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**NON-NATIVE
ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS:
INVESTIGATION OF
USING THE LEARNERS' MOTHER TONGUE**

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*"The sun never sets
on the English language"*

Joshua Fishman

Prologue

In June 2005 I happened to visit Budapest for the occasion of presenting my doctorate proposal to the distinguished scholars at ELTE University. My stay in this beautiful city, has contributed a lot to my understanding of the intricate nature of Foreign Language Acquisition. I will open this research by citing Freeman and Larsen-Freeman, "*knowing a language is something that we all do as part of being human, yet it is very difficult to define the nature of the capacity that allows us to do so. In terms of "foreign" language teaching, the question is more than simply a philosophical one; it becomes critical to all those involved in the enterprise, whether directly as teachers and students or indirectly as curriculum developers, policymakers, test designers, parents, and the broader community*" (2008:155).

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Abbreviations

EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
LA	Language Awareness
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MT	Mother Tongue
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NES	Native English Speaker
NNES	Non-Native English Speaker
SL	Second Language
SMK	Subject Matter Knowledge
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target Language
TLA	Teacher Language Awareness

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This research is dedicated to my loved grand parents Yona and Itzchak Finkelstein, Yona and Nahum Lichtenberg.

Dorit Telor-Reize

PREFACE

When I am angry, I am angry in Hebrew
(An Israeli English teacher)

Two of the most controversial topics in the EFL profession have been the use of the learner's mother tongue (MT) in the EFL classroom and the issue of native versus non-native English-speaking teachers.

The proponents of using L1 see it as promoting both language learning and acquisition. At the micro level, teachers can utilize L1 to facilitate input (Van Lier and Turnball in Turnball and Arnett, 2002:205), class management, comprehension check, and vocabulary instruction (Atkinson, 1993). At the macro level, Kramsch (1993) and McKay (in Hinkel, 2005:281) claim that the mother tongue is integral to the important interface between diverse cultures and languages. Moreover, Widdowson (1996), among others, harnesses the mother tongue to enable learners to 'appropriate' the foreign language. On the other hand, the opponents maintain that foreign language teaching should occur in the target language. They advocate 'English only' classrooms which enable maximum exposure to the target language (Polio and Duff, 1994; Macaro, 1997) and insist on the link between foreign language performance and teacher use of the TL (Burstall et al., 1974; Carroll, 2001).

The notion of using the learner's mother tongue is believed by some to be a corollary of being a non-native English-speaking teacher. According to Inbar (2001:63), an agreed definition of a native speaker is not available. She claims that "the three most commonly used criteria for defining native speakers in research and for placement purposes are: mother tongue, birth in a country where the language is spoken and self-asciption". Medgyes (1994) differentiates between native speaker and non-native speaker teachers in relation to language proficiency and teaching behaviors. Whereas native speaker teachers tend to be less textbook-dependent, non-native speaker teachers may provide better role models by teaching effective learning strategies and giving learners explicit information about the target language. Kamhi-Stein, Lee & Lee (1999) add that both kinds of teachers "have an equal chance to become successful teachers, but the routes used by the two groups are not the same".

Teaching English as a foreign language in Israel juxtaposes the place of L1 and non-native English-speaking teachers. I addressed these issues by designing and implementing a research project which originates from the normal practice of teaching EFL in Israel and my work as an English supervisor in a non-profit organization¹. However, changes have occurred along the lengthy and curved road, and as Frost says, "yet knowing how way leads on to way, I doubted if I should ever come back". Instead of conducting a research solely in Israel, I chose the road "less traveled by" and pursued my research over the ocean, in Hungary².

This study aims to characterize the use of the pupils' mother tongue in the EFL classroom concerning non-native English-speaking teachers.

In order to do the above, the following questions were posed:

1. Do non-native English-speaking teachers use their pupils' mother tongue in the course of an EFL lesson?
2. How frequently do non-native English-speaking teachers use their pupils' mother tongue in the course of an EFL lesson?
3. In which situations does this code-switching occur? Which function does it play?
4. What makes teachers use their students' mother tongue?

Bearing those questions in mind, I designed a descriptive research, (McDonough & McDonough, 1997), which was well grounded in the qualitative methods of study, although some quantitative data was used as well. The research included two phases.

Phase A focused on collecting data on phenomena which are not easily observed. Accordingly, 30 Israeli EFL teachers were asked to fill in a questionnaire and take part in a group interview regarding their attitudes towards using the learner's mother tongue (Hebrew) in EFL lessons.

Phase B collected further data on the research questions using observations and interviews. In addition, this phase of the research took a look at EFL teachers in a different context: Hungary. 4 Hungarian EFL teachers as well as 5 Israeli EFL teachers were observed while teaching intermediate EFL classes. The Hungarian teachers were later interviewed in a group and the Israeli teachers were interviewed individually.

¹ The function consists of designing syllabi and course materials, assessing both teachers and learners and providing the teachers with didactic and pedagogic guidance.

² Hebrew and Hungarian share a common feature: both derive from other sources than Latin and therefore are totally distinct from English.

The organization of this study is as follows. **Part A** sets the scene for the research as a whole by reviewing relevant studies and designing the research. It looks at teaching EFL, using the mother tongue in the classroom, and the issue of native versus non-native English speaking teachers. **Part B** sets out to collect data regarding the attitudes of NNES teachers towards using the students' mother tongue in the EFL classroom. This part elaborates on Phase A of the research. It firstly describes the design and results of the questionnaire. Second, it reviews the methodology and findings of the group interview. It concludes by discussing the findings of both tools. **Part C** details the second phase of the research, starting with the observations, continuing with the interviews, and ending with a discussion of all the findings. Lastly, in **Part D**, I shed light on the results arising from the entire research. I discuss the findings, their implications, future directions, and the limitations of the research.

PART A: Literature Review

INTRODUCTION

In this part, I will lay ground for the research as a whole by reviewing relevant studies and designing the research. I will look at teaching EFL, using the mother tongue in the classroom, and the issue of native versus non-native English speaking teachers.

Chapter 1: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Introduction

The coming section will firstly try to define and characterize teaching English as a Foreign Language. Secondly, local practice of EFL in Israel and Hungary will be reviewed.

Definition: ESL /EFL

Prior to discussing the issue of teaching EFL, I would like to address the major differences between ESL and EFL.

Quoting Levine et al. (2002), "ESL is typically taught in the immersion context, where English is the language of the environment" and functions as a recognized means of communication among people in the community" (Ellis, 1994:12). The students usually come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, i.e. the teaching of English to immigrants in the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada and Australia.

On the other hand, "EFL is taught to students in an environment that is different from the language being taught. The students are usually of the same cultural and linguistic background" (Levine et al. 2002). Moreover, as Tomlinson stresses, this environment or community is "inevitably influenced by norms that are not those of English-speaking countries and those norms influence the teachers' and learners' expectations of the language learning process" (in: Hinkel, 2005:137). Thus, the teaching of English in Israel and Hungary characterizes EFL.

However, the dichotomy ESL / EFL may seem artificial or outdated. Firstly, from being a "foreign" language, English has become a **global basic skill** in most countries (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008:172). Secondly, due to globalization and the rapid expansion of information technologies, there has been an increased demand for English worldwide, leading to a greater diversification in the contexts and situations in which it is learned and used (Carter & Nunan, 2004:2).

Characteristics of the FL classroom and FL learner

The classroom is, no doubt, the principal learning context for many learners, and it forms its own language use, norms, and interaction (Tsui, 2004). Classroom language use is often typified by recurring tasks, patterns of interaction, question-and answer routines, and turn-taking.

The classroom, as with any other contexts of teaching and learning, constitutes a massive part in shaping processes within it and effecting learning outcomes. Nevertheless, Larsen-Freeman and Freeman argue that language as subject matter is of complex nature: "unlike other school subjects, languages can be readily learned outside of classrooms, and furthermore, the proficiency that can come with learning a language in the world is often seen as the standard of mastery for the subject in the classroom" (2008:163).

The components of the FL classroom include: the setting, participants, purposes and transactions that characterize a language learning situation. As with any other class, the FL classroom has its own culture which is the outcome of the interrelationships between its *ecological* systems as represented in figure 1, taken from Hawkins (in Hinkel, 2005:28)

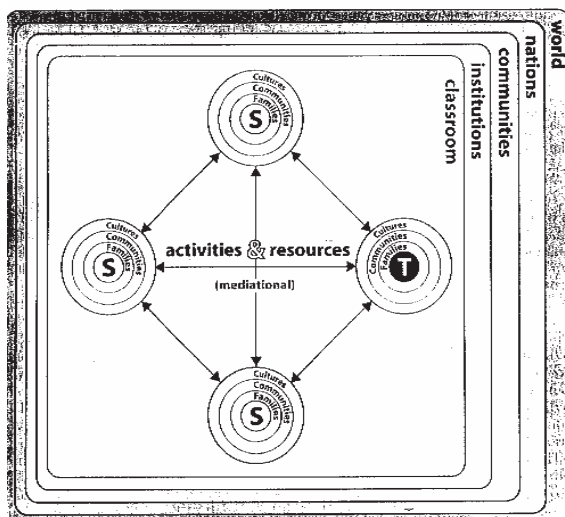


Figure 1: Interrelationships between the classroom's ecological systems

In the figure below, Hawkins describes how "each participant in the classroom (with students represented by 's' and the teacher by 't') embodies and represents larger discourses into which they have been socialized. These are represented by the circles labeled 'families', 'communities, and cultures'. Thus, classroom interactions derive from pupils' diverse beliefs, values, and practices which are constantly being negotiated [as the] classroom is situated in larger institutional, cultural, and societal contexts. These are represented by the rings around the classroom" (Hawkins in Hinkel, 2005:28).

The ESL/EFL classroom is, by definition, a place where different cultures meet and interact. Social values and norms may collide when the teacher comes from a different culture. For example, in the Japanese classroom students are reluctant to ask questions, even when they do not understand. The teacher opens the floor to questions and as Jiang (2001:384) observes, "Students always say 'no' even when they do have questions". Nevertheless, researchers agree that learners undergo similar stages regardless of their cultural background when beginning to learn a foreign language (Tomlinson in Hinkel, 2005:144).

The traditional FL classroom is different from classrooms in other disciplines. According to Macaro (1997), it is a place where: (1) a learner is asked to operate in a state of almost total linguistic dependence on the teacher; (2) the topic of discourse, the linguistic interaction, the pace of delivery, the intensity of language and action, the establishment of social norms and of relationships are all dominated by one member (the teacher) speaking a language often foreign to him/her and to the pupils; (3) a learner has to articulate the language of others (textbook authors) in front of an audience as if it were his/her own voice; (4) (some) teachers try to suppress the learners use of the L1 (in Oliveira 2002:21).

Language learning strategies and learning styles are extremely important for SLA/FLA to take place. The major learning styles include: visual vs. auditory vs. kinesthetic, global vs. analytic, concrete-sequential vs. intuitive-random, and ambiguity-tolerant vs. ambiguity-intolerant (Oxford, 2001; Ely, 1989; Oxford and Ehrman, 1995; Reid, 1995). For more information regarding learning strategies see appendix 1.)

Felder (1995) recommends adopting a "multistyle approach to education" which means balancing instructional methods and techniques to address learners' differences. In a later article, Felder and Brent claim that one of the goals of instruction is to equip students with the skills associated with every learning style category, regardless of the students' personal

preferences, since they will need all of those skills to function effectively as professionals (2005:58).

The more teachers know about their students' needs, in terms of learning strategies and styles, the better they can focus their teaching. Researchers highly recommend conducting strategy assessment and instruction. Familiarizing the learners with the dictionary is an example of a simple strategy instruction which may yield beneficial results.

Finally, we must not forget that in the context of any L2 classroom, the three main sources of input for learners are materials, other learners, and the teacher (Andrews 1999:165). No doubt, most of the input learners are exposed to in L2/EFL, comes from the teacher (Andrews, 2003:90). In other words, the teacher plays a crucial part in making the input available to pupils and its impact on their learning. Most importantly, the quality of linguistic input students are exposed to, often depends upon the extent to which the classroom can become a context for authentic or semi – authentic language use (Baily, 2004). Tomlinson maintains that "EFL teachers, wherever they are, should teach in ways that suit their beliefs and personality while being sensitive to the needs and wants of their learners and to the prevailing norms of the cultures in which they are teaching" (in: Hinkel, 20005:150).

Motivation

Researchers and educators consent that motivation is of great significance in FL learning. Motivation can supersede other factors, such as language aptitude and affect achievements both positively and negatively. I will now review three main theories in motivational psychology: *goal-directed* approach, *expectancy-value* approach, and *the self-determination* approach.

Gardner defines L2 learning motivation as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (1985). He stipulates that in order to comprehend learners' motivation, we have to understand the learners' ultimate *goal* for learning the language (*the learner's orientation*). Gardner identified two distinct orientations for learning a language: *integrative* and *instrumental*. Integrative motivation is typified by the learner's positive reaction towards the culture of the TL community. The learner likes the TL speakers, admires the culture and wants to become familiar with the society where the TL is spoken.

Instrumental motivation refers to functional motives: meeting school or job requirements, advancing a career, or achieving higher social status. As a social psychologist, Gardner adds another component to his theory, namely, the learner's attitudes towards the learning situation (the instructor, the textbook, the methodology, the classmates and so forth).

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) counterbalance psychosocial factors of motivation with attitudinal factors, particularly those found in the classroom. They describe four levels in L2 motivation which include Keller's conditions¹: the micro level, the classroom level, the syllabus level and factors outside the classroom. The *micro level* refers to the cognitive processing of L2 input. The *classroom level* involves classroom

activities and how they trigger the learner's expectancy of success and control. The *level of syllabus* is represented by the interest and curiosity caused by the content of instruction. The fourth level comprehends outside factors such as interactions in the L2. Following Crookes and Schmidt, Dörnyei developed a model of motivation in the language classroom based on three levels. The *language level* refers to the orientations (à la Gardner) which determine the language studied and the learning goals. The *learner level* involves the learner's internal and affective traits which are connected to expectancy. The *learning situation level* includes extrinsic and intrinsic motives that are course specific to the teacher, the course and the group of pupils.

One must remember the issue of learner's use of the target language outside of the classroom. Whether and how learners make use of the target language in relation to the other languages that they speak has a crucial influence on their motivation and attitudes regarding the target language. In an attempt to describe motivation in a typical European foreign language learning context, Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh explain that learners in a foreign language context have hardly any contact with the target language. As a result, their integrative motivation is determined by general attitudes, tenets and an interest in the "cultural and intellectual values of the target language"(2006).

Learners' beliefs about language learning are of paramount importance. Preconceived beliefs can directly influence a learner's attitude or motivation, and precondition his/her success or failure. While supportive and positive beliefs facilitate overcoming problems and thus sustain

¹ Keller introduced four conditions for motivation: interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. These conditions are inherent to expectancy-value theory.

motivation, negative or unrealistic beliefs may decrease motivation, and entail frustration and anxiety (Kern, 1995; Oh, 1996; and Kuntz, 1996; cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko 2005). As Bernat and Gvozdenko explain, "students who believe, for example, that learning a language primarily involves learning new vocabulary will spend most of their energy on vocabulary acquisition, while older learners who believe in the superiority of younger learners probably begin language learning with fairly negative expectations of their own ultimate success" (2005).

Nevertheless, it is assumed that a teacher who knows his students, their needs and interests, can foster a desire to learn. In this way, as Clearfield claims, "the teacher helps to build a mutual trust between himself and the students, by creating an atmosphere which is comfortable and yet challenging and intense" (2006:17). Activities, tasks and classroom exercises have a powerful influence on the student's motivation. Each classroom technique is crucial, whether it concerns the teaching mode (e.g. working in pairs vs. working in teams), the content (textbook vs. recording), or the skill to be mastered (speaking vs. writing).

Teaching English as a Foreign Language: History and Current Approaches

The teaching of EFL has seen many approaches. I will now portray the key trends in the 20th century.

At the beginning of the 20th century, English was taught through **grammar-translation** pedagogy. It was uniquely teacher-fronted. Teachers explained grammar and new vocabulary, while students copied notes, read texts in the TL and translated them into their MT. As Larsen–Freeman and Freeman rightly stress "In this period, language learning in classrooms bore little or no connection to language learning or language use in the world outside of school" ((2008:150). Clearly, speaking and communication skills were not on the agenda.

At the beginning of the 1940s, the **direct method** and the **reading method** were the outcome of a reaction against the grammar translation method. It was based on the assumption that the learner should think directly in the target language. Accordingly, the learner learns the target language through discussion, conversation and reading in the second language, starting with qualities and things that could be represented visually.

Widely practiced in the 1950's, structural linguistics and behavioral psychology influenced the emergence of the **audio-lingual approach**. Teacher-led drills and correction, coupled with listening to audio input, were fundamental in this pedagogy.

In the 1960s, cognitive psychology and generative linguistics entailed a “**natural approach**”, stressing maximized exposure to input which would eventually lead to pupils speaking in their own time and pace (thus imitating the conditions in which children learn their MT).

During the 1970's and 1980's, parallel to the global expansion of English, the focus was on spoken proficiency, later called “**communicative competence**” in the 1980's. Communicative competence included the following components: linguistic knowledge, interaction skills, and cultural knowledge. Communicative competence and its applications have since continued to be highly influential in classroom pedagogy, (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008).

During the 1980s and especially in the 1990s, approaches to teaching EFL tended to be eclectic and amalgamated principles of the communicative, audio-lingual and even direct methods, while trying to cater to the learner's needs and focused on language for specific purposes, tasks, negotiation of meaning, and content.

With the arrival of the new millennium, English teaching has entered a new era where language teaching and learning practices, as well as language knowledge, are in a state of constant change and redefinition. Larsen-Freeman and Freeman coin the term **postdisciplinarity** and define it as "the period in which the overarching definitions of knowledge in many disciplines are decomposing and are being overtaken by local practices" (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008:178-9).

EFL and Teacher Language Awareness

The realm of language awareness is a topic for many studies in educational linguistics. What follows, aims to introduce it to the readers, given its relevance to the research.

"Language awareness (LA) assumes that some form or level of awareness about linguistic use, knowledge and learning is beneficial for both learners and teachers" (van Lier, 2004:161). There are diverse views of what is included under the umbrella of LA and how it can be brought

about. Issues such as metacognitive strategies, implicit and explicit learning, instruction versus knowledge, and the necessity of attention to input and focusing, among others, make the complex concept of LA. However, I will discuss only Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) here.

Though any attempt at segmenting TLA may seem more analytical than real, Andrews (2003) and others detail the following categories: psychometric skills, strategic competence, language competence, subject matter cognitions, knowledge of learner, knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of context, and knowledge of pedagogy.

Andrews (2003:85-86) enumerates three characteristics of TLA:

1. Relationship between knowledge about language (Subject Matter Knowledge) and knowledge of language (language proficiency) and its impact on pedagogical practice.
2. The metacognitive nature of TLA enables teachers to plan and teach as their reflections regarding both SMK and language proficiency enjoy a cognitive dimension.
3. Awareness of language from the learner's perspective. The teacher has to be able to assess the linguistic knowledge and needs of his pupils. This awareness helps the teacher estimate future reception of the methodological and pedagogical materials. The teacher should acknowledge the students' capabilities and interests and model his lessons to meet these needs.

Thus, TLA is directly linked to the professional knowledge base of the L2/EFL teacher and teacher professionalism. Researchers identify knowledge of subject matter as the core of TLA. In this perspective, subject matter knowledge refers to the knowledge and understanding of subject matter on the part of the teachers (Shulman, 1986). As Haim puts it, "In the area of teacher cognition, both theory and research highlight the intricate relationship between the amount and depth of teachers' subject matter knowledge and its influence on their classroom teaching...subject matter knowledge is an essential component in teachers' instruction and has a pervasive influence on aspects of their pedagogical practices" (2005:5).

Richards describes subject matter knowledge for teaching English as a second language as "what second language teachers need to know about their subject – the specialized concepts, theories, and disciplinary knowledge that constitute the theoretical basis for the field of second language teaching" [For example, familiarizing with Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis]. Richards continues that "subject

matter knowledge refers to what teachers need to know about what they teach (rather than what they know about teaching itself) and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared with teachers of other subject areas, or indeed with no teachers" (1998:8-9). Freeman and Johnson distinguish between *subject matter knowledge* and *content knowledge*. While *subject matter knowledge* refers to the professional or disciplinary perception, *content knowledge* relates to the teachers' and students' perceptions of what is taught in a language lesson. (1998:410).

Shulman and his colleagues constructed a model of teachers' knowledge that differentiates between various categories of content knowledge amongst which is subject matter content knowledge, defined as the amount and organization of knowledge in the mind of teachers. They further stipulated the term *pedagogical content knowledge* which refers to the transformation of subject matter content knowledge to others, namely students, and catering it to their age, background, motivational, developmental and linguistic needs (Shulman, 1986; Wilson, Shulman & Richert 1987).

Haim (2005) points out two types of subject matter content knowledge for foreign language teachers: *linguistic* and *non-linguistic*. The first includes phonology, lexicon, syntax, discourse functions, sociolinguistic knowledge, interactional knowledge and knowledge of communication strategies, as well as strategies for enabling skills and their subskills. Haim further suggests that the linguistic dimension of subject matter content knowledge may also comprise "discipline-derived understanding from the fields of inquiry on which it is based, namely linguistics, applied linguistics, second/foreign language acquisition and so on". *Non linguistic* content relates to the culture and the literature of the target language. It also includes science, history, art, social issues, educational, economics and politics. Thus, the second type of content deals with what is expressed by the subject matter of English (pp. 8-9).

The relative importance of grammar as a component in language knowledge has been and seemingly always will be an issue of debate, whether taught and learnt overtly (formal methods) or as a by-product (communicative methods). Andrews notes that "for teachers who are themselves products of an education system in which the formal teaching of grammar was anathema, this uncertainty is often accompanied by considerable worry and doubt about their own KAL [knowledge about language] and about the impact it might have in the teaching/learning process" (1999:162-163). He claims that a teacher has to possess both

implicit and explicit language knowledge, and that "the extent to which she is able to do so determines how well she is able to act as a model for her students" (1999:163). Having studied ESL teachers in secondary schools in Hong Kong, Tsui describes four realms of knowledge germane to grammar instruction: knowledge of the English Language, language teaching and language learning; knowledge of how learning should be organized; knowledge of other curricula; and knowledge of students' interests (2003:200-201).

Finally, due to massive demand for English worldwide, concerns as to the subject matter knowledge of English as second or foreign language teachers, both NS and NNS have increased. Different surveys (e.g. Hong Kong 1994) have proved that proficient teachers may lack knowledge about the language. On the other hand, teachers who are well familiarized with the linguistic and non-linguistic contents of English may have difficulty in speaking.

To conclude the issue of foreign language study and TLA, I would now present Andrews' model (figure 2): Teacher language awareness (TLA), language proficiency, and pedagogical content knowledge (Andrews 2003:91).

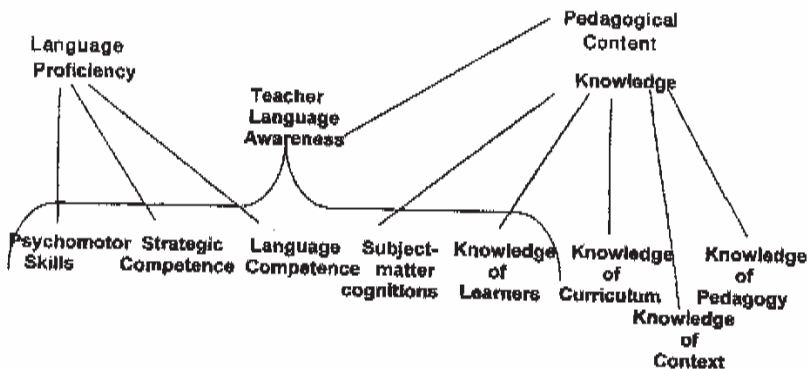


Figure 2: Teacher language awareness, language proficiency, and pedagogical content knowledge

Teaching EFL in Israel

Background

English is taught in Israeli schools as a compulsory first foreign language. According to the Ministry of Education, regular classes start to acquire English in the fourth grade. However, many schools begin English in the third or second grade. English is a preferred school subject, meaning that the pupils receive more hours than they do in other subjects.

According to Spolsky and Shohamy from the Israeli Language Policy Research Center, (2006), "English is considered the first foreign language and is optional in 3rd and 4th grade and compulsory throughout the rest of the school system. While the policy mentions French as an option, both popular sentiment and university entrance requirements mean it is never selected instead of English". In a recent study, carried out by Donitsa-Schmidt (2005), English was found to be superior to other languages because of its universality and socio-economic importance. The respondents emphasized the link between English and future success.

Thus, English is *de facto* the second language of speakers of both Hebrew and Arabic. It is the main language for external commerce and tourism, and a required language for all Jewish and Arab schools, and for the universities (which teach in Hebrew). As a result, there is a great demand for English teachers.

Quoting Spolsky (1998) in reference to the status of English in Israel "its growing standing is shown by the way that popular and political pressure dragged a reluctant Ministry of Education into agreeing to teach English in earlier and earlier grades. There has been increasing exposure of Israelis to the English language, through television and popular culture, tourism and travel, commerce, and the virtual world of computers". Spolsky mentions the effects of the immigration to Israel of a sizable number of English-speakers and the close political, economic and personal relations with English-speaking countries as two of the factors contributing to the prestigious position that English enjoys in Israel.

Teachers

The English teaching population in the Israeli school system is characterized by a relatively high proportion of native speaker teachers as well as non-native speaking teachers of different origin (Inbar, 2001:48). Exact numbers are unknown as the information is strictly confidential.

Despite the increased demand for English teachers, they are thoroughly selected by school authorities as English is accorded a preferred position in the educational system and the pupils achievements are highly regarded (Kelman and Tatar, 1992).

As Inbar points out "no clear preference is officially indicated for either native or non-native teachers, though as a result of the shortage of English teachers it is often the case that native English speakers are placed in the schools with often minimal EFL training" (2001:52).

