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The Use of Mother Tongue in EFL Teaching and Learning in Touat Region

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

- My dear parents may Allah bless them

- My dear husband Achour and lovely sons Bilal and Zakaria

- My sisters and brothers

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All the praise that is heaped on the classical languages as an educational tool is due in double measure to the mother tongue, which should more justly be called the 'Mother of Languages'; every new language can only be established by comparison with it… Jean Paul, 1806 (as cited in Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p. 66).

Abstract

The present research is an attempt to investigate the use of the mother tongue (Colloquial Araic) in EFL classrooms in Touat region (Adrar) at the level of middle and secondary education. It, firstly, aims to find out some EFL teachers' attitudes towards the use of the learners' mother tongue and the extent to which such use was employed for both language and non-language purposes; secondly, it seeks to document the factors that lead the teachers to switch to Arabic in their teaching; and thirdly, it aims to identify the different functions assigned to Arabic in different EFL classrooms. To gain in-depth insights into the issue under investigation, we employed a mixed methods approach and more precisely, an Explanatory Sequential Design (ESD) combining a questionnaire with follow-up semi-structured interviews and semi-structured classroom observations. 120 teachers filled the questionnaire, 13 others were purposfully chosen and invited to participate in the interviews, and 31 classroom observations were conducted. The results from the questionnaires revealed that the attitudes of teachers are divergent, they are sometimes positive and other times negative depending on the different functions proposed. The findings of the interviews showed that various factors within the Touatian EFL classrooms, including the students' motivation, level of profeciency, their socio-cultural background, and their patents' negative role, overloaded curricula, time restrictions, lack of resources, and lack of training led to the teacher' use of their learners' MT in their teaching. On the basis of these results, recommendations are made to higher authorities among whom inspectors should hold workshops on the use of learers' MT in EFL classrooms and give teachers, from different localities of the region, the opportunity to share their own experiences concerning such use in their teaching so as to find out common techniques based on the learners' MT which might hopefully find solutions to many arisen problems.

Key-words: Mother tongue, Touat region, EFL classrooms, Teaching, Learning

List of Abbreviations

ALM: Audiolingual Method

CA: Contrastive Analysis

CBA: Competency-Based Approach

CBE: Competency-Based Education

CBLT: Competency-Based Language Teaching

CE: Civil Engineering

CLL: Community Language Learning

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DM: Direct Method

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ENS: Institute of Education (Ecole Normale Superieure)

ESC: Experimental Sciences

ESD: Explanatory Sequential Design

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

IPA: International Phonetic Alphabet

ITE: Teachers' College (Institut de Technologie et de L'éducation)

LAD : Language Acquisition Device

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LPH: Literature and Philosophy

MLT: Monolingual Teaching

MSY: Middle School Year

MT: Mother Tongue

NA: Natural Approach

NEST: Native English Speaker Teacher

Non-NEST: Non-Native English Speaker Teacher

R M: Reform Movement

SW: Silent Way

TA: Thematic Analysis

TBLT: Task-based Language Teaching

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TL: Target Language

UFC: Université de la Formation Continue

UG: Universal Grammar

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

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GENERAL

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

- **Background of the Study and Statement of the Problem**

The use of the learners' mother tongue (MT) in English language teaching (ELT) has continuously witnessed changing views over many decades. Accordingly, two distinctive ways of English language teaching and learning have emerged: the Monolingual and the Bilingual Approaches. Whilst the Monolingual Approach draws prominently on the use of the target language as the only language of instruction in teaching and learning foreign languages and this is what is coined as the English-only policy in case of ELT; the Bilingual Approach promotes the integration and use of the learners' mother tongue (MT) in teaching and learning foreign languages. However, the learners' MT presence or exclusion from English as foreign (EFL) or English as second language (ESL) classrooms has long been, and continues to be, a controversial issue among scholars. On the one hand, the view that a foreign language is better taught and learnt through the language being taught only, or what is known as mono-lingual teaching, is advocated by some researchers such as (Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1981; Swain, 1985). On the other hand, the proponent of MT use in FL/SL classrooms argued its usefulness and its positive impact on both teachers and learners, (Atkinson 1987; Auerbach 1993; Cook 1999; Schweers 1999; Nation 2003; Cummin 2007) who have documented some of the effective purposes that MT can be used for in FL and L2 classrooms. Swain and Lapkin (2000) found out that the judicious use of the MT serves as a communicative aid and helps learners to accomplish tasks successfully. Brown (2000) posited that MT can be used as a strategy of learning mainly with low-level proficiency learners.

In the Algerian context, no regulation has been clearly issued to prohibit the use of MT (Colloquial Arabic) or other languages as means of instruction in teaching English language. Before considering that issue, it is primordial to trace back the major different approaches and methods that have been implemented in ELT in Algeria throughout the last four decades. At least four approaches to teaching English language had been implemented in

the Algerian schools since the 1970's: the Direct Method (DM), the Audio-lingual (or structural) Approach, the Communicative Approach, and the Competency Based Approach.

The Direct Method was embraced in teaching English in Algeria right from the early 1970's with the use of a series of ELT course books designed for Middle School learners such as Success with English, Andy in Algeria (1975), Madjid in England (1976), and Learn English with us (Kerroum, 2016). Those books were based on drilling and repetition. This method views learning a language and acquiring one's MT identical processes. That is why the use of translation as a teaching technique was totally rejected. Under this method, teaching speaking and listening skills were given supremacy over reading and writing skills. Among the critics it received was its inability to make the learners transmit the language they learnt beyond the classroom and use it for communicative ends.

Therefore, at the end of the 1970's and the early 1980's the Algerian educational authorities presented new textbooks which were compiled according to, a new prevailing approach in ELT at that time, the Structural Approach or the Audio-lingual Method (ALM). L.G Alexander's textbooks 'Practice and Progress' (1967) and 'Developing Skills' (1967) were used in secondary education. Structural teaching and learning are based on habit-formation; the emphasis was put on intensive repetitive drills of structural patterns and only correct responses were reinforced. Like the DM, the ALM overemphasised correct pronunciation and listening skills. The main weakness of structural teaching is that learners learn the different forms (structures) and vocabulary of language but fail to use them for different functional and for communicative ends.

Thus, an alternative approach whose aim was to enable Algerian learners employ what they learnt in classroom in real and authentic situations was sought. Such an approach was embodied in the Communicative Approach (CA) as a result of the Algerian educational system reform. Some of the secondary level textbooks which were compiled according to the CA are: Newlines, Midlines, and Think it Over during the 1980's (Hadi, 2012) During the

1990's, other books were designed: My New Book of English for the first year, New Midlines for the second year, and Comet for the third year. However, the communicative language teaching (CLT) proved to be a failure in Algeria due to some factors such as the overcrowded classrooms which hindered effective group work activities and learners' interaction (Kerrroum, 2016). Moreover, it was challenged by the new requirements of the modern world and globalisation which call for the learners' mastery of different skills and competencies that should be transmitted outside schools and permitted them to better their everyday life.

That is why the Competency-Based Approach (CBA) was adopted in Algerian schools in 2003. CBA primarily draws on social constructivism which regards social interaction as a prerequisite to learning to occur i.e. interaction between learners is based on such forms of tasks as pair work and group work. It is a learner-centred approach and learning is no more conceived as that one transmitted from the teacher to learners, but the latter should be active participants who are placed in situations that check their ability to solve problems.

In what concerns the use of Arabic or other languages that the learners master to explain or simplify complex points, it is overtly stated, in an official document labelled 'Syllabus for English' which is meant for secondary education, that "Sometimes, short and simple comparisons between grammatical structures of the various language(s) studied could be made under the teacher's guide" (Ministry of Education, 1995, P.21). Moreover, it is added that "it is also possible to devote one session from time to time to summarizing the contents of a, or several unit(s), using another language than English. Thus, the learners will be able to see how different concepts could be transposed from one language to another". (Ministry of Education, 1995, P.36) In a middle school official document too, Teacher's Book: On the Move, and which is meant for fourth year teachers, teachers are recommended to revert to Arabic if necessary for the explanation of different language lessons (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 72). Another official document which deals with the use of translation as a strategy in teaching foreign languages is the Official Journal of the Ministry of Education (2010) in the

article N°77/0.03/10 of the law of orientation. (For more details see appendix A). The pedagogical translation was recommended as a didactic tool in teaching foreign languages in general. It is defined as "the use of translation activities that aim to teaching a given foreign language and that is done through what the learner translates from his/her mother tongue into the foreign language and vice versa" (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 34). Other evidence, which has sustained the use of the learners' MT in Algerian FL classrooms, is overtly stated in a report presented by a group of inspectors and teachers of French who suggested a number of pedagogical translation activities that can help teachers to attain their objectives. (For more details see appendix B) Algerian teachers of English have been frequently recommended not to use both Modern Standard Arabic and Colloquial Arabic in their teaching and most of them are convinced that such use is a source of hindrance and impediment to both teaching and learning processes. Accordingly, through the current study, we aim to explore the attitudes of some teachers of English towards the use of learners' MT (Colloquial Arabic) in EFL classrooms in Touat region so as to find out whether they are for or against such a practice, what arguments would they present, and what potential functions and reasons learners' MT can be used for.

- **Aims of the Research**

To use the learners' MT or not in English classrooms has been an issue under controversy among Algerian teachers of English and no consensus has been reached to settle that issue. Accordingly, the current study is concerned with the exploration of some teachers' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in English classrooms in an Algerian context. It is positioned within a mixed methods design, the Explanatory Sequential Design, and has four main objectives. Firstly, it aims to reveal the teachers' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms for different purposes i.e. to find out whether the teachers hold positive or negative attitudes towards the varied functions that can be assigned to the learners' MT. Secondly, it attempts to report the extent to which teachers use learners' MT for both

language and non-language purposes. Thirdly, it endeavours to find what major factors lead teachers to revert to learners' MT in case they do so. Fourthly, it seeks to document what potential functions teachers do use learners' MT for in authentic situations.

- **Research Questions**

In order to reach the aims of the present research, we attempted to answer the following research questions:

RQ.1. What are teachers' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms in Touat region? From which the following three sub-questions stem:

RQ.1.a. What is the status of Arabic and English in EFL classrooms according to the teachers' attitudes?

RQ.1.b. What is the impact of Arabic use on the students' learning according to the teachers?

RQ.1.c. What are the impacts of Arabic use on teachers' teaching?

RQ.2. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for language and non-language purposes? From which the following two sub-questions stem:

RQ.2.a. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for language purposes?

RQ.2.b. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for non-language purposes?

RQ3. What are the factors that lead teachers use Arabic in EFL classes in Touat region?

RQ4. What functions do teachers use Arabic for in EFL classes in Touat region?

- **Research Techniques and Methodology**

The current study is positioned within a Mixed Methods design and more specifically adopts an Explanatory Sequential Design (ESD) which is also called by Morgan (1988) a qualitative follow-up approach. In an explanatory design, a researcher "begins by conducting a quantitative phase and follows up on specific results with a second phase" (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 82) which is qualitative and implemented in order to get more in-depth understanding of the initial results. ESD can be manifested in two different variants, the

follow-up explanations variant and the participant-selection variant. Whilst in the former, emphasis is put on the initial quantitative phase; in the latter, the priority is given to the second qualitative phase. This variant is employed when it is required from the researcher to initially conduct the quantitative phase and get preliminary results in order to "identify and purposefully select the best participants" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 86).

In the present study, in the first stage of data collection, we first gathered data through questionnaires which were answered by 120 teachers of English (60 secondary school teachers and 60 middle school teachers). The questionnaire is composed of three main sections; the first section's aim is to gather personal information about the participants such as their gender, the level where they teach, their qualifications, and the area where they teach. The second section is based on likert-5 point scale (strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, and strongly disagree) whose aim is to measure teachers' attitudes towards the use of learners' MT (Arabic) at different levels of teaching and learning; the third section is based on likert-5 point scale (always, often, sometimes, rarely, and never) and which aims at finding out the extent to which teachers have used Arabic for identified functions in their classrooms. In the second stage, we interviewed 8 teachers so as to get an in-depth understanding of the attitudes revealed in the aforementioned questionnaire. Additionally, in the third stage, we conducted some classroom observations to document what functions do teachers of English in Touat region use their learners' MT for and a checklist is relied on as a tool of investigation.

- **Structure of the Thesis**

Following the present introductory part, in which the background of the study and the statement of the problem are identified, aims of the research are specified, the research questions are identified and the research techniques and methodology of the research are provided. The present thesis is divided into five chapters. The first one and the second one review some relevant literature concerning the use of the MT in EFL/ESL classrooms. Chapter one discusses some theoretical background underlying the study. It is divided into

three main sections. The first section deals with three fundamental theories of learning which are the behaviourist theory, the innatist theory, and the cognitivist one. The second section provides a historical overview of language teaching in Europe from the late 1400s up to the 1700s and puts emphasis on the status of the learners' MT in teaching and learning languages at that time. The third section presents some approaches and methods to teaching and learning languages in terms of their major tenets and discusses how each approach views the MT use i.e. allowing or rejecting the MT in language classrooms.

Chapter two consists of two major sections. The first section highlights monolingual and bilingual teaching. It, first, provides a historical overview of monolingual teaching and presents some arguments advanced by the advocates of this trend; then, it moves to discussing some counterarguments to monolingual teaching and providing evidence to support bilingual teaching. The second section presents some empirical studies which have been conducted concerning the use of MT, first, in some countries in non-Arab world and then, in some countries in the Arab World.

Chapter three is concerned with the methodological design which underpins the study and provides an overview of the prevailing approaches in educational research (quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approaches), the research design we have chosen and which is appropriate with the research questions we aforementioned, it, then, discusses the data gathering tools we relied on in this investigation and which are the questionnaire, the interview, and classroom observations with emphasis put on the definition, the justification of use, sampling strategies, and procedure of data analysis of each. Some other issues which are tackled in this chapter are piloting, validity, and reliability of the research.

Chapter four and five illustrate the findings of the study. Chapter four is entitled 'Questionnaires' Findings and Discussion'; it, first, presents the results obtained from the analysis of the questionnaires in terms of measuring the teachers' attitudes towards the use of the learners' MT in their teaching. It, then, displays the results concerning the extent of the

teachers' actual use of Arabic in their teaching (research questions 1 and 2). Data is tabulated and illustrated via a number of diagrams and this is the first stage of data analysis (quantitative analysis) required in ESD that we have espoused in the current study. This chapter, further, combines the findings with discussion.

Chapter five reports the findings of the interviews and the classroom observations and this is the second stage of data analysis which is of a qualitative trait. Firstly, it explains the findings from the interviews. It identifies the prime factors which lead the teachers to revert to the MT (research question 3). Secondly, it presents the findings obtained from the classroom observations in terms of the different functions that the MT was used for in various instances by teachers (research question 4).

- **Definition of Terms**

In order to avoid confusion of any type to readers, clarity is needed to make the key terms used in our thesis comprehensible. Importantly what is meant by the terms "mother tongue" (MT) and Touat region.

➢ **Mother Tongue**

The language a person acquires in his/her early childhood is referred to as his/her first language (L1), native language, or mother tongue (MT). Throughout this thesis, the term mother tongue (MT) is used to colloquial Arabic which is the mother tongue of the majority of learners in many classrooms in Adrar except some areas such as Timimoun where most of its population are Zenete.

➢ **Touat Region**

The term Touat is a historical name whose geographical delimitation differed among historians and researchers. Bouhania (2012) referred to it as "the whole area comprising Gourara, Touat, and the Tidikelt, respectively from the north to the south of the Wilaya [of Adrar]" (p. 24). In the current thesis, we have used Touat to refer to the whole Wilaya of Adrar.

CHAPTER ONE

Theories of Learning and Approaches to Teaching Foreign Languages

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1.1.Introduction

This chapter aims mainly at providing historical overviews of some salient theoretical considerations which are relevant to our investigation about the learners' (MT) use in foreign language classrooms. It, first, considers a general review of teaching languages and the use of the learners' MT by accounting for three fundamental theories of learning which are the behaviourist theory, the innatist or mental theory, and the cognitive one. It, then, traces back how languages were taught and learnt from the late fifteenth century up to the eighteenth century in Europe with emphasis put on the potential different roles given, at that period, to learners' MTs in teaching and learning foreign languages. It further examines a myriad of approaches and methods which are deemed to be marked in the mainstream of modern foreign languages teaching right after the decline of the Grammar Translation Method onwards. Including this latter, all these approaches and methods are included: the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Oral Situational Approach, some new alternative methods, prevailing right from the mid-sixties as a consequence of revolutionary ideas in the field of linguistics, like Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia and the Silent Way; including the Communicative Approach and some of other types of teaching it underpins such as Task-Based Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning and Competency-Based Language Teaching. Finally, the chapter ends up with a detailed account of Krashen's Natural Approach and some of the implications it has on the teaching/learning process.

1.2. Theories of Learning

Three dominant schools of learning theories inform the approaches and methods to teaching and learning languages. These are Behaviourism, Mentalism, and Cognitivism.

1.2.1. Behaviourist Learning Theory

Behaviourist Learning Theory stems from the works of four outstanding figures; the Russian Ivan Pavlov and the three Americans, John Watson (1924), Edward Thorndike (1932), and Burrhus Skinner (1957). As an approach to language acquisition, it is an anti-mentalist,

empirically based approach to the study of human behaviour; it is grounded in both psychological and linguistic theoretical backgrounds. On the one hand and linguistically speaking, language learning rests on structuralism of the 1960s; on the other hand and from a psychological perspective, it is conceived as any other type of learnt behaviour i.e. as a process of habit formation (Mitchell and Myles, 2004). This learning theory views human being as an organism which is able to manifest a wide repertoire of behaviours whose occurrence is, according to Trawinski (2005), strictly conditioned by three interrelated elements:

- ➢ Stimulus (a signal from the environment that evokes a reaction)

- ➢ Response (the learner's reaction to the stimulus)

- ➢ Reinforcement (a reward for an appropriate response: reinforced behaviour gets internalised, a behaviour that is not reinforced is extinguished)

Among these elements, reinforcement is seen as crucial in the learning process because it fosters the reoccurrence of behaviours until they become habits. To adapt this theory to language learning, the foreign language learner is attributed the role of the organism, the behaviour is a verbal behaviour, the stimulus is the input that learners receive (the language points being presented), the response is the learner's reaction to the stimulus and the reinforcement which is either extrinsic i.e. the teacher's feedback or intrinsic and which is represented in the student's self-satisfaction of his/her learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Mitchell and Myles (2004) stipulated that applying this theory, again, to first language learning is simpler than applying it to second language learning; they explained that in learning a first language, we simply "learn a set of new habits as we learn to respond to stimuli in our environment" (2004, p. 31). However, in learning a second language, things are much more difficult because we have a number of already established habits of our MT that influence our learning of the second language and which thereby, either boost or impede it depending on the similarities and differences that the two languages display. Lado (1957) was

among the pioneers who worked on language transfer and interference in learning a new language being either a second or a foreign language.

As Lado (1957) put it:

> We know from the observation of many cases that the grammatical structure of the native language tends to be transferred to the foreign language . . . we have here the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the foreign language . . . Those structures that are different will be difficult. (as cited in Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 31)

In Trawinski's words, "second language learning was viewed as a process of overcoming the habits of the native language to acquire new habits of the L2" (2005, p. 10). That is why a wide range of drilling techniques were overused and language errors were considered as dangerous and lead to bad language habit formation. To identify and minimise potential errors that may occur in learning a foreign language, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was developed by Lado (1957) whose principle is to analyse languages so as to sort out their differences and similarities. An analysis that informs the teacher which grammatical structures to emphasise more in their teaching, partly, so as to get rid of potential learners' MT interferences that may be transferred into their second language learning. In this kind of learning, following Skinner's tenets of the environment, which is anything external to the learner like the parents, any events in their lives..., is given a prominent role at the expense of learner's cognitive mechanism. It was mainly on this last tenet that behaviourism received harsh criticism. Being one of its opponents, Chomsky had critiqued it for denying the creativity trait of the human being. He argued that human being is endowed with both innate and mental capacities which play a significant role in learning a language and that this latter is far more than a mechanical system of habit formation. Gass and Selinker (2008) added that "neither imitation nor reinforcement is a sufficient explanation of a child's linguistic behaviour" (p. 122).

Richards and Rodgers (1995, p. 50) illustrated behavioural tenets of learning as shown in figure 1.1.

Reinforcement (behaviour likely to occur
again and become a   habit)

Stimulus → Organism→ Response Behaviour

No reinforcement/
Negative reinforcement
(Behaviour not likely to occur again)
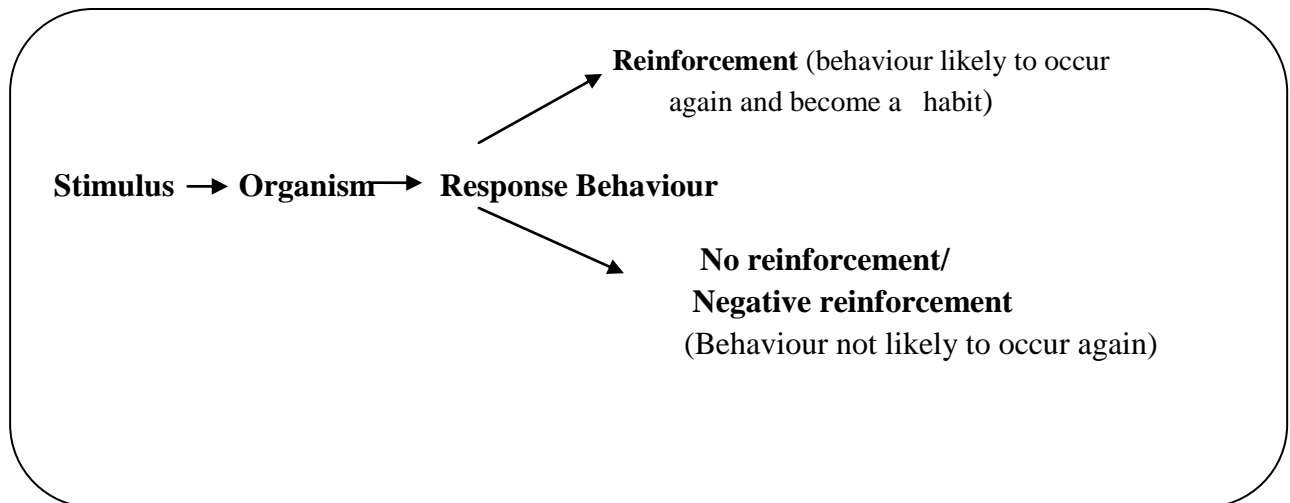
Figure 1.1 Behavioural Tenets of Learning

1.2.2. Innatist or Mentalist Theory

Controversial perspectives about the way in which language is learnt reached its peak at the end of the 1950s with the publication of two salient books. These are Skinner's Verbal Behaviour (1957) in which he presented a detailed behavioural account of language acquisition and Chomsky's review of Skinner's book (1959) in which Skinner's views were fiercely put into question. Chomsky argued that learning a language is not a matter of stimulus, response, imitation and reinforcement. The principles stimulus and response were deemed to be inappropriate to account for language learning because, firstly, "it was not possible to tell what constituted the stimulus for a given speaker response" (Ellis, 2008, p. 30). Both tenets (imitation and reinforcement) were dismissed as inapt in language learning because they ignored a fundamental characteristic of language which is creativity i.e. children are able to generate endless novel utterances regardless of the input they receive; and secondly, "it was shown in L1 acquisition that parents rarely corrected formal errors or rewarded correct utterances, and that children were only able to imitate utterances which lay within their existing competence and could not, therefore, learn new habits in this way" (Ellis, 2008, p.30).

For the aforementioned critiques, Chomsky claimed that language learning is human-specific and that human beings (children) are endowed with innate mental capacities which are responsible for learning language via what he named the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Moreover, language acquisition takes place regardless of some factors such as the cognitive development, individual differences, language input... etc. He finds that except for children who suffer from brain damage, all normal children acquire the language they are exposed to rapidly and effortlessly. Referring to the LAD, Chomsky stated that:

> Evidently each language is a result of the interplay of two factors: the initial state
> and the course of experience. We can think of the initial state as 'a language
> acquisition' device' that takes experience as 'input' and gives the language as an
> 'output'- an 'output' that is internally represented in the mind/brain. (2000, p. 4)

In order to support the innateness of language acquisition, Chomsky (1965) presented the concept of Universal Grammar (UG) that Cook (1985) explained when he said that "the language properties inherent in the human mind make up the 'Universal Grammar', which consists not of a particular grammar, but a set of general principles that apply to all grammars". It is clearly stated that UG is partly constituted of the common language properties that belong to all languages in the world such as the grammatical categories (verbs, nouns, tenses, adjectives...) and which are innate. In the same respect, Ellis (2008) pointed out that the role of Universal Grammar is to "constrain the form which the grammars of individual languages can take" (p. 193) i.e. to sort out an inventory of the grammatical categories that exist in a given language and due to innate capacities children can easily internalise them and could discern which rules are and which are not part of their acquired language. In the same line of thought, White (2003), in her book Second Language Acquisition and Universal Grammar, pinpointed that Universal Grammar "includes invariant principles that is, principles that are generally true across languages, as well as parameters which allow for variation from language to language" (P. 2).

1.2.3. Cognitive Theory of Learning

1.2.3.1. Cognitive Constructivism (Active Learning)

Despite the fact that Chomskian viewpoint on language as an inborn human property found its opposition in cognitivism, his (1959) influential review of Skinner's (1957) book Verbal Behaviour is considered as "a milestone on [the] road to the cognitive turn" (Meisel, 2011, p. 3).Whilst the primary concern of Universal Grammar-based research is the language itself as an independent and separate entity in the mind and as a divergent part from any other aspects of cognition; cognitivists, however, account for language as a part of human cognition (mental) development and language learning as a mental process stressing the fact that both processes are tightly interrelated. Piaget (1981) assumed that both processes' development means "experimenting with the environment and constructing one's personal meanings of it" (Trawinski, 2005, p. 15). He made an analogy between how children explore and understand their environment by touching objects; with how they establish a linguistic system by experimenting the different words and word combinations. For Piagetian psychology, learning is seen as a constructive system and is neither imitated nor in-born, but is "actively constructed by the child" (Cameron, 2010. p. 3).

Furthermore, there are two ways through which development can be reached: assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is "the incorporation of new information into existing schema" (Jordan, Carlile, & Stack, 2008, p. 119), that is, when an individual (child) receives new information, he/she interprets that information via referring it to formerly learnt one. As to accommodation, it is "the adaptation of existing schema in the light of new information" (Jordan et al., 2008, p. 119), that is, to modify the knowledge we already have to make sense of the new information we face.

Cameron (2010) stated that the power of the Piagetian theory lies in the fact that it has some fundamental implications on language learning. For instance, the core idea of viewing a child as an active agent who learns and thinks, throughout the cognitive development, has

been introduced into second language learning besides the nature of learners' construction of their own knowledge through interaction with objects and ideas. According to Cameron (2010), a child is, in this sense, 'a sense-maker'. She, further, stresses that it is by our understanding of children's sense-making and experiences' limitations, that, as teachers, we understand how they respond to activities and tasks in language classrooms. In addition to this, she reminds us of the world as offering opportunities for learning i.e. in language classroom, the setting (classroom) and the classroom activities offer learners opportunities to learning.

Indeed, Piaget was criticised for two basic points: Firstly, because of his limited view of intelligence upon which Kincheloe and Steinberg (1993) commented "we are not simply victims of genetically determined cognitive predispositions" (as cited in Jordan et al., 2010, p. 120). Secondly, because of his claim that formal reasoning is attained in adolescence stage and does not develop further; a claim that was watered down as a result of evidence from some researchers' findings which showed that "adult thinking continues to develop and become more dialectical and tolerant of ambiguity" (Sugarman, 2001 as cited in Jordan et al., 2010, p. 120).

1.2.3.2. Social Constructivism (Vygotsky's Theory of Learning)

Social Constructivism owes its existence to the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1896-1934). The difference between Vygotsky's view of development and that of Piaget lies in the prominence that the former gives to language and the social milieu of the child; and the beliefs of the latter which are centred on the existence of the child as an individual (alone) but an active learner within a world of objects. Underlying Vygotsky's theory is the idea that "development and learning take place in a social context" (Cameron, 2010, p. 6), it is from this idea that 'social constructivism' is coined. Within that social context, children interact with other people either parents, sisters and brothers, teachers or peers... who help them to learn through playing, talking, telling stories for them and directing their attention to different

objects and ideas (Cameron, 2001). In his book entitled Mind and Society, the Development of Higher Mental Processes which was translated into English in 1978, Vygotsky discussed the role that both social context and culture have within the learning process. For him, the core of linguistic and cognitive developments is represented by his genetic law of cultural development that he defined as:

> Any function in the child's cultural development appears twice, or on two planes. First it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First, it appears between people as an inter-psychological category, and then within the child as an intra-psychological category... Social relations or relations among people genetically underlie all higher functions and their relationships. (Vygotsky, 1981 as cited in Ohta, 2000, p. 53)

Herein Ohta, explained that while Vygotsky confined this principle to children's L1 acquisition, it has been implemented in a SLA context with success wherein L2 constituents such as vocabulary, grammatical structures, etc. can be dealt with on two psychological planes. Firstly, they are conceived on the inter-psychological level or between people and secondly, on the intra-psychological (individual) level i.e., the mental plane. Indeed, the two planes are tightly interrelated and linked by language. Vygotsky argues that each child represents a unique learner, he, further, explored individual children's achievements on their own and under the condition of the assistance of some peers or adults who surpass them in their proficiency level. Accordingly, Vygotskian concept of the 'Zone of Proximal Development' (ZPD) was coined. Vygotsky defines ZPD as the difference between what a person can do independently without assistance of other more proficient people and what he/she can perform with the help of others being either parents at home or teachers at school. He recommends that it is within that fertile zone that parents and teachers should invest so as to make children and learners construct new knowledge steadily building on their prior knowledge and competence.

In table 1, Brown (2007) summed up the outstanding characteristics of the three abovementioned learning theories.

Table 1.1. Schools of Thought in Second Language Acquisition

Time Frame	School of Thought	Typical Themes
Early 1900s and 1940s and 1950s	Structural Linguistics and Behavioural Psychology	- Description - Observable performance - Scientific method - Empiricism - Surface structure - Conditioning - Reinforcement
1960s, 1970s, and 1980s	Generative Linguistics and Cognitive Psychology	- Generative linguistics - Acquisition, Innateness - Interlanguage - Systematicity - Universal grammar - Competence - Deep structure
1980s, 1990s, and 2000s	Constructivism	- Interactive discourse - Sociocultural variables - Cooperative learning - Discovery learning - Construction of meaning - Interlanguage variability

1.3. Approaches to Teaching Foreign Languages and Learners' Mother Tongue use

1.3.1. Language Teaching: A Historical Overview (From the late 1400s up to 1700's)

At the end of the fifteenth century, the use of the mother tongue in teaching English language was the norm rather than the exception especially with the prevalence of double-manuals. Those double-manuals were short books based on dialogues and texts; William Caxton was among the pioneers who designed a bilingual book (English and French) that was written for commercial ends. As French was the 'commercial lingua franca' at that time, it was prerequisite for merchants to learn it so as to succeed in their businesses. That is why Caxton's assistant Wynken de Worde too designed another double-manual which was a valuable resource for English merchants (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

An ongoing interest in learning English in the early sixteenth century was shown mainly with the publication of polyglot dictionaries and phrasebooks in which the most widely-known languages of that era such as French, Italian, and Latin were included alongside the English language. In addition to this, the French Huguenot refugees and other Protestant refugees from Flanders, Italy, among whom some were teachers, taught English to French refugees and French to English speakers. Prominent teachers among the refugees at that period were Jacque Bellot, Claudius Holyband who not only devoted their lives to teaching English to the immigrant French community in London and French to the native population there, but, further, wrote double-manuals which they relied on in their teaching. They embraced a bilingual method in teaching either French or English as Howatt and Widdowson (2004) stated "unlike their twentieth-century counterparts, however, they did not adopt a monolingual approach, but continued the traditional bilingual method of the earlier manuals" (p. 19).

Some of the textbooks they complied are Bellot's *The English Schoolmaster* (1580) and *Familiar Dialogues* (1586), unlike the first manual which was critiqued for not being 'a systematic book' but a practical one in some aspects such as the section on 'difficult words' in which he tackled some homophones and some minimal pairs and the final section including

some well-known Elizabethan language sayings. The second manual targeted learners for whom it may be beneficial as its dialogues contain familiar domestic contexts with much more focus on shopping. Its characters were represented as visitors of many places where they may do their shopping such as 'the poulterer, the costermonger, the draper, the fishmonger, and the butcher', besides the 'semi-phonetic' transcription of some English texts so as to facilitate for the French the pronunciation of some ordinary English words (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

Holyband opened three schools where he taught French to children alongside Latin. He is a textbook complier too; he published *The French Schoolmaster*, *The French Littleton*, and *Dictionary French and English* in 1573, 1576 and 1593 respectively. The former two books were based on dialogues which portrayed everyday life despite the fact that *The French Schoolmaster* had 'more of social slant' and *The French Littleton* put more emphasis on commercial French. Holyband recollected vocabulary lists provided in his earlier books, classified them into specific topic areas and lengthened them into his *Dictionary French and English*. In Holyband schools, first, teachers encouraged children to read texts and repeat them, the main goal of that activity was the realisation of appropriate pronunciations. Next, they moved on to some writing practice of the same already read texts via the 'double-translation' method advocated by Ascham who instructed his children learners "Children, turn your lessons out of French into English, and then out of English into French" (as cited in Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 28).

As far as grammar teaching is concerned, Holyband's learners were taught using the inductive approach. For him, the prominent objective of learning a language, for a child, is first to be familiar with the texts and then deal with the rules as he explained it:

> He must not entangle himself at the first brunt with the rules of the pronunciation; but after he hath read them over, let him take in hand these Dialogues; and, as

occasion requireth, he shall examine the rules, applying their use unto his purpose.(as cited in Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, pp 28-30)

Indeed, two schools of thought marked education in the late sixteenth century and early seventeenth century. The first one is humanistic tradition which is represented by Roger Ascham's influential book The Schoolmaster (1570); and the second one is the puritan movement which originated in Francis Bacon's Advancement of Learning (1607) and later elaborated further by Jan Amos Comenius. Ascham proposed six procedures to teach a language, the most prominent of them is 'double-translation' technique if used skilfully by teachers, as stated by Howatt and Widdowson (2004) "gives equal status to both the foreign language text and the equivalent text in the mother tongue" and its primary objective was "to recreate the original Latin text accurately . . . and to make the learner equally conscious of the structure and resources of his own language as of the language being studied" (p. 39).

After mastering some of the basics of Latin grammar, children were initiated to what Ascham called '*Imitatio*' which means imitation. In addition to translation and imitation, he suggested four other procedures which are '*paraphrasis* (reformulation), *Epitome* (summarising), *Metaphrasis* (transforming a text from poetry to prose and vice versa) and *Declamatio* (public eloquence). Indeed Ascham's teaching was too demanding as children were expected to write highly refined and eloquent texts which look like Latin and Greek great authors' texts. His teaching was addressed exclusively for well-born children, and it was time consuming as a teacher had to devote a lot of time to individual students.

Bacon, one of the outstanding pillars of the puritan movement, criticised Ascham for providing 'delicate learning' and for giving much more importance to language aesthetics at the expense of content as he advanced it "substance of matter is better than beauty of words" (Kitchin, 1973 as cited in Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 39). Indeed, Bacon had paved the way to Comenius with his revolutionised perception of teaching, he argued that words shouldn't be learnt merely so as to have access to classics of Latin and Greek, and that a word

is not an 'object of contemplation' but an 'instrument for action'. He added that learning should encourage children to explore their external world by using their own senses and experiences and not to be limited to the internal side of language i.e. learning words for the sake of language by imitating only great authors' style.

In fact, Comenius was inspired by Bacon's ideas; indeed both of them embraced the same line of thinking. Comenius is credited for being the father founder of modern education; his ideas about English teaching philosophy have a great influence on the educational practices today. He was against static learning and assumed that learning a language in a formal setting (classroom) is similar to learning it in a natural setting (home); children acquire a language through direct associations between words and the objects they represent. Therefore, he directed teachers' attention to two main techniques that could not be discarded from their classrooms: demonstration and activity. For him, teachers should use pictures, maps and other visual aids to warm up lessons, children should be given the opportunity to speak about those visual aids by connecting them to their own experiences, doing some colouring of pictures in their books and even drawing some. It is after understanding what the lesson is about, that children move to imitation and language practice. "Words must not be learned separately from things, for the word can neither exist nor be understood without the thing. But to the extent that word and thing are joined, they exist somewhere to fulfil a certain function" (Pichetta, 1952 as cited in Kelly 1969, pp. 13-14). Celce-Murcia (2014) summarised some of the techniques that Comenius used and espoused. These are:

- Use imitation instead of rules to teach a language.

- Have your students repeat after you.

- Use a limited vocabulary initially.

- Help your students practise reading and speaking.

- Teach language through pictures to make it meaningful (p. 4).

Some of Comenius publications are *The Gates of Language Unlocked* (1631), and *The Great Didactic* (1632). In the latter, he tried to design a curriculum for a reformed educational system in which he clearly highlighted his objective of modelling a universal educational system whereby all people "seek and find a method of instruction by which teachers may teach less, but learners may learn more; by which schools may be the scene of less noise, aversion and useless labour, but more of leisure, enjoyment and solid progress" (Howatt & Widdowson 2004, p. 47). He based his philosophy on Christian teachings and advocated that "the entire youth of both sexes, none being excepted, shall quickly, pleasantly and thoroughly become learned in the sciences, pure in morals, trained to Piety and in this manner instructed in all things necessary for the present and for the future life" (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p.47).

Comenius was in favour of inductive teaching and believed in the supremacy of objects over words, a principle which is clearly depicted in the textbooks he compiled. For instance, Januae Linguarum Reseratae Aureae Vestibulum that was published in 1633, is made up of seven chapters 'The accident of Things' dealing with names of colours, tests, smells and how to form short sentences to describe objects like 'The grass is green, The mountains are high'. 'Things Concerning Actions and Passions' is the second chapter and is based on the present simple tense of verbs. In the third chapter 'Circumstantial Things', the notions of time and place were presented by the use of adverbs and prepositional phrases in short dialogues. Concerning the remaining four chapters they are about vocabulary related to the school, the home, the city and moral values. At the end of the book a list of all the words used in the texts was provided in 'Index Verborium' in addition to an appendix of grammar notes too. The graded introduction to the structure of Latin sentences was done in such a careful way that it attracted the attention of twentieth century teachers.

Despite the fact that Januae Linguarum Reseratae Aureae Vestibulum does not contain pictures, it was considered as the 'first draft' of 'Orbis Sensualium Pictus' meaning 'The

world of the Senses in Pictures' and which became a popular textbook and used as a reference for a century or more after his death. In that book, he based his teaching on one of his pertinent philosophical tenets which was knowledge originates from the world of senses as stated earlier. He believed that the teacher's role is to be the source of knowledge though children, too, are required to be involved right from the beginning in lessons as they are encouraged to use their senses by exploring pictures and real objects brought to classrooms.

Comenius's contemporary author Lamy (1645-1715) held the view that a second language can be learnt in the same way as a child's first language is acquired; he added that prior to learning grammatical points and trying to imitate good models, children acquire words (vocabulary) first (Kelly, 1969). Such an assumption, though its implementation remained extremely limited during the eighteenth century, laid the ground for reformists' philosophy of the nature of second language learning after more than one century. By the late eighteenth century, translation was the tenet of teaching languages; and the philosopher John Lock (1693) proposed a need for curriculum reform which kept his inductive approach to the learning of languages. He suggested 'inductive schemes involving interlinear translation' which were put into practice by Hamilton and Jacotot. Kelly (1969, p. 39), explained how "the pupil was to learn his foreign language by dint of relating native equivalents to texts in the language he was learning". To reiterate, teaching languages in Europe between the seventeenth and the nineteenth centuries, was Latin-based though Latin progressively shifted from a living language, which learners were required to learn so as to read, write and, speak with, to a dead language but still prestigious and 'had a great intrinsic value as the basis of European culture' and studying it provided 'a unique mental and moral discipline'. Some justifications to teaching it even after its decline, was the fact that it was believed that Latin can "develop intellectual abilities" and its Grammar study "became an end in itself" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, P. 2).

When once the Latin tongue had ceased to be a normal vehicle of communication, and was replaced as such by the vernacular languages, then it most speedily became a 'mental gymnastic', the supremely 'dead language, a disciplined and systematic study of which was held to be indispensable as a basis for all forms of higher education. (Titone 1968 as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 4)

Latin became a model for teaching foreign languages in Europe and textbook designers reduced a language into "frozen rules of morphology and syntax to be explained and memorised" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, P. 3). That tradition which was followed in teaching foreign languages in European schools for centuries becomes what is known as the grammar translation method.

1.3.2. Approaches to Teaching Foreign Languages

1.3.2.1. Grammar-Translation Method

Grammar-translation method (GTM), also called 'the grammar school method', was developed to be implemented in secondary schools; it was 'the offspring' of German teaching as it was first used in Prussia in Germany at the end of the eighteenth century. It was also labelled the Classical Method as it was the main method used to teach classical languages, Latin and Greek. In teaching via this method, emphasis is put on the teaching of the grammatical points of the foreign language through translation technique from the target language into the learners' mother tongue and vice versa; memorisation of lists of grammatical rules at the expense of communicative ends since the speaking skill was given little consideration; and the ultimate end behind learning a foreign language was to be scholarly and sometimes to gain 'a reading proficiency in a foreign language' besides the writing proficiency as well.

Celce-Murcia (2014) listed the major characteristics of GTM in the following:

- Instruction is given in the native language of the students.

- There is little use of the target language for communication.

- The focus is on grammatical parsing, that is, the forms and inflections of words.

- There is early reading of difficult texts.

- A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (or vice versa).

- The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the students to use the language for communication.

- The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language fluently (p. 5).

The GTM though remained prevalent in schools worldwide for centuries; it was harshly critiqued, for instance, Rouse (1925) stated that teaching a foreign language via this method "seeks to know everything about something rather than the thing itself" (as cited in Kelly, 1969, p. 53). In addition to this, Cook (2010) added that Grammar Translation method failed in teaching languages because as it was claimed by its opponents, it "exclusively focused upon grammatical accuracy with no attention to fluency, and exclusively on writing with no practice of speech. It uses isolated invented sentences rather than authentic connected texts" (p. 14). He, furthermore, stated that "it teaches knowledge about the language rather than an ability to use it". To sum up, he pointed out that it has been criticised too for being "unnatural, authoritarian, and dull" (P. 14). Richards and Rogers (2001) argued that "it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory" (p. 7).

1.3.2.2. The Direct Method

Despite the fact that GTM recognised L1 as being the core and the only means of instruction in teaching languages mainly through translation, however by the end of the 1800s, new philosophical ideas on language learning emerged and attracted scholars and teachers' attention. Ideas and assumptions stressing the reduction and even the total rejection

of any role that L1 may have in language teaching and learning were at vogue and culminated in the development of the Direct Method (DM). Before giving an overview of the direct method, it is worth noting to go through both the reform movement in Europe from which most of its principles stemmed and the teaching of Maximilian Berlitz in the United States.

The reform movement of the nineteenth century gave rise to new assumptions on language and language teaching namely in phonetics and psychology. Prominent among its leaders were Henry Sweet (1845-1912) in England, Wilhem Vietor (1850-1918) in Germany, and Paul Passy (1859-1940) in France who shifted their attention to "the primacy of speech, the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching-learning process, and the absolute priority of an oral classroom methodology" (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 189). Indeed, the International Phonetic Association was founded in 1886 and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) which is "a transcription system designed to unambiguously represent the sounds of any language" (Celce-Murcia, 2014, p. 5) was developed. Accordingly, the main concern of language pronunciation teaching and its oral skill were promoted. The objectives of the International Phonetic Alphabet include:

- The study of the spoken language.

- Phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits.

