." and then called upon one of the students who didn't answer the last question and insisted in Arabic that the student tries to answer the question and the student did, though he was clearly struggling. Here one may argue that the teacher's use of L1 reduced to a degree the potential student's anxiety about responding to the question, but equally, it may have been the case that he was simply responding to the teacher's request, simply doing as he was told. One may refer here to the proficiency level of most learners and the extent to which teaching material and practices are well suited for them.

Another teacher also resorted to Arabic to reassure his students after asking a question and the first student to respond was hesitant and replied in a very low voice indicating a level of nervousness, the teacher said:

"Don't worry, its ok to make mistakes. I think you need some advice...ok, speak up, because it's not your language...right?...it's not your native language...if you whisper...this creates a problem..." (Appendix 8, extract 3a).

The student did continue in L2 and raised his voice as directed. One may attribute the student's reaction to feeling calmer due to the use of Arabic, but

also possible is that he did so because he was told to, that is, similar to the previous example, with the given power relation in the Libyan classroom such would be very likely. In the examples presented here, one cannot help but wonder why the teachers felt need to use L1 in these instances when their students either completely refrained from or were hesitant in responding to questions in L2. Such would lead to the assumption that they believed that the use of L1 does have a positive affective impact as was experienced by them as learners within the same environment.

In relation to students, I documented that the overall majority were of low proficiency level, as also indicated in chapters 4 and 5. It was important to consider the extent that this has on teachers' use of L1 and whether this could justify its wide use to some extent. Research has made some association between the aspect of proficiency levels and L1 use (Prodromou, 2002a; Carson & Kashihara, 2012) though such an association one would have to consider carefully within the present context. In Hall and Cook's (2013) study, the researchers reported that "Teachers working with lower level students report using the learners' own language significantly more frequently across all functions... Furthermore, over half the teachers in the survey report a frequent use of own language to explain grammar" (pp. 15-23). In the same study over 70% of learners reportedly actively compared English and L1 grammar items. In Al-Nofaie's (2010) study, participants reported preference in using Arabic with beginners and low-proficiency level students particularly to explain grammatical terms, new vocabulary and give instructions for exams. Here Miles (2004) also highlights the need for L1 use in particular with lower level students to teach grammar to avoid potential lack of understanding on the students' part.

This aspect of student proficiency level as a factor affecting L1 use is one which teachers in Macaro's (1997) study also agreed upon. Swain & Lapkin (2000) studied adolescent learners of French in Canada. They arrived at three main categories of classroom L1 use, one of which was "focusing attention", L1 use is about "vocabulary search" and "focus on form; explanation; framing; retrieving grammatical information" (p. 258). Although, potentially the proficiency level of students in the present study may have had an impact on teachers' use of L1, yet one cannot justify its wide use based on this aspect alone, nor as the main contributing factor. Here it is suggested, as discussed in chapter 5, that issues linked to lack of teacher training amounting to practices based on experiences, as well as teachers' own proficiency in the TL are potentially at play in determining such wide L1 use.

6.4.3 Student uses of L1: frequency & function

The present study's results revealed that for students the frequency of L1 use ranged from 8 to 40% and a high L2 use of 63 to 92%. This student use served seven functions as illustrated in the following: English utterances are provided in italics. Brackets provide further information. Some L1 occurrences have more than one L1 utterance, T identifies teacher utterances, and S student utterances:

To translate (see appendix 8, extracts 9 and 1b):

S. she does not speak English [translates sentence into L1 after saying it in English]

S. He always plays football [translates sentence from L2 uttered by the teacher]

To ask for definitions (see appendix 8, extract 11 and 10):

S. What does *awful* mean?

S. What does *official* mean?

To respond to questions (see appendix 8, extract 13):

T. to S4: How can you show that he does this all the time?

S. Children always go to school before 9 O'clock.

To confirm own understanding (see appendix 8, extract 11 and 7):

S. to T: so this one, it would be they are, right?

S8. So I can't use doesn't here? [with adverbs of frequency]

To express concern(see appendix 8, extract 12) :

S. Teacher...there are some things that are too difficult for us.

To discuss work in groups (see appendix 8, extract 11):

Students used Arabic when discussing class related work (as revealed by observation and notes).

To chat generally with classmates:

Students always used Arabic when generally chatting with their classmates (as revealed by observation and notes). I noted use of L1 was more prevalent when students interacted with one another, while the use of L2 was more when they responded to teacher questions, by what i noted as a small more proficient, confident students. The highest recorded L1 use was amongst students whose

teacher used 100% L2. Results revealed that L1 had seven functions for students, including to express concern, to ask questions, to respond to questions, to confirm own understanding, to translate, to discuss work in groups and to chat generally with one another. The tendency of students to use L1 was noted most when students interacted with each other. Such one may link with other research findings which stress the role of L1 in scaffolding (Anton and DiCamilla, 1998). Here it may also be the case that students' proficiency level in English played a role in greater L1 use among each other. Such would further support the prospect of not speaking out of embarrassment. Additionally, it is also possible that such L1 use is potentially regarded the norm for students within the EFL classroom.

The present study shows that students were resorting to the use of L1 widely to explain and negotiate with one another when completing group tasks, though these were rather limited due to the teacher centred environment. This could be associated with the notion of L1 as a means of "scaffolding" as argued in other research discussed in detail in Chapter 2 (Cook, 2001: 418). Various research suggests that students can use L1 to determine meanings and carry out their task correctly with their group members without making many mistakes. In this regard, such research stressed that L1 serves as a valuable cognitive tool, allowing scaffolding during the learning process (Anton and DiCamilla, 1998). Some researchers stated that the use of the L1 could make TL intake speedier (Ellis, 2008), that it could also save time and improve understanding (Turnbull, 2001). Some have also proposed that in the process of learning a new language, the L1 allows learners to negotiate meaning and succeed in L2 communication

(Brooks and Donato, 1994). This has been based on the interactionist theory (Ellis, 2008; Swain, 1995).

It is also argued that the use of L1 allows learners to work within their Zone of Proximal Development. Vygotsky proposed that "the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). Furthermore, it may be suggested that when students work in small groups and use L1 and L2, they are processing at a cognitively higher level in respect of linguistic tasks than if they were restricted to communicating in the language they are attempting to learn (Anton & DiCamilla, 1988).

Another potential reason that one may suggest as amounting to L1 use among learners is their proficiency level. That is, the majority of students in the present study did not display a high enough proficiency in the L2 allowing them necessary skill and confidence in its use with one another and perhaps they found it easier to fall back on their L1 to express their ideas, to discuss work and to suggest answers. Similarly, in Yang's (2010) study, students working together to prepare for a presentation found it necessary to use the L1 due to their limited proficiency in the L2 (Yang, 2010). The aspect of greater student need for L1 as linked with proficiency level was discussed in detail in chapter 4. Additionally, it may be suggested that similar to data from chapter 4, students in the present study are not accustomed to wide L2 use among each other as a habit extending from their experiences as language learners in high school, and the fact that the wide use of L1 is indeed regarded the norm within the EFL classroom. Finally, low proficiency level in English could have amounted to fear of making errors

among students and hence their avoidance of being embarrassed led them to greater L1 use.

The data also revealed that L2 use was overall high, a fact which may initially put into question the possibility that most students are of an overall low proficiency level. This possibility may be eliminated considering that the use of L2 was primarily to respond to teacher questions by some students. There appeared to be a limited set of students who volunteered to answer questions in the classroom and who the teachers called upon the most to participate. Here one needs to address the question of who the students participating in the classes were and whether they are representative of the majority of students. In this regard one may speculate that these students were either more motivated or more confident in their language abilities. This I would support by findings from chapter 4 which highlighted that such factors contributed to greater L2 use by students.

The data may to a degree indicate a potential association between teachers' use of L1 and students' use of L2, though this would require further evidence to be confirmed. Such was suggested since in class 1 teacher used 0% L1 the students used 62% L2, which is the second lowest documented use of L2 among all groups. Similarly, class 2 teacher used 0% L1 in class which resulted in 1% student participation in L2. It was also found that class 3 teacher used L1 73% of the time and students used 80% L2. I found similar high results for class 4 with 85% teacher's L1 use and 89% students' L2 use. Class 5 teacher used 31% L1, and here students used L2 64% of the time. Class 6 and seven teachers both used L1 40%, of the class time with class 6 students using 90% L2 and class 7 students using 92% L2. It was revealed that students who were

in groups where the teacher opted to refrain from the use of L1, used less L2. One may suggest, however, that this speculation about a link between teachers' L2 use and students' L1 use could be as a result of students feeling a degree of intimidation at using English with a teacher who is a native speaker of that language. It is also possible that they are worried about making mistakes because this is a native English speaker. One may suggest that students feel that a native speaker, this teacher would be alert to every error they make, and as such feel reluctant to use the L2.

Further, it could be that they believe a native English speaker is not aware of the difficulties they are encountering as foreign language learners; though such may not be true as a native speaker could also have mastered a foreign language too, perhaps not in a similar environment. Additionally, that he/she is less appreciative of local conditions and difficulties. Student reaction to the native speakers may be that for them he/she "is a model of something alien which the students cannot be in the second language- a user of the first language" (Cook, 2013:188). Perhaps, teachers' exclusive use of L2 could have amounted to students struggling to identify with them. Some suggest that when the language teacher is a native L2 speaker, students are more likely to identify with him/her if they spoke the L1 of the students (Schweers, 1999).

Additionally, one may suggest that "the classroom can be a threatening place even for adults", and that this, combined with virtual L2 use could amount to "confusion and anxiety" (Meyer, 2008:148). This can be illustrated from a class whereby the teacher used L2 exclusively and following instructions to complete an exercise in groups the teacher approaches some student using Arabic and says "English please", one of the girls sounding worried responded in Arabic

“teacher, there are things that are too difficult to us in English.” The teacher and student interaction that continued after this indicated that this group of girls clearly didn’t understand the instructions in L2, combined with material that was difficult, hence potentially increasing the level of anxiety resulting in them giving up on attempting the exercise. In cases where anxiety reaches high levels, affective filters would be raised to the point that facilitative anxiety is turned into debilitating anxiety (Krashen, 1983).

In addition, some learners may resent the L2 if they sense that teachers are imposing it on them. In this regard, some have argued that L1 may help students overcome issues associated with affective aspects and increase their self-assurance in being able to succeed in understanding the L2 (Auerbach, 1993; Harbord, 1992). In the present research, I also found that groups whose teachers chose to use 100% L2 spoke the least L2 or else opted to remain silent. In cultures such as the Libyan one, where individuals have a very high uncertainty avoidance, this can raise affective filters.