Since Israel is an immigrant-absorbing nation, there is a population of new immigrant English teachers. These teachers arrive in Israel as adults and can be classified into three main groups according to their origin: English speaking countries, the former USSR and other non-English speaking countries. Although based on a single variable, namely, country of origin, findings show that while teachers who are native of English speaking countries were characterized by a learner-focused and open method to teaching, their colleagues from the former USSR adopted a curriculum-focused strict approach (Horovitz & Armani, 1993; Alper, 1994; Horowitz & Frenkel, 1977 in Inbar, 2001). On the whole, new immigrant teachers highlighted students' discipline problems, different knowledge and cultural norms, and lack of staff cooperation as obstacles in their professional career.

Israeli English teachers have an active organization (ETAI) where they collaborate, in addition to their local affiliation.

In a document entitled *Professional Standards for English Teachers* (2004) the English Inspectorate (within the Israeli Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport) clearly defines the benchmarks of teacher's knowledge and teaching performance as follows:

Content: Teachers are proficient in the English language, aware of its structure, and are able to teach it to learners. Teachers are familiar with a range of literary texts and cultural aspects of the English-speaking world, and use their knowledge to promote learners' literary and cultural appreciation.

Learning and the learner: Teachers know about learning processes in general (cognitive, metacognitive, and affective factors) and language learning in particular, and apply this knowledge in their teaching. Teachers are aware of how learners differ and cater to these differences in their teaching.

Teaching and the teacher: Teachers are aware of, use, and manage various patterns of classroom interaction appropriate for teaching English as a foreign language. Teachers know about the principles of effective planning and engage in short- and

long-term planning of their teaching, including assessment, in accordance with the English Curriculum. Teachers know about the range of English-teaching materials available and critically evaluate, select, adapt, and design materials appropriate to their learners. Teachers are aware of the importance of developing professionally and use a variety of means to do so.

Assessment: Teachers are aware of the role of assessment for improving learning as an integral part of the teaching-learning process. Teachers assess the progress of their learners as part of their teaching routine. Teachers know about theories and methods of assessment and match them with the appropriate tasks and tools. Teachers are aware of the importance of involving learners and actively engaging them in the different stages of the assessment process. Teachers know about theories of language testing and design, and use tests appropriately.

Classroom environment: Teachers are aware of and apply principles of effective classroom management in order to create a framework for optimal learning. Teachers are aware of the importance of, and do their best to create, a physical learning environment that is actively conducive to learning English.

Methodology

In 2001, the English Inspectorate (within the Israeli Ministry of Education) issued the *New Curriculum for English in All Grades* the goal of which was "to set standards for four domains of English language learning: social interaction; access to information; presentation; and appreciation of literature and culture, and language". According to this curriculum, by the end of twelfth grade, pupils should be able to: "interact effectively in a variety of situations; obtain and make use of information from a variety of sources and media; present information in an organized manner; appreciate literature and other cultures and the nature of language" (2001).

In grade 1 and 2 the pupils are taught mainly oral skills through games, songs, drama, and visual aids. However, when it comes to the teaching of reading and writing, teachers are required to ensure that there is a period of one year of listening and speaking practice prior to the teaching of reading, if learners begin studying English before the fourth grade (and a period of three to four months if learners begin studying English in the fourth grade). Planning to initiate a school English language program in the early grades should take into account the need for pupils to master basic language and literacy skills in Hebrew (or Arabic) before studying English. Israeli students are tested in English in a modular exam (7 levels) both in 11th and 12th grade. In addition, each school is tested every two years in *Meitzav* examinations (grade 5 and 8). The exam

includes "tasks in the domains of written social interaction, access to information from written and spoken texts and presentation (Israel Ministry of Education, 2004).

Deutsch stipulates that "the new curriculum addressed Posner's (2004) constructivist perspective on curriculum and learning, information processing aligned with brain-based learning theories, and the needs of Israeli learners"(2007). The curriculum focuses on social interaction, appreciation of literature and other cultures, and recognition of language learning as "a communicative skill reflecting cognitive processes" (Schunk, 2004:393) by creating "an effective and efficient language learning environment that fosters pupil development and achievement" (State of Israel Ministry of Education, 2001: 7).

Deutsch, among others, maintains that the curriculum has successfully encompassed the needs of the EFL learner by setting principles and standards that suggest the learning process is more important than the content (State of Israel Ministry of Education, 2001). The learner gains ownership of the learning by engaging in relevant and meaningful activities which (a) relate to learners' prior experiences, (b) encourage problem-based inquiry and higher order critical thinking skills, such as analyzing, comparing, generalizing, predicting and hypothesizing, (c) provide meaningful real-world authentic content for student reflection, self-evaluation and peer assessment, and (d) focus on the process as ongoing (State of Israel Ministry of Education, 2001:13).

The underlying principles of the program view language learning as a process that engages students in meaningful communication (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Richards, 2006; State of Israel Ministry of Education, 2001) while empowering "teachers as curriculum developers" (State of Israel Ministry of Education, 2001, p.9). The national curriculum instructs teachers to use positive reinforcement, show equity and tolerance for diversity, provide student choices, and informs teachers on effective "principles of language teaching" (State of Israel Ministry of Education, 2001, p. 11)

Despite the fact that the Curriculum has set goals for the EFL classroom, leaving the schools and the teachers as much freedom as possible in choosing the methodology used, most of the lessons are frontal, using traditional methodologies and teaching aids (in Inbar, 2001). A later study among junior high school teachers by Ben Simon et al. indicated similar results and found less frequent the use of games, audio and video programs and newspapers in English. In the past decade, though most

schools feature an English site and are inter-linked, only some have integrated technology and computers in their everyday teaching practices (in Inbar, 2001).

With regards to assessment, Israeli teachers are still using tests as the primary criteria for deciding on students' final grade, although they have begun using alternative assessment methods (Azam, 1998). Yariv's study (1998) indicated that teachers felt they lacked the knowledge and training required to practice assessment procedures; and as Shoamy (2000) claimed this was due to insufficient teacher training in linking assessment to instruction or, on the other hand, the fact that they still questioned the power of alternative assessment procedures.

As a result, the English Inspectorate issued a document called *Assessment Guidelines for the English Curriculum* which details the current Ministry's performance-based approach to education and classroom assessment and explains its principles to the teachers. Thus, instead of using traditional assessment methods which usually ask, "Do you know the information" (Israel Ministry of Education Culture and Sport 2002:1) the teachers are encouraged to assess how well can pupils use the information and in the context of language instruction, how well can pupils apply the linguistic skills they have acquired.

Most of the textbooks and teaching aids for English language instruction are produced in Israel. On the whole, monolingual publications outnumber bilingual ones.

Teaching EFL in Hungary

Background

According to Szabolcs (2005), the year 1989 represented a turning point in recent Hungarian history. Not only were political and economic changes initiated and implemented, but reforms in education also figured high on the agenda. Szechy (2005) maintains that the beginning of the 90's saw the importance of L2 in bridging cultural gaps among countries.

Loboda et al. (2007) claim that "according to the latest Eurobarometer poll conducted in 2005, Hungary shares the last place with the United Kingdom, out of 25 European countries in terms of foreign language skills... the number of speakers of foreign languages doubled mainly because of the advancement of English". Petneki adds that English and

German are the leading foreign languages in Hungary, and that "the decisive trend in Hungary points to the fact that English will eventually become the most widely used second language among those with language knowledge" (2005:3).

Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh (2006) conducted a large survey on motivation in second language learning among 13,000 Hungarian foreign language learners, which resulted in a book entitled *Motivation, Language Attitudes and Globalization: A Hungarian Perspective*. The authors conclude that concerning the popularity of foreign languages, English takes first place, followed by the traditional regional *lingua franca*, German, in second place, and French, in third place. Interestingly, the results show that more Hungarians study English "as an obvious and self-evident component of education in the 21st century" (p.89) and not because of integrative motivation (as in the case of languages other than English).

As for educational steps, the new Hungarian National Core Curriculum (2003) obliges pupils in public education to learn at least one modern foreign language from grade 4 (at the age of 10). Pupils can select their favorite foreign language in accordance with "local needs and possibilities" (European Commission 2007:2). English is the most popular, followed by German and French.

As detailed in the European Commission report from 2007, a comprehensive strategy for developing foreign language teaching and learning was launched by the Hungarian Ministry of Education and Culture under the name "World – Language Programme" in 2003. The introduction of the Programme is optional, but once established, a minimum of 40 percent of the total curriculum time (at least 11 contact hours per week) should be allocated for foreign language study in 9th grade and in the following four years (grades 10-13) schools are obliged to prepare students for taking the advanced-level school-leaving examination in the chosen foreign language" (p.3).

The new system of school leaving examinations was fully introduced in 2005. In this system, students' acquired skills in foreign languages are tested on the basis of the "Common European Framework of Reference for Language" (European Commission 2007:10). Thus, every student is required to choose at least one language. As a negative result, language

learning tends to become very exam-oriented, especially in the case of English ('wash back effect').

Both the National Core Curriculum (NAT) and the Framework Curriculum clearly indicate the goal of language teaching in schools: to ensure that students acquire a functional knowledge of languages, in turn contributing to their personal development. Nevertheless, foreign language teaching at present does not contribute to creating equal opportunities, and in fact tends to favor those who can afford to pay for extra services (Petneki, 2003:1). These statements continue the trend reported by Fekete et al. in 1999, according to which parents supplement their children's language knowledge with private tutoring and are willing to pay for language exam certificates. Indeed, parental encouragement constitutes an important motivating factor in language learning (Kormos et al., 2008:68).

Where English is concerned, first year students in secondary schools range from absolute beginners to advanced learners. The number of students is about 30 or fewer in an average class, but classes are usually split during language classes, so there are about 12-18 students in an average English class.

Teachers

The English teaching population in the Hungarian school system is mainly composed of non-native English speaking teachers whose mother tongue is Hungarian. Nationally, English teachers in Hungary have an active teachers' organization (IATEFL - Hungary) and are members of two larger, international associations: the UK based IATEFL International and the US based TESOL.

In the spring term of 1998, 118 English classes were observed by nine teachers in 55 secondary institutions all over Hungary. The enquiry found that: half of the teachers were not qualified to teach in secondary schools, and all 107 of them felt that they were overworked and underpaid. As a result, few teachers were motivated or felt successful. A lot of teachers seemed unaware of what was going on in their classroom, and their methodological and language proficiency was insufficient (Fekete et al. 1999).

In a later study among 238 teachers, Petneki focused on the goals and teaching materials currently used in primary school training in all subjects including foreign languages (2003:2).

The findings can be classified into three categories:

- A. The necessary conditions are lacking (time, classrooms, teaching aids, native speakers, and direct language exposure).
- B. The work of students is unsatisfactory, and their capabilities are insufficient (indifference, lack of diligence, mixed classes).
- C. The teaching material is inappropriate (poor quality, expensive, grammar and vocabulary are over-emphasized).

It seems that the effectiveness of language teaching is varied: students in many schools learn one or two foreign languages successfully, but in other institutions the quality of language training remains well below the required standard (Petneki, 2003:2-3).

Finally, as for teacher training, most of the sub-programs of the above mentioned 'World – Language Programme' contain in-service teacher training. All teachers, including foreign languages teachers, are required to take part in a 120 hour training course every 7 years (European Commission 2007:8). Petneki revisits the issue of teacher training and claims that efforts should be made to raise the quality of training as opposed to the quantity. She adds that in a survey conducted by the Hungarian Ministry for Culture and Education, teachers preferred methodological training and the opportunity to practice languages to other activities (2003:6).

Methodology

Less than half of the textbooks and teaching aids for English language instruction are produced in Hungary. On the whole, monolingual British publications outnumber bilingual Hungarian ones. British course books are used as core syllabi, while Hungarian materials are supplementary and focus on grammar and exam preparation (Fekete et al., 1999:3).

In the 1998 study described by Fekete², most of the 118 English classes (in 55 secondary institutions all over Hungary) were teacher-fronted,

² Fekete's Baseline study was commissioned by the British Council Project, to document the state of English language education in Hungary, as a foundation for reforming the English exams.

levels were perceived as generally low, and both teachers and students used the mother tongue excessively. The most frequently observed tasks were questions and answers, translation, reading aloud, copying from the board, and grammar exercises.

A later survey by Petneki (2003) yielded quite similar results:

- Language teachers are not yet prepared to incorporate new forms of media. Strangely enough, foreign language curricula do not contain opportunities to use information technology (p.5).
- The use of songs and language games during lessons drops sharply: the higher the class level, the more seldom these activities occur.
- Listening comprehension remains at a low level.
- Practice dialogues and reading comprehension show little development and are used with almost the same degree of frequency.
- The production of written texts, oral presentation and debating skills takes place at an even lower rate (p.3).

Recently, Kormos et al. (2008) conducted a study on the motivational profile of Hungarian English language students at a Hungarian University. 20 students were interviewed and 100 filled in a questionnaire. The findings point out that although "the participants had very favorable motivational characteristics [,] they did not invest sufficient energy in maintaining and improving their language competence". The authors link the findings to the teacher-centered approach (mentioned above) and argue that it entails "a low level of learner autonomy" (p.65).

Summary

The previous chapter examined the multi facets of teaching EFL, starting with theory and ending with practice. The next chapter will discuss a fundamental matter of practice: using the mother tongue in the English classroom.

Chapter 2: The Use of the Mother Tongue in the EFL Classroom

Introduction

The place of the first language (L1) in language teaching has been a constant debate among the different methodologies. The methods of *Grammar Translation*, *Community Language Learning* and *Suggestopedia* allocated L1 a central role (Prodromou, 2002), whereas the *Direct Method* (Gabrielatos, 2001a) and the *Audiolingual Approach* highly opposed it. Moderate views were expressed by the *Reform Movement*, the *Communicative Approach* and Krashen's *Natural Approach* (Krashen, 1988).

This section examines research related to teachers' use of the L1 in second and foreign language contexts from theoretical and empirical perspectives. Hereby presented are researches' views regarding L1 use, cognitive and motivational issues, the phenomenon of code-switching, learners' perceptions, teachers' beliefs' about L1 and target language (TL) use, and teachers' uses of both languages.

Theoretical Perspectives

For and Against Using L1

Researchers found a direct link between FL performance and teacher use of the TL (Burstall et al., 1974; Carroll, 2001). The opponents of using the L1 maintain that foreign language teaching should occur in the target language. They advocate 'English only' classrooms which enable maximum exposure to the target language. Students need to be exposed to input in the TL if they are expected to learn it.

According to Macaro (1997), maximum use of the TL can improve listening skills, facilitate vocabulary's acquisition, and provide opportunities to practice the TL. Using the TL demonstrates it as a real and authentic means of communication (Chaudron, 1988; Polio & Duff, 1994; Macaro, 1997).

Stemming from the Natural Approach, Krashen cautions that the TL **input** must be **comprehensible** (1988:262). Some researchers (Pica, 1988; Swain, 1995; Long, 1996) contend that in addition to being exposed to comprehensible input, students must **produce output** in the TL in order to achieve language acquisition. They should interact;

negotiate meaning, repeat and paraphrase all the while incorporating TL lexical items and language structures into their own speech.

The proponents of using L1 see it as promoting both language learning and acquisition. Van Lier and Turnball explain that "teachers' use of the learners' L1 helps to create more salient input for the learner, hence promoting intake" (in Turnball and Arnett 2002:205).

At the micro level, teachers can utilize L1 to facilitate class management, comprehension check, and vocabulary instruction. Chambers suggests resorting to the L1 if: the pupils are tired of listening to input in the TL, time is limited, language to be taught is complicated, and the students are misbehaving. Atkinson maintains that L1 can be used for 1) eliciting language 2) checking comprehension 3) giving instructions 4) aiding co-operation among learners 5) discussing classroom methodology 6) presenting and reinforcing language 7) checking for sense 8) testing and 9) developing useful learning strategies (in Oliveira, 2002).

At the macro level, Kramsch claims that the mother tongue is integral to the important interface between diverse cultures and languages (1993). McKay reasons that "when teachers grapple with how to productively use their students' mother tongue in the classroom, they must draw on sociolinguistic expertise"(in Hinkel 2005:281). Widdowson (1996) harnesses the mother tongue to enable learners to 'appropriate' the foreign language. Nation (2003) and Prodromou (2002) argue that the MT constitutes an essential part of the "learner's psychological and cultural make-up", and as such it should be respected and used as an "efficient means of communicating meaning" by helping learners gain knowledge.

At a recent TESOL convention, Critchley, based on his EFL teaching career, affirmed that "while TESOL training programs take 'English only' for granted, practitioners (particularly those who speak the L1 of the students) tend to lean toward bilingual support. Some teachers utilize the L1 with particularly disadvantaged students, while others employ it to "level the playing field" (2004). Critchley recommends channeling the MT for "teaching points that will be too abstract or time consuming if taught in English", to teach *about* language (metalinguistic explanations etc.), to lower level students, to create personal and closer rapport with students, and during high stake-assessment such as tests and interviews (p.7). Cook (2001) agrees that teachers should opt for the L1 if using the TL proves problematic for the students (e.g. teaching grammar, class organization, disciplining students, and testing).

Nevertheless, most researchers and educators acknowledge the place of the L1 in the classroom, but encourage teachers to monitor its use so that the quantity and quality of L1 best caters to student needs and wants (Turnball, 2001; Critchley, 2004). One should note that achieving optimal levels of TL and L1 use is crucial in school-based foreign language programs where the teacher is often the only proficient speaker and opportunities for TL use beyond the classroom may be limited.

Motivation

As stated in the first chapter, learner's motivation highly influences language acquisition (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Teachers' methodology and qualities are among the factors influencing motivation. Use of L1 is an integral part of a teacher's methodology and as such constitutes a source of motivation for TL learning.

'English only' advocates insist that the use of the TL exerts a powerful impact on TL motivation. According to MacDonald (1993) and Turnbull (2001), a maximized use of the TL shows learners the usefulness of mastering the TL and learning it. Furthermore, MacDonald warns that overuse of the L1 can lead to student de-motivation, as the students do not need their TL to understand. On the other hand, some researchers and educators are concerned that an exclusive use of the TL, may intimidate learners who are not proficient in the TL.

Madrid et al. (1993) employed questionnaires to research the sources of motivation in Andalusian EFL classrooms. Among all the participants from primary, secondary and 1st year of university, only 7th graders indicated that using the TL in class is one of the traits of an ideal and motivating EFL teacher. By the same token, utilizing a thorough questionnaire, Makarova and Ryan collected data from 259 EFL students in a medium-sized university in Japan. The findings showed that *using only the TL* and *not speaking the MT* figured as qualities that are least important for an EFL teacher (1998).

Cognitive Considerations and L1 Use

Bearing in mind the ideas of Vygotsky (1978), some researchers assert that L1 is an essential cognitive tool which helps the learner scaffold his learning. They claim that learners employ the L1 to negotiate meaning

and interact in the TL (Brooks and Donato, 1994; Anton and DiCamilla, 1998 as cited by Turnbull and Arnett, 2002). Access to the L1 input may aid learners during collaborative tasks by increasing the efficiency, drawing their attention to the task at hand and assisting interpersonal interactions (Swain and Lapkin, 2000).

Taking this line, in a recent study by Ferrer, both students and teacher trainers in an EFL school in Spain "tended to look favorably upon a *judicious* use of L1 to scaffold learners' language production and move discourse further" by means of translating to the MT and thus enabling learners to notice the gap between their current inner grammar and the grammar of the target language (2005:40).

Code-switching

Shifting from one language to another within a sentence or at sentence boundaries is known as "code-switching" (MacKay, 2005:289). MacKay adds that "code-switching can occur in language contact situations only in cases where speakers share two or more languages (p.291). A foreign language classroom is therefore a potential context for code-switching.

Cook (2001) regards code-switching as a natural phenomenon among speakers who share two languages, so teachers should not necessarily exclude it. In fact, teachers can use code-switching to encourage language learning. For example, during grammar instruction, the teacher may switch from the TL to the L1 to clarify a grammatical feature. One should note, however, the impact code-switching has on communication.

Although most of the researchers agree that code-switching is inseparable from FL instruction, they recommend code-switching only if it is beneficial for the proficiency of the target language, and advise teachers to plan in advance when and how they use code-switching (Castellotti and Moore, 1997). Coste, among others, adds that L1 can be used as long as the TL is the dominant language in the classroom (in Castellotti & Moore, 1997).

Researchers have addressed empirical issues connected to code-switching: its function, its impact on learner's TL proficiency, the way it is perceived by both students and teachers, and its role in relation to the TL, among others.

Empirical Studies

Learners' Perceptions

Most of the studies have focused on the teachers' beliefs rather than learners' perspectives towards the use of L1 by the teacher. I will report the findings of seven studies which took place in different contexts.

Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) examined Arabic-speaking students learning English in an ESL setting. The majority of the students accorded the L1 a facilitative role in comprehending lesson content. They added that they felt happy and relieved when allowed to use the L1. Again in an ESL setting, Macaro (1997) investigated TL and L1 use among a small group of academically-inclined students. The students reported, for the most part, that they needed their teachers to speak the L1 sometimes to understand (in Turnbull and Arnett 2002:211).

Schweers (1999) conducted a study on the role of Spanish (L1) in the English classroom (L2) at the University of Puerto Rico. He recorded three classes and used questionnaires as well. A notable percentage of the students (88.7%) contended that Spanish should be used in their English classes, especially to clarify difficult concepts. Similarly to the results reported by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) and Tang (2002), the students felt that using their MT (Spanish) facilitated comprehension. As to allocation of time, a high percentage of the Puerto Rican students recommended using Spanish between 10 and 39 percent of the time.

Burden (2000b) investigated 290 Japanese university students' attitudes as to using the mother tongue in the EFL classroom. The survey revealed that all the students believed that the teacher should know the students' mother tongue. Moreover, 73% of the students admitted that the MT has a supportive function in the L2 classroom. Burden concluded that "there seems to be a clear distinction, often across all the ability levels, between use and usage: students want the teacher to use the TL exclusively when it is being used in communication, but expect the teacher to have knowledge of and an ability to use the MT, when it is appropriate to explain the usage of English" (p. 147). Being a researcher and a teacher, Burden later conducted a longitude study in a University English 'conversation' class (also in Japan). Burden revisited the topic and demonstrated attitude changes to using the TL (by both teacher and students). He found that students who were used to and preferred the use of their MT, had more positive attitudes towards the teaching approach adopted by their classroom teacher and thus they became even more

prepared to negotiate and use practical effective communicative strategies to overcome language deficiencies (2004:24). Thus, adopting Burden's dichotomy, the students felt more positive towards employing the TL for both use and usage purposes.

More recently, Oliveira (2002) studied 8 EFL students whose mother tongue was Portuguese. She concluded that the increased motivation and learning opportunities which were achieved by the use of the TL surpassed the negative effects, such as good teacher-student relationship and the need for clarification and confirmation that some students have.

Tang (2002) used questionnaires to collect data on using Chinese (MT) in the EFL classroom among 98 first-year English major students. 70 percent of the respondents advocated the use of Chinese. According to them, "Chinese was most necessary to explain complex grammar points and to help define new vocabulary items". However, the majority of them believe that Chinese should be allocated no more than 10% of the lesson.

Lastly, Prodromou (2002) addressed a questionnaire to 300 Greek students at three levels. Most of the students were adolescents or young adults. 66% of students at beginner level and about 58% of students at intermediate believed that the teacher should use the MT in class. However, only 29% of advanced students support the idea. Prodromou reasoned "the higher the level of the student, the less they agree to the use of the mother-tongue in the classroom". For instance, beginners support using the L1 to teach grammar, while intermediate and advanced students oppose it.

The studies reviewed so far reinstate the role that learners accord to the MT in the EFL classroom. The teachers' perceptions are next presented.

Teachers' Beliefs

As will be shown in the studies below, it appears that teachers consider that the TL cannot be exclusively spoken in the FL classroom. Rather, they believe that complex lexical items and grammar, discipline, building of a good teacher-student relationship, and the covering of the material in the time allotted can be aided by means of the L1.

In their study mentioned above, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) discovered that the teachers envisaged Arabic (L1) as a facilitator when explaining

difficult words and grammatical structures, expressing and providing contexts for the functional use of ESL. The few teachers who used only the TL in class said that it hampers fluency and motivation, distracts students, and increases expectations of L1 use.

Macaro's 1997 study also focused on teachers' beliefs and attitudes vis-à-vis TL and L1 use by means of a survey and interviews. Most of the teachers noted that it was impossible and undesirable to use the TL exclusively, and related it to the students' ability in the TL. The students' L1 was favored for disciplining, socializing, relationship establishing, and for elucidating difficult grammar (in Turnbull and Arnett 2002:211).

In the same year, the American Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) conducted a national survey of foreign language instruction completed by more than 3000 elementary and secondary schools directors and FL teachers. Only 22% of the respondents reported that language teachers used the TL in the classroom most of the time (1997:7).

In addition to studying EFL Chinese students, Tang (2002) collected data from 20 EFL teachers, using a questionnaire and interviews. Similarly to the students, the teachers were in favor of using Chinese in class. The teachers reported that Chinese was "more effective", and that "it aids comprehension greatly".

Orland-Barak and Yinon (2005) studied how Israeli student teachers of EFL perceived their use of the TL in the classroom. The study focused on 14 Arab and Jewish student teachers. The student teachers employed the L1 for elucidating, encouraging learner participation, some aspects of class management, and establishing teacher-learner relationship.

Teachers' Uses of L1

Having detailed **why** SL and FL teachers use the L1 in their pedagogies, I will now look at **when** they use it, that is to say, the circumstances in which they speak the L1.

Franklin (1990) analyzed questionnaires from 267 secondary French teachers in Scotland. He found that the teachers refrained from using the TL (French) and reverted to the L1 (English) due to the following factors (percentage of teachers figure in brackets):

pupils' behavior (95%), confidence in speaking the TL (83%), the size of the class (81%), pupils' reaction when TL is spoken all the time (80%),

weak pupils (79%), teacher's tiredness (79%), year group (59%), class setting, e.g. whole class / groups (43%), pupils were taught in the TL the year before (8%), (in Oliveira, 2002).

Polio and Duff (1994:317-320) also researched the circumstances in which teachers used English rather than the TL in the classroom. They found the following: 1. Classroom vocabulary (e.g. homework, quiz). 2. Teaching grammar 3. Classroom management. 4. Creating empathy with the students 5. Practicing English (teachers are NNS) 6. Vocabulary instruction 7. Lack of comprehension 8. Reaction to students' use of English. 9. Being short of time.