- The use of conversation texts and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms.

- An inductive approach to the teaching of grammar.

- Teaching new meanings through establishing associations within the target language rather than by establishing associations with the native language (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 9).

Many books, pamphlets and articles were written by reformers and new controversial ideas and assumptions on language teaching all of which came as a reaction to the GTM, as

mentioned earlier, emerged and despite the fact that they heavily put emphasis on phonetic transcription with beginners. According to Cook (2010) "the reformers were not excessive or fanatical in their attitude to translation, acknowledging the role for it, and allowing for its judicious use" (p.5). In fact, teachers of foreign languages were required to use the foreign language as a medium of instruction though there are cases wherein they can possibly revert to the learners' MT as a last resort either to explain obscure words or clarify new grammatical items. (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004)

Generally, reformers agreed upon some specific principles in language teaching and learning such as:

- 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 seeing it in written form.

- Words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practiced in meaningful contexts and not to be taught as isolated, disconnected elements.

- The rules of grammar should be taught only after the students have practised the grammar points in context- that is, 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 &Rodgers, 2001, p. 10)

By considering these principles altogether, a theoretical foundation is provided for the development of a scientific approach to language teaching and learning and which was missing in the previous languages' teaching and learning via the GTM.

Regarding Maximilian Delphinus Berlitz (1852-1921), he was among the nineteenth-century pioneers of the reform movement. He established a network of language schools first in the United States in 1882 and then it was expanded to reach Europe. The basic premise of

his teaching relies heavily on the natural process of first language acquisition. Its advocates argued that the learners go through the same path as a child does while acquiring his/her MT. Therefore, total rejection of the learners' native language and the promotion of the target language as the only medium of instruction in a language classroom are favoured. Cook (2010) claimed that it was in the Berlitz teaching that "the first hard-line rejection of translation" (p. 6) appeared. To guarantee the non-use of translation in Berlitz schools, Berlitz opted for the recruitment of but native teachers i.e. teachers who did not master the learners' native language or those who had a native like fluency. Right from the early lessons, learners were exposed to oral language, speaking and listening were more privileged among the other skills and grammar was learnt for communicative ends that could help learners using the learnt language in real world situations.

Berlitz advanced three main arguments for the exclusion of translation in his method: firstly, "translation wastes valuable language learning time which should be devoted entirely to the foreign language"; secondly, "translation encourages mother-tongue interference"; and thirdly, "all languages are different" since "every language has its peculiarities, its idiomatic expressions and turns, which cannot possibly be rendered by translation" (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 224). Brown (2007), presenting Berlitz basic principles, states: "Lots of active oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammatical rules" (P. 50).

Though the Reform Movement and the Berlitz School emerged independently for different reasons, the former "out of academic and pedagogic concerns" and the latter "out of commercial imperatives", both of them "merged to yield a strong and coherent new programme for language teaching which became known as the Direct Method" (Cook, 2010, p. 7). Other factors that laid the foundation for the emergence of the Direct Method are the great changes that marked Europe during the mid and late nineteenth century such as the industrialisation and international trade. An era when Europeans felt the need to master

foreign languages fluently for communicative ends as the GTM failed to guarantee such fluency. Its major claim is the exclusive use of the target language and the total rejection of the learners' native language in classrooms as Cook (2010) stated it clearly in his book Translation in Language Teaching, the direct method is "any and all teaching which excludes the use of the students' own language from the classroom, whether for translation or for explanation and commentary" (p. 7). He furthermore claimed that it was founded on "strong, confidently held assumptions about language use, language learning, and effective language pedagogy" (pp. 7-8). He summarised them in the four pillars of monolingualism, naturalism, native-speakerism, and absolutism all of which engrain the learners' own language ban from language classrooms. Richards and Rodgers (2001, p.12) summarised the key features of the DM in the following points:

- Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.

- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.

- Oral communication skills were built up in carefully graded progression organised around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.

- Grammar was taught inductively.

- New teaching points were introduced orally.

- Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.

- Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.

- Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasised.

Despite the fact that some constraints such as time, classroom size, and budget insufficiency had led to the DM's decline, its major assumptions about the nature of language

and language learning were passed down to the coming approaches to language teaching and learning at that time.

1.3.2.3. The Audio-lingual Method

The name audio-lingual is "attached to teaching style that reached its peak in the 1960s" (Cook, 2008, p. 244). The Audio-lingual Method (ALM) inspired most of its principles from its predecessor the Direct Method but overemphasised oral production drills (Brown, 2007). Its origin is traced back to the Army Specialised Training Programme (ASTP) which was launched in the US in 1942. During that training programme, native speaker informants were hired as teachers to teach the American army soldiers. Similarly to the Direct Method, its advocates believe that a language should be taught directly through the exposition of learners to the target language. In this respect, Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 64) stated that "as far as possible, the target language is used as a medium of instruction, and translation or use of the native tongue is discouraged". Stern (2007), highlighted that "the use of the first language in the language class or in learning materials is not as severely restricted in the audiolingual method as it was in the direct method" (p. 464). Because it is partly based on the linguistic structural view of language and behavioural psychology, in it, learning is seen as a habit formation which is fostered via three principles: stimulus, response and reinforcement. Learners were provided with stimuli to which they should respond so as to form accurate habits, being correct, the habits were reinforced if not they would be refused and discouraged. The prominent features of the ALM are summed up in the following:

- New material is presented in dialogue form.

- There is dependence on mimicry, memorisation of set phrases, and over-learning.

- Structures are sequenced by means of constructive analysis and taught one at a time.

- Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills.

- There is little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive methodology rather than deductive explanation.

- Vocabulary is strictly limited and learnt in context.

- There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids.

- Great importance is attached to pronunciation.

- Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.

- Successful responses are immediately reinforced.

- There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.

- There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content. (Prater and Celce-Murcia, 1979 as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 23).

Richards and Rodgers (2001) argued that the ALM was critiqued for being built upon 'unsound' theoretical foundations, language theory and learning theory which came as a result of the new revolutionised ideas espoused by the American linguist Noam Chomsky in the 1960s. Adding to this, learners failed to transfer the language they learnt to real communication outside the classroom because "language is de-contextualised and carries little communicative function" (Harmer, 2001, p. 80). Some teachers even voiced their dissatisfaction regarding the non-effectiveness of the method in terms of the techniques and the boredom they caused to the students in the long term. The learning process under this method is conceived as a mechanical one which is based on habituation and conditioning and which, most importantly, lacks the intellectual and innovative exercise from the part of the learners. Language learning, in its turn, is viewed as "less than a mental burden and more a matter of relatively effortless and frequent repetition and imitation" (Stern, 2007, p. 464).

1.3.2.4. The Oral-Situational Approach

The origin of this approach stretched back to British applied linguists in the 1920s and 1930s such as Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby. Being highly influenced by Otto Jepersen and

Daniel Jones, they were interested in the development of a more scientific basis for an oral approach of English language teaching than was conceived in the DM. The use of grammar, which was viewed by Palmer as the sentence patterns of spoken language, besides vocabulary learning were considered as basic elements in foreign language teaching. This approach relies heavily on British structuralism which puts more focus on the teaching of language patterns in relation to contexts and situations they occurred in; "the emphasis now is on the description of language activity as part of the whole complex of events which, together with the participants and relevant objects, make up actual situations" (Halliday, McIntosh, & Stevens, 1964 as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1995, p. 35). The meaning of vocabulary and grammatical structures was not directly given either in the foreign language or in the MT of the learners. It was deduced from the situations around which language patterns were taught instead. Billows (1961) argued that "if we give the meaning of a new word, either by translation into the home language or by an equivalent in the same language, as soon as we introduce it, we weaken the impression which the word makes on the mind" (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1995, p. 36). The principal characteristics of the oral-situational approach are these:

- The spoken language is primary.

- All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established).

- Only the target language should be used in the classroom.

- Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.

- Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.

- New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g., "at the post office", "at the bank", "at the dinner table" (Celce-Murcia, 2014, p. 7).

1.3.2.5. New Alternative Methods

By the mid-sixties, Chomsky's transformational generative grammar had started to have a considerable impact on pedagogy (Stern 2007). His revolutionary ideas about the nature of language learning and acquisition shifted teachers' and linguists' interests towards the "deep structure" of language before being totally focused on its "surface structure" and on "the rote practice of scientifically produced patterns" (Brown, 2007, p.24); the two main tenets of audiolingualism. The new ideas characterising the decade of the 70's, as Stern (2007) stated it, brought about a climate of "the loss of direction and the confusion of thought" (p. 108); Stern (2007) has mentioned two theorists of that era who voiced their uncertainties about such a climate; Rivers' (1972) address 'where do we go from here?' and Wardhaugh (1969), the Director of the English Language Institute, Ann Arbor, Michigan, who held the following opinion about teaching English as a second language "...the present state of the art may be characterised by the word uncertainty. This uncertainty arises from the current ferment in those disciplines which underlie language teaching: Linguistics, psychology, and pedagogy" (as cited in stern, 2007, pp. 108-109).

Indeed, Stern (2007) tackled the prevailing new ideas characterising that era and which he summarised in five trends of developments. (a) New methods emerged and influenced the main stream language teaching; the Silent Way, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia that Richards and Rodgers (2001) regarded as being "developed outside of mainstream language teaching" (p. 71) and called them alternative and innovative methods. They further stated that those methods "didn't stem from a theory of language and research and theory in applied linguistics" (p. 71) but they were rather coined around particular theories of learners and learning which were of a personal initiative from a theorizer or an educator. These approaches will be tackled in details shortly. (b) New Approaches to language curricula were developed; among the major trends of development at that era was

the shift of interest from 'a concern with teaching methods' to that one which was related to 'teaching objectives, language content, and curriculum'. (c) Human relations and individualisation in the language class were considered; research was done about learner-teacher relationship and the traditional and mechanical old drill techniques of language teaching were put into question. Researchers tried to raise teachers' awareness of previously ignored factors that constitute the teaching-learning process such as "human values and human relations in [a] language class". (d) Research in second language and teaching detached from linguistics and became an independent discipline on its own right as scholars conducted more in-depth research in second language acquisition and called for "a deeper understanding of the nature of the second language learning process itself" (Stern, 2007, p. 110). (e) The development of communicative language teaching.

Brown (2007) called the decade of the 1970s 'the spirited' decade and historically regarded it as being outstanding at two crucial levels. Firstly, the establishment of second language learning and teaching as an independent discipline, secondly, the proliferation of 'innovative' and 'revolutionary' methods which attempted to free language teaching of the 'audiolingual sleep'. Some of those methods that we consider in this section are community language learning, the silent way, suggestopedia and total physical response.

1.3.2.5.1. Community Language Learning

A method which was developed by Charles A. Curran, who was known as a counselling specialist and a professor of psychology at Loyola University, Chicago, and his associates. It is known as being based on counselling theory and was initially designed for monolingual classrooms as the learners' MT is allowed and could be used by learners. Students in a community language learning (CLL) classroom were not simply viewed as a class in its traditional sense but as a group. The teacher's role is no longer considered as that of an authoritarian but rather as a true counsellor and the students as clients around whose

needs lessons should be planned. Among the prime objectives of this method is to reduce the affective filter and anxiety of learners and create a more secured learning atmosphere for them. In this respect Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) claimed that:

> A language counsellor does not mean that someone who is trained in psychology; it means someone who is a skilful "understander" of the struggle students face as they attempt to internalize another language. The teacher who can understand can indicate his acceptance of the students. By understanding students' fears and being sensitive to them, he can help students overcome their negative feelings and turn them into positive energy to further their learning. (P. 118)

CLL is classified under the umbrella of a broader approach which is 'humanistic teaching' wherein the teaching-learning stakeholders (learners/learners and teachers/learners) interrelationships are reconsidered and much more focussed. In a CLL class, students sit in a circle and initially engage in a conversation in their MT, while the teacher, counsellor or as he/she is too named 'a knower' (source) stands outside the circle and more precisely behind them. His/her role is to provide the learners with foreign language translations of the MT formulated sentences. The students use their MT freely to say what they wish but should repeat their teacher's response (translation) in the target language. The students' talk is recorded and afterwards the teacher transcribes it on the board where MT equivalents are provided beneath the target language words. Despite the fact that this method was criticised for the learners being too dependent on their teacher, the aim of the use of MT is prominently to enhance the students' security, "to provide a bridge from the familiar to the unfamiliar" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 101) and to make the meaning of target language words comprehensible and get the students to use them in different com binations to form novel sentences. Indeed, it is after a certain period of time, months and even years that the students' reliance on their MT would be reduced. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Richards and Rodgers (1995) compared between the client-counsellor in psychology and community language learning which is illustrated in table 2.

Table 1.2. *Comparison of Client-Counsellor Relationships in Psychological Counselling and CLL*

Psychological counselling (client-counsellor)	Community Language Learning (learner- knower)
1. Client and counsellor agree [contact] to counselling.	1. Learner and knower agree to language learning.
2. Client articulates his or her problem in language of affect.	2. Learner presents to the knower (in L1) a message he or she wishes to deliver to another.
3. Counsellor listens carefully.	3. Knower listens and other learners overhear.
4. Counsellor restates client message in language of cognition.	4. Knower restates learner's message in L2.
5. Client evaluates the accuracy of counsellor's message restatement.	5. Learner repeats the L2 message forms to its addresses.
6. Client reflects on the interaction of the counselling session.	6. Learner replays (from tape or memory) and reflects upon the messages exchanged during the language class.

1.3.2.5.2. Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia, also known as dessugestopedia, is referred to by Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) as one of the bilingual methods as the learners' MT has a considerable role in

it. It is a method to language teaching which derives its principles from the Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov's views about learning. According to him, in order to learning to take place, learners' 'state of relaxation' should be achieved besides "giving over of control to the teacher" (Brown, 2007, p. 27). As it is known most learners often come to the classroom not only with the idea that learning foreign languages is difficult but further with some psychological barriers such as: "we fear that we will be unable to perform, that we will be limited in our ability to learn, [and] that we will fail" (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, P. 102). Accordingly, Lozanov created this method which brought radical novelties to teaching and learning languages such as the importance given to the physical surroundings and atmosphere which are represented in well decorated and furnished classrooms, and the use of music to make learners relax and overcome any psychological fear or barrier. In the same vein, Harmer (2001) points out that to enhance learning, according to the suggestopedic method, we should ensure that "the students are comfortable, confident and relaxed, [and] the affective filter is lowered" (p. 89).

During a suggetopedic class, a lesson is composed of three main parts. Lozanov (1997) described a suggestopedic language class as:

> At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listens to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and the second concert of the concert, there are again several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to

read the text. … They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and before getting up in the morning. (as cited in Brown, 2007. p. 29)

From this description, it is clearly noticed that in this type of learning, the use of the learners' MT is allowed as translations of the lessons into this latter are provided in their course books but "as the course proceeds, the teacher uses the native language less and less" (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p .112).

1.3.2.5.3. The Silent Way

The silent way (SW) is another method developed in the seventies. It was devised by Caleb Gattegno who promoted for "a humanistic approach" (Chamot and McKeon, 1948 as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 28) to education despite the fact that such a method "rested more on cognitive than affective arguments" (Brown, 2007, p. 28). Its advocates held the view that "learning [is seen] as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity in which the learner is a principle actor rather than a bench-bound listener" (Bruner, 1966 as cited in Rodgers & Richards, 2001, p. 81). The fundamental learning hypotheses underlying this method are summarised by Rodgers and Richards (2001) in three salient points:

➢ Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.

➢ Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects.

➢ Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned. (p. 81)

From these points, it is clear that this type of teaching rejects the audio-lingual tenets of habit-formation and repetition as key principles of learning and argued for the discovery learning.

The SW learning was in vogue during the seventies. It is argued that learners succeed in their learning because they discover and create what to be learnt in various subjects classes in general and in languages classes in particular i.e., learners interact and cooperate with one another in order to solve language problems. In addition to this, in a language classroom,

teachers make use of materials such as Cuisenaire rods and coloured wall charts. Whilst the Cuisenaire rods are used for teaching language points such as "vocabulary (colors, numbers, adjectives [long, short, and so on]), verbs (give, take, pick up, drop), and syntax (tense, comparatives, pluralisation, word order, and the like" (Brown, 2007, p. 29); the wall charts serve as a means for introducing mainly pronunciation models and grammatical paradigms. In a typically silent way classroom, a teacher should keep silent as much as possible. However, the learners "should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 81). In what concern the learners' MT, it is allowed though not through translation as a technique but it is frequently resorted to "to give instructions when necessary, to help a student improve his or her pronunciation" (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p. 94). It is also used during a feedback session namely with low level proficiency learners or beginners. In this type of teaching, teachers view the learners' knowledge in their MT as a basis upon which they should build their teaching. For instance, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2001) provided us with the example of languages' sound systems, if two linguistic systems share some similar sounds, it is an opportunity for teachers to invest this and "can build upon the existing knowledge to introduce the new sounds in the target language" (p.94).

Due to some of its weaknesses, this method was criticised, it was conceived as 'inhuman' due to the teacher's role and "silence acting as a barrier rather than an incentive" (Harmer, 2001, p. 89). Brown (2007) summarised its weak points as follows:

> In one sense, the Silent Way was too harsh as a method, and the teacher too distant, to encourage a communicative atmosphere. Students often need more guidance and overt correction than the Silent Way permitted. There are a number of aspects of language that can indeed be "told" to students to their benefit; they need not, as in CLL as well, struggle for hours or days with a concept that could be easily clarified by the teacher's direct guidance. (p. 29)

Despite of the criticism it received, Harmer (2001) has acknowledged that the SW has influenced the mainstream teaching in a positive way both directly and indirectly. The direct influence is by introducing the use of phonemic charts and Cuisenaire rods; whereas the indirect one is represented by the use of discovery techniques.

1.2.3.6. Communicative Language Teaching

The changes that the British language teaching tradition had known during the 1960s culminated in the development of communicative language teaching (CLT). It came as a reaction to the prevailing traditional view of structural focus teaching. Its advocates argued for a communicative focus teaching whose goal should be to master what Hymes coined communicative competence as opposed to Chomsky's linguistic competence. While Chomsky argued that "the current standard structural theories of language were incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristic of language" (Richards & Rodgers, 1995, p. 64) and accounted for the creativity trait of human beings and their ability to produce infinite number of novel and unique individual sentences. (For more details see section 1.2 above). The British applied linguists, primarily, focused more on other aspects of language which are its functional and communicative characteristics. The interest in teaching a language so as to target the communicative proficiency raised and the mere focus on structural mastery waned. As Cook (2008) points it out "a goal expressed in terms of communication means basing classroom teaching on communication and so leads to techniques that make the students communicate to each other. Consequently, communication came to be seen more as process than static elements, functions, and notions" (p. 248). Some of the features of CLT are presented by Celce-Murcia (2014):

- It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is the learners' ability to communicate in the target language.

- It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions and that they are as important as the linguistic structures.

- In some cases, the content is academic or job-related material, which becomes the course focus with language learning as a simultaneous concern.

- Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer or negotiate meaning in situations in which one person has information that the other(s) lack.

- Students often engage in role play or dramatisation to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts. (p. 8)

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) added some other features of the CLT concerning the status of the learners' mother tongue in a foreign language class and stated that "judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible [and] translation may be used where students need or benefit from it" (as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 49). Larsen-Freemen (2000),too, stated the 'judicious use' of the learners' MT but with noting that "the target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework" (p. 132). She added that the student should be aware of the primary objective of learning a foreign language which is communication and not simply a subject to be taught and learnt. Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009), stated that under the cotemporary versions of communicative approaches the minimisation of the MT is recommended and its role is reduced for emergencies only; its use is regarded as a source of errors, "a constant threat" and its potential advantage as "a greatest pedagogic resource a child brings to the learning of FLs" (p. 18) is denied. They, furthermore, added that teachers and learners are frequently advised to maximise the target language use, to minimise the MT and to rely on their common sense. In fact, the communicative teaching approach overlaps some types of learning such as task-based learning, cooperative learning and the competency-based learning that will be tackled in the following sections.

1.2.3.6.1. Task-Based Language Teaching

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is also called by Ellis (2003) task supported teaching. It is seen as one of the central teaching under the communicative approach though,

as Brown (2007) noted it, such a claim is controversial amongst methodologists; whilst some of them such as Kumaravadivelu consider TBLT as a totally different approach to language teaching, some of communicative teaching's advocates such as Ellis argues that TBLT 'is at the very heart of CLT'. It came as a reaction to long 'teacher-dominated' and 'form-oriented' second language classrooms worldwide (den Branden, 2007). Besides, Cook (2010) regarded it as "the successor of both early SLA-inspired approaches and CLT" (p.29). Willis (1996) considers it as "a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching" (as cited in Richards & Rodger, 2011, p. 223).

Before going through the salient principles that govern it, we find it primordial to define what a task is. Howatt and Widdowson (2004) noted that frequently a fundamental difference is made between tasks and exercises; while exercises "involve the solution of language problems" which are based on examples; tasks "involve the solution of problems by means of language", Concerning tasks' role in TBLT, they added that they "are seen as central and not supportive activities" (p. 366). Lee (2000) defined a task as:

> a classroom activity or exercise that has: (a) an objective obtainable only by the interaction among participants, (b) a mechanism for structuring and sequencing interaction, and (c) a focus on meaning exchange; (2) a language learning endeavour that requires learners to comprehend, manipulate, and/or produce the target language as they perform some set of work plans. (as cited in den Branden, 2007, p.8)

From this definition, it is apparent that the learners' MT, in TBLT, is not given any role. Indeed, Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) advanced that this type of teaching is the 'enduring Berlitz legacy' which was based on the natural-like way of language acquisition that they criticised as being a 'naturalistic fallacy', they added that ' no MT, no printed word' are used in TBLT. Cook (2010) stated that "nowhere in the TBLT literature do we encounter an act of translation presented as a task" (p. 30), a statement which again reveals the

ignorance of MT as a didactic tool which may help in the teaching-learning process. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) added that "there is no explicit role for the students' native language" (p. 201) in this type of teaching.

As its name indicates the core unit of teaching is based on tasks which should be selected, according to Long and Crooks (1993), taking into consideration the analysis of learners real world needs. Therefore, the ultimate objective of learning a language is not merely form-based, but it further targets real-world use of that language i.e. to learn a language for communicative ends which should be operational beyond the boundaries of the classroom. Nunan (2004, p.1) argued that TBLT has empowered some teaching principles and practices. These are:

- A needs-based approach to content selection.

- An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

- The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.

- An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning it.

- The linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.

1.3.2.6.2. Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative learning also known as collaborative learning is said to be a learner-centred method as the learners under this type of learning work either in pairs or groups and help each other so as to 'achieve goals successfully' (Brown, 2007). It is opposed to 'competitive' learning which is based on individualism and whose advocates believe in the myth of 'rugged individualist' (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007); Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) was resisted for years before being acknowledged as a reliable method in education. It has been defined as:

> [A] group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially
>
> structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each
>
> learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase
>
> the learning of others (Olsen and Kagan, 1992 as cited in Richards & Rodgers,
>
> 2001, p. 192) .

This means that the CLL draws on the principle that learning happens thanks to social interactions between teachers and learners and among learners themselves inside the classroom. Such a principle is grounded in the theoretical works of two outstanding developmental psychologists who are Piaget and Vygotsky (For more details see section 1.3 above). The ultimate aim of CLL is to develop learners' communicative competence. Research findings have shown that in comparison to individualistic learning, CLL is more effective and has some beneficial aspects such as "prompting intrinsic motivation and task achievement, generating higher order thinking skills, . . . heightening self-esteem, . . . creating caring and altruistic relationships, and lowering anxiety and prejudice" (Oxford, 1997, p . 445).

Regarding the use of MT in CLL, it is problematic mainly in monolingual classrooms because when learners share a common MT; it is "possible if not probable that [they] in small groups will covertly use their native language" (Brown, 2007, p. 227). Careless (2008) stated that:

> 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)

1.3.2.6.3. Competency-Based Language Teaching

Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) is based on Competency-Based Education (CBE) which emerged as an educational movement in the United States in the 1970's. Compared to the approaches and methods which were reckoned with earlier in this chapter and whose major aims are inputs to language learning, CBE focuses on outputs or outcomes of learning in designing language programmes. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), CBA addresses goals such as "what the learners are expected to do with the language, [they are defined] in terms of precise measurable descriptions of the knowledge, skills, and behaviours students should possess at the end of a course of study" (p. 141).

As for CBLT, it is a learner-centred approach and draws on the functional and interactional view of the nature of language. Learners are considered as active participants who are involved in the learning process via their interaction with one another in pair work and group work activities. CBLT, too, aims at teaching language in the social context wherein it is used. It seeks to achieve the learners' communicative competence as it targets the development of functional communication skills that enable learners to transmit such skills to real world situations beyond the classroom's walls. Auerbach (1986) suggested eight key factors that are involved in the implementation of CBE in ESL. These are:

- ➤ A focus on successful functioning in society.
- ➤ A focus on life skills.
- ➤ Task- or performance-centered orientation.
- ➤ Modularized instruction.
- ➤ Outcomes that are made explicit a priori.
- ➤ Continuous and ongoing assessment.
- ➤ Demonstrated mastery of performance objectives.

> ➢ Individualized, student-centered instruction. (as cited in Richards & Rodgers,

2001. p. 146)

The Natural Approach (NA) rests on the combination of Tracy Terrell's philosophy of language teaching and the theories of second language acquisition presented by Stephen Krashen that were manifested through their book Natural Approach (1983). In his book Principles and Practices in Second Language Acquisition, Stephen Krashen (1982) argued that learners can develop their communicative competence in a target language in the same way as a child acquires his/her first language. He defines second language acquisition as "a process, similar, if not identical to the way children develop ability in their first language" (Krashen, 1982, p. 10).

Indeed, Krashen and Terrill view communication as being the fundamental function of language and give supremacy to teaching communicative abilities; that is why they consider NA as a model of the communicative approach (Rodgers & Richards, 2001). In Krashen and Terrill's (1983) words, NA is "similar to the communicative approaches being developed today" (as cited in Rodgers & Richards, 2001, p. 179). In teaching via NA, emphasis is put on communicating meanings through getting access to a language's lexicon being taught. However, before reaching the step of communication, they argued that learners should pass through 'a silence period' until they reach the phase of being able to speak in a natural manner. In this respect, Brown (2007) stipulated that "Krashen and Terrill felt that learners should benefit from delaying production until speech emerges, that learners should be as relaxed as possible in the classroom, and that a great deal of communication and acquisition should take place" (p. 31).

While the primary role of teachers in the NA is to provide their learners with what Krashen calls 'comprehensible input' i.e. instructions which are intelligible to the learners; krashen and Terrill (1983) argued that we succeed to learn a foreign language thanks to 'the input hypothesis' and that "we acquire ... language by understanding input that is a little

beyond our current level of (acquired) competence" (as cited in Johnson, 2008, p. 85).

Krashen coined a formula i+1 which explains his theory of comprehensible input. 'i' stands

for the actual learner's level of proficiency and 'i+1' represents his/her level immediately

following 'i'. Krashen suggested five principles about second language acquisition; the first is

Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis in which a distinction between acquisition and learning

processes is made. It states that second language competence could be reached through two

ways; acquisition and learning. On the one hand, acquisition is based on two principles: the

subconscious acquisition of language and the conscious process. Referring to them

(acquisition and learning), (Krashen (1982) put that:

> 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. We are generally not consciously aware of the rules of the
>
> languages we have acquired. Instead, we have a "feel" for correctness.
>
> Grammatical sentences "sound" right, or "feel" right, and errors feel wrong, even
>
> if we do not consciously know what rule was violated. (p. 10)

Concerning the learning way, it is that conscious knowledge of a second language. It,

further, amounts to knowing and being aware of the rules or grammar of a second language

and being able to use and speak about them. Some other scholars had previously referred to

such distinctions such as Bialystock and Frohlich (1972) who posited "implicit" and

"explicit" learning (as cited in Krashen, 1982, p.50). The second hypothesis is the Natural

Order Hypothesis implying that some grammatical structures are internalised at an earlier

stage than others. In a longitudinal study, Brown (1975) found that children acquiring English

as a first language "tended to acquire certain grammatical morphemes, or functions words

earlier than others" (as cited in Krashen, 1982, p. 12) such as the progressive marker 'ing' and

the plural marker's' were acquired earlier than's' of the possession and that of the third

singular personal pronoun in the present simple. Similarly, in second language acquisition the same natural order was found out but in different grammatical points. For instance, Dulay (1977) and Burt (1975) proved that children who acquire English as a second language "show a natural order for grammatical morphemes" (as cited in Krashen 1982, p. 12). The third hypothesis is the Monitor Hypothesis and which implies that the learnt system of a second language plays the role of what Krashen calls 'a monitor' i.e. before producing an utterance, a learner uses his/her aforementioned system for "editing language production" (Trawinski, 2005, p. 70). For the monitor to be effectively used, Krashen proposed three main conditions:

➢ Time. There must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule.

➢ Focus on form. The language user must be focused on correctness or on the form of the output.

➢ Knowledge of rules. The performer must know the rules. The monitor does best with rules that are simple in two ways. They must be simple to describe and they must not require complex movements and rearrangements. (Richards & Rodgers, 1995, p. 132)

The fourth principle constituting language acquisition process is the Input Hypothesis that Krashen considers as a prerequisite for success in second language acquisition (for more details see above).The fifth principle tackled by Krashen is the affective filter which is defined by Trawinski (2005) as "an emotional barrier which prevents the learner from receiving the input from the environment" (p. 72). Tawinski (2005) mentions three essential affective variables which either foster or hinder the learners' second language acquisition: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety; i.e. lack of motivation from the part of the learners, holding negative attitudes towards a language or learning, or being stressful, impedes the access of comprehensible input and therefore, language acquisition process would be blocked. Krashen and Terrell (1988) recommended the avoidance of overdue corrections of learners' errors in order to lower their affective filter as much as possible, and delaying the oral production activities till the end of the 'silent period' in the same manner as the first

language is acquired. They even allow learners to use their mother tongue in an early phase and respond in it, they have the possibility too to "mix both the target language and their mother tongue... [but] usually this kind of mixed mode is quickly left behind" (p. 58).

1.4. Conclusion

The review of literature in this chapter shows that three dominant learning theories' schools of thoughts (Behaviourist, Mentalist and Cognitive) inform the diverse approaches and methods to language teaching and learning. It provides a historical overview of teaching foreign languages in Europe from late 1400's up to 1700's putting emphasis on outstanding scholars of that era such as Jacque Bellot, Claudius Holyband, Fracis Bacon, and Jan Amos Comeius whose teaching was based on the use of the learners' mother tongues. It, further, highlighted some fundamental approaches and methods to teaching and learning languages such as the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Oral Situational Approach, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Communicative Approach, Task-Based Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning and Competency-Based Language Teaching. Besides accounting for the main characteristics of each approach; it explained how each of them debated the role of learners' MT within the teaching-learning process of foreign languages throughout different historical periods and what arguments did some of the opponents and advocates of such use advanced to sustain their stance.

CHAPTER TWO

Monolingual and Bilingual Teaching and Empirical Research on the Use of Mother Tongue in ESL/EFL Classrooms

2.1. Introduction

2.2. A Historical Overview of Monolingual Teaching

2.3. Arguments in Favour of the Monolingual Teaching

2.3.1. Maximum Exposure

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2.6.1. Research on the Amount of the MT Used by Teachers

2.6.2. Research on the Functions and Advantages of Teachers' Use of the Learners' MT

2.6.3. Students' and Teachers' Attitudes towards using the Learners' MT in EFL/ESL Classrooms

2.7. Research on the Learners' MT Use in EFL Classrooms in the Arab World

2.8. Conclusion

2.1. Introduction

In language teaching and learning in general and English language teaching and learning in particular, two major approaches are known regarding the medium of instruction in the classroom. These are the monolingual and the bilingual approaches or what Brown (2007) referred to as monolingualism and bilingualism. Whilst the monolingual approach calls for the exclusive use of the target language as a medium of instruction and excludes any reference to the learners' MT in language classrooms, the bilingual approach considers the learners' MT as a valuable didactic tool at the service of teachers and learners. This chapter opens with a historical overview of monolingual teaching by providing its origin, shedding light on both arguments and counterarguments advanced by its proponents and opponents respectively. It, additionally, puts emphasis on the pertinent arguments the advocates of bilingual teaching presented in favour of the integration of the learners' MT into language classrooms. Then, it engages in the discussion of some theoretical and empirical studies which have been carried out in respect to teachers' and learners' use of the learners' MT in language classrooms. Such studies are categorised according to three prime themes (the amount of the MT, the functions of the MT and the teachers' and learners' attitudes towards its use) and the context of research (in the non-Arab and the Arab world). At the end, some of the studies carried out in some countries of the Arab world are highlighted.

2.2. A Historical Overview of Monolingual Teaching

Monolingual teaching (henceforth MLT) is defined as the fact that teachers use only the target language being taught as the sole medium of instruction in language classrooms (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). As it has been seen in the previous chapter, the use of learners' MT in teaching languages had long been the norm before the Reform Movement (RM) of the late nineteenth century (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004; Phillipson, 2014). However, as a result of new assumptions and ideas it brought about, mainly in phonetics and psychology, GTM was rigidly opposed and

the RM advocates "dogmatically opposed to the use of students' own languages" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 275).

Another plausible source of MLT is Berlitz ideas which culminated in his newly coined method, at that time, the Direct Method or Berlitz Method. Hall and Cook (2012) quoted from one Berlitz website 'Berlitz London, 2011' where one of its basic tenets is namely voiced as:

> The Berlitz Method excludes any use of the students' native language in either the classroom or in the student's review materials. By totally immersing the student in the new language, we can most closely stimulate the real-life situations in which he or she will be using the language, and eliminate the cumbersome process of introducing a concept first in the student's language and then in the target language. (p. 275)

 (For more details about the Direct Method and MT status, see chapter one, section 2.2.2). Adding to this, mass migration of people towards many countries; exceptionally waves from Europe to America contributed to the emergence of multilingual classrooms constituting learners from multinational origins wherein the use of learners' MTs was impossible and thus, they were banned (Harbord, 1992).

Phillipson (2014) debated some origins of the monolingual tenet; and he emphasised the experience obtained from colonial language teaching tradition as one factor which reinforced that tenet in teaching languages in general and English in particular. He added that the 'banishment' of other languages from classrooms had been registered at the level of 'periphery English countries'. On the one hand, he stated that "the ban on other languages reflects a belief that other languages, including the mother tongue, are a hindrance in foreign language learning" (Phillipson, 2014, p. 187). On the other hand, he tackled the issue from a political perspective and argued that the prevalence of MLT and the prohibition of ex-colonized populations' MTs (local languages) mirror the status of other languages apart from English and "power relations in the colonial period" (p. 187). As it is historically

acknowledged, one of the primary targets of the twentieth century colonisation was the demolition of colonised people's identities and cultures; and being the cornerstone of identity, local languages were functionally underestimated and limited to "communication with servants, or initial literacy for missionary purposes" (p. 187).

Indeed, Phillipson (2014) tackled the issue of MLT in details in his book Linguistic Imperialism; he advanced that in the newly independent countries, which, once, were under the British domination, educational language planning including ELT was among the prerogatives of the Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language, held at Makerere, Ughanda in 1961. The deliberations of the conference, presented under the Makerere Report, brought about the policy that was to regulate ELT in those countries and which was embodied in five tenets. They are:

➢ English is best taught monolingually.

➢ The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.

➢ The earlier English is taught, the better the results.

➢ The more English is taught, the better the results.

➢ If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop (Phillipson, 2014, p. 185).

Phillipson fiercely questioned those tenets and rendered them to the five fallacies. Those fallacies will be detailed later as counterarguments for the MLT.

2.3. Arguments in Favour of the Monolingual Teaching

Over the last two decades, a dominant body of literature about the use of learners' MT in foreign and second language classrooms has emerged (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Miles, 2014; Medgyes, 1994; Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull & Daily O'Cain, 2009). Whereas some of these publications plainly expressed their dissatisfaction with the MT exclusion from FL/SL classrooms (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Butzkamm

& Caldwell, 2009; Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Macaro, 2001/ 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2000);

other ones voiced their support of MLT (Duff & Polio, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1982).

In the following, we will discuss, first, the three main claims of MLT supporters that Cook

(2001) presented. These are:

- ➢ Maximum exposure to L2
- ➢ The separation of L1 from L2 and language transfer
- ➢ Continual use of L2

2.3.1. Maximum Exposure

Maximum exposure claim rests on the fact that the target language (TL) is learnt in the

same way as the MT is acquired; a belief which stretches back to a time, as early as, the DM

period. And that any resort to learners' MT is conceived as a sign of failure and unnatural way

of learning. Maximum exposure is implicitly proclaimed in Makerere Report under the fourth

tenet: the more English is taught, the better the results (Phillipson, 2014). This tenet entails

that weak learners in English, should be extensively exposed to it so as to reach better results.

A tenet which is rendered to a fourth fallacy because it has been found that the quantity of the

input the children receive is over valued at the expense of its 'appropriacy and

comprehensibility', i.e. the input has a crucial role in learning a language; it 'must activate the

learner's hypothesis formation and hypothesis testing processes' and if it is underestimated,

learning will not happen (Phillipson, 2014).

Tackling this tenet Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009), who refer to this type of teaching

as 'monolingual dogma', stated that in many countries of the world, national curriculum

language guidelines tend to impose that lessons should be delivered monolingually. Yet,

some concessions may occur and in such cases, the MT may be incorporated. However, the

notion of maximum exposure is still a persistent doctrine, "the MT may occasionally be used

as a useful linguistic resource [but] maximizing the use of the target language in the

classroom is beneficial by providing linguistic exposure for the learners" (Butzkamm and

Caldwell, 2009, p. 18). They, further, added that the general tendency among educators and

teachers is that the MT is viewed as source of impediment than help in teaching and learning

foreign languages; and calls for its minimisation is at vogue.

Indeed, the emergence of Second Language Acquisition, in the 1970s and 1980s,

whose theoretical assumptions significantly informed language teaching, reinforced the

remove of learners' own languages from classrooms (Hall & Cook, 2012). Krashen (1982)

presented his well-known five theories of learning among which we shall consider 'the

acquisition-learning hypothesis' and 'Input Hypothesis' as they are directly related to

maximum exposure argument of advocates of MLT. In fact, Krashen's theories promote the

principle of MLT and provide it with a somehow theoretical argument. (For more details see

chapter one, section2.2.7).

About acquisition-learning hypothesis, Krashen pointed out that:

> 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, p. 10).

Following Krashen's philosophy of second language acquisition, the target language

learning and MT acquisition are two identical processes despite the fact that he made a

distinction between acquisition and learning. He even espoused some of Chomsky's thoughts

when he acknowledged the role of humans' innate capacity in the process of learning. Basing

his arguments on extensive exposure for learning to take place, Krashen did not account for

explicit teaching of grammar. He claimed that like children who acquire their MT through

exposure to language spoken in his/her social milieu, FL learners too should be given enough

time to listen to the FL being learnt in a natural way before expecting them to interact and

take risk to communicate in it i.e. this is what he labeled as 'the silent period' which is like

that which proceeds children's capacity to speak in a natural setting. In regards to the input hypothesis, Krashen (1982) explained that:

> 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 (p. 21).

As the quote indicates, the primary role of teachers is to provide their learners with 'comprehensible input' i.e. instructions which are intelligible enough to them. As it is stated above, the formula i+1, coined by Krashen, explains his theory of 'comprehensible input. While 'i' stands for the actual learner's level of proficiency, 'i+1' reflects his/her level immediately following 'i'. For Krashen, learning a language successfully is a matter of excessive exposure to the TL via comprehensible input in a context of authentic communication.

A further reason commonly mentioned by other researchers and educators suggests a different rationale behind advocating the maximal use of the TL as in most foreign language contexts; the classroom is the only occasion in which learners are exposed to the FL (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). Turnbull (2001), for instance, noted that "the teacher is most often the sole linguistic model for the students and therefore their main source of input" (p. 532) that is why extensive exposure to FL is primordial. Another reason of teachers' TL use is to foster students' motivation to accept it as a means of communication that they can use themselves.

2.3.2. The Separation of L1 from L2

The second argument that MLT proponents presented is the separation of both languages (the MT and the TL). Accordingly, the ultimate objective of teaching and learning a TL, for them, is to form bilinguals in languages being taught and learnt. However, the debate over what kind of bilingualism should be developed (co-ordinate/ intra-lingual or compound/ cross-lingual one) fueled among educators and theoreticians starting from the mid-twentieth century. It is plain that MLT supporters would opt for "coordinate bilingualism in which the two languages form distinct systems in the mind rather than compound bilingualism in which they form a single compound system" (Weinreich, 1953 as cited in Cook, 2001, p. 407) because, one of their arguments over the exclusion of the MT from EFL classrooms, is their belief that no link should be made between the MT and the TL (Cook, 2001). This way of thinking gave rise to transfer theories such as Contrastive Analysis (CA).

CA lies mainly in the comparison between the TL and the MT so as to sort out potential inter-language negative transfer (from the MT to the FL) that may occur because of the differences between the two linguistic systems in terms of their lexical, grammatical, and phonological levels (Widdowson, 2003). CA stretches back to the works of the American linguist Fries (1949) who claimed that linguistics' contribution to the development of language teaching should be accomplished via "the descriptive analysis as a basis upon which to build the teaching materials. . . [and] an adequate descriptive analysis of both the language to be studied and the native language of the student" (as cited in Stern, 2007, p. 159) should be established. In the same line of thought, following Fries, Lado (1957) highlighted the importance of making comparative studies between languages because such comparisons would permit the linguists to spot areas of difficulties in second language learning. CA findings' major function in the teaching sphere is to be employed as a basis for curriculum development, teaching materials' preparation and evaluation, the prediction of learning obstacles and for testing. Yet, the findings of CA have not been invested in classroom

contexts and teachers are not encouraged either to involve and inform their learners about positive and negative impacts of their MT upon the TL they learn, or to value their learners' prior knowledge and background they come with to TL classes. But they were, instead, instructed to deem MT as a source of troubles and impediment to TL teaching and learning that should be avoided and excluded. As Widdowson (2003) points it out:

> Contrastive analysis was designed for diagnosis and prevention: it was to provide the prophylactic means whereby the learning of the L2 might, as far as possible, be protected against L1 contagion. Its findings were not meant to inform methodology: there was no question of exploiting the learners' existing linguistic experience and expertise in their own language to facilitate the learning of the L2. On the contrary, the assumption was that all influence from the L1 was necessarily negative, and that the L2 could, and should, be directly internalized by the metalinguistic devices of demonstration and practice in accordance with behaviourist ideas (p. 151).

Due to the negative impacts MT is thought to bring into FL classrooms, advocates of MLT called for the separation of both languages; this practice is what Cook (2001) referred to as 'language compartmentalization' which is, in his words, the norm in "the many twentieth-century attempts to teach meaning without recourse to the L1" (P. 407). Teachers, while teaching vocabulary and explaining words, make the most of mimes, definitions, authentic realia and other techniques instead without using translation hoping that the learners would internalise the TL linguistic system as a separate entity from that of their MT. However, the research literature reveals that keeping the two languages apart is impossible; this belief is given support by Marton (1981):

> Taking a psychological point of view, we can say that there is never peaceful co-existence between two language systems in the learner, but rather constant warfare, and that warfare is not limited to the moment of cognition, but continues

during the period of storing newly learnt ideas in memory (as cited in Ellis, 2008,

p. 19).

2.3.3. Continual Use of L2

The aim behind learning any FL is, frequently, expressed as the master of its different productive and receptive skills. However, most of the recently coined methods and approaches to language learning weigh the productive skills the most such as the communicative language teaching from which other sub-approaches derive (see section 2.2.6 in the previous chapter). Given that, MLT supporters emphasise the point that the teacher is the only source of the TL in the classroom, he/she himself/herself should refrain from the MT use and maximise the TL use which is required to be within the frame of real communication contexts. In this respect, Littlewood (1981) pinpointed that:

> many learners are likely to remain unconvinced by our attempts to make them accept the foreign language as an effective means of satisfying their communicative needs if we abandon it ourselves as soon as such needs arise in the immediate classroom situation" (as cited in Littlewood & Yu, 2011, p. 67).