6.5 Conclusion

In the present study, I explored further the aspects of frequency and function of L1 use among teachers and students within the Libyan EFL classroom. I collected data from a total of seven classes: four direct observations and three audio recordings of additional classes. My results revealed that the frequency of instances of L1 use was for the majority of teachers between 31 and 85%, while two teachers excluded such use entirely. For the majority of teachers, L1 use fell into ten categories, prominent amongst which was its use to teach

grammar, which also uncovered some emergent data in regards student error. It has been suggested that participant teachers' uses, or non-use, of L1, may be linked with some theoretical stance, whether overtly recognized by them or not; and importantly too, teachers' background (as native and non-native English speakers), teacher training, proficiency level (in English or Arabic) and characteristics of the Libyan EFL teaching and learning context.

The results of the frequency of L1 use among students revealed variance between 8 and 40% for L1 use and 63 to 92% for L2 use. The highest percentage of L1 recorded was among students in the groups where teachers utilized L2 exclusively. The findings indicated that the use of L1 had seven functions for learners including to express concern, to ask for definitions, to respond to questions, to confirm own understanding, to translate, to discuss work in groups and finally to chat with each other. It was suggested that use of L1 among students potentially supported scaffolding, and also as probably linked with aspects such as proficiency level and linked with prior language learning experience.

For the teachers who did utilize L1, the results revealed ten functions. Similarly, much research has identified various functions of L1 use in a range of language learning contexts (e.g., Cook, 2001; Levine, 2011). Macaro (2001) identified several functions of L1 use among the teachers, similar to the present study, most notably for procedural instructions, teaching grammar, keeping control of the class, and affective reasons. Several studies have confirmed that the first language can be beneficial as a cognitive tool that aids in second language learning (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Teachers' use of L1 may be linked with specific theoretical perspectives, but also importantly to factors specific to the Libyan

context. It was suggested that factors that may be more at play in influencing the use of L1 among the majority of teachers are linked with lack of teachers training, proficiency level in English, and the Libyan culture of teaching and learning.

Swain (2009) draws attention to factors that influence the Libyan teaching and learning context including poor up to date teacher training programmes, which could have resulted in teaching based on experience from the teachers' own learning and teaching. In this regard, the nature of teaching and learning in Libya, in what I have found in the present study as more teacher centred and exam oriented environment, is clearly playing a large role in determining the extent of L1 use. It has also been proposed that teachers' proficiency in English may also have limited the use of L1 on many occasions when they were documented resorting to L1, though perhaps unnecessarily. Sawani (2009) argues that teachers' and learners' beliefs and culture of learning nurtures a wide L1 use. Influential in this regard are characteristics of the Libyan EFL classroom, for example, Libyan students expect that teachers would impart all the needed information and they, in turn, memorize this in preparation for exams. A number of Libyan researchers, for example, Aldabbus (2008) and Orafi (2008), stressed the notion that EFL Libyan students are largely influenced by this culture of learning.

On the other hand, the practice of two teachers in terms of exclusive L2 use, one may describe in Macaro's (1997) terms as reflecting the 'virtual' position. I considered that the two participants who used L2 exclusively were probably influenced, perhaps indirectly, by a specific theoretical position in their training and careers shaped by a more monolingual perspective. Assuming that these

participants have had some formal training, one would speculate that such has influenced their practices in relation to the use of L1. That is, as is expected, formal training would have focused on teaching based if not exclusively then predominantly on L2, with a limited exploration of potential merits to the judicious use of L1. Thus, such would have potentially embedded, at least for the two participants in this study, the view that English only as ideal pedagogy, preventing any use of L1. Another aspect that may have discouraged these participants from using their students' L1 is their lack of proficiency in it, at least in comparison to their students.

The students' results showed variance in students' use of L1 between 8 to 40% and a higher L2 use between 63 to 92%. The results also revealed seven functions for the use of L1 among learners. One of the uses I documented most for L1 among students was when completing class work in groups. It was suggested that students were turning to the use of L1 to complete tasks through explaining and negotiating with one another. As such, I considered it possible that the L1 was a potential cognitive tool, providing scaffolding for students in their efforts to achieve learning tasks (Anton and DiCamilla, 1998; Cook, 2001). Furthermore, I reasoned that the use of L1 could have allowed learners to work within their Zone of Proximal Development. Another potential link I made between greater L2 output among students whose teachers utilized more L1 is the affective aspect linked with such use. In this regard, I suggest that L1 could support students through reducing the affective barrier and raise their own confidence in comprehending and producing the target language (Cook, 2001; Auerbach, 1993).

Additionally, I suggested that the student proficiency level was a factor influencing their use of L1, with overall low proficiency among students amounting to reduced confidence in the use of L2 when interacting with one another and as indicated by their avoidance of L2 use in the native English speaking teachers' classes. Perhaps in both instances, fear of embarrassment discouraged L2 use. The results in terms of high student L2 use, I deemed as representative of only a small number of learners who were more confident and of higher proficiency as the majority.

The results of the present study revealed that, with two exceptions, there was an overall high use of L1 (Arabic) among teachers, serving ten functions. It was suggested that teacher' uses may be associated with specific theoretical stances, but more as a result of such aspects as teacher training, proficiency level, and preferred teaching and learning styles within the Libyan context. Students' results also revealed seven functions for the use of L1. Students' use of L1 were considered in terms of in such notions as scaffolding, as well as low proficiency levels and prior language learning experience. One may conclude that findings of the present study lead to the point that, as Meyer (2008) put it, "The amount of L1 use and how it is employed should vary with the classroom environment. The L1 provides scaffolding that should be gradually dismantled as the students' progress. Not enough and affective filters may be raised, too much and progress is slowed" (p. 148).

In the present chapter and the previous two, I explored the questions of frequency, function, and attitudes towards the use of L1 among teachers and students within the context of Libyan HE. This I undertook through a triangulation of data collection methods making the most of both quantitative

and qualitative aspects. I based the first study on a hundred questionnaires which I conducted with students, the second was a qualitative study based on eleven teacher interviews, and finally the present study built on and explored further findings further through four direct observations and three audio recordings of HE EFL classes. This allowed me to explore the issue in greater depth, offering new and various insights. In the following concluding chapter, I will provide a synthesis of the key findings from all three studies that I conducted in Libya with main arguments within the field of EFL on MT use.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.0 Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss the main findings in relation to the use of the MT in Libya in light of literature within the field, notes the limitations of the study, outlines its contributions, and offers suggestions for future research. My research investigated the controversial issue of mother tongue use within the Libyan EFL classroom. This I undertook through addressing the three following points from Libyan students and teachers' perspectives:

- 1) The extent to which Arabic is used in the teaching and learning of EFL.
- 2) The main reasons for the use of Arabic in the teaching and learning of EFL
- 3) Attitudes towards the use of Arabic in the teaching and learning of EFL.

I explored these aspects through three studies employing a mixed method approach which allowed for a more elaborate understanding of the given issue within Libya as well as enhanced confidence in conclusions reached. The first was a quantitative study which I conducted with the aim of gaining Libyan students' perspective on the issue. The sample participants for this study were 100, including 50 students from two groups. I refer to the two groups as group A (GA), whose teacher is a native Arabic speaker, and group B (GB), whose teacher is a native English speaker. The participants completed a Likert scale questionnaire with three open-ended items. The second was a qualitative study, which I undertook to add further detail to findings from study I as well seek emergent and rich data from Libyan teachers' perspectives. I conducted this through semi-structured phone interviews with eleven teachers. The final study I based on both observations and audio recordings of seven classes in Libya. This I considered necessary to add layers of depth to findings, seek emergent data as well as ensure that I overcame any issues associated with the self-report techniques utilized in the first two studies. In the following section, I will synthesize the empirical findings from these three studies undertaken within the Libyan context with research and literature from the field of EFL. Such would make possible gaining greater insights into the issue of MT use from a Libya perspective, as well as to add new dimensions and contribute to the debate on the use of MT.

7.1 Libyan teachers' frequency, function, and attitudes towards the use of L1

The results of the three studies revealed an overall high L1 use by the majority of teachers with some exceptions. Study I showed that both GA and GB teachers exhibited variance in their use of L1. GA teacher used L1 to a greater degree than GB teacher. In study II, all eleven participants stated that they used L1, and though this use varied, the majority did report high use. The results revealed that 8 out of 11 participants used Arabic widely as part of their teaching of most year groups. 2 out of 11 participants stressed that after the second semester Arabic should only be used as a last resort, but were still willing to use it should the need arise. This finding supported the assumption that GA teacher in study I was more representative of the majority of teachers in the department. The findings from study III also similar to study II revealed that the majority of teachers utilized L1 widely, though two participants excluded such use entirely. Within this study, students' use of L1 varied, though overall I recorded more L2. Overall, despite variance in L1 use amongst teachers, the majority did use it widely. Other research has also found variance in the amount of L1 used in different EFL classroom, for example, Macaro's (2001) study revealed 0-15% L1 use, while Duff & Polio's (1990) study showed a variance of 0-90% use. Within various contexts, the use of L1 has been attributed to positive teacher perspectives, which acknowledges numerous benefits to L1 use based on specific theoretical stance that recognises an interconnection between the L1 and L2 (Atkinson, 1987; Tang, 2002; Nation, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Machaal, 2012). Such a perspective draws attention to L1 as a mediating tool to facilitate learning, speeding up the process of FL intake, saving time, improving understanding and leading to greater motivation. The argument further adds that through a clear display of differences between L1 and L2, such

can promote consciousness raising and aid features of the input becoming intake. When initially considering participants' practices in the present study in terms of L1 use, one would assume similar articulated positive views of the L1 as those presented here; however, upon careful reflections on the data I put this possibility into question.

The probability that L1 use within the Libyan context is not necessarily based on a theoretical stance one may confirm through arguments forwarded by participants to justify such use in study II (chapter 5). Participants associated this use with specific challenges and characteristics of the Libyan EFL classroom. In study II they pointed to challenges such as large student intake, mixed proficiency levels, dated course books, and importantly to student proficiency levels being overall very poor. Participants argued that their use of L1 is linked to the Libyan teaching and learning environment as influenced largely by formal examinations, which encourage memorizing of form and structure with the much perceived need for L1 in the whole process.