Dickson (1996) used questionnaires to explore TL use among 508 secondary school teachers in England and Wales. In addition to two factors mentioned in Franklin's study (confidence in speaking the TL, the size of the class), the teachers mentioned: educational considerations (catering to the students' interests in order to maximize TL use), organizational factors (such as distribution of time), and effective teaching (to compare between both languages). The other factors were knowledge about language as well as social and cultural aspects (the use of the TL was minimized due to the negative attitude students have toward foreign languages) (in Oliveira, 2002).

Macaro (1997) looked at TL and L1 use among beginning, experienced, and student teachers of foreign languages at the secondary level in the UK. Although he used surveys, interviews and classroom observation, it was the latter that revealed that teachers chose English (L1) most often to give and clarify instructions concerning class work, to give feedback to students, for translating, and for checking comprehension.

Schweers' 1999 study focused on the teachers uses of L1 (Spanish). Interestingly, all of the teachers reported using Spanish to some degree. They used it: to help pupils understand concepts; to create bonding with the pupils; to show respect to the pupils' native language and culture; to demonstrate how a person who speaks both languages employs each one; and to keep the weaker students "on track". Having introduced L1 into his teaching, Schweers, who teaches EFL at Bayamon campus, attested "I feel the relationship we have developed by my using Spanish occasionally has made my students more eager than usual to tackle the challenges of learning English".

The Chinese teachers, who participated in Tang's 2002 research, indicated that "Chinese was most necessary to practice the use of some phrases and

expressions ...and to explain difficult concepts or ideas". Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie recorded and analyzed four professors usage of the students' L1 (English) in French courses. They found out that English was used primarily to explain new words and to compare English and French. It was also used for managerial and social interactions with the students (2002).

More recently, Kim and Elder (2005) investigated the language choices made by native-speaker teachers of Japanese, Korean, German and French in foreign language (FL) classrooms in New Zealand secondary schools. They found major distinctions among the teachers in the amount of TL used, in the pedagogic functions they used most frequently, and in the language (TL or English) they chose for these functions. The participants tended to avoid complex interactions in the TL, thus, according to the authors, "limiting the potential for intake and for real communication on the part of the students". The researchers did not find any systematic relationship between these teachers' language choices and particular pedagogic functions. On the whole, the study corroborated with former researchers (e.g. Duff and Polio, 1990) and showed that being a native speaker of the TL does not guarantee a high proportion of TL use.

Table 1 stems from the studies reviewed above and summarizes the factors/functions which influence teachers' to incorporate the students' L1 into their pedagogies. The factors are sorted into four types: academic, social, managerial and other.

Academic	Social	Managerial	Other
Class level (weak pupils trigger L1)	to show respect to the pupils' native language and culture	Class size	Teacher's confidence in speaking the TL
To clarify difficult concepts	Pupils' reaction when TL is spoken all the time	Class setting (e.g. whole/groups)	Teacher's tiredness
To teach about knowledge	To cater to pupils' interests	Organizational factors	Pupils were taught in the TL the year before
To teach effectively	To create bonding with pupils	To give or clarify class work instructions	
To instruct grammar and vocabulary, including translation	To affect pupils' Negative attitude toward foreign languages	Complex interactions with pupils	
To practice some phrases and expressions when teacher is NNES		Pupils' behavior	
To check comprehension			
To give feedback to students			
To compare TL to L1			

Table 1: the factors/functions which influence teachers to incorporate the students' L1 into their pedagogies.

Summary

So far I have examined the multifaceted nature of using the learner's MT. The notion of using the learner's mother tongue is believed by some to be a corollary of being a non-native English-speaking teacher, which is precisely the topic of the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Native and Non- Native English-Speaking Teachers

Introduction

According to the British Council's estimations, English is spoken as a second language by about 375 million speakers and as a foreign language by about 750 million speakers. It follows then, that the majority of English teachers are non-native speakers because these great numbers of second and foreign language speakers would have been taught mainly by local non native English speaking teachers (Cheung, 2007:258)

The issue of being a native / non-native speaker is central to the English teaching profession as it refers to setting linguistic norms, and to a certain extent, to a potential use of one's mother tongue. In the following section, I will review this issue from three different points of view: researchers, teachers, and learners. The terms NNES and NES designate non native English speakers and native English speakers respectively.

Research Regarding the Issue of Native and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

The idealistic notion of 'the native speaker' was dominant in the 1960s when great importance was assigned to oral skills in second and foreign language teaching. Chomsky used the term to designate an 'ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows his/her language perfectly' (1965: 3). Nevertheless, the term "native speaker" has since been called into question (Phillipson, 1992).

Inbar (2001:63) argues that an agreed definition of a native speaker is not available. She claims that "the three most commonly used criteria for defining native speakers in research and for placement purposes are: mother tongue, birth in a country where the language is spoken and self-ascription". She adds that, "these terms are problematic and lack coherence". After all, as Smith et al. put it "many individuals live and marry across social or political language boundaries...there are many English speaking countries (UK, US, Australia, India) whose Standard English dialects differ" (2007:3).

Larsen Freeman & Freeman contend Inbar's view. They say that "at the core, the definition of knowing a language was entirely a priori, framed in

terms of those language users who were already socially positioned, often by birth or nationality, class, and race, as fluent users or speakers of the standard variety. This positioning was captured in the construct of the "native speaker," which was essentially more geopolitical than linguistic... Thus, when a language was identified "native" by and to one group of users, it became ipso facto "foreign" to others". Moreover, they add that "because language itself is changing all the time at the local level, no centralized authority can actually control or govern the structure or lexicon of a particular language" (Larsen Freeman & Freeman, 2008:156 brackets in original).

Smith et al. assert that "research from Applied Linguistics establishes that the dichotomy is oversimplified and ignores the complexities of teacher training, language learning, and language proficiency for both NS and NNS alike" (Smith et al, 2007:3). In other words, native speakers cannot be considered the best equipped to teach oral language, as native speakers themselves are never 'ideal' in the Chomskian sense: they are necessarily influenced by their geographical and social origins (Kramsch, 1998).

Davies revisits the issue stating that the term "native speaker" has at least three meanings: (1) being a speaker of one's own idiolect, (2) being a speaker of an uncodified dialect, or (3) being part of a group adhering to a codified norm in a standard language (1991).

Medgyes (1994) differentiates between native speaker and non-native speaker teachers in relation to language proficiency and teaching behaviors. Whereas native speaker teachers tend to be less textbook-dependent, non-native speaker teachers may provide better role models by teaching effective learning strategies and giving learners explicit information about the target language. Kamhi-Stein, Lee and Lee (1999) add that both kinds of teachers "have an equal chance to become successful teachers, but the routes used by the two groups are not the same".

Research has proved that both native and non-native speakers have their own strengths and handicaps. In fact, NS and NNS teachers can complement each other in the process of teaching. Widdowson claims that the main difference between both groups is that NS enjoy an "extensive experience as language users", while NNS have had "experience as language learners" (1992:338). Some researchers reason that by virtue of this "experience" and having gone through the same difficulties as their students would, NNS teachers are more suited to teach

a foreign language and understand their learners' needs than NS teachers (Seidlhofer, 1999; Lee, 2000).

These views refute the common perception that NS teachers are superior to NNS thanks to their language proficiency alone. In addition, they shed a different light on the condition of NNS teachers as inextricably linked to that of second language learners as native speaker proficiency in SL seems both impossible and a life-long mission (Llurda and Huguét 2003:227).

As the ownership of English (Widdowson ,1994) has changed over the years, new constructs such as World Englishes (Kachru, 1985; 1997) and English as an International Language (Smith, 1976; 1983) have become of great relevance. Furthermore, as Savignon puts it, "in a postcolonial, multicultural world where users of English in the "outer" and "expanding circles" outnumber those in the inner circle by a ratio of more than two to one, reference to the terms "native" or "native like" in the evaluation of communicative competence seems, in some settings, to be simply inappropriate. Even the decision as to what is or isn't one's "native" language is arbitrary and seemed best left to the individual concerned" (in Hinkel, 2005:638).

In 1991, TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Language) committed to 'make every effort to prevent such discrimination' and 'to work towards the creation and publication of minimal language proficiency standards that may be applied equally to all TESOL teachers without reference to the "nativeness" of their English" (Braine, 1999: xxi). Since then, some work has been done regarding a better appreciation of NNS professionals and a truthful description of their advantages and disadvantages.

Still, recruitment of "native" speakers from Britain, the United States, and other English-speaking nations is often seen to enhance an instructional program. Whether or not they are qualified teachers, they may benefit from a prestige and privileges not shared by local teachers (Savignon op.cit). On a recent study day in Tel-Aviv, it was claimed that English proficiency influences hiring practices, (as it is highly viewed by inspectors, teacher educators and school principles) hence, triggering concern and lack of confidence among NNS English teachers (Teaching English: Politics and Policy, 2005).

Moussu et al. (2003) looked at the employers' perspectives on hiring NNS teachers. The study was carried out by means of questionnaires

and interviews. According to the employers, NNES teachers were characterized by language mistakes (accent, grammar), and lacked cultural or pragmatic knowledge, self-confidence, and teaching experience. On the other hand, the employers mentioned the following advantages: metalinguistic knowledge of the language, experience as a language learner, awareness of other cultures, and serving a role model for students. Having investigated this matter, the researches presented their own experiences and recommended strategies on how to succeed in "the challenging process that NNES teachers face when applying for an ESL teaching position".

To sum up, a decade ago, it was claimed that the number of L2 English speakers far surpassed that of L1 English speakers, meaning that "English is no longer the privilege of native speakers" (Graddol, 1997 in Medgyes 2001: 429). In fact, native speakers of English constitute a minority within the overall English speaking population. By the same token, NNS teachers clearly constitute the majority of language teachers in the world (Crystal, 1997).

The teachers' perceptions concerning the matter of "nativeness" are introduced next.

Teachers' Perceptions

Some researchers tried to tap into teachers' beliefs towards the NNES/NNES controversy. The findings are hereby detailed.

NNES teachers often feel inadequate about their English abilities. Medgyes discovered that NNES teachers "viewed themselves as poorer listeners, speakers, readers, and writers" compared against NES teachers (1994:33). Tang also revealed that NNES professionals felt inferior to their native English speaking counterparts in the areas of speaking, pronunciation, and listening skills (Tang, 1997).

Arva and Medgyes (2001) studied 10 NNES and NES teachers at a local secondary school in Budapest using interviews and videotapes. They concluded that in comparison to NNES teachers, native speakers: were better at verbal communication, less strict, give less homework, do not know grammar well, provide more cultural insights, use textbooks less frequently, and can also be well prepared for their lessons.

Kamhi –Stein et al. explored students' perceptions in the TESOL program at California State University, Los Angeles. The results show that the "NNES teachers-in-preparation saw themselves as being empathetic, having an enhanced understanding of the students' needs and knowledge of grammar, and being good role models. On the contrary, they mentioned their lack of self-confidence, perceived language needs and prejudices they had to face based on ethnicity, accent or non-native status" (1999).

At another TESOL program, a survey conducted by Liu among NNES students revealed that only 14% of the participants believed that they had the English proficiency to be a qualified English teacher (1999). A year later, Arva & Medgyes also showed the intensive link between the proficiency of NNES teachers and their professional self-esteem. They concluded that English mastery was rated "the most valued aspect of a non-native English teacher's competence"(Arva & Medgyes, 2000).

Ellis (2002, 2004) and Maum (2003) explored beliefs and practices regarding NES and NNES teachers. Maum conducted a large scale survey (80 participants) followed by interviews. The survey revealed significant differences between the two groups. NNES teachers were more likely to accord importance to the teachers' own socio-cultural and linguistic background in the classroom and to the inclusion of cross-cultural issues in ESL instruction. In addition, the number of languages spoken was found to impact the teachers' beliefs about teaching ESL to adult learners. According to the interviews, beliefs' diversity is related to the teachers' perceived strengths as ESL professionals, and their language-learning and cross-cultural experiences. The NES teachers were not aware of the marginalization issues with which their NNES colleagues had to deal in the field of adult education. Ellis's studies have also pointed out differences between the teaching practices of both types of teachers. Ellis concludes that the teachers' own language learning experiences are a valuable resource and should be viewed as a positive attribute.

In a study carried out in the Catalan city of Leida among 101 NNS primary and secondary school English teachers, Llorca and Huguet (2003) uncovered major differences regarding the self-awareness of both types of teachers. Primary school teachers "tend to have a more communicatively oriented teaching philosophy, but suffer from a greater insecurity with regard to their own language skills, and appear strongly attached to the myth of the NS as the ideal teacher" (p.229). However, most secondary school teachers considered being a NNES an advantage and showed "increased self-appreciation of general proficiency, and of

some language skills (i.e. grammatical accuracy, knowledge of language skills, and reading comprehension), as well as a higher preference for the teaching of grammar structures".

In another EFL context, Poland, Smith et al. (2007) discuss the dichotomy NES/NNES in light of their personal teaching-training-learning career. They claim that while NES teachers "teach in their own language, use current idioms, provide information about English speaking countries and enhance the credibility of programs", NNES teachers are also important as "they are more familiar with the difficulties of learning English than their foreign counterparts because they have had direct experience in acquiring the target language" (p.3). The authors conclude that in order to be good SL teachers, both NES and NNES teachers "should have successful classroom second language learning experiences themselves and an adequate skill set in language teaching" (p.6).

The researchers' and teachers' views unveiled thus far would be completed by the learners' notions in the coming section.

As Seen by Learners

Few studies have addressed the debate comparing NES and NNES teachers from the point of view of the learners. This may have been due to the sensitive nature of the issue at hand. The studies reported here have been conducted in ESL and EFL contexts, starting with the former.

Samimy and Brutt-Griffler's (in Mora, 2006) focused on perceptions of non-native TESOL graduate students regarding NES/NNES teachers. Their findings are detailed in table 2 below.

NES teachers	NNES teachers
• Informal, fluent, accurate	• Rely on textbooks and materials
• Vary techniques and methods	• Apply differences between L1 & L2
• Flexible	• Use L1 as medium
• Use conversational English	• Know students' background
• Know subtleties of the language	• Aware of negative transfer and psychological aspects of learning
• Use authentic English, provide positive feedback.	• Sensitive to the need of students
• Focus on communication (not exam preparation)	• More efficient
	• Focus on exam preparation

Table 2: Perceptions of non-native TESOL graduate students regarding NES/NNES teachers

Moussu et al.'s study, (2003, mentioned above), also examined the opinions of ESL students. The study was carried out among 97 students by means of questionnaires and interviews. The students related the following weaknesses to NNES teachers: potential lack of self-confidence and cultural knowledge about the U.S., occasional mistakes, accent influencing listening/speaking classes, often know only what they are supposed to teach and are not able to contextualize things as much as native speakers. The students listed the following strengths of NNES teachers: demonstrate as much authority in the classroom as NES teachers, enable learning about different cultures, are respected because considered good role models, may win students' trust by enthusiasm and friendly personality, know more about grammar and how to explain difficult concepts, are often more prepared for class and take teaching more seriously, often care more about their students, and do not say "it's the way it is in English but I'm not sure why". When asked "What makes a difference in the acceptance or rejection of NNS English teachers by students?" the participants named these factors: (1) Students' native language and nationality (2) The teacher's native language (3) The proficiency level of the students: advanced students are more concerned (4) The intent of the ESL students to go back to their country of origin after the end of the program or stay in the U.S. for a longer period of time (5) The age of the students: the older they are, the more they care.

Mahboob (2004) analyzed attitudes towards NNEST teachers in essays written by 19 ESL students in an intensive language program in the US. He found that the students did not have a marked preference for either NES or NNEST teachers but believed that they bring unique attributes to their teaching. The following year, Mahboob looked into students' perceptions at a university in the USA. The 32 participants commented favorably about NNEST teachers' experience as an ESL learner, knowledge of grammar, methodology, hard work, vocabulary, ability to answer questions, and literacy skills. Conversely, the teachers received negative comments with regard to oral skills and culture.

Still in the USA, Moussu and Braine (2006) carried out a longitudinal study which centered on the attitudes of eighty-four students enrolled in an intensive English course. At the beginning of the semester, the majority of the students held a positive attitude towards NNEST teachers, based mainly on their experiences with NNEST teachers in prior education formats. By the end of the semester, the attitudes became markedly more positive. Variables such as the native language of the students and the native language of the teachers were found to influence the students' attitudes. I shall now review studies which probe students' attitudes towards NNEST and NES teachers in EFL settings.

Barrat and Kontra (2000) investigated NES teachers in two distinct EFL locations: Hungary and China. 116 students and 58 teachers from Hungary, as well as 100 students and 54 teachers from China put both their positive and negative experiences with NES teachers on paper. In both countries, participants valued NES teachers for: (1) the authenticity of their teaching (2) how they involved the students, encouraged them to speak and rewarded them (3) being humorous and enthusiastic (4) caring about their students, and (5) using new methodologies. Nevertheless, the participants listed the following disadvantages: (1) lack of preparation (2) lack of professionalism (3) poor teaching styles (4) inconsistent error correction (5) having a limited pedagogical background (6) being unfamiliar with the school's system, language and norms, and (7) teachers displaying a feeling of superiority.

Lasagabaster and Sierra (2002) explored the views of seventy-six Spanish undergraduates regarding NNEST and NES teachers. The general preference was for NES teachers (in the areas of pronunciation, speaking, vocabulary, and culture and civilization), or for a combination of both kinds of teachers. Concerning learning strategies and grammar, the participants preferred NNEST teachers. While previous experience of being taught by NES teachers had little impact on their judgments, the

students' major (especially English studies) as well as a higher educational level (primary, secondary, and university) had slightly more effect.

In Hong Kong, Cheung (2007) looked into the attitudes of sixty EFL students' toward NES and NNES teachers using a questionnaire. On the whole, the participants demonstrated "a favorable attitude" towards NNES teachers and reported that they did not encounter problems with these teachers because of their non-nativeness. They stated that "NNS teachers taught as effectively as NS teachers and had no difficulty in understanding and answering students' questions...NNS teachers made a sincere effort to communicate with their students". The students added that they liked studying with NNS teachers. The researcher conducted 10 interviews aiming to describe the reasons which gave rise to these attitudes. According to the interviewed students, "NNS teachers could apply effective strategies in teaching English as they had gone through a similar educational system, shared the same cultural background, and therefore understood the difficulties faced by local students... [the] teachers could make use of Cantonese, the students' first language, in explaining difficult issues in the English class [and] were capable of designing teaching materials according to the needs and learning styles of the students"(p.267).

Summary

This chapter aimed at elucidating the question of NES/NNES teachers. It ends by quoting Lipovsky and Mahboob (2007): "over the last decade we have seen a shift in the nature of work [research] on non-native English speakers in TESOL (NNESTs). This work has moved away from a deficit model where NNESTs were compared to NESTs (native English speakers in TESOL) in terms of their language background and found to be mostly lacking. Instead, the new work on NNESTs looks at the strengths that these teachers bring to the profession" (p.1).

Research Design

This study aims to characterize the use of the pupils' mother tongue in the EFL classroom concerning non-native English-speaking teachers.

In order to do the above, the following questions were posed:

1. Do non-native English-speaking teachers use their pupils' mother tongue in the course of an EFL lesson?
2. How frequently do non-native English-speaking teachers use their pupils' mother tongue in the course of an EFL lesson?
3. In which situations does this code-switching occur? What function does it play?
4. What makes teachers use their students' mother tongue?

In light of the literary review and according to the research questions, I designed a descriptive research, (McDonough & McDonough, 1997), which was well grounded in the qualitative methods of study, although some quantitative data were used as well. The research included two phases.

Phase A focused on collecting data on phenomena which are not easily observed. Accordingly, 30 Israeli EFL teachers were asked to fill in a questionnaire and take part in a group interview regarding their attitudes towards using the learner's mother tongue (Hebrew) in EFL lessons.

Based on the findings of Phase A, Phase B collected further data on the research questions, this time using observations and interviews. In addition, this phase of the research took a look at EFL teachers in a different context: Hungary. In this phase, 4 Hungarian EFL teachers as well as 5 Israeli EFL teachers were observed while teaching intermediate EFL classes. The Hungarian teachers were later interviewed in a group and the Israeli teachers were interviewed individually.

Given that each phase of the research was conducted separately, methodology and results will be reported for each phase. Part B specifies the research methodology and findings for Phase A. Part C describes the methodology and findings for Phase B. Part D discusses the findings of both phases and details the significance, implications, limitations and potential directions of the entire study.

SUMMARY (Part A)

This part reviewed the literature which serves as a background for the study, and described the design of the research. It takes the line that teaching EFL, using the mother tongue in the classroom, and the issue of native versus non-native English speaking teachers, are all central elements of the research at hand. As the research was conducted in two phases, the next part (Part B), will unfold the first phase of the study.

PART B: Phase A

INTRODUCTION

Based on the review of literature and according to the research design, I set out to collect data regarding the attitudes of NNES teachers towards using the students' mother tongue in the EFL classroom. This part will elaborate on Phase A of the research. It will firstly describe the design and results of the questionnaire. Second, it will review the methodology and findings of the group interview. It will conclude by discussing the findings of both tools.

Chapter 1: Questionnaire

1.1. Introduction

A questionnaire was designed to collect data regarding the attitudes of NNES teachers towards using the students' mother tongue in the EFL classroom. The questionnaire was the first data collection tool I used in this research. Although the sample size was relatively small, it was well proportioned to the number of teachers in the organization. The following section unfolds the design and methodology employed in the questionnaire, and its findings.

1.2. Design and Methodology

In SLA research, questionnaires are mostly used to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed, such as attitudes, motivation and self-concepts (Spolsky & Shohamy, 1999:172). The greatest advantage in using a questionnaire lies in the fact that "the knowledge needed is controlled by the questions, therefore affords a good deal of precision and clarity" (McDonough and McDonough, 1997:171).

The questionnaire can be included under the umbrella of Teacher Language Awareness as it examines issues which are germane to teachers' knowledge and what Haim and others term 'subject matter content knowledge' (see Part A, Chapter 1).

The purpose of the questionnaire was to characterize how English teachers whose mother tongue is different than English amalgamate the learners' MT in the course of instructing an English lesson. I intended to tap into their beliefs and preferred methods of teaching. Thus, the questionnaire aimed to:

- ✓ Define the frequency of using Hebrew
- ✓ Find out the situations where Hebrew is utilized
- ✓ Access beliefs concerning the use of Hebrew

The Sample

The questionnaire sample consisted of thirty Israeli EFL teachers¹, who are non-native speakers of English. The teachers were born in Israel and Abroad (the former USSR and other non-English speaking countries). They are twenty-five to sixty years old. All the teachers are University graduates. Some of the teachers hold a Master degree. They have been teaching from one to over twenty years in the Jewish religious and secular sectors in central locations in the country. The teachers teach various school levels from elementary to high school.

The Instrument

The questionnaire was written in English, although the respondents could answer open-ended items in Hebrew. It contained the main points which are relevant to the study. It was designed specifically for this research and included scales and items developed by the researcher and after consultation with professional reviewers. The questionnaire was anonymous, to make the respondents more honest and informative in their responses. For the sake of clarity, the purpose of the questionnaire was fully detailed on top of the first page.

The pilot stage

The questionnaire was piloted on ten teachers. The respondents were asked to write comments regarding the questions after having responded to them and relate to their clarity, timing, and type of information requested (leading, misleading, not leading). Item 1e, question 3 and questions 6, 7 had to be reformulated (for a full version of the questionnaire see appendix 2).

The Final Version of the Questionnaire

The final version of the questionnaire was called *Using Mother Tongue in Teaching EFL* and included eight questions as well as a short section concerning information about the linguistic background of the respondent.

¹ The terms teachers / respondents would be alternating and refer to the same subjects.

The final version of the questionnaire included a reformulation of questions: 1e, 3, 6, 7, in addition to a new outline and an option to answer the questions in Hebrew. It took about fifteen minutes to fill in the final version of the questionnaire (for a full version of the questionnaire see appendix 2). Below is a detailed description of the questions.

The first section of the questionnaire contained 8 questions as follows:

- Question 1 was a closed question consisting of six positive statements designed to elicit information regarding the use of Hebrew. The categories were both verbal and numerical (in order to achieve maximum clarity). The scale ranged from 1-5 whereby 5 indicated a total agreement on behalf of the respondent with the statement at stake.
- In question 2 the teachers were asked to evaluate the percentage of an English lesson which is generally carried out in Hebrew (lesson +45 minutes). They had a range of eight choices among which seven were in terms of percentage (starting with 5% of the lesson) and the eighth was open ended.
- Question 3 related to the issue of class management. The respondents were asked to rank 5 actions according to their frequency on a scale of 1-6 where 6 signified the most frequent action.
- In question 4 the teachers were asked again to refer to the issue of class management though this time they had to choose Yes/No and describe their choice in Hebrew or in English.
- Question 5 collected varied information about employing Hebrew in the EFL classroom. It was a closed question, displaying eighteen positive statements which the respondents were told to react to by circling a figure. The categories were both verbal and numerical (again, in order to achieve maximum clarity). The figures 1-5 corresponded to the verbal categories: *never-seldom-sometimes-often-always*.
- Question 6 focused on the connection between the use of Hebrew and comprehension. Similarly to question 4, the respondents had to choose Yes / No and describe their choice in Hebrew or English.
- Question 7 dealt with the issue of interaction in Hebrew for purpose of clarification. It was an open question.

- In Question 8, the teachers were asked to report what length of their lesson was carried out in Hebrew. They had to choose among five close answers in terms of minutes (starting with 0-4 minutes) and an open-ended response.

The second section of the questionnaire focused on the linguistic background of the respondent: what his/her mother tongue is, and how well he/she masters Hebrew and English. This section consisted of three items: an open item and two items where the respondent had to grade his/her mastery of Hebrew and English on a continuum of 1-5 whereby a higher score signifies excellent mastery.

Data Collection

The questionnaires were handed out on one occasion in order to achieve an immediate response, avoid consultations among respondents, and potentially serve as an introduction to a group interview on the same topic (which will be detailed in the next chapter). 33 teachers (about 75% of total number of teachers in the organization) filled in the questionnaires in the presence of the researcher and hence had an opportunity to clarify unclear points. The respondents were informed that they had to refer to intermediate level classes (the classes they teach) while completing the form.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed using the following tests: Chi-square, Spearman, Pearson and T test for independent samples. Numerical data was computed by SPSS. Input arising from open and semi-open questions was treated in a qualitative method by searching for themes and collapsing similar categories (McDonough & McDonough , 1997:186-187).