It is the teachers' responsibility to sustain their students' motivation to learn the TL and to make them willing to take risks to communicate; teachers constitute role models for their learners from whom they inspire most of their linguistic skills. Therefore, it is required from teachers to beware of the amount of the MT and what functions they employ it for; using it, for instance, for classroom interaction is "depriving the students of the only true experience of the L2 they may ever encounter" (Cook 2001, p. 409). Despite the fact that real-context communication is a far-reached goal in classrooms; yet, the maximum use of the TL helps teachers to demonstrate the importance of the TL to their learners, show them how to use it for communicative ends, and its best use leads to the creation of "new teaching and learning strategies" (Macaro, 1996 as cited in Pachler & Field, 2002, p. 86).

Hall and Cook (2013) believe that other arguments apart from the aforementioned ones contributed to the acceptance of the MLT as an unchallengeable legacy; these include: firstly, the emergence of multilingual classrooms wherein a variety of languages are the MTs of the learners i.e. the classrooms become heterogeneous and it is impossible for teachers, in such cases, to resort to one MT, in case they master one, at the expense of others. This phenomenon is due, prominently, to migration and people's move from one nation to another namely with the technological advancement either to seek job's opportunities or to pursue one's studies. Secondly, the hiring of native-speaker English teachers who do not know their learners' MT fosters the implementation of MLT all over the world. This policy came as a neo-colonial strategy embraced by Britain, for instance, in most of its ex-colonies, just after their independence, English was taught as a second language by recruiting English native teachers who originated mostly from Great Britain. Indeed, the Makerere report (1961) further endorsed such a policy through its second tenet which stated that "the ideal teacher should be a native English speaker" (Phillipson 2014, p. 185). Thirdly, material publishers have long had their own impact on the issue; we find that most book publishers promote for "monolingual course-books which could be used by native-speaker 'experts' and be marketed globally without variation" (Hall & Cook, 2013, p. 8).

2.4. Evidence against (Counter-Arguments to) Monolingual Teaching

Despite the fact that MLT has long gained praise among researchers and linguists, it has remained a controversial issue and received considerable criticism and resistance (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Butzkamm& Caldwell, 2009; Phillipson, 1992; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Auerbach (1993), for instance, believes that MLT "rooted in a particular ideological perspective, rests on unexamined assumptions, and serves to reinforce inequities in the broader social order" (p. 1). In the same line of thinking, Phillipson (1992) has presented detailed counterarguments on the five tenets of the Makerere report (1961) mentioned above. He has vigorously questioned them and stated that "each tenet is false and

that each can be redesignated as a fallacy" (p. 185). Thus, he coined his five fallacies that he advanced as counterarguments to MLT.

Table 2.1. Makerere Tenets and Phillipson's Fallacies

Makerere tenets	Phillipson's fallacies
1. English is best taught monolingually	1. The monolingual fallacy
2. The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker	2. The native speaker fallacy
3. The earlier English is taught, the better the results	3. The early start fallacy
4. The more English is taught, the better the results	4. The maximum exposure fallacy
5. If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop	5. The subtractive fallacy

The first tenet 'English is best taught monolingually' is considered by Phillipson (2014) as a monolingual fallacy which stems from an inherited colonial tradition; it was not made up in order to target the English good proficiency of Britain's ex-colonies populations, but, it rather had implicit aims among which the supremacy of English over other languages and the banishment of vernacular languages in the periphery countries stand as the priority of the British government policy in its ex-colonies territories.

> Years after the attainment of political independence, the majority of African independent states have continued to practice linguistic policies inherited at the time of independence, where, on the whole, foreign colonial languages are more favoured than the languages indigenous to the African continent. Indeed, in some cases, it may be possible to demonstrate that the linguistic policies being followed today in certain African independent states are still as colonial in outlook as they were during the period prior to the attainment of political independences (Organization of African Unity, Inter-African Bureau of Languages, 1985 cited in Phillipson, 2014, p. 189).

Phillipson (2014) proclaimed that the total exclusion of learners' MTs from language classrooms is a prime factor that leads to 'cultural dislocation' and denial of children's valuable prior experience. About the Goethe Institute experience in teaching German around the world, Sternagel (1984) noted that, in its policy review, it recognizes that "when the mother tongue is banned from the classroom, the teaching leads to the alienation of the learners, deprives them of their cultural identity and leads to acculturation rather than increased intercultural communicative competence" (as cited in Phillipson, 2014, p. 193).

The second tenet 'the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker' has been criticised too and labelled by Phillipson as 'the native speaker fallacy' who proclaims that such a tenet has no scientific validity upon which it may rest. MLT advocates promote for native speaker teacher as being the ideal teacher and "for many decades, and in many parts of the world, being a native speaker was the highest qualification a teacher could aspire to" (Johnson, 2008, p. 203). However, non-native teachers may be better than native speaker teachers and the latter being sometimes untrained and unqualified constitute 'a menace'. The non-native teacher is preferable because he/she has relatively gone through the same experience of second or foreign language learning as that of their learners (Phillipson 2014). Thus, drawbacks such as errors, difficulties at the level of pronunciation, negative transfer as well as positive transfer would be easily predicted by teachers and therefore create more effective learning strategies. Similarly Medgyes (1994) discarded the supremacy of the Native English Speaker Teacher (NEST) over the Non-Native English Speaker Teacher (non-NEST) and listed a number of points wherein it is advantageous to be a non-NEST such as his/her ability to foresee his/her learners' difficulties; and the fact of sharing the same culture makes it easy for teachers to "be more sympathetic to the learners' problems, and will understand their attitudes" (Johnson, 2008, p. 203). Indeed, he, too, put emphasis on the reliability of both the teaching qualifications and the experience of teachers in determining a good teacher instead of focusing merely on being a native teacher (Johnson 2008). In one of its reports Unesco (1953)

warns against the over-recruitment of native speaker teachers and proclaimed "a teacher is not adequately qualified to teach a language merely because it is his (sic) mother tongue" (as cited in Phillipson, 2014, p. 195).

The third tenet indicates that 'the earlier English is taught, the better the results', this tenet is plainly revealed in the Makerere Report:

> In countries where English is recognized as a second language, its teaching should be based on its direct use as a spoken language, and it should be introduced as early as possible in the child's school life when this is of advantage to the child (e.g. when English is used as a teaching language at an early stage in the school programme) (as cited in Phillipson, 2014, p. 201).

Not only this, but the principle of learning a foreign language at an early age was further endorsed by some applied linguists, Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens, whose contributions to the field is marked by their publications in 1964 three years after the Makerere conference; they advocated "one of the single contributions to the teaching of English as a second language in many countries would be to lower the starting age and let the pupils learn by experiencing the language in use" (as cited in Phillipson, 2014, p. 207). However, the implementation of such a tenet proved to be a failure in many African countries where English has been implemented either as a medium of teaching such as in Zambia or as a subject such as in Tanzania. In those countries most of the targeted objectives of English language teaching and learning have not been reached. Moreover and scientifically speaking such 'early age' assumption does not stand as findings of research done in the Western countries in the 1960s and the 1970s concerning this issue showed that "many of the programmes for the education of immigrants through the medium of a second language are inappropriate because they aim at monolingualism and ignore the cultural and linguistic needs of the children in question" (Skutnabb-Kangas 1984, 1988 as cited in Phillipson, 2014, p. 208). The Swedish experience, too, in the integration of English into the primary education at

an earlier age did not bring about better results (Holmstrand 1980 as cited in Phillipson, 2014).

Indeed, the real and covert motive behind this tenet is to foster the supremacy of English over the other local languages and to keep those ex-colonised countries under a continuous dependence of expertise from the core English-speaking countries, and "to raise an insuperable language barrier for the mass of primary learners" (Phillipson, 2014, p. 209). Other economic results are the creation of job opportunities for English teachers at the expense of other teachers specialised in other languages. Ideological consequences are related to the high status given to English which comes to the surface whenever educational issues have been tackled. Phillipson noted that this tenet has no scientific evidence and therefore it is worthy to be rendered into 'the early start fallacy'.

A commonly held belief is that children learn a second language effortlessly and do better than adults (Brown 2007). Nevertheless, studies have shown that adults can overpass children in some acquisition points such as their ability to memorise a larger vocabulary; they have attained an advanced cognitive development that allows them to facilitate their learning by deductive and abstract processes i.e. 'their superior intellect usually helps them to learn faster than a child' (Brown, 2007, p. 101). He, too, noted that many children of 6 to 12 year-old show 'significant difficulty in acquiring a second language' for a manifold motives among which standing as the most prominent are "the complex personal, social, cultural, and political factors at play in elementary school education" (p. 101).

Cameron (2010) reminds us of the successful experience of Canadian immersion teaching wherein children native speakers of English are enrolled in French-speaking nurseries and infant schools and vice versa. It has been noticed that, it is the children's listening comprehension and pronunciation which have been outstanding as well developed skills. However, one should not forget that immersion teaching has been undertaken in naturalistic contexts, and not in school-based learning where "younger children learn the

grammar of the L2 more slowly than older learners, so that although they start earlier with language learning they make slower progress" (Harley et al. 1995 as cited in Cameron, 2010, p. 17).

The fourth tenet is 'The more English is taught, the better the results', in other words, it overlaps the principle of maximum exposure as the keystone of English learning. However, manifold arguments against such claim have been raised by different researchers and educators (For more details see 2.1 above).

The fifth and the last Makarere Report's tenet reads 'If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop', it is an overt statement of the exclusion of local MTs from schools and their use was associated with English falling standards. It, too, displays an implicit argument which lies in "the continued use of English in periphery-English countries to at least the same extent as in colonial days" (Phillipson, 2014, p. 213). In fact, Phillipson stresses that what makes standards to improve or fall are the teachers' qualifications and the adequacy of textbooks used but not the integration of other languages except English to ELT classrooms.

Other arguments against MLT, which are presented by proponents of bilingual education, came from another line of research which is the comparison between the first language acquired by children and the second language learnt by adults so as to sort out any similarities or differences among both processes (Cook, 1977; Ellis, 1985; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Felix, 1978; McNamara 1937). Despite the fact that MT learners and L2 learners display some similarities in the early stages of development; they differ considerably in the 'silent period' phase that is unavoidable in a child's MT acquisition but is not noticeable in many L2 learners especially with adults. Felix (1978) examined German acquisition in terms of sentence types among L2 children learners and L1 children acquirers; he found out that while the L2 learners he studied "produced only three different multi-word utterance types" (as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 106); the children acquiring their MT, right from the two-word stage, were

able to produce a large number of different structures. Table (4) provides a detailed account of

the fundamental differences between L1 and L2 acquisition presented by Bley-Vorman, 1988

as cited in Ellis (2008. p. 108).

Table 2.2. Differences between L1 and L2 Acquisition (Based on Bley-Vorman 1988)

Feature	L1 acquisition	L2 acquisition (foreign language acquisition
Overall success	Children normally achieve perfect mastery of their L1.	Adult L2 learners are very unlikely to achieve perfect mastery.
General failure	Success is guaranteed.	Complete success is very rare.
Variation	There is little variation among L1 learners with regard to overall success or the path they follow.	L2 learners vary in both their degree of success and the path they follow.
Goals	The goal is target-language competence.	L2 learners may be content with less than target-language competence and may also be more concerned with fluency than accuracy.
Fossilization	Fossilization is unknown in child language development.	L2 learners often cease to develop and also backslide (i.e. return to earlier stages of development).
Intuitions	Children develop clear intuitions regarding what is a correct and incorrect sentence.	L2 learners are often unable to form clear grammaticality judgements.
Instruction	Children do not need formal lessons to learn their L1.	There is a wide belief that instruction helps L2 learners.
Negative evidence	Children's 'errors' are not are not typically corrected; correction not necessary for acquisition.	Correction generally viewed as helpful and, by some, as necessary.

Affective factors	Success is not influenced by personality, motivation, attitudes, etc.	Affective factors play a major role in determining proficiency.

Another argument is drawn from Ausubel's (1964) findings that Brown (2007) has discussed. This time, a different research was carried out on children who acquire a second language in a natural setting and adults who learn a second language in a formal setting (classroom). Ausubel distinguishes between rote and meaningful learning. While most people of different ages show 'little need for rote' that is defined as 'mechanistic learning' and is not related to existing knowledge and experience; in meaningful learning most aspects are acquired through making connections between the new items to be learnt with prior existing knowledge and experience in our cognition. The belief that children represent a good model for rote learning and rely mostly on meaningless imitations and mimicking is a myth, they rather imitate and practice language but in meaningful and purposeful contexts. Ausubel found that adults show great need for rote learning despite the fact that they use it only for short-term memory and artificial ends. Brown (2007) concludes that the comparison of adults' and children's learning in such a case "the child's learning will seem to be superior [and] that the cause of such superiority [is not] the age of the person, but the context of learning. The child happens to be learning language meaningfully, and the adult is not" (p. 68).

Another ground on which MLT has been criticised is its failure to account for the distinction that exists between teaching English as a second language (ESL) and teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) which represent two totally divergent wings in English language teaching (ELT). Whilst it is logical to implement a MLT in (ESL) contexts due, prominently, to the fact that the classrooms in such contexts are generally heterogeneous mainly in cases of immigrant children who are required to learn the language of the host countries. Also, it is preferable to teach a TL monolingually if it is spoken beyond the doors

of the classrooms and has a social, business or other functions in the society. However, if the TL is a foreign language i.e. the classroom is almost the only setting where learners get in contact with it such as (EFL), it is unpractical to apply MLT and deprive the learners from their prior knowledge which basically derives from their MT. Phillipson (2014) differentiates between ESL and EFL and recommends that "there are (or should be) quite different teaching needs and strategies in ESL and EFL situations because of the differing degree of exposure to the language outside school, and the different roles of English both within the education system and in the wider community" (p. 24).

2.5. Support for the Bilingual Approach

For a long time, it has been assumed that "the first language should be avoided at all costs in the second language classroom" (Widdowson, 2003, p. 150) and that "new languages are best taught and learnt monolingually, without the use of the students' own language (s)" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 271); in ELT, in particular, learners' MTs have been conceived as a cause of negative transfer, hindrance and therefore failure in learning and teaching. The learners' MTs are frequently associated with such metaphors as "a skeleton in the cupboard, a taboo subject, a source of embarrassment" (Deller and Rinvolucri, 2008, p. 5). In recent years, however, this monolingual dogma came under heavy query and the pendulum has swung to the re-assessment and the re-examination of any potential roles that learners' MTs may have in learning second or foreign languages. In fact, Deller and Rinvolucri (2008) believe that "the mother tongue is the womb from which the second language is born" (p. 4) that is why it is impractical to exclude it (MT) from language classrooms.

Widdowson (2003) is among the scholars who have overtly developed detailed arguments for bilingual teaching in his book 'Defining issues in English language teaching'. As it is known among sociolinguists, bilingualism is a twofold phenomenon that may manifest either at the level of the society as a whole where two languages could coexist and fulfil separate institutional and social functions. Nonetheless, not all the members of society are necessarily

bilinguals and this is what sociolinguists call 'societal bilingualism'. On the other hand, we have 'individual bilingualism' which implies that the two languages exist in the individual's mind and, in this case, they are in contact. As Spolsky (1998) noticed "neurophysiologically, the phenomenon of bilingualism is the prime example of language contact, for the two languages are in contact in the bilingual" (as cited in Widdowson 2003, p. 149). Based on that, Widdowson acknowledges the bilingual nature of foreign language classrooms and notices that "our students come to class with one language (at least) and our task is to get them to acquire another one" (p. 149). Therefore, as teachers, our primary mission in a language classroom is normally to "[get] the first language (L1) and the foreign language (L2) into contact in our learners" (p. 149). But what we generally do is the separation of both languages. Widdowson, further, argues that MLT fails to acknowledge that learners become "bilingual language users [who] fuse their knowledge of two languages into a single system of compound bilingualism" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 281).

A considerable number of practitioners and researchers (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 1999; Cummin, 2007; Nation, 2003; Schweers, 1999) have directed their attention to find out evidence from L2 or FL classrooms of probable positive impacts that learners' MTs may exert on both the teaching and the learning processes. In other words, to document some of the functions that can be attributed to learners' MT in L2 and FL language classrooms.

In his seminal paper 'The mother tongue in the classroom: a neglected resource', Atkinson (1987), attributed the non-exploration of learners' MT in FL classrooms to four influential reasons: the first reason is the direct relationship made between the MT in EFL classrooms and the grammar translation method; the second reason lies in the fact that the teachers were monoglot native speakers and received their training in a monolingual environment; the third reason is the proliferation of some influential theories which call for the exclusive use of the FL because learning was attributed a minor role in acquiring a second language like Krashen's theories (See 2.2.7); the final reason is "the truism that you can only

learn English by speaking English" (Atkinson, 1987, p. 242). He considers the MT as a humanistic means at the service of learners to express their needs, thus teachers may appropriately encourage and help them to use English. Based on his own experience as a teacher of EFL over ten months with monolingual classes, he posited that the MT can be attributed a variety of functions in a FL classroom. These are:

- ➢ Eliciting language

- ➢ Checking comprehension

- ➢ Giving instruction

- ➢ Cooperating among learners

- ➢ Discussion of classroom methodology

- ➢ Presentation and reinforcement of language

- ➢ Checking for sense

- ➢ Testing

- ➢ Development of useful learning strategies

However, he warned teachers of the disadvantages the overuse of the MT, or what he calls 'dangers of overuse', may lead to as it may represent a hindrance in cases such as when learners get used to teachers explanations in their MT, they will not make efforts to use the TL even if they are competent enough to do so; they will develop a bad habit of translation, whenever they face a new word, they feel the need to know its equivalent in their MT despite the fact that it could be explained via other means; they speak with their teachers in the MT though they might well use linguistic aspects they have already learnt. All that Atkinson did is to call for a reconsideration of the MT in FL classes via its judicious use and more importantly, urging researchers to explore the issue in more depth in order to bridge the gap between theory and practice and provide teachers with solid evidence to free themselves from the feeling of guilt whenever they revert to their learners' MTs. Indeed, Atkinson's writings paved the way to a significant number of researchers and scholars to question MLT

worldwide right from the 1990s till nowadays. In the following section, the literature about teachers' use of the learners' MT in ESL and EFL classrooms will be reviewed according to two prime themes: research on the learners' MT use in ESL and EFL in the non-Arab world and in the Arab world, this distinction is made because our study is carried out in an Algerian context which makes part of the Arab world.

2.6. Research on the Learners' MT Use in ESL/EFL Classrooms in the Non-Arab World

2.6.1. Research on the Amount of the MT Used by Teachers

There have been a number of studies attempting to quantify the amount of learners' MT and the new language (being either a foreign or a second language) in the classroom (Bozorgian & Fallahpour, 2015; Duff & Polio, 1990; Kim & Elder 2005; Liu et al, 2004; Macaro 2001).

Duff's and Polio's (1990) focus was university level learners, we find it necessary to include their results in our literature review as their work was among the earliest investigations done in the field. They attempted to examine the amount of foreign language used by teachers in FL classrooms. They limited their research to thirteen foreign language classrooms in a university language programme where English students were offered courses in different foreign languages. They attempted to answer the research question 'How much foreign language is there in the foreign language classroom?' They made classroom observations and analysed the teachers' spoken discourse and found out that their use of the TL showed a great variation and ranged from 10% to 100%. Additionally, they used questionnaires and interviews to elicit teachers' attitudes and motivations towards the use of the learners' MT. They documented that the teachers' language choice depended on some classroom external and internal factors. The classroom external factors are embodied in "the overall proficiency of the students, the teachers' perception of the first and second language distance, the teacher's educational background, and the department policy regarding the role

of English". The classroom internal factors include "the features of language use or activities at a given time in the classroom" (Duff & Polio, 1994, p. 315).

Macaro (2001) investigated six student teachers' quantity of the MT they used in four secondary school classrooms in South England and tried to reveal the factors that might influence their language choice. Prior to carrying classroom observations and conducting interviews, the student teachers were offered courses on existing literature about the issue (the use of the learners' MT in FL classrooms) including both empirical and theoretical studies. Fourteen foreign language lessons, where English was the learners' MT and French was the FL, were recorded and the speech of the teachers was quantified by counting the words in both languages every a five-second interval. Macaro found a very low rate of the MT use ranging between 0% to 15.2% but the use of the FL ranged between 56% and 86%.

In a South Korean context and at secondary school level, Liu et al (2004) recorded the speech of thirteen EFL teachers so as to identify the amount of FL (English) they used. They reported that despite the new policy guidelines of the Korean government concerning the endorsement of the English-only policy in South Korean schools, the teachers showed low rate of English language use (32%), a percentage that Liu and his colleague teacher researchers considered as reflecting the actual South Korean teachers discourse in English since it is a well-known fact among the South Koreans that the very low students' level of proficiency in English is due to the overreliance on the students' MT in teaching it. Furthermore, they even reported two teachers who used 10% and 23% of English each.

Another study which documented the amount of FL use by teachers is that which was conducted by Kim and Elder (2005). They analysed the talk of seven native speaker teachers of Japanese, Korean, German, and French in FL classrooms in New Zealand secondary schools. They based their empirical research on investigating the teachers' language alternation between English (being the learners' MT) and the FLs they taught. They attempted to find out the amount of the FL used by the teachers and what potential functions they used it

for. Their results showed a "high level of variation in the proportion of TL use ranging from 23% to 88%" (p. 368). They concluded that the participants frequently used the learners' MT more than the FL despite the fact that the teachers were native speakers of the languages they taught.

In the same vein, a recent study has been conducted by Bozorgian and Fallahpour (2015) in Iran. 12 teachers and 155 students took part in 12 sessions in pre-intermediate 12-week EFL course which were video-recorded. The researchers endeavoured firstly, to quantify the amount of Persian (students' MT) that teachers and learners used and secondly, to identify the functions that might be attributed to Persian. The courses were based on the four skills listening, speaking, reading and writing which were taught in a communicative way. The results showed that the average amount of Persian in the whole classes was about 3.14%, such amount is not significant however, purposes for which it was used were documented such as "encouraging and giving references, asking questions, answering, scaffolding, self-correction and clarification" (p. 77) on the part of both teachers and learners. The findings of this research are in accordance with Macaro's one i.e. both of them reported relatively very little amount of teachers' MT use, despite the fact that both investigations were conducted in two totally distinct contexts.

2.6.2. Research on the Functions and Advantages of Teachers' Use of the Learners' MT

Several researchers have focused their attention on the potential functions that learners' MTs may possibly have in FL classrooms worldwide. Some empirical and theoretical studies attempted to identify those functions and the reasons behind the teachers' MT use (Cameron, 2010; Cook, 2001; Franklin 1990; Harbord 1992; Mahebbi & Alavi, (2014); Nation, 2003; Schweers, 1999; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Franklin (1990) surveyed 201 teachers in a Scottish secondary school (in French language classrooms) via questionnaires and a number of informal discussions. The teachers' responses indicated that four important reasons impede them from using French as a prime

medium of instruction in their lessons: 1) the nature of the classes (size, students' multi abilities, etc), 2) students' behaviour, 3) the teachers' confidence in using the foreign language and 4) external factors (learners' cultural background and type of evaluation). The findings, too, showed that the teachers used the learners' MT most prominently for explaining grammar (88%), discussing language objectives (87%), and teaching background (62%).

In his theoretical discussion, Harbord (1992) agreed with Atkinson (1987) and Danchev (1982) concerning the inevitable presence of learners' MT in FL classrooms. For Danchev, for instance, translation is a very natural phenomenon that the learners revert to either the teachers encourage them or not. "Learners will inevitably (and even unconsciously) attempt to equate a common correlate a target language structure or lexical item with its closest or most common correlate in the mother tongue" (Harbord, 1992, p. 351). Similarly to Atkinson (1987), Harbord (1992) argued that using the MT for communicative ends is a time saving strategy from the part of both teachers and students. He suggested three broad group strategies:

➢ **Group A**

- Discussion of classroom methodology during the early stages of the course.

- Explaining the meaning of a grammatical item (e.g. a verb tense) at the time of presentation, especially when a correlate structure does not exist in L1.

- Giving instructions for a task to be carried out by the students.

- Asking or giving administrative information such as timetable changes, etc., or allowing students to ask or answer these in L1.

- Checking comprehension of a listening or reading text.

➢ **Group B**

- Explaining the meaning of a word by translation.

- Checking comprehension of structure.

- Inviting or allowing students to give a translation of a word as a comprehension check.

- Eliciting vocabulary by giving the L1 equivalent.

➢ **Group C**

- L1 explanations by students to peers who have not understood.

- Giving individual help to a weaker student, e.g., during individual or pair work.

- Student-student comparison or discussion of work done. (p. 352).

Schweers (1999) carried out an empirical research in Puerto Rico University where English is taught as a foreign language to monolingual Spanish speaking learners. He recorded lessons at the beginning, middle and end of the semester 1997-1998 and gathered data from both teachers and learners via questionnaires. The results of his research reported that bringing MT to a FL classroom had some advantages; the comparison between the FL and the MT of the learners and making the students aware of the similarities and differences between both linguistic systems could facilitate the FL learning. He argued further that though learners in Puerto Rico resented English and considered it as an imposed language to learn, bringing Spanish to an English classroom made a radical change concerning learners' attitudes towards English. He said that "using Spanish has led to positive attitudes toward the process of learning English and, better yet, encourages students to learn more English"(p. 13). Schweers holds the belief that recognising learners' own language and culture is the bedrock of success in learning a foreign language even if they show negative attitudes towards it.

Swain and Lapkin (2000) examined the functions of students' use of their MT (English). They limited their research to 22 pairs of grade 8 French immersion students working collaboratively to solve some complex activities such as dictogloss and jigsaw activities in a Canadian school (Toronto district). Among their findings are three major purposes for which the students used English: "(1) Moving the task along through (a)

sequencing (figuring out the order of events), (b) retrieving semantic information, and (c) task management. (2) Focusing attention through (a) vocabulary search, (b) focus on form, explanation, framing, retrieving grammatical information and (3) Interpersonal interaction through (a) off task (including vernacular use) and (b) disagreement" (Swain and Lapkin, 2000, pp. 257-258).

Cook (2001), one of the opponents of MLT, argued for the re-examination of the MT in FL classrooms and considered it as a valuable resource from which both teachers and students could benefit. He posited that whilst teachers could resort to MT to convey and check meaning of words and sentences, to explain grammatical points, to organise tasks, to maintain discipline, and to testing; the students, on their turn, could use it within classroom activities such as translation via which interrelated L1 and L2 knowledge is built up in students' mind, collaborative learning such as dialogue based tasks, and code-switching activities for real-life activities.

In his paper the role of first language in foreign language learning, Nation (2003) argued how the use of the learners' MT "has a small but important role to play in communicating meaning and content [...] through all four strands of a course" (p. 1). Firstly, MT can be used in what Nation calls meaning focused input and output and which stand for listening and reading skills, speaking and writing skills respectively. He mentioned Lameta-Tufuga (1994) and Knight (1996) whose findings showed that the learners who were involved in pre-task discussions in their MT about writing tasks in L2 did much better than those who discussed it only in the FL. Secondly, Nation stated that the use of MT had a positive effect on the 'language focused learning' i.e. learning vocabulary via direct translation into MT. There have been diverse methods to convey the meaning of new vocabulary such as the use of pictures, real objects, and demonstration, providing a definition in FL, or a direct L1 translation. Nation referred to some research that supported the outstanding of the direct L1 translation as the most effective method of vocabulary learning (Lado, Baldwin & Labo 1976;

Mishima 1969; Laufer & Shmueli 1997) and stated that no research proved the discredit of translation's role in learning unknown vocabulary. Thirdly, the use of the MT in fluency development tasks, for instance, teachers could get learners prepared for such tasks through helping them "recall L1 stories and information that they then work with in the L2" (Nation, 2003, p. 5), and allowing them to use their own language for L2 input discussion such as newspaper articles and TV news reports.

Mohebbi and Alavi (2014), in an Iranian setting, explored teachers' beliefs and perceptions about the use of their learners' MT (Persian) in EFL classrooms in a number of private schools. By using questionnaires as a means of data gathering, they found that the teachers mostly made use of the MT to a manifold ends: 81.94% of them used it equally to teach new lexical items and to provide feedback and explain learners' errors; 77.77% revealed that they reverted to Persian in order to teach grammatical points; 69.44% indicated that the MT was used to maintain relationship with their learners. In addition to other roles attributed to Persian such as class management, time saving especially with lengthy tasks' explanations and clarifications, and providing individual help to learners. The researchers recommended that MT should not be used 'comprehensively' but 'judiciously' and a balance should be achieved between both languages.

In alignment with previous research findings, Cameron (2010), posited comprehensive guidelines for teachers concerning the use of learners' MT in language classes with beginners and provides the following practical instances:

➢ Explaining new language

➢ Giving instructions

➢ Checking understanding

➢ Talk about learning

➢ Talk about language

➢ Feedback

> ➢ Discipline

> ➢ Informal talk

> ➢ Making language choice conscious

She discredited the 'target language only' to teaching and learning languages and calls for a shift from "the simple but impractical guideline 'use only the target language' to more subtle and helpful principles ... 'use as much of the target language as possible, and ensure that use of first language supports the children's language learning'' (p. 199).

2.6.3. Students' and Teachers' Attitudes towards using the Learners' MT in EFL/ESL Classrooms

A considerable number of research studies have been conducted concerning teachers' and learners' attitudes towards the use of the learners' MT in EFL and ESL classrooms worldwide, in this section we have limited ourselves to some of these studies (Brook-Lewis, 2009; Kelilo,2012; Pablo et al, 2011; Prodromou, 2002; Sharma, 2006) which took place in divergent learning and teaching contexts.

Prodromou (2002) carried out a research that aimed at revealing the perceptions of 300 Greek students of different levels (beginners, intermediate, and advanced) towards the use of their MT and its culture as learning resources in EFL classrooms. The researcher endeavoured to find out whether the students' perceptions were in correlation with their level of proficiency via questionnaires they were administered. The study's results concluded that the beginners held more positive attitudes towards the use of their MT (Greek) in English classes than the intermediate and the advanced students. For instance, concerning the use of the MT for grammatical explanation, 31% of the beginners voiced their approval for such use. 1 in 3 of them agreed upon the usefulness of discerning similarities and differences between both linguistic systems. On the other hand, most of the intermediate and advanced learners tended to prefer the use of English for some purposes such as giving instruction and checking listening and reading.

Sharma (2006) researched both High school teachers' and students' attitudes towards using Nepali (the learners' MT) in EFL classes. 100 students and 20 teachers were surveyed via questionnaires and four classroom observations were undertaken. The results of the research showed that both teachers and students held positive attitudes towards the occasional use of Nepali in the classrooms for a variety of reasons. For instance, 60% of students and 37% of teachers believed in the effectiveness of Nepali to understand new vocabulary items; 46% of the students and 39% of teachers thought that it is necessary to use Nepali to explain complex grammatical points; to maintain close relations between students and teachers etc... . However, only 4% and 3% of the students found it useful to use Nepali to give instructions and to motivate them respectively. Similarly, the teachers held negative attitudes as for the role of Nepali for giving instructions (3%) and motivating students (5%).

Brook-Lewis (2009) in his experimental research prepared specific courses for university students in Mexico; they were allowed to use their MT (Spanish) deliberately and the teacher too used Spanish as the main medium of instruction to teach them. Students were provided with diaries in order to write down their perceptions of those courses. Those diaries were the basic means of data collection for his investigation. The learners showed overwhelmingly positive attitudes toward integrating Spanish into English classes. They believed that the incorporation of Spanish had great positive impacts on them such as lowering their affective filter as one of the learners noted it "it (Spanish) helps to relieve the stress of entering the alien territories of both the classroom and the foreign language"; another added that Spanish use is beneficial because it made me comprehend anything that happened in the classroom "the reason that I am here is because I want to learn, and if everything was in the language that I do not know, I couldn't understand anything" (p. 224). Furthermore, Brook-Lewis found that the integration of learners' MT into the classroom "is a learner-centred methodology which not only allows but *invites* the learner to become actively and consciously involved in the language learning experience" (p. 234).

Pablo et al (2011) is another investigation which reported that students might hold positive attitudes towards the use of the MT (Spanish) in FL Classrooms. Within a public central institute in Mexico, the researchers sought to shed light on English and French teachers' and students' views on the issue. The participants who took part in that study were eight teachers (three French and five English) and one hundred and twelve students. Basing their inquiry on two major data gathering instruments, questionnaires and interviews, the researchers concluded that the majority of teachers and learners were in favour of using Spanish in FL classrooms. The students said that they relied on their MT as a learning strategy in cases such as clarification of instruction, grammar, and vocabulary; the teachers indicated that Spanish is a time-saving tool and an effective medium to grammar, new words, and instruction explanations besides being a means of relationship building with students.

In an Ethiopian context, Kelilo (2012) carried out research that explored students' and their teachers' use of Oromo (students' MT) in EFL classes in Jimma Teachers College. 72 students and their 6 teachers were surveyed via different questionnaires so as to find out what their preferred amount of MT use was, for what purposes it was employed, and what attitudes did both of them hold towards Oromo use in FL classes. It also focused on the differences between male and female students' attitudes towards the use of Oromo. The researcher concluded that both teachers and learners held positive attitudes concerning Oromo use; they too agreed on its role as a facilitating tool in learning a foreign language and "its absence badly hurts the learning and teaching process" (P. 71). Moreover, a significant difference was registered regarding gender-based attitudes as it was found that female students showed more positive attitudes towards Oromo use. As for the teachers, they acknowledged the positive role of Oromo but it should be used judiciously and its overuse would lead to learners' dependence on their MT and as a result their learning of the FL would be affected.

2.7. Research on the Learners' MT Use in EFL Classrooms in the Arab World

Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), one of the earliest studies carried out in the Arab world, was based mainly on questionnaires administered to teachers and learners; interviews conducted with teachers and supervisors besides classroom observations. They found that the majority of teachers (93%) used Arabic in FL classrooms and believed in the role it had as a learning facilitator. Some of the instances wherein they made use of it are: translation (77%), grammar explanation (66%) and classroom management (64%). Similarly, the students thought that Arabic was a means which eased their learning (75%) in some ways like guessing the meaning of new words, explaining difficult activities, using it among peers for explaining new and difficult points. They also said that they were happy to use Arabic to express themselves especially when they knew the answer but could not say it in English (81%). However, most of the teachers warned of the hindrance that the overuse of Arabic might cause and therefore its use for some purposes should be prominently justified.

Within an Omani context, a study carried out by Al-Alawi (2008) attempted to reveal teachers' beliefs about the use of learners' MT (Arabic), the factors that influenced those beliefs and the purposes they used MT for. The researcher relied on semi-structured interviews and classroom observations with 5 teachers. All the teachers, except one, believed that Arabic use had some benefits. They said that it might have the role of time saving; they explained how Omani teachers were under constant pressure due to inspectors and headmasters who monitored them because they were required to finish the programme in due time. Two other roles mostly used are giving instructions and joking with learners. Regarding the factors that influence their beliefs, the teachers mentioned their teaching experience, reading and inspectors.

Al-Nofaie (2010) limited her investigation to one Saudi intermediate school and a 30-student female classroom with their teacher alongside two other English teachers who worked there. She attempted to get clear insights into both teachers' and learners' attitudes towards

using Arabic. To gather data, she relied on questionnaires and interviews for students and teachers respectively and classroom observations. The overall results of this investigation showed that the participants held positive attitudes towards Arabic use. 86.7% and 86.6% of students and teachers favoured the use of Arabic to explain exam instructions and to use translation to learn new vocabulary respectively. Other Arabic preferences were reported at the level of group work (73%), explanation of activities' instructions and grammar. However, unlike students, teachers did not favour contrasting Arabic and English or students to ask questions in Arabic.

Elmetwally Elmenshawy (2012) examined teachers' and students' attitudes toward the use of MT (Arabic) in UAE (United Arab Emirates) public high schools. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were conducted with both teachers and students. The study's results revealed that 44% of the students were in favour of Arabic use in English classes and held positive attitudes as to its use to: explain lexical items (60%), understand grammar better (56%), facilitate complicated classroom tasks (53%), and contrast between both linguistic systems (51%). The teachers, in their turn, believed in the positive role that Arabic has in EFL classes, they agreed upon some cases wherein Arabic use may be appropriate such as explaining new grammatical rules (60%), explaining new vocabulary and especially abstract items (75%), raising students' awareness about the similarities and differences between both languages (60%) and maintaining relationship with students (40%).

Ahmed (2015) carried out a research in Sudanese secondary schools that aimed at revealing mainly the teachers' views on Arabic (the learners' MT) incorporation into EFL classrooms. He based his inquiry on two main tools of data collection, questionnaires addressed to 100 teachers and observation of 7 classrooms. Additionally, he sought to find out the extent to which teachers employed Arabic in their classrooms. Concerning the actual use of Arabic in EFL classrooms, the majority of teachers were positive about Arabic use for a variety of functions: to explain concepts (78%), to explain new words (67%), and to explain

grammar (50%). However, they did not favour the use of Arabic to manage their classes, (55%) stated that they never did that; to give instructions (52%) reported that they rarely used Arabic for such practice. Also they showed positive attitudes towards the issue, they agreed on the fact that Arabic use helped learners and teachers in different ways, to understand vocabulary (63%), to reduce students' feeling of fear and stress (57%). Yet, they disagreed upon Arabic contribution to facilitate students' learning of different skills and to manage the classrooms (67%).

Another study on using Arabic in Saudi EFL classes has been recently conducted by Al-balawi (2016). She investigated Saudi EFL teachers' perceptions on the use of the learners' MT (Arabic) in three secondary schools in Tabuk city. It is a questionnaire-based study wherein 50 female secondary school teachers were surveyed and six classrooms were observed. The researcher concluded that teachers held positive attitudes on the issue under investigation. They believed that Arabic use helped learners to understand new concepts (54%), vocabulary (64%) and grammar (48%); additionally, they agreed upon the usefulness of Arabic to manage the class (50%), to create a secure atmosphere and reduce learners' stress.

2.8. Conclusion

The main concern of this chapter is to discuss some literature considerations which are relevant to our research; it is subdivided into two sub-sections. The first sub-section is about two major trends in teaching languages monolingual and bilingual approaches; it highlighted the definition of each trend with putting emphasis on the definition and presentation of the fundamental arguments advanced by the advocates of each approach. The second sub-section reviewed some literature concerning the learners' MT use in ESL and EFL classrooms in non-Arab world and this is approached through three distinct perspectives. First, it presented some research done on the amount of MT used by teachers; it, then, dealt with research conducted on the functions and advantages of the use of the learners' MT by teachers; it, next, provided

some investigations which were conducted on the learners' and teachers' attitudes towards

using the learners' MT in ESL and EFL classrooms. After that, we moved to reviewing some

of the studies about the use of the learners' MT in EFL classrooms in the Arab world.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design

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    3.2.2. Mixed Methods Approach

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3.6. Piloting

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3.8. Conclusion

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed account of the methodology which underpins our study. It explains the nature of the study and justifies the rationale of the research paradigm we have opted for. It discusses, too, the different methods used to gather and analyse data. The first section starts with a review of the different outstanding approaches used in educational research and which are: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approaches and discusses the advantages of combining methods in one piece of research. Then, it provides the main questions and sub-questions which our research seeks to answer. The second section is devoted to the discussion of the different data gathering instruments used and the presentation of a detailed account of each instrument in terms of its definition, justification of use, sampling strategies, and procedure of data analysis. Finally, the third section discusses issues of piloting, validity, reliability, and limitation of the research.

3.2. Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches

3.2.1. Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

Quantitative approach to research has long dominated social sciences in general and second language research in particular. This approach stemmed from the natural sciences' scientific method of research which, according to Dornyei (2007, P. 13), is based on three major phases in the research process: (a) observing a phenomenon or identifying a problem; (b) generating an initial hypothesis; and (c) testing the hypothesis by collecting and analysing empirical data using standardised procedures. "[It] was seen to offer a structured and highly regulated way of achieving macro-perspective of the overarching trends in the world" (P. 24).

Creswell (2014) regarded the quantitative approach as "an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures" (P. 32).

As far as the qualitative approach is concerned, it is opposed to the quantitative approach in many aspects: research paradigm, data gathering instruments, and data analysis procedures. Whereas the quantitative approach underpins a positivist philosophical worldview that sees reality as being only one and should be sought along a research journey; the qualitative approach embraces a constructivist research paradigm that sees reality as being multiple and different from one person to another. On the constructivist paradigm, Schwandt (1988) explained that "the world of lived reality and situation-specific meanings that constitute the general object of investigation is thought to be constructed by social actors" (p. 221). Both approaches partly differ at the level of data gathering instruments, while the quantitative data collection is based on precise measurements using structured data collection instruments such as surveys or questionnaires and IQ tests; qualitative data collection is based on interviews, observations, field notes and open-ended responses to questionnaires. Additionally, both approaches go through distinct data analysis procedures. While the quantitative research seeks statistical analysis of data either by statistical descriptions, correlations or comparative analyses; the qualitative research discusses and analyses data inductively and quotes results from the participants who took part in a piece of research in order to justify emerged themes at the level of data interpretation phase.

3.2.2. Mixed Methods Approach

Though both approaches are different in some ways and have long been competitive, a sharp distinction cannot be made between them. Some researchers regarded both approaches as being complementary "Qual and Quan are not extremes but rather form a continuum" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 25). The so called traditional war paradigm has attained an end and a reconciliation era has begun and this is what has prominently paved the way to the birth of the mixed methods approach which is defined as the combination of both Quantitative and Qualitative approaches in one research project. Jonson and Christensen (2004) said that the mixed methods approach "involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and

qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process". (as cited in Dornyei, 2007, P. 163).