Moreover, teachers stressed that passive students did not wish for greater L2 use as they were accustomed to receiving high L1 input as part of their previous language learning experiences at high school. Most participants' also stressed the issue of the low proficiency level of students as influencing their use of L1. This is in line with other researcher recognizing reduced teacher use of the TL with low proficiency learners (Meiring & Norman, 2002; Cole, 1998). Hall and Cook (2013) found that "Teachers working with lower level students report using the learners' own language significantly more frequently across all functions..." (p. 23). Teachers also spoke about having mixed groups of proficiency levels,

but the majority were of lower proficiency and this, they argued, meant they needed to meet the needs of most students through the use of L1.

Based on the above reasons forwarded by participants in relation to their use of L1, I suggested that through what appeared to be a defence for their high L1 use, they revealed that such use was not driven by any established positive theoretical underpinnings. Additionally, I reasoned that these various points forwarded in their defence did not necessarily justify the frequency of L1 use. Here, for example, I could make reference to the unwarranted wide L1 use in literature or in the use of contrastive analysis. This may indeed lead one to consider arguments forwarded by opponents of L1 use which suggest that by opening the door to the use of L1, there is a risk of its indiscriminate use (Polio, 1994). Even if such was to be accepted, it may be stated that the present research indicates that any indiscriminate use of the L1 within a context such as Libya is not merely linked to the opening of the door to the use of L1, rather with aspects such as a lack of teacher training and CPD, as well proficiency level of teachers.

The present research revealed that there was a small group of participants, English native speakers, whose use of minimum (GB teacher, study II) or no use of L1 (two participants in study III) were in line with what Macaro (1997) has referred to as the maximal and virtual perspectives. This, I suggested, reflects a potentially embedded theoretical stance that stresses the need for exposure to the TL, with the assumption being full immersion in an L2 environment leads to successful language acquisition; hence, use of the L1 is to be avoided (Nations, 2003). Such a stance points to the need for natural processes of language learning similar to those of L1, the risk of negative interference from

the L1 as well as preventing spontaneous production of TL output, and lowering confidence and motivation in the process of learning the target language (Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Turnbull, 2001; Duff & Polio, 1990).

Such a perspective, as I detailed in chapter 2, has been a dominant one till more current times (Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Hawkins, 2015), and as the present study shows, still influences practices amongst many teachers at the present. Here I proposed that the two teachers in chapter six (study III) may have through training and careers outside Libya been either directly or indirectly influenced by such views amounting to an “axiomatic insistence” of L2 use in all conditions (Auerbach, 1993:157). One may add that the practices of this group of teachers indicated the extent to which the English only view is still very much a current one based on some “...internalized assumption that they are not “good” teachers if they don’t” use L2 exclusively (Auerbach, 1993: 157).

I also suggested that these participants’ proficiency in Arabic, at least in comparison to that of their students, deterred its wider use in the case of GA teacher in chapter 4, and eliminated it with the two teachers in chapter 6 (study III). Some may suggest here that the native English speakers may be hiding their own knowledge of the L1 to “maintain ‘facsimiles of a monolingual L2 environment’ of dubious value” (Levine, 2012:3). Cook (2002) would argue that if the target is to achieve bilingualism rather than parallel monolingualism learners would, “need to be presented with proper role models of L2 users to emulate” (p. 336), but such monolingual practices, as presented by two teachers in chapter 6, would make such unmanageable.

An important point that I drew out from the present research in regards a participant who used L2 more (chapter 4, study I) was that her practices were favored more by some student, particularly more proficient ones. Perhaps one can argue that more the advanced learners would benefit more from “free conversation, more challenging written and aural input” (McMillan & Joyce, 2011:76). Indeed even amongst the less proficient majority, there was some reference made in chapter 4 that though they generally needed and liked the use of L1, yet they also expressed in the open-ended responses that at times they felt more L2 could help them progress. One would assume that students were calling for a judicious use of the L1.

All three studies show that for the majority of teachers L1 had numerous functions. The findings revealed that Arabic potentially served a number of pedagogical functions within the classroom. These included teaching grammar points, to explain any difficult or new points, to ensure comprehension, to save time, to deal with cross-cultural issues, to manage students, to give instructions, and affective reasons. Although recognizing such potential uses of L1 for teachers, I also suggested that various contextual factors may be contributing to the use of L1 in these various areas, especially in relations to teachers.

Similar to the results in the present study, other research has documented use of the L1 in various contexts (Macaro, 2005) with numerous benefits associated with this use (Macaro, 2001; Lee & Macaro, 2013). A body of research identifying the functions of L1 use in language classrooms revealed a commonality across studies (Macaro, 1997). One of the highest functions of L1 has been to teach grammar, which is in line with other research findings. Such was significant as it established the need for the use of L1 in explicit teaching of

structure within this context. This would challenge the argument that maximum exposure is crucial in achieving learning of the target language. A significant methodological question debated is in relation to the explicit teaching of grammar as oppose to stimulating language acquisition along a natural approach. In this regard Macaro (2000) states, “the case for learning the L2 ‘naturally,’ like infants acquire their L1, is not proven” (p. 178).

However, in relation to L1 functions in the present study, analysis of the data revealed that such was not based on any specific theoretical underpinnings; rather, such is linked with other factors including a lack of teacher training, teacher proficiency and the nature of the Libyan EFL classroom. This, the present research repeatedly highlighted as was indicative of arguments forwarded by participants in relation to why they used Arabic in different subjects. Here, in addition to reasons mentioned earlier, close analysis of the data revealed that reasons forwarded by participants to explain why they used L1 in their respective subjects, for example in using L1 to support the teaching of literature, didn’t justify such high use.

Teachers’ attitude was a complex area to explore since participants’ reported attitude and practices tended to contradict particularly as indicated in phase II; however, practices I took as indicative of held attitudes and considered as such when drawing conclusions. One can conclude that there are two different views in relation to the use of L1 as found in the present research. That is, the majority of participants who, through their practice, reveal a potentially positive attitude towards the use of L1, as based on contextual factors; and a small number who view such use negatively, as potentially based on some theoretical underpinnings or lack of proficiency in the L1.

Many of the participants gave the impression that L1 was regarded as a necessary evil to be endured; however, when reflecting on the potential practices of the majority of their practices one finds that even when mentioning “weaning” from the use of L1 following the second semester in study II, such did not alter the teachers’ willingness to turn to it if needed, and hence reflects some positive attitude. One may gather that students’ L1 is in regarded as a resource of knowledge which supports the teaching and the learning process, though as discussed, participants did not articulate similar views during the present study. Here I suggested that such a contradiction is due to the possibility that participants feel L1 use is negative; though one can only speculate that such a view was established through some interaction with native English teachers or through reading in the field. Another possibility is that they feel bad about such use but are limited in their practices due to proficiency issues in the TL.

Yet another proposed was that teachers were not actually of the opinion that the use of the MT is negative but felt under pressure to say so based on a conceived opinion that such is generally considered ‘bad practice’ with the field of ELT. A final consideration was that participants do not think of the use of L1 negatively but feel guilty for its excessive use. In this regard, the notion of guilt associated with the use of L1 has been discussed and as the argument runs, “...automatic guilt and perception of inadequacy proves unjustified as there is little empirical backing for the maximal position and a compellingly wide breadth of studies supporting less extreme positions” (Hawkins, 2015:32). However, such arguments would no doubt be in relation to legitimate and beneficial use of the L1.

7.2 Libyan students' frequency, functions, and attitudes towards the use of L1

Overall, the present research indicates that similar to teachers, Libyan students used L1 more frequently than L2. I also found that students in GB in study I (chapter 4) as well as some students in study III (chapter 5) used L2 more than L1. In study I, I gathered that students who used L1 less were more proficient, and more confident in the use of the L2, but also, as indicated by all three studies, they were not representative of the majority of the population of students in the department. The students in GA felt the use of L1 helped them, for example, through translation and asking or responding to questions in class and also made them feel less anxious. In this study, there were some similarities in findings between students of the two proficiency levels in terms of frequency of L1 use, for example, when students worked in groups to complete class work and when they communicated with each other. I can make the suggestion here that students' use of L1 promoted cooperation among learners where they shared ideas and helped each other using L1 (Atkinson, 1987; Tang 2002).

Additionally in the field of second language acquisition, there is the view that students who are not highly proficient in the target language use L1 to a large extent (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Tang, 2002; Norman, 2008). The argument that proponents of L1 use would forward in this regard is that such students, who are mainly of low proficiency level, use their MT as a resource, as it makes possible for them to learn English "without at the same time returning to infancy and learning to categories the world all over again" (Swan, 1985:96).

As is evident from chapter 4 (study I), even with more proficient learners the use of L1 was still necessary at certain points. Furthermore, the findings show that

need for L1 as an aid for learners in language learning and as a tool in the development during the early stages is by no means a permanent one as is revealed by the decreased need illustrated by more proficient learners in GB of phase I. Hence, taking this finding into consideration, the fear of student continued dependence on the L1 if used is debatable. The findings of the present study would support the view of various scholars that for the student L1 can be a cognitive tool, allowing scaffolding for learners in their efforts to accomplish learning tasks (Anton and DiCamilla, 1998), support learner comprehension, and help create a positive affective learning environment. Such views represent arguments that have called for the re-evaluation of the monolingual approach “from sociocultural, cognitive, and humanistic perspectives” (Hawkins, 2015:31).

Similarly, all three phases indicated numerous functions of L1 use for the majority of students, whereby they turned to L1 to ask for clarification from the teacher, to translate, and to interact with one another. In terms of functions of L1 for students, the present research highlights that student findings may support the notion that L1 facilitate the process of learning a target language (Turnbull, 2001). This could also support the view that L1 permits the development of strategies and approaches allowing learners to manage challenging tasks. I may suggest that findings indicate L1 moved learners through their zone of proximal development and played a strategic cognitive role in scaffolding (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Anton & DiCamilla, 1998). Results of the present research could add to the argument that use of L1 as a frame of reference makes language processing easier as language moves from input to intake, resulting in a better understanding of the L2 (Turnbull, 2001).

I linked student attitude with proficiency level based on my findings. Such is in line with research which has established that students' proficiency level and attitude towards the use of L1 can be connected (Prodromou, 2002a; Carson & Kashihara, 2012). The majority of student in the present research, who I regarded of low proficiency level, tended to prefer a greater use of L1 within the classroom and felt positive and motivated by this use, as well as believed it supported their learning process. However, a small percentage of more proficient students held opposite views. Such indicates that attitudes towards L1 change with the development of proficiency level. Research has shown that students' mother tongue foster a positive affective learning environment, especially for beginners and intermediate classes, and hence potentially a greater motivation to learn the FL (Tang, 2002; Wells, 1999; Schweers, 1999). Thus, the appropriate use of L1 may lead to such positive conditions, though the extent to which L1 use in the Libyan context is indeed appropriate may be debatable. The fact that students' attitude is not fixed and that those of higher proficiency level have clearly developed a more positive attitude towards the use of L2, weakens the argument that L1 use can lead to demotivation in learning the L2 (Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Duff & Polio, 1990; Ellis, 2005).