Means were calculated for three groups of variables: use of Hebrew during lesson (question 1), use of Hebrew to manage a class (question 3), and strategic use of Hebrew (question 5). Cronbach's Alpha test was conducted to check internal reliability of variables. The obtained results showed that all three variables are highly reliable (see appendix 3).

1.3. Findings

The linguistic background of the participants is first detailed. The rest of the findings are reported according to their original order in the questionnaire.

Descriptive Statistics

Linguistic background

Mother tongue

30 respondents filled in the questionnaire. The mother tongue of 15 respondents (50 %) is Hebrew. The mother tongue of 15 respondents (50%) is neither Hebrew nor English as can be seen on table 1 below.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	not Hebrew	15	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Hebrew	15	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 1: Mother tongue

Command of English

As specified in table 2 below, 14 respondents (46.75%) attested to having an excellent mastery of English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	good command	3	10.0	10.0	10.0
	very good command	13	43.3	43.3	53.3
	excellent command	14	46.7	46.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 2: English command

Command of Hebrew

Most of the respondents (N=17, 56.75%) claimed that they have an excellent mastery of Hebrew.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid good command	4	13.3	13.3	13.3
very good command	9	30.0	30.0	43.3
excellent command	17	56.7	56.7	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Table 3: Hebrew command

Hebrew use during the lesson (question 1)

The average use of Hebrew during the lesson was 3.31 (on a scale of 1-5 whereby 5 indicated a total agreement on behalf of the respondent). The question included 6 categories whose internal reliability was 0.756 (see appendix 4). The highest mean was obtained for using Hebrew because it aids comprehension (M=3.57, SD=0.76, N=19). The other categories were ranked as follows: students speak Hebrew in my lessons, using Hebrew in an English lesson is legitimate, students can speak to me in Hebrew, use of Hebrew is effective, it's better to use a Hebrew word than an English one you are not sure of. Table 4 depicts the results.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
students speak Hebrew in my lessons	3.3684	.68399	19
students can speak to me	3.2632	.65338	19
using Hebrew is legitimate	3.3158	.74927	19
better to use Hebrew if you are not sure	2.6842	1.29326	19
use of Hebrew is effective	2.8947	1.24252	19
use of Hebrew aids comprehension	3.5789	.76853	19

Table 4: Item statistics for Hebrew use during the lesson

Lesson carried out in Hebrew (question 2)

The highest agreement was achieved among 8 teachers (26.7%) who estimated that 15% of each lesson is carried out in Hebrew. 15 teachers (60%) reported that Hebrew is spoken during 10-20% of each lesson.

		Frequency	Percent out of 30	Valid Percent out of 29	Cumulative Percent
Valid	10	4	13.3	13.8	13.8
	15	8	26.7	27.6	41.4
	20	3	10.0	10.3	51.7
	25	4	13.3	13.8	65.5
	30	2	6.7	6.9	72.4
	35	4	13.3	13.8	86.2
	other	4	13.3	13.8	100.0
	Total	29	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.3		
Total		30	100.0		

Table 5: Lesson carried out in Hebrew (objective, in percentage)

Using Hebrew for Class Management (question 3)

The respondents were asked to refer to 5 items detailing the use of Hebrew for class management on a scale of 1-6, (1= never, 6= most frequently). Cronbach's alpha for this question is 0.797. The highest mean was obtained for discipline problems (M=4.28, SD=1.76, N=21). The rest of the items were ranked as follows: give homework or class work, dismiss students, take attendance, and finally, set up work mode. Table 6 presents the results.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
attendance	3.2857	1.76473	21
dismiss students	3.5238	1.66190	21
set up work	3.0952	1.51343	21
homework	3.6667	1.62275	21
discipline	4.2857	1.76473	21

Table 6: Item statistics for using Hebrew for class management

Using Hebrew for Class Management (question 4)

Most of the respondents (N=21, 70%) thought it is necessary to use Hebrew in order to manage an English lesson. 10 various reasons were provided and condensed into 7 categories. The salient reasons for managing an EFL classroom in Hebrew were students understand better, and whether students are beginners or non-readers. Table 7 displays the major reasons.

Reason	Number of teachers
Effective as students understand better	10
Necessary if students are beginners or non-readers	7
To lower weak students' anxiety	4
When teaching grammar	3
Natural	1
To deal with discipline problems	1
To explain word meaning	1

Table 7: Reasons for using Hebrew to manage a class

4 participants did not support using Hebrew for class management. They provided the following reasons: (1) students must be exposed to English (2) the students know exactly what the teacher means (3) If you use English the students get used to it and in this way improve their comprehension of the TL .

Strategic use of Hebrew (question 5)

18 items related Hebrew to different functions. Cronbach's alpha for this question is 0.859). Highest means on a scale of 1-5 , (where 3 equals 'sometimes' and 4 symbolizes 'often'), were found to be as follows: I use Hebrew when I teach grammar (M=3.47, N=23), I translate new words from English to Hebrew (M=3.43, N=23), I use Hebrew to explain differences in language use (M=3.34, N=23), when I speak Hebrew the students are happy (M=3.3, N=23), I speak Hebrew to check if my students understood whatsoever (M=3.17, N=23), and I use Hebrew to feel at ease and confident (M=3.1, N=23). The remaining items did not obtain means which exceeded 'sometimes'. There are some points worthy of note here:

- The respondents seldom use Hebrew because of personal factors such as fatigue and annoyance (items 17, 18).

- The respondents partly agree to use Hebrew in order to help students feel at ease and confident and make them happy (items 13, 14). Nevertheless, they do not do it because they want to overcome a cultural gap and show the students that they both originate from the same culture and use the same language (item 15). It is notable that when asked if the students make them speak Hebrew, (item 16), only 27% of the teachers rejected the idea. 33% of the teachers accorded the students a motivating role and 44% of the teachers partially agreed.
- Very close means were obtained concerning clarification and development of ideas as can be seen by items 3, 10, 7, 5, 8 and their corresponding means.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1. teach grammar	3.4783	.84582	23
2. translate	3.4348	.89575	23
3. teach new concepts	2.9130	.94931	23
4. do not know a word	2.3043	1.06322	23
5. introduce new material	2.6957	1.14554	23
6. assess oral performance	2.1304	.86887	23
7. summarize material	2.7826	.90235	23
8. explain errors	2.8696	.69442	23
9. check if students understood	3.1739	.65033	23
10. elicit information	2.8696	.81488	23
11. explain differences	3.3478	.83168	23
12. give feedback	2.3913	.83878	23
13. help students feel confident	3.1304	.75705	23
14. the students are happy	3.3043	.76484	23
15. to show the students	2.4783	1.23838	23
16. the students make me	2.9130	1.12464	23
17. when I am tired	1.9130	1.08347	23
18. when I am annoyed	2.3913	1.15755	23

Table 8: Item statistics for strategic use of Hebrew

Using Hebrew when checking for comprehension (question 6)

Most of the respondents (73.97%, N=23) claimed it is appropriate to use Hebrew when checking for comprehension of both written and oral information. The respondents provided 12 various reasons for doing it, which formed 6 categories. The major reasons are: (1) Students understand better (2) Catering to weak students, and (3) To lower students' anxiety. Table 9 below displays the reasons.

Reason	Number of teachers
Students understand better	5
Weak students	5
To lower anxiety	3
Students express in their L1	2
Explain word meaning	1
Only if you can't do it in another way	1

Table 9: Reasons for using Hebrew to check for comprehension

6 teachers (26.1%) opposed to using Hebrew when checking for comprehension. They presented the following explanations: (1) It can be done in English (2) The students have to practice English (3) It can be done by using simple language.

Interaction in Hebrew for Purpose of Clarification and Development of ideas (question 7)

10 respondents (55.6%) wrote that they interact with the students in Hebrew in order to clarify and develop ideas. They mentioned a total of 8 reasons that account for this practice. Similar reasons were condensed forming 5 categories. The next table displays the major reasons.

Reason	Number of teachers
Weak students (class level)	4
Students express in their L1 (open up)	3
Developing ideas should be in L1	1
The teacher needs feedback	1
Lower anxiety	1

Table 10: Reasons for interacting in Hebrew to clarify and develop ideas

8 participants (44.4%) were opposed to using Hebrew when clarifying or developing ideas. They offered 2 reasons: (1) Students should practice their English (2) It is impossible. In 7 cases (24.1%), the subjects attested to using Hebrew sometimes. They provided the following reasons: 1. To add a word in Hebrew 2. To translate from English into Hebrew 3. To cater to class level 4. To help students understand.

Lesson carried out in Hebrew (question 8)

12 teachers (42%) reported that 5-10 minutes of every English lesson they teach are in Hebrew. 4 teachers (14.3%) reported that Hebrew is spoken only 0-4 minutes of their lesson (lesson=45 minutes). The remaining teachers (N=12) believed Hebrew is spoken during 11-25 minutes of their lesson (see Table 11).

		Frequency	Percent out of 30	Valid Percent out of 28	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-4	4	13.3	14.3	14.3
	5-10	12	40.0	42.9	57.1
	11-15	5	16.7	17.9	75.0
	16-20	5	16.7	17.9	92.9
	21-25	2	6.7	7.1	100.0
	Total	28	93.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	6.7		
Total		30	100.0		

Table 11: Lesson carried out in Hebrew (subjective, in minutes)

Cross questions findings

The percentage of an English lesson that is generally carried out in Hebrew (question 2) versus the subjective use of Hebrew (question 8).

The median for Hebrew use during the lesson is 4, meaning, 20% (9 minutes). The median for subjective Hebrew use during the lesson is 2, equally 10 minutes (see Table 12).

Hebrew versus English mastery

While the median for English mastery is 4 (very good), the median for Hebrew mastery is 5 (excellent). That is to say, the respondents master Hebrew better than English (see table 12).

		English command	Hebrew command	percentage of the lesson carried out in Hebrew	number of minutes of the lesson carried out in Hebrew
N	Valid	30	30	29	28
	Missing	0	0	1	2
Median		4.0000	5.0000	4.0000	2.0000
Mode		5.00	5.00	3.00	2.00

Table 12: Statistics of Hebrew command, English command, and lesson carried out in Hebrew in percentage and in minutes

Statistics of 3 variables: use of Hebrew during the lesson, use of Hebrew for class management, and strategic use of Hebrew.

Average use of Hebrew during the lesson is 3.31 with a standard deviation of 0.59. Average mode is 3 (minimal: 2.33, maximal: 4.67). The *average use of Hebrew for class management* is 3.57 with a standard deviation of 1.23. The average mode is 3.20 (minimal: 1, maximal: 6). The *average of strategic use of Hebrew* is 2.77 with a standard deviation of 0.50. The average mode is 2.44 (minimal: 2.06, maximal: 4.17). (See table 13).

		average Hebrew use during the lesson	average Hebrew use to manage class	average Strategic use of Hebrew
N	Valid	30	21	30
	Missing	0	9	0
Mean		3.3100	3.5714	2.7733
Median		3.2667	3.4000	2.6389
Mode		3.00 ^a	3.20	2.44
Std. Deviation		.59167	1.23982	.50909
Variance		.350	1.537	.259
Range		2.33	5.00	2.11
Minimum		2.33	1.00	2.06
Maximum		4.67	6.00	4.17
Sum		99.30	75.00	83.20

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table 13: Statistics

Inferential statistics

Hypothesis 1: There is a correlation between mother tongue, English command, Hebrew command, lesson carried out in Hebrew (both objective and subjective), using Hebrew for class management, using Hebrew for checking of comprehension, and interacting in Hebrew for clarification and development of ideas.

Chi-square test was conducted to check the correlation among the variables. *A positive correlation between mother tongue and Hebrew command was found* (two-tailed, $X^2(2) = 16.562$ sig=0.000, $p < 0.01$, , $N=30$.) Other correlations are not significant. There was not any significant correlation between mother tongue and English command owing to the fact that the sample did not include any English speakers. In addition, as some teachers are not speakers of Hebrew, they do not use it often for purposes of class management or checking for comprehension or clarification (see tables 14-17).

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
mother tongue * Hebrew command	30	100.0%	0	.0%	30	100.0%

Table 14: Case processing summary

			Hebrew command			Total
			good command	very good command	excellent command	
mother tongue	non Hebrew	count	4	8	3	15
		% within mother tongue	26.7%	53.3%	20.0%	100.0%
		% within Hebrew command	100.0%	88.9%	17.6%	50.0%
	% of Total	13.3%	26.7%	10.0%	50.0%	
	Hebrew	count	0	1	14	15
		% within mother tongue	.0%	6.7%	93.3%	100.0%
% within Hebrew command		.0%	11.1%	82.4%	50.0%	
% of Total	.0%	3.3%	46.7%	50.0%		
Total	Count	4	9	17	30	
	% within mother tongue	13.3%	30.0%	56.7%	100.0%	
	% within Hebrew command	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	13.3%	30.0%	56.7%	100.0%	

Table 15: Cross tabulation mother tongue and Hebrew command

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.562 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	19.466	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.154	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	30		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5.
The minimum expected count is 2.00.

Table 16: Chi-Square tests

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig. ^c
Interval by Interval Pearson's R	.699	.093	5.167	.000 ^c
Ordinal by Ordinal Spearman Correlation	.732	.104	5.693	.000 ^c
N of Valid Cases	30			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Table 17: Symmetric Measures

Hypothesis 2: There is a difference in the necessity of Hebrew use according to the average use of Hebrew during the lesson, the average use of Hebrew for class management, and the average strategic use of Hebrew.

The difference between the variables was assessed by T-test for two independent samples. *A significant difference was found in the necessity of Hebrew use according to the average use of Hebrew during lesson* (two tailed, $t(23) = -2.781$, $\text{sig} = 0.011$ $p < 0.05$, equal variance assumed).

The average use of Hebrew during the lesson among respondents who claimed it is necessary to use Hebrew to manage a class ($M = 3.47$, $N = 21$, $SD = 0.54$) was higher than the average use of Hebrew during the lesson among respondents who reported it is not necessary to use Hebrew ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 0.41$, $N = 4$). Tables 18 and 19 present the relevant statistics. Other correlations were not found significant.

	Necessary to use Hebrew to manage	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
average use of Hebrew during the lesson	no	4	2.6667	.41811	.20905
	yes	21	3.4762	.54888	.11977

Table 18: Group statistics

		Levene's Equality of Variances test		T-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
average use of Hebrew during the lesson	equal variances assumed	.430	.518	-2.781	23	.011	-.80952	.29112	-1.41176	-.20729
	equal variances not assumed			-3.360	5.20	.019	-.80952	.24094	-1.42148	-.19757

Table 19: Independent samples test

Hypothesis 3: There is a difference in the appropriateness of Hebrew use when checking for comprehension according to the average use of Hebrew during the lesson, the average use of Hebrew for class management, and the average strategic use of Hebrew. The difference between the variables was computed by T-test for two independent samples. This test was not found significant.

1.4. Discussion

First and foremost, the findings indicate that the respondents use the students' MT in EFL lessons. The presence of Hebrew is undeniable. The respondents estimated that 9-10 minutes of each lesson are carried out in Hebrew. Moreover, input arising from questions 2 and 8 is relatively close. When comparing the results, it is evident that with regard to objective and subjective use of Hebrew, participants' responses do not indicate a significant gap.

However, the responses to the first question show that Hebrew is not taken for granted. In the same way, the frequency of strategic use of Hebrew (Question 5) ranged between 'never' to 'sometimes'. No doubt, English is the dominant language and Hebrew is by no means overused (MacDonald, 1993).

Hebrew does not play a role at the macro level. The teachers do not regard it as integral of the important interface between diverse cultures and languages, or as a sociolinguistic tool which enables learners to appropriate the target language (Kramersch, 1993; MacKay in Hinkel, 2005; Widdowson, 1996). The teachers utilize Hebrew at the micro level to facilitate class management, and to check comprehension as recommended by Chambers and Atkinson (in Oliveira, 2002), among others (see Part A, Chapter 2). When asked to account for this practice, three reasons were most frequently mentioned:

1. students understand better
2. presence of weak students
3. to lower anxiety

Over all, it seems that the findings partly agree with those of Macaro's 1997 study, whereby the MT was chosen to give and clarify instructions concerning class work, to check comprehension, to give feedback to students and to translate (the two latter functions were not salient in the current data collection tool).

Contradictory opinions were obtained for the use of Hebrew for clarification and development of ideas both in the open item (question 7), and in the closed item (question 5, items 3, 5, 7, 10).

Likewise, significant differences were found regarding the use of Hebrew to enforce discipline. When asked to refer to 5 items detailing the use of Hebrew for class management, the highest mean was obtained for discipline problems. However, only 1 teacher (out of 23 teachers who accorded Hebrew an important role in managing an EFL lesson) mentioned discipline when asked to detail the reasons for using Hebrew for class management purposes. Furthermore, the rest of the functions were not mentioned directly by the teachers. One can only assume that giving homework, setting work mode, dismissing students and taking attendance may be included in what the teacher described as "saving time, effective, and pupils understand better".

On the subject of using a word in Hebrew when a lexical item in English is not accessible, the teachers expressed different opinions (question 1,

item 1) with a tendency towards disagreement (question 5, item 4). Thus the respondents clearly oppose using Hebrew because of a lack of knowledge in the target language.

Though most of the respondents claimed it is appropriate to use Hebrew when checking for comprehension of both written and oral information in the open item (question 6), they were less decisive in the closed items (question 5 items 9, 10 question 1 item e2).

Lastly, concerning the sample's linguistic background, the fact that less than half of the respondents claimed they have an excellent command of English is a direct result of their being native speakers of different languages: Hebrew, Russian, French, Portuguese, Romanian, German, and Indian. What is more, in reference to the problem of defining a native speaker mentioned in the first part of this research (Inbar, 2001), all the respondents have clearly defined themselves as non-native speakers of English, and ascribed themselves to either of the languages mentioned above.

1.5. Summary

This chapter detailed the results of the first tool used for data collection in the research. The results obtained enabled me to define the frequency of using the learners' MT, locate the situations where it is utilized, and access beliefs regarding this practice. The next chapter is dedicated to the second tool used in this phase of the research – the group interview.

Chapter 2: Group Interview

2.1. Introduction

The first chapter detailed the methodology and findings of the questionnaire. This chapter will describe the second data collection tool I used in the first phase of the research: a group interview. As the questionnaire mostly belongs to the quantitative approach of data collection, I found it necessary to triangulate with data collected in a qualitative method.

The next section will first describe the method used for data collection and then present the findings regarding the teachers' perceptions of using the learners' mother tongue in the EFL classroom. I would like to thank the teachers who took part in the interview.

2.2. Design and Methodology

A group interview is a unique method of qualitative research whose purpose is to identify a range of views and to see the issues from the perspective of the participants themselves. The group context is intended to collect more wide-ranging information in a single session than would result from one-to-one interviews. Employing non-directive interviewing, the interviewer plays a minimal role, thus permitting a creation of a group dynamic that enables spontaneous issues to arise from the discussion (Hennik, 2007). Morgan adds that "the hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of the group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group" (1998:12). However, group interview suffers from some limitations: (1) some participants may be dominant (2) potential social pressure (3) dependent responses, and (4) its unsuitability for individual data collection.

Sample

The sample consisted of forty Israeli EFL teachers, who are mostly (95%) non-native speakers of English. The teachers were born in Israel and Abroad. They are twenty-five to sixty years old. All the teachers are University graduates. Some of the teachers hold a Master degree. They have been teaching from one to over twenty years in the Jewish religious and secular sectors in central locations in the country. The teachers teach various school levels from elementary to high school.

Conduct

This group interview was a structured discussion, which proceeded with very little intervention from the interviewer (Wallace, 2001:149).

The lead-in questions were:

1. *Is it legitimate to use Hebrew in the course of an English lesson?*
2. *What can be done only in English?*

The discussion took about 50 minutes and was held entirely in English.

10 participants were quite dominant in the discussion due to an authoritative tone, talking time, and certain openness linked with enthusiasm. In addition, the teachers were aware of the impact of their statements. While some presented their perceptions openly, others were possibly more reserved, given that this context clearly lacked confidentiality.

As to the social setting, the atmosphere was friendly and relaxed, replicating social interaction. Recording the data was carried out in real time as one teacher was asked to write it down.

Following are the findings and relevant quotes.

2.3. Findings

The first minutes of the discussion focused on the teaching of new words. A comment from one teacher triggered a series of responses of other group members. On the whole, most of the teachers were against translation.

"I am against translation. This is the easy way out."

"I find it is a waste of time to use the Hebrew translation."

"The learners have to know how to deal with the new words without translation"

"In real life, nobody translates from language to language"

The teachers came up with alternative methods to translation as follows:

- ✓ Using full sentences

"I always use full sentences when introducing new words".

"I find it is a waste of time to use the Hebrew translation."

- ✓ Offering a synonym

"We should try to explain in English and then ask them [the pupils]: 'Who understood?' Then repeat it again in English."

"I give an easy word."

- ✓ Looking up new words in the dictionary

"I like the method of having the pupils look up new words in the dictionary."

"My pupils consult the glossary of their textbook"

- ✓ Making use of visuals (a picture featuring the new word, illustrating)

"I can hardly draw but I find it very practical."

"I often use flashcards. Also in the higher classes".

"I bring old pictures, magazines, cartoons- images are great"

Later the discussion developed into the issue of teaching new material. The participants reported the following techniques:

- ✓ Repeating the material

"I always repeat once or twice."

"I repeat material and I make my students do the same."

- ✓ Making sure the pupils understood by having them explain the material in easier words *"I usually make them explain the material in their words - of course not in Hebrew- but in simple language"*

"I have my pupils explain the material to each other"

- ✓ Using what they called a sandwich method (English-Hebrew-English)

"I use the sandwich-method a lot. English-Hebrew-English. That is how it sinks in."

The teachers seemed to agree that an English lesson could not be taught solely in English. Here is what they said:

"I use Hebrew most of the time. I find it easier for them [the pupils] to understand."

"If I spoke only English, the pupils would say: We do not understand what you are talking about. And that is a problem. When they do not understand, it is simply a waste of time to teach at all."

"When I first started to teach English, I did not want to use Hebrew at all. But I realized that when you enter a classroom you have to speak Hebrew for the personal connection with the pupils. The pupils require it."

"I start in English, but to be honest, always end the class in Hebrew."

"Using Hebrew is not a bad thing."

"When I use only English, I feel that some of the kids kind of put a cover over their heads and simply stop listening."

"I use Hebrew when I teach grammar."

"You cannot explain grammatical rules in English. It is impossible."

"I always deal with discipline problems in Hebrew."

"When facing discipline problems, I use both languages, to make sure the kids understand."

One can derive from the data that Hebrew is mainly used for: teaching grammar, dealing with discipline problems, reinforcing teacher-pupil personal connection, and making pupils understand. However, the teachers were concerned as to using the target language because of:

- ✓ Exposure factor, given that English is a foreign language in Israel, school is the optimal exposure tool

"If they [the pupils] don't hear it [English] from us [the teachers] where would they be exposed to it?"

"We are English teachers; our job is to speak English."

✓ Some pupils like to speak English

"The kids in my class love to listen to English and speak to me in English. Even when they see me during the break they address me in English."

"My pupils adore communicating in English; they admire the culture that it represents."

"My pupils just love English speakers."

Having introduced the second lead-in question, namely, *What can be done only in English*, the teachers were quite agitated but eventually seemed to agree that managerial instructions and procedures can be done solely in English. Here is what they said:

"The repetitive stuff has to be said in English. Like: 'Take out your books', 'be quiet', 'listen' etc."

"Pupils get used to instructions pretty fast. 'Open your books', 'go to page x' 'please sit down'... it isn't so complicated... is it?"

"I always take attendance in English"

2.4. Discussion

The interviewees expressed ideas about the positive and negative effects of using the pupils' MT in teaching EFL. The positive aspects included:

- (1) Reinforcement of teacher-pupil relationship
- (2) Getting students' attention
- (3) Students understand better
- (4) Facilitating grammar instruction
- (5) Maintaining discipline

On the other hand, the following negative effects of using Hebrew were also described by the interviewees:

- (1) Decreased exposure to English
- (2) Some pupils like to speak English

Relating to the second point, it seems that some learners demonstrate what Gardner defined as integrative motivation, which is typified by the learner's positive reaction towards the culture of the TL community. Given that the learners have hardly any contact with the TL (Dörnyei et al., 2006), the pupils' motivation is understandable.

The interviewees stressed the importance of repetition. They recommended repetitions when instructing new material and managing the class. They accorded repetition a significant role in facilitating TL input.

It is not surprising that vocabulary teaching was revealed as of major importance for the teachers. According to Nation, vocabulary instruction means "ensuring that there is a balance of the strands of meaning-focused input, language –focused learning, meaning-focused output, and fluency development" (in Hinkel, 2005:594). Overusing the MT definitely narrows down potential possibilities for vocabulary acquisition. The teachers' preferred methods (i.e. translating words into simpler language, talking about them, presenting them) are highly recommended in the literature as they are included in what Nation and others term "negotiation".

Interestingly, the teachers did not mention miming, and guessing meaning from context, (which are, together with definition illustration and translation), the basic ways of conveying the meaning of words (Frost in Kishoni, 2006:9). The teachers did mention consulting the dictionary which is an example of how teachers can 'equip their students with learning skills' (Felder & Brent, 2005). Though consulting the dictionary should be properly taught as "learners make limited use of this information and are largely unfamiliar with how to make use of the information provided" (Nation in Hinkel, 2005:593).

Before summing up this section, one should note that since the teachers were exposed to the questionnaire prior to the group interview, it might have influenced their contributions to the discussion.

2.5. Summary

My aim in this interview was to access data regarding the use of the learners' MT which would complete and highlight the findings of the questionnaire. The findings of the questionnaire and the group interview will be discussed in the following section.

DISCUSSION (PHASE A)

The findings obtained thus far show that English is without doubt the prevailing language and Hebrew is not taken for granted. Moreover, the teachers are aware of the fact that their subject matter is taught in an environment that is different from the language being taught (Levine et al. 2002) and hence encourage its use. Nevertheless, the participants seemed to agree that their classes cannot be defined as 'English only' and their lessons cannot be taught solely in English. Switching to Hebrew occurs mainly for three reasons: (1) students understand better (2) to maintain discipline (3) to manage the class. These results were partly consistent with those of the studies reviewed in the first part of this research (Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Macaro, 1997; Schweers, 1999).