3.3. Types of Mixed Methods Designs

Creswell (2012, p. 541) posited the following different mixed methods designs that researchers may choose from to carry out educational research as shown in figure 3.1.
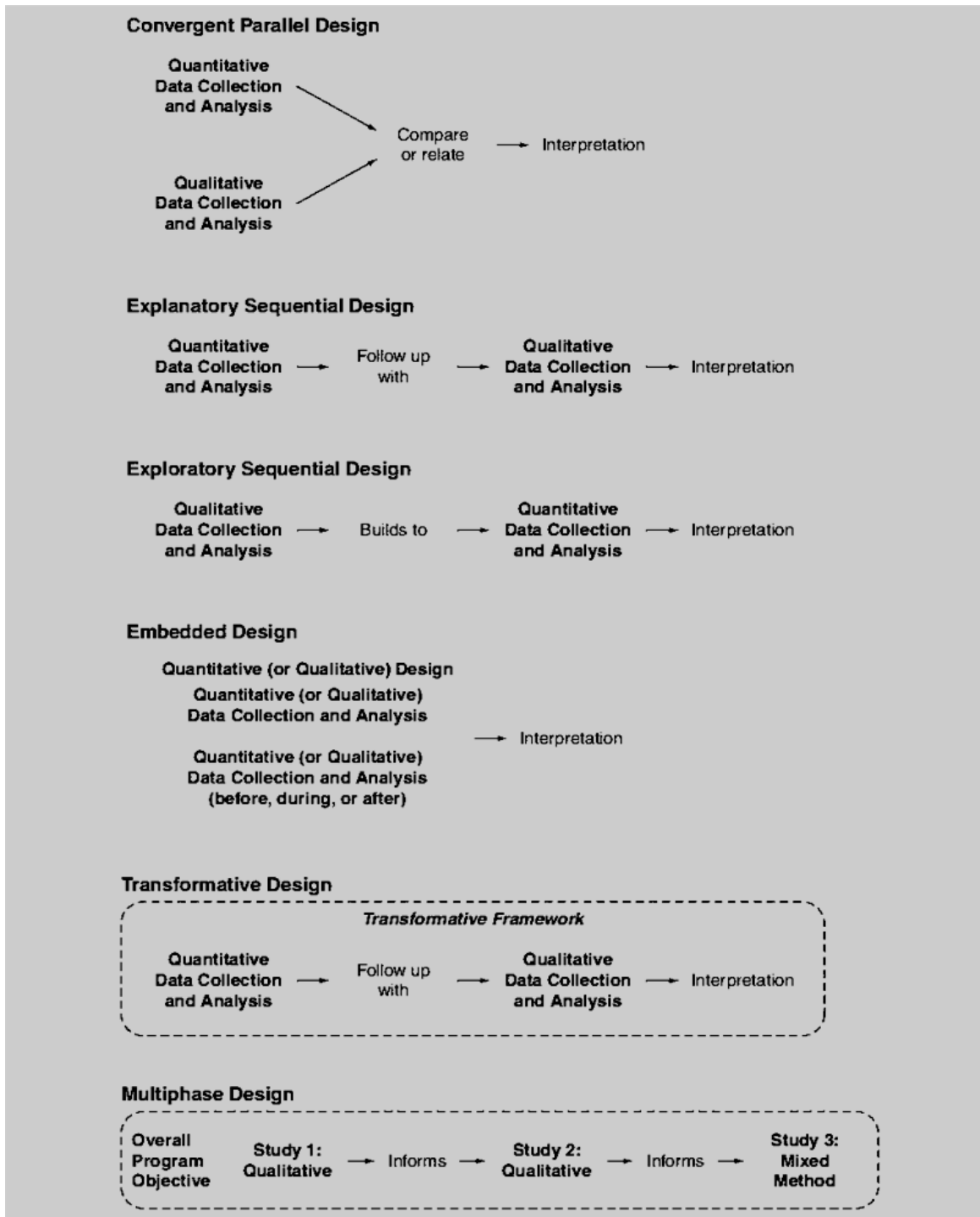
Figure 3.1. Types of Mixed Methods Designs

As it was stated earlier in the introduction, the present study is positioned within a mixed methods paradigm and more precisely adopts an Explanatory Sequential Design (ESD). ESD is one of "the most popular forms of mixed methods design in educational research" (Creswell, 2012, P. 542); it consists of collecting "quantitative and qualitative information sequentially in two phases" (p. 542). Its strength lies in the fact that the obtained quantitative results (statistical analysis) give a general account of a research problem and the follow-up qualitative data and their analysis provide further a refined and an in-depth understanding of a research question by "exploring participants' views in more depth" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, P. 104). Within the context of this research, the combination of both quantitative/positivist and qualitative/interpretive paradigms seems to be the appropriate method to answer its research questions. On the one hand, the former paradigm is adopted so as to find out the teachers' attitudes towards the use of students' MT (Arabic) and to what extent they used it for both language and non-language purposes in their EFL classrooms. Both questions are explored via Likert-scale questionnaires whose results can be analysed and interpreted quantitatively. On the other hand, the latter paradigm is followed in order to explore the teachers' perceptions of students' MT (Arabic) use in EFL classrooms and to find out an in-depth understanding of the prime factors that lead to such use through semi structured interviews. Additionally, we have endeavoured to document the possible functions that can be assigned to learners' MT (Arabic) via classroom observations. Data gathered from both semi structured interviews and classroom observations are qualitatively analysed. Therefore, more details and understanding of the research issue can be provided.

3.4. Research Questions

In the current research, we will endeavour to answer two sets of questions: the first set consists of four main questions and the second one is composed of five sub-questions.

3.4.1. The Main Questions

We will endeavour to answer the following four main questions:

RQ.1. What are the English language teachers' attitudes towards the use of the learners' MT (Arabic) in EFL classrooms in Touat region?

RQ.2. To what extent do teachers use the learners' MT (Arabic) for both language and non-language purposes?

RQ.3. What are the prime factors that lead to the teachers' use of the learners' MT (Arabic) in EFL classrooms in Touat region?

RQ.4. What functions do teachers use the learners' MT (Arabic) for in EFL classes in Touat region?

3.4.2. The Sub-Questions

The other five research sub-questions which stem from the major questions 1 and 2 are:

RQ.1.a. What is the status of Arabic and English in EFL classrooms according to the teachers' attitudes?

RQ.1.b. What is the impact of Arabic use on the students' learning according to the teachers' attitudes?

RQ.1.c. What is the impact of Arabic use on the teaching process?

RQ.1.d. What are the teachers' attitudes towards the role of Arabic in some other practices?

RQ.2.a. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for language purposes?

RQ.2.b. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for non-language purposes?

In order to answer the addressed research questions, we have adapted a number of appropriate data collection methods which are well documented in the research methodology literature. Table (5) provides more details concerning the different data collection instruments used in this study and the research questions they are used for.

3.5. Data Gathering Instruments

The paradigm followed in a research informs the researcher what data collection instruments to use. Therefore, appropriate data collection tools should be used so as to answer research questions, confirm or deny research hypotheses. In this research, since our primary objective is to find out teachers' attitudes towards learners' MT (Arabic) use in EFL classrooms, in the first step, we opted for a questionnaire, then, semi structured-interviews and finally, classroom observations.

Table 3.1. Data Gathering Instruments

Research Question	*Data Collection Tool*	*Source Adapted From*	*Purpose*
1. What are the English language teachers' attitudes towards the use of the learners' MT in EFL classrooms in Touat region? 2. To what extent do teachers use the learners' MT (Arabic) for both language and non-language purposes?	Questionnaires	Cook & Hall (2013)	To explore the teachers' attitudes towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms from a quantitative perspective.
1. What are the teachers' perceptions about the learners' MT (Arabic) use in EFL classrooms? 2. What are the prime factors that lead the teachers' use of the learners' MT (Arabic) in EFL classrooms in Touat region?	Semi-structured interviews		To explore the teachers' perceptions about Arabic use in their EFL classrooms from a qualitative perspective.
What functions do teachers use the learners' MT (Arabic) for in EFL classrooms	Classroom observations (checklist)	Al-Nofaie (2010)	To document the functions Arabic was used for by teachers in Touat EFL classrooms.

3.5.1. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a broadly used research instrument for data collection in different fields of research such as "communication, education, psychology, and sociology" (Griffee, 2012, P.135). A questionnaire, according to Brown (2001), is "any written instrument that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers" (as cited in Dornyei, 2003, p. 6). It allows researchers to get deep insights into the respondents' attitudes, beliefs and opinions.

3.5.1.1. Types of Questionnaire Items

Generally, a wide range of question and response modes can be used in questionnaires such as, dichotomous questions, multiple choice questions, rating scales, and open-ended questions. The type of appropriate type of questions to be asked in a questionnaire depends highly on the research question a study intends to investigate and answer. That is why researchers should be careful to choose appropriate and relevant data collection instruments which best serve their research questions and hypotheses.

3.5.1.1.1. Close-Ended Questions

In general, dichotomous and multiple choice questions and rating scales are categorised as close-ended questions or as they are simply called 'closed questions', they are questions which provide respondents with "ready-made response options to choose from" (Dornyei, 2003, p. 35). Accordingly, respondents are required to either encircle or tick the responses they think are appropriate according to their own knowledge, opinions, beliefs, or attitudes. This criterion makes such responses easy to quantify and statistically encode through specific computer programmes as Mackey and Gass (2005) stated it "a closed-item questions typically involve a greater uniformity of measurement and therefore greater reliability" (P. 93). Indeed, the type of questions to use in a questionnaire depends too on the sample size, the greater a sample is the more structured a questionnaire should be.

In our study, we have chosen only rating scales and more precisely Likert-scale since our objective is to measure the teachers' attitudes towards the MT use in their EFL classrooms. Rating scales are widely used items in research questionnaires, "they require the respondents to make evaluative judgement of the target by making one of a series of categories organised into a scale" (Dornyei, 2003, P. 36). He considered, too, that Likert scale is the most popular and frequently used rating scale technique in second language research because it is a simple and reliable technique.

Referring to Likert scales, Dornyei (2003, p. 37), said that they "consist of a series of statements all of which are related to a particular target (which can be among others, an individual person, a group of people, an institution, or a concept)" to which respondents are required to respond and indicate to what extent they agree or disagree with those statements either by ticking, crossing or circling only one of the scales ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' and from 'always' to 'never' in our investigation. In this case, the data which questionnaires yield can be quantitatively and statistically processed.

3.5.1.1.2. Open-Ended Questions

In contrast to closed questions which provide a set of answers or suggestions from which participants are required to choose, open-ended questions do not impose any restraints on the participants and give them much more freedom to express their own thoughts and ideas by answering the questions in their own personal way. It allows researchers to get deep insights into the respondents' attitudes, beliefs and opinions. Dornyei (2007) defines a questionnaire as:

> [A] highly structured data collection instrument, with most items either asking about very specific pieces of information or giving various response options for the respondent to choose from, for example by ticking a box or circling the most appropriate option' (P. 104).

Additionally, researchers can use open-ended questions to construct questionnaires and elicit qualitatively processed data. Yet, this option is discouraged by theoreticians since the qualitative data "involve a somewhat superficial and relatively brief engagement with the topic on the part of the respondent" (Dornyei, 2007, P. 105). Therefore, in the current study, we have opted, firstly, for a highly structured questionnaire which is based on Likert scaling as a data collection instrument and, secondly, we have chosen interviews as another instrument as they provide researchers with rich and detailed insights into respondents' beliefs, opinions, and attitudes instead of using open ended questions.

Questionnaires are considered as effective instruments of gathering data due to the fact that they permit to researchers to save time, effort, and financial resources; to gather a huge amount of information about a relatively large group of people in a short period of time; and structured questionnaires can be easily coded and statistically analysed. However, before adapting them as a research technique, researchers should consider the weaknesses they have. In this regard, Gillham (2007) has posited the major advantages and disadvantages questionnaires may have and they are as follows:

3.5.1.2. Advantages of Questionnaires

- Low cost in time and money
- Easy to get information from a lot of people very quickly
- Respondents can complete the questionnaire when it suits them
- Analysis of answers to closed questions is straightforward
- Less pressure for an immediate response
- Respondents' anonymity
- Lack of interviewer bias
- Standardisation of questions (but of structured interviews)
- Can provide suggestive data for testing a hypothesis.

3.5.1.3. Disadvantages of Questionnaires

- Problems of data quality (completeness and accuracy).
- Typically low response rate unless sample 'captive'
- Problems of motivating respondents
- The need for brevity and relatively simple questions
- Misunderstandings cannot be corrected
- Questionnaire development is often poor
- Seeks information just by asking questions

- Assumes respondents have answers available in an organised fashion
- Lack of control over order and context of answering questions
- Question wording can have major effect on answers
- Respondent literacy problems
- People talk more easily than they write
- Impossible to check seriousness or honesty of answers
- Respondent uncertainty as to what happens to data. (PP 6-8)

3.5.1.4. Types of Questionnaire Data

Questionnaires can be used to collect three types of data from a relatively large group of participants: factual, behavioural, and attitudinal data. In regard to our research, we constructed a questionnaire which is composed of three main sections. The first section is concerned with factual data; the second section consists of 14 statements surveying teachers' attitudes towards the MT use with Likert-5 point scale (strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, and strongly disagree); the third section involves 11 questions about teachers' actual use of L1 in their EFL classrooms with Likert-5 point scale (always, often, sometimes, rarely, and never). Our questionnaire consists of all the above mentioned types of data. They are displayed in more details in the following:

3.5.1.4.1. Factual Data

Consist of personal data related to participants such as gender, age, professional experience, marital and socioeconomic status, religion "as well as any other background information that may be relevant to interpreting the findings of the survey" (Dornyei, 2003, p. 8). The first section of our questionnaire is used to yield personal information of the participants such as their gender, professional experience, sector of work (Secondary or Middle school), qualifications, and area of work (urban or rural area).

3.5.1.4.2. Attitudinal Data

As its name indicates, attitudinal data are generated in order to get insights into participants' attitudes towards a phenomenon under investigation. They are said to cover "a broad category that concerns attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values" (Dornyei, 2003, p. 8). The second section of our questionnaire is devoted to measuring participants'

attitudes towards using Arabic (MT) in EFL classrooms; it is divided into four different but interrelated parts. The first part is entitled 'teachers' attitudes towards the status of Arabic and English in EFL classes' and it covers three statements (S1), (S2), and (S3); the second part is entitled 'the impact of Arabic use on students' learning' and is made up of five statements that aim at eliciting teachers' attitudes towards proposed impacts that the use of Arabic may have on the students, they are (S4), (S5), and (S6); the third part is entitled 'the impact of Arabic use on the teaching process' and it consists of four statements which aim at measuring teachers' attitudes towards Arabic use on their teaching and they are (S7), (S8), (S9), and (S10); the fourth part is entitled 'teachers' attitudes towards other practices' and is composed of four statements (S11), (S12), (S13), and (S14).

3.5.1.4.3. Behavioural Data

This type of data is used to generate behaviour related information about the participants. Behavioural questions are employed to know what the participants are doing or have done in the past. "The most well-known questions of this type in L2 studies are the items in language learning strategy inventories that ask about the frequency one has used a particular strategy in the past" (Dornyei, 2003, p. 8). The third part of our questionnaire is entitled 'teachers' actual use of Arabic in EFL classrooms (frequencies and functions)', it represents well this type of questions whereby the researcher sought to find out the extent to which teachers have used Arabic for identified functions in their classrooms. This section comprises 11 questions with Likert-5 point scale (always, often, sometimes, rarely, and never); it is further subdivided into two distinct parts: the first part is entitled 'teachers' use of Arabic for language purposes'. The questions generated under this part are (Q1), (Q2), (Q3), (Q4), and (Q5). The second part is 'teachers' use of Arabic for non-language purposes' and it covers questions (Q6), (Q7), (Q8), (Q9), (Q10), and (Q11).

3.5.1.5. Sampling Strategy for the Questionnaire

The first sample we relied on to gather data via the first data gathering instrument which is the questionnaire involved 120 Middle and Secondary school English teachers; they were selected via the first sampling strategy of "convenience sampling". According to Dornyei (2007), this latter is "the most common sample type in L2 research' (P. 98), it is also called 'opportunity' sampling. It is classified under non-random or non-probabilistic sampling category. In this kind of sampling strategy, the target participants are chosen according to the researcher's convenience and if they meet the purpose of a study or some practical issues such as "geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility, or the willingness to volunteer" (Dornyei, 2007, P. 99). These practical issues are taken into account since the researcher is a permanent Secondary School English teacher whose availability is limited. Choosing the participants to this research depended heavily on, firstly, their geographical proximity though the researcher had contacted some of her colleagues who work in remote Ksour in Adrar via e-mails; secondly, availability at a certain time, in fact the researcher had negotiated access to some of the city centre Secondary and Middle schools, met the teachers who worked there and discussed research objectives and negotiated access to their classrooms so as to undertake some classroom observations; the teachers were kindly requested and invited to take part in our research and were told that if they felt that they have to withdraw at any moment, they can do so. This sampling strategy was applied in the first stage of data collection which was done through distributing questionnaires to more than 200 participants but only 120 handed them back. A further "purposive sampling strategy" was subsequently used to further conduct the interviews and classroom observations as a second phase of data collection.

3.5.1.6. Data Analysis of the Questionnaire

As it was mentioned earlier, this study follows an Explanatory Sequential Design. Accordingly, two stages of data analysis are required. The first stage is the quantitative data

analysis. In order to analyse the questionnaire from which quantitative data stem, we have used the most commonly used software package in applied linguistics and educational research which is SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Version 23. This software package facilitates the calculation of statistics; we based our analysis on descriptive statistics which, first, converted the data of the questionnaires from frequencies into percentages; second, calculated, first, the means of every single item of attitudinal data so as to find the teachers' level of agreement (low, moderate, or high); second, calculated the means of every whole part in order to find the teachers' attitudes towards every part. It, further, presented results in tables or what is called 'tabulation' and provided more details through graphs for all the data included in the questionnaires. The second stage of data analysis is the qualitative analysis which is applied for the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations.

In cases where quantitative inquiry does not provide comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon being under focus, qualitative follow-up techniques can be used to better understanding (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark 2011). Therefore, a second qualitative phase is conducted in our study as some teachers' attitudes need more in-depth explanations. This exploratory follow-up phase is done first, through interviews and then classroom observations; both follow-up techniques are chosen because they are in accordance with the nature of our research paradigm. A paradigm which is partly 'interpretive' i.e. it assumes that reality is a social construct, multiple and exists in everyone's mind; thereby, to reach such realities, the chosen classroom observations and interviews provided us with more qualitative and comprehensive insights of our participants' actions, perceptions and attitudes towards our earlier stated central research questions of the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms and which are difficult to yield by a single instrument such as a questionnaire in our case.

3.5.2. Interviews

The interview is a widely employed data collection instrument in social sciences research in general and educational research in particular. It is used to elicit qualitative information from participants frequently via open ended questions. Interviews allow researchers to get insightful depiction of the participants' 'emic' side i.e. to explore peoples' internal thoughts which are not directly reached such as their attitudes, perceptions and beliefs. It is hard to obtain such thoughts via alternative data gathering instruments only such as questionnaires and observations. Therefore, mixing methods of data collection becomes a prominent paradigm in up to date educational research. In this respect, Mackey and Gass (2005), for instance, pointed out that "Interviews can allow researchers to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable, such as learners' self-reported perceptions or attitudes. Also, because interviews are interactive, researchers can elicit additional data if initial answers are vague, incomplete, off-topic, or not specific enough" (p. 173). Cohen, Manion and Morison (2005) argued that interviews are useful techniques of data collection. They pinpointed that:

> [Interviews] enable participants –be they interviewers or interviewees- to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view. In these senses the interview is not simply concerned with collecting data about life: it is part of life itself, its human embeddedness is inescapable (p. 267).

A number of questions can be asked while conducting an interview, Patton (1990), for instance, claimed that there are six salient kinds of questions that a researcher can ask in an interview. These are:

1. Experience questions about what a person has done

2. Opinion (or value) questions that tell us what people think about an issue

3. Feeling questions that are aimed at the emotional level

4. Knowledge questions that seek to find out what people know

5. Sensory questions that seek to determine what respondents have seen, heard, touched, tasted, or smelled

6. Background questions such as age, job, residence which relate the respondent to other persons (as cited in Griffee, 2012, p. 162)

As a technique of research, interviews can be divided into four main types :(a) the structured interview, (b) the unstructured interview, (c) the non-directive interview and (d) the focused interview (Cohen et al, 2005). They can be categorised, too, depending on two main criteria: "the degree of structure" of the interview and whether the interviews are made of "a single or multiple sessions" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 134). The type of interviews we opted for in the current research are semi-structured individual and group interviews since our aim is to probe more in-depth information that may shape the teachers' attitudes and perceptions concerning Arabic use in EFL classrooms.

3.5.2.1. Semi-Structured Individual Interviews

Compared to the two extremes of structured and unstructured interviews, the semi-structured interview is "less rigid". When conducting it, a researcher uses "a written list of questions as a guide [though the interviewer has the opportunity to] digress and probe for more information" when necessary (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173). Nunan (2003) stipulated that "the interviewer has a general idea of where he or she wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it" (p. 149). Moreover, he illustrated three prominent advantages of the semi-structured interview; "[firstly, it] gives the interviewee a degree of power and control over the course of the interview. Secondly, it gives the interviewer a great deal of flexibility. Finally, it gives one privileged access to other people's lives" (p. 150).

The main reasons which lie behind the choice of conducting semi-structured interviews, as Dornyei (2007) argued, is the fact that firstly, the "researcher has a good enough overview of the phenomenon or domain in question and is able to develop broad

questions about the topic in advance" and secondly, because "the interviewer provides guidance and direction ... but is also keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate on certain issues" (p. 136).

3.5.2.2. Focus Group Interviews

Another type of interviews that we conducted is the focus group interviews. Focus group interview or simply group interview is a qualitative method of data collection; it involves interviewing a relatively small group of respondents about an issue of common interest for them all. It is more appropriate if a researcher aims at prompting and probing more in-depth information from the respondents. Moreover, the fact of interviewing a group of participants creates a sort of energetic, active atmosphere which, according to Dornyei (2007, p. 144), endows them with the ability of "thinking together, inspiring and challenging each other, and reacting to the emerging issues and points". Additionally, he stated that the participants' interaction may well generate "a high quality data [which, in its turn, leads to] a deep and insightful discussion" (p.144).

3.5.2.3. Sampling Strategies for the Interviews

The sampling strategy for the follow up interviews that we relied on in the second phase of this research is purposeful sampling strategy which means that the participants are intentionally recruited to a research study because they have experienced the central phenomenon being under scrutiny. More precisely, we opted for maximal variation sampling strategy, which is one of the purposeful strategies, and which implies that "diverse individuals are chosen [because they] are expected to hold different perspectives" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, pp. 173-174) on the focal phenomenon under investigation. They, further, pointed out that "the criteria of maximising differences depends on the study , but it may be race, gender, level of schooling, or any number of factors that would differentiate participants" (P. 174). Accordingly, in the current research, 13 participants were recruited for the follow-up interviews and three central criteria were considered to select them:

a- Firstly, they were classified into two main categories, Middle and Secondary school teachers;

b- Secondly, they were further selected according to their professional experience and their attitudes towards MT use in EFL classrooms;

c- Thirdly, they were chosen according to their availability.

3.5.2.4. Participants' Profiles

3.5.2.4.1. Participants for Individual Interviews

Individual interviews were conducted with 7 teachers. The following are their profiles.

- Aya is 37 years old. She has been teaching English for 12 years. She holds a baccalaureate and a BA degree. She graduated from Algiers University in 2003. She did some supply teaching in Middle and private schools both in Algiers and Adrar before becoming a permanent secondary school teacher in September 2005 after passing an examination.

- Safia is 38 years old. She graduated from Adrar University in 2001 (classical system BA). She started working just after her graduation; she has been teaching for 17 years. She had only two weeks practical training with an experienced teacher in a secondary school.

- Salima is 30 years old. She holds a BA degree in translation (Arabic/ English/ French) since 2011 and her Master degree in 2014 from the University of Oran. She is a novice teacher, she started teaching in 2015. She attended some training workshops in the British council.

- Ahlem is 43 years old. She started teaching in 1994 as a middle school teacher; she taught in different cities in Adrar. She did a pre-service training in ITE for two years in Bechar. She has been teaching for a total of 23 years: 21 years as a teacher of English and 2 years as a teacher of French.

- Hayet is 39 years. She held her BA degree in English from the University of Adrar in 2001. She started her career as a teacher of French at a secondary school in 2003, despite the fact that her specialty is English, for 3 years before becoming a permanent English teacher in 2008. She stated that she never took part in any training programme.

- Soumia is 35years old. She held a BA degree in 2004 and a Master degree in 2017. She started teaching after she succeeded in the teaching contest in 2006. She first taught in Tamanrest for two years. She is currently a part time teacher at Adrar University and a first year doctorate student at the same university.

- Houda is 30 years old. She held a BA degree in 2010. She started teaching in 2011. She did some supply teaching at both Middle and Secondary levels before she became a permanent teacher in 2014. She has been teaching for six years. She taught in different rural regions in Adrar. She benefited from a 4 week in-service training.

Table 6 summarises the aforementioned teachers' profiles.

Table 3.2. Profiles of Participants for Individual Interviews

Pseudonym	Age	Gender	School	Professional experience	Academic qualifications	Training
Aya	37	F	Secondary	12	BA degree	No training
Safia	38	F	Secondary	17	BA degree	Pre-service training
Salima	30	F	Secondary	3	BA degree and Master	No training
Ahlem	43	F	Middle	23	ITE certificate	Pre-service training
Hayet	39	F	Middle	14	BA degree	No training
Soumia	35	F	Middle	11	BA degree and Master	No training
Houda	30	F	Middle	6	BA degree	In-service training

3.5.2.4.2. Participants for Group Interviews

Group interviews were conducted with three groups of teachers. The following are their profiles.

3.5.2.4.2.1. Secondary School Teachers Groups

The first secondary school teachers group includes Baya and Halima.

- Halima is 40 years old. She has been teaching English for a total of 16 years. She holds a BA degree. She graduated from Adrar University in 2001. She did a pre-service training with an experienced teacher for a period of two weeks. She is currently a second year Master student Literature and civilisation option.

- Baya is 30 years old. She holds a BA degree and she studied at Adrar University. She started working directly after her graduation in 2009. She had only a two-week in-service training but she said it was about theoretical matters apart from psycho-pedagogy module which is, according to her, of great importance.

The second secondary school teachers group includes Amel and Youcef.

- Amel is 38 years. She held her licence in 2001 from Tlemcen University. She has been studying for Master degree now. She started teaching as a supply teacher at primary and secondary schools, she had taught even French before she succeeded in the contest and became a permanent English secondary school teacher in 2007. She moved to Adrar in 2010. She did not have any formal training. She has been teaching for 16 years.

- Youcef is 43 years old. He graduated from Ouargla ENS in 1997. However, he started teaching in 1994 before his graduation because of the drastic lack of English language teachers at that time. He taught in various regions in Algeria: Ouargla, Bechar, and finally Adrar. He took part in a six-month formal training programme while he was a student at ENS. He has been studying for Master degree now.

3.5.2.4.2.2. Middle School Teachers Group

The middle school teachers group includes two teachers Ahmed and Asmaa.

- Ahmed is 32 years old. He graduated from Adrar University in 2008. He started working as a part time teacher at UFC. In 2012, he passed the oral contest and became a permanent middle school teacher. He said that he attended a 15 day in-service practical training.

- Asmaa is 29 years old. She graduated from Adrar University in 2010. She succeeded in the oral contest in 2013 and became a permanent Middle School teacher. She attended a 4 week in-service training.

Table 7 summarises the aforementioned teachers' profiles.

Table 3.3. Profiles of Participants for Group Interviews

Pseudonym	Age	Gender	School	Professional experience	Academic qualification	Training
Halima	40	F	Secondary	16	BA degree	Pre-service training
Baya	30	F	Secondary	8	BA degree	In-service training
Amel	38	F	Secondary	16	BA degree	No training
Youcef	43	M	Secondary	23	BA degree	Pre-service training
Ahmed	32	M	Middle	05	BA degree	In service training
Asmaa	29	F	Middle	04	BA degree	In-service training

3.5.2.5. Data Analysis of the Interviews

As it was stated previously, semi-structured interviews were used as a qualitative data gathering instrument so as to depict the participants' own attitudes and perception towards L1 use in EFL classrooms from an emic perspective. Thus, we chose the thematic analysis (TA) that Roulston (2001) considers as the most commonly used method to analyse qualitative data. It is an appealing method of data analysis "with clear procedures for checking the quality of the analysis conducted" (Joff & Yardley, 2003, p. 56). Thematic analysis generally aims at looking for major thematic ideas in text i.e. crucial themes that may be latent in a transcribed audio recorded interviews or simply texts and documents that are meant for qualitative analysis. Clarke & Braun (2013) consider TA as appropriate to a multiple fields and scopes of research for four focal reasons; because:

> [Firstly,] It works with a wide range of research questions, from those about people's experiences or understandings to those about the representation and construction of particular phenomena in particular contexts; [secondly], it can be used to analyse different types of data, from secondary sources such as media to transcripts of focus groups or interviews; [thirdly], it works with large or small data-sets; [and fourthly], it can be applied to produce data-driven or theory-driven analyses. (p. 4)

Additionally, they added that TA consists of six distinctive steps which a researcher should consider before arriving at the interpretation stage of data under analysis and they are represented in: a) familiarisation with data, b) coding, c) searching for themes, d) reviewing themes, d) defining and naming themes, and finally, e) writing up (Braun & Clarke, 2006, as cited in Clarke & Braun, 2013).

With regards to the current study, we adapted the steps proposed by Braun & Clarke (2006) for the analysis of both individual and group focused interviews and integrated the data elicited from them. They stipulated that those steps should not be necessarily seen as 'a

linear model' which should happen sequentially, but rather as a 'recursive process'. In order to obtain the final list of the major themes from the interviews we conducted with our participants, first, we listened to each of the recorded interviews many times and transcribed them so as to be familiar with them and noting any initial observations. Secondly, we moved to the coding process which entails "highlighting extracts of the transcribed data and labelling these in a way that they can be easily identified, retrieved, or grouped" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 250). Since we decided to analyse our data manually, we relied on some techniques that had been suggested by some scholars (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Creswell, 2012; Dornyei, 2007; Saldana, 2009) such as underlining and using multi-coloured highlighters to identify coding chunks. Those coding chunks included words, phrases, sentences and even whole paragraphs which were relevant to our research questions. At this stage, we even jotted down in the margins ideas that came to mind as we read through the transcripts. Thirdly, after finishing with coding all the transcripts, we made a list of the similar codes identified and tried to collate the redundant ones and relate them to themes they overlapped. Fourthly, we reviewed the established themes many times again and revised them so as to spot any redundancy or mismatches. Fifthly, the themes were named before moving to the final step of writing up.

3.5.3. Classroom Observations

Classroom observations are another important way of data gathering for qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods research. They are used to elicit a wide range of data about different aspects which characterise a given setting in general and a classroom setting in particular. As it is noted by Morrison (1993), they are used to collect data about different settings such as:

- The physical setting (e.g. the physical environment and its organisation);
- The human setting (e.g. the organisation of people, the characteristics and makeup of the groups or individuals being observed, for instance gender, class);

- The interactional setting (e.g. the interactions that are taking place, formal, informal, planned, unplanned, verbal, non-verbal etc.);

- The programme setting (e.g. the resources and their organisation). (as cited in Cohen et al, 2005, P. 305)

Observations can be conducted to gather data via field notes and a researcher can play different roles whilst relying on such a tool of data collection. Creswell (2012, p. 213), for instance, pointed out that a researcher can be assigned the following roles while conducting observations:

- Conducting an observation as a participant;

- Conducting an observation as an observer;

- Spending more time as a participant than observer;

- Spending more time as an observer than a participant;

- First observing as an "outsider", then participating in the setting and observing as an "insider"

The type of research a researcher is conducting and the research questions that he/she poses highly determine the type of role, he/she plays throughout a research journey. Moreover, a researcher sometimes finds himself/herself in a need to use more than one type of observation due to some considerations that may occur as he/she is conducting his/her research.

Dornyei (2007) argued that the purpose of observation is to "identify and better understand the roles of the different participants in classroom interaction, the impact that certain type of instruction may have on FL/SL learning, and the factors which promote or inhibit learning" (p. 178).He too stated that observations can be categorised into two dichotomies: 'participant' versus 'non-participant observations' and 'structured' versus 'unstructured observations'. Participant observation is the type of observation in which the observer is called a 'participant observer' because he/she is totally involved and takes part in

all the activities of the group members under investigation. This type of participants is frequently employed in ethnographic studies. Concerning classroom observations, however, it is not easy for the observer to be assigned the role of a participant and he/she is minimally implicated in the setting of research (classroom). Thus, he/she is considered as a non-participant observer.

The structured observation is the fact that a researcher goes to the field with a predesigned 'observational protocol', scheme or checklist, it "involves going to the classroom with a specific focus and with concrete observation categories" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 179) unlike the unstructured observations in which a researcher goes to the field and observes what is happening first in order to decide its relevance to the research and generates themes later. However, due to the fact that teaching is a complex and dynamic activity during which a wide range of things may occur, it is not an easy task to observe all of them. In respect to our research and as it was stated earlier, our overall purpose of the utilisation of the classroom observations is to document the various functions that teachers might use Arabic for in an EFL teaching context. Accordingly, semi-structured classroom observations needed to be done through a prior carefully planned scheme (checklist) (see appendix F) besides notes taking. The researcher carried out the observations as a non-participant observer since her role was limited to documenting the potential uses of Arabic whenever they occur in the observed classrooms and taking some notes which were relevant to the research questions.

3.5.3.1. Procedure of Classroom Observations

A total of 31 classroom observations were conducted, 11 with 3 middle school teachers and 20 with 5 secondary school teachers. All the teachers were observed 4 times except one. (For more details see tables 8 and 9). The classes were observed for the same duration (60 minutes for each class). The checklist used in this study is adapted from Al-Nofaie (2010) but modified in order to fit our research aims. It was composed of four columns (see appendix F), including 'the Arabic patterns', 'the functions teachers used Arabic for',

'the number of the lesson observed', and finally, a column for 'students' reaction to Arabic use and other remarks'. The researcher did not intervene at any stage of the teaching or learning processes; her role was limited to observing and just documenting matters which were interrelated to the aims of the research and more precisely to the classroom observations' aims.

3.5.3.2. Summary of the Conducted Classroom Observations

Table 3.4. Summary of Classroom Observations Made with Secondary School Teachers

Number of teacher	Observation number	Teacher's name	Class level and specialty
1	1.1	Safia	2Y ESC
	1.2		3Y FL
	1.3		3Y LPH
	1.4		2Y ESC
2	2.1	Aya	3Y ESC
	2.2		3Y CE
	2.3		1Y ESC
	2.4		3Y ESC
3	3.1	Salima	2Y ESC
	3.2		1Y LPH
	3.3		2Y ESC
	3.4		1Y LPH
4	4.1	Baya	1Y LPH
	4.2		1Y LPH
	4.3		1Y ESC
	4.4		1Y LPH
5	5.1	Halima	2Y LPH
	5.2		2Y LPH
	5.3		2Y FL
	5.4		3Y LPH

Table 3.5. Summary of Classroom Observations Made with Middle School Teachers

Teacher's number	Observation number	Teacher's name	Class level
1	1.1	Ahlam	MSY 3
	1.2		MSY 3
	1.3		MSY 4
	1.4		MSY 3
2	3.1	Asmaa	MSY 1
	3.2		MSY 2
	3.3		MSY 3
	3.4		MSY 1
3	4.1	Houda	MSY 3
	4.2		MSY 1
	4.3		MSY 1

3.5.3.3. Sampling Strategy for the Classroom Observations

The sampling strategy used to conduct classroom observations was convenience and purposive sampling. Some of the interviewed teachers were invited again to carry on with us in the research and they accepted. We conducted classroom observations with 8 teachers who were selected purposively according to their stance concerning the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms that they voiced in the interviews they previously took part in. We discerned teachers who were convinced of the utility of learners' L1 use and those who used it but were not convinced of the advantages that it may have on their teaching. The data obtained from the observations are qualitatively analysed and interpreted.

3.6. Piloting

Piloting is an important step in research as Dornyei (2007) advised researchers 'always pilot your research instruments and procedures before launching your project'(p. 75).

Concerning the questionnaire, before the distribution of its final version to the sample participants, first it was handed to two professors in the English department for revision and then, it was piloted with some colleague teachers in order to refine some statement or question items and to check their clarity and readability. Some sentences were paraphrased and others were completely changed or deleted. With regard to the interviews, two teachers were interviewed (one middle school and one secondary school teachers) in order to ensure the clarity and accuracy of the questions. Some questions were altered and others paraphrased so as to be consistent with the research questions. As for the classroom observations, six observations were made with two teachers equally, Mrs Zahira, a middle school teacher and Mrs Amina, a secondary school teacher. The purpose of conducting such classroom observations was firstly, to check whether the checklist used was appropriate and fitted our purpose of identifying the different L1 functions; secondly, to make the researcher acquainted with alien classroom atmospheres and the practice of observing.

3.7. Reliability and Validity

To guarantee the trustworthiness of a research, it is primordial to consider issues of validity and reliability which are two prerequisite qualities for sound research. Joppe (2000), for instance, defined reliability as:

> The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. (as cited in Golafshani, 2003, p. 598)

Lawrence (2014), in his turn, pointed out that "reliability means dependability or consistency. It suggests that the same thing is repeated or recurs under the identical or very similar conditions" (p. 212). Concerning validity, he claimed that it "suggests truthfulness" and that "it refers to how well an idea "fits" with actual reality", he further added that "in simple terms, validity addresses the question of how well we measure social reality using our

constructs about it" (p. 212). Both reliability and validity are two interrelated concepts either in a quantitative or qualitative research. In this vein, Cohen et al (2005) pointed out that "reliability is a necessary but insufficient condition for validity in research; reliability is a necessary precondition for validity, and validity may be a sufficient but not necessary condition for reliability" (p. 133).

In respect to our research, we endeavoured to ensure both reliability and validity so as to gain sound results; and to maximise the credibility of the study, the following strategies were used:

- A mixed-method approach was used. This involved the use of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses using credible methods.

- The sampling strategies used were appropriate to the context of study and to the participants' availability and commitments towards our study. They are well documented in the research methodology literature.

- For the purposes of verifying their validity and reliability, the data collection tools (questionnaire and the observation checklist) were adapted from reliable sources where they had been used and widely documented.

3.8. Conclusion

This chapter highlighted the methodology followed in the study by presenting the data gathering methods and the procedures of data analysis. First, it argued for the need of mixing two research approaches (quantitative and qualitative) which implies that the nature of our research paradigm is both interpretive and constructive. It argued too for the use of three different data gathering instruments (questionnaire, interview and classroom observations) and the need to embrace an Explanatory Sequential Design research design so as to get an in-depth understanding of the issue under investigation. Next, it provided the main research questions and sub-questions, the research sought to answer. After that, it discussed the sampling strategies, the setting and the methods used for the analysis of each data instrument

independently starting with the questionnaire then the interviews and finally the classroom

observations. Finally, the chapter dealt with issues of piloting, reliability and validity of the

research.

CHAPTER FOUR

Questionnaires Findings and Discussion

4.1. Introduction

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    4.2.3.2.1. Discussion

4.3. Conclusion

4.1. Introduction

As discussed in chapter three, this study focused on a group of middle and secondary school teachers of English in the region of Touat (Adrar province), and data for this research were gathered via three main instruments: the questionnaire, the interview, and the classroom observations sequentially. This chapter reports the findings related to research questions 1 and 2 (See below); It firstly, presents the findings of the questionnaires that showed the personal information of the participants; then, it reports their attitudes towards Arabic use in EFL classrooms in Touat region in general, and, especially, the extent of their actual use of Arabic in their own classrooms. This chapter combines the research findings with discussion and to keep its content easier to follow, the chapter reports each research question findings separately with a discussion at the end of each set of items.

4.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Questionnaires Findings

This section provides answers to the main research questions 1 and 2 and the sub-questions which stem from both of them. These are:

Questionnaire's research questions

RQ1. What are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms in Touat region?

RQ1.a. What is the status of Arabic and English in EFL classrooms according to the teachers' attitudes?

RQ1.b. What is the impact of Arabic use on the students' learning according to the teachers' attitudes?

RQ1.c. What is the impact of Arabic use on the teachers' teaching?

RQ1.d. What are the Teachers' attitudes towards other practices?

RQ2. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for both language and non-language purposes?

RQ2.a. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for language purposes?

RQ2.b. To what extent do teachers use Arabic for non-language purposes?

4.2.1. Section One: Participants' personal information Analysis

Item 1: Gender

Table 4.1. Gender of Participants

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	31	25.8%
Female	89	74.2%
Total	120	100%

The data obtained from table 4.1 revealed that the sample is not balanced in terms of gender distribution; it displays a significant dominance of female gender over the male gender. While the former represents (74.2%) of the participants, the latter represents only (25.8%). This is due mainly to the women's preference for working in the educational domain to working in other fields.
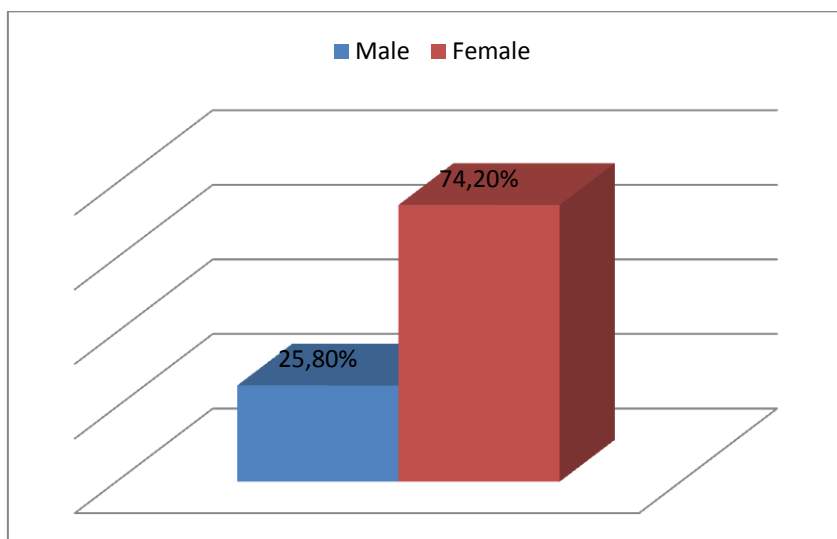
Diagram 4.1. Teachers' Distribution according to Gender

Item 2: Teachers' Professional Experience

Table 4.2. Teachers' Professional Experience

Years of experience	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	44	36.7%
6-10	41	34.2%
11-15	14	11.7%
16-20	6	5%
21-25	10	8.3%
26-30	3	2.5%
More than 30 years	2	1.7%
Total	120	100%

Concerning the teachers' professional experience and as shown in table 4.2, the most dominant categories are represented by those who cumulate a teaching experience which ranges from 1 to 5 years (36.7%) and from 6 to 10 years (34.2%). (11.7%) have 11 to 16 years of experience. Only (5%) have 17 to 20 years of experience. The remaining teachers who have experience which ranges from 21 to 25 years, and from 26 to 30 years represent (8.3%) and (2.5%) respectively. Only two teachers (1.7%) have taught English for more than 30 years.
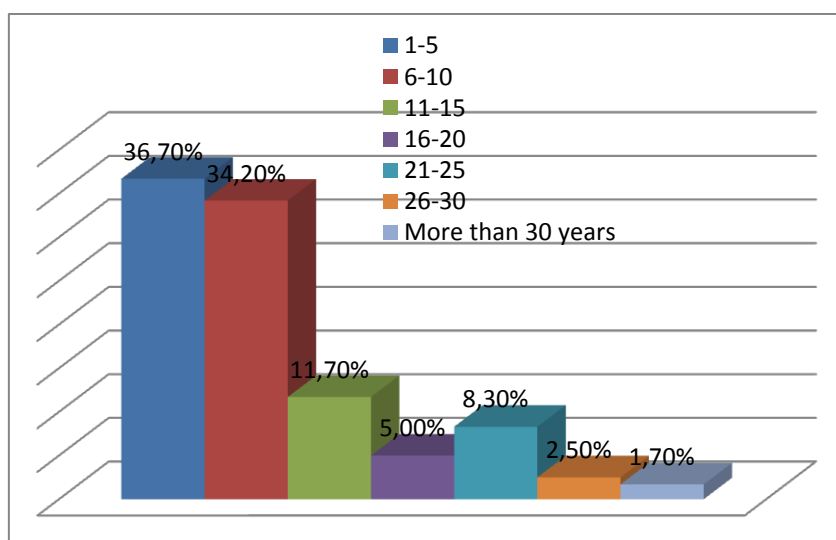
Diagram 4.2. Teachers' Professional Experience

Item Three: Teachers' Affiliation

Table 4.3. Teachers' Sector of Work

Sector of work	Frequency	Percentage
Secondary school	60	50%
Middle school	60	50%
Total	120	100%

From table 4.3, it is clear that concerning the participants' affiliation, both sectors are equally represented. While (50%) of teachers work at secondary schools, the other half works at middle schools.
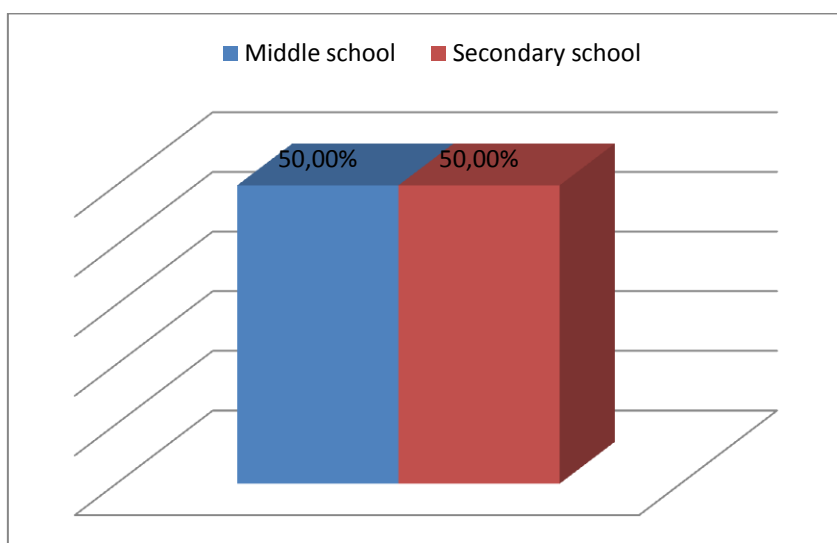
Diagram 4.3. Teachers' Distribution according to Sector of Work

Item Four: Teachers' Qualifications

Table 4.4. Teachers' Qualifications

Teachers' qualifications	Frequency	Percentage
BA (Licence)	88	73.3%
Master	26	21.7%
Other degrees/ certificates	5	4.2%
Missing answer	1	0.8%
Total	120	99.2%

The data obtained in table 4.4 reveal that more than two thirds (73.3%) of the teachers hold BA degrees, (21.7%) of them have a Master degree and only (4.2%) hold other certificates such as ITE Certificate. However, it is worth noting that one participant did not mention his qualification (0.8%).
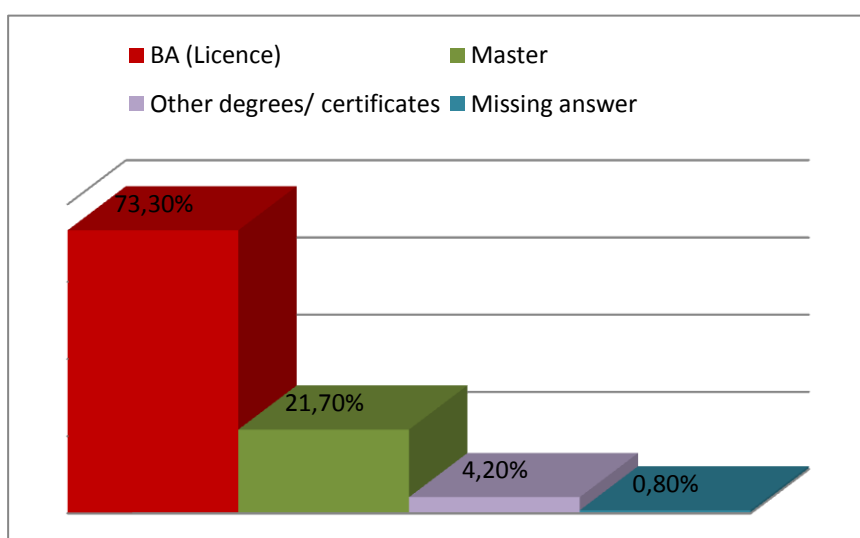
Diagram 4.4. Teachers' Degrees

Item Five: Area of Work

Table 4.5. Teachers' Area of Work

Area of work	Frequency	Percentage
Rural	74	61.7%
Urban	46	38.3%
Total	120	100%

Table 4.5 clearly shows that the majority of teachers (61.7%) work in rural areas and only (38.3%) of them work in rural areas.
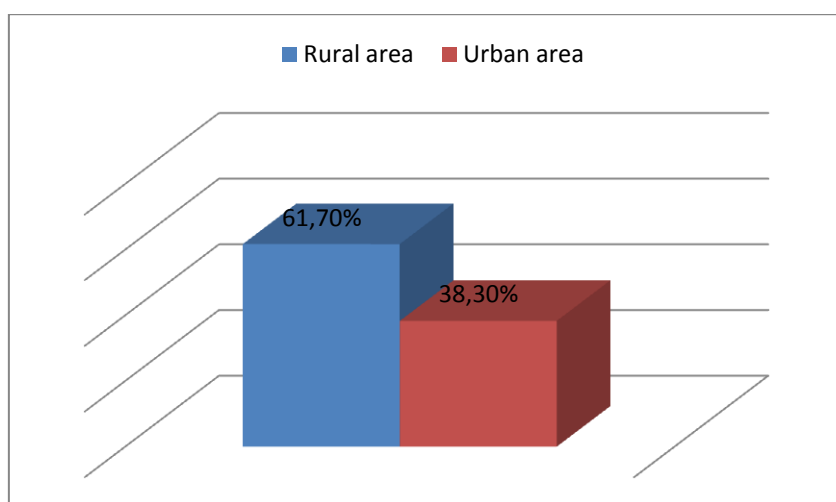
Diagram 4.5. Teachers' Distribution according to Area of Work

4.2.2. Section Two: The Analysis of Teachers' Attitudes towards using Arabic in the English Language Classroom

This section aims at analysing teachers' responses to the questionnaire so as to answer the first main research question of the current study and which is:

RQ 1: What are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in EFL classes in Touat region?