The results of my three studies show that various factors within the Libyan EFL classroom lead, with some exceptions, to an overall high use of L1 (Arabic) among teachers and students. In addition, attitudes of teachers are mostly positive, and those of students differed according to proficiency level. The research ultimately indicates that the use of L1 can be beneficial to learners, especially when considering research in relation to lower proficiency learners, who are the majority in the present research. However, here by merely pointing

to teacher use of L1 without adding the aspects of wide and perhaps indiscriminate nature of such use would not convey a true presentation of reality nor any potential consequences. Such use as based on factors linked with the teachers and the context rather than on the well-informed application of the L1 puts any potential benefits of this practice into question. So under certain circumstances structured L1 use can serve as a valuable social, cognitive, and affective tool if the student and teachers share the L1, but caution does have to be taken to ensure these conditions.

It may be suggested that when considering an issue such as MT use, one needs to keep in mind that contexts vary and so too do classrooms, teachers, and learners. As Meyer (2008) put it, “The amount of L1 use and how it is employed should vary with the classroom environment. The L1 provides scaffolding that should be gradually dismantled as the students’ progress. Not enough and affective filters may be raised, too much and progress is slowed” (p. 148). Such an informed use of L1 is necessary (Cook, 2001; Hawkins, 2015), but clearly lacking within the Libyan context. However, one would argue that in regards the MT within the Libyan EFL classroom, “Patent misuse does not preclude proper use” (Butzkamm, 2011:1). Here one would suggest that in order for teachers to determine when their use of L1 is productive would require the development of effective teacher training and CPD programs which would address aspects such as belief and methodology. To complement this, there would also need to be improvements of teaching material and a re-evaluation of formal examinations.

7.3 Research limitations

In the present research, I identified a number of limitations and these I will highlight in the following. First, I had access to a limited number of Libyan universities; these were none the less considered typical higher education institutions within Libya. Additionally, I also encountered the issue of having limited access to observations during my last stage of research. I attempted to overcome this issue by using audio recording of lessons without being present in those classes. I also identified a limitation linked with classroom observations, in this regard Libyan teachers are generally not accustomed to being observed or asked about their instructional decisions. Observation in this context is also associated with an appraisal. Therefore, it was inevitable that the teachers potentially had some concerns about my presence in their classrooms, and this may have influenced their behaviors and perhaps those of the learners too.

The second issue is the perspective of students in the present research. I also had limited access to students in the present research. Further, the data I gathered from students was quantitative, and hence did not offer as rich detail as would have been possible through employing a qualitative research method. This was related to the security issue at the time of data collection restricting travel to Libya.

The final limitation is the translation of data. The interviews and large parts of observations audio recorded were in Arabic and I needed to translate these into English. Despite the fact that I paid considerable attention to the translation of the interviews, and asked Arabic speaking colleagues to check the translated data, the process is not without its shortcomings.

7.4 Research contributions

Despite the limitations outlined above, I believe that this research adds significantly to the relevant literature in numerous ways. Its findings contribute substantially in reducing what are still considerable gaps in knowledge and understanding of teachers and students' extent and reasons for L1 use, as well as attitudes towards this use. My research further adds rich and substantial data, shedding light on how practices can be constrained by many aspects and conditions both internal and external to the Libyan EFL teacher. It presented new and in depth insights on factors leading to teachers' L1 use within the Libyan EFL classroom, raising vital awareness of anticipated effects on the process of teaching and learning. My research has successfully highlighted the pressing need for change and improvement within the Libyan EFL context, with findings contributing constructively in informing future policy makers' developments of curriculum and towards the significant role of practical and effective teacher training and CPD programs.

7.5 Suggestions for further research

In pursue of better informing future policy makers in terms of teacher training, and for curriculum designers, I would suggest that more research of this kind

would provide further insights into the use of the MT in other Libyan regions; particularly longitudinal observational studies. Such would shed light on the need to tackle potential underlying factors that shape L1 use within the Libyan EFL classroom and hence make way for potential appropriate developments. Further research is also needed to examine students' perceptions of the issue of L1 use across different proficiency levels utilizing both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Finally, this study raises the question of student performance in relation to L1/L2 use. Research in this area is limited generally and missing entirely in Libya; hence, future empirical research is necessary to explore this area.

Appendix (1a)

| | PAGE | TOPIC | LESSON | DETAILS |
|--------|-----------------|------------------------|-------------|---|
| UNIT 1 | 6 | The skill of reading | SK1.1 | Transferring information |
| | 8 | The skill of speaking | SK1.2–1.3 | Conversation - greeting and giving personal information |
| | 10 | The skill of writing | SK1.4–1.6 | Writing about experiences |
| | 12 | Lab work 1 | LP1.1 | Greeting and giving personal information |
| | 13 | Lab work 2 | LP1.2 | The sounds of English |
| | 14 | Listening development | LP1.3 | Cave paintings |
| | 15 | The skill of listening | LP1.4 | Identifying words and phrases in speech |
| | 16 | Pronunciation 1 | LP1.5 | /p/ and /b/ |
| | 16 | Pronunciation 2 | LP1.6 | /i/ and /i:/ |
| UNIT 2 | 18 | The skill of reading | SK2.1 | Understanding timetables |
| | 20 | The skill of speaking | SK2.2–2.3 | Conversation - everyday English |
| | 22 | The skill of writing | SK2.4–2.6 | Different types of texts |
| | 24 | Lab work 1 | LP2.1 | Formal and informal partings |
| | 25 | Lab work 2 | LP2.2 | /t/ and /d/; /æ/ and /a:/ |
| | 26 | Listening development | LP2.3 | Formal and informal letters |
| | 27 | The skill of listening | LP2.4 | Identifying key information |
| | 28 | Pronunciation 1 | LP2.5 | /t/ and /d/ |
| | 28 | Pronunciation 2 | LP2.6 | /æ/ and /a:/ |
| UNIT 3 | 30 | The skill of reading | SK3.1 | Understanding a first person narrative |
| | 32 | The skill of speaking | SK3.2–3.3 | Conversation - telling a story |
| | 34 | The skill of writing | SK3.4–3.6 | Telling a story |
| | 36 | Lab work 1 | LP3.1 | Telling a story |
| | 37 | Lab work 2 | LP3.2 | /k/ and /g/; /e/ and /ɜ:/ |
| | 38 | Listening development | LP3.3 | Formal and informal partings |
| | 39 | The skill of listening | LP3.4 | Understanding a first person narrative |
| | 40 | Pronunciation 1 | LP3.5 | /k/ and /g/ |
| | 40 | Pronunciation 2 | LP3.6 | /e/ and /ɜ:/ |
| UNIT 4 | 42 | The skill of reading | SK4.1 | Understanding a popular science article |
| | 44 | The skill of speaking | SK4.2–4.3 | Intonation |
| | 46 | The skill of writing | SK4.4–4.6 | Writing a biography and autobiography |
| | 48 | Lab work 1 | LP4.1 | Agreeing and disagreeing |
| | 49 | Lab work 2 | LP4.2 | /tʃ/ and /dʒ/; /ɒ/ and /ʊ:/ |
| | 50 | Listening development | LP4.3 | Picture language |
| | 51 | The skill of listening | LP4.4 | Weights and measures |
| | 52 | Pronunciation 1 | LP4.5 | /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ |
| | 52 | Pronunciation 2 | LP4.6 | /ɒ/ and /ʊ:/ |
| UNIT 5 | 54 | The skill of reading | SK5.1 | Scanning for information in a guide |
| | 56 | The skill of speaking | SK5.2–5.3 | Conversation - performing a short dialogue |
| | 58 | The skill of writing | SK5.4–5.6 | British and Canadian English |
| | 60 | Lab work 1 | LP5.1 | Offering |
| | 61 | Lab work 2 | LP5.2 | /f/ and /v/; /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/ |
| | 62 | Listening development | LP5.3 | Talking about hobbies |
| | 63 | The skill of listening | LP5.4 | Identifying key information |
| 64 | Pronunciation 1 | LP5.5 | /f/ and /v/ | |
| | 64 | Pronunciation 2 | LP5.6 | /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/ |
| UNIT 6 | 66 | The skill of reading | SK6.1 | Understanding a newspaper article |
| | 68 | The skill of speaking | SK6.2–6.3 | Conversation - recounting an accident |
| | 70 | The skill of writing | SK6.4–6.6 | Organizing information about an accident |
| | 72 | Lab work 1 | LP6.1 | Showing surprise, pleasure, shock |
| | 73 | Lab work 2 | LP6.2 | /ʌ/ and /ə/; /ð/ and /θ/ |
| | 74 | Listening development | LP6.3 | Photography |
| | 75 | The skill of listening | LP6.4 | Understanding a narrative |
| 75 | Pronunciation 1 | LP6.5 | /ð/ and /θ/ | |
| | 76 | Pronunciation 2 | LP6.6 | /ʌ/ and /ə/ |

