

**FIRST LANGUAGE USE IN THE CONTEXT OF IRANIAN EFL CLASSROOM
DISCOURSE**

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ABSTRACT

As English language education has received prominent attention in non-English-speaking countries, the use of learners' first language (L1) becomes a pervasive reality in the classroom. The literature on the use of L1 in L2 classroom shows that it has become a long-standing controversy in the field. This research examines the use of L1 in EFL classroom discourse in the Iranian socio-educational context. The study theoretically situates itself at the juncture of interaction analysis and ecological perspective. Over thirty six hours of classroom talk in two language institutes and two high schools were audio taped, videotaped and transcribed. Classroom interactions were observed and coded in COLT A in real time. The episodes of L1 use in classroom interactions were extracted and coded in COLT B. The classroom teachers and institute managers were also interviewed. A questionnaire was used and focus group discussions were conducted to collect learners' views towards the use of L1. Six major areas in which L1 appeared were speaking, grammar, listening, vocabulary, homework and off task. The detailed analysis of the areas and the activities revealed that the students used L1 in speaking area activities more than the teacher and the teacher's use of L1 was mainly in grammar area activities especially in grammar presentation. Students' views were categorized in terms of L1 use for medium-oriented goals with focus on the teaching of the medium or the target language, and framework-oriented goals, which are related to the organization and management of classroom activities. The perceived dangers of the use of L1 and the affective role of L1 use were also reported from the learners' view point. Teachers' beliefs on the cognitive-driven use of L1, context-driven use of L1, the affective role of L1, and their theories towards the use of L1 in the classroom emerged from the data. The interviews with managers revealed their attitudes toward the use of L1 in the classroom. Apart from the interactional features of L1 use in EFL classroom discourse, the findings of this study provide a holistic image of the effects of different educational settings within the Iranian socio-educational context. Specifically, the findings suggest a more dynamic approach through the consideration of the impact of mainstream educational practices and socio-educational factors on learners' views and practices towards the use of L1. The study contributes to a relatively new line of research into L1 use in EFL settings, and to the extensive body of research into classroom discourse.

Penggunaan Bahasa Ibunda dalam Konteks Wacana EFL Bilik Darjah di Iran

ABSTRAK

Sewaktu pengajaran bahasa Inggeris diberi tumpuan di negara-negara yang bukan berbahasa pengantar Bahasa Inggeris, penggunaan bahasa ibunda pelajar (L1) menjadi berleluasa dalam bilik darjah sewaktu pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris. Rentetan hal itu, penggunaan L1 dalam pengajaran L2 di bilik darjah telah mencetuskan kontroversi berterusan. Kajian ini menyelidik penggunaan L1 menerusi wacana kelas EFL (Bahasa Inggeris Sebagai Bahasa Asing) dalam konteks sosio-pembelajaran Iran. Dari segi teori, kajian ini berpusatkan analisis interaksi dan perspektif ekologiikal. Lebih dari 36 jam perbincangan dalam kelas di dua buah institut bahasa dan dua buah sekolah tinggi telah dirakam audio, dirakam video dan dibuat transkripsi. Pemerhatian interaksi sebenar dalam kelas dilakukan dan dikod menggunakan COLT A. Episod penggunaan L1 sewaktu interaksi dalam kelas telah diekstrak dan dikod menggunakan COLT B. Guru kelas dan pengurus institut telah ditemu bual. Satu set soal selidik ditadbir dan perbincangan kumpulan fokus dijalankan untuk mengumpul pandangan pelajar berkenaan dengan penggunaan L1. Enam bidang utama penggunaan L1 adalah pertuturan, tatabahasa, pendengaran, kosa kata, kerja rumah dan *off task*. Analisis terperinci berkaitan bidang dan aktiviti menunjukkan pelajar menggunakan bahasa ibunda mereka dalam aktiviti percakapan lebih daripada guru sementara penggunaan bahasa ibunda oleh guru bertumpu kepada aktiviti tatabahasa terutamanya dalam persembahan tatabahasa. Pandangan pelajar dikategorikan mengikut penggunaan bahasa ibunda berorientasikan matlamat sederhana yang berfokus kepada pengajaran medium atau bahasa sasaran, dan berorientasikan matlamat rangka kerja, iaitu berkaitan dengan organisasi dan pengurusan bilik darjah. Kesan kurang baik penggunaan bahasa ibunda dan peranan afektif penggunaannya juga dilaporkan dari perspektif pelajar. Kepercayaan guru terhadap penggunaan kognitif bahasa ibunda, penggunaan konteks bahasa ibunda, peranan afektif bahasa ibunda, dan teori berkenaan penggunaan bahasa ibunda dalam kelas bahasa muncul daripada data yang terkumpul. Pendekatan penggunaan bahasa ibunda yang digunakan oleh pengurus institut dalam kelas dicungkil melalui temu bual. Selain merungkai ciri-ciri interaksional penggunaan bahasa ibunda dalam wacana kelas EFL, dapatan kajian ini memberi gambaran holistik mengenai kesan penetapan pengajaran berlainan dalam konteks sosio-pembelajaran Iran. Secara spesifik, dapatan kajian mencadangkan pendekatan lebih dinamik secara mengambil kira impak praktis arus perdana dan faktor sosio-pembelajaran atas pandangan dan amalan pelajar terhadap penggunaan bahasa ibunda dalam pembelajaran L2. Kajian ini memberi sumbangan kepada penyelidikan baharu dalam bidang penggunaan bahasa ibunda dalam *setting* EFL serta menyumbang kepada hasil penyelidikan sedia ada dalam wacana kelas.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The use of mother tongue in the second/foreign language classroom has been debated in language teaching theory and practice. Stern (1992) calls “the role of L1 in L2 teaching” as “one of the most long-standing controversies of the history of language pedagogy” (p. 279).