As stated earlier in chapter three (research design), a five-likert scale "strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree and strongly disagree" is used to measure the teachers' attitudes. The interpretation of the teachers' attitudes are first obtained on the basis of the percentages and

the means calculated for each item; then the mean of each part is calculated so as to reveal the level of agreement among the respondents upon each part separately. However, the last four questions in this questionnaire's section are analysed separately. To measure the teachers' attitudes accurately, as shown in table 4.6, three levels of agreements are used:

Table 4.6. Levels of Agreement

Mean	Significance
[1- 2.59]	Low greement
[2.60- 3.39]	Moderate agreement
[3.40- 5]	High agreement

4.2.2.1. Part A: Teachers' Attitudes towards the Status of Arabic and English in EFL Classes

To find out these attitudes, part A items (S1, S2, and S3) are analysed and interpreted.

Statement 1:

Table 4.7. Teachers' Attitudes and the Use of Arabic at certain Points of Lessons

Statement 1	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic should be allowed at certain points of a lesson.	36 30%	54 45%	15 12.5 %	13 10.8%	2 1.7%	**3.91**	**High**

As it is clearly indicated in table 4.7, the majority of the teachers (75%) express their agreement (strongly agree or agree) with Arabic to be allowed at certain points of a lesson. A result that aligns with Hall and Cook's (2013) findings which reported that 73.5% of their participants agreed to integrate the learners' own language in their lessons. Though a minor

proportion of the teachers (12.4%) report their disagreement with this statement and tend to prefer monolingual teaching. With a mean of 3.91, we conclude that the participants' level of agreement with this practice is high.
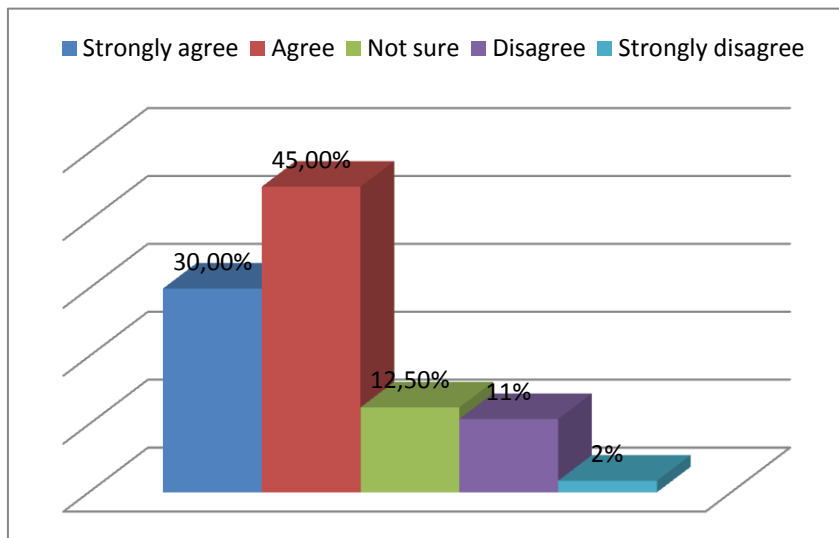
Diagram 4.6. Teachers' Attitudes towards Allowing the Use of Arabic at certain Points of Lessons

Statement 2:

Table 4.8. Teachers' Attitudes and Self-Decision Making Concerning the Way Arabic should be Used in the Classroom

Statement 2	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
Teachers can decide the way in which Arabic should be used in their classrooms.	65 54.2%	45 37.5%	5 4.2%	3 2.5%	2 1.7%	**4.40**	**High**

It is appearent from table 4.8 that statement (2) won the lion's share of the respondents, (91.7%) of them support the idea that teachers, on their own, can decide the way

in which Arabic should be integrated in their classrooms. This can be implicitly interpreted that teachers generally do not accept authority restraints and therefore wish to enjoy certain freedom concerning this point which will be highlighted further in the interviews. Again this finding is in accordance with Hall and Cook's (2013) results which reported that (74.6%) of the teachers agreeed that they could themselves think on ways in which learners' own language could be introduced into their classrooms. The mean of this item is 4.40 which means that the teachers do strongly agree with this statement.
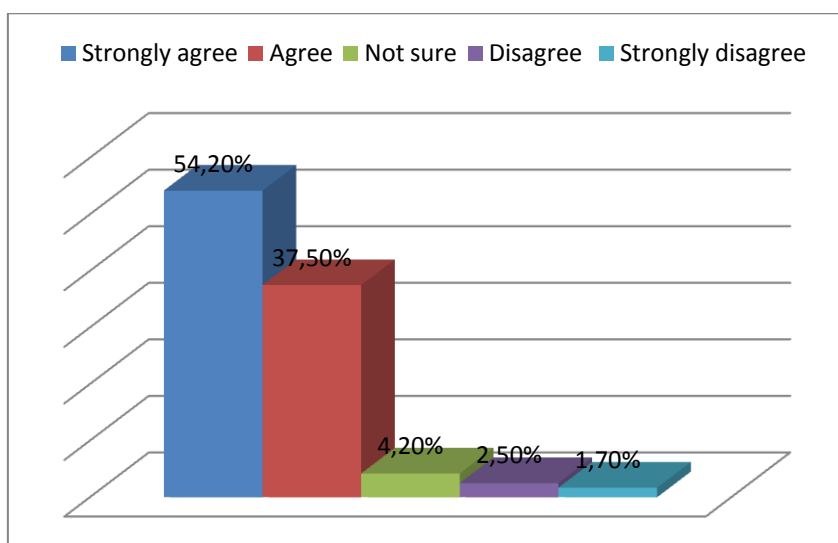
Diagram 4.7.Teachers' Attitudes towards being able to Decide how Arabic should be Used

Statement 3:

Table 4.9. Teachers' Attitudes and English as the Main Medium of Instruction

Statement 3	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
English should be the main language of instruction	60 50%	40 33.3%	12 10%	5 4.2%	3 2.5%	**4.24**	**High**

Table 4.9 shows that while a sizeable majority of the teachers (83.3%) indicate that they either strongly agree or agree with the use of English as the main language of instruction,

only a very little minority (6.7%) voice their negative attitudes towards this practice. Indeed, this finding implicitly reveals that teachers resort to Arabic due to specific considerations but tend to prefer the monolingual teaching. With a mean of 4.24, we can say that teachers hold positive attitudes towards using English as the main medium of instruction in their classrooms.
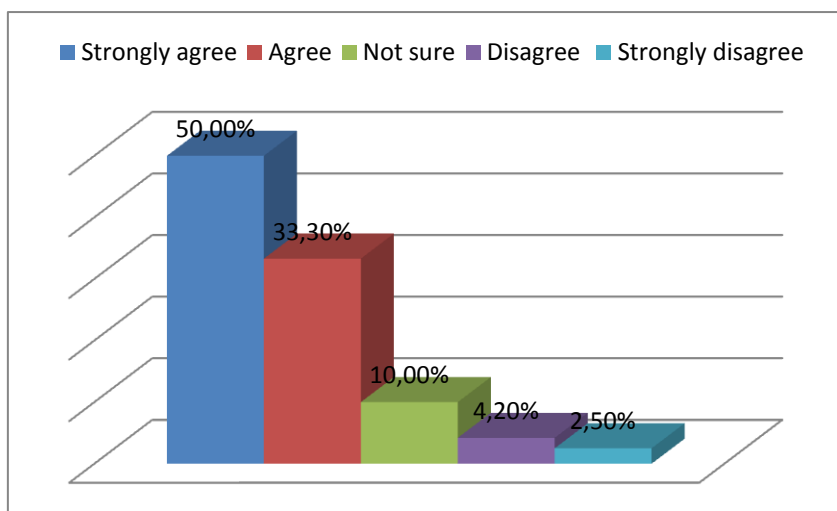
Diagram 4.8. Teacher' Attitudes towards English as the Main Language of Instruction

Table 4.10. The Average of Part A Items' Means

Statements		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic should be allowed at certain points of a lesson.	N	36	54	15	13	2	3.91	High
	%	30%	45%	12.5 %	10.8%	1.7		
Teachers can decide on the way in which Arabic should be used in their classrooms.	N	65	45		3	2	4.40	High
	%	54.2%	37.5%	4.2%	2.5%	1.7%		
English should be the main language of instruction.	N	60	40	12	5	3	4.24	High
	%	50%	33.3%	10%	4.2%	2.5%		
The average of the means							**4.18**	**High**

4.2.2.1.1. Discussion

To recaputulate teachers' attitudes towards Part A items of the the second section of our questionnaire "teachers' attitudes towards the status of Arabic and English in EFL classes", we find from table 4.9 that the average mean value of the three items (S1, S2, S3) is 4.18 i.e. the teachers show positive attitudes toward the presence of Arabic in EFL classrooms; but with their emphasis on having the right to be the decision-makers as to the ways in which it should be used in their own classrooms. However, they admit that English should be the core language of instruction.

4.2.2.2. Part B: The Impact of Arabic Use on Students' Learning

To find out these attitudes, part B items (S4, S5, and S6) are analysed and interpreted.

Statement 4:

Table 4.11. Teachers' Attitudes and Arabic Impact on Students' Understanding of New Vocabulary

Statement 4	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps students to understand new vocabulary.	13 10.8%	69 57.5%	18 15%	14 11.7%	6 5%	**3.58**	**High**

Table 4.11 shows that more than a half (68.3%) of the respondents hold positive attitudes towards the statement 'Arabic use helps the students to understand new vocabulary'; only (15.7%) of them either disagree or strongly disagree with this statement.This finding is in agreement with most of the earlier studies such as Nation (2001) who pointed out that 'L1 translation' is among the most effective methods used to teach and explain new vocabulary. He mentioned some others who advocated the same claim concernig the effectiveness of translation in learning vocabulary such as Lado, Baldwin and Labo (1967), Mishima (1967),

and Laufer and Shmueli (1997). This result is in alignment with other researchers' findings such as Al-balawi (2016), Ahmed (2015) who stated that more than a half of their respondents held positive attitudes towards Arabic use for vocabulary explanation. The overall mean of this item is 3.58 and its level is high i.e. the teachers' strongly agree with this practice.
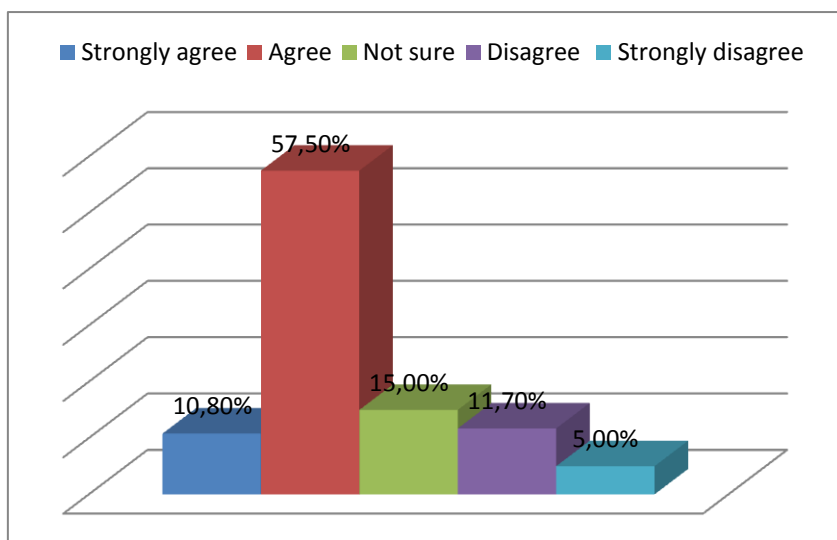
Diagram 4.9. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Students' Understanding of Vocabulary

Statement 5:

Table 4.12. Teachers' Attitudes and Arabic Impact on Students' Understanding of Grammar

Statement 5	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps students to understand grammatical items better.	9 7.5%	25 20.8%	27 22.5%	37 30.8%	22 18.3%	**2.68**	**Moderate**

Data gathered in table 4.12 indicate that nearly half of the informants (49.1%) reject the idea that Arabic is effective in helping students to understand grammatical points better.This result contradicts Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) view who argued that "we already have a language and a grammar in our head when we start to learn a FL [...] it is from these grammatical intuitions of our learners that we should start.[Therefore, teachers should explain] the unknown in terms of the known" (P. 103). Indeed, we find that most of the previously conducted research about this issue (Ahmed, 2015;, Almetwally Elmenshawy, 2012; Mohebbi & Alavi, 2014) revealed teachers' positive attitudes concerning this issue and which mismatch with ours. Almetwally Elmenshawy (2012) and Ahmed (2015) reported that (60%) of Emirate teachers and (43%) of Sudanese secondary school teachers agreed to use Arabic to explain grammatical rules. However, in our study, only (28.3%) of the participants either strongly agree or agree with this practice and (22.5%) are not sure of the possible facilitting role that Arabic may have in students' understanding of grammatical items. With a mean of 2.68, the level of teachers' agreement regarding this item is moderate.
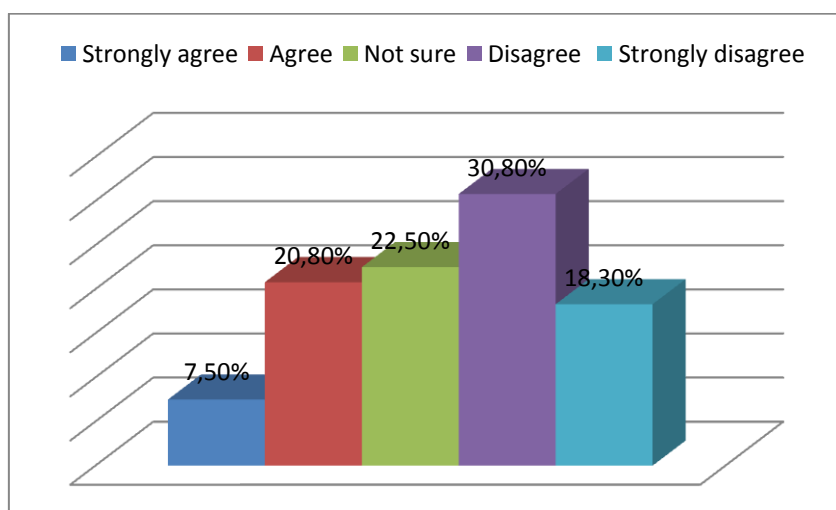
Diagram 4.10. Teahers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Students' Understanding of Grammatical Points

Statement 6:

Table 4.13. Teachers' Attitudes and Arabic Impact on Students' Learning of other Language Skills

Statement 6	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps students to learn other different language skills.	3 2.5%	23 19.2%	30 25%	49 40.8%	14 11.7%	**2.60**	**Moderate**

From table 4.13, we implicitly deduce that the teachers do not acknowledge the positive effect that their learners' MT may have on their learning since only (21.7%) of them believe that Arabic use can positively affect the students'learning of different skills and more than a half (52.5%) deny this fact. Though empirical research done by some researchers proved that the incorporation of learners' MT, though not Arabic, before setting for different activities have positive effects on the learners' performance such as Lally (2000) who found out that "students who prepared a writing task in L1 received higher scores for organisation" (as cited in Pan, 2010, P. 90). Schweers' findings (1999) differ, too, from ours since he reported teachers' support of L1 use so as to facilitate the teaching/ learning process and the positive impact that their learners' MT had on their writing. This finding, too, contradicted with Pablo's et al (2010) results which revealed that the teachers positively viewed MT as an effective tool for vocabulary and grammar explanations. As it is indicated above, the mean value of this item is 2.60 i.e. the teachers' show negative attitudes as to the role of Arabic in facilitating students' learning of other skills.

Diagram 4.11. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Students' Learning of other Language Skills

Table 4.14. The Average of Part B Items' Means

Statements		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps the students to understand new vocabulary.	N	13	69	18	14	6	3.58	High
	%	10.8%	57.5%	15%	11.7%	5%		
The use of Arabic helps students to understand grammatical items better.	N	9	25	27	37	22	2.68	Moderate
	%	7.5%	20.8%	22.5%	30.8%	18.3%		
The use of Arabic helps the students to learn different language skills.	N	3	23	30	49	14	2.60	Moderate
	%	2.5%	19.2%	25%	40.8%	11.7%		
The average of the means							**2.95**	**Moderate**

4.2.2.2.1. Discussion

To reiterate the findings in regards to part B items, it is plainly indicated in table 4.14 that the teachers acknowledge the positive impact that Arabic has upon the students' learning of new vocabulary. However, contrary to our expectations, they have shown negative attitudes towards the items (S5, and S6) and discredited Arabic's role in learning grammatical rules and other different language skills. With the average mean (2.95), we can say that the level of teachers' agreement about these items is moderate.

4.2.2.3. Part C: The Impact of Arabic Use on the Teaching Process

To find out these attitudes, part C items (S7, S8, S9, and S10) were first analysed and interpreted separately and then as a whole.

Statement 7:

Table 4.15. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Time Saving

Statement 7	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps the teacher to save time.	12 10%	41 34.2%	18 15%	23 19.2%	26 21.7%	**2.92**	**Moderate**

Table 4.15 indicates that (44.2%) of the respondents either agree or strongly agree wih the relathionship that may exist between Arabic use and time saving ; (40.9%) either disagree or strongly disagree whereas only15% neither agree nor disagree. This finding does not support the work by previous research (Nation, 2001; Auerbach, 1993; Sschweers, 1999; Pablo et al, (2010; Al-alawi, 2008; Ahmed, 2015;) which suggested that the use of learners' MT is a justified practice for saving time. Likewise, Harbord (1992) and Atkinson (1987) argued for the use of MT as a time saving strategy for both learners and teachers. In fact, practically speaking, the use of Arabic may help the teacher to save time mainly if he/she encounters very complex activities' instructions, grammatical points or other instances which

are time consuming in case their explanations are totally done in English. With a mean of

2.92, we conclude that the teachers' level of agreement towards this item is moderate.
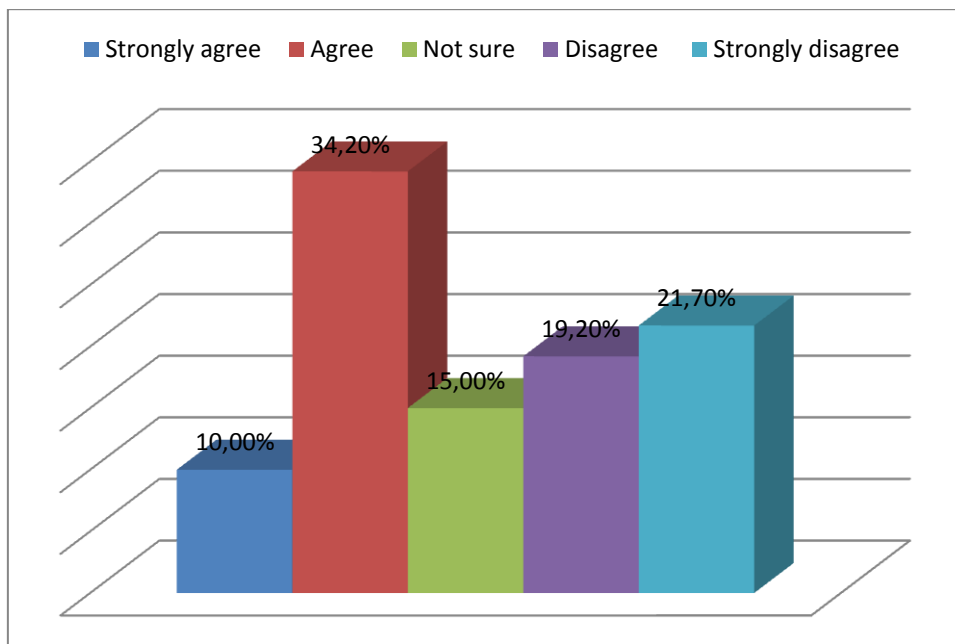
Diagram 4.12. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Time Saving

Statement 8:

Table 4.16. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Students' Motivation

Statement 8	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps the teacher to motivate the students.	12 10%	36 30.%	26 21.7%	35 29.2%	11 9.2%	**3.03**	**Moderate**

Regarding the relationship between Arabic use and students' motivation , the teachers

seem to almost agree and disagree equally (as it is highlighted in table 4.16). Unlike (40%) of

them who express their approval of the positive role that Arabic may have in motivating

students; (38.4%) of them disagree. Yet, the teachers showed positive attitudes towards this

statement though the level of their agreement is moderate with a mean of 3.03.
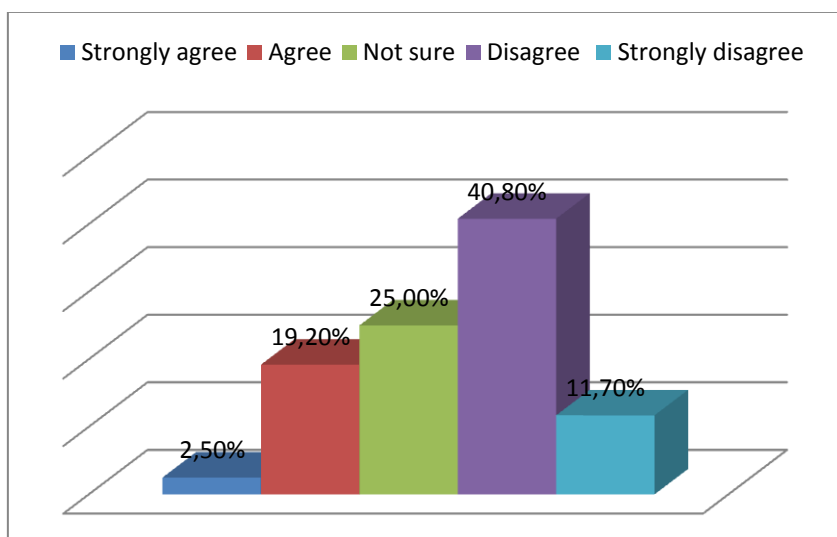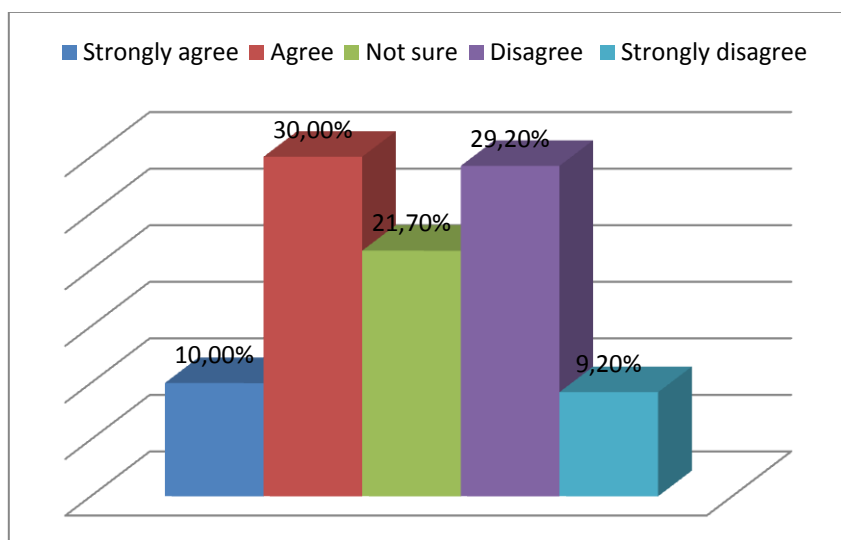
Diagram 4.13. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Students' Motivation

Statement 9:

Table 4.17. Teachers' Attitudes and Arabic Impact on Checking Students' Understanding

Statement 9	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps the teacher to check students' understanding.	7 5.8%	46 38.3%	28 23.3%	27 22.5%	12 10%	**3.08**	**Moderate**

As it has been stated earlier in the literature review, some researchers highlighted that the use of learners' MT may help teachers to check students' understanding (Atkinson, 1987; Harbord, 1992; Cameron, 2010; Prodromou, 2002). For instance, Harbord (1992), as seen earlier, posited a rigourous list of learning strategies that are based on MT of learners and among which checking learners' comprehension is one. He called for using MT to check learners' comprehension of a listening or reading text, of structure and even allowing students to provide translation of words just as another understanding check strategy. Despite the fact that Cameron (2010) suggested other ways for checking learners' understanding such as asking students individually or in pairs to draw pictures so as to show their understanding

or to "select the correct picture or to arrange pictures in the right order" (p. 211), she, too, mentioned that students may be asked to repeat teacher's talk in MT to the whole class. However, our findings in table 4.17 indicate that only (44.1%) are in favour of Arabic use for this purpose, (32.5%) disagree and (23.3%) are not sure. The mean of this item is 3.08 i.e. the teachers' level of agreement is moderate.
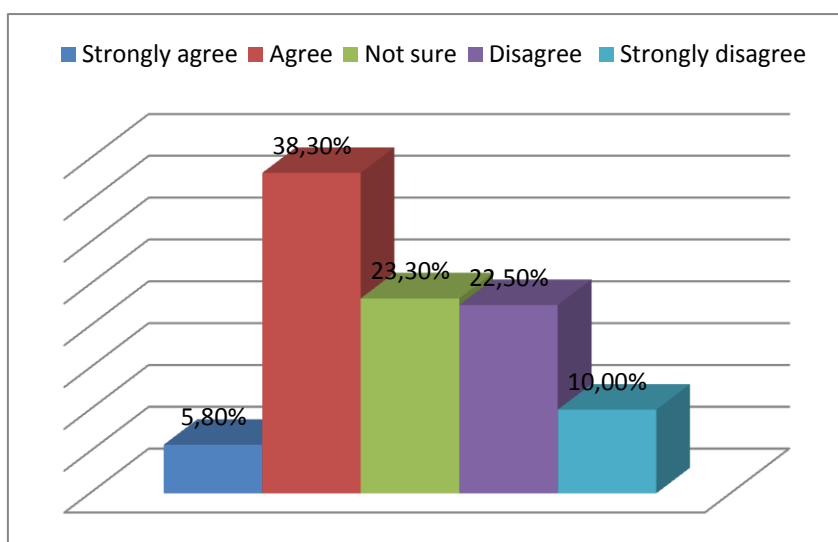
Diagram 4.14. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Checking Students' Understanding

Statement 10:

Table 4.18. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Class Management

Statement 10	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps the teacher to manage the class.	3 2.5%	21 17.6%	29 24.%	41 34.2%	26 21.7%	**2.45**	**Low**

Some empirical research discussed the role of MT in FL classrooms for management ends (Ahmed, 2015; Al-balawi, 2016; Cameron, 2010; Mohebbi & Alavi, 2014). Cameron (2010), for insrance, mentioned that some discipline issues are better to be dealt with in MT; Al-balawi (2016), in his turn, found that (50%) of Saudi teachers tended to agree on the Arabic use to maintain discipline. Mohebbi and Alavi (2014) reported teachers' positive attitudes to use Persian for this purpose as well. Yet, our findings are not in alignment with

most of the aformentioned investigations. Table 4.18 indicates clearly that (55.9%) of our participants voice their negative attitudes toward this practice, only (20.1%) agree, and (24.2%) are not sure. With a mean of 2.45, we conclude that the teachers' level of agreement is low and therefore, they hold negative attitudes regarding this practice.

Diagram 4.15. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Classroom Management

Table 4.19. The Average of Part C Items' Means

Statement		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic helps the teacher to save time.	N	12	41	18	23	26	2.92	Moderate
	%	10%	34.2%	15%	19.2%	21.7%		
The use of Arabic helps the teacher to motivate his/her students.	N	12	36	26	35	11	3.03	Moderate
	%	10%	30%	21.7%	29.2%	9.2%		
The use of Arabic helps the teacher to check students' understanding.	N	7	46	28	27	12	3.08	Moderate
	%	5.8%	38.3%	23.3%	22.5%	10%		
The use of Arabic makes it easier for the teacher to manage his/her class.	N	3	21	29	41	26	2.45	Low
	%	2.5%	17.5%	24.2%	34.2%	21.7%		
The average of the means							**2.87**	**Moderate**

4.2.2.3.1. Discussion

To put it in a nutshell, the findings in table 4.19 indicate that the teachers hold positive attitudes towards using Arabic as a means to save time, to motivate students and to check their understanding. However, they hold negative attitudes toward using Arabic to manage their classes. The average means of part C items as a whole is 2.87 i.e. the teachers' agreement upon Arabic's role as a helping teaching tool in the aforementioned instances is moderate.

4.2.2.4. Part D: Teachers' Attitudes towards other Practices

Teachers' attitudes regarding some other practices were measured. These are four other statements which have been included at the end of the questionnaire (S11, S12, S13, and S14) and which reflect additional teachers' perceptions on the use of Arabic and its prohibition in EFL classes.

Statement 11:

Table 4.20. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Students' Affective Filter

Statement 11	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic makes the students feel less stressed.	10 8.3%	52 43.3%	34 28.3%	20 16.7%	4 3.3%	**3.37**	**Modera te**

The responses in table 4.20 indicate that (51.6%) of teachers agree that using Arabic has a positive impact on students as it lowers their affective filter and puts them in a more secured and less stressful environment (classroom). (28.3%) are not sure and only (20%) of them do not agree. Generally speaking, the classroom constitutes an intimidating and frustrating place for learners, being young or adults, due to some factors such as meeting new

people and teachers, new and foreign languages to learn, and even strange environment for which certain time is needed for them to be acquainted with. Adding to these factors exclusive use of the TL in FL classes would doubtlessly make the students feel "frustrated, upset, angry, and resentful at the environment of the language classroom. [Accordingly], learning stops" (Meyer, 2008, p.148). That is why, it is very important for teachers prominently and other schools' stakeholders to look for strategies via which more secured and safe learning atmospheres would be created; in Meyer's words, this is put as "the primary role of the students' L1 in the language classroom is lowering affective filters" (p. 1). In the same vein, Auerbach (1993) stated that "starting with the L1 gives a sense of security and validates the learner's lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves. The learner is then willing to experiment and take risks with English" (p. 3). Our finding regarding this point matches with most of the reviewed literature in this thesis (Ahmed, 2015; Al-balawy, 2016; Brook-Lewis, 2009; Schweers, 1990; Pablo et al, 2011) wherein most of the researchers concluded that learners' MT has a special role in lowering their affective filter and encourages them to be more involved in the teaching learning process. With a mean of 3.37 the teachers' agreement on this point is moderate.
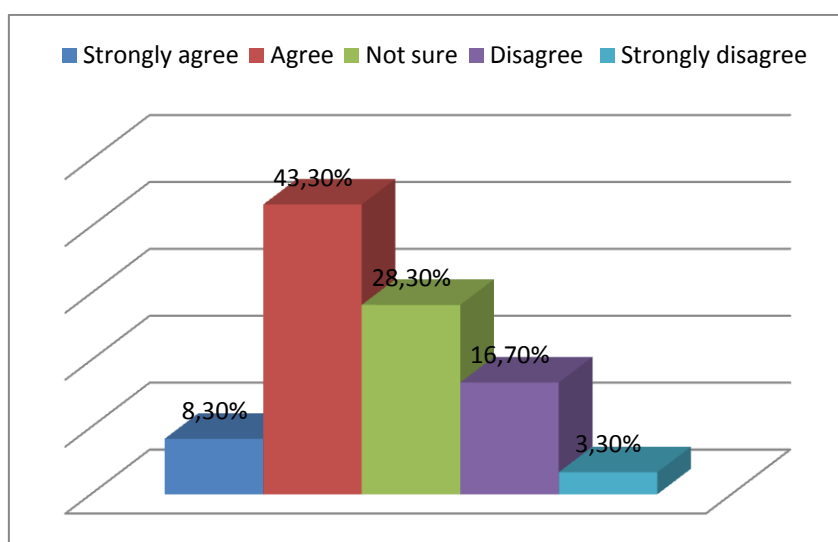
Diagram 4.16. **Teachers' Attitudes and Students' Affective Filter**

Statement 12:

Table 4.21. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Hindrance of Students' Learning

Statement 12	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic hinders students' learning.	6 5%	26 21.7%	52 43.3%	30 25%	5 4.2%	**2.98**	**Moderate**

N.B. One participant did not tick any choice for this statement

Concerning the relationship that may exist between the students' MT and their learning, table 4.21 indicates that a considerable number of teachers (43.3%) indicate that they are not sure if Arabic use hinders their students' learning or not i.e. they do not have a decisive opinion on this item; though (52.5%) and (49.1%) of them indicated earlier (See tables 4.12 and 4.13) that they disagree with the statements 'Arabic use helps students to learn different language skills and grammatical items' respectively. Indeed, statements (S5 and S6) are interrelated and if teachers believe that Arabic use does not foster students' learning of grammar and other language skills, this means that such use hinders learning. However, by revealing contradictory opinions on those practices, we can say that this is another issue upon which teachers cannot make up their minds; either unintentionally or intentionally because of the nature of our topic which is considered by most teachers as taboo, as some of them stated in the interviews, this is due mainly to inspectors' instructions who recommended teachers to avoid Arabic as much as they can and resort to it only in extreme situations of uncomprehension among students. Other teachers (29.2%) and (26.7%) respectively disagree

and agree upon this practice. With a mean of 2.98, the teachers' level of agreement is

moderate.

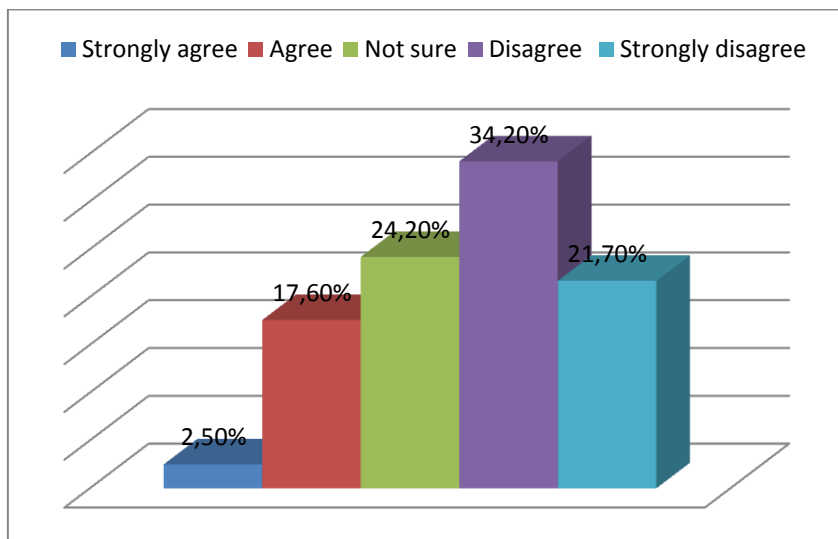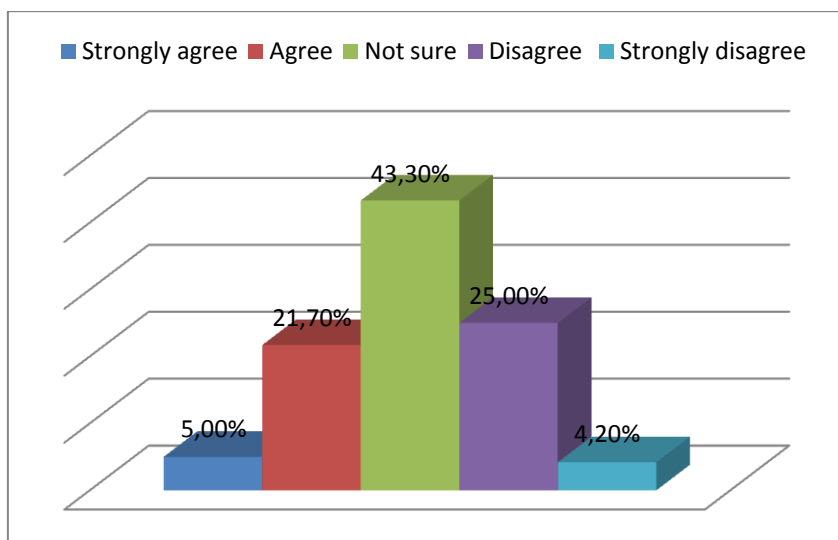**Diagram 4.17. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and Hindrance of Students'**

Learning

Statement 13:

Table 4.22. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and their Feeling of Guilt

Statement 13	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic makes the teacher feel unprofessional and guilty.	21 17.5%	42 35%	26 21.7%	21 17.5%	10 8.3%	**3.36**	**Moderate**

Results from table 4.22 reveal that more than half of the teachers (52.5%) report that

they feel guilty whenever they switch to Arabic in their teaching; (25.8%) and (21.7%)

disagree and are not sure respectively. Such feeling of guilt implies that a considerable

number of teachers show that they are not convinced of codswitching to Arabic in their

teaching and of potential advantages of doing so. This feeling of guilt is even reported by most of the interviewed teachers who believe that English should be, normally, taught only in English. When inquired about the source of this feeling and belief, we were told that this is due, partly, to their previous teaching (either at University, ENS or ITE) where they were trained and taught about the different approaches and methods to English language teaching which promote the monolingual teaching of English. And as teachers, to the instructions they received from their inspectors. The finding of this item is consistent with results of some previous conducted research (Hall & Cook, 2012). The mean of this item is 3.36 i.e. the level of agreement among the teachers is moderate.
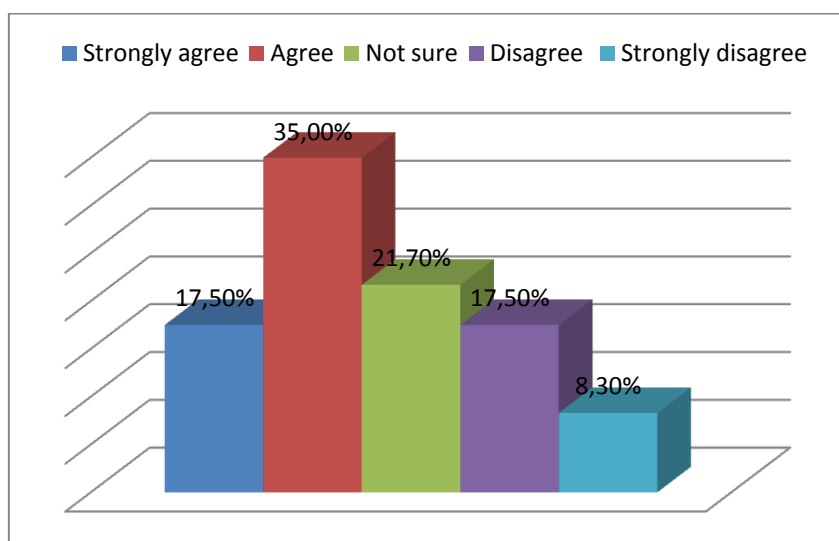
Diagram 4.18. Teachers' Attitudes towards Arabic Use and their Feeling of Guilt

Statement 14:

Table 4.23. Teachers' Attitudes towards the Prohibition of Arabic in EFL Classes

Statement 14	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Level
The use of Arabic should be prohibited.	6 5%	22 18.3%	23 19.2%	48 40%	20 16.7%	**2.55**	**Low**

N.B. One participant did not tick any suggestion for this statement

Findings from table 4.23 show that more than half of the teachers (56.7%) indicate that they do not approve the prohibition of Arabic from EFL classes, only (23.3%) agree and (19.2%) are not sure. The number of the teachers who do not agree upon the prohibition of Arabic is significant, and this means that in one way or another, the teachers acknowledge the didactic and pedagogical role that Arabic may have in the teaching and learning process despite the fact that we sometimes find them either skeptical or conservative in some of the attitudes they revealed earlier. This finding is not in line with Hall & Cook (2013) who reported that the teachers they surveyed did not consider their rendering to the MT as a cause of guilt because they do believe that both languages, MT and FL, could coexist in one's mind and as a result, its use is not considered out of the norm.
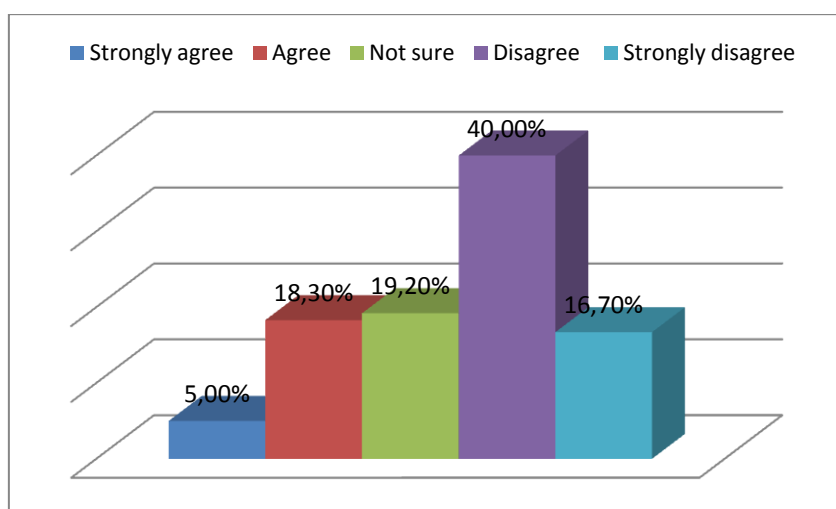
Diagram 4.19. Teacher' Attitudes towards the Prohibition of Arabic in EFL Classes

4.2.2.4.1. Discussion

From the analysis of the last four items (S11, S12, S13, & S14), we conclude that the majority of the teachers are against the prohibition of Arabic and this is significant i.e. the teachers do not agree with the instructions imposed on them as far as the use of Arabic is concerned. Even in the interviews some of the teachers stated that thinking about teaching theoretically is an easy task, and thinking about ideal classrooms is easy too. However, once it comes to practice, things are really hard. They stated, too, that the use of Arabic is an unescapable matter, in a way or in another, the MT is present in FL classrooms. It is apparant

too, that teachers acknowledge the positive role of Arabic in lowering their students' affective filter; and this is what we have noticed during the classes we observed wherein when teachers resort to Arabic, the students become energetic, more motivated and show more interest in their learning. But in some classes where teachers forbid the use of Arabic, the students keep silent and are not interested in the lessons except some good students. Another significant finding is that which is related to the teachers' higher proportion who are not sure whether Arabic use hinders the students' learning or not despite the fact that their attitudes reported earlier are negative when they indicated that Arabic does not help the learning of grammar and other language skills except vocabulary. Another surprising result concerns the teachers' admission that they feel guilty and unprofessional whenever they use Arabic in their teaching and this is a sign that they are not convinced of the pedagigical role of Arabic in EFL classes but are forced to do so due to some factors that are the core of the forthcoming interviews.