Appendix (1b)

| | PAGE | TOPIC | LESSON | DETAILS |
|----------------|------|------------------------|-------------|---|
| UNIT 7 | 78 | The skill of reading | SK7.1 | Predicting from reading |
| | 80 | The skill of speaking | SK7.2–7.3 | At the bank, talking about money |
| | 82 | The skill of writing | SK7.4–7.6 | Advertising slogans, leaflets and commercials |
| | 84 | Listening development | LP7.1 | English-speaking areas – The Caribbean |
| | 85 | The skill of listening | LP7.2 | Understanding information |
| | 86 | Pronunciation 1 | LP7.3 | Linking |
| | 86 | Pronunciation 2 | LP7.4 | Liaison – final ‘r’ (1) |
| | 87 | Lab work 1 | LP7.5 | Functions – asking for services |
| | 88 | Lab work 2 | LP7.6 | Spoken language – liaison – final ‘r’ (2) |
| UNIT 8 | 90 | The skill of reading | SK8.1 | Predicting from headlines |
| | 92 | The skill of speaking | SK8.2–8.3 | Keeping a conversation going |
| | 94 | The skill of writing | SK8.4–8.6 | Making a report, writing a news article |
| | 96 | Listening development | LP8.1 | Literature – Edgar Allan Poe |
| | 97 | The skill of listening | LP8.2 | Understanding radio news |
| | 98 | Pronunciation 1 | LP8.3 | Suppressed plosives |
| | 98 | Pronunciation 2 | LP8.4 | Liaison – intrusive ‘r’ |
| | 99 | Lab work 1 | LP8.5 | Functions – narrating |
| | 100 | Lab work 2 | LP8.6 | Spoken language – liaison – suppressed plosives and intrusive ‘r’ |
| UNIT 9 | 102 | The skill of reading | SK9.1 | Talking about the past |
| | 104 | The skill of speaking | SK9.2–9.3 | Talking about the distant past and your past |
| | 106 | The skill of writing | SK9.4–9.6 | Reminiscences |
| | 108 | Listening development | LP9.1 | <i>Roget’s Thesaurus</i> |
| | 109 | The skill of listening | LP9.2 | Discriminating between single events and past habits |
| | 110 | Pronunciation 1 | LP9.3 | Assimilation |
| | 110 | Pronunciation 2 | LP9.4 | Intrusive /w/ and /j/ |
| | 111 | Lab work 1 | LP9.5 | Functions – narrating |
| | 112 | Lab work 2 | LP9.6 | Spoken language – assimilation and intrusive /w/ and /j/ |
| UNIT 10 | 114 | The skill of reading | SK10.1 | Reason and result |
| | 116 | The skill of speaking | SK10.2–10.3 | Explaining what happened and why |
| | 118 | The skill of writing | SK10.4–10.6 | Causes and effects |
| | 120 | Listening development | LP10.1 | Collocation |
| | 121 | The skill of listening | LP10.2 | Discriminating between cause and effect |
| | 122 | Pronunciation 1 | LP10.3 | Silent letters |
| | 122 | Pronunciation 2 | LP10.4 | Sound 1 + sound 2 = sound 3 |
| | 123 | Lab work 1 | LP10.5 | Functions – asking for reasons and results |
| | 124 | Lab work 2 | LP10.6 | Spoken language – silent letters |
| UNIT 11 | 126 | The skill of reading | SK11.1 | Distinguishing facts from hopes, fears and wishes |
| | 128 | The skill of speaking | SK11.2–11.3 | Talking about the future, making, accepting and refusing invitations |
| | 130 | The skill of writing | SK11.4–11.6 | Describing problems, making wishes for the future, putting forward a plan of action |
| | 132 | Listening development | LP11.1 | English-speaking areas – South-East Asia |
| | 133 | The skill of listening | LP11.2 | Talking about the future |
| | 134 | Pronunciation 1 | LP11.3 | Word stress |
| | 134 | Pronunciation 2 | LP11.4 | Stress and liaison |
| | 135 | Lab work 1 | LP11.5 | Functions – talking about the future |
| | 136 | Lab work 2 | LP11.6 | Spoken language – word stress and liaison |
| UNIT 12 | 138 | The skill of reading | SK12.1 | Review |
| | 140 | The skill of speaking | SK12.2–12.3 | Review |
| | 142 | The skill of writing | SK12.4–12.6 | Review |
| | 144 | Listening development | LP12.1 | Literature – Edward Lear |
| | 145 | The skill of listening | LP12.2 | Review |
| | 146 | Pronunciation 1 | LP12.3 | Review – weak forms |
| | 146 | Pronunciation 2 | LP12.4 | Review – intrusive sounds |
| | 147 | Lab work 1 | LP12.5 | Review – functions |
| | 148 | Lab work 2 | LP12.6 | Review – spoken language |

Appendix (1c)

| | PAGE | TOPIC | LESSON | DETAILS |
|----------------|------|------------------------|-------------|--|
| UNIT 7 | 78 | The skill of reading | SK7.1 | Topic sentences and lexical cohesion |
| | 80 | The skill of speaking | SK7.2–7.3 | Relating a newspaper story |
| | 82 | The skill of writing | SK7.4–7.6 | Paragraph development – defining, exemplifying, topic sentences |
| | 84 | Listening development | LP7.1 | Special-purpose language – business English |
| | 85 | The skill of listening | LP7.2 | Revision |
| | 86 | Pronunciation 1 | LP7.3 | Revision (1) |
| | 86 | Pronunciation 2 | LP7.4 | Revision (2) |
| | 87 | Lab work 1 | LP7.5 | Functions – revision – reporting functions |
| | 88 | Lab work 2 | LP7.6 | Spoken language – articulation and diphthongs |
| UNIT 8 | 90 | The skill of reading | SK8.1 | Reading and reacting (1) |
| | 92 | The skill of speaking | SK8.2–8.3 | Starting conversations |
| | 94 | The skill of writing | SK8.4–8.6 | Paragraph development – classifying and exemplifying |
| | 96 | Listening development | LP8.1 | Special-purpose language – travel and tourism |
| | 97 | The skill of listening | LP8.2 | Understanding a lecture |
| | 98 | Pronunciation 1 | LP8.3 | Sight / sound relationships – consonants |
| | 98 | Pronunciation 2 | LP8.4 | Intonation patterns – falling tune |
| | 99 | Lab work 1 | LP8.5 | Functions – congratulating and commiserating |
| | 100 | Lab work 2 | LP8.6 | Spoken language – consonants and falling intonation |
| UNIT 9 | 102 | The skill of reading | SK9.1 | Reading and reacting (2) |
| | 104 | The skill of speaking | SK9.2–9.3 | Everyday English – giving and receiving feedback on performance |
| | 106 | The skill of writing | SK9.4–9.6 | Paragraph development – comparing and contrasting |
| | 108 | Listening development | LP9.1 | Special-purpose language – immigrant English |
| | 109 | The skill of listening | LP9.2 | Personal development |
| | 110 | Pronunciation 1 | LP9.3 | Single vowels |
| | 110 | Pronunciation 2 | LP9.4 | The first rising tune |
| | 111 | Lab work 1 | LP9.5 | Functions – praising and criticizing constructively |
| | 112 | Lab work 2 | LP9.6 | Spoken language – sounds of single vowels and first rising tune |
| UNIT 10 | 114 | The skill of reading | SK10.1 | Understanding extra information |
| | 116 | The skill of speaking | SK10.2–10.3 | Everyday English – persuading and dissuading |
| | 118 | The skill of writing | SK10.4–10.6 | Paragraph development – cause and effect |
| | 120 | Listening development | LP10.1 | Cause and effect – the environment |
| | 121 | The skill of listening | LP10.2 | Revision |
| | 122 | Pronunciation 1 | LP10.3 | Sounds of two vowels |
| | 122 | Pronunciation 2 | LP10.4 | The second rising tune |
| | 123 | Lab work 1 | LP10.5 | Functions – persuading and dissuading |
| | 124 | Lab work 2 | LP10.6 | Spoken language – sounds of two vowels and second rising tune |
| UNIT 11 | 126 | The skill of reading | SK11.1 | Understanding a scientific report (1) |
| | 128 | The skill of speaking | SK11.2–11.3 | Using pre-organizers; giving a presentation |
| | 130 | The skill of writing | SK11.4–11.6 | Paragraph development – collecting information, paragraphs with headings |
| | 132 | Listening development | LP11.1 | Special-purpose language – academic English |
| | 133 | The skill of listening | LP11.2 | Understanding a scientific report (2) |
| | 134 | Pronunciation 1 | LP11.3 | Revision |
| | 134 | Pronunciation 2 | LP11.4 | Falling – rising tune |
| | 135 | Lab work 1 | LP11.5 | Functions – praising and criticizing constructively |
| | 136 | Lab work 2 | LP11.6 | Spoken language – sounds of single vowels and first rising tune |
| UNIT 12 | 138 | The skill of reading | SK12.1 | Review |
| | 140 | The skill of speaking | SK12.2–12.3 | Review |
| | 142 | The skill of writing | SK12.4–12.6 | Review – vocabulary and skills revision |
| | 144 | Listening development | LP12.1 | Linguistic variations |
| | 145 | The skill of listening | LP12.2 | Review |
| | 146 | Pronunciation 1 | LP12.3 | Review |
| | 146 | Pronunciation 2 | LP12.4 | Review |
| | 147 | Lab work 1 | LP12.5 | Functions – review |
| | 148 | Lab work 2 | LP12.6 | Spoken language – review |

Appendix (2)

The skill of speaking 2

SK18.3: Taking part in a discussion

A Look at the words in the box. Discuss the questions.

- How are they similar?
- How are they different?

a talk an interview a row a chat
a seminar a speech a lecture a gossip
a tutorial an argument a discussion

B Read Ahmed's letter.

- What problems does he have?
- What advice would you give him?

*Dear Sally
I'm starting university next week and I'll have to go to seminars and tutorials. I'm really worried because I'm not very good at expressing myself. Everyone else seems to know what they want to say, and they have no trouble getting the attention of other people. Even when I do say something, no one seems to listen or understand what I'm trying to say. Please help me!
Ahmed*

C Look at these expressions from a discussion. When would you use them?

- I'm with you there *to agree with someone*
- In my opinion, ...
- Could you explain that?
- I'm sorry, I don't agree.
- If I could just come in here, ...
- I'm afraid I disagree.
- You're right.
- What exactly do you mean by ...?
- I'm sorry, I'm not with you.
- I don't know what you mean.

- I don't understand.
- Let's ask (Ali).
- I agree.
- Could I just say ...?
- Sorry to interrupt, but ...
- What do you think?
- Do you agree?
- I can't agree.
- That's a good point.
- If you ask me, ...
- I think (that) ...
- I see what you mean.

D Complete the dialogue with the expressions from the list.

- A: ① _____ that teachers will soon be obsolete.
B: ② _____ 'obsolete'?
- A: I mean that they will be old-fashioned, no longer necessary, out of date.
B: ③ _____, I mean, how would we learn things? Look at languages, for example.
A: ④ _____, but we can learn everything we need from computers.
B: ⑤ _____, young children can't use computers.
A: OK, ⑥ _____ that very young children need teachers, but people of our age don't.
B: Well, ⑦ _____ our teacher! Mr Smith?
⑧ _____? Are teachers becoming obsolete?

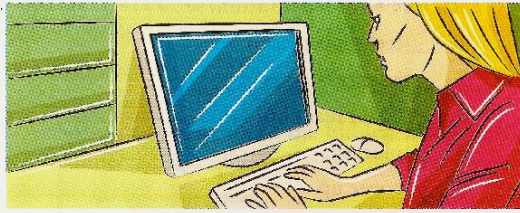
E Work in groups of four.