Yet, there are significant gaps in the data collected by both tools:

- While the questionnaire's respondents seem to tolerate translating words from English to Hebrew as a means to achieving understanding, most of the contributors to the group interview opposed it and came up with alternatives to enhance the mnemonic, cognitive and metacognitive strategies of their learners.
- Surprisingly, reverting to the pupils' MT in order to check for comprehension was overwhelmingly supported in the questionnaire but not at all in the group interview.
- The contributors to the group interview mentioned the social dimension of the MT. They stressed its role in bonding with the pupils and affecting the interrelationships among its ecological systems, to adopt Hawkins phrase (in Hinkel, 2005:28) by creating mutual trust and positive atmosphere (Clearfield, 2006).
- Finally, the questionnaire's respondents related code-switching to the presence of weak students and non-readers. They explained that they speak Hebrew to lower learners' anxiety. Thus, the teachers seem to recognize their students' learning differences and that feelings of anxiety or contentment highly affect learning (Deutsch, 2007).

As mentioned before, the greatest advantage in using a questionnaire lies in the fact that the knowledge needed is controlled by the questions, thus affording a good deal of precision and clarity (McDonough and

McDonough, 1997:171). Conversely, the group interview unveiled points which had not been mentioned hitherto.

For example, the group interviewees are aware of the fact that some pupils like to speak English and that is why they "remain faithful" to the TL and limit the use of the MT. In addition, the group interviewees reported about their day to day teaching routines and strategies. For instance, they mentioned the importance of repetition and different tactics for conveying meaning of words.

To conclude, while the findings of the questionnaire point to what can be defined as a micro level use of the learners' MT, the results obtained in the group interview clearly locate this use at the macro level. In light of the contradictory findings and given that the results obtained do not necessarily provide evidence for actual teaching practices, I found it necessary to enhance this research by adding two data collection tools: observations and individual interviews.

SUMMARY (Part B)

This phase set out to investigate data regarding the attitudes of NNES teachers towards using the students' mother tongue in the EFL classroom.

Fueled by the findings of the questionnaire and the group interview, the research will now proceed to its next phase, Phase B, where the data collected so far will be complemented by further qualitative research.

PART C: Phase B

INTRODUCTION

The last part, Part B, presented the results of the first phase of this research regarding the teachers' use of the students' MT in the EFL classroom. Based on the findings of Phase A, I decided to collect further data, this time using observations and interviews. In addition, the current phase of the research takes a look at EFL teachers in a different context: Hungary.

This part of the study will describe and discuss the second phase of the research, starting with the observations (Chapter 1), continuing with the interviews (Chapter 2), and ending with a discussion of all the findings.

Chapter 1: Observations

1.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to describe the observations carried out in two different EFL contexts: Israel and Hungary. Both observations were of the non-participant type and thus especially appropriate and significant for this research as they opened a window to the classroom for the researcher. The design, methodology and results of each observation are detailed separately.

1.2. Israel

1.2.1. Design and Methodology

General

The course and the teaching methods

All the classes were heterogeneous intermediate mainstream classes within a regular school setting. The course is given once a week (in addition to the 3 regular weekly hours). A session lasts 120 minutes (2 lessons of 45 minutes each and a break).

All lessons derive from the same syllabus. The teachers use Israeli textbooks (e.g. *Highlights*, *Grammar for the 5th grade*, *Story Club*, *Easy Stories*) as well as supplementary material. The teaching method is often inductive. The most common teaching mode is frontal. The pupils generally sit in groups.

Each class has a room. The classrooms are fairly big and decorated. All English lessons take place in the same room.

The Pupils

There are 10-14 pupils per class. The pupils have been learning English in grade 3-4. Most of the students are native speakers of Hebrew and study English as a first foreign language. There are no English speakers.

The pupils take an entrance examination in English at the beginning of the year which included: grammar and vocabulary exercises, a reading component and a written task.

The Teachers

The teachers are aged 27-45. They are hard working, competent and experienced. All the teachers have a BA / MA degree and a teaching diploma. All the teachers master Hebrew, although only 3 teachers are native speakers of Hebrew. All the teachers master the English language. None of the teachers are native speakers of English. The teachers studied English as a first foreign language either in Israel or Abroad, by traditional methods (drill and practice, translation, audio dictations).

Teachers 1, 3, 4 and 5 conduct the courses at school X; teacher 2 works at school Y. Both schools are located in medium size towns in the center of Israel. (I had to perform the observation in two schools due to external constraints).

Methodology

5 teachers were observed for 300 minute each, within the framework of English as a Foreign Language course. The lessons included various teaching modes (frontal, groups and pairs) and domains (access to information, appreciation of language and literature, social interaction and presentation). The lesson plans derived from the New Curriculum for English in All Grades (Israeli Ministry of Education, 2001).

Having conducted pilot observations, in which I either wrote down both teacher talk and pupil talk or recorded it at intervals, I realized that the best method when being the only observer, was to record teacher talk in Hebrew. Pupils talk was recorded if relevant. I did not record silent periods. I did not use a tape recorder as I find it highly intimidating and intrusive. I aimed to minimize distraction and reduce interference of variables such as atypical pupil behavior. Teaching field notes and reflective memos were added, (including lesson plans and procedures), to detail data and phenomena that were not described in the systematic observation.

The observation could be classified as *naturalistic*, in the sense that it was neither manipulated nor experimental. It was carried out within the natural setting, the usual lesson and its participants' everyday studies

(McDonough & McDonough 1997:114). Although both teachers and students knew they were under observation, Hawthorne effect ¹ was minimized as both teachers and students are used to being frequently observed. A further conversation with the teachers confirmed that the observation did not change the behavior of the pupils noticeably. The observer was non-participant.

The observation was *intentional*, in the sense that it was planned beforehand and *structured*. The data was collected and coded in a systematic way using pre-established categories either during or immediately after the observation. The unit of classification was a sentence ². The coding system is an adaptation of 'Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories' (FIAC) which is presented in the following table.

FIAC (Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories) 1970*

Teacher Talk

1. Accepts feeling: *Accepts or clarifies an attitude or the feeling tone of a pupil in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included.*

2. Praises or encourages: *Praises or encourages pupil action or behavior. Makes jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual. Nodding head or saying 'Um hm?' or 'Go on' are included.*

3. Accepts or uses ideas of pupils: *Clarifying, building or developing ideas suggested by a pupil. Teacher extensions of pupil ideas are included, but as a teacher brings more of his or her ideas into play, shift to category five.*

4. Asks questions: *Asking a question about content or procedure, based on teacher ideas, with the intent that a pupil will answer.*

5. Lecturing: *Giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing own ideas, giving own explanation, or citing an authority other than a pupil.*

6. Giving directions: *Directions, commands or orders with which a pupil is expected to comply.*

7. Criticizing or justifying authority: *statements intended to change pupil behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he or she is doing; extreme self-reference.*

*See comments to model in appendix 5

Table 1: FIAC (Ryan, 2001)

Although I have adapted FIAC model, I have added three alterations:

- ✓ Code 2 denotes all feedback and praise.
- ✓ Code 4 denotes all questions directed at an individual student.
- ✓ Code 6 denotes all directions and instructions directed at one or more pupils.

Questions aimed at individual students were included in code 4 as code 1-4 seem to refer to the pupils as individuals whereas code 5-7 seem to refer to them in relation to the others. Codes 1-4 are student-centered, whereas codes 5-7 are teacher-dominant.

1.2.2. Findings

I will now relate the findings of the observation, starting with data regarding all the teachers and continuing with a comprehensive study of the teachers who are native speakers of Hebrew. The findings are limited to the 300 minutes observed per teacher and thus, are not to be generalized.

Note: Hebrew talk appears in *Comic Sans* font. English talk figures in Times New Roman font.

All the Teachers

General

On the whole, the Israeli EFL teachers tried to use English as often as possible. They repeated their sentences, rephrased them, used mimics and sometimes drew on the board. As for pupils' talk, pupils often addressed the teachers in Hebrew but the teachers tried to minimize it by means of: making the pupils repeat their phrases in English, answering the pupils in English and paraphrasing what the pupils said in English.

Nevertheless, Hebrew was clearly "present" in the classroom, whether the teachers were native speakers of Hebrew or not. Chart 1 presents the distribution of teacher talk according to the model.

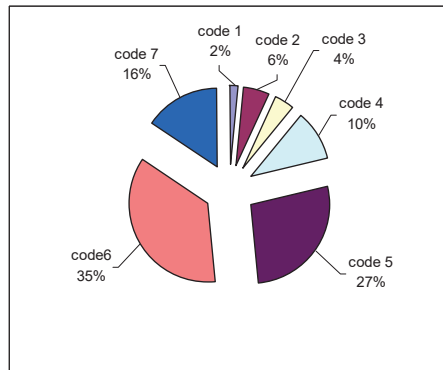


Chart 1: Israeli EFL teachers: all teachers

As seen in chart 1, the prominent code is code 6, (referring to directing), followed by code 5 (lecturing). Justifying authority (code 7) is represented by 16% and the remaining functions constitute (together) 22% of the sentences carried out in Hebrew.

Using Hebrew for directing purposes (code 6) was most frequent. It was divided into two major types: instructing the pupils and posing questions to them. The first type recurred when performing task related activities. Interrogating the pupils in their MT was generally related to reading comprehension.

Lecturing in Hebrew (code 5) scored second. Translations from English to Hebrew were most common while reading a text in the target language or discussing a topic. Still within the framework of lecturing, code-switching recurred when dealing with grammar, both when the teachers explained grammatical structures and when the pupils practiced (on task).

Disciplining the pupils in Hebrew (code 7) came third. The sentences within this code were aimed, in most cases, at: (1) changing the behavior of individual pupils and making them an integral part of the class, concentrated and focused on the task at hand (2) urging pupils to end the break, join the class, and to stop chatting with their colleagues. In some cases, Hebrew talk was either followed or introduced by English.

Asking questions directed at an individual pupil (code 4) represented 10% of teacher talk in Hebrew. The questions were generally about content and related to the assignment undertaken. The questions were often

introduced in English and translated to Hebrew if they did not trigger any reaction on behalf of the pupil.

Praising and encouraging pupils' actions or behaviors was usually carried out in English. Still, it occupied 5% of teacher talk in Hebrew. These events were sometimes accompanied by head nodding.

The teachers accepted and developed pupils' ideas (code 3) by modifying what was said, connecting it to other ideas or simply summarizing. A total number of 251 sentences (4% of all sentences in Hebrew) were recorded.

Accepting feelings of pupils (code 1) was quite rare. These events were also uncommon in teacher talk in English.

Lastly, it is worth mentioning that all the teachers, with no exceptions, were observed teaching in accordance with the Professional Standards for English Teachers (2004). They applied principles of effective classroom management, combined with a suitable physical learning environment. On the whole, the learners engaged in meaningful activities which related to their prior experiences and promoted thinking skills in a communicative and semi-authentic linguistic environment (Israeli Ministry of Education, 2001:13).

Findings per Teacher

Prior to presenting the findings, I would like note that the terms teacher A-E and class A-E respectively are random.

Teacher A

Teacher A is not a native speaker of Hebrew. She speaks English better than Hebrew. However, she can easily manage the lesson in Hebrew. She is very experienced, patient, polite, and creative.

According to Teacher A, most of the pupils have a good knowledge of English though 3 pupils have difficulties, especially in reading. These pupils tend to misbehave and demand her attention.

On the whole, the students were cooperative. They took an active part in the lesson. Class work was quite noisy but productive. The lessons were

varied and well planned. The teaching materials were all prepared by the teacher and included worksheets, short reading passages, short listening passages, games and creative tasks. The language of instruction was English. The salutation was in English.

Teacher A used Hebrew mainly for lecturing: she translated vocabulary (e.g. "lemon is a lemon in English 'sour' is how it tastes") and explained grammatical points (e.g. "They, we, you, I 'we use 'have'").

Directions and managerial instructions were carried out in English, but quite often translated to Hebrew if the message was not conveyed. For example, in a lesson regarding animals, the teacher asked the pupils to name animals and ended by saying in Hebrew: "Every pupil gives a name". In a different lesson, the teacher instructed: "Wait till he comes back" (to a pupil who wanted to wash his hands); "You can write the meanings in Hebrew if you don't want to copy the drawing from the blackboard".

Questioning in Hebrew recurred as in the following example (post reading): "What have you read?" or using the pattern what is + a word in English. "What is 'house' and what is 'home'?" ; "Does everybody know what the meaning of the sentence 'I feel cold at home' is?"

Criticizing and justifying authority were carried out in Hebrew mainly to achieve alertness. For instance: 1. "You haven't done it yet. All the pupils are here. Why aren't you doing the task?" 2. "You weren't on time so you missed. Why didn't you come on time?"

Interrogating individual pupils concerned managerial aspects of the lesson as in: "Have I already checked your work?" or related to vocabulary: "What does it mean?" and "What does a nurse have?" "What color is she wearing?" (Both examples were recorded during a lesson about jobs and professions).

Teacher A hardly used Hebrew for accepting feelings. However, she did it in English. I recorded a rare event where she said: "OK. So you don't agree. I know it is winter but we are talking about the four seasons right now".

Hebrew was rarely used to give feedback. On one occasion the teacher exclaimed: "Look how nice X did it". On a different occasion she encouraged: "Try saying it in English. In Hebrew you know it. Now it's time to know it in English" and accepted a pupil's idea: "D said 'lovely' in the first paragraph, not from the word 'love' but 'lovely' which means cozy" (while reading a short text).

Chart 2 presents the distribution of teacher A's talk in Hebrew.

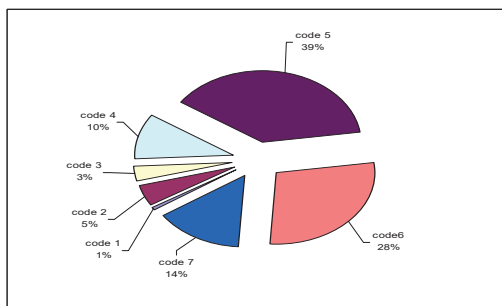


Chart 2: Teacher A's Hebrew Talk

Teacher B

Teacher B is not a native speaker of Hebrew. She is very experienced and has an outgoing personality. She shares and cares. Class B is a fairly good class, though there are major differences among students.

The pupils were given love, attention and respect. Teacher B was encouraging and supportive. For instance, while teaching new vocabulary: "Try to read the first word. Catch words. The blackboard can help you."

The students cooperated eagerly. They took an active part in the lesson. Class work was noisy but effective. There seemed to be an ongoing competition among the students, which contributed to the success and the flow of the lessons.

The lessons were varied and well structured. The teaching materials included worksheets, short reading passages and games (both written and oral).

Teacher B spoke Hebrew while directing the pupils and managing the class, although she first spoke in English and switched to Hebrew when the message was not communicated to the pupils, as in "Today we have a review. It's the last lesson before the holiday". Lecturing, especially explaining grammatical points and sometimes translating came second as in: "Table is 'it'. It doesn't move".

Interrogating and instructing individual pupils was the third use of Hebrew: "x, do you know what a skirt is?" or while playing a game orally to review the topic of clothes: "You have to color matching words in the same color".

Disciplining the pupils in Hebrew was found in the 4th role. For example, in the middle of a lesson: "Why are you shouting?" or at the beginning of the lesson: "Where have you been? Don't you have a watch?"

The rest of the functions were used less frequently as follows: Praising and supporting was carried out mainly in English but reinforced in Hebrew especially for the less advanced pupils: "Great. You finished everything. You can put everything in your schoolbag". While checking a worksheet (plural form of nouns) : "Very good. No mistakes at all. It is excellent".

Teacher B often accepted pupils' ideas in English but seldom in Hebrew. For example, after asking the pupils to spell 'plate', she referred to a pupil's statement: "OK. But it's the other way around. We haven't reached the word 'baby' yet" or translated into Hebrew a pupil's answer: "Excellent. The cat is near the dog. Near. Near the dog. A dog and a cat".

Hebrew was used for accepting feelings. When a pupil said he is tired: "I don't think you are exhausted". When a pupil had to spell the word 'bear': "I know it's difficult".

Teacher B used the blackboard often, especially when teaching new words and drawing images if possible. Following is a chart depicting the distribution of Teacher B's talk in Hebrew.

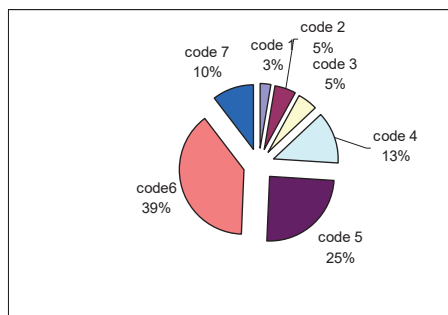


Chart 3: Teacher B's Hebrew Talk

Teacher C

Teacher C is a native speaker of Hebrew. She is the oldest in the team. She is very calm, nice and pleasant. She often smiles. She treats the pupils with attention and respect

Class C is a relatively weak class. Although the pupils have been learning English for 3 years, they seem to lack basic vocabulary and grammar.

Teacher C was motivating and helpful. She made sure all the pupils participated in the lessons. She definitely knows the pupils well. She catered to the pupils' needs, and assisted the weak pupils.

The language of instruction was English. Salutation was in English. A miniaturized lesson plan in English was on the blackboard. As the students are weak (relative to the other classes), the teacher clarified each stage a couple of times. Discipline problems erupted but the teacher dealt with them expertly.

The pupils seemed motivated and took an active part in the lessons. Two to three pupils were talkative and disruptive but the teacher controlled them.

The instructional materials were prepared by the teacher and included worksheets, short reading passages, short listening passages and games. The lessons flowed; they were varied and included at least 10 activities and different modes of instruction (students worked in pairs, groups, individually).

The classroom climate was good: pupils were collaborative and quiet. There was very little conversation off task. The interaction between the teacher and the pupils was very good: a lot of eye contact and nonverbal signs of communication. The pupils posed questions and prompts, followed directions and made requests for information and comments.

Teacher C used Hebrew for lecturing, directing and disciplining the pupils. Hebrew was partly used for purposes of responding to the students by praising or accepting their ideas. She hardly used Hebrew for accepting feelings. In fact she rarely showed her feelings in English either. Discipline in second place - The gap may be due to the disruptive nature of some of Teacher C's students.

Examples of Teacher C's use of Hebrew appear in the next section.

Chart 4 presents the distribution of teacher C's talk in Hebrew.

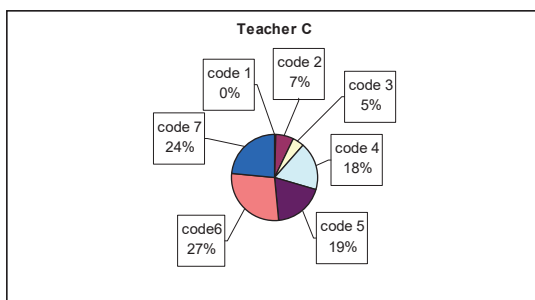


Chart 4: Teacher C's Hebrew Talk

Comment: In light of prior visits to Teacher C's class and knowing how she tries to use English I could very well expect her to use the smallest amount of sentences in Hebrew (828). She repeats every sentence 2-3 times, or simplifies it so as not to use Hebrew.

Teacher D

Teacher D is a native speaker of Hebrew. She is younger than her colleagues and easily relates to the pupils. She is highly experienced.

Class D is heterogeneous and includes 3 levels of pupils: weak, mainstream, and advanced. Two pupils can hardly read while two pupils are advanced and sometimes work independently.

The teaching materials included a beginning reader (*Easy Stories* by Sue Paz, UPP 1999) and grammar worksheets. Most lessons featured frontal mode.

The teacher motivated the pupils and catered to their needs (including preparing alternative tasks for the weak pupils and translating to Hebrew when needed). The ambiance was constructive. Two pupils distracted the class occasionally but were soon reproached by the teacher who made them focus on the task at hand.

Teacher D spoke Hebrew mainly for directing and secondly for lecturing. Code 7 was allocated 14% of sentences. Feedback and encouraging (code 2) constituted 6% of the total talk in Hebrew. The remaining functions occupied a relatively modest place. Salutation was performed in English.

I observed an ample use of the blackboard, especially while teaching new vocabulary. The teacher wrote in both languages or drew images when possible.

Examples of Teacher D's use of Hebrew appear in the next section.

Chart 5 presents the distribution of teacher D's talk in Hebrew.

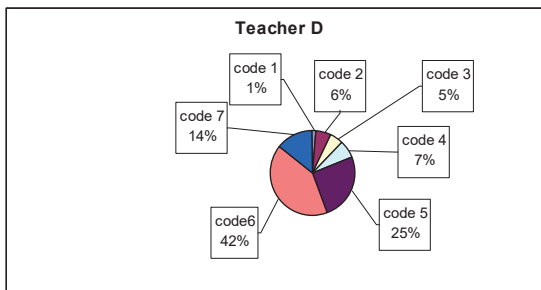


Chart 5: Teacher D's Hebrew Talk

Teacher E

Teacher E is a native speaker of Hebrew with an excellent mastery of the English language. She is less experienced than her colleagues. However, she is well equipped for every class and highly enthusiastic.

The majority of the pupils have a fairly good knowledge of English. A mini group of 3 pupils seems to have difficulties, especially in vocabulary and reading.

The book is *Story Club* (by Agin and Curiel, ECB 2003). The teacher supplements every lesson with a game.

Most lessons were frontal mode. One should note that Teacher E spoke excessively in both languages during the lessons. Explanations and instructions tended to be wearisome and ambiguous. As a result, the lessons were sometimes less flowing, as the 'pacing' was disturbed (Richards and Lockhart, 1996: 114).

The interaction between the teacher and pupils was limited to very few pupils. The rest of the students hardly answered the teacher's questions and did not initiate questions. The pupils were edgy. Off task conversations were quite frequent and seemingly made the teacher a bit tense. Although she really cared and knew the level of the students she often lost her class. Thus, the teacher received little oral feedback.

Examples of Teacher E's use of Hebrew are shown in the next section.

Follows is a chart depicting the distribution of Teacher E's talk in Hebrew.

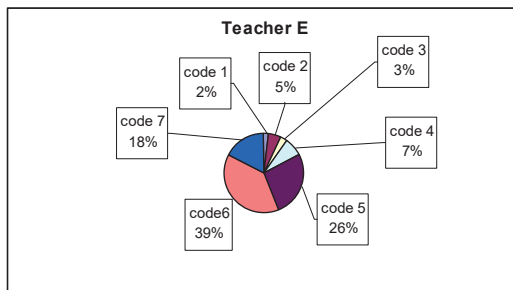


Chart 6: Teacher E's Hebrew Talk

Findings: Native Speakers of Hebrew

General

On the whole, the results concerning the Hebrew-speaking teachers bear a resemblance to those of all teachers.

Using Hebrew for directing purposes (code 6) was found most frequent. Questions directed at the whole class recurred when checking for information while reading or teaching new material:

- "Does anybody want to say 'I have a new book'?"
- While reading the teacher asked the entire class: "What happens to popcorn in the microwave?"
- While reading, the teacher asked the entire class: "Who likes to visit the 'zoo'?"
- While working in stations "In station number 3, what is 'writing'?"

Instructions concerning class management and setting up work mode were carried out in Hebrew as in the following examples:

- "Copy the sentences [from the board] and fill them in using 'to have / to be'."
- After reading a text, the teacher used it for teaching present tenses: "Let's find 6 verbs and take a break."
- "OK, you can look at the text together."

Lecturing in Hebrew (code 5) scored second for Teachers D and E and only third for Teacher C. The teachers translated because they were requested to do so by the pupils or when trying to elicit the meaning of words and phrases. For example:

- "'Worried' is concerned."
- "The verbs are 'help' meaning to help and 'sing'."
- The teacher translates the words: 'hot', 'pot'.
- "First, it's 'Donna' not 'Dana'; the entire page is about the sound 'o'."

Grammatical explanations were carried out in Hebrew when the teachers lectured on English grammar or practiced it with the pupils, for instance:

- "The verb always comes after the subject, doesn't it?"
- While teaching the Present Simple tense: "Pay attention, 2 persons, the verb doesn't take any additions."
- Reviewing adjectives: "You know what an adjective is. It's something which describes somebody."

Disciplining the pupils in Hebrew (code 7) came second for Teacher C and only third for Teachers D and E. The teachers used their pupils' MT when they wished to change pupils' behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable, such as making them more attentive or to perform a given task:

- "I can't see that you are working."
- "Don't shout."
- While teaching the plural form: "Are you with us?", "May I have some concentration, can you please concentrate?"

The rest of the codes recurred in the following frequency:

1. Asking questions directed at an individual pupil (code 4):
 - While reading: "Here is the text. What do you prefer to read?"
 - Discussing animals, the teacher addresses a pupil: "X, do you remember what 'flies' are?"
 - While teaching the plural form: "Do you want to say why it's singular?"

2. Praising and encouraging pupils (code 2):
 - While checking an exercise "You see, well done, you studied well". To another pupil in a different lesson: "It really looks good. Excellent."
 - "That's true. A desert."
 - A pupil referred to a picture of a smiling girl. The teacher: "This is a great idea."

3. Accepting and developing pupils' ideas (code 3):
 - While teaching the plural form: "It's true, if they take 'is' it means they are singular."
 - While checking a worksheet: "That's correct. 'Ready' describes the way we are."
 - Referring to 'you're a girl' a pupil said it is a singular. The teacher repeats his answer and extends: "That's correct. A singular. Because we have 'a'."

4. Accepting feelings of pupils (code 1):
 - "I understand that you don't want to review the material but you have a test."
 - "Read, practice, I promise I will help you."
 - "This is more complicated..."
 - While teaching the plural form the teacher said in a funny tone: "I can see you are all mixed up. You prepared a vegetable salad. You prepared a Greek salad."
 - To two pupils who did not finish a writing task: "It's OK. We'll skip it. There is a break. We can do it later."

Chart 7 presents Hebrew talk of the teachers who are native Hebrew speakers.

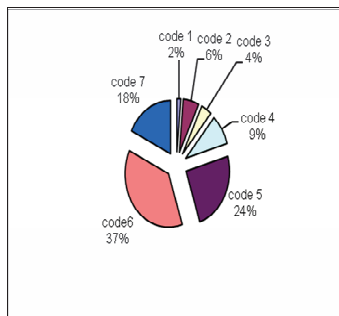


Chart 7: Israeli teachers: Native Speakers of Hebrew

To sum up, directing the lesson and lecturing were found as the salient functions of Hebrew. A thorough analysis of both is presented next.