4.2.3. Section Three: The Analysis of Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic in the EFL Classrooms

Research question 2: To what extent is Arabic used in English classes in Touat region?

To find out the teachers' actual use of Arabic for some proposed purposes in their classrooms, the third section of the questionnaire consisting of two parts, part A which is about 'the use of Arabic for language purposes', and part B which is concerned with 'the use of Arabic for non-language purposes', is analysed. The teachers' responses to the questionnaire marked as 'always, often, and sometimes' were combined together to calculate the teachers' actual use of Arabic for the proposed functions; whereas those marked as 'rarely and never' were combined together to indicate the teachers' non-use of Arabic for the indicated functions.

4.2.3.1. Part A: Teachers' use of Arabic for Language Purposes

To reveal the teachers' actual use of Arabic in their classrooms, we suggested the following language purposes that they could possibly rely on:

Question 1:

Table 4.24. Teachers' Actual use of Arabic to Explain Difficult Vocabulary

Q1. Do you use Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	9	7.5%
Often	17	14.2%
Sometimes	55	45.8%
Rarely	30	25%
Never	9	7.5%
Total	120	100%

From table 4.24, it is revealed that (67.5%) of the teachers use Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary, only (32.5%) rarely do so. We notice that this is compatible with their attitudes towards Arabic use for vocabulary explanation for which the majority (68.4%) agree. Regarding the effect of MT on vocabulary learning, some studies showed that MT is the prior knowledge upon which learners should build up their FL learning such as Cook (2001) and Butzkamm (2009) especially by using translation as a strategy to learn new words and even at the level of sentences to help students' understanding. This finding is in line with Al-balawi (2016) and Ahmed (2015) who concluded that (72%) of Saudi teachers and (67%) of Sudanese teachers' used Arabic to explain new vocabulary respectively. It also aligns with Elmetwally Elmenshawy (2012) whose results revealed that (75%) of the Emirati secondary school teachers used Arabic to explain vocabulary and especially abstract items.
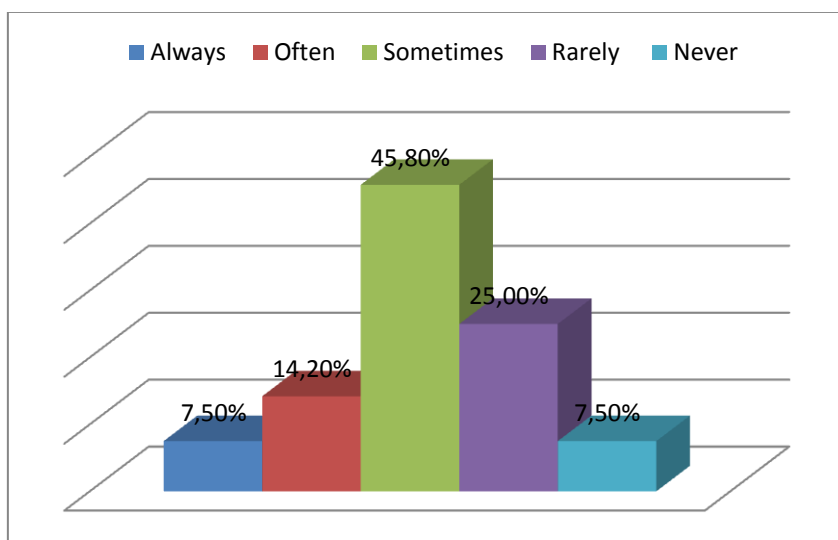
Diagram 4.20. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Explain Difficult Vocabulary

Question 2:

Table 4.25. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Explain Grammatical Items

Q2.Do you use Arabic to explain grammatical items?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	3	2.5%
Often	2	1.66%
Sometimes	20	16.7%
Rarely	40	33.3%
Never	53	44.2%
Missing answers	2	1.66%
Total	120	100%

On the one hand, (77.5%) of the respondents state that they never use Arabic to explain grammar in their teaching and this matches with their attitudes stated earlier (see table 4.12) and which revealed that (49.1%) of them disagree with such use. Only (20.9%) sometimes use Arabic for grammatical ends. This means that the teachers do not rely on Arabic in teaching grammar. On the other hand, this result does not align with some of the

evidence brought about by some scholars and researchers (Al-balawi, 2016; Ahmed, 2015; Cook, 2001;Duff & Polio, 1994 ,Franklin, 1990; Karma and Hajjaj, 1989) who argued that the use of the leaners' MT is useful in teaching grammar of the FL . Cook (2001), for instance, advanced that among the many effective things that teachers may do with learners' L1 is the explanation of grammar, he added that most of the research done on cognitive processing found out that "even advanced L2 users are less efficient at absorbing information from the L2 than from the L1" (p. 414). He additionally added that "the main argument for using the L1 for grammar is effeciency of understanding by the students" (p. 415). Our findings mismatch too with results reported by Franklin (1990) who indicated that (88%) of the surveyed Scotish teachers used their students' MT for explaining grammar and here, we should keep in mind that English is a second language in Scotland and the learners can be in perpetual contact with it outside their classrooms. Karma and Hajjaj (1989), for instance,found that (66%) of the teachers they surveyed reverted to Arabic so as to explain grammar. Ahmed (2015) and Al-balawi (2016) indicated that (50%) of Sudanese secondary school teachers and (80%) of Saudi secondary teachers reported their reliance on Arabic in explaining   grammar   lessons.
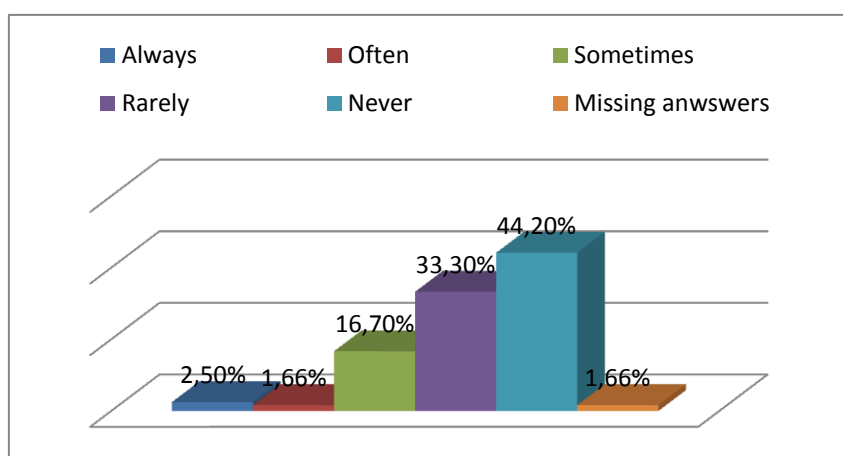
Diagram 4.21. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Explain Grammatical Items

Question 3:

Table 4.26. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Explain Tasks' Instructions

Q3. Do you use Arabic to explain tasks' instructions?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	0	0%
Often	5	4.2%
Sometimes	23	19.2%
Rarely	41	34.2%
Never	51	42.5%
Total	120	100%

As for the use of Arabic for tasks' instructions, table 4.26 clearly shows that the majority of the participants (76.7%) never do so, though (23.4%) of them sometimes do. This findings is not in accordance with some earlier mentioned studies (Atkinson 1987; Cameron, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2013; Harbord, 1992; Mohebbi & Alavi, 2014). Cameron (2010), for instance, highlighted the importance of MT in carrying on tasks and helping particular learners who do not understand. She added that "often the instructions to an activity may be more complex than the activity itself" (p. 211) that is why the use of MT is justified but with foreign language simplifications that should be repeated in the same form each time the learners are engaged in the same activities so as for them to get familiar with such instructions; and they would steadily understand them without resort to their MT. Harbord (1992), for instance, stated that getting involved in activities is a great opportunity for teachers and learners to communicate, that is why in case the activities' instructions are too complex, it is better for them to use MT for explanations and simplifications.Hall and Cook (2013), in a universal survey, reported that (50.6%) of teachers from different nationalities prepare for activities in their learners' MT before switching to English. Mohebbi and Alavi,

too, found that Iranian teachers use Persian in cases where tasks' instructions are lenghthy and

complexe.
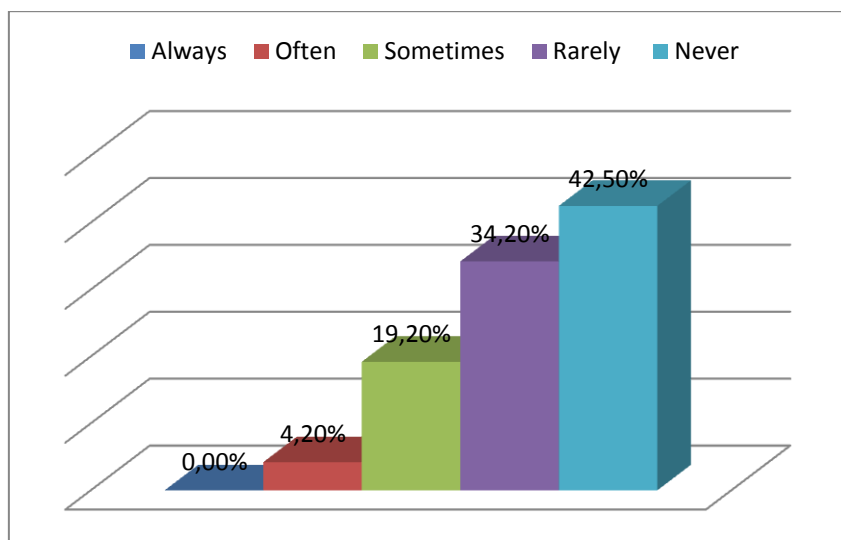
Figure 4.22. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Explain Tasks' Instructions

Question 4:

Table 4.27. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Explain Reading Passages

Q4. Do you use Arabic to explain reading passages?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	1	0.83%
Often	1	0.83%
Sometimes	19	15.8%
Rarely	35	29.2%
Never	63	52.5%
Missing answers	1	0.83%
Total	120	100%

As table 4.27 highlights, the majority of the respondents (81.7%) said that they never use

Arabic to explain reading passages. Only (17.12%) said they sometimes use it. we know well

that teaching the reading skill involves mainly comprehension activities which, in their turn,

consist of a variety of questions such as answering "wh" questions or/and yes/no questions, finding synonyms and/or opposites of given words and/or expressions, summerising a paragraph, suggesting titles ...etc. Therefore, being involved in a reading comprehension activity implies frequently that both teachers and learners switch to Arabic for comprehension ends. We have found that (68.3%) of teachers held positive attitudes and reported Arabic use to explain new vocabulary (see table 20), and since teaching vocabulary is included in the reading skill, we notice here that teachers contradict themselves. Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) noted that "translation [...] is a subset of reading comprehension, whether we use it openly as an explicit class activity or individually as an internal device to help us clarify meaning" (p. 198). Some other scholars recommended the use of the learners' MT for this practice (Atkinson, 1987 ; Deller & Rinvolucri, 2008; Harbord, 1990; Nation, 2003). Deller and Rinvolucri (2008) suggested a wide range of activities which are based on the MT of the learners among which cooperative reading comprehension is one. To prepare such an activity, firstly, the teacher chooses a text in English which is accompanied by comprehension questions; translates both the text and questions into the MT. Secondly, he prepares two versions of the text, one version contains the first half of the text in MT and the second in English. The second version contains the first half of the text in English and the second in MT and stressing the point that the questions should be asked in the opposite language to the text but answered in the same language in which the questions were asked. However, in the Algerian context teachers, who rely on translation in their teaching, generally use it only in a conservative way; and if they wish to rely on it as a teaching technique, and overtly use it for pedagogical ends, they will be frequently discouraged by inspectors among whom some espouse the monolingual teaching as the best way of teaching and learning foreign languages. Moreover, if it happens that they make any concessions, Arabic use (translation) is frequently recommended as the last resort. i.e. in extreme situations where students do not understand.
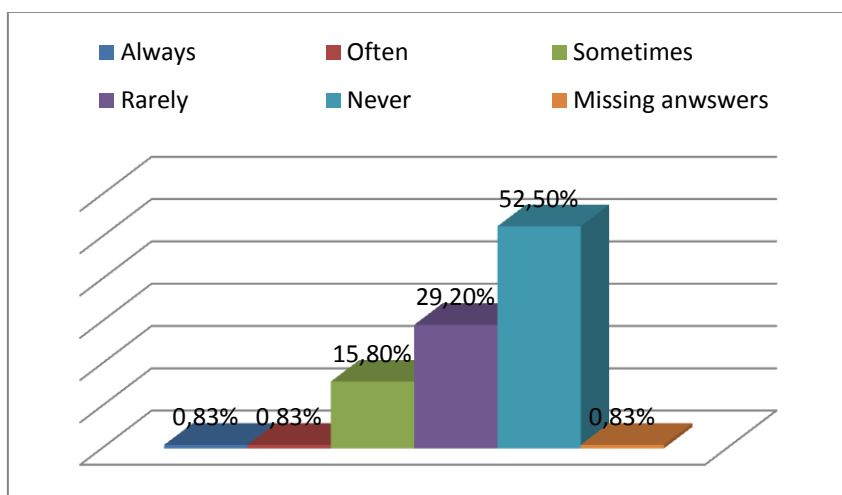
Diagram 4.23. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Explain Reading Passages

Question 5:

Table 4.28. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Translate Sentences

Q5. Do you use Arabic to translate sentences?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	2	1.66%
Often	6	5%
Sometimes	21	17.5%
Rarely	45	37.5%
Never	46	38.33%
Missing answers	1	0.83%
Total	120	100%

Another area where teachers avoid Arabic use is the translation of sentences. Table 4.28 reveals that though 75.83% of the them never translate sentences into Arabic, still this practice is identified.17.5%, 5%, 1.66% of the participants sometimes, often and always translate sentences respectively. However, some earlier research proved translation efficiency as a strategy to teaching and learning a FL. Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009) stated that "all translation entails thinking about languages, the relationship between language and thought, language and the mind" (p. 197).They suggested the use of sentence translation as an effective

strategy to foster learners' learning. They too suggested some translation-based activities such as having students working individually or in pairs and looking for film titles on the internet and try to find their equivalent titles in their MT and vice versa,
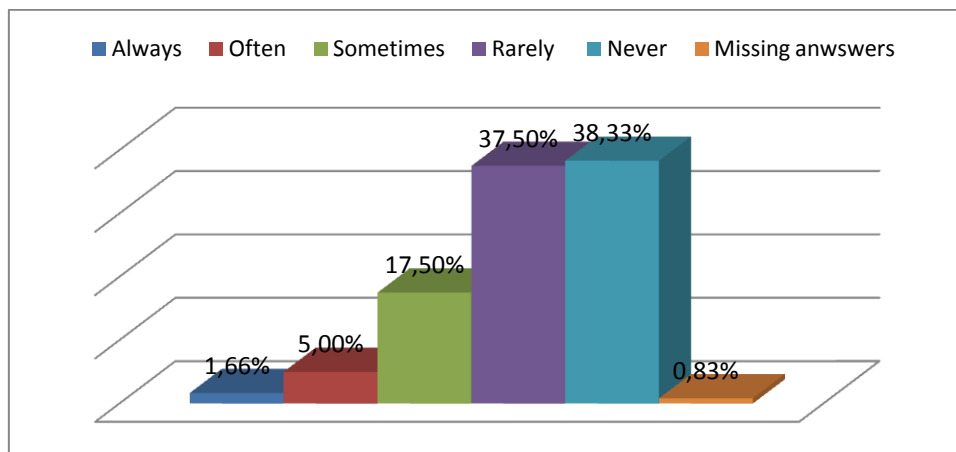
Diagram 4.24. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Translate Sentences

4.2.3.1.1. Discussion

After the analysis of the questions (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 and Q5), contrary to our expectations, we concluded that the teachers' actual use of Arabic for different language purposes is surprisingly not that which matches with some of the positive attitudes they voiced earlier. However, we found that their actual use of Arabic for explaining vocabulary and explaining grammatical points is in accordance with their former attitudes concerning these two areas. As revealed in table 4.24, explaining vocabulary headed the other areas of using Arabic. However, for other areas such as explaining grammar, explaining tasks' instructions, translating reading passages, and translating sentences, the teachers used Arabic in practice less than expected.

4.2.3.2. Part B: Teachers' Use of Arabic for Non-Language Purposes

Question 6:

Table 4.29. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Reduce Barriers with Students

Q6. Do you use Arabic in class to reduce barriers with your students?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	7	5.8%
Often	17	14.2%
Sometimes	45	37.5%
Rarely	27	22.5%
Never	24	20%
Total	120	100%

As shown in table 4.29, a considerable number of teachers (57.5%) said that they use Arabic to reduce barriers with their students; while (57.5%) use Arabic for this urpose, (42.5%) of them do not. This is one of the non-language functions whereby teachers may maintain relationships with their students in different ways depending on their divergent personalities. On the one hand, there are teachers who give their teaching a more humanistic trait and therefore speak Arabic freely and comfortably; they tackle many non-language topics (about their private lives, the students' families, the school's administration,... etc). On the other hand, there are teachers who prefer not to discuss topics except those relared to the official syllabus and avoid using Arabic or being engaged in non-language topics. There is another category of teachers who are more rigid and authoritative; they do not only avoid using Arabic themselves but forbid even their students from using it during the English classes hoping that this practice will lead to efficient teaching and learning. Our result is in agreement with some of the previously mentioned studies in literature review (Cook, 2001; Mohebbi & Alavi, 2014; Elmetwally Elmenshawy, 2012). Mohebbi and Alavi (2014) and

Elmetwally Elmenshawy (2012), for instance, found that (69.44%) of the Iranian teachers and (40%) of the Emirati teachers used their learners' MT to reduce barriers and maintain relationships with them. Cook (2001) argued that the use of the learners' MT may create a friendly atmosphere which, in its turn, leads to facilitating student-teacher relationship. Therefore, students' anxiety would be lowered down and thus they could be engaged in lessons easily and efficiently.
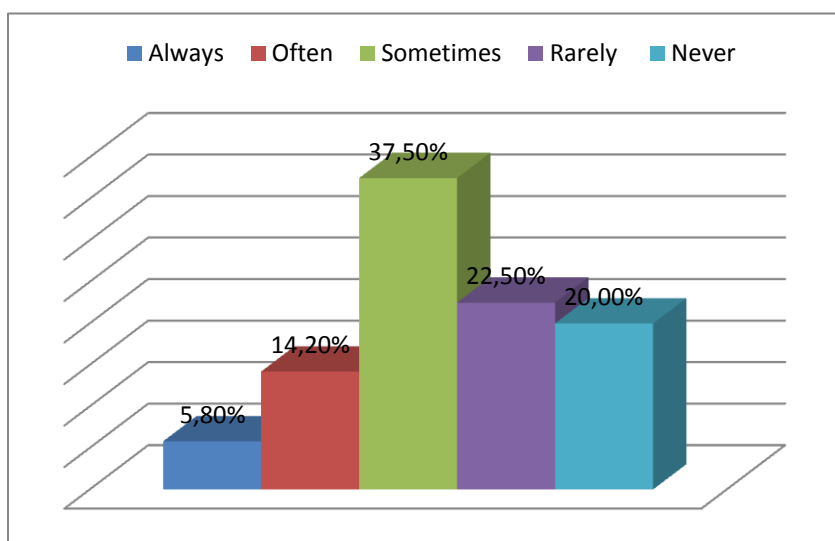
Diagram 4.25. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Reduce Barriers with their Students

Quastion 7:

Table 4.30. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Tell their Students Jokes

Q7. Do you use Arabic to tell jokes?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	4	3.3%
Often	7	5.8%
Sometimes	32	26.7%
Rarely	34	28.3%
Never	43	35.8%
Total	120	100%

The most common response to this question , as shown in table 4.30, is that (26.7%) of the teachers sometimes use Arabic to tell their students jokes; whereas (35.8%) of them never and (28.3%) rarely do so. Again here this non-language fuction, which may be attributed to

Arabic, depends heavily on teachers' personalities and individuals' differences. In this vein Harbord (1992) suggested that speaking with the students in their MT has a positive impact on them as it would lower their affective filter and prepare them to the lesson. He pointed out that "teachers chat in L1 before class starts and tell jokes in L1 to reduce students' anxiety" (p. 354). Then, telling jokes may be a useful strategy that teachers may use for the benefit of the students as it leads to the creation of more comfortable and friendly learning atmospheres. However, this strategy could be a source of problems for teachers mainly with overcrowded classrooms and misbehaving students who do not understand that telling a joke for a moment is just to break the ice and let them feel at ease. Such students keep laughing for a long period of time and misbehaving either by making noise or saying disrespectful comments that undoubtedly would hinder the teaching and learning process. Then, if teachers intend to rely on such a strategy, they should be careful as to what time and with whom to implement it.
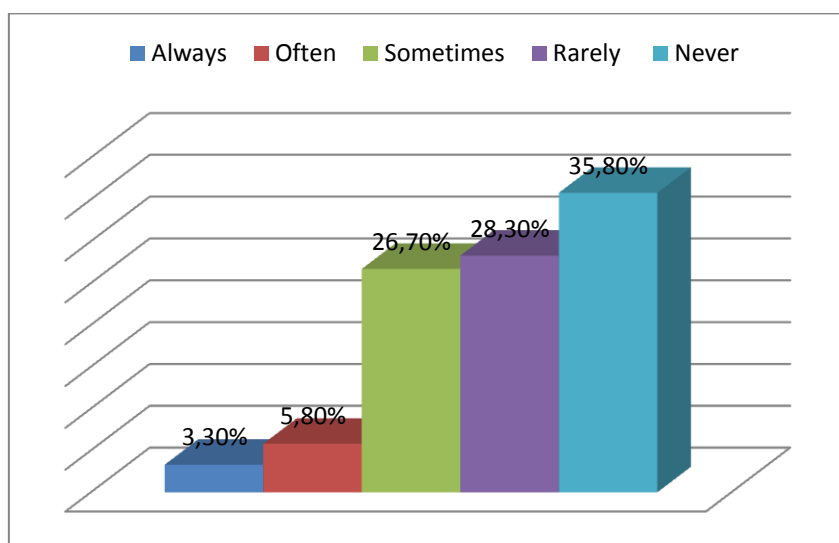
Diagram 4.26. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Tell their Students Jokes

Question 8:

Table 4.31. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Motivate and Attract their Students

Q8. Do you use Arabic to motivate and attract your students?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	5	4.2%
Often	10	8.3%
Sometimes	39	32.5%
Rarely	27	22.5%
Never	39	32.5%
Total	120	100%

Data from table 4.31 shows that (55%) of the teachers surveyed never use Arabic to motivate and attract their students and (45%) sometimes do so. This result is in accordance with their attitudes stated earlier towards this practice (see table 4.16). Indeed, some researchers documented this practice among teachers (Bozorgian & Fallahpour, 2015; Brook-Lewis, 2009; Schweers, 1999). Bozorgian & Fallahpour's (2015) reported that teachers' use of Persian leads to students' encouragement and motivation to learn more. Both Brook-Lewis (2009) and Schweers (1999) concluded that the incorporation of Spanish as the MT of their students into English classes had a great positive impact on their learning; whilst the former argued that the rehabilitation of his students' MT as a facilitating didactic tool made them less stressed and consciously involved in the learning process, the latter, claimed that the recognition of his Puerto Rican students' MT made them change their negative attitudes towards English and therefore, were encouraged to learn it more. In fact, using Arabic for various purposes has a positive impact on students' motivation and encouragement to learn English. Since they come to the classroom in hope to learn a foreign language that they, generally, resent due to social reasons as some teachers stated in the interviews , teachers should be wise enough and be aware of the role of their MT and do not reject it or threaten them in case they use it. After all, a language is a salient part of one's identity, thus

estimating students' MT would help teachers to overcome plenty of drawbacks in their teaching.
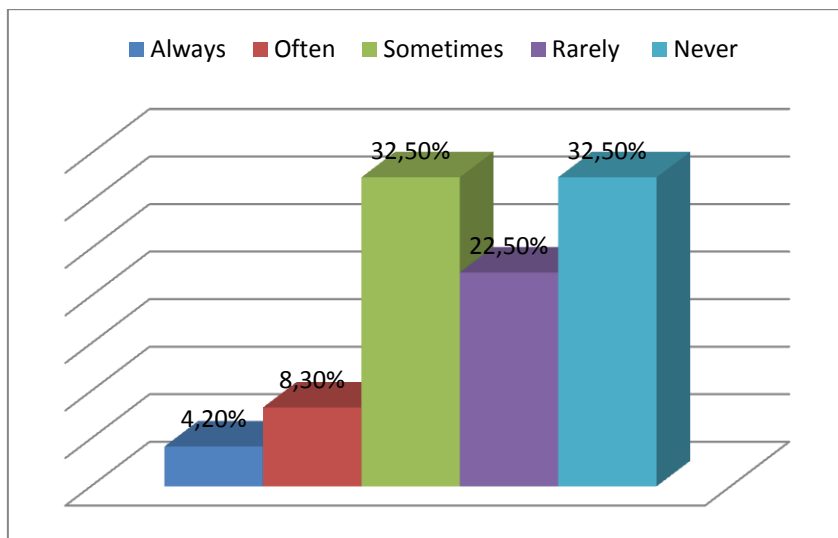
Diagram 4.27. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Motivate and Attract their Students

Question 9:

Table 4.32. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Advise their Students about their Studies

Q9. Do you use Arabic to give your students advice about their studies?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	14	11.7%
Often	39	32.5%
Sometimes	47	39.2%
Rarely	12	10%
Never	8	6.7%
Total	120	100%

Surprisingly and as indicated in table 4.32, the great majority of the respondents (83.4%) indicated that they use Arabic to advise their students about their studies and only (16.7%) rarely do so. This result is contradictory with the teachers' actual use of Arabic so as to reduce barriers with their students (See table 4.29) and motivate them (See table 4.31). The need to give advice to students about their studies in their MT, in our case in Arabic, often calls for reducing barriers with them in a way or another. Whenever teachers are engaged in

such a practice, they will inevitably establish more personal relationships with their students. Furthermore, on the one hand, if teachers really advise their students in Arabic to such an extent as they indicated, this means that they did not reveal the right extent to which they used Arabic for motivating and establishing personal relationships with them. On the other hand, they might well not indicate the right extent to which they advised them in Arabic. In the same vein, Cook (2001) noted that the "main benefit of the L1 for personal contact is naturalness"; he added that "when using the L1, the teacher is treating the students as their real selves rather than dealing with assumed L2 personas" (P. 416).
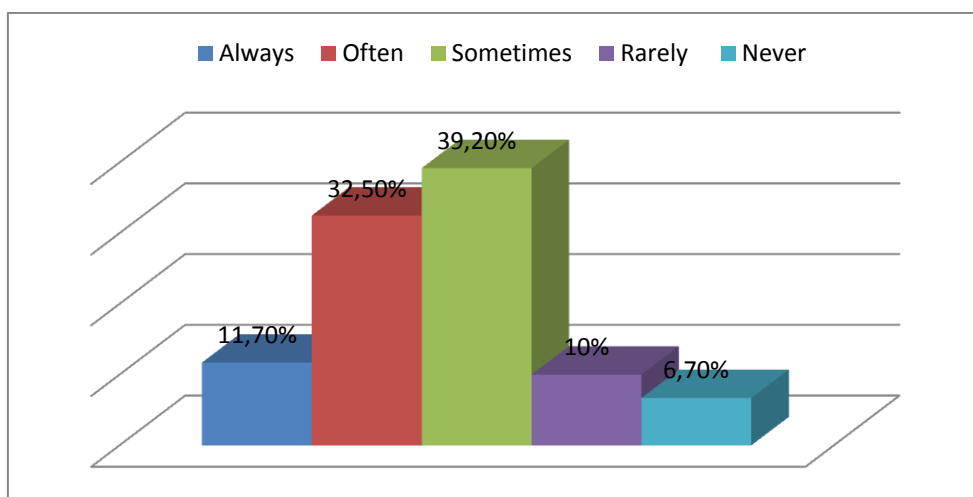
Diagram 4.28. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Advise their Students about their Studies

Question 10:

Table 4.33. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Manage their Classes

Q10. Do you use Arabic to manage your class?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	2	1.66%
Often	9	7.5%
Sometimes	28	23.3%
Rarely	40	33.3%
Never	41	34.2%
Total	120	100%

Concerning using Arabic to control the class and as it is stated in table 4.33, (67.5%) of the teachers reported that they do not use it for such a function. Only (32.5%) of them said that they sometimes do. This finding matches with the teachers' attitudes towards Arabic use for this purpose and which were reported in table 4.18 and the findings of Ahmed (2015) who surveyed Sudanese teachers and concluded that only (45%) of them often resort to Arabic for such a function. However, some other researchers highlighted the valuable role of learners' MT in facilitating classroom management (Al-balawi, 2016; Auerbach, 1993;Cameron, 2010; Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992). Al-balawi (2016) stated that (54%) of the Saudi teachers reverted to Arabic for managerial purposes. Cameron (2010) argued that "there may be more serious breaches of discipline that require the use of first language" (p. 212). To establish order in the classroom does not depend merely on the seriousness of misbehaving but it is highly interrelated with students' level. Thus, if poor students misbehave, to make the message understood, teachers had better warn them in their MT and even make the communicative act seem more natural as Cameron (2010) pointed out "when discipline is called for, it is as if teacher and pupils have to leave the pretend climate of the lesson and be real people in their real world for the seriousness" (p. 212) .
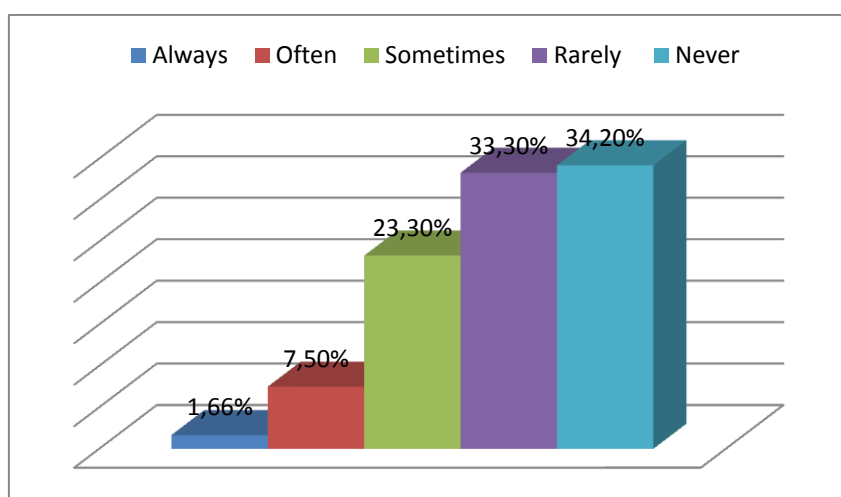
Diagram 4.29. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Manage their Classrooms

Question 11:

Table 4.34. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Check their Students' Understanding

Q11. Do you use Arabic to check the students' understanding ?	Frequency	Percentage
Always	1	0.8%
Often	10	8.3%
Sometimes	32	26.7%
Rarely	31	25.8%
Never	46	38.3%
Total	120	100%

As it is shown in table 4.34, only (35.8%) of the teachers said that they sometimes use Arabic to check their students' understanding, and (64%) of them reported that they never do that. This result mismatches with the teachers' attitudes towards this point reported in table 4.17 where only (32.5%) of them showed negative attitudes towards checking students' understanding in Arabic, and (44.1%) expressed positive attitudes towards this practice. Put it in another way, the teachers did not reveal either their right attitudes or their actual use of Arabic regarding this practice.
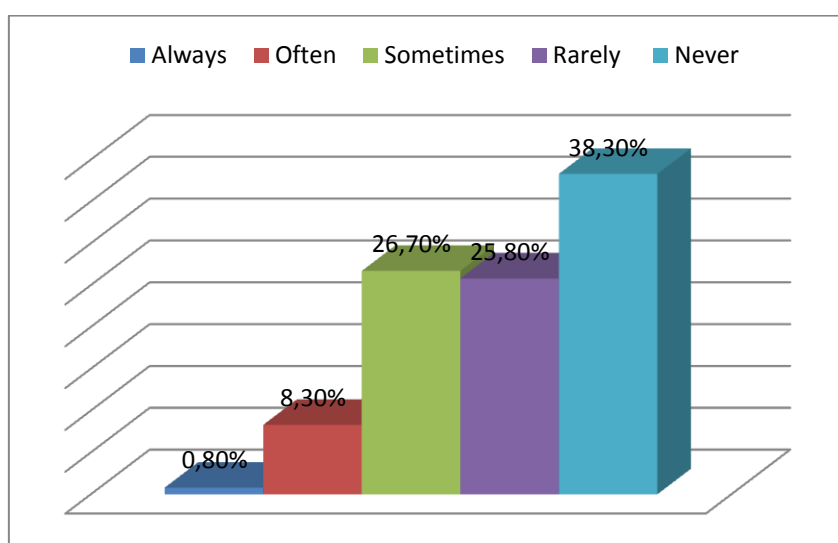
Diagram 4. 30. Teachers' Actual Use of Arabic to Check their Students' Understanding

4.2.3.2.1. Discussion

As far as teachers' actual use of Arabic for non-language purposes is concerned, our results showed that some of the teachers' practices are consistent with some of their attitudes such as attracting the students, motivating them, and managing the classes. But as for checking their students' understanding, the teachers' practice does not coordinate with their attitudes reported earlier in table 4.17. The teachers tend to use more Arabic to reduce barriers and advise their students about their studies than using it to tell them jokes.

4.3. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the findings of the questionnaires. Firstly, it showed the teachers' attitudes towards using Arabic for various purposes in EFL classes and secondly, it reported their actual use of Arabic for some proposed functions in their classrooms. Concerning the attitudes, they were first represented via descriptive statistics where frequencies, percentages, and means were counted for each item separately and then for each whole part so as to measure the teachers' attitudes accurately. The overall findings showed that teachers highly agree upon some practices concerning the status of Arabic and English languages in EFL classrooms such as allowing Arabic use, being self-decision-makers concerning the circumstances in which they think that Arabic use is appropriate or not, and English being the main language of instruction. Moderate level of agreement was reported on other areas of Arabic use such as the impact of Arabic use on both learners' learning and teachers' teaching. We noticed that teachers held negative attitudes toward the role of Arabic in boosting students' learning of grammar, and other language skills despite the fact that they strongly agree on its positive role in facilitating vocabulary learning. Other findings that could be significant are the teachers' belief that Arabic should not be prohibited from their classes despite the fact that they did not really show positive attitudes towards its role in most of the practices proposed. Additionally, they admitted that they feel guilty and unprofessional whenever they resort to Arabic during their lessons which can imply that they are not

convinced that students' MT is a useful medium that may help them in their teaching. As far as the actual use of Arabic for language purposes is concerned, we found that the teachers' use of Arabic to explain new words (vocabulary) headed the other language purposes such as grammar, reading passages, translation of sentences, and explanation of tasks' instructions for which they reported very little use of Arabic. However, concerning Arabic use for non-language purposes, more Arabic was used to reduce barriers with students, to motivate and attract them, and to advise them about their studies. It is worth noting that teachers' actual use of Arabic does not align with most of the literature reviewed previously in chapter two.

CHAPTER FIVE

Interviews and Classroom

Observations Findings

5.1. Introduction

5.2. Analysis of the Interviews

5.2.1. Teachers' Use of Arabic Due to Students' Factor

    5.2.1.1. Students' Motivation

    5.2.1.2. Students' Level of Proficiency

    5.2.1.3. Students' Social and Cultural Background and Parents' Role

5.2.2. Teachers' Resort to Arabic Due to the School System

    5.2.2.1. Overloaded Curriculum and Time Restrictions

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5.2.3. Teachers' own Professional Development and Arabic Use

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5.2.4. Discussion

5.3. Analysis of the Classroom Observations

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    5.3.1.1. Discussion

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    5.3.2.1. Discussion

5.3.3. The Explanation of Tasks' Instructions

    5.3.3.1. Discussion

5.3.4. The Explanation of Grammatical Points

    5.3.4.1. Discussion

5.3.5. Checking Students' Understanding and Correcting their Mistakes

    5.3.5.1. Checking students' understanding

    5.3.5.2. Correcting Students' Mistakes

    5.3.5.3. Discussion

5.3.6. Classroom Management

5.4. Conclusion

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter data gathered via interviews and classroom observations are analysed so as to provide answers to research questions 3 and 4 (See below). Both types of data were analysed qualitatively, as explained in chapter three, in order to probe insightful information about teachers' perceptions of the use of Arabic in EFL classes. This chapter is divided into two parts: in the first part, we will present the findings of the interviews which are related to research question 3; in the second part, we will report the results of the classroom observations which aim at answering research question 4.

- **Research question 3 (RQ3):** What are the factors that lead teachers to use Arabic in EFL classes in Touat region?

- **Research question 4 (RQ4):** What functions do teachers use Arabic for in EFL classes in Touat region?

5.2. Analysis of the Interviews

This part reports the findings from teachers' interviews and it is divided into three sections. In order to answer the third research question "What are the factors that lead to the teachers' use of Arabic in EFL classes in Touat region?" 13 teachers were interviewed; data from the interviews were qualitatively analysed using thematic analysis. Accordingly, the following themes emerged:

a- Teachers' use of Arabic due to students' factor

- Students' motivation

- Students' level of proficiency

- Students' socio-cultural background and parents' role

b- Teachers' use of Arabic due to the school system

- Overloaded curriculum and time restrictions

- Lack of resources

c- Teachers' use of Arabic due to their own professional development

- Lack of training

- Personal experience with learning and teaching English

5.2.1. Teachers' Use of Arabic Due to Students' Factor
5.2.1.1. Students' Motivation

All the teachers justified their use of Arabic in their teaching with the students who are unmotivated towards learning foreign languages in general and English in particular. As it is known, motivation is a core factor in any field of learning and it can be affected by a number of extrinsic factors: the society the students live in; the influence of people who are close to learners; the teachers themselves and the method of teaching being used (Harmer, 2001). The teachers keep blaming the students for not showing interest in their learning. Baya, for instance, explained: *'Sometimes, as teachers, we feel that the use of Arabic is the only solution to make messages transmitted successfully to our students. You know the motivation of the students plays a crucial role in learning. They come to the classroom really unmotivated to learn, they are not interested in learning foreign languages not only English even French.'*

Another teacher, Amel, highlighted the same argument of motivation, but she focussed more on the teacher's duty and responsibility to sustain students' motivation, as she explained: *'As teachers we have to advise our students and raise their awareness to the importance of learning foreign languages. Personally, I keep telling them that learning English is very helpful in their lives, they use it in social media, in Facebook for example, most of their communication is done in English with foreign friends; after their graduation they may well need English if they intend to work in foreign petroleum and gas companies which require mastery of English language for hiring.'* She added *'I always advise them not*

to give up or say it is difficult and impossible to learn English. I keep telling them to read at least the texts that they have in their text-books, it is never late to learn. It is a matter of focus, when you get interested in your learning, things will come steadily and easily.'

In this respect, another participant, Youcef, pointed out:

'Nowadays students are totally different from those of the past. In the old days, when I started teaching in the 1990s, my students were really motivated and were eager to learn English even outside when I met them, they used to speak with me in English. But these days, as we find the students of such a low level of motivation and passive, we really feel responsible to find out a solution so as to attract them and get them more focused on their learning. Therefore, I think that the use of Arabic is one solution which may be helpful.'

5.2.1.2. Students' Level of Proficiency

Almost all the participants claimed that the students' proficiency level highly determines their use of Arabic i.e. the more the students are weak the more Arabic is used in the teaching process. They argued that they use more Arabic than they used to do in the past, simply because they believe that students were better in the past than nowadays. They believe too that it's their own duty to find ways to improve their students' level. When they try all the possible techniques such as using visual prompts, pictures, gestures and mime to explain different lessons' points and still their students face comprehension difficulty, they resort to Arabic. Karima, for instance, said:

'The first thing which influences my choice of language in my teaching is my students' level. When I face low proficient students who are too slow in their learning, I directly use Arabic, I cannot do a lesson totally in English and my students look at me and say "what does she say? What does she mean?" I cannot let them struggle with a foreign language they don't understand without looking for effective means which may help them comprehend. After all, we (teachers) are here to transmit knowledge to our students and without mutual understanding; things will not work for both of us'

Safia said:

'It is not bad to use Arabic, though some teachers do not think so. Normally, the purpose of teaching is to make the students grasp something they didn't know, or to reinforce some pre-knowledge. Explaining in any way is acceptable since the most important point is to transmit knowledge, for me, personally, I think that it's not so bad to use Arabic from time to time especially with those students who are very weak but who are keen to learn English.'

She added:

'The teacher should make a balance among his/her students and try to attract them all to the lesson; working only with the minority of the brilliant ones is unfair. At the middle school, as my students told me, some teachers work only with a small group of students who participate, understand, and do their homework at the expense of the others. They should not neglect the other proportion of the learners. Actually, teachers should keep in mind that wherever you go, exceptions exist and students are not of the same level and ability to learn. I may give you an example of a very weak class that I have this year, when I explain the lesson in English; most of them do not understand or follow me. That's why I revert to Arabic most of the time; it is illogical and impossible for me to do the lesson with four or five students only.'