Discuss the subjects below. Use as many of the expressions from the list as possible.

- Everyone in the world should speak English.
- You can learn better without a teacher.
- Education should be compulsory until the age of eighteen.
- People don't need to learn how to study.
- Exams are a waste of time.

The skill of speaking 1

SK10.2: Everyday English – persuading and dissuading



Conversation 1

A: You've been working all morning.

① _____

B: ② _____ I've got this essay to complete for tomorrow.

A: ③ _____ It's not good for you to spend too much time on the computer.

B: OK. ④ _____ Let's have a drink.

Conversation 2

C: I'm going to the teaching conference in Tripoli next month.

D: That sounds really interesting.

C: ⑤ _____ It will be great to go with a friend.

D: ⑥ _____ I can't take two days off work.

C: ⑦ _____ I'm sure it will be useful.

D: ⑧ _____

Conversation 3

E: I really need that report today. I have to prepare for a meeting.

F: ⑨ _____ I'm waiting for some figures from Tom.

E: Would it be possible to phone him and ask him to send them over?

F: ⑩ _____ He'll be in his office today.

E: ⑪ _____

F: ⑫ _____ Don't worry.

A When you try to persuade someone to do something, you need a range of expressions, to show the other person that you are willing to compromise.

1. Reorder the words to make sentences.

a) come / must / with / you / me .

b) bit / a / that's / difficult .

c) you / why / break / a / have / don't ?

d) least / you / try / at / should .

e) not / I'm / sure .

f) stop / drink / couldn't / just / a / you / for ?

g) it's / afraid / impossible / I'm .

h) then / do / you'll / it ?

i) think / it / I'll / about / well .

j) think / should / I / so .

k) I / yes / will .

l) into / you've / it / talked / me .

2. Use the sentences from Exercise A to complete the conversations.

B Read the text again. How do the speakers try to make their arguments stronger?

C Work in pairs.

1. Read the first conversation in pairs. Practise both roles. Cover the conversation and try to recreate it from memory.

2. Repeat with each conversation.

D Role-play the situations in pairs, using expressions for persuading and dissuading, and reasons. Try to reach a compromise that makes both of you happy.

1. Your best friend has been working hard. You think he / she needs a holiday. Try to persuade him / her to go away with you.

2. Your teacher has given you a lot of homework to complete at the weekend. Try to persuade him / her to give you an extension. Remember to be polite!

3. Your friend wants to buy a motorbike. You think they are dangerous. Try to dissuade him from buying it.

4. You want to borrow your sister's computer to do some research. She's playing a game. Try to persuade her to lend you her computer.

5. You are a teacher. One of your students isn't doing as well as you'd hoped. Try to persuade him / her to do study more.

E Work with another pair. Perform your conversations for the other pair. Give each other feedback.

Appendix (4)

استخدام اللغة العربية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزي

فيما يلي عدد من النقاط حول استعمال اللغة العربية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة بنغازي و هذا الاستبيان هو جزء من البحث لمعرفة مدى استعمال اللغة العربية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية ولن يطلب منك تقديم المعلومات نرجوا منك الإشارة برأيك بعد علية الشخصية الخاصة بك ، فقط رقم مجموعتك ، حتى لا تكون ردودك مرتبطة بك شخصيا قراءة كل نقطة من النقاط الموضوعية بالاستبيان وذلك بوضع دائرة حول الخيار الذي يعبر عن اختيارك من العبارات الخمس وفي نهاية الاستبيان توجد بعض الاسئلة نرجوا الاجابة عليها بشئ من التفصيل

| نقاط الاستبيان | اعارض بقوة | اعارض | محايد | اتفق | اتفق بقوة |
|--|------------|-------|-------|------|-----------|
| 1. عادة ما أتحدث مع أستاذي باللغة العربية حول المشاكل التي أواجهها | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. يستخدم أستاذي في اغلب الوقت العربية للسيطرة على الصف | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. أنا أفهم الدروس أقل عندما أترجمها في الصف. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. يستخدم أستاذي غالبا اللغة العربية لتحقيق من مدى استيعابي للدرس | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. يتجاوب أستاذي معي إذا اطلبت منه استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. أستاذي عادة يشيد بالسلوك الجيد من قبل الطلاب باللغة العربية. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. أنا أفضل أن أسأل باللغة العربية | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. في اغلب الأحيان يشرح أستاذي كيف ينبغي علي أن اجيب على التمارين باللغة العربية | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. عادة ما استخدم اللغة الإنجليزية مع أستاذي لمناقشة القضايا التي أواجهها | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. عندما يحتاج أستاذي السيطرة على الصف هو/هي يستخدم اللغة الإنجليزية | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. الترجمة خلال الصف تساعدني على فهم الدروس أكثر | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. يستخدم أستاذي في المقام الاول اللغة الإنجليزية للتأكد من أنني أفهم النقاط الرئيسية | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. المعلم عادة ما يستخدم اللغة العربية لتعريف الكلمات الجديدة | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. أجد العمل الجماعي أسهل إذا كان بإمكانني استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. يتعامل أستاذي مع الضوضاء في الصف باللغة العربية في اغلب الأوقات | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 16. أنا وأستاذي في معظم الاحيان نستخدم اللغة العربية عند الحديث |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 17. أستاذي يبدأ الدرس بشرح أهداف الدرس باللغة العربية |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 18. أنا أستمع أكثر عندما يستخدم أستاذي اللغة العربية خلال الدرس |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 19. يتم إعطاء تحذيرات حول سوء السلوك من قبل أستاذي باللغة العربية في معظم الوقت |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 20. يمكنني تقديم اقتراحات لمعلمي عن الأعمال المستقبلية باللغة العربية |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 21. يستخدم أستاذي العربية عندما أطلب منه/منها ذلك |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 22. في أغلب الاحيان يستخدم أستاذي الإنجليزية عند الثناء على السلوك الحسن في الصف |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 23. أنا أفضل أن أسأل باللغة الإنجليزية |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 24. أستاذي يستخدم في الغالب اللغة الإنجليزية لإعطاء تعليمات على اجابة التمارين |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 25. أستاذي عادة ما يستخدم اللغة الإنجليزية لتذليل الصعوبات |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 26. أشعر أن استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية فقط من قبل أستاذي يحسن مهاراتي اللغوية |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 27. أستاذي عادة ما يستخدم اللغة الإنجليزية وذل ليضعنا في مجموعات |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 28. في اغلب الاوقات استاذي يستعمل اللغة الانجليزية عندما يقدم لي النصيحة |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 29. المحادثات مع أستاذي هي في المقام الأول باللغة الإنجليزية |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 30. أستاذي يستخدم في المقام الأول الإنجليزية لتهدئة الطلبة المشاغبين |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 31. تصبح الأنشطة الجماعية في الصف أكثر صعوبة إذا حدد استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 32. في اغلب الاحيان المفردات الجديدة يتم شرحها باللغة الانكليزية من قبل استاذي |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 33. باستخدام اللغة الانج أن ندرسة ليزية يمكنني أن أقدم أفكارى لمعلمي حول ما ينبغي علينا |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 34. أستاذي عادة يحذر الطلاب المعرقلين للصف باللغة الإنجليزية |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 35. عندما يستخدم أستاذي اللغة العربية في الصف يجعل الدرس أقل متعة بالنسبة لي |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 36. يستخدم أستاذي معظم الوقت اللغة الإنجليزية للتعريف بأهداف الصف |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 37. يستعمل أستاذي عادة اللغة العربية لتوضيح النقاط الصعب فهمها |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 38. أعتقد أنني أتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية أقل إذا كان أستاذي يستخدم الإنجليزية فق |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 39. المعلم في اغلب الاحيان يستخدم العربية عندما يطلب منا استكمال العمل في مجموعات |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 40. أتلقى توجيهات من أستاذي في الغالب باللغة العربية |

1. في رأيك ، ما هي الأسباب الرئيسية التي تجعل معلمك يستخدم اللغة العربية في الصف؟

معلمي يستخدم اللغة العربية في الصف ل

2 ما هو شعورك عندما يستخدم معلمك اللغة العربية ولماذا شعرت بذلك ؟

عندما يستخدم المعلم اللغة العربية , هذا يجعلني أشعر
لان

3 ما هي الأسباب الرئيسية التي تجعلك تستخدم اللغة العربية في الصف؟

شك

را

(Appendix 5)

Use of Arabic and English language teaching

The following are a number of statements about the use of English and Arabic in teaching Literary Readings at your university. These questionnaires will be used as a part of a research into the use of Arabic in English language teaching. You will not be asked to provide your personal details, just your group number, so your responses will never be linked to you personally. I would be grateful if you would indicate your opinion after each statement by circling the response from 1-5 that best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Thank you very much for your help.

Group number: _____

| | STRONGLY AGREE | AGREE | NEUTRAL | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE |
|--|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|
| I would like my teacher to use Arabic in teaching English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I prefer using Arabic in class whenever possible. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I feel my teacher uses English to discipline if the class is disruptive. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I understand lessons less when my teacher uses only English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Difficult tasks become easier if instructions are given in Arabic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I enjoy group activities more when English is used. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| My teacher uses Arabic to check our comprehension in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I understand lesson better if Arabic is used. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Our teacher usually uses Arabic to introduce new vocabulary. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am able to successfully complete class work when my teacher gives instructions in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I feel anxious if I cannot translate in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses only English in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher introduces new class work in Arabic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I feel the use of English in class improves my language skills. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I can express my confusion better in Arabic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I feel my teacher uses Arabic to gain control over the class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I feel anxious when my teacher uses Arabic in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| My teacher uses only English while teaching. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher allows me to use Arabic outside teaching time to express my concerns. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher only uses Arabic if i ask her to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Translating in class helps me understand lessons more. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I prefer using Arabic in group activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses English when explaining new vocabulary. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I prefer for difficult activities to be explained in Arabic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I prefer my teacher using English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses Arabic to explain complex ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses Arabic throughout the lesson. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher allows me to use only English during class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I enjoy being taught in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| I usually seek clarification in Arabic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses English at the beginning of new lessons. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher asks me to express my concerns in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I can answer questions better when asked in Arabic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses Arabic at the end of lessons to check my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have difficulty responding to questions asked in English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses Arabic only during class breaks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I can talk to my teacher in Arabic during class about any problems I have. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses Arabic only if student ask her to do so. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses Arabic to explain difficult class work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My teacher uses English at the end of class to check my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1. In your opinion what are the main reason why your teacher uses Arabic in class?