Detailed Findings

Since I agree with Todd (2008) and Ho (2005) about the problem to assign teacher questions and directions into narrowly defined categories, the data regarding directing and lecturing was treated inductively and subcategories were segregated by looking for consistency, regularity, repetitions, contradiction and comparison (Sabar, 1999: 91). This stage of the analysis resulted as follows.

Directing the lesson can be divided into the following features:

I. Directing (giving instructions):

- ✓ On task
- ✓ Off task

II. Questions:

✓ On task:

1. Referring to a written text
2. Referring to an oral text
3. Other

✓ Off task

✓ Pattern: What is + a word in English (variations: Can someone tell me what is / who knows what is)

Table 2 illustrates this segmentation.

<u>DIRECTING</u>	<u>EXAMPLES</u>
DIRECTING (giving instructions)	
On task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "Look at the dwarf. What should it say? Start from the beginning of the sentence." ▪ "X, I want you to read the book you've got." ▪ "Find them [words describing feelings] and mark them."
Off task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "We can't hear you. Speak louder." ▪ "You didn't participate at all today." ▪ "Everybody take a break."
QUESTIONS (eliciting information)	
On task - Referring to a written text	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "What is it talking about?" ▪ "Which letter is this?"
On task - Referring to an oral text	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "What word is in 'Sunday'?" ▪ "What did I say? You answer 'fine, thank you'."
On task - other	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "Can I wipe it [the blackboard]?" ▪ "Is English Room's door open?"
Pattern: What is (Ma ze) + a word in English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introducing a topic orally: "Ma ze 'it flies'? Ma ze 'sky'?" ▪ While reading: "Ma ze 'in front of'?"

Table 2: Israeli teachers' talk in Hebrew for directing purposes

A quantified distribution yields the following results ¹:

1. 2/3 of all directions in Hebrew were instructions. Only 1/3 was questions.
2. Most of the instructions in Hebrew were task-related. Off task instructions represented only 11 % from total instructions.
3. 3/4 of the questions dealt with the task at hand, especially with reading assignments. Off task questions were scarce.
4. Almost 1/5 of the questions were of the type what is+a word in English.

¹ See appendix 6 for numerical data.

Using Hebrew for lecturing can be segmented as follows:

I. Translations:

- ✓ While writing (a mini text, answering an open question)
- ✓ Listening comprehension
- ✓ While reading
- ✓ Oral lecturing

II. Grammar:

- ✓ Lecturing (explaining a grammatical point)
- ✓ While practicing (on task)

III. Other

Table 3 demonstrates this segmentation.

<u>LECTURING</u>	<u>EXAMPLES</u>
TRANSLATIONS	
While writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher translates: 'fish', 'gets up'. ▪ 'Pasta' is also in English. I'll write it on the blackboard for you."
Listening comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "'Head teacher' is a senior teacher. It isn't a description. It's a definition."
While reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reading about professions: "He does it all day" ▪ Reading a text featuring the sound 'o': "The hotdogs are in the pan."
Oral lecturing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introducing the topic of animals: "I am telling you ... It flies from flower to flower." ▪ Teacher translates the word 'rules' and asks the class to say the rules of conduct in the lesson.
GRAMMAR	
Lecturing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "It's an adjective. 'Singer' is a singer in Hebrew." ▪ Practicing Present tenses: "The subject is in the 3rd person singular. It is the one who does the actions."
On task - practicing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Practicing Present tenses "In number 4, it's the same word, just without the letter 's'." ▪ Teacher clarifies difference between 'he' and 'she'. ▪ "The subject is in the 3rd person. She is the one who carries out the actions."

Table 3: Israeli teachers' talk in Hebrew for lecturing purposes

A quantified distribution of lecturing in Hebrew results as follows ²:

1. Translations from English to Hebrew usually related to reading but also consisted of translating while lecturing.
2. Translations while writing presented only 13% of all translations.
3. There were no records of translation during oral activities of the lesson (except grammar).
4. Lecturing in Hebrew regarding grammar recurred twice as often as using Hebrew while practicing grammar.

The findings and their implications will be discussed in the next chapter.

1.2.3. Discussion

The findings show that none of the classrooms was of the 'English only' type. However, most of the teachers tried to maximize the exposure to the TL and used it as a real and authentic means of communication (Chaudron, 1988; Polio & Duff, 1994; Macaro, 1997).

There were ample cases where, as Van Lear and Turnball explain, (in Turnball and Arnett 2002), the teachers used the learners' L1 to promote learning by creating comprehensible input and providing assistance to weak students (see also Critchley, 2004; Schweers, 1999).

Using Hebrew for directing purposes was most frequent. Thus, it corroborated with the findings of recent studies (Macaro, 1997; Rolin-Ianziti, 2002; Polio and Duff, 1994), where the MT was employed to clarify instructions concerning class work, to give feedback to students, to check comprehension, and to manage the classroom (Atkinson in Oliveira, 2002).

Lecturing in Hebrew scored second. Indeed, translations from English to Hebrew were most common, especially while reading a text in the target language or dealing with grammar. Similar to the results in Rolin-Ianziti's research (2002) and Kharma and Hajjaj's (1989), the pupils' MT was practiced to explain new words and to compare the MT to the TL. The teachers allowed learners to notice the gap between their current inner grammar (of Hebrew) and the grammar of English by means of translating to the MT, (Ferrer, 2005).

² See appendix 7 for numerical data.

Like the teachers in Macaro's study (1997), the Israeli teachers used the students' MT for disciplining and achieving attentiveness. Thus, they resorted to the MT when the pupils misbehaved or did not comply with the teachers' requests (Chambers in Oliveira, 2002).

Interestingly, I did not witness cases where the MT was employed as a result of being short of time (Polio and Duff, 1994) nor to aid cooperation among learners or test them (Atkinson in Oliveira, 2002). Furthermore, the literature review mentioned the use of the pupils' MT to create bonding with the pupils, (Polio and Duff, 1994 among others), and show respect to their native language and culture (Schweers, 1999; Macaro, 1997). However, these functions were not overt in the observed classes.

In conclusion, the findings of the Israeli observation show a systematic relationship between the teachers' language choices and particular pedagogic functions. These findings give rise to questions such as:

- Has using the MT during an EFL lesson become a common classroom practice? If yes, how do the teachers feel about it?
- Is this code-switching a spontaneous activity or a result of decision-making procedure? Is it rooted in the teachers' history and how they were taught?
- Is it easier to discipline pupils in their MT?

I will try to answer these questions in the individual interviews with the teachers in chapter 2.

Following are the results of the observations carried out in Hungary.

1.3. Hungary

The last section described the findings of the observation carried out in Israel and insinuated that non-native EFL teachers used the pupils' MT mostly for lecturing and directing. This section expands on the observation of 4 Hungarian EFL teachers.

1.3.1. Design and Methodology

General

The school and the teaching methods

The school is a prestigious mainstream junior high and high school in a major city in Hungary. The pupils study from 8:00-14:00. The lessons are 45 minutes long and the pupils break for 15 minutes between lessons. EFL is taught 4 times a week in small groups (12-16 pupils). There are 3-6 levels in each grade. Some of the groups change rooms constantly.

The teachers use British publications (*Headway*, *Matrix*, *English File*, and *Smart*) as well as supplementary material. The British course books are used as core syllabi. The teaching mode is generally inductive. The students sit in rows.

Unlike the classes surveyed by Fekete et al. (1999) and Petneki (2003), only some of the classes were teacher-fronted, levels were perceived normal, the teaching materials were appropriate, and physical conditions were sufficient.

The Pupils

The pupils come from various elementary schools. They start to learn English in grades 1-4. All the pupils speak Hungarian as a mother tongue (there are no English speakers). The pupils take an entrance examination in English which includes: grammar exercises, (gap filling, dialogues, sentence transformation), writing a composition and an oral test (describing a picture and developing a dialogue). The level of the pupils can be defined as intermediate except one class, where English is the second foreign language (after German) and the pupils are beginners.

The Teachers

The teachers are young (20-35), hard working, qualified, and extremely polite. All the teachers have a master degree and a teaching diploma. All the teachers speak Hungarian as a mother tongue and fully master the English language. They were taught English as a second foreign language, (after German), mostly by traditional methods (drill and practice, translation, emphasis on grammar).

Methodology

4 teachers were observed for 4 lessons each (180 minutes) by 2 observers. Prior to observing the teachers, I was provided with relevant information regarding the pupils and the materials.

I recorded all talk in English and the second observer, a teaching assistant, recorded all talk in Hungarian. The data was translated to English immediately after the observation. Similarly to the observation which was carried out in Israel, I did not use a tape recorder, as I believe it is most intimidating and may alter participants' conduct.

The observation can be classified as *naturalistic*, in the sense that it was neither manipulated nor experimental. It was performed within the natural setting, the usual lesson and its participants' everyday lessons (McDonough & McDonough, 1997:114).

Although both teachers and students knew they were under observation, Hawthorne effect was minimized as they are used to being habitually observed. In a later conversation the teachers affirmed that the observation had not impacted the behavior of the pupils markedly.

The observation was *intentional*, in the sense that it was planned beforehand and *structured*. The data was collected and coded in a systematic way using an adaptation of the FIAC model, formerly used in the Israeli observation. Contrary to the Israeli observation, the data was not cut into sentences. As the Hungarian talk had to be translated into English prior to analyzing, cutting it into sentences would have been artificial. The unit of analysis was topical and defined by content (Krippendorff, 1980). Thus, in this analysis a unit is a word or more in

Hungarian relating to the same topic. The data was later treated inductively and subcategories were defined.

Both observers were non participants, that is to say, they did not take part in the lessons, but were present in the classroom and observed the participants "at a distance". It is worthwhile noting that both the teachers and the pupils did not know the researcher prior to observation.

To overcome data and phenomena that are not included in the systematic observation, teaching field notes and reflective memos have been added, including, among others, lesson plan descriptors such as: object of the lesson, procedure, sitting mode, or teaching mode.

1.3.2. Findings

General

The Hungarian EFL teachers refrained from using Hungarian. Pupils addressed them in Hungarian but the teachers tried to minimize it by way of: making the pupils repeat their phrases in English, answering the pupils in English or translating what the pupils said into English. On the whole, the teachers switched to Hungarian for two purposes: lecturing and directing.

Using Hungarian for lecturing was found more frequent than for directing. Translations from English to Hungarian were most common, especially while reading a text in the target language. Translating was used while checking HW and listening to an oral text in the target language. The teachers spoke Hungarian while lecturing and aiding the pupils to perform written assignments. Still within the framework of lecturing, using the mother tongue recurred when dealing with grammar:

1. In reference to HW
2. When lecturing about grammatical structures
3. On task.

Directing the lesson in Hungarian fell under two headings: questioning the pupils and giving instructions. The first type was slightly more repeated, mostly when referring to HW but also when performing task related activities. Giving instructions in Hungarian was abundant on task but less so off task.

The detailed findings are presented next.

Detailed Findings

Findings Per teacher

Teacher 1

Teacher 1 was very calm, nice and pleasant. She often smiled. She shared and cared. The pupils were given love, attention and respect. Teacher 1 was encouraging and supportive: "Try it. You can do it". She believes in practicing all skills but mainly communication. The result is that the pupils speak English fluently and the level of the class is relatively good.

All the lessons dealt with the topic of detectives. The teacher added supplementary material. Three lessons started with mini oral presentations by 2 pupils. The ambiance in the class was good. Although the room was tiny and crowded, the pupils cooperated and there was little conversation off task. All the pupils took an active part in the lessons. Teacher- pupil interaction was excellent and there was a lot of eye contact between the teacher and the pupils. The pupils answered her questions, followed directions, and initiated questions and comments.

The teacher communicated with the pupils mainly in English. Use of Hungarian was limited to translation of particular words, particularly in the situation of listening to an oral text and reading. Hungarian was rarely used for purposes of instructing and requesting information. All instructions were carried out in English. Each stage of the lesson was clarified a couple of times. Only one event of accepting feelings in Hungarian was recorded.

Feedback, encouragement and questioning were carried out entirely in English. I did not record any discipline problem. (Although the teacher assured me that misbehavior incidents were frequent at the beginning of the year). Salutation was performed in English. Teacher 1 wrote only in English on the board.

Teacher 2

Teacher 2 spoke perfect English (including accent). However, she used Hungarian time and again. She was a bit tensed. The pupils were edgy at

times and off task conversations were rather common. In fact, prior to entering the class, the teacher reported that the pupils were not motivated.

The lessons focused on: time expressions, sequence of events, and past tenses. The teacher used written and oral texts. Teaching modes were varied.

The interaction between the teacher and the pupils was limited to very few pupils. The rest of the pupils hardly answered the teacher's questions and did not initiate any questions or remarks whatsoever. Thus, the teacher received little oral feedback. When the teacher asked a question, she was greeted with poker-faced stares. However, when she moved closer, looked specifically at a pupil and repeated the question, the pupil tried to answer.

Teacher 2 used Hungarian primarily for directing. The questions referred to all types of activities (reading and listening comprehension, checking HW, and other). I observed a pattern: mi az (what does it mean) + a word / phrase in English. Giving instructions in Hungarian was common both on and off task, and also served to mark turning points and transitions from one task to another.

Hungarian was also employed for while she lectured, mainly in order to:

1. explain grammatical points while referring to HW and practicing grammar.
2. translate words while checking HW, listening to an oral text, or reading a written text.

Discipline problems were often taken care of in Hungarian. Individual pupils were sometimes questioned in Hungarian and there was only one event of using Hungarian for sharing feelings.

Time and again the teacher accepted and used pupils' ideas in Hungarian. For example, addressing a pupil in Hungarian: "It's good until this point but what comes after is an action that took place earlier. It's impossible. It is earlier. If you want to say it with the progressive, then there's something missing."

Comment: The lessons took place in either a huge classroom or a tiny one above a busy basketball court (which makes hearing quite hard).

Teacher 3

Teacher 3 was very calm and pleasant. The lessons flowed; all the while the pupils were given attention and respect. It is their second year of English and some of the pupils have difficulty in reading.

The classroom climate was good, the pupils worked together, and there was little conversation off task. All the pupils participated in the lessons. Both verbal and non verbal communication between the teacher and the pupils was recorded. The pupils were both reactive and proactive in their feedback: they asked questions, made comments and responded with nods, shakes of the head, and sounds of agreement (Snell, 1999).

All the lessons focused on the Past Simple tense by means of reading and listening comprehension tasks. The lessons included varied modes of interaction.

Teacher 3 used Hungarian mainly for lecturing. She code-switched to clarify words or phrases while reading or practicing grammar. Directing the pupils in Hungarian occurred both on and off task. There were only 2 events of questioning the pupils in Hungarian in reference to a reading task. We recorded one event of justifying authority and two events of questions directed at individual pupils.

Salutation was carried out in English and the teacher communicated with the pupils in English. Pupils often asked questions referring to the task at hand in Hungarian but the teacher answered in English. She never wrote in Hungarian on the blackboard.

Teacher 4

Teacher 4's class is heterogeneous and includes 3 levels of pupils: weak, mainstream and advanced.

All lessons practiced conditional mode. The teacher used written and oral texts. All the lessons were characterized by fluency. Teaching modes were varied, though often inductive.

The interaction between the teacher and the pupils was good: students answered the teacher's questions, followed instructions and initiated questions and comments. Few pupils did not take an active part in the

lessons. The teacher assured me after the lessons that this was her best class (relative to the other classes she teaches).

Teacher 4 communicated with the pupils in English. She hardly used Hungarian. For example, the pupils did not do their HW and although the teacher was upset, she did not revert to Hungarian but reproached them in English.

Instructions were carried out in English. We recorded only one event of using Hungarian to direct the pupils to the task at hand (listening comprehension). All the other functions were carried out in English. The salutation was in English. A pattern for elucidating meaning was observed: the teacher asked (in English) what the meaning of a certain word was and the pupils answered in Hungarian. Teacher 4 wrote in English on the blackboard.

Pupils asked questions on task in Hungarian but the teacher answered in English. She sometimes made them formulate their questions in English. When she was asked to translate a word to Hungarian she gave a synonym or had a pupil do it.

Teacher 4 used Hungarian for translation while reading a text and lecturing. I recorded only two events of grammatical explanations and referring to HW in Hungarian.

Comment: The lessons took place in a huge classroom, above a busy street, which made hearing quite hard.

Findings Concerning all the Teachers

The Hungarian EFL teachers used the pupils' MT for:

1. Lecturing

The teachers translated words and sometimes sentences when they were requested to do so by the pupils or when eliciting meaning. Also included in this function were explanations of grammatical points and factual information aimed at checking for comprehension.

The units of translation were words or phrases, seldom entire sentences. For example:

- While answering questions after a listening comprehension activity, the teacher translated a certain postage stamp into Hungarian after she explained it in English.
- While doing a matching exercise, the teacher translated the word 'churned' and added: **"We don't use this word separately. The author created an expression."**
- While reading a text the teacher translated "Ham & Cheese sandwich" and explained that both words are pronounced together.
- While writing a speech and using conditional, a pupil asked what the meaning of a certain word was. The teacher replied in Hungarian: **"It depends what you want to say."**

Grammatical explanations were carried out in Hungarian when the teachers wished to compare the TL to the MT or to clarify a grammatical structure that is unique to English. For instance:

- While filling in a cloze activity, the teacher said in Hungarian: **"try to remember that the <Hungarian pronoun> is 'her'."**
- While checking HW: **"After 'as' you can have both short and long actions. If it's a short action it's "Past Simple" which you can use."**
- While doing an exercise on modals in the Past Simple, the teacher explained: **"Can' means ability in the present; 'Could' means ability in the past."**
- While correcting an exercise the teacher clarified the use of Conditional.

2. Directing

The teachers code-switched while interrogating the entire class, apparently willing to check for comprehension, manage the class, give homework or class work, and set up work mode:

- While reading about feminism, the teacher asked the entire class: **"What is feminism? Explain it in Hungarian."**
- At the beginning of the lesson, dealing with seating arrangements: **"3 of you should sit at a desk."**

- The pupils did not understand instructions (although repeated three times by the teacher) so the teacher explained in Hungarian: "The verbs I say are not on the list, so you have to add them to the list. Oh! 'Have' is on the list. The other verbs are included. You have to write the new forms in the 1st column."
- After listening to an oral text the teacher asked: "How do you say 10% less?"

While two teachers limited the use of Hungarian for the functions mentioned earlier, their colleagues used it also for the purposes of justifying authority, developing pupils' ideas, accepting pupils' feelings, asking questions directed at an individual pupil, and encouraging pupils. Relevant examples follow.

Criticizing and justifying authority

- While checking HW, the teacher addressed 2 pupils: "Stop talking. But why isn't your book open? That's not where we are."
- Having informed the pupils that they had to check their homework and having asked them twice "Do you agree?" the teacher asked in Hungarian: "Do you agree?" Accompanied by a reprimanding look and tone.

Accepting and developing pupils' ideas

- While checking a worksheet reviewing tenses: "Wow, this is good." (The teacher laughed). But I think it should be (a word in English). "You cannot use 'while' here."
- The teacher referred to a list of irregular verbs (reacting to a pupil who said that some verbs were not on the list): "Yes, there are verbs that aren't on the list. If 'hear' had an 'ed' it wouldn't be on the list, but it is 'heard' and that's why it's an irregular verb. The pronunciation of 'hear' is also changed when we say 'heard'."

Accepting feelings of pupils

- The teacher referred to the results of a dictation: "I can't believe it. We don't know the grades of 5 pupils. They want to keep their grades to themselves. So we have 3 winners. Fortunately I have enough prizes."
- A pupil cried because he failed a test, the teacher comforted: "Don't cry, if you practice now you will be able to do this work and correct this mark. There's nothing wrong. You shouldn't be discouraged."

Asking questions directed at an individual pupil

- While teaching how to expand a sentence: "Which type of expansion is this?"
- While checking HW: "Which question did you read?"

Praising and encouraging pupils

- The teacher told a student who handed her his worksheet: "It's good that you found it."
- While checking an exercise a pupil complained: "I didn't know, I couldn't hear, I can't pronounce it in English". The teacher encouraged: "Yes you can."

Detailed Findings

Since all the teachers used their mother tongue for lecturing and directing, a detailed analysis was performed accordingly. The data was treated inductively and subcategories were created by looking for consistency, regularity, repetitions, contradiction, and comparison (Sabar, 1999:91). This stage of the analysis gave rise to two clear segmentations within each function and a total of 14 subcategories.

Using Hungarian for lecturing can be segmented as follows:

I. Translation:

- ✓ While writing (a mini text, answering an open question)
- ✓ Listening comprehension
- ✓ Oral lecturing
- ✓ While reading (referring to a text)
- ✓ Checking HW

II. Grammar:

- ✓ While practicing (on task)
- ✓ Lecturing (explaining a grammatical point)
- ✓ Checking HW

The table below demonstrates this segmentation.

<u>LECTURING</u>	<u>EXAMPLES</u>
TRANSLATION	(teacher talk in Hungarian appears in comic font)
Checking HW	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher translates 'I didn't stay in this job'. ▪ "Don't begin a sentence with 'since'."
While writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher translates following words: 'bow', 'arrow', 'shipwrecked'. ▪ Teacher translates an idiom to Hungarian.
Listening comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher translates 'pillars' while a pupil performs an oral presentation.
While reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher translates the word 'appearance'.
Oral lecturing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "The word <historia> comes from Latin." ▪ "Abiography' is a text about someone's life."
GRAMMAR	
Lecturing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher clarifies 'somebody' vs. 'anybody'. ▪ "Try to remember that <Hungarian pronoun> is 'her'."
On task practicing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "If you say that you are going to school it means that you go there and you may stop there but it doesn't mean that you enter school." (While exercising semi modals) ▪ "Past Perfect is more pragmatic, it is clearer that way. I think it's a long action."
Referring to HW	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "This is the rule. If you have 'before' and 'after' you can use both tenses." ▪ "We can't begin a sentence with 'since'."

Table 4: Hungarian teachers' talk in Hungarian for lecturing purposes

Directing the lesson can be divided into:

I. Directing (giving instructions):

- ✓ On task
- ✓ Off task

II. Questions:

- ✓ On task:
 1. Referring to listening comprehension
 1. Referring to a text
 2. Other
- ✓ Checking HW

Table 5 illustrates this segmentation.

<u>DIRECTING</u>	<u>EXAMPLES</u>
DIRECTING (giving instructions)	
On task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "Answers in English." ▪ Referring to time expressions: "I want words which you can begin a sentence with."
Off task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "If you think you might lose your worksheet please give it to me." ▪ "Move away from your partner."
QUESTIONS (eliciting information)	
On task - Referring to a written text	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "What does 'it depends' mean?" ▪ "How do we say 'together'?"
On task - Referring to an oral text (listening comprehension)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "How do we say 'deed' in everyday language?" ▪ "What does 'veil' mean? We have already seen this word."
On task - other	Instructing a pupil who does not know what to do: "Translate this sentence".
Referring to HW	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "Did anybody understand the text? Did anybody read and understand the text? Is anything unclear?" ▪ "If it's an adverb which consists of 1 word, where should we put it?"

Table 5: Hungarian teachers' talk in Hungarian for directing purposes

1.3.3. Discussion

The findings of the observation endorsed my assumption: although the teachers tried to make the most of the TL (English), Hungarian was spoken at times. In this sense, the findings fell in with the results of Fekete et al.'s study (1999), where Hungarian was mainly used to explain grammar and vocabulary, and to direct the pupils, as well as with the results of other studies mentioned above (Macaro, 1997; Rolin-Ianziti, 2002; Polio and Duff, 1994).

In Fekete's research, almost a third of the teachers' input was in Hungarian. In our case, it was mostly in English, with the exception of one teacher. This might be explained due to a salient gap between the material and the level of the pupils. Seemingly, the textbook was much too difficult, causing the teacher to bridge the gaps and "level the playing field" (Critchely, 2004).

I recorded only one episode where Hungarian was spoken to show empathy. Likewise, the MT was rarely practiced as a result of being short of time (Polio and Duff, 1994; Critchely, 2004). The central role of the pupils' MT was to clarify new words and compare the MT to the TL (Rolin-Ianziti, 2002; Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989).

On the whole, Hungarian was not employed to encourage learners' cooperation among learners (Atkinson in Oliveira, 2002) or to demonstrate respect to the learners' native language and culture (Schweers, 1999; Macaro, 1997).

Surprisingly, the questions that ended the discussion of the Israeli observation are brought back into play in the Hungarian framework:

- Has using the MT during an EFL lesson become a common classroom practice? If yes, how do the teachers feel about it?
- Is using the pupils' MT a spontaneous activity or a result of decision-making procedure? (such as in the case of explaining grammar or translating vocabulary)
- Is the use of the pupils' MT rooted in the teachers' history and how they were taught?

These topics would be dealt in the group interview with the Hungarian teachers in the next chapter.

1.4. Summary

This chapter illustrated the nature of the observations carried out in Israel and Hungary. Each classroom exhibited its own language use, norms, and interaction (Tsui, 2004). Each teacher demonstrated her particular way of addressing her public and conveying messages.

The quality of linguistic input that students were exposed to differed among the classes but can be largely described as a context for semi – authentic language use (Baily, 2004).

Exclusive use of English was not recorded in either setting. However, except for one class, the target language, (English, in both cases) was definitely the dominant language in the classroom, and the teachers tried to restrain the learners' use of the L1 (Macaro, 1997) by encouraging TL practice.

The findings show that the teachers in both frameworks used the students' mother tongue chiefly for lecturing and directing. While some teachers code-switched from one language to another within a sentence, others did it at sentence boundaries.

Major issues regarding this practice are derived. Hopefully, the interviews detailed in the next chapter would yield complementary data.

Upon ending this chapter, I find it logical to delve into an interesting finding. A phenomenon of **excessive teacher talk** in both the MT and English has been observed in two classrooms¹. This phenomenon is characterized by lengthy commentary on students' errors, extended explanations on usage and vocabulary, and various teacher-initiated exchanges yielding only short responses from students, often in chorus (Deckert, 2004). Without a doubt, excessive talk is unnecessary and may affect the flow of the instruction as the lesson tends to lose its momentum and results in the need for a more structured plan (Richards and Lockhart, 1996: 114).