5.2.1.3. Students' Social and Cultural Background and Parents' Role

All the participants believe that it is difficult to teach English exclusively in English because of students' negative attitudes towards foreign languages. Some teachers argued that this is partly due to the negative impact of their primary education where sometimes teachers were unqualified. One of the middle school teachers, for instance, said that *'the basis should be built in the primary education in French language in what concerns foreign languages; but unfortunately, our pupils did not get that appropriate basis. They come to middle school without mastering even the alphabet'*. The teachers added that the attitudes of other people

surrounding the learners, too, have a great impact on their learning such as their parents and the society as a whole.

Houda, for instance, stated:

'From a psychological side, pupils in rural areas really do reject and resent foreign languages. They are very attached to their own culture and consider both English and French languages as extra subjects. The parents are absent; they do not care for their children's learning. In addition to this, foreign languages are absent in the pupils' social milieu.'

Similarly, Amel shares Houda's point of view and explains this phenomenon in the following excerpt:

'I think that they (the students) are predisposed to resent foreign languages not only English but French as well. They have some prejudices that learning foreign languages is bad, perhaps they connect that with the colonisation process. Prejudice which stems from their parents and grandparents. We have to add the specificity of the region; you know here in Adrar, people are strongly attached to Arabic and Islam. People give much more importance to Quranic schools, shrines (Zawayas) and mosques; most parents favour their children to learn Quran and get religious education and do not care if they master foreign languages or not.' and this is confirmed by Bouhania's (2008) findings concerning the French language when he pinpoints that "there is a societal post-colonial reaction to French on the part of Touat people; a fact which is well verified through the young urban speakers who present a clear tendency towards avoiding the oral and written use of that foreign language" (p.23). As for the parents' impact on their children's perceptions of foreign languages, he added that "in the case of Touat speech community, the learning of a foreign language is less valued than knowing 'Arabic'… learning foreign languages was not encouraged by the parents" (p. 23) that is why in most of the cases, we find the students indifferent to learning them.

In the same vein, Aya said:

'The role of the society has a great impact on students' learning. When children are raised in a milieu in which resentment of foreign languages is pervading, it is hard to make the lessons interesting and appealing only by using English language. We are all the time faced with students who are hostile to learning foreign languages; it is a real battle for us. In Algiers for example, I taught learners who were extremely motivated and keen to learn English, you know it is a matter of milieu; in big cities, things are totally different with the technological advancements and even learners' needs that differ from one context to another. In the north, learners are more open-minded to foreign culture and very energetic and active'.

Furthermore, the teachers expressed their concerns over parents' role. They stated that most parents do not follow up the progress of their children and do not encourage them to learn foreign languages. They wished if parents were more involved in the educational process. They thought that there is a gap between family and school in our society. Safia, for instance, admitted:

'Most parents do not care about their children's learning. If it happens that they pay for some tuition for them, they usually focus on the principal subjects such as Mathematics, Physics and sometimes Arabic, but they do not pay for learning English. However, some primary and middle level learners pay for some tuition in French but not English. Education is not limited to school alone, it should be sustained at home as well.'

5.2.2. Teachers' Resort to Arabic Due to the School System
5.2.2.1. Overloaded Curriculum and Time Restrictions

The majority of the teachers admitted that they resorted to Arabic to explain lessons because of the overloaded curriculum and time restrictions. Teachers who worked with both the old and the new curricula noticed that unlike the old curricula, the new ones are overloaded and their contents are above students' level, and they negatively affect their

teaching and their students' learning as well. As the following teachers explained (Amel and Youcef):

'With the ancient syllabus, themes were easier than the new curriculum's ones. In the past, the themes tackled were very simple and directly related to students' own concerns such as sports, pollution, and mass media. That's why the students were more interested in learning English. Nowadays, we cannot deny the fact that the topics proposed are interesting but are not close to our students' needs and they are above their level. Amel said: *'Let me give you the example of the unit 'Astronomy' whose texts are not only very lengthy and too difficult to grasp, but make the students bored. While dealing with them, I find myself obliged to explain many words and even whole sentences in Arabic'.*

In the same respect, Ahlam pointed out that,

'Actually, I'm not against using Arabic and I'm not totally for using Arabic. Personally, I use it when I need it though in the past I did not use it as much as I do now because of some factors. In the past, programmes were light and we had enough time to explain the lessons. However, with the new overloaded programmes, I feel like I am forced to use too much Arabic. You know we do not have enough time to explain lessons.'

She added that

'The number of hours assigned to English subject per week is not enough to such a heavy programme. The first Middle School year pupils, for example, have only two hours a week and a very lengthy programme which a teacher is required to finish on time. It is a matter of language, full of new words that we should transmit to our pupils. It is not only a matter of memorising words. For example, we sometimes have to explain a lot of new words and how to use them to form meaningful sentences. More than this, with Middle school pupils who are beginners, much more importance is given to the written form and pronunciation, how can a teacher manage all that in two or three hours a week with overcrowded classrooms without using Arabic.'

Another teacher, Hayet, again put emphasis on time restriction and said:

'Time is always a problem; we cannot finish the whole programme in the appropriate due time. I want my pupils to benefit from my teaching in whatever a way, I decide myself, suits them. Even with the new generation, though some of the sequences were deleted still time remains as a serious issue. That's why sometimes; I prefer to use some Arabic in order to gain time. With the first year, for instance, the programme is made up of four sequences after deleting one. However in practice, the first sequence took the whole first term to be accomplished and three other sequences still remain.'

5.2.2.2. Lack of Resources

All the participants expressed their conviction that without appropriate resources, teaching and learning will not take place efficiently. All the teachers complained of the lack of resources in their schools except one Middle school teacher, Hayet, who said: *'the administration helps all teachers and provides them with necessary tools; we have access to tools without exception'.* Another teacher, Soumia, said: *'I do not wait for the administration to do things for me; I rely on myself instead. I bring my own personal data show and speakers; I look for videos that are appropriate to my pupils on the net and try to improve my teaching strategies. But time restriction is always an obstacle'.* All the remaining participants agreed upon the lack of didactic tools, and even course-books which were sometimes not available for students to buy. The group of Middle school teachers (Ahmed, Asmaa) advanced that:

'We should not forget the facilitating role that some didactic tools may have in teaching and even in the pupils' comprehension. When teachers are provided with the necessary tools such as pictures, lap tops and projectors, teaching would be easier and learning would be more attractive. With the new generation syllabus, for instance, the listening skill is integrated at the middle school level and CDs and DVDs are not provided. As we told you, without the appropriate tools, teachers can do nothing to make pupils hear other

voices apart from their teachers' ones. Using short videos helps pupils to grasp plenty points and helps even teachers to minimise L1 use. But unfortunately our administration does not manage to make those tools available for us.'

In the same respect, Ahlam, too, highlighted the same issue and said:

'Among the reasons which make teachers revert to Arabic is the drastic lack of didactic tools. In the past, teachers were provided with pictures, flash cards... But now there is nothing, teachers are obliged to look themselves for things which may facilitate their teaching. You know, most of the time, we pay from our own pockets'.

5.2.3. Teachers' own Professional Development and Arabic Use
5.2.3.1. Lack of Training

Only two participants (Ahlam and Youcef) believe that they benefited from the pre-service training they had. Ahlam who graduated from ITE and Youcef who studied in ENS thought that the training they did was efficient and helped them a lot in their teaching. However, the remaining teachers among whom are Safia, Ahmed, Houda, Halima, Baya, and Asmaa expressed their dissatisfaction with the training they had. They revealed that despite the fact that experienced teachers took in charge their training, most of the courses they attended were theory-based and lack practical aspects. One teacher, Ahmed, of the middle school group said:

'I think that some teachers overuse Arabic because of the lack of training. While enrolled in a four-weeks training programme, we had just useless theoretical courses without any practical considerations. What teachers need is practice, we are self-made teachers.'

Amel, Aya, Karima, Hayet and Soumia said that they have not been trained on teaching English apart from the TEFL module they had at university. They focused on the inspectors' role which was not done in appropriate ways to meet teachers' needs of practical issues. As Hayet explained in the following quote:

'Teachers need practical training; we want to be trained so as to deal with overcrowded classrooms without using Arabic. Once I asked the inspector to do a model course for us, mainly for novice teachers, but he did not accept. There is a gap between teachers and inspectors. Teachers are not given the opportunity to question or enquire about things they think may improve their teaching.'

5.2.3.2. Personal Experience with Learning and Teaching English

Almost all the teachers admitted that the teaching experience has a great impact on their attitudes towards Arabic use in their teaching. They added that teaching is a flexible profession and teachers cannot stick to one method or technique of teaching forever. They explain, for instance, how their attitudes towards Arabic use in FL teaching have changed due to various and different factors such as the difficulty of learners' comprehension of English, time pressure and difficulty to maintain relationship with learners through using the foreign language only. Soumia said:

'With time, I have realised that I should refrain from idealising English only use in my classrooms, pupils prefer a teacher with whom they may discuss their own preoccupations and this cannot be attained via English, after all, teaching is a humanistic act and I believe that establishing relationships with pupils is useful in a sense that it lowers their affective filter and gives them a push'

In the same vein, Hayet added:

'As a novice teacher, I was totally against Arabic use in my classes. I was convinced that English should be taught only in English because I was influenced partly by my formation (studies) and by teachers around me who did not favour Arabic use either. However, I realised, progressively, that my pupils showed an appealing difficulty at comprehension level; that is why I completely changed my attitudes towards Arabic use... I think that teachers should be freed from some constraints and let to do their work

comfortably. If a teacher uses Arabic and feels that it fits his/her pupils, why not opting for it as a technique to facilitate his/ her teaching overtly?'

Amel spoke about her first years of teaching and how some conditions such as the environment, the level of her students have influenced her teaching. She said:

'Each year is different from another. I believe that to learn a language we have to live it, to speak it and most importantly to practise it. Why is it called a living language? That is why I was against using another language to teach English. However, as I moved to the south, I found myself in a totally different situation, environment and students. I was disappointed because I faced very lazy and unmotivated students; I progressively made concessions and was forced to use Arabic. From my own experience, I can say that opinions and attitudes change, our teaching is in a constant influence of external as well as internal factors'.

5.2.4. Discussion

After the analysis of the interviews, we concluded that almost all the teachers agreed upon three prime factors which made them switch into Arabic during English lessons; they believed that the students' non-motivation, low level of proficiency, and their surrounding's negative perceptions toward foreign languages besides overcrowded curricula and time restrictions with drastic lack of resources motivated their choice of the medium of instruction in their classes. Furthermore, it was found that lack of training and personal experience are other factors mentioned by the teachers as reasons which lie behind their use of Arabic for different language and non-language purposes. All the teachers recognised that they use Arabic in their teaching but to different extents. However, only two middle school teachers were convinced of such use and the others said that only the circumstances led them to resort to Arabic otherwise they believed that English should be taught only in English i.e. monolingual teaching. They considered that type of teaching as the appropriate one under better conditions.

5.3. Analysis of the Classroom Observations

In previously done research, frequently, most researchers' aims revolved around the quantification of learners' MT or the TL used in EFL classes; and sometimes, they were concerned with the quantification of both languages used either by teachers or students. However, a part of the aims targeted in the current study is the identification of the diverse pedagogical purposes (functions) teachers in middle and secondary schools used their learners' MT (Arabic) for in EFL classes in Touat region. Hence, we used classroom observations to directly document those functions. As it was stated in the methodology chapter, a checklist (See appendix F) was used and the researcher ticked a function whenever it occurred in the lessons being observed. Accordingly, this second part of the fifth chapter aims to report the results of the classroom observations in order to answer research question 4 which is 'What functions do teachers use Arabic for in EFL classes in Touat region?'

Our observations revealed that the pedagogical functions for which Arabic is used by the participants vary from one teacher to another and six different instances are documented. They can be summarised in table (44).

Table 5.1. The Functions of the Learners' MT Manifested by Teachers

		The functions for which Arabic was used for
1		a- Explanation of difficult vocabulary
		b- Translation of sentences
2		- Explanation of reading passages
3		- Explanation of tasks' instructions
4		- Explanation of grammatical points
5		a- Checking students' understanding
		b- Correction of students' mistakes
6		- Classroom management

5.3.1. Explanation of Difficult Vocabulary and Translation of Sentences

After the scrutiny of the notes and checklists, it was found that the most frequently function of the learners' MT used among the participants is the explanation of difficult words

and the translation of sentences. Some of the teachers even recommended their students to have special notebooks so as to note down difficult words or any additional notes whenever they were provided with extra explanations or clarifications. In addition to this, they used Arabic equivalents of some English words whenever they felt that necessity though some teachers preferred the strategy that the students should find the Arabic items on their own. It was clearly noticed that the majority of the participants used Arabic to explain key words which were the core of lessons without which students could not maintain focus or get involved in the learning process as the participants claimed.

The first class to be considered is a four middle school year class with teacher Ahlam. The session was a written expression lesson about the protection of animals in danger of extinction (See Appendix G). Some examples of translated key words which were provided by Ahlam are illustrated in table (45).

Table 5.2. Examples of Difficult Words Explained in Arabic with a 4 MSY Class

Patterns in English	Patterns in Arabic
- hunt/ feed	يصطاد /يطعم -
- King	الملك -
- Queen	الملكة -
- Trap	فخ -
- Shelter	مأوى -
- Pollution	التلوث -
- Called	يسمى -
- Mistreat	يسيء المعاملة -
- to care	تعتني -
- Shoot	يطلق النار على -
- Treat	يعامل -

First, the teacher explained the activity's instructions totally in Arabic (the use of Arabic for explaining tasks' instruction emerged here) before assigning the activity as homework. The teacher had even brought some children books which she used as didactic tools; she showed her pupils some of the animals via pictures included in those books and about which they might speak in their paragraphs. Despite the fact that the books were written

in Arabic, the teacher acted as a translator and translated all the Arabic words into English. She argued that when necessary, visual aids and illustrations are very good strategies she relied on in order to get her pupils more involved and more interested in the lessons. She showed us a hand out about familiar adjectives in English with their equivalents in Arabic and French that she provided her pupils with. (See appendix H).

Not only words were translated, phrases too were sometimes explained in Arabic as it is illustrated in table (46).

Table 5.3. English Phrases Translated into Arabic with a 1 MSY Class

Patterns in English	Patterns in Arabic
- change the mood	- تغيير المزاج
- Return date	- تاريخ الإرجاع
- Exact time	- وقت محدد

Another writing lesson where the use of L1 (Arabic) was noticed was with a third secondary education year class (scientific stream). Prior to students' engagement in doing the activity, teacher Aya explained all the key notes provided in the book and the activity's instructions as well in Arabic. The writing topic was about completing and writing a letter of complaint (see appendix I), some of the key words she explained are illustrated in table (47).

Table 5.4. Words Explained in Arabic in a Writing Lesson with 3 Y ESC Class

Words in English	Words in English
- Disappointing	- محبطة
- Letter of complaint	- رسالة شكوى
- Wide range	- كثيرة و متنوعة
- Canoeing	- التجديف
- Rock-climbing	- تسلق الجبال
- Wind-surfing	- ركوب الأمواج
- Relaxing games	- العاب مسلية
- Residential centre	- مرقد
- Memorable	- ميتنساش طول حياتك تتفكر
- Non-kept promises	- يخلف الوعد\ وعود كاذبة
- Pitch the tent	- تركب خيمة

The students were asked to do the activity in groups of four to six members and they were allotted ten minutes to find as many examples as they could. Then, the teacher tried to elicit examples from them and jotted them down on the board. She sometimes had some students wrote by themselves on the board if they wished to do so. She accepted whatever examples they gave even if they were in Arabic as long as they were relevant to the writing topic with her instant translation into English. Her students were allowed to use Arabic freely to enquire about some words they did not know in English to accomplish their sentences. She turned around the classroom and tried to correct some of the sentences. At the end of the session, she asked them to write the whole letter at home and would be corrected later on in the coming session.

5.3.1.1. Discussion

Teacher Ahlam, who is the most experienced teacher (23 years of teaching) of our participants, is an advocate of Arabic use in English teaching. She is even convinced of the positive impact that it has on both teachers' teaching and pupils' learning. While interviewing her, she shared with us one of her own successful experiences with a first middle school year classroom pupils (fresh beginners). She told us that she used Arabic to teach them elementary vocabulary related to school and classrooms; she added that she helped them with translation of short sentences. According to her, learning vocabulary is not only a matter of memorisation but spelling too is an aspect that took much more time for the pupils to master. She said that it is her responsibility to teach them the right spelling of words and one of her strategies in doing so is the use of slates. She, too, focused on repetition (speaking skill session) of short paragraphs which would reinforce their pronunciation. On the usefulness of notebooks, in which her pupils wrote the Arabic translations of words and sentences, she argued that, as beginners most of them relied exclusively on their notebooks to write short paragraphs and if they were not provided with the Arabic equivalents, they would not be able to write down correct sentences. Furthermore, she acknowledged that her strategy in teaching vocabulary

and writing slowed down her programme's achievement but it is something that she had never regretted because she saw the fruits of her efforts with the students who really followed her instructions and became able to write acceptable paragraphs.

As far as teacher Aya is concerned, from the very short discussion we made with her just after the end of the session, she stated that using Arabic is a focal pillar in her teaching. She argued that she wants her students to comprehend the activities' instructions in order to get involved and follow her. She added that, generally, those instructions are usually beyond her students' level (See appendix I for more details about the lesson) and without resorting to Arabic for explanations, they will not be able to understand or write anything. We stated that Aya used Arabic in an effective way:

- Firstly, she successfully kept her students focused along the whole session's duration;

- Secondly, she enriched their vocabulary;

- Thirdly, she successfully made an energetic and active atmosphere wherein the teaching and learning processes were amalgamated and shared between the teacher and the students.

Other observed classes were two first year literary and philosophy stream classes with teacher Salima. The sessions were about listening and speaking lessons. (See more details about the lessons in appendixes J and K). First, the teacher explained the activity's instructions in Arabic and the students were allotted ten minutes to do the tasks in pairs, she helped them and provided them with any word they asked about. Some English patterns explained in Arabic are shown in tables (48) and (49).

Lesson 1

Table 5.5. Some English Patterns Explained in Arabic in a Listening and Speaking Lesson with a 1 Y LPH Class

Pattern in English	Pattern in Arabic
- What is rabies?	واش هو مرض الكلب -
- Vaccine against rabies	تطعيم ضد الكلب -
- What is the theory of relativity?	واش معنى نظرية النسبية -
- What is penicillin?	واش هو البنسلين -
- Formulated	ركب نستعملها مع الدواء نقولو تركيبة الدواء -
- Invented	اخترع -
- Discovered	اكتشف -
- Inventor	مخترع -

Lesson 2

Table 5.6. Some English Patterns Explained in Arabic in a Listening and Speaking Lesson with a 1 Y LPH Class

Patterns in English	Patterns in Arabic
- Habitat	مأوى الحيوان -
- Atmosphere	الهواء -
- Summer camping sites	مواقع التخييم الصيفي -
- Erode	تقتلع -
- Disappear	تنقرض\ تختفي -
- Getstuck	تلتصق -
- Holidaymakers	المصطافين -
- Fishermen	الصيادين -

5.3.2. Teachers' Explanation of Reading Passages

At the level of reading lessons, it was noticed that words and whole sentences were translated into Arabic. With a second year class, scientific stream, for instance, teacher Salima explained both words and sentences in Arabic. First, she read the whole text (see appendix L)

and on every occasion she encountered a new word, an expression or a sentence she knew her students did not understand or might hinder their comprehension, as an initial alternative, she encouraged her pupils to find the explanations, if they could not, she provided them with the equivalent patterns in Arabic. Some of the examples explained by the teacher are shown in table (50).

Table 5.7. Some Patterns Translated into Arabic in Reading Comprehension Lesson with a 2 Y ESC Class

Patterns in English	Patterns in Arabic
- Geometry	هندسة -
- Plane geometry	هندسة المستوي -
- Dimensions	أبعاد -
- Length	الطول -
- Width	العرض -
- Thickness	السمك -
- Right angle	زاوية قائمة -
- Acute angle	زاوية حادة -
- Obtuse angle	زاوية منفرجة -
- It has neither length nor thickness	معندهاش لا طول لا سمك -
- Geometry has many branches	الهندسة عندها بزاف انواع -
- A plane figure formed by two rays is called an angle	شكل في مستو مشكل من قطعتين مستقيمتين يسمى - زاوية

5.3.2.1. Discussion

Despite the fact that Salima used Arabic in a hope to motivate her students, and get them more engaged in their learning, her teaching is teacher centred. We noticed that she took the monopoly of the class. In the aforementioned reading session, for example, her students

were not given the opportunity to make neither loud nor silent reading. She read the text herself and while doing so, she put emphasis on the answers of the questions that were asked in the activity. She wrote on her own on the board. More than this, we noticed that she relied too much on Arabic and overused it; she gave minute details and explanations of various English patterns in Arabic and her students deliberately carried out discussions with her in Arabic and she responded to their requests in Arabic as well. Therefore, she broke all barriers with them. She admitted that she is heavily influenced by her specialty as a graduate in translation.

5.3.3. The Explanation of Tasks' Instructions

Almost all teachers use Arabic to explain tasks' instructions before the class set to work. In what follows are some instructions of tasks extracted from some observed lessons and the way they were translated by teachers into Arabic.

➢ **Instruction 1:**

It is extracted from Writing development lesson, third year secondary education, page 130. It is the same class observed with teacher Aya. (See Aya's session above and appendix I).

"The advertisement leaflet on the next page belongs to a holiday maker who has come back home from a disappointing adventure holiday abroad. Read it carefully, and then complete the letter of complaint below using the annotations in italics on the leaflet."

➢ **Teacher's Interpretation:**

The teacher held the book, read the instruction and provided either word by word translations or just general meanings. The teacher translated that instruction as:

راكوشايفين هاذ الاشهار على واحد مشا في عطلة بصح معجبوش الحال. قراه مليح من بعد كمل لكتيب تاع

هاذ الرسالة (رسالة شكوى). استعمل الجمل هاذ.

➢ **Instruction 2:**

It is extracted from a first year secondary education listening and speaking lesson, It's your

turn page 143. It is a pair work activity. It is the same class observed with Salima (See

appendix K). Its instruction is as follows:

'Look at the pictures on the right. Then use the cues in boxes A and B on the left to make a

dialogue.'

The example provided in the book is:

Ali: What will happen if we cut down the trees/ don't stop the deforestation/ pollute the sea?

Bachir: If ..., fish will die.

Teacher's Interpretation:

'لاحظو الصور من بعد استعملو العبارات الي ف box A and B باه تكتبو حوار'شكون يفكرن واش

نستعمل في الجمل؟

A student answered 'Conditional sentences with if', the teacher praised him and

immediately made a review of conditional type I and type II as a warming up step. Next, the

students were allotted ten minutes to work in pairs. Before they were allowed to write the

dialogues they proposed on the board, the teacher corrected any occurring mistakes. We

noticed that the teacher relied too much on Arabic in explaining the grammatical points and

vocabulary.

Another lesson in which the activity's instruction was explained in Arabic is a

phonetic lesson,

'Say it Loud and Clear', second secondary education on page 124 with teacher Halima (See

appendix M). In the first activity the instruction provided in the book is as follows:

'Listen to your teacher reading the poem below and the dialogues that follow and cross out

the letters which are not pronounced. An example is given to you.'

This instruction was explained by the teacher as:

The silent letter, what is the silent letter? واش تدير هنا تشطب الحرف غير المنطوق

Ok' for example in the word honest, 'h' is a silent letter, we do not pronounce it.

In the second activity, the question was reversed and the students were required to find out the spelling forms of the transcribed words. The instruction provided in the book is:

'Find the spelling forms of the transcribed words in the box'

The teacher explained it as follows:

'Now it is the opposite يعني العكس

<div align="center">هذه الكلمات فيها حروف غير منطوقة لازم تلقاهاو تكتب الاملاء الصحيح للكلمة'</div>

Ok. An example: /lisn/ the silent letter is't' we write the spelling 'listen' and the teacher highlighted the letter 't' to make the instruction clearer.

5.3.3.1. Discussion

We noticed that the explanation of activities' instructions in Arabic really motivated students and kept them focused on the lessons' objectives despite the fact that they sometimes lacked the appropriate vocabulary to propose answers to questions and made plenty of mistakes.

5.3.4. The Explanation of Grammatical Points

Other instances where Arabic use was documented were the explanation of grammatical points. For instance, a grammar lesson with a third year scientific stream class was about the conditional type I. It was taught by teacher Aya (See appendix N for more details about the lesson). First, the teacher wrote these two examples on the board:

Sentence 1: If they eat too little food or the wrong kind of food, they won't get enough energy.

Sentence 2: If they eat too much food, they will put on weight.

Next, she made sure that her students understand their meanings by translating the whole sentences into Arabic. After that, she asked them some questions such as 'What do these two sentences express?' She helped them by focussing on 'if' and the highlighted sentences too. A student answered in Arabic **'الشرط**, the teacher immediately gave the equivalent word in

English which is 'a condition'; she further asked 'What about a conditional sentence?' A student answered in Arabic **'جملة شرطية'**, the teacher then said yes ' **جملة الشرط و جملة جواب** **الشرط'**, as you see in sentence 1, the first clause (clause **جملة نقدر نقولهي** 'If they eat too little food or the wrong kind of food' is called in Arabic **'جملةالشرط'** whereas the second clause 'they won't get enough energy' is what is called in Arabic **'جملة جواب الشرط'**. The teacher gave the translation of this sentence as: **'لكان تاكل مكلة قليلة و لا نوعية مش مليحة ميوليش عندك طاقة'**. She reinforced her students' comprehension by providing another simpler example which is: 'If you revise your lessons, you will succeed'. She explained it in Arabic as **لوكان تراجع دروسك راح** **'تنجح'**. The two clauses which constitute the sentence were explained too in Arabic. The main clause explained as **'جملة مفيدة و أساسية لها معنى'** and the subordinate clause as **جملة غير اساسية** **'معندهاش معنى غير كاملة'**. After the explanation of the whole lesson with the focus on tense agreement, the teacher explained the instruction of the activity on page 116 in the third year secondary education book and some key words of the sentences it comprises.(See appendix N) She, then, allotted the students ten minutes to do the activity in pairs. At the correction phase, the students proposed their answers individually and the teacher made remarks and corrected some mistakes in Arabic. For instance, she said 'Be careful, no longer **معنتها** negative form **نفي** in Arabic, **كفاش ندير نفي** in present simple? A student answered 'do not', she said 'Yes, good. That's it, then, the negative of 'you no longer earn enough money' is 'you do not earn enough money'.

Look here it is the third singular pronoun ok 'The doctor hospitalize you for two or three weeks'. How to write the verb in this case? Remember what pronoun can replace the subject 'the doctor'? **هناي؟ واش تزيد للفعل** present simple. A student answered 'If the doctor hospitalizes you for two or three weeks, you will lose your job'. The teacher said 'Yes, good's' **هناي نزيد**. Simultaneously, the teacher wrote the corrected sentences on the board whenever a sentence was discussed. When she finished, the students were allowed to have the correction copied down in their copybooks.

In the same vein, a session in which middle school teacher Asmaa used Arabic to explain grammatical points with a first middle school year class was observed. The lesson was about possessive pronouns. The teacher introduced the lesson by writing its title on the board 'Possessive pronouns' and asked her students 'Do you know what possessive pronouns are?' 'How do you say possessive pronoun in Arabic? One of the students answered in Arabic 'أسماء الإشارة', another one said 'أنا'. As no one of them found the correct word, she said it 'ضمائر الملكية'. Table (51) below illustrates some of the examples she provided her students with.

Table 5.8. Some Patterns Translated into Arabic in Grammar Lesson with a 1 MSY Class

Pattern in English	Pattern in Arabic
- Her name	- اسمها
- His name	- اسمه
- Their television	- تلفازهم
- Our ball	- كرتنا

Asmaa wrote those examples on the board and asked her students to copy them down in their notebooks so as not to forget them later. Next, she distributed hand outs in which there were some other examples illustrating the use of possessive pronouns. She explained the lesson in English. After that, she wrote the first activity on the board and explained the instruction 'Insert the appropriate possessive pronoun from the list in each gap in the following sentences' in Arabic as: 'حط ضمير الملكية المناسب من القائمة في كل فراغ'. The students were allotted ten minutes to think and do the activity before the correction was discussed and the correct answers were written by the teacher on the board.

5.3.4.1. Discussion

Both teachers Aya and Asmaa used Arabic to clarify grammatical points. Their use of Arabic in such cases may be justified through the use of 'contrastive analysis' in its weak

version despite the fact that both teachers were not aware of the applicability of such a technique and they used it unconsciously as a personal initiative to facilitate their teaching and their students' learning. Their way of teaching is structural. Contrary to Aya, Asmaa was very conservative concerning Arabic use and this may be due to the fact that she is a novice teacher (only two years of working experience). However, while discussing this point with her, she said that she does not favour the use of Arabic because of the inspector's instructions besides her belief that English should be taught only in English.

5.3.5. Checking Students' Understanding and Correcting their Mistakes

Only four teachers used Arabic to check their students' understanding and sometimes to correct their mistakes. Some of the examples taken from the observed classrooms are illustrated in tables (52) and (53).

5.3.5.1. Checking students' understanding

Table 5.9. Some Arabic Sentences Used to Check Students' Understanding

The pattern in Arabic	The pattern in English
- فهمتو؟	- Have you understood ?
- فهمتوها هاذ و لا نعاود مرة اخر؟	- Have you understood this or shall I repeat it again?
- تبان لي فهمتو و لا لا؟	- I think you have understood. Haven't you?
- فهمتوصايي؟	- Have you understood it? Is it ok?

5.3.5.2. Correcting Students' Mistakes

Table 5.10. Some Arabic Patterns Used to Correct some Students' Mistakes

The pattern in Arabic	The pattern in English
- هاد ضمير المفرد, واش تزيد للفعل في هذه الحالة؟	- This is the first singular pronoun, what shall you add to the verb in this case? (grammatical mistake)
- Dogs /z/نقولو /z/ مش./s/	- I like dogs. (pronunciation mistake)
- هن عندن مقارنة مع 'short adjective' ok واش تديري بلجكتف؟ تزيدي 'er'	- 'Is loyal than', here we have a comparison. What shall you add to the adjective? You add 'er'. (grammatical mistake)
- واش دخل صلد في درنك؟	- How is salad related to drink?

5.3.5.3. Discussion

The use of Arabic for such a purpose was not noticed that much among teachers. Most of them used some known standard expressions in English to check their students' understanding such as: 'have you understood? / Is it clear? / Shall I repeat another time? / Shall I explain again? / Do you get the meaning of the word? ...etc.'

5.3.6. Classroom Management

Only four of the participants used Arabic to manage the class. Some of the expressions noticed are provided in table (54).

Table 5.11. Some Arabic Expressions Used for Classrooms' Management

Examples of Arabic expressions used by teachers for classrooms' management
- وين ماش انت, اقعد.
- اسكتو يا جماعة.
- الله يهديكم.
- ماتشوعدتوني باش تحسنو السلوك تاعكم؟
- اخفضو اصواتكم.
- هذه فوضى.
- كملتو ولا مزال؟
- كملو لحكايات و لا مزال؟
- هاكد الناس تجمع ف القسم؟

5.4. Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to identify the findings from both the interviews and the classroom observations. It, firstly, presented the findings of the interviews which showed that most of the participants agreed upon some main factors which they thought led them to switch into Arabic during English lessons: the students' low level of proficiency; their non-motivation; their socio-cultural background and their negative parents' role; the overloaded curriculum; time restrictions; lack of resources; and lack of teachers' training. We concluded,

too, from the interviews that most of the interviewees were forced to use Arabic and were not convinced of the positive role that it may have on their teaching except two teachers who acknowledged that they relied on Arabic as a strategy in their teaching and admitted its usefulness. Secondly, the analysis of the classroom observations permitted us to find out the most prevailing functions the teachers used Arabic for in their teaching and which are: explanation of vocabulary; translation of sentences; explanation of reading passages; explanation of tasks' instructions; explanation of grammatical points; checking students' understanding; correction of students' mistakes; and classroom management.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This study, first, investigated some secondary and middle school teachers' attitudes towards the use of the learners' mother tongue in EFL classrooms in Touat region. Next, it examined the extent to which Arabic was used by some of those teachers in their classes for language and non-language purposes. Then, it identified the prime factors that led to such use. Finally, it documented the functions for which Arabic was used by teachers in their teaching.

The findings from the questionnaires which are presented in chapter four answered the first two main questions. It was found that the teachers held both positive and negative attitudes towards the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms and used it for both language and non-language purposes to different extents. The findings of this study revealed that despite the fact that the teachers preferred the use of English as the main language of instruction in EFL classrooms in Touat region, they agreed upon the use of Arabic at certain points of lessons and, further, stressed that it is their own duty to decide on the way it should be integrated in their teaching. They, additionnally, showed positive attitudes towards Arabic use in some situations:

- ✓ To help their students to learn new vocabulary

- ✓ To save time

- ✓ To motivate their students

- ✓ To check their students' understanding

- ✓ To lower their students' affective filter

But they highlighted, too, that when switching to Arabic, they felt guilty because they thought that a foreign language should be taught in a monolingual way.

The teachers were reluctant concerning the negative impact of Arabic on their students'' learning. However, they showed some negative attitudes towards such use. They can be summed up in the following points:

- ✓ To help students understand grammatical items better

- ✓ To help students to learn other language skills

✓ To help teachers to manage their classrooms

As far as the second research question is concerned, the results obtained from the questionnaires indicated that some of the teachers' practices were in accordance with their aforementioned attitudes such as their use of Arabic:

✓ To explain new vocabulary

✓ To explain grammatical items

✓ To attract and motivate students

✓ To manage the classrooms

However, some of the other attitudes they voiced earlier mismatched with some of their actual practices in classrooms such as the use of Arabic:

✓ To explain tasks' instructions,

✓ To translate reading passages

✓ To translate sentences

✓ To advise their students about their studies

✓ To check their students' understanding

Concerning the third research question, interviews were conducted to find the prime factors that led to the teachers' use of Arabic in their teaching. Our findings revealed that teachers reverted to Arabic due to three major factors which are:

✓ The students themselves in matter of their: motivation, level of proficiency, socio-cultural background, and parents' role

✓ The school system that the teachers related to overloaded curricula, time restrictions, and lack of resources

✓ Teachers' own professional development which is embodied in lack of training and their personal experience with teaching and learning English.

As to the fourth research question, classroom observations were conducted to document the different functions that Arabic was used for. Their analysis showed that teachers switched to Arabic in their teaching in seven main instances:

- ✓ To explain vocabulary and translate sentences

- ✓ To explain reading passages

- ✓ To explain tasks' instructions

- ✓ To explain grammatical points

- ✓ To check students' understanding and correct their mistakes

- ✓ To tell jokes and maintain relationships with students

- ✓ To manage their classrooms

- **Recommendations and Implications for EFL Teachers and Policy Makers**

Based on the findings from this study, it is apparent that though the majority of teachers agreed upon the use of English as the main language of instruction in EFL classrooms; they were against the total prohibition of Arabic and recognised its integration in their teaching. However, when it comes to their actual teaching, as it was revealed from classroom observations, they used it in sceptical and conservative ways. In this respect the following implications and recommendations are provided:

✓ Before considering the teachers' responsibility of working collaboratively and sharing their personal experiences concerning the strategies that work well; the role of inspectors is worth mentioning. It is high time to free themselves from the English Only Policy or the monolingual dogma (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009) and recognise the role of Arabic in teaching and learning foreign languages. They should hold workshops wherein topics about the integration of Arabic in teaching foreign languages should be discussed. In such workshops, teachers from different schools would exchange and share their own experiences to develop teaching strategies that are based on using Arabic such as the pedagogical translation strategy. Indeed, in the Official Journal of the Ministry of Education (2010) in

the law of orientation N°77/0.03/10, it is clearly stated that translation is a recognised strategy in teaching all foreign languages in Algeria. Additionally, it recommended "it is required to take into consideration the principle of gradation while choosing translation activities; starting from translating short and simple sentences and expressions to long sentences and then moving to short paragraphs depending on the students' level of proficiency" (p. 34). (See Appendix A for more details). By doing so, teachers would get rid of the feelings of guilt and reluctance and would confidently resort to Arabic in their teaching.

✓ Besides this, it is worth noting that regulations should not merely been issued but transmitted to teachers and necessary measures should be taken so as to bridge the gap between theory and practice. This can be achieved only through passing the recommendations of workshops held at the level of the Ministry of Education to teachers by holding other local workshops at the level of each wilaya. The social and the cultural characteristics of each region and of its learners should be taken into consideration. Concerning the context of the present research, Touat region, people are very much attached to Arabic language because it is the language of the holy Quran, and parents prefer their children to receive religious education at an early age (starting from5years) before benefiting from formal education at school. They learn Modern Standard Arabic at Quranic schools in order to read and learn the holy Quran (Bouhania, 2008). Thus, being part of the individuals' identity and having such an elevated status among the local population, MT (Arabic) constitutes a crucial area in which teachers and other stockholders should invest, mainly, if learners show any resentment to the foreign languages that they felt imposed on them (Brown, 2007; Schweers, 1999). The teachers revealed that their students held negative attitudes towards learning English. Therefore, they should rethink the positive role that Arabic can have as a way to value their identity, the fact that, with making the themes of

texts and lessons directly related to learners' cultural background, would lower their affective filter and make them more involved and take care of their learning.

✓ Policy makers could invite specialised teachers in translation from universities to offer middle and secondary school teachers support; they can provide them with ideas concerning the use of Arabic and effective techniques to be considered while teaching. For instance, they can focus on Contrastive Analysis whose end is to compare between both languages (Arabic and English) in order to spot the potential areas of learners' errors. i.e. to study the positive transfer and interference (negative transfer) between both languages which make teachers aware of the most important elements of language to put more emphasis on. For example, by highlighting: the difference between the structure of a sentence in English and Arabic; the difference between the use of adjectives in both languages; the use of possessive pronouns and personal pronouns …etc.

✓ Indeed, more empirical work should be done, mainly by teachers, in the frame of action research and benefit from research that has been already done about this issue (the use of the MT in teaching and learning foreign languages) worldwide.

✓ Parents too constitute a crucial part in the educational process and their role cannot be ignored, it is as primordial as that of teachers and other educational stockholders. Students are directly influenced by their surroundings either family members or peers concerning the attitudes they hold vis-à-vis foreign languages (Harmer, 2001) and other matters in their lives. Consequently, it is, primarily, the parents' responsibility to change their negative attitudes toward learning foreign languages and promote their children's learning through motivating them and making them aware of the importance of learning foreign languages in general and English language in particular.

- **Limitations of the Study**

Despite the fact that a mixed methods design was employed in the current study to strengthen its validity and reliability, it is limited in a number of ways.

✓ One of its outstanding limitations is related to the presence of the researcher as an observer and her own impact on teachers while conducting the classroom observations. Some teachers were negatively influenced by the researcher's presence and did not feel at ease concerning their use of Arabic. We felt as if they refrained from using it on purpose. Safia, Baya, Asmaa, and Houda were so embarrassed when it comes to switching to Arabic. If we crosscheck their actual use of Arabic reported from the classroom observations and their beliefs revealed in the interviews, we find, for instance that both Safia and Baya's attitudes concerning this issue do not match with their actual teaching. They thought that they used Arabic whenever they felt its necessity, but actually, what we noticed was the opposite i.e. they were too hesitating. Asmaa and Houda, on their turn, did utter very few words in Arabic and at extreme circumstances; their pupils, too, were affected by that and were not at ease though, as teachers, they kept trying to simplify their English.

✓ Another limitation concerning the classroom observations is related to the fact that most of the teachers who were observed worked in an urban area. It would have been beneficial to conduct more classroom observations with more teachers in other rural areas to get more insightful and varied results. However, due to the researcher's time restrictions, only one teacher from one rural school was included.

✓ Furthermore, the sampling strategies relied on display other limitations to the current study. Convenience sampling to choose the participants to answer the questionnaires, purposeful sampling and more precisely maximal variation sampling strategy to invite specific participants to take part in the interviews. All those sampling strategies are under the umbrella of non-probabilistic sampling strategy which calls for non-generalisation of the findings of any conducted piece of research. Therefore, the results obtained from our study are representative of the

number of the participants who participated in it and they are limited, too, to the context of the study.

- **Suggestions for Further Research**

On the basis of the findings obtained in this study, further research is required to change the teachers' negative attitudes towards the presence of Arabic in EFL classrooms and make them aware of the numerous purposes that it can serve. The following are some few suggestions that we can posit some topics for further research in the scope of the current study:

✓ Conducting experimental research and particularly longitudinal studies which will compare between classes taught monolingually and others wherein the learners' MT is incorporated. Such research would better inform teachers' training and practices, policy-makers, and curriculum designers in terms of in what areas does the use of Arabic foster the students' learning and teachers' teaching.

✓ Additional research is required to be carried out (quantitative and qualitative research) with other participants such as the students and surveying their attitudes towards the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms through questionnaires and/or interviews since they constitute an integral element of the teaching/learning process.

✓ A further study could focus on just middle school teachers or secondary school teachers since the current study did not make a distinction between both categories. It is possible, too, to conduct a comparative research and investigate the teachers' attitudes in more in-depth details.

✓ The same research could be conducted with teachers from different localities in Algeria so as to get a detailed overview of their beliefs concerning Arabic use in EFL classrooms. Such beliefs would inform policy makers on the matters to be taken into consideration as far as issuing regulations is concerned. i.e. to apply a bottom-up policy that is, generally, not considered in the Algerian educational system.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Law of Orientation N° 10/0.0.3/77 about the Use of Translation in Teaching FL in Algeria

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
وزارة التربية الوطنية
مديرية التعليم الثانوي العام والتكنولوجي
رقم : 10/0.0.3/77.

إلــــى
السيدات والسادة مديري التربية
(للتبليغ والمتابعة)
السيدات و السادة مفتشي التربية الوطنية (للإعلام و المتابعة)
السيدات و السادة مديري الثانويات (للتنفيذ)

الموضوع : استعمال الترجمة في تدريس اللغات الأجنبية.

ينص القانون التوجيهي للتربية، لا سيما المادة 4 منه، على ضرورة تمكين التلاميذ من التحكم في لغتين أجنبيتين على الأقل للتفتح على العالم، باعتبار اللغات الأجنبية وسيلة للإطلاع على التوثيق والمبادلات مع الثقافات والحضارات الأجنبية. و سعيا منها إلى ترقية تحكم الأساتذة و التلاميذ على حد سواء في تعليم اللغات الأجنبية و تعلمها ، تعمل وزارة التربية الوطنية على إدخال الطرائق الفعالة في تعليم اللغات الأجنبية بغية الارتقاء بمستوى التحكم فيها. ومن بين هذه الطرائق التي أثبتت نجاعتها **الترجمة التعليمية.**

يقصد بــ **"الترجمة التعليمية"**، استخدام تمارين ترجمة تهدف إلى تعليم لغة أجنبية ما و ذلك عبر ما يترجمه التلميذ من لغته الأم إلى لغة أجنبية أو من اللغة الأجنبية إلى لغته الأم ". فهي تمثل نشاطا لا تترتب عنه زيادة في الحجم الزمني لتدريس المادة كونها لا تمثل محورا إضافيا في البرنامج الرسمي الذي يبقى بدون تغيير إلى حين مراجعته. كما يجب على أساتذة اللغات الأجنبية السهر على العمل بما يلي:
- ينبغي العمل بتدرج الصعوبات أثناء اختيار أنشطة الترجمة، حتى يتعود التلاميذ تدريجيا على هذا النشاط الجديد و ذلك انطلاقا من ترجمة الجمل و العبارات القصيرة البسيطة ثم الجمل الطويلة إلى الفقرة القصيرة، حسب مستوى التلاميذ.
- يستهدف التوصل بتدريب التلاميذ على هذا النشاط إلى مستوى ترجمة نص طوله من عشرة إلى خمسة عشرة سطرا، مع مراعاة توازن الترجمة التعليمية مع المتطلبات الأخرى لتعليم اللغة.
- ألا يسمحوا لأنفسهم و لا للتلاميذ بتهجين اللغة و ذلك بتفادي الخلط اللغوي. و يطلب منهم أن يعملوا على المحافظة على انسجام التعبير في اللغة الواحدة.