My teacher uses Arabic in class to

2. How do you feel when your teacher uses Arabic and why?

When the teacher uses Arabic this makes me feel

—

Because

—

—

3. What are the main reasons why you use Arabic in class?

—

—

Thank you

Appendix (6)

Interview questions

1. *From your experience, how much Arabic do you think is being used by other teachers in their classes? What proportion of the teachers would you say that was?*
2. *How much Arabic do you feel should be used when teaching English at the university?*
3. *Can you tell me how you feel about the use of Arabic in your classes in teaching English at the university? What makes you say this?*
4. *What things influence how much Arabic you use in your classes? Any specific times or areas that make this need greater? Can you give me some examples?*
5. *Would you consider extending your use of Arabic equally to all year groups? Can you tell me some reasons why?*
6. *Have you observed positive/negative outcomes as a result of the use of Arabic in your groups? Can you tell me a bit more about this? Example?*
7. *Looking at your previous teaching practices, would your use of L1 be any different in another setting? How so? What makes you say this?*
8. *Do you feel students prefer the use of Arabic in your groups? Is that the majority or minority?*
9. *Are there particular students who seem to come to you and request greater input in Arabic/English? Would you say they shared anything in common?*
10. *Do you feel students influence the extent of Arabic use within their classes? How so?*
11. *What sort of needs do students express when they request the use of Arabic/English?*

12. *What can you tell me about the level of students who have just arrived from high school?*
13. *Can you give me some idea about the learning experience of young students arriving from high school, in terms of their teachers' approach to ELT for example?*
14. *Are you aware of what the situation is in terms of teacher training in Libya? Can you elaborate?*
15. *Is there anything else you would like to add? Any points that I may have missed? Or maybe something you wish to go back to and discuss/elaborate on further?*

Appendix (7)

Classroom Observation Tally Sheet from Nunan (1989)

Date: Time: Year: Teacher: Number of students:

Tallies

Totals

| |
|--|
| T's L1 use - Control class |
| 1. T's L1 use -to communicate complex |
| T.L1 use - give instructions |

| | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| T, L1 use - Social interactions | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher warns disruptive students 2. To quieten students |
| T, L1 use to motivate students | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Teacher explains (vocabulary, grammatical point, idea) 4. Teacher asks question to check comprehension |
| Students use of L1 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Teacher directs students to page and exercise 6. Teacher tells students how to complete tasks |

7. Teacher speaks with student (non-class related)

8. Teacher jokes with student

9. Teacher encourages students

10. Teacher praises students

11. Student asks teacher a question

12. Students discuss class work together

13. Student chat with each other (non-class work related)

14. Students chat with teacher (non-class work related)

Appendix (8)

The following are extracts from the classroom observations, Chapter 6. All underlined sections are in Arabic, and all other sections are in English. *T* is used to indicate teacher utterances, and *S* student utterances. Additional information is provided in brackets.

Extract 1a:

T. Adverbs of frequency, these come before the main verb...ok, so what is the function of this?...it modifies the verb, gives additional information about the verb...so it is positioned close to the verb...before the verb. That is (writes on the board) He usually gets up at 8. Okay. If I was to delete usually...the sentence becomes HE gets up at 8. If we were to look carefully at this sentence, what is it telling us?

S. He wakes up at 8.

T. He wakes up at 8...what is implied here?

S. Habit?

T. Yes...habit. It's a definite habit. He gets up at 8. But when we insert usually, we are saying its not a daily habit, that sometimes he may not wake up at 8. Okay, so usually makes it less of a definite, fixed habit...may or mayn't take place. Okay, now to negate it?

S. He...he (*Hesitates*)

T. Come on...he...?

S. Doesn't usually get up at 8.

T. Yes, he does not usually get up at 8. Here with the negation we negated the usual aspect. The possibility of him waking up at 8 is unlikely. If we say always... by saying he always does something we are giving a definite strong statement that tells us how often he does this action. He does not wakes up at 8. We use adverbs of frequency to control the how often the action is repeated...this is the action...the verb, so here this determines how often the action occurs, now if we take other examples: he sometimes, he always, he never, here the adverb I use has to be the most appropriate to the message I intend to convey. I can have a perfect sentence without adverb of frequency, but should I insert one, I intend to convey a particular messages. Yes

Extract 1b:

T. (The teacher points to a student), He always plays football...

S. He always plays football.

T. Yes. We can add here and say on Sundays, on Sundays. If you say he always plays football...you are implying all the time, but you may put particular days for example Sundays. Ok...yes..yes Ahmed

S. (mumbles, no response)

T. A sentence...a sentences...you will have to try and participate...its important. It doesn't have to be correct...yes

S. He sometimes watch TV.

T. What correction do we need here? Think about watch

S. Watches.

T. Yes...we need the S...remember we covered this...ok good, he sometimes watches T.V. So every now and then sometimes

S. I usually have dinner at 10.

T. Good, I usually have dinner at 10. Come on... other people too...Ahmed... Yahya...come on, speak up...take part. I am not looking for correct answers by the way...at this point we are doing an exercise to practice something new...we are bound to make errors and that's ok...it's in this class that you need learn how to correct your errors...its ok to make errors. We are here to make errors to learn...so try, its ok if you get it wrong. Then you can outside and know the correct way of speaking. Classroom are made for making mistakes by the way...so this issue you have is to do with teaching method that require for you to either say the correct answer or keep quiet! No...for me as a teacher I am more interested in those who make errors than those who get it all correct...because I want to know what you are struggling with...by keeping quiet you don't allow me to help you improve...so PLEASE answer even if incorrect...I honestly don't see this as a bad thing...it is not to be ashamed of...you are seeking knowledge here...its not shameful to make mistakes. Ok so please...yes (pointing to a student)

S. We always study English at Sundays.

T. We always study English...not AT ...the correct preposition to use here is ON, not AT. So...I can say I always study English on Sunday...great, so every Sunday you go and study English. Yes...

Extract 2:

T. To negate this... Are they in a hotel?

S. (Students respond as a group) They are not at the hotel.

T. Turn this into a positive sentence (*The teacher requests this from the class*).

S. (*A student responds*) They are in the hotel.

T. They ARE in the hotel...they ARE NOT in the hotel...ok all clear?

S. (*A few students say yes...some nod, others no reaction*).

T. When I come to construct a question ...if I was to ask you are we in London?

S. (*Students- no clear response...some incorrect attempts*)

T. NO...I am asking you this question ... are we in London now?....NO, WE ARE IN Baida

Are we in London, no we are not...we are in Baida. The question here was if we were in London now...so the answer is... no we are in Baida. Ok? Here we have a YES or NO QUESTION. All is expected of you is either confirm or reject the information...you confirm by saying YES or negate by saying NO. You can give a full answer rather than

a short YES OR NO ANSWER by saying no, we are not in London....or yes, we are in London. Ok now...are you teachers (pointing to the class)?

S. (*Students respond as a group*) no, we are students.

T. Ok if I wanted to say she is an engineer (pointing to one student)?

S. She is engineer.

T. AN engineer. (*Points to a student*) Ok, is he an engineer? (*Asks the whole group*).

S. No, he is a student.

T. (*Points to a students*) If I wanted to ask about those two girls ... if I wanted to ask if they were students?

Extract 3a:

T. Uh...ok. Ok, just tell me who you are, what your name is, where you live, what are your hobbies...

S. Whats "hobbies?"

T. Hobbies...what you are interested in doing, things you like...okay. Anything you want to share, like if you have brothers and sister...anything...but you don't have to. I just want to get an idea of where you are in English...ok...so now we will start...start with you (pointing to a student).

S. (*The student starts speaking reluctantly and giggle, then stops and says*) ...last one.

T. Last one?...ok (*she wants to be the last student to participate*).

T. Don't worry, its ok to make mistakes. I think you need some advice...ok, speak up, because its not your language...right?...its not your native language so if you are weak...and your not sure, its not your language...and you wisper...this creates a problem...its going to make it hard to be a good student...so it is not a problem...go ahead and butcher the language...do you know what the word BUTCHER means? The word butcher means Jazzar (butcher in Arabic)

S. (*The students listen*)

T. Be like a butcher...chop the language up...break it up ... ok go ahead...but SPEAK UP OK.

S. (*A student responds, speaks loud and clear*) my name is wesam and I live in Benghazi. I like to play football.

T. GOOD...that's fine.

Extract 3a(i):

T. Yes, too much pressure makes you stressed. Ok, continuous assignment...what does this mean? It means: continuous mustamer and assignment is like a homework..wajib.

S. (A student volunteers) Taqeem mutawasil.

T. Oh no, not that...oh you are right, I AM SORRY, YOU ARE CORRECT it is continuous assessment, not assignment...you are right that would be taqeem mutawasil. My mistake everybody, as he said it is taqeem mutawasil, continuous assessment. Ok, next..course work?

S. A3mal

T. Yes, what is Grades?

S. Grades is darajit.

T. Yes, darajit. So may be you get 40 out of 50, or A/B/C, excellent, just pass. Ok, Average grades?

S. (No response)

T. Average grades is mutawasil al darajaat...average is mutawasil and grade is darajah.

Extract 3b:

T. You bought it already (textbook)...well its too late I guess...can you return them...I don't know but I think that the Qaysum is a better copy...but if you have bought it and some pages are not so clear...its ok. But for the ones who have not bought the book yet, the Qaysum is now located on khatiba street just before the main traffic lights. Ok I am expecting more students, so I wont do too much today...just abit from the book..look at the first page, we will be looking at the phrases here...Don't you have a book (asking one student)? Ok could you share with somebody ... can she share with somebody...can you sit next to her? O, the first page...you don't have this (speaking to a group of students)? Maybe you have the older edition? Let me see...oh yeh its different. Ok, you have to buy a copy from Qaysum then...now share with somebody...ok the first word is attentive..attentive...what does this word mean...ATTENTIVE?

S. (No response from students)

T. Attentive is like attention, you know attention?

S. (Students respond together) yes.

T. Attentive is the adjective...adjective and means paying attention. For example we can say: He is very attentive in class. He is attentive in class. Ok next word is dedicated, what does dedicated mean?

Extract 4a:

T. First, why did she stop working?

S. (One student responds) She had baby.

T. So what do we say here? We say if she hadn't had a baby she would have continued working. Ok? Now you say it.

S. (Students repeat) If she hadn't had a baby she would have continued working.

T. All agree? Ok so had she not had a baby she would have continued working, but because she had a baby she didn't. We are talking about the same characters we were talking about before. Ok? Three characters. if she didn't have a baby she would have continued working. Ok, Tamir?.