Unlike findings from Brunei, where excessive teacher talk in the form of closed or display questions was found the most dominant feature of

classroom interaction (Ho, 2005:299), both teachers talked excessively in different forms and for different purposes.

Table 6 lists factors which may account for excessive teacher talk.

<p>1. <i>Complicated educational materials.</i> Both teachers seemingly used complex materials and vague tasks. However, as Warren-Price points out in his action research, <i>investigating the amount of teacher talk in my classroom</i> (2003), "simpler class materials requiring fewer instructions, married to a clear lesson structure" could reduce teacher talk and allow for more students-on-task time. Using Krashen's terminology (1988), I observed numerous situations in both classes where the students were not exposed to comprehensible input and consequently could not furnish the desired output (Pica, 1988; Swain, 1995; Long, 1996). Complicated educational materials are a symptom of problematic teacher language awareness. A teacher must be able to assess the linguistic knowledge and needs of his pupils. This awareness enables the teacher to estimate future reception of the methodological and pedagogical materials and tailor the lessons appropriately (Andrews, 2003:85-86).</p> <p>2. <i>Negotiating for meaning.</i> In an attempt to convey lesson-related messages to the pupils, both teachers elaborated during a considerable time of their lessons. Gass and others refer to the notion of negotiating for meaning in learning a foreign language. According to the interaction hypothesis (in Doughty & Long 2003:234), interactional adjustments by a more competent interlocutor aid the formation of meaning by creating an optimal comprehensible input. However, in the case of both teachers, the input (text, language structure) was partly incomprehensible. Consequently, the modifications were ineffective and hardly drew response from the students.</p> <p>3. <i>Teacher-centered instruction and retain of old habits.</i> Teacher's excessive talk is a characteristic of teacher-centered instruction. Karavas-Doukas (in Deckert, 2004) studied 101 local secondary school teachers of English in Greece, and found that even when using textbooks designed for communicative activities, teachers tended to revert to traditional teacher-centered routines and retain old habits such as superfluous talking time.</p> <p>4. <i>Beliefs.</i> Deckert states that teachers who tend to talk disproportionately possibly believe their role is to demonstrate correct language use (overuse) and see it as a sign of control and know-how (2004). Taking this line, despite their acknowledgements about the value of communication in a foreign language and the importance of promoting authentic communication among students, some teachers may still opt for traditional methods in real time because they believe that their own extended talk is a must.</p> <p>5. <i>Rate of speech.</i> Some teachers fail to attune to the learners' current stage of English proficiency by speaking too fast and thus not according with learners' speech rate in the target language. As a result, redundant talk in either the MT or the foreign language is triggered.</p>
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Table 6: Factors which may account for excessive teacher talk

Chapter 2: Interviews

2.1. Introduction

So what makes EFL teachers use their pupils' MT? Is it simply comfort or a desire to build solidarity with the pupils? Has using the MT become a common classroom practice? If yes, how do the teachers feel about it? Is using the pupils' MT a spontaneous activity or a result of a decision-making procedure? And finally, is this practice rooted in the teachers' history (as pupils) or their being language learners?

Having observed the teachers both in Israel and Hungary, I chose to complement the findings by using qualitative research interviews in an effort to access data which cannot be observed, such as: opinions, beliefs and views regarding my research topic.

The interviews detailed in this chapter may help solve some of the queries. The Israeli interviews open this chapter and are followed by the interviews carried out in Hungary.

2.2. Methodological Basis

Qualitative research interviews are defined by Kvale (1996) as "attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples' experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations." The interviews detailed below were most suitable for the research at hand for the following reasons:

- ✓ The data was completed based on what the respondent said rather than a systematic pre determined pattern.
- ✓ Interviews are a far more personal form of research than questionnaires on the one hand and observations on the other hand.
- ✓ I could work directly with the respondent and probe or ask follow up questions.
- ✓ Interviews are generally easier for respondent, especially if what is sought are opinions or impressions.

The structure, data analysis procedure, findings and discussion of the interviews in Israel and Hungary are next reported separately.

2.3. Israel

2.3.1. Structure and Data Analysis Procedure

5 interviews were conducted with the teachers who participated in the observation and a teacher who did not participate but shares similar background with the others. Each interview started with demographic background questions regarding the interviewees' mother tongue and teaching experience. Table 1 presents the demographic background of the interviewees.

Name	Age	Mother Tongue	School Type	Teaching Experience
Teacher A	40	Non Hebrew	Conservative	8
Teacher B	37	Non Hebrew	Conservative + Religious	15
Teacher C	27	Hebrew	Conservative	11
Teacher D	45	Hebrew	Conservative + Religious	5
Teacher F	30	Hebrew	Conservative	4

Table 1: Demographic background of the interviewees

The interviews were semi-conducted as I opted for a "structured overall framework which allows for greater flexibility"(McDonough & McDonough, 1997:183).

An interview schedule was prepared in advance and included the following questions:

- *Do you use Hebrew when you teach English?*
- *How? (Concerning: grammar, discipline, feedback, class management, work instructions)*
- *How frequently?*
- *Is use of Hebrew effective?*
- *Do your pupils like it?*
- *Does this practice figure on your lesson plan?*
- *How did you learn English? Did your teacher use your MT?*

The interviews took place after class hours and lasted about 20 minutes. 4 interviews were carried out in Hebrew; the fifth was carried out in English. The interviewees knew that they were taking part in an interview; they knew its purpose and duration.

Since I strongly agree with Wallace, in that note taking during the interview makes the interviewees feel very ill-at-ease (2001:148), the data was written up in short during the interview and elaborated afterwards so as not to disturb the natural flow of the conversation.

The teachers' replies were analyzed and categorized in a qualitative method by searching for themes and looking for patterns which were consistent with all the information revealed in the interview (McDonough & McDonough, 1997:186-187).

Before heading to the findings, I have to note that the teachers were enthusiastic and collaborative; they shared their feelings and thoughts.

2.3.2. Findings

The data was distilled into the subsequent notable findings.

The teachers did not attribute using the MT to the pupils' desire or reaction. In contrast, they believed that the pupils expect them to speak English as it is interesting for them and authentic.

Teacher D exclaimed:

I don't think the pupils want us to speak Hebrew. On the contrary, if we speak English, they feel they are respected, it is more professional.

The other teachers identified with this view, as Teacher F put it:

I don't use Hebrew to make the students happy...They like it when I speak English. That's what they are there for...You have to see their faces when they try to understand what I say – they are eager and excited because of the challenge.

The teachers maintained that they try to maximize the use of English. They are extremely aware of its importance and do it explicitly. After all, this is their *raison d'être*.

Teacher A said:

I speak English. In the intermediate grades I use only English.

Teacher C asserted:

We should stick to English and use it although there are limitations.

Teacher B explained and recalled:

It's important to maintain the use of English. But it's impossible to speak English only. It's possible to speak English and directly translate it to Hebrew. That's what I do all the time, including today. I do make an effort to speak English, especially if things keep on repeating and reappearing. The students will get it slowly but surely.

Two teachers attested to having reflected upon using Hebrew as an ingredient of their lesson plan.

Teacher F elaborated:

Using Hebrew depends on the class you teach. In the lower level classes it is simply a must. You cannot do without it. I guess you use it 80% of the lesson, while in good classes (mainstream) it's the other way – 80% English and about 20% Hebrew.

Teacher D joined and added the native speaker angle:

From what I see, I think more than 20% of every lesson, and no matter what level the class is at, is carried out in English. When the teacher is a native speaker she tends to use English more often – it's natural for her.

Code-switching emanated as a function of the level of the class. Weak students, beginners, or non-readers are usually the trigger.

As Teacher F said:

Using Hebrew depends on the class you teach. In the lower level classes it is simply a must. You cannot do without it. I guess you use it 80% of the lesson.

Teacher A reported that she switches to Hebrew to sum up material:

I use Hebrew in the lower grades especially if I want to sum up material: a grammatical point, a topical unit, whatever...

Teacher B agreed:

New material or directions and instructions have to be in Hebrew; otherwise they [the pupils] don't know what to do. Of course, it all depends on the level of the class.

Teacher D stressed:

I use Hebrew, especially if there are non-readers in the class.

Two teachers linked the use of Hebrew with grammar instruction. They did not think it contradictory and considered it a natural strategy.

Teacher D said nonchalantly:

When I teach grammar I do it in Hebrew.

Teacher C reported:

I speak English but I use Hebrew for corrections. To correct grammar and phrasing.

However, Teacher F objected:

I always teach grammar in English. They are used to it.

The teachers were unanimous when the issue of dealing with discipline emerged. They highly supported the practice of the pupils' MT for criticizing or justifying authority.

Teacher B described an incidence of a disruptive student during the class she gave before the interview and added:

It's not feasible to solve discipline problems in English. It simply doesn't work.

Teacher C stipulated:

Behavior problems cannot be solved in English.

Teacher A explained:

Discipline – in Hebrew, they must understand it.

Teacher F added a personal angle:

Discipline problems are dealt with in Hebrew. When I am angry, I am angry in Hebrew and not in any other language. To deal with discipline problems in English sounds artificial to me. It's unreal.

Unlike the consensus regarding the role of the pupils' MT in matters of discipline, differences were observed in the teachers' comments regarding feedback and encouragement.

Teacher D:

I give feedback in both languages.

Teacher F:

I always give feedback in English. Even to the weak pupils. Everybody understands compliments – even when they are in English.

Teacher A reflected upon her last class:

It's possible to give feedback in English. In the lower grades it should be done in Hebrew. The pupils were so happy today, when I complimented them on completion of the exercise.

Discrepancies were noted with regard to directing the students and providing them with procedural instructions.

Teacher F was determined:

Class management and work instructions are mainly in English. They are used to it. It is a routine.

Teacher D elaborated on this point:

I give instructions in English. It's important that the pupils understand simple instruction in English. After all, they are usually the same: open your books, copy from the blackboard...

Teachers A and B expressed more hesitation than their colleagues and mentioned again the issue of class level in this regard:

Directions and instructions have to be in Hebrew; otherwise they [the pupils] don't know what to do... it all depends on the level of the class. Sometimes I give instructions in Hebrew.

The teachers juxtaposed understanding and MT practice.

Teacher D explained:

I give several variations in English but if they still don't get it, I turn to Hebrew. Hebrew is not my default. Sometimes I use Hebrew because I don't want to "lose" the pupils. I want to avoid misunderstandings.

Teacher C conditioned:

You may translate into Hebrew, if you see that the pupils don't understand.

Teacher A affirmed:

I use Hebrew when I feel that the pupils don't understand.

Two teachers acknowledged the relative advantage of employing Hebrew for the sake of time saving.

Teacher D confessed:

Using Hebrew certainly saves time...if you say it in English and they do not understand and then you give 2-3 sentences to clarify it takes time. When you say something in Hebrew, you have to say it only once and it is enough.

And teacher F approved:

Of course using Hebrew is more effective. You have only 45 minutes: 5 minutes to seat the pupils, 5 minutes to take attendance, 15 minutes to explain what we are about to do...

Two interviewees linked code-switching to vocabulary instruction. Here is what they said:

Teacher F:

I use Hebrew mainly to explain words. First, I let somebody explain it using a synonym but eventually, and it doesn't matter what I do, especially if they don't understand, I translate the word to Hebrew.

Teacher B advised using flashcards (that she used in the lesson she gave prior to the interview):

Speaking English is easily done if you have flashcards, like in the beginner classes, vocabulary cards. It's a pity you cannot use them in the higher grades.

Using Hebrew was seen to emanate from the teacher's personal traits (although the teachers were quite vague about it and did not go into much detail).

Teacher D reflected upon her last lesson and said:

There might be a correlation between the teacher's mental state and the use of Hebrew.

Teacher F talked about legitimacy and authenticity:

Using Hebrew is legitimate. Of course not to overdo it but still that's our language...there are times when using English is totally unnatural I try to speak English but sometimes it comes out automatically in Hebrew...

2.3.3. Discussion

The teachers gave the impression that they regard the classroom as the principal learning context for their pupils and consequently try to extend the use of the TL. Nonetheless, their assumptions about the legitimate place of the students' MT surfaced throughout the interviews. Two teachers stressed that they regard code-switching as a totally natural phenomenon among teachers and pupils who share two languages (Cook, 2001).

The teachers' comments corroborated Burden's statement: "students want the teacher to use the target language exclusively when it is being used in communication, but expect the teacher to have knowledge of, and an ability to use the MT when it is appropriate to explain the usage of English" (2000b:147).

The participants reached an agreement on the following matters:

1. Use of Hebrew is associated with class level and is increased in the presence of weak students, beginners, or non-readers.
2. The pupils' MT is effective when dealing with discipline problems.
3. Code-switching may help pupils comprehend. Taking this line, the teachers may assume that feelings of anxiety, anger or contentment affect the learning process and prevent the learners from applying the metacognitive and cognitive strategies needed to deal effectively with the task at hand. Alternatively, the teachers may perceive the learner as asked to operate in a state of almost total linguistic dependence on the teacher (Macaro, 1997), and hence use code-switching in an effort to decrease learner's dependence.

As a result, the participants appear to adopt what Felder and Brent termed a 'balanced approach' which "attempts to accommodate the diverse needs of the students in a class at least some of the time" (2005:57).

Partial results were obtained as to:

1. Planning ahead the use of Hebrew
2. Code-switching during grammar instruction.
3. Giving instructions in Hebrew
4. Using the pupils' MT is more effective
5. Code-switching as deriving from the teacher's personal traits

Finally, contrary to my assumption, the issue of native speaker teachers surfaced only once during the interviews. I will next describe the interviews carried out in Hungary.

2.4. Hungary

2.4.1. Structure and Data Analysis Procedure

The discussion focused on the specific topic of using the MT in EFL lessons. The aim was to encourage a range of responses which provide a greater understanding of the attitudes, behavior, and perceptions of the participants on the research issue (Hennik, 2007).

The group consisted of three teachers I observed and a teacher whom I did not observe. All the teachers are non-native speakers of English (their mother tongue is Hungarian). They are in their 20's and 30's. They are University graduates and hold a master degree. They have been teaching from one to over ten years at various school levels.

The interview was carried out in English in the English teachers' room during staff hour. It took place on the last day of the observation. The timing was good as I became acquainted with the teachers and I was able to raise issues which resulted from the observation. The teachers were extremely welcoming and open. The discussion lasted about 30 minutes and was held in a very friendly atmosphere.

Recording the data was carried out in real time by the researcher. The data was later analyzed and categorized according to the lead-in questions. Overlapping and irrelevant statements were discarded.

The interview proceeded according to the following lead-in questions:

- *In the course of an English lesson when do you use Hungarian?*
- *Do the pupils speak Hungarian?*
- *What about discipline?*
- *How do you give feedback?*
- *Do you teach in the same manner you were taught?*
- *How do you teach English grammar to speakers of Hungarian?*
- *Where did you learn English?*
- *How do you deal with non-readers? In Hungarian?*

2.4.2. Findings

The content of the interview resulted in a number of explicit statements concerning the teachers' views about using their students' MT.

Use of Hungarian

The teachers admitted that they use Hungarian to translate words and make the pupils "feel safer". They found it interesting that in grades 7 and 8, pupils like to guess the word based on the context or a synonym in English. However, when they are in the upper classes, (grades 9-12), they want to get the exact Hungarian translation. One teacher reported that when she teaches grammar she first explains the rules in Hungarian, to make sure the pupils understand, and then she repeats them in English. The interviewees emphasized that Hungarian may be used orally, but it is never written on the blackboard. Class management is usually carried out in English.

The pupils speak Hungarian

The teachers legitimized using Hungarian on task. Here is what they said: "When the kids are on task they tend to speak Hungarian and it is very logical. The teachers pass next to them and make sure they do it in English." Thus, the teachers perceive role modeling the TL as one of their responsibilities.

Discipline

The interviewees assured me that there are minor discipline problems in all the groups. The pupils are sometimes chatty, or noisy. More complicated matters are found in the lower classes and high school age pupils. All discipline issues are dealt with in English. Problematic cases are dealt with individually and may entail the use of Hungarian.

Feedback

According to the interviewees, feedback is given in English, whether it is oral or written. I cite: "The pupils are used to it and they surely know all the vocabulary ... They can tell compliments from scolds and right from wrong". One teacher holds a yearly individual assessment conversation in Hungarian. She believes it is more effective.

Teaching EFL: past versus present

The teachers described their own language learners' experiences as totally different from those of their pupils. They reminisced and spoke about traditional methods, exhausting practice and a limited access to communication in the TL: "For us it was mainly grammar – drill and practice. We hardly spoke the language". The teachers emphasized that they teach all the skills as they believe in a functional approach to language learning and the teaching mode is generally inductive: "We try to integrate all 4 skills. We try to make it as practical as we can." One teacher talked about motivating the learners: "It's important to create interesting lessons that are also fun for the students." Another teacher reported a major emphasis on communication skills.

Teaching grammar

Grammar is generally taught in the TL, but clarification and comparisons of the TL to the MT are carried out in Hungarian when needed (as one teacher demonstrated in the lessons observed prior to the interview). The participants added that the English tenses and the Passive Mode are extremely challenging. As the Passive Mode does not exist in Hungarian, the pupils tend to either overdo or ignore it. The result is that Passive is taught year after year but with hardly any success. The same applies as

far as the tenses are concerned. Due to the fact that there are only 3 tenses in Hungarian, it is hard to learn the Perfect and Progressive tenses in English.

English background

All the teachers learned English as a second foreign language (after German) at school and later at university. They have been exposed to English during short visits to the US and the UK. Only one teacher spent a year in an English speaking country.

Non readers

The teachers affirmed that non readers and pupils with learning disabilities are normally put in the lower level groups. They added that it is harder to teach these groups. Two teachers confessed: "All the groups you [the researcher] have observed are relatively easy compared to these groups." The teachers claimed that they have to cater their pedagogies accordingly and code-switch frequently, especially if the pupils are weak and use of Hungarian may promote their learning process.

2.4.3. Discussion

Based on the statements made by the interviewees, we can discern the factors according to which they channel their language choice.

On the whole, the teachers declared that they try to ensure that the students acquire a functional knowledge of English, contributing in turn to their personal development. In doing so, they adopt the National Core Curriculum (NAT) and the Framework Curriculum of language teaching,

The teachers added that their functional approach to teaching derives from seeing English as a global basic skill. They make an effort to instruct accordingly, by maximizing the pupils' exposure to the TL and limiting teacher talking time in the MT (as recommended by MacDonald, 1993; Turnbull, 2001).

Despite being a product of a curriculum-focused strict approach, the interviewees verbalized what was observed as a learner-focused and open method to teaching. The teachers adopt an all skills approach to language teaching and are aware of the role of motivation in language learning.

They do their best to create interesting and practical lessons and set up an ambiance which is both positive and yet stimulating (as recommended by Clearfield, 2006).

The Hungarian teachers reported that they code-switch in order to:

1. Deal with weak learners and non-readers
2. Make the pupils "feel safer" (usually in the lower grades)
3. Compare between the TL and the MT while teaching grammar

The interviewees reported that they deal with behavior problems and give feedback solely in English. They also try to manage the class in English which shows that they are aware of "how classroom management in the target language contributes to students' language learning" (Fekete et al., 1999:23-25).

Interestingly, the issue of native speaker teachers did not emerge during the interviews.

2.5. Summary

The research data obtained from the Hungarian and Israeli interviewees allows for a better and more personal understanding of the significant factors related to using the students' MT in the EFL classroom¹.

All the teachers, whether Hungarian or Israeli, assured me that they are aware of the importance of using the target language and do their best to maximize its use. Similarly to the researchers, the teachers mentioned a direct link between their use of English and the performance of their pupils (Burstall et al., 1974; Carroll, 1975). They added that employing the pupils' MT is, by no means, a matter of comfort but a necessity, particularly in the lower grades and with weak pupils.

The Israeli teachers accorded the MT a major facilitative role in comprehending lesson content, and avoiding de-motivation and misunderstanding on the part of the learner. The Hungarian teachers also agreed that using the MT makes lower graders feel at ease.

¹ One should remember that the teachers were aware of the impact of their sayings, and therefore, while some presented their perceptions openly, others might have been reserved in giving their opinions.

All the participants mentioned using the MT while instructing grammar, principally to compare between the TL and the MT.

Unlike the Israeli teachers, the Hungarian teachers reported that they deal with behavior problems, give feedback, and manage the class solely in the TL.

The teachers in both contexts did not relate the use of the pupils' MT to a desire to build solidarity and bond with the pupils, as mentioned by other studies (Schweers, 1999).

Except for two Israeli teachers who reported that they allocate time in their lesson plan to the mother tongue, it is still vague whether using the pupils' MT is a spontaneous activity or a result of a decision-making procedure and if it is explicitly or implicitly planned (the latter being recommended by Castellotti and Moore, 1997 see Part A). The same goes for relating the use of the MT to the teacher's personality.

The findings are similar in that both types of teachers exemplify Tomlinson's view by teaching "in ways that suit their beliefs and personality while being sensitive to the needs and wants of their learners and to the prevailing norms of the cultures in which they are teaching" (2005). Being NNS themselves and having had the experience of being language learners, guides and influences the participants' pedagogies (Widdowson, 1992; Seidlhofer, 1999; Lee, 2000, Smith et al. 2007).

All in all, the teachers' testimonies confirm that they conceive L2 learning as a conscious experience (Pica in Hinkel, 2005:247) both from their point of view as language learners and from their pupils' perspective. As a result, they construct and tailor their instruction to be as effective as possible by teaching cognitive strategies and enabling pupils to be involved and actively engaged in the learning process (Steiner 2001:18).

The next section will discuss the results obtained in the second phase of this research, having conducted observations and interviews.

DISCUSSION OF PHASE B

This section focused on the findings in Israel and in Hungary as a whole, rather than regarding it as two separate entities. Although the contexts differ, we are still dealing here with the instruction of EFL at school by non-native English-speaking teachers to non-native English speaker pupils.

The results of the interviews largely substantiated those obtained from the observations. The current discussion describes the central features which emerged from the findings: major uses of the pupils' MT, drawing on MT and class interaction, and student-centered contexts versus teacher-dominant situations.

Major uses of the pupils' mother tongue

Although all the participants are aware of the importance of using the target language, there are times when the MT is employed. A systematic relationship between the teachers' language choices and particular pedagogic functions was obtained. The findings of the observations and the interviews show that Hebrew and Hungarian have been used for *lecturing* and *directing* and principally served for *explanation*, *translation*, and *guidance*.

Explanation was found to have a vital role in EFL lessons. I adopt Canagarajah's and Suresh's definition, in which 'explanation' refers to different strategies, namely, repetition, reformulation, clarification and exemplification (1995:186). Explanation can occur during any of the different stages of a lesson: while reading, writing, speaking, listening, and practicing. In the current research, translation became apparent as a leading strategy of explanation.

Translation constitutes an inevitable ingredient of teaching a foreign language. As Yletyinen (2004) describes, "When a class is going through a new chapter, there are usually new words and expressions in English that the teacher wants the pupils to understand" (p.75). However, the usage of translation differentiates teachers. Transitions from the TL to the MT were visibly frequent in the elementary classes, where both Israeli and Hungarian teachers made use of their mother tongue to translate (explain) every day words. Resorting to translation became rarer in secondary and upper classes. These findings are consistent with Husain's research, which suggested that using translation had highly positive effects on the low and intermediate proficiency learners, but did not

benefit higher level students (cited by Liao, 2006:206). All in all, translation was carried out while writing, lecturing, reading, listening, and practicing grammar, especially if the learners were weak.

Although foreign language educators may have disregarded the role of translation in language teaching, translation is still widely used by language learners to comprehend, remember, and produce a foreign language. (Liao, 2006:192). 40 years ago, Naiman et al. found that translation was one of the strategies often used by Good Language Learners (GLL). They argued that GLL "refer back to their native language(s) and make effective cross-lingual comparisons at different stages of language learning"(p. 14).

Both Israeli and Hungarian teachers employed the MT when the pupils failed to comprehend and follow instructions mostly on task and in reference to written or oral information. Like other studies, I assumed what Todd labels "a non-interactional stance" and examined the language and perspective of the teacher, who is only one of the participants (2008:45). In spite of this, I still believe that directions and instructions are interactional forms of discourse since students' understanding of and reactions to instructions are their *raison d'être*.

The pattern what is + a word in English was identified, notably while checking for understanding. It recurred in Hebrew as follows: Ma + ze + x (e.g. "Ma ze 'lamp)'), and in Hungarian: Mi az + x (e.g. 'Mi az 'it depends)'). Gabrielatos (2001b) argues that this type of question is aimed at eliciting language and together with 'what does it mean' allows the teacher to check understanding. Needless to say, the pattern what is + x is an integral part of learning and instructing languages, whether in the primary stages of language acquisition, when a toddler attempts to communicate or while instructing both the mother and other tongues. The pattern what is + a word in English has been frequently employed, thus reflecting the fact that both types of teachers harnessed it to promote understanding.

Intriguingly, only the Israeli teachers brought their MT into play to deal with conduct-related issues. In fact, this was the third use of Hebrew. Some teachers admitted that they resorted to the MT instinctively when dealing with bad conduct. This procedure may be rationalized by citing Yletyinen: "Switching to the mother tongue may serve as an indicator for the pupils that they have done something wrong...it gives more emphasis to the teacher's words" (2004:90).

It was fascinating to note, that the teachers in both contexts did not think of reverting to the pupils' MT as a socio-pedagogic tool apt to build solidarity and bond with the pupils. However, they insisted on its motivational power. The Israeli teachers accorded the MT a facilitative role in comprehension, and avoiding de-motivation and misunderstanding on the part of the learner. The Hungarian teachers also considered that using the MT makes weak pupils "feel safe".

Drawing on MT and class interaction

According to Bigot & Cicurel (2005:2), recent theories in the field of discourse analysis regard class interaction as a planned phenomenon which is met by either cooperation or resistance². The teacher begins a lesson with definite and pre-determined goals of which the didactic interaction is an ingredient. Interaction is conditioned by knowledge, and results in the emergence of didactic activities which are more or less formalized.

Bigot & Cicurel relate class interaction to action theories and what they call *l'agir humain* [the human act] (2005:3). The teacher-actor "acts" according to rational, intentions, and motives of action which are carried out in social situations by means of language. Doing so, the teacher utilizes his communicative flexibility by adapting his strategies to his audience and the signs which it emits (Gumperz in Bigot & Cicurel, 2005).