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الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
وزارة التربية الوطنية
مديرية التعليم الثانوي العام
والتكنولوجي
رقم : 78 /0.0.3/10.

إلـــى
السيدات والسادة مديري التربية
(للتبليغ والمتابعة)
السيدات و السادة مفتشي التربية
الوطنية   (لإعلام والمتابعة)
السيدات و السادة مديري
الثانويات   (للتنفيذ)

الموضوع : استعمال المصطلحات العلمية.

بغية توسيع إمكانيات الإطلاع على المراجع العلمية المتوفرة باللغات الأجنبية لأجل رفع المردود التعلمي للتلاميذ في المواد العلمية والتكنولوجية، بات من الضروري إدراج المصطلحات العلمية باللغة الأجنبية (الفرنسية و/أو الإنجليزية) في تدريس المواد العلمية والتكنولوجية خلال مرحلة التعليم الثانوي.

و تتم هذه العملية باعتبارها نشاطا مكملا لحصة الدرس، يستعان بها عند تناول مفاهيم علمية حديدة

- يكون اختيار موضوع النص من الكتاب المدرسي أو من ميول التلاميذ و اهتماماتهم، و ذلك على غرار ترجمة نص من نصوص أغاني مختارة من التراث المحلي أو العالمي أو من مجال الإعلام الآلي أو من مجال الرياضة...الخ.
- يجب مراعاة جانب الإملاء ضمن نشاط الترجمة مع الاهتمام بالجانب الجمالي للخط.
- يوصى التلاميذ بإنجاز معجم لغوي للمفردات في إطار هذا النشاط.
- ينظم التنسيق بين أساتذة اللغة العربية و أساتذة اللغات الأجنبية (الفرنسية، الإنجليزية، الإسبانية والألمانية) من أجل ضمان الانسجام الأفقي بين هذه المواد ودعم الجوانب المتكاملة بينها.

هذا و يبقى على أساتذة المواد المعنية القيام بندوات تنسيقية داخلية مشتركة حول موضوع الترجمة التعليمية و تقنياتها و دعمه بندوات تكوينية يشرف عليها مفتشو التربية الوطنية.

الجزائر في 04 جويلية 2010
عن وزير التربية الوطنية وبتفويض منه
مدير التعليم الثانوي العام
والتكنولوجي
عبد القادر ميسوم

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Appendix B: Workshop of French Language Team

TRAVAUX DE L'ATELIER DE LA
LANGUE FRANCAISE

1/ REFLEXION SUR LA MISE EN APPLICATION DES ACTIVITES DE TRADUCTION

« Qui ne connait aucune langue étrangère ne connait pas, à fond, la sienne propre. »
Goethe

La circulaire n 77 /3.0.0/ 10 du 4Juillet 2010 portant sur l'intégration des activités de traduction didactique dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères a eu pour mérite de briser un tabou. Elle est, en soi, une avancée et un progrès indéniable quant à la nécessité de recourir à la traduction pédagogique d'autant qu'elle souligne l'importance et la cohésion de la langue étrangère.

A/ Pourquoi intégration des activités de traduction ?

> Langue maternelle = langue d'enseignement= langue arabe.

La langue arabe est la langue de communication, elle permet les échanges entre les élèves et les enseignants dans la classe et à l'extérieur. C est un vecteur oral et écrit de transmission des connaissances dans toutes les matières. C'est un instrument disponible et, à ce titre, elle est commune aux élèves et aux enseignants.

Par opposition, la langue étrangère (quand on se situe sur le plan national) n'est, pour les élèves, ni un outil de communication, ni un vecteur de transmission de connaissances, au sein de l'établissement scolaire, de la famille et par extension dans la société dans laquelle ils évoluent. Dès lors, elle apparait à l'élève comme secondaire, dénuée de sens car non rattachée à son environnement immédiat commun et affectif.

Il fallait donc trouver des solutions médianes, de ménager des transitions et de prévoir des couloirs fonctionnels : « un espace commun, un facteur de cohésion entre les deux langues. » Chacun acceptant de faire un effort hors de son domaine et de son propre langage technique pour s'aventurer dans un domaine dont il n'est pas le propriétaire exclusif, et donc passer d'une langue à une autre par le biais d'activités réfléchies , planifiées , ciblées qui tiennent compte des réalités et des besoins de l'élève et de sa classe . Et c'est là tout l'intérêt d'une pédagogie interdisciplinaire : **l'interdisciplinarité** étant une des clés de l'approche par compétence. Ce concept doit se comprendre ici, c'est à dire dans cette intégration des activités de traduction, comme l'utilisation, l'association et la coordination de ces deux disciplines dans une approche intégrée des problèmes.

Pourquoi des activités de traduction pédagogiques ?

De la langue française vers l'arabe
De la langue arabe vers la langue française.
Privés de leur langue d'enseignement, les élèves sont privés de langage : c'est avec la langue arabe que les élèves se sont structurés et qu'ils possèdent de véritables repères familiers et sécurisants de la communication. Elle est spontanée, elle appartient à leurs vécus, acquise par contact avec leurs milieux, liée à leur vie affective et à son développement (épanouissement).
La langue étrangère est une langue qui a un concept scientifique c'est -a- dire un caractère conscient, organisé, structuré, mais éloigné de la réalité subjective, de ses racines, de son vécu. Ce passage « pédagogique » d'une langue à une autre va permettre de faire sortir l'élève de son repli sur soi, de son mutisme, de son refus de participer, de son agressivité, de son désintérêt de la langue d'enseignement et de la langue étrangère. « Cette passerelle pédagogique » va également lui faciliter la création de liens, le transfert de connaissances et d'habilités entre les deux disciplines, ce qui va le rapprocher de sa réalité.
Par conséquent, l'utilisation de la langue arabe n'est nullement un obstacle à l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère.
Si elles sont opposées, il existe une interdépendance entre elles et ce sont ces activités de traduction qui vont permettre à l'enseignant de s'ouvrir à l'interdisciplinarité (approche par compétence): c'est-à-dire que l'enseignant ne doit plus se cloisonner dans sa propre matière ; Ces activités de traduction s'avèrent une nécessité pour décomplexer des situations. D'autre part, ces activités de traduction permettront aussi de répondre à l'objectif de la loi d'orientation sur l'éducation nationale dans son article 4 n 804 du 23 /01/ 2008 qui stipule « la maitrise au moins de 2 langues étrangères »

Que vise- t-on à travers ces activités de traduction ?

- Acquérir des savoirs, savoirs- faire dans les deux langues (de la langue arabe vers le français, de la langue française vers la langue arabe)
- Instaurer un dialogue entre l'arabe et la langue étrangère pour créer une cohérence entre les différents savoirs pour préparer l'élève au milieu professionnel.
- Savoir faire la différence entre les savoirs de diverses provenances et le savoir d'expérience (de sa propre expérience)
- Encourager les élèves à intégrer leurs savoirs afin de pouvoir faire face à certaines situations.
- Savoir interpréter le sens de sa réalité (celle de l'élève).
- Savoir communiquer autrement.
- Confronter des clichés et les préjugés à l'égard des autres disciplines et intégrer la richesse de chacun dans un projet pour comprendre le monde présent.

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- Valoriser la langue d'enseignement.
- Développer des compétences dans les deux langues (installer des compétences disciplinaires et transversales)
- Posséder une terminologie d'où l'intérêt d'un glossaire (que l'élève pourra investir durant son cursus universitaire).

Toutefois il est impératif de prévoir « **des boucliers pédagogiques** ». On entend par là, des gardes fous, qui vont éviter de tomber dans le simplisme et de recourir de façon abusive à la traduction. Pour cela, le rôle des inspecteurs, des formateurs, la durée et la nature des activités etc. seront déterminants.

B/ de l'utilité d'un glossaire.

L'objectif du glossaire est de favoriser la traduction, il va permettre à l'apprenant de puiser des matériaux nécessaires à l'apprentissage d'une langue, de maitriser un certain nombre de concepts et de recourir à cet outil de travail disponible et indispensable.

A titre indicatif (liste non exhaustive).

Un objet d'étude

Un thème

Le discours objectivité (une notion, un fait, un phénomène).

Le plaidoyer le réquisitoire, débattre d'un sujet d'actualité.

Etablir un constat (l'exhortatif).

Les stratégies argumentatives (convaincre, persuader, refuter, dénoncer une opinion…)

Les techniques d'expression : Un compte rendu objectif et critique, un résumé, un commentaire, la lettre de motivation.

Le commentaire du scripteur.

Un dialogue, une interview.

Une nouvelle – la nouvelle d'anticipation, la nouvelle fantastique (Un récit cadre un récit encadré)

2/ PROPOSITIONS D'ACTIVITES DE TRADUCTION

Activités de traduction :

Objectifs :
- Maitrise de la langue étrangère.
- Compétences linguistiques.
- Compétences transversales (La pluridisciplinarité)

A quel moment ? Quel timing ? (la durée de chaque activité)
a/Compréhension de l'oral
Objectif :
Amener l'élève à travailler sur deux langues et établir une synergie pour acquérir les connaissances culturelles et cultuelles des langues étrangères étudiées .
Supports :
Chanson engagée, représentation iconique, slogan publicitaire, poésie, contes, théâtre, bande annonce d'un film etc.
Activités proposées :
-Scénariser un court texte pour émouvoir et donner à réfléchir sur un thème concernant l'éducation civique (tolérance, politesse, respect de l'environnement, notion de paix, responsabilité, sens et valeur du travail qui sont des valeurs universelles)= pluridisciplinarité (cours de philosophie, d'arabe, d'éducation religieuse)
-Traduction de propos de personnages dans un film : là bataille d'Alger, Indigènes Hors la loi etc.
Expression écrite ou orale :
Trois (03) répliques d'une scène de théâtre.
Dialogue entre deux personnages d'un film.
Messages véhiculés par les supports cités précédemment…. (Morale, leçon, l'absence de préjugés etc.)
Ou le résumé, le plan (interdisciplinarité)

b/Compréhension de l'écrit
Objectifs :
Amener l'élève à une traduction didactique:
Résumé (restituer sous forme de synthèse, distinguer informations essentielles/ informations secondaires)
Repérer le commentaire de l'auteur.
Planifier et organiser un plan.
Ou compte rendu objectif et critique (se limiter à l'introduction ou la conclusion)
Utiliser une grille d'auto- évaluation pour repérer ses erreurs etc.

Activités de langue

1. Lexique
Utilisation du dictionnaire (la polysémie, la synonymie et l'antonymie, la paronymie, la définition d'un mot, son étymologie).
Les mots utilisés dans la langue étrangère.

Exemple : les mots francisés et les mots d'origine arabe :
Bled, hammam, djebel, douar ....émir, alchimie, algèbre, alfa, caftan,
assassin, alambic
Utilisation de l'Internet pour acquérir des savoirs (dans le cadre d'une recherche
documentaire : géographie / histoire, le climat, modes vestimentaires, culinaires
des autres cultures.
Les citations (philosophie) (interdisciplinarité,) les blagues, les dictons, le
proverbe d'une langue à une autre.
Élaboration graduelle et progressive d'un glossaire (glossarium : dérivé du grec
signifiant langue) A chaque fois qu'on traduit faire écrire à la fin du cahier.
Le nom et le prénom (pour éviter la confusion).

2. Syntaxe
La phrase verbale et la phrase nominale.
La prononciation i /e en /on
La dérivation, les procédés explicatifs(les reformulations, l'énumération)
Les articulateurs logiques et les indicateurs spatio- temporels (situation
géographique, à gauche à droite, le sud, le nord, la datation).
Les types de raisonnement : inductif, déductif (interdisciplinarité).
Les figures de style (la comparaison, les métaphores, la personnification morale
et physique)
Les indices d'énonciation (argumentatif : interdisciplinarité).
Les pronoms personnels : tu et vous (tutoiement et vouvoiement).
L'impératif (les nuances de l'ordre du souhait etc.)
Les pluriels des mots.
La ponctuation :

*« On reconnait tout de suite un homme de jugement, à l'usage qu'il fait de la
ponctuation et de la virgule. »* Henry de Montherlant

*«Entre le point d'exclamation de la vie et le point d'interrogation de la mort :
tout n'est que ponctuation.»* Tristan Maya

Exemple d'activité :

Exercice de ponctuation :
Objectif :
Montrer que le rôle de la ponctuation n'a pas les mêmes valeurs dans les deux
langues.
Ponctuez correctement les deux passages suivants. (Passage donné en français
et en arabe)
« La société des abeilles » : manuel scolaire de la 2ème A S 1er §.

<u>Remarque</u> :
On peut aussi prévoir ces activités de traduction pour passer d'une séquence à une autre.
Toutes ces activités ont pour but de préparer les apprenants à la situation d'intégration et à la production finale.

« Quand on enseigne, l'élève se souvient. Quand on l'implique, il apprend ».

✳✳✳✳✳✳✳✳✳✳✳✳

Membres de l'Atelier de la Langue Française :

- **Mr MELAHA** Inspecteur de l'Education Nationale de Langue Française.
- **Mme BOUBEKEUR** Inspectrice de l'Education Nationale de Langue Française.
- **Mme HADEFI** P.E.S de Langue Française Lycée A K Barberousse Alger.
- **Mme KHEMILI** P.E.S de Langue Française Lycée Frantz Fanon Bab-El -Oued. Alger

Appendix C: Questionnaire to Teachers

<u>**QUESTIONNAIRE**</u>

Dear colleagues,

Thank you very much for participating in my research about *"The Use of the Mother Tongue in EFL Teaching and Learning in the Region of Touat"* for the fulfilment of my doctoral degree. This questionnaire aims at finding about your perceptions and attitudes towards the use of Arabic in your English classes. I would be very grateful if you could please complete this questionnaire to the best of your knowledge. Your responses will be strictly confidential and anonymously used.

Yours sincerely,

Mrs. Sadia MEZIANI

<u>**Section 1**</u>

Personal information

1. Gender: Male   Female

2. How long have you been teaching English?

5 years	
6- 10 years	
11- 15 years	
16- 20 years	
21- 25 years	
26- 30 years	
Over 30 years	

3. Where have you taught?   a. Middle school   b. Secondary school

4. What are your Qualifications:

     a. BA (Licence)

     b. MA (Magister/ Master)

     c. Other degrees/ certificates

5. Where have you worked?   a. Rural area   b. Urban area

Section 2:

Please, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by putting a tick (√) in the box you think is appropriate.

N	Teachers' attitudes towards using Arabic in the English language classroom	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Part A	**Teachers' attitudes towards the status of Arabic and English in EFL classes.**					
S1	The use of Arabic should be allowed at certain points of a lesson.					
S2	Teachers can decide the way in which Arabic should be used in their classrooms.					
S3	English should be the main language of instruction.					
Part B	**The impact of Arabic use on students' learning.**					
S4	The use of Arabic language helps students to understand new vocabulary.					
S5	The use of Arabic helps students to understand grammatical points better.					
S6	The use of Arabic helps students to learn other language skills.					
Part C	**The impact of Arabic use on the teaching process.**					
S7	The use of Arabic helps the teacher to save time.					

S8	The use of Arabic helps the teacher to motivate students.					
S9	The use of Arabic helps the teacher to check students' understanding.					
S10	The use of Arabic makes it easier for the teacher to manage the class.					
Part D	**Teachers' attitudes towards other practices.**					
S11	The use of Arabic makes students feel less stressed.					
S12	The use of Arabic hinders students' learning.					
S13	The use of Arabic makes the teachers feel unprofessional and guilty.					
S14	The use of Arabic should be prohibited.					

Section 3

Please, tick the answer that you think is appropriate in relation to your classroom.

	Question	Always	Often	sometimes	Rarely	Never
	Teachers' actual use of Arabic in EFL classrooms (Frequencies and functions).					
	A- Teachers' use of Arabic for language purposes.					
Q1	Do you use Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary?					
Q2	Do you use Arabic to explain grammatical items?					
Q3	Do you use Arabic to explain tasks' instructions?					
Q4	Do you use Arabic to explain reading passages?					
Q5	Do you use Arabic to translate sentences?					
Q6	**B- Teachers' use of Arabic for non-language purposes.**					
Q7	Do you use Arabic in the class to reduce barriers with your students?					
Q8	. Do you use Arabic to tell jokes?					
Q9	Do you use Arabic to motivate and attract your students?					
Q10	Do you use Arabic to advise your students about their studies?					
Q11	Do you use Arabic to manage your class?					
Q12	Do you use Arabic to check the students' understanding?					

Thank you for your time and Participation

Appendix D: Interview Questions

Part One: Background of participants

- Gender

- Age

- Qualification

- Years of teaching experience

- What type of training they had

Part Two: Interview Questions

Q1: Do you think that English is best taught in English or the use of Arabic may be helpful?

Q2: Do you think that Arabic should be integrated in ELT classes at certain levels?

Q3: In your opinion, what factors may lead teachers to resort to Arabic in their teaching?

Q4: Do you think that a teacher's experience may affect his/her attitudes towards the use of Arabic for different purposes?

Appendix E: Classroom Observation Checklist before piloting

1. Date:

2. School:

3. Teacher's name:

4. Class:

5. Lesson starts:

6. Lesson ends:

7. Skill taught

Fonctions	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4
To explain vocabulary				
To explain grammatical points				
To explain tasks' instructions				
To explain reading passages				
To check students' understanding				
To translate sentences				
To correct students' mistakes				
To speak with students about English subjects				
To have discussions with students about lessons' topics				
To manage the class				
To tell jokes				

Appendix F: Classroom Observation Checklist after piloting

1. Date:

2. School:

3. Teacher's name:

4. Class:

5. Lesson starts:

6. Lesson ends:

7. Skill taught

Arabic Pattern	Fonctions	Lessons				Other remarks
		L1	L2	L3	L4	
	To explain vocabulary					
	To explain grammatical points					
	To explain tasks' instructions					
	To explain reading passages					
	To check students' understanding					
	To translate sentences					
	To correct students' mistakes					
	To speak with students about English subjects					
	To have discussions with students about lessons' topics					
	To manage the class					
	To tell jokes					

Appendix G: Written Expression Lesson with a MSY 4 Class

③ Think about other animals and draw another graph to show how long they can live.

④ Write a report about an animal of your choice which is in danger of extinction using the information on the report card below.

ANIMAL REPORT
- Name of animal :
- Where does it live?
- What does it look like?
- What is it like?
- What is special about it in terms of what it can do?
- How long does it live?
- What is the maximum age to which it can live?
- What may cause its extinction?
- What can we do to save it?
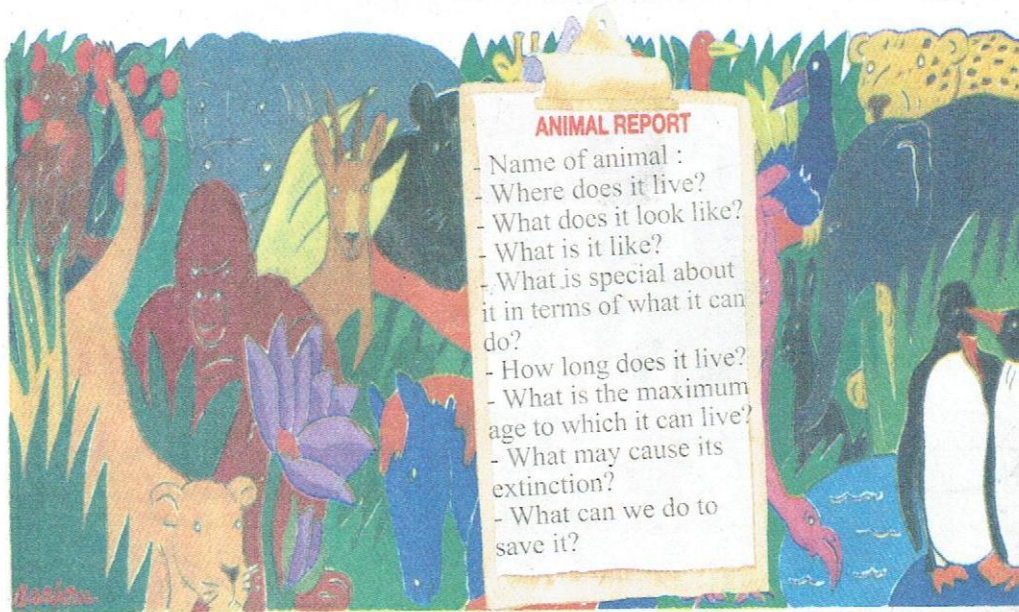
⑤ Group work.
Imagine you are a member of the World Wild Life Organisation.
Write a ten-rule charter designed to ensure the protection of wild animals using appropriate modals. (See Grammar reference n° 6, page 181.)

Take your pick from the following verbs:

to cure - to shoot - to treat - to trap - to feed -
to hunt - to shelter - to mistreat - to fatten

P **ORGANISING**

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Appendix H: List of Adjectives

English	Français	العربية	English	Français	العربية
Active	Actif	نشيط	Ordinary	Ordinaire	مألوف
Attentive	Attentif	يقظ	Passive	Passif	هامد/سلبي
Beautiful	Beau	جميل	Patient	patient	صبور
Big	Grand	كبير	Peaceful	Paisible	مسالم/هادئ
Boring	Ennuyeux	مضجر/مزعج	Perfect	Parfait	كامل
Calm	Calme	ساكن	Polite	Poli	مهذب
Careful	Soigneux	مُعتنٍ	Poor	Pauvre	فقير
Cheap	Pas cher	رخيص	Popular	Populaire	شعبي
Clean	Net	صاف	Populated	Peuplé	مأهول
Clear	Claire	واضح	Positive	Positive	إيجابي
Cold	Froid	بارد	Pure	Pur	خالص/طاهر
Comfortable	Confortable	مريح	Quick	Rapide	سريع
Complex	Complexe	معقد	Quiet	Tranquille	هادئ
Continuous	Continu	مستمر	Real	Réel	حقيقي
Courageous	Courageux	شجاع	Recent	Récent	جديد
Creative	créatif	مبدع	Rich	Riche	غني
Crowded	Bondé	مزدحم	Rude	Brutal	خشن/ فظ
Dangerous	Dangereux	خطر	Sad	Triste	حزين
Deep	profond	عميق	Safe	En sécurité	آمن
Delicious	Délicieux	لذيذ	Savage	Brutal	ضار
Difficult	Difficile	صعب	Selfish	Egoïste	أناني
Dry	Sec	جاف	Serious	Sérieux	جدّيّ
Expensive	Cher	غالٍ	Short	Court	قصير
Fabulous	Fabuleux	خرافي	Shy	Timide	خجول
False	Faux	خطأ	Silent	Silencieux	صامت
Famous	Célèbre	مشهور	Simple	Simple	بسيط
Fantastic	Fantastique	خيالية	Sincere	Sincère	صادق
Friendly	Amical	ودّيّ	Slight	Léger	خفيف
Full	Plein	مليء	Slim	Mince	نحيف
Generous	Généreux	كريم	Slow	Lent	بطيء
Glad	Heureux	مسرور	Small	Petit	صغير
Handsome	Joli	جميل	Soft	Doux	ناعم
Hard	Sévère	قاس	Strict	Strict	صارم
Helpful	Serviable	مساعد	Strong	Fort	قوي
High	Haut	مرتفع	Stupid	Stupide	أبله
Hot	Chaud	ساخن	Successful	Réussi	موفق/ ناجح
Imaginary	Imaginaire	خيالي	Sweet	Sucré	مسكر / حلو
Important	important	هام	Talkative	Bavard	ثرثار
Intelligent	intelligent	ذكي	Tall	Grande taille	طويل
Jealous	jaloux	غيور	Thick	Epais	كثيف
Large	Large	واسع	Thin	Mince	نحيف
Late	Tard	متأخر	Timid	Timide	خجول
Long	Long	طويل	Traditional	Traditionnel	تقليدي
Low	Bas	منخفض	True	Vrai	صحيح
Modern	Moderne	حديث	Unknown	Inconnu	مجهول
Near	Proche	قريب	Vigorous	Vigoureux	قوي
Neat	Soigné	أنيق	Warm	Chaud	دافئ
Nervous	Nerveux	عصبي	Weak	Faible	ضعيف
New	Nouveau	جديد	Wet	Mouillé	مبلل / رطب
Nice	Aimable	لطيف	Wide	Etendu	فسيح
Normal	Normal	عادي	Wrong	Inexact	غير دقيق
Old	Ancien	قديم	Young	Jeune	شاب

Appendix I: Written Expression Lesson with a 3rd Year ESC Class

▶**After reading**

① Write a holiday advert for your local travel agency. Use the advert on th previous page as a model. In order to sell your holiday, do not forget to inclu the following
- emphasis on low cost
- reference to the local culture
- an appeal to the environment issue
- a promise of enjoyment
- a catchy slogan

② Once you have corrected your advert, participate in a class competition choose the best advert.

▶**Writing development**

The advertisement leaflet on the next page belongs to a holiday maker wh has come back home from a disappointing adventure holiday abroad. Read carefully, then **complete the letter of complaint** below using the annotati in italics on the leaflet.

Dear Sir or Madam,   (§1)
I am writing to _____

_____
My holiday with your company did not correspond
to what the advertisement claims. Firstly, the advert ____,
states that _____.
but in fact____
Secondly the advert promises _____.
Unfortunately, _____. Actually,
Thirdly, it says that _____
_____(§2)

_____
Though _____. As a result of all these
In general, our holiday _____
non-kept promises, I feel _____. (§3)
____ because _____.
Therefore, I____
Yours faithfully,
Enc. The facsimile of our reservations

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Isn't it time to take refreshing holidays with us at fair prices ?

A fortnight's holiday with us will be an experience you'll
never forget. Every day you'll be able to choose from a <u>wide range</u> of
thrilling activities :   *Only two activities offered*

- canoeing   *per day!*
- rockclimbing   *We certainly won't!*
- wind-surfing   *For eight days, neither windsurfing nor*
- sailing   *sailing offered !*
- hiking

To introduce you to the joys of group-work, there will be :

- one three-day <u>camping</u> expedition   *We couldn't even*
- two problem-solving activities   *pitch the tents !*

'But this is my holiday! Aren't I allowed to relax?'
Whenever you like you can choose to take a 'day off' and enjoy
a relaxing game at some of the remarkable
facilities at the residential centre :

- swimming pool   *—"Full !" Instead, they put us in a*
- sauna   *youth hostel, seven kilometres away.*
- games room (billiards, darts,   *We never saw this place(no buses, no*
  table tennis)   *taxis).*
- video   *Only facilities at youth hostel: table*
- library   *tennis, a pack of cards.*

'Won't it be just like the army : dormitories and canteen food ?'
Accommodation consists of <u>comfortable</u> double rooms, and our
talented kitchen staff prepare memorable and <u>delicious</u> meals
using the very best of the local produce.   *Ugh!*
                                                        Dirty bed-clothes !
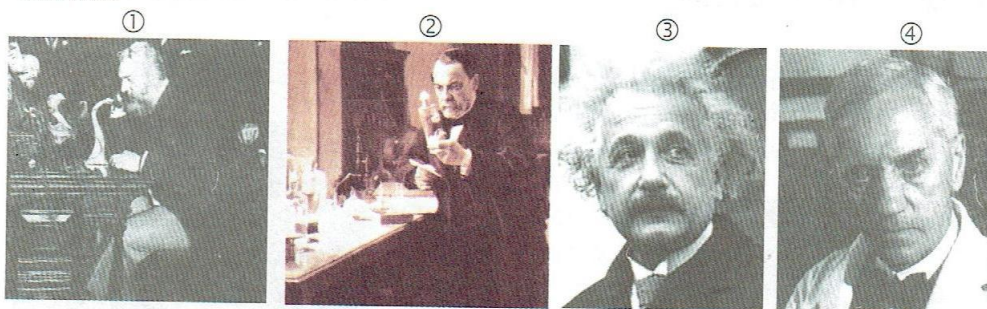
(Adapted from Hugh Cory, *Advanced Writing*, Oxford, p.94.)

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✎ LISTENING AND SPEAKING

IT'S YOUR TURN

❶ Match pictures 1-4 with the names of inventors A-D in the table that follows.

① ② ③ ④

Louis Pasteur	Alexander Fleming	Alexander Graham Bell	Albert Einstein
1822 - 1895 born in France (1885) **(A)**	1881 - 1955 born in Scotland (1928) **(B)**	1847 - 1922 born in Scotland (1876) **(C)**	1879 - 1955 born in Germany (1905) **(D)**

❷ Match the names of scientists 1-4 with inventions or discoveries (A-D). Then write 4 sentences using the matched parts and the verbs in the table below.

1.Albert Einstein 2.Alexander Graham Bell 3.Alexander Fleming 4. Louis Pasteur	discovered invented formulated	A.Penicillin. B.the theory of relativity. C.the vaccine against rabies. D.the telephone.

❸ Now, use the information in exercise 2 above to play the game 'Tell me...'. Use the cues in the box below.

> A: - Can you tell me who invented / formulated / discovered…?
>
>   - Have you got any idea who / when / where … ?
>   - Do you happen to know who / when / where … ?
> B: - I think / guess it was ... / It was _____, wasn't it?
>   - I'm afraid / Sorry, I have no idea./ I don't know.

SAY IT IN WRITING

❶ Use the information in exercises 1 and 2 above to write a short biography of one of the people in the pictures.
Start like this: Louis Pasteur is one of the most French scientists. _____.
❷ Correct your mistakes. Then read the corrected version of the biography to the class.

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LISTENING AND SPEAKING

IT'S YOUR TURN

● Pair work: Look at the pictures on the right. Then use the cues in boxes A and B on the left to make a dialogue.

Example:

Ali: What will happen if we cut down the trees/don't stop deforestation/ pollute the sea?

Bashir: If... , fish will die.

Deforestation

①

A
- Earth/ to become/ desert
- animals/to lose/habitat
- there/to be/less oxygen/atmosphere
- there/to be/more Co2 /atmosphere
- there/to be/less summer camping sites
- rain water /to erode/soil
- plant species/ to disappear
- climate/to change
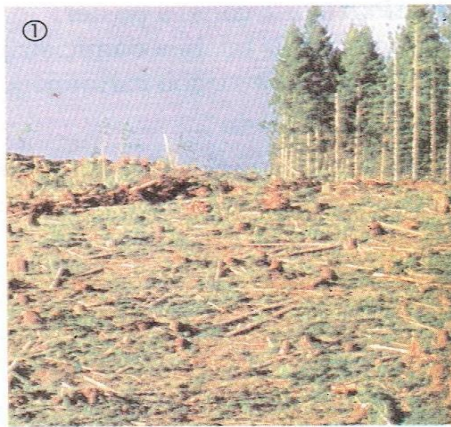
B
- fish/to die
- seabirds/ get stuck/oil spill
- fishermen/to lose/jobs
- beaches/to be/polluted
- there/to be/less holidaymakers
- people/not to have/ enough food/to eat

②
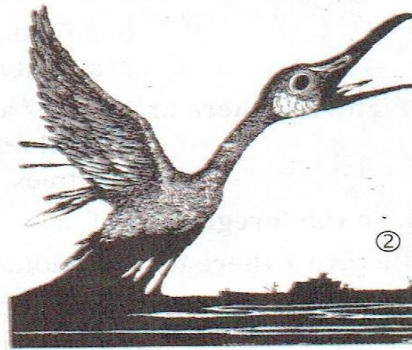
Bird stuck in oil spill

SAY IT IN WRITING

❶ Now write an SOS message (Save Our Souls = urgent call for help). Use the information contained in the boxes above.

Start like this:

> **Environmental threat!**
> If you don't stop spilling oil into the sea now, ...

> **Environmental threat!**
> Do you know what will happen if ... ? .

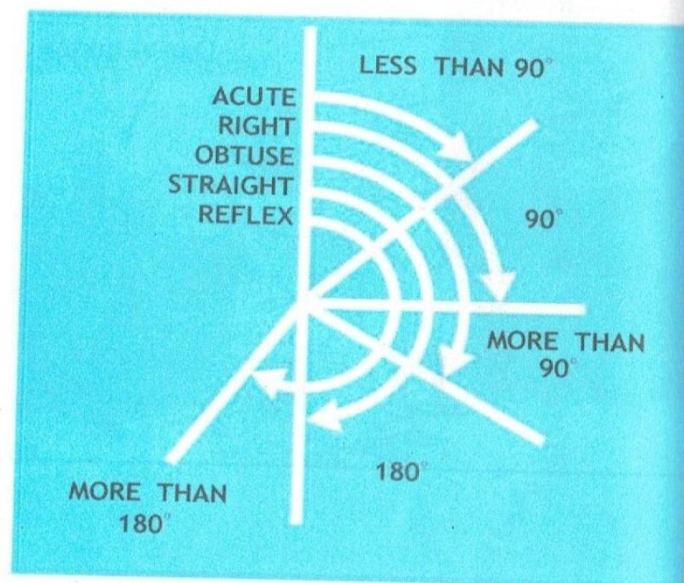❷ Correct the mistakes in your SOS. Then read it to the class.

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DISCOVERING THE LANGUAGE

Before you read

Look at the picture and use the information to write 5 definitions of the angles.

Start like this:

An acute angle is an angle which ...

ACUTE
RIGHT
OBTUSE
STRAIGHT
REFLEX

LESS THAN 90°

90°

MORE THAN 90°

180°

MORE THAN 180°

(Figure 1)

As you read

❶ Read the text below and check your answer to the task above.

Our lesson today is about geometry. Geometry has many branches. The first branch we shall consider is plane geometry – the study of points, lines and figures occurring in planes. Just what do we mean by these terms? A point is the simplest element in geometry. It has neither length nor thickness, which is another way of saying that it has no dimensions. We can represent a point by a dot made with a lead pencil or a piece of chalk. Such a dot is not a geometry point but a physical point since it has length, width and thickness.

If there are two different points, the shortest distance between them is called a straight line. This line segment has only one dimension, called length; it does not have have width or thickness. A straight line that we draw on paper with a pencil has width and thickness.
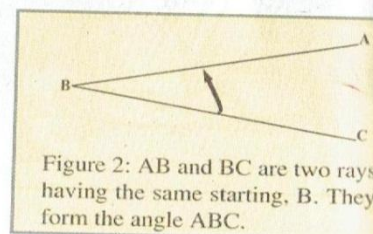

Figure 2: AB and BC are two rays having the same starting, B. They form the angle ABC.

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Appendix M: Phonetic Lesson with a 2nd Year ESC Class

1 Listen to your teacher reading the poem below and the dialogues that follow and cross out the letters which are not pronounced. An example is given to you.

I keep six Ⓗonest serving men

They taught me all I knew.

Their names are What and Why and When

And How and Where and Who.   **(Poem by Rudyard Kipling)**

A ⎰ **You**: I beg your pardon. What did you say?
  ⎱ **Your partner**: I said, "One autumn day a column of condemned prisoners
                       solemnly marched along, singing hymns".

B ⎰ **You**: I beg your pardon. What did the warder say?
  ⎱ **Your partner**: He said, " The knight knocked the knave on his
                       knuckles with a knotted knob. He knew when he knelt on his
                       knees that he had a knife in his knitted knickers".

2 Find the spelling form of the transcribed words in the box.

Pronunciation	Spelling	Pronunciation	Spelling
/ˈlɪsn/		/ˈraɪtɪŋ/	
/rɪˈpɔːt/		/ˈwenzdɪ/	
/fəˈmiːn/		/stɑːv/	
/ˈdɒktə/		/kʌt/	
/ˈkʌbəd/		/kjuːt/	

The name ray is given to the part of a line that starts at a given point. A plane figure formed by two rays is called an angle. In figure 2, there are two rays with the same starting point B. If two lines meet so that all the angles formed are equal, the lines are said to be perpendicular and the angles are called right angles. If two lines cross, the opposite angles are always equal.

If an angle is less than a right angle – that is, if it has less than 90 degrees it is called acute. It is obtuse if it is greater than a right angle – that is , if it has more than 90°. When the obtuse angle becomes so large that its sides form a straight line, it is a straight angle and has 180°. An angle larger than a straight angle is called a reflex angle. Of course it must have more than 180°.

That's all for today. Remember that you'll have an exam in geometry next week. If you revise today's lesson, you will get a good mark. If you don't, you may fail.

🕐 **Read the text again and answer the questions below.**
   1. What is plane geometry?
   2. In geometry, is there any difference between a point and a dot ? Why?
   3. What is the advice that the teacher gives his/her students?

After Reading

GRAMMAR DESK ☐☐☒

Read sentences 1-4 below and answer the questions that follow.
   *1. If you revise today's lesson , **you'll get a good mark**.*
   *2. If two lines cross, **the opposite angles are always equal**.*
   *3. If you don't (revise your lessons), **you may fail**.*
   *4. If there are two points, **the shortest distance between them is called a straight line**.*

   A. Compare the result-clauses of sentences (1 and 2) written in bold type. What do you notice about the tenses used?

   B. Which condition is <u>true at any time</u>, the one in sentence 1 or the one in sentence 2? Why?

   C. Which 'if' in the sentences can you replace by <u>when</u>? Re-write them using **when**.

   D. Order sentences 1-4 above according to the **degree of certainty** expressed in the result clauses.

   See Grammar Reference N°11, pp.201-202 ▶

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Unfortunately, the loss of energy balance is not without health and social consequences. Owing to this loss, a lot of people today suffer from obesity. According to the World Health Organisation, for the first time in history, the world population counts more obese people than slim **ones**. As a result of overweight, many of them have developed diseases that cost the social security systems of **their** countries billions and billions of dollars every year. The financial problem of these security systems is likely to worsen as no concrete measures are taken to treat the real causes of overweight at world level. (§4)

/ʌnˈfɔːtʃʊnətlɪ/
/əʊˈbiːsətɪ/
/əʊˈbiːs/
/ˈəʊvəweɪt/
/dɪˈveləpt/
/ˈkʌntrɪz/
/ˈwɜːsn/
/ˈmeʒəz/

Since obesity in our modern times is caused mostly by a loss of energy balance, **which** is due mainly to the impact of junk food adverts, it is high time our governments passed laws to limit this influence. Advertisements of unhealthy foods are as harmful as advertisements for cigarettes. Therefore, **they** should be banned from the media, and health warnings should be added on the labels of fast food packages. (§5) (**Text written by the authors)**

/ˈmɒdn/

/ˈgʌvənmənt/
/ʌnˈhelθɪ/
/ˌsɪgəˈrets/
/ˈwɔːnɪŋz/
/ˈpækɪdʒɪz/

③ What do the words written in bold in the text refer to ?

━━━━━ Around the text ━━━━━

Grammar Explorer I

Consider the tenses used in the text above and answer questions A-B below.
  A. The tense which is mostly used in the text is the present simple. Why ?
  B. In what other situations/cases do we use this tense ? Give sentences of your own to illustrate your answers.

Have another look at **the present simple tense** in SE2 Grammar Reference. p.188.

Grammar Explorer II

Consider sentences 1 and 2 below and answer questions A-D that follow.
1. **If they eat too little food or the wrong kind of food**, they won't get enough energy.
2. **If they eat too much food**, they will put on weight.

  A. Do the clauses in bold type express reality or supposition ? How do you know ?
  B. What do the two clauses which are not written in bold express ?

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C. Which of them are the main clauses and which are the subordinate clauses ?

D. Why are they called so ?

Have another look at **the if-conditional** in **SE2** Book. pp.201-202

●**Task:** Use the items A-G below to write if-conditional sentences. Start each sentence with the second clause from the sentence before. The first one is done for you.

A. eat rotten food

B. have a serious indigestion

C. go and see a doctor

D. hospitalize you for two to three weeks

E. lose your job

F. no longer earn enough money to buy good food

G. eating decaying food

E.g.

A. If you eat rotten food, you will have a serious indigestion.

B. If you have a serious indigestion, _____

Grammar Explorer II

① Go back to the text on the previous pages and answer the following questions.

A. Which quantifier in the first paragraph is closest in meaning

to '**sufficient**' or '**appropriate**' ?

B. Pick out the 4 sentences that contain quantifiers and the degree adverb **too**. Which ones mean '**an excessive amount of**' and which ones mean '**not enough/ an insufficient amount of**' ?

C. What other quantifiers and other quantity expressions can you find in the text? Pick them out and discuss which type of nouns they can be used with (countable nouns, uncountable nouns or both).

D. Do you know of any other quantifiers? Use them in illustrative sentences.

See Grammar Reference pp. 216-217.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة آراء أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية في استعمال اللغة الأم (اللغة العربية) في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية بالطورين الثانوي والإكمالي في منطقة توات،(أدرار). وأيضا العوامل التي تؤدي بالأساتذة إلى استعمال اللغة العربية، وقد استعملت الباحثة في هذه الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي الذي يتناسب مع الدراسة . واشتمل البحث على العينة التالية 120 أستاذة (60) أستاذ تعليم متوسط و(60) أستاذ تعليم ثانوي، 13 محادثة و 31 ملاحظات في الأقسام.

ولغرض اتمام الدراسة استعملت الباحثة الأدوات التالية:

1 –الاستبيان 2– الملاحظات–3 المقابلات الشخصية المحادثة وهي مقصودة (تسجيل صوتي).

وقد خلصت الدراسة إلى ما يلي :

من خلال الاستبيان انقسمت آراء الأساتذة إلى مجموعتين منهم ما هو ايجابي والاخر سلبي اتجاه استعمال اللغة العربية ذلك للاستبيان.

أما بالنسبة للمحادثة المقصودة قد أضافت مجموعة من العوامل التي ادت بالأساتذة الى استعمال اللغة العربية كدافعية التعليم، المستوى التعليمي، الجانب الثقافي الاجتماعي للمتعلم ،غياب دور الأولياء،البرنامج التعليمي المكثف، الزمن المتاح للتدريس، نقص الوسائل التعليمية، نقص التكوين للأساتذة.

أما نتائج الملاحظات فإن اللغة العربية قد كانت تستعمل لعدة أغراض مثل شرح القواعد والكلمات الصعبة، ترجمة الجمل في حصص القراءة ،شرح تعليمات التمارين للتأكد من فهم التلاميذ لتصحيح أخطاء التلاميذ للتحكم في تسيير نظام القسم، للتغيير من وتيرة الحصص (النكتة) .

الكلمات المفتاحية: اللغة الام ، التعليم، اللغة الإنجليزية، منطقة توات

Résumé

La présente recherche vise à connaitre les opinions des enseignants de la langue anglaise, notamment ceux appartenant à l'enseignement moyen et secondaire quant à l'emploi de la langue maternelle (l'Arabe) et les raisons qui les mènent à son utilisation comme moyen d'apprentissage durant la disposition des cours d'anglais dans la région du Touat (Adrar). Afin de mieux illustrer notre recherche, nous avons procédé à l'application de la méthode statistique à la fois descriptive et analytique et mis en pratique les trois outils suivants : questionnaire, interview, et observation. Et nous avons abouti aux résultats ci-dessous :

Pour le questionnaire pratiqué sur un échantillon de 120 enseignants, nous avons constaté que certains sont pour l'utilisation de la dite langue maternelle et d'autre sont contre. Quant aux interviews, les enseignants présument que l'intégration de la langue maternelle des apprenants en classe est due au : niveaux des apprenants, absence du rôle des parents, insuffisance du temps alloué à la séance d'anglais, manque de moyens didactiques, programmes chargés, et manque de formation de perfectionnement. Après avoir assisté 31 séances, nous avons remarqué que la langue maternelle est employée dans le but d'expliquer les mots difficiles, traduction durant les séances de lecture, explications des énoncés d'exercices, et correction des erreurs.

Mots clés : Langue maternelle, arabe, région Touat, enseignants, classes d'anglais, opinion