S. (Tamir responds) If she hadn't leave...

T. (Stops the student) No, no, what's the past participle in English? Left.

S. (The student mumbles)

T. If she hadn't left.

S. If she hadn't left her job she would have spend...

T. (The teacher interrupts the student) what's the past participle of spend?

S. Spent

T. Good

S. She would have spent a lot of time away from her children.

Extract 4b:

T. Who can tell me where the characters met, where did they meet?

S. (No response, a few mumble).

T. Margret, where did she meet the man? ...The idea here is that...remember they met in Greece. When she was on holiday in Greece. She would have forgotten about him if he didn't followed her back to England and asked her to marry him and move to Greece with him.

Extract 5a and 5b:

T. okay...can you stop please (noise level high)...quiet please. Are there any words you don't understand? You said sometyhing? (Addressing one student).

S. Retired?

T. Retired...(Attempting to get a response from the other students).

S. (Responses unclear)

T. okay okay...one at a time.

S. (One student responds) independent of your family and take your home alone.

T. Quiet...listen to what she is saying..just listen PLEASE..listen to your friends when they are answering questions...okay... independent of your family and take your home alone..umm...is that correct?

S. *(No, as a group)*

T. Ok...lets see, can you tell me? (pointing to another student).

Extract 6a:

T. If I want to ask about him (points to a student) Are you a tennis player? (Then asks the class as a group) How would you ask this question about him?

S. *(Group response)* Is he a tennis player?

T. Is he a tennis player?... if I wanted to ask him? How do we say this?

S. *(Group response)* ...are you.

T. Are you.

S & T. *(The teacher and students together)* Are you a tennis player?

T. If he replies (pointing to a student) that he is not a tennis player?

S. *(Student hesitation...different responses at the same time)* He is not....I am not...

T. I am not a tennis player....I AM NOT?

S. *(Students respond as a group)*.. A tennis player.

T. Now does anyone have a question?

S. *(As a group)* No.

T. Good. You are getting good at this now.

Extract 6b:

T. It is important that you are clear on these basic rules, so that when we get to face more complex rules, we are not hesitant. We don't want any hesitation later, especially as this also affect your speaking skills...hesitation in speaking is linked with uncertainty about such rules from the beginning. This requires practice. When you come to respond in normal speech, you need to respond in a split second. You don't have much time to think. If you are uncertain will cause you to hesitate and feel shy when it comes to speaking. So practice these simple sentences as they will build you confidence, particularly for speaking. The more you practice, the more spontaneous it all becomes and more confident you get in using more complex construction. OK now we will do an exercise to try this. With people around you make up any

sentences, questions, answers, and try to keep this in ENGLISH. I would like to hear you.

Extract 7:

T. He wakes up at 8...what is implied here?

S. Habit

T. Yes...habit. It's a definite habit. He gets up at 8. But when we insert usually, we are saying its not a daily habit, that sometimes he may not wake up at 8. Okay, so usually makes it less of a definite, fixed habit...may or mayn't take place. Okay, now to negate it?

S. *(One student attempts to respond)* He...he

T. Come on...he?

S. Doesn't usually get up at 8.

T. Yes, he does not usually get up at 8. Here with the negation we negated the usual aspect. The possibility of him waking up at 8 is unlikely. If we say always... by saying he always does something we are giving a definite strong statement that tells us how often he does this action. We use adverbs of frequency to control the how often the action is repeated...this is the action...the verb, so here this determines how often the action occurs, now if we take other examples: he sometimes, he always, he never, here the adverb I use has to be the most appropriate to the message I intend to convey. I can have a perfect sentence without adverb of frequency, but should I insert one, I intend to convey a particular messages. Yes?

S. so I can't use doesn't with these? That would be incorrect?

T. no, no, with or without the use of does or doesn't it can be correct. Remember, we are looking at how often an action is repeated...with usually. So our sentence like we said before: he doesn't wake up at 8, we want to control the frequency of the occurrence and so we inserted the adverb usually. Is that clear? What I want you to know is that it is not an essential word in the sentence.

Extract 8a:

T. Good. More sentences.

S. *(A student responds)* I am usually go to university at 8.30.

T. Just I...I usually go to university at 8.30...yes, so here the use of usually tells us he doesn't go everyday at this time...of course he does not do that. So usually. Ok next, yes please (pointing to a student).

S. I never sleep at 12 o'clock.

T. I never sleep at 12 o'clock, yes that would be correct. I never sleep at 12 o'clock. What's another way of saying 12 at night?

S. (A student responds) midnight.

T. Yes at midnight. Good. Yes...

Extract 8b:

T. Now ... (points to a pair of students) give a full answer to the question: are you teachers?

S. (The pair respond) no, we are not a teachers

T. No, no, Do not use A...just TEACHERS... we are not teachers. Now you can complete this by saying ...we are?

S. (As a group) we are students.

T. Are you teachers, no we aren't we are students...lets repeat again...are you teachers?

S. (The group repeats) No, we are not.

Extract 9:

S. she ...she never...speaks English.

T. Yes. She never speaks English, she never speaks English. What do you notice about the use of never in this sentences. It negates without negation. So here the sentence doesn't need the use of doesn't...never conveys that meaning. So when we use never...our sentence becomes negative. And remember when you use never...you keep the s ...you don't omit the s...just like she did...speaks. So when we see never...it's a negative sentence...same ...so can someone change always with doesn't?

S. she doesn't speak English...she doesn't speak English.

T. Exactly. Here she doesn't speak English is the same as she never speaks English.

Extract 10:

T. Number four. Who will do number four?...ok ... You take this before the official exams.

S. (A student asks) what does official mean?

S. (Another student replies) Rasmev (official in arabic)

T. Rasmev. Good. Studying in preparation for exams. What is it?

S. Revision.

Extract 11:

T. Now turn to your books page 100, in the exercise circle the correct verb in each sentence. You have to circle either is/is not, or are/ are not. You do this according to the email we read previously. So you have a choice between either this verb or that one (pointing to the board)...you have to circle the correct one according to the information you know from the email.

(The teacher walks up to a number of students who seem confused or struggling with the exercise and repeats the instructions in Arabic)

S. *(One student asks)* What does awful mean?

T. *(Teacher responds offering Arabic definition)* awful means sayya.

(For about 10 minutes students chat amongst themselves as they attempt to complete the exercise. Some check with people near them ...and discuss why or why not in Arabic...although the teacher had not asked them to do this).

S. *(One student asks the teacher)* So this one...it would be...they are... right?

T. mmm...right...they are...so remember you have to circle the verb according to the information in the email...

S. *(Some students say)* finished.

Extract 12:

T. English please ...(addressing a group) did you finish? Did you all speak? Did you all speak? Okay

S. *(one student remarks)* Teacher...there are things that are too difficult for us in English.

T. okay Ask me...ask me... this point? Okay it says what was the last book you read?

S. The day before yesterday.

T. It says here...What, what is the question here.

S. I started reading.

T. What was the last book you read? That means the name of the book.

Appendix 13:

T. Now if we look at these sentences in section B. Are these sentences true or false for your country? are these sentences true or false for your country? For Libya? Answer in full sentences: children always go to school before 9 o'clock.

S. *(students respond together)* True...children always go to school before 9 o'clock.

T. True, if they were going to attend school, then they always go before 9. Cinemas usually open in the morning, true or false.

Appendix 14:

T. Hello...come in.

T. These grammar rules we have already covered but will revise them now...ok....that is personal pronouns, personal pronouns with the verb to be...lets revise them...The first person, that is first person...so what is the first person singular? (To the whole class)

S. (Respond as a group) I

T. First person plural?

S. (Respond as a group) we

Extract 15:

S. Would have became.

T. NO what would become in the third tense be? Became, become, became.

S. Would have became if he hadn't broke

T. (Teacher interrupts) No

S. Brike?

T. No. What's the third tense of break. Break broke broken. If he hadn't broken his leg. You all need to remember the past participle tenses, what is it? This is very important. Yes Rakid...

S. If he had been a painter he would have been fulfilled his ambitions.

T. Fulfilled means fulfilled and the word ambition here means ambition. Now, how do we handle the present in this sentence ... how to deal with NOW...you said he would have been...yes, but this would give you the past. So here you need the present. Put the sentence into the present, what will it be?

S. Would is?

T. No. Would be. And you leave the second part in the past perfect, the IF stays in the past. So it becomes, he would be happier now if he had fulfilled his ambitions. Is that clear? Ok then Mohammad.

Appendix (9)



Ethics Check Form: Notes for Guidance

Before completing the Ethics Check Form the person undertaking the activity should consider the following questions:

| | | YES | NO | N/A |
|----|--|-----|----|--------|
| 1. | Is the size of sample proposed for any group enquiry larger than justifiably necessary? | | ✓ | |
| 2 | Will any lines of enquiry cause undue distress or be impertinent? | | ✓ | |
| 3 | Has any relationship between the researcher(s) and the participant(s), other than that required by the academic activity, been declared? | | | ✓ |
| 4 | Have the participants been made fully aware of the true nature and purpose of the study? If NO is there satisfactory justification (such as the likelihood of the end results being affected) for withholding such information? (Details to be provided to the person approving the proposal). | ✓ | | ✓ |
| 5 | Have the participants given their explicit consent? If NO is there satisfactory justification for not obtaining consent? (Details to be provided to the person approving the proposal). | ✓ | | ✓ |
| 6 | Have the participants been informed at the outset that they can withdraw themselves and their data from the academic activity at any time? | ✓ | | |
| 7 | Are due processes in place to ensure that the rights of those participants who may be unable to assess the implications of the proposed work are safeguarded? | | | ✓ |
| 8 | Have any risks to the researcher(s), the participant(s) or the University been assessed? If YES to any of the above is the risk outweighed by the value of the academic activity? | | | ✓ ✓ |
| 9 | If any academic activity is concerned with studies on activities which themselves raise questions of legality is there a persuasive rationale which demonstrates to the satisfaction of the University that: i the risk to the University in terms of external (and internal) perceptions of the worthiness of the work has been assessed and is deemed acceptable; | | | ✓ |
| | ii arrangements are in place which safeguard the interests of the researcher(s) being supervised in pursuit of the academic activity objectives; | | | ✓ |
| | iii special arrangements have been made for the security of related documentation and artefacts. <i>Appropriate expert advice should be sought as appropriate</i> | | | ✓ |
| 10 | Have the ethical principles and guidelines of any external bodies associated with the academic activity been considered? | ✓ | | |

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