Based on this view and supported by the data collected in this phase of the research, it is hard to say whether code-switching is planned or a simple consequence of various obstacles which a teacher faces while instructing a foreign language.

Student-centered contexts versus teacher-dominant situations

Although the teachers under observation differentiate in their origin, personality, age and teaching style, they tended to apply the students' MT in teacher-dominant situations, rather than in student-centered contexts. Lecturing, directing and enforcing discipline are described as 'direct influence' (Baily in Carter & Nunan, 2004:115), and combining them with the pupils' MT may be interpreted as a routine.

SUMMARY (Part C)

This part of the study described and discussed the second phase of the research. The insight gained from the observations and interviews, has facilitated a discussion of the findings of the entire research and their implications which is presented in the next part.

PART D: Discussion and Implications

INTRODUCTION

In this part I will shed light on the findings arising from the entire research in order to get insight into using the students' MT in the EFL classrooms by non-native English speaker teachers. I will discuss the findings, their implications, directions for future research, and lastly, the limitations of the research.

Discussion of the Findings

This study has tried to portray how teachers use the students' MT in teaching English as a Foreign Language. Most importantly, this study does not distinguish in an *a priori* fashion between different EFL backgrounds. The following questions were posed:

1. Do non-native English-speaking teachers use their students' mother tongue in the course of an EFL lesson?
2. How frequently do non-native English-speaking teachers use their students' mother tongue in the course of an EFL lesson?
3. In which situation does this code-switching occur? What function does it play?
4. What makes teachers use their students' mother tongue?

Having collected data in different contexts by various means and analyzed it, I will try to answer these questions by amalgamating all the results and proposing a model which derives from them.

In general, findings regarding the teachers' perceptions supported the tendencies obtained in the quantitative study (the questionnaire) and the observations. The findings of both phases indicate that the non-native English-speaking teachers under observation made use of their pupils' MT. MT practice appears as one of the 'resources' the teachers used in order to deal with external 'constraints' which limit their possibilities (e.g. weak pupils, incomprehension). However, while some teachers immediately chose it, others resorted to it only if other means failed. Nevertheless, English was undeniably the dominant language.

Quantification of actual teacher talking time in the MT was found to be extremely challenging. Although the Israeli teachers reported that 9-10 minutes of each lesson were in Hebrew, both the Israeli and the Hungarian teachers were rather vague about it in the group and personal interviews. Due to the fact that I did not use a tape recorder or a video camera, the observations could not indicate exact timing; however, they reflected the balance between the TL and the MT and the situations in which they were practiced.

Although teachers' classroom practices are highly individual (Larsen and Freeman, 2008:165), beyond the discrepancies and the differences detected among the participants, use of the pupils' MT was principally attributed to academic and managerial causes.

The following table encompasses the factors which allow for a more comprehensive understanding of the motives for using the pupils' MT.

ACADEMIC	MANAGERIAL
▪ class level	▪ class size
▪ to clarify difficult concepts	▪ class setting (e.g. whole / groups)
▪ to teach about knowledge	▪ organizational factors
▪ to teach effectively	▪ give or clarify class work instructions
▪ to instruct the use of grammar and new words, including translation	▪ complex interactions with pupils
▪ to check comprehension	▪ pupils' behavior
▪ to give feedback to students to compare TL to L1	

Table 1: The factors which influence teachers to incorporate the students' L1 into their pedagogies.

The tangible research results delineated above affirm Critchely's claim: "while TESOL training programs take 'English only' for granted, practitioners (particularly those who speak the L1 of the students) tend to lean toward bilingual support. Some teachers utilize the L1 with particularly disadvantaged students, while others employ it to "level the playing field" (2004).

In order to explain the presence of the MT in the EFL classroom I would like to adopt the term meta-language¹ or meta talk. In this sense, MTML may be explicit or implicit. In some classes it may not be present at all while in others it constitutes an integral part of the lesson.

¹*Meta-language* refers here to any terminology or language used to discuss other languages.

This meta- language is used for:

1. Lecturing and making sure the pupils understand the material, principally in the teaching of grammar.
2. Directing, for instance, marking changes in lesson procedure by employing MT when moving from one classroom episode to another in order to catch the pupils' attention.
3. Communicating off-task messages. According to Merritt et al. (in Yletyinen, 2004:23), the mother tongue is the less formal language. English was used when dealing with the lesson content.
4. Class managing, for example, concerning the Israeli teachers, dealing with disciplining matters.

I therefore propose the following MTML model and the subsequent continuum.

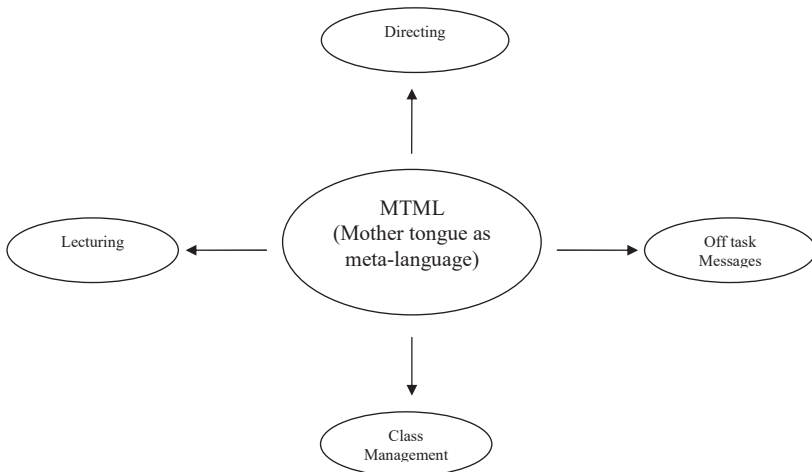


Illustration 1: MTML model

The teachers differentiate in the role, the stage during the lesson, the status and the function of the MTML. I hereby suggest a continuum whereby most teachers can be placed vis-à-vis their use of the students' MT:



Illustration 2: MTML continuum

Revenons à nos moutons ², the decisions that the teacher makes in carrying out a unit relate not only to activity per se, but also to more deeply held beliefs about language, learning, teaching, and even life (Woods, 1996:182-3). Though all the teachers in the research were aware of the undeniable importance of exposure to the TL, some made a compromise. To use Gass' words "the burden of continuing a conversation with a non-proficient and non-understanding participant is often too great. Instead, participants opt out and either end the conversation or change the topic completely" (in Doughty & Long, 2003:250).

² 'Let us get back to the subject' (French)

Significance of the Research Study

This study's findings are significant in four ways. First, they add to the increasing body of knowledge concerning use of L1 in EFL, most of which is reviewed in the first part.

Second, this research offers a glimpse into the reality of EFL teachers in Israel and Hungary by documenting their words and actual practice. It gives us a fresh view and a new slant on their problems and ideas. In my opinion, teachers' perceptions should be included in the evolving theoretical work in the domain of language teaching.

Third, "no teacher is an island". This study gave the teachers a stage to share their perceptions and concerns with their colleagues and the readers. I honestly believe that the questionnaire, the observation and the interviews urged the teachers to reflect upon their normal practice. After all, as Carter and Nunan affirm: "the language teacher is not simply a consumer of theory, but is a generator of theories and hypotheses based on his or her professional knowledge and ongoing reflection of classroom teaching" (2004:217).

Lastly, the data collection tools, which were especially designed for this study, can be utilized in future research on related themes, thus serving as an operational construct. Trainees and practicing teachers can make use of my adaptation of FIAC if they wish to develop their professional expertise by investigating their own teaching through a systematic self-observation. English coordinators and department heads may use the questionnaire when interviewing potential applicants and eliciting data about their teaching practices regarding language choice.

Implications and Recommendations

The findings of this study imply not a different way of teaching, but merely a different way of thinking about teaching, having exposed a small portion of teaching situations. They recommend various tools for exploration and encourage the use of informal exchanges of experience and idea-sharing among practitioners.

The insights stemming from this study, to some extent, echo those of previous studies in unveiling the use teachers make of the students' MT. It is implied therefore, that teachers have to be sensitized to the benefits and limitations of using the students' MT in the EFL classroom.

In this perspective, the findings are relevant in the domain of teacher education, both in pre-service education, where prospective teachers learn to do the things that teachers need to be able to do, and in in-service education, where teachers learn to reflect on and develop their current practice.

Policymakers and stakeholders should recognize the fact that although the use of the learners' MT is controversial, it is also inevitable and consequently they should consider normalizing it and supporting the teachers with suitable guidelines to help them navigate their language choice. Taking this line, instead of dismissing the role of the MT, language teacher education programs should incorporate relevant materials. A potential curriculum should take into consideration context-embedded components and refer to school level, age of learners, MT of learners, level of learners, among others.

Directions for Future Research

As this study progressed, it raised a number of intriguing questions: What data could be collected from EFL students? What about native English-speaking teachers? Would a larger sample yield similar results? Let us consider these possibilities.

The Pupils' Angle

Most of the studies, including the current one, have focused on teachers' perceptions rather than learners' perspectives (towards the use of the L1 by the teacher). Do EFL learners approve of MT use? Do they prefer 'only English' classes? Does MT use affect their motivation to learn the TL? What is their optimal balance between TL and MT? How do pupils use their L1 for learning (e.g. how often, when and why they translate from TL to MT and vice versa)?

Native English-Speaking Teachers

The current study focused on EFL teachers who are non-native speakers of English. By contrast, and in a complementary fashion, it would be of interest to examine the use native English-speaking teachers make of the pupil's mother tongue. An Israeli interviewee suggested that *"When the teacher is a native speaker she tends to use English more often – it's natural for her"*. Is that really so? Which aspects of the results of this study would be different?

Extensive Sample

The third direction is connected to one of the limitation inherent to the study at hand: the sample's size. An extensive sample in both phases of the questionnaire would certainly result in valuable data to triangulate with the data collected so far. More than that, it would allow judging the potential of the MTML model mentioned in the last section.

Expanding on these future directions can definitely close the circle and enable researchers to 'get to the bottom' of code-switching in the EFL classroom.

Limitations of the Research

Sample

The first limitation of the study is the relatively small sample size in the questionnaire (Phase A) and limited data analysis procedures. It would be beneficial to have a larger sample of teachers at least in terms of the statistical analysis. An extensive sample would allow the formation of sub-groups within the sample on basis of specific parameters (for example, teacher's country of origin), and yield worthwhile data. However, the sample was well proportioned with regard to the number of the teachers in the organization.

Generalization

A second possible limitation is the degree to which the findings can be generalized to other settings. Since the study is based on teachers who are teaching in a particular type of institutional and cultural setting, any relevance to other EFL contexts should be treated with caution. In other contexts, for example settings where the students are adults or where the teachers are native speakers of English, the findings reported here could be considered as mere hypotheses.

Epilogue

In conducting this research, I did not expect that its findings would clarify all the issues under study. However, I truly feel that this research has increased understanding of the issues it traced and produced professional answers to the questions posed at the beginning. I will end this journey on a humorous note by citing Lewis Carroll ("Through the Looking Glass", 1871):

'When I use a word' Humpty Dumpty said, in rather a scornful tone, 'it means just what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less'

Appendices

Appendix 1: Major Approaches in Second and Foreign Language Acquisition

In this section I will review suppositions that are germane to the study of second and foreign language acquisition. The reader will read about first assumptions concerning SLA and FLA, Applied Linguistics and Cognitive Theory, Socio-Historical Considerations, Learners' Attitudes and Motivation, Individual Differences and Learning Strategies, and Cognitive Neuroscience and Brain Research.

First Assumptions

According to *Contrastive Analysis* and *Language Transfer* views, learners acquire a language by translating and transferring from one language to another. In fact, this was the origin of SLA as a discipline. The role of the first language is undeniable given that language is an intricate arrangement of innate, learned and transferred elements (Carroll, 2001). For instance, when it comes to lexicon, at the first phase of acquisition, lexical entries must access concepts via L1 entries (De Groot & Poot 1997).

The Behaviorism is a psychology theory of learning which conceptualizes language learning as process of habit formation and memorization where the learner practices and imitates sounds and structures (Rivers, 1981; Richards, 1998). On the other hand, *Constructivist theory* accentuates the process of knowledge building. Learners learn by linking and bridging prior and new information and experiences. They do it by extending, modifying, organizing and structuring their existing data (Brandt, 1998; Lunenberg & Volman, 1999; Vosniadou, 1991 cited in Steiner, 2001.).

Applied Linguistics and Cognitive Theory

Applied linguists are studying SLA in the following branches: *linguistic and language universals*, *cognitive activities*, the relationship between *implicit and explicit learning*, as well as other perspectives.

Language Universals reflect consistencies in the typological or surface properties of world languages. They may explain SLA sequences and

predictions of outcomes. For instance, Eckman (1989) identified a typological universal that Wh-inversion (*who are you*) implies Wh-fronting (*who you are?*). A French learner of English, for example, may form questions in English quite easily as wh-questions in French are partly formed that way (*que fais-tu?*). *Linguistic Universals* are principles which language learners draw on to reset their parameters of "core grammar". Nevertheless, there are different views regarding the connection between the principles of Universal Grammar and SLA. Some researchers claim that L2 learners are not able to draw on them when constructing a FL grammar; in lieu they apply cognitive principles. Others emphasize the importance of formulas: "although universal features of language and the L1 may contribute to L2 knowledge, learners memorize pieces of the L2 for use in specific contexts" (Dekeyser and Juffs, 2005:440).

In order to acquire a language (first, second or foreign), researchers agree that learners should be exposed to this language as much as possible (Duff and Polio 1990, among others). Samples of the foreign language are needed by learners as a source of input for their learning. Researchers have recently observed that L2 learning is a much more conscious experience than was heretofore believed (Pica cited in Hinkel, 2005:247). "Cognitive theory emphasizes the importance of pupils' involvement and their active engagement in the learning process. Pupils need to use the knowledge they have acquired, produce language orally and in writing, and have opportunities to learn by doing" (Steiner 2001:18). *Cognitive activities* such as attention and noticing assist learners to process the target language's input as intake. Attention to input is a necessary condition for both *explicit and implicit learning*, i.e. learning that occurs unconsciously and automatically (Schmidt, 1994). While cognitive strategies enable learners to understand and recall information, metacognitive strategies help them regulate their own cognition. Corrective feedback and focused practice are viewed as cognitive processes, and learners' errors are seen as learning processes rather than as bad habits.

Socio-Historical Considerations

Pupils learn a foreign language when given opportunities to interact and use it effectively for their learning (McKay, 2005; Steiner, 2001). In doing so, they utilize their social strategies which assist learners to collaborate and be more emphatic. Thus, learners share and modify knowledge as they make sense of what they have learned (Leinhardt,

1992: Lunenberg & Volman, 1999 in: Steiner, 2001). This theory was introduced by Vygotsky (1978), who termed learning as going from 'actual knowledge' (previous knowledge) to 'potential knowledge' (knowledge constructed as a result of social interactions).

Among different fields of interest, (such as: language variation, linguistic relativity, speech communities etc.), sociolinguists have lately pointed out *Language Socialization* as a crucial feature of language learning. *Language Socialization* refers to how learners come to produce and interpret discourse and how such learning is supported or not by assumptions about society and second language learners. Thus, language socialization enables us to make sense of classroom interactions as pupils practice the language at hand in its context (Zuengler & Cole, 2005).

Learners' Attitudes and Motivation

Psycholinguists have demonstrated the role of attitudes and motivation in language learning over the years. *Krashen's monitor model* considers attitudes and motivation the most influential in unconscious language acquisition (Krashen 1988:102). According to Carroll's *conscious reinforcement model* (1981), language learning begins when the learner feels motivated to communicate something to someone. Reinforcement takes place when the desired end is obtained. In Bialystok's *strategy model* (1978, in Madrid et al. 1993), it can be assumed that learners will search for language exposure only if they feel motivated. Thus, using their explicit and/or implicit knowledge, communication will take place. Lambert's *social psychology model* (1974) creates causal links between attitudes, orientation and motivation, and proficiency in L2. Gardner's *socio-educational model* regards the learner's intelligence, aptitude, motivation, attitudes, and social anxiety as factors which determine the learner's outcome (1985, in Madrid et al. 1993:18-19).

Steiner sums it up: "pupils need to have a positive self-image, a positive attitude to the language being studied and should learn in a positive emotional climate. They also need to be motivated if they are to expend the effort required to acquire knowledge and skills" (2001:17). I shall return to the topic of motivation in the second chapter.

Individual Differences and Learning Strategies

An experienced teacher can easily distinguish individual differences in the ways learners acquire a foreign language. According to Skehan,

learners differ in 4 domains: learning strategies, learning styles, foreign language aptitude, and modality preference (1989). Owing to their crucial importance, I shall now turn to learning strategies.

Oxford (2001) defines learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information, specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations" (in Carter & Nunan, 2004:166). Oxford groups learning strategies into 6 major types: cognitive, compensatory, mnemonic, metacognitive, affective and social.

In this context, guessing meaning from context is both a *cognitive strategy* (helping learners associate new and already-known information) and a *compensatory strategy* while listening and reading (aiding learners make up for missing knowledge). Learning vocabulary items and grammar rules are possible thanks to *mnemonic strategies*. Managing the learning process, identifying learning styles, and dealing effectively with language tasks are varieties of *metacognitive strategies* learners carry out. Feelings of anxiety, anger or contentment affect the learning process. How to deal with attitudes and beliefs requires know-how of *affective strategies* (for instance, positive self-talk). The last type of learning strategies is *social strategies*, which facilitate learning with others and understanding the culture of the target language. Most importantly, strategy use is subject to different factors, such as: motivation, age, gender, cultural background, and learning environment.

Educators should recognize their pupils' differences and strive to address their needs. Given that tailoring instruction to each individual student is impractical and there is not any approach to teaching that can meet the needs of every student, Felder and Brent advise instructors to adopt a "balanced approach that attempts to accommodate the diverse needs of the students in a class at least some of the time" (2005:57).

Cognitive Neuroscience and Brain Research

Researchers in cognitive neuroscience have provided a better understanding of the role of the brain in learning performance and constructs such as Piaget's developmental principles, information processing and learning as a lifelong process (Caine & Caine, 1994; Gredler, 2005).

We now know that the brain is an intricate and adaptive system, which automatically perceives, creates, and organizes information. As the brain has different ways of organizing memory, each brain is unique in how information is stored.

The need to make sense of things is characteristic of every human being from infancy to adulthood. This search for meaning is aided by patterning, i.e. organizing and categorizing information. Hence, education is about increasing the patterns students can use, recognize, and link to what they already understand.

Teachers, parents and even pupils should recognize that learning: (1) is both a conscious and unconscious process (2) requires both focused attention and peripheral perception (3) is developmental and accompanied by physiological changes (4) is motivated by challenge, and (5) reduced by threat.

Brain-based learning has become highly significant as it is directly linked to improving learner performance. For example: (1) brain research has shown that learning takes place in the neocortex, which does not function well when learners are under stress or fear. It follows then that teachers and institutions can incorporate brain-based theories by making the learning environment a safe place. (2) According to brain-based findings, learners have one hemisphere that is more prevalent than the other. Therefore, activities should be provided to cater to both hemispheres of the brain (Gulpinar, 2005; Sloan, Rodger & Nicholls, 2006; Wilson, 2005; Goswami, 2006; in Deutsch, 2007).

Appendix 2: Questionnaire

Using Mother Tongue in Teaching EFL: QUESTIONNAIRE

You are invited to participate in this questionnaire. The questionnaire is part of a research on using mother tongue in teaching English as foreign language. The questionnaire is anonymous. Your responses will be strictly confidential and data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate.

Thank you very much for your time and support.

1. To what extent do the following statements represent you?

Please circle the number that best expresses your opinion about each statement.

	agree entirely	agree partially	disagree	totally disagree	
a. <i>Students speak Hebrew in my lessons.</i>	5	4	3	2	1
b. <i>Students can speak to me in Hebrew.</i>	5	4	3	2	1
c. <i>Using Hebrew in an English lesson is legitimate.</i>	5	4	3	2	1
d. <i>It's better to use a Hebrew word than an English one you are not sure of.</i>	5	4	3	2	1
e. <i>The use of Hebrew in an English lesson is necessary because:</i>					
1. <i>It is effective (it saves time).</i>	5	4	3	2	1
2. <i>It aids comprehension.</i>	5	4	3	2	1

2. What percentage of an English lesson do you think is generally carried out in Hebrew? Please circle the appropriate answer (lesson = 45 minutes).

- a.5% b.10% c.15% d.20% e.25%
f.30% g.35% h. other:

3. How often do you use Hebrew when you manage your class?

Please rank the following actions according to their frequency from 1 to 6 (1= never, 6= most frequently).

- to take attendance
- to dismiss students
- to set up work mode (pairs, groups)
- to give homework or class work
- to sort out discipline problems

4. Is it necessary to use Hebrew in order to manage an English lesson?

Yes / No. Why? You may answer in English or in Hebrew.

5. Please circle the number that best summarizes your reaction to each statement.

	<i>never</i>	<i>seldom</i>	<i>sometimes</i>	<i>often</i>	<i>always</i>
	1	2	3	4	5
1 <i>I use Hebrew when I teach grammar.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
2 <i>I translate new words (from English to Hebrew).</i>	1	2	3	4	5
3 <i>I use Hebrew to teach new concepts (cultural concepts).</i>	1	2	3	4	5
4 <i>I use Hebrew when I don't know / forget a word in English.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
5 <i>I use Hebrew to introduce new material.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
6 <i>I use Hebrew to assess my students' oral performance.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
7 <i>I use Hebrew to summarize material.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
8 <i>I use Hebrew to explain errors.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
9 <i>I use Hebrew to check if my students understood whatsoever.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
10 <i>I speak Hebrew to elicit information from my students.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
11 <i>I use Hebrew to explain differences in language use.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
12 <i>I give oral feedback in Hebrew.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
13 <i>I use Hebrew to help students feel at ease and confident.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
14 <i>When I speak Hebrew the students are happy.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
15 <i>I speak Hebrew to show the students that we share the same language and culture.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
16 <i>The students make me speak Hebrew.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
17 <i>I speak Hebrew when I am tired.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
18 <i>I speak Hebrew when I am annoyed (nervous, upset).</i>	1	2	3	4	5

6. Is it appropriate to speak Hebrew when checking for comprehension of both written and oral information? Yes / No. Why?

You may answer in English or in Hebrew.

7. When clarifying or developing ideas, would you interact with the students in Hebrew?

You may answer in English or in Hebrew.

8. How long is your lesson in Hebrew?

Please circle the appropriate answer (lesson = 45 minutes).

- | | | |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| a. 0-4 minutes | b. 5-10 minutes | e. 21-25 minutes |
| c. 11-15 minutes | d. 16-20 minutes | f. other: |

Background information

1. What is your mother tongue? _____
2. Do you have a good command of English?
Please rank it from 1-5 (5= excellent command) ____
3. Do you have a good command of Hebrew?
Please rank it from 1-5 (5= excellent command) ____

Comments regarding this questionnaire or any other relevant issues which should be included will be greatly appreciated.

THANK YOU AGAIN FOR YOUR TIME AND HELP

Appendix 3: Reliability Test Results

Groups of Variables	Alpha	Reliability
Hebrew use during lesson	0.756	High
Hebrew use to manage class	0.797	High
strategic use of Hebrew	0.859	High

Appendix 4: Hebrew Use during the Lesson (question 1)

		N	%
Cases	Valid	19	63.3
	Excluded ^a	11	36.7
	Total	30	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Case processing summary for Hebrew use during lesson

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
students speak Hebrew in my lessons	15.7368	11.205	.554	.715
students can speak to me	15.8421	11.029	.635	.702
using Hebrew is legitimate	15.7895	10.953	.544	.713
better to use Hebrew if you are not sure	16.4211	10.257	.275	.812
use of Hebrew is effective	16.2105	8.175	.632	.681
use of Hebrew aids comprehension	15.5263	10.485	.630	.693

Item total statistics

Appendix 5: Comments to FIAC

Coding Procedures FIAC (Newman, 2001)

General

Whenever there is an element of doubt code according to the prevailing balance of teacher initiation & response

Rare events should be coded wherever possible

Categories 1,2,3 are expected much less than 5,6,7 so use with caution.

Category 1: -

This is a rare event. The teacher must actually label the feeling to obtain this code

Category 2: -

Avoid using to code habitually routine superficial exclamations of praise.

Code more than once if extended praise is given.

Category 3: -

Teacher can respond to pupil's ideas in a number of ways.

Acknowledge – creating norms and logical connections

Modify, rephrase

Apply it to solve a problem or make inference

Compare it with other ideas

Summarize what is said

Code 3 more than once if extended response given.

Restrained use in coding 3 appears to enhance its diagnostic utility.

Beware of teacher making too bigger abstraction from pupils' statement (code 5)

Beware of teacher ignoring pupils' suggestion and asking for another (code 4)

Category 4

Teacher must act as if expects an answer (not rhetorical question)

If teachers talk is to bring others into discussion e.g. what do you think Joe, no need to code 4

Category 5

Lecturing, expressing opinions, giving facts, interjecting thoughts and off handed comments included.

In traditional teaching approaches category 5 will be most common catchall category and incorrect tally for this category unlikely to distort teacher's profile.

Category 6 & 7

Used to indicate close supervision and direction by the teacher

Used for statements intended to produce compliance. To recognize during coding ask whether compliance will be result of statement.

Avoid confusion with announcements (code 5)

Questions during teacher directed drill can be coded 6

Appendix 6: Numerical Data - Directing

Teacher		C	D	E	Total	
F6	Total instructions	131	336	584	1051	
	On task	104	299	531	934	
	Off task	27	37	53	117	
	Total questions		116	137	152	405
	On task					
	listening	16	0	0	16	
	text	34	71	57	162	
	other	32	37	57	126	
	Off task	0	7	19	26	
	What is +English word	34	22	19	75	

Appendix 7: Numerical Data - Lecturing

	Teacher	C	D	E	total
F5	Total translations	113	191	226	530
	Writing	0	24	46	70
	Oral	0	0	0	0
	Lecturing	31	55	67	153
	Reading	82	112	113	307
	Total grammar	30	84	222	336
	Practice	20	33	54	107
	Lecturing	10	51	168	229

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