Researchers in second language acquisition (SLA) (Asher, 1993; Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Krashen, 1985; Wong-Fillmore, 1985) agree that input is crucial in order for successful second or foreign language (FL) acquisition to occur, that is, learners should be exposed to the target language (TL) as much as possible in order to develop their language skills and it seems that simulating an L2 environment is being universally considered a prerequisite of successful language learning and effective language teaching. While “the unanswered question is whether an exclusive reliance on the intralingual strategy [exclusive use of TL] is in fact practicable and whether it helps learners to achieve the kind of internalized L2 competence they and their teachers strive for” (Stern, 1992, p. 291), the type, quantity, and quality of TL input that learners actually need in order to develop communicative competence also needs further investigation.

However, the current research in the last decade or two agrees that L1 is needed in the second or foreign language classroom (Atkinson, 1993; Cook, 2001; Garcia, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Macaro, 1997; Stern, 1992) and sees the use

of L1 as a “natural psychological process in second language development” (Stern, 1992, p. 286). Researchers and teachers, however, disagree on when and for what purposes the learners’ first language (L1) should be used in the classroom.

Although there seems to be emerging consensus in language teaching methodology and second language research in favor of L1 use in the language classroom, a number of important issues require investigation including when and how one can best use L1 in the classroom. What kind of classroom activities and interactional patterns in the classroom call for the use of L1? Researchers have tried to address such questions regarding the use of L1/TL in second/foreign language classrooms from different dimensions such as learners’ perspectives (Anto’n & DiCamilla, 1998; Chavez, 2003; Levine, 2003; Macaro, 1997) and the amount and functions of L1 in teacher talk (Duff & Polio, 1990; Kim & Elder, 2005; Macaro, 1997; Polio & Duff, 1994) but it seems this area needs a deeper insight into the nature of classroom discourse as a multidimensional context in which L1 is used.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Stern (1992) calls for further research on L1 use in the classroom stating that “the scope of crosslingual strategy deserves further exploration and systematic exploitation” (p. 293) and he believes that “what mixture of interlingual [using TL exclusively] and crosslingual [using L1 and TL] techniques is actually employed by teachers and their students has not been systematically investigated” (p. 299)

In the last two decades, different studies on usage of L1 in the classroom have looked at separate parts of classroom discourse (e.g., teacher talk) to fill the

gap mentioned by Stern. They have mainly focused on a single dimension of L1 use such as the quantitative proportion and the functions of L1/TL use in the classroom (Kim & Elder, 2005; Macaro, 1997; Polio & Duff, 1994) or learners' beliefs (Nazari, 2008; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). Such studies have not captured the use of L1 in the holistic nature of classroom discourse. This holistic view of classroom discourse can be realized in terms of Gee (1999) as Discourse with a big "D" which includes both language (classroom verbal interaction) and non language components of the classroom such as activities, beliefs and non verbal interactions against discourse with a small "d" which merely refers to "the language in use" (p. 7).

Furthermore, most of the studies in this area have been conducted in settings in which English is the mother tongue of foreign language learners. Regarding English as the world's most studied foreign language, studying the EFL setting will give us a deeper insight into different aspects of L1 or TL use in the classroom. Qualitative and quantitative investigations provide detailed views of students and teachers and whole class discourse exploration will make the ground for complex analysis of multiple dimensions of the issue. Besides, since there are different approaches towards L1 use in different institutes within the dominant CLT (communicative language teaching) methodology, studying cases of classroom discourse will give us an insight into the influence of the mainstream EFL (English as a foreign language) practices on learners' beliefs and institutional policies towards L1 use in the classroom.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is

1. to investigate the use of L1 in EFL classroom discourse.
2. to explore the beliefs of students, teachers and managers towards the use of L1.
3. to examine the relationship between private language institutes and high school EFL practices in terms of beliefs and the use of L1.

1.4 Research Questions

To explore L1 in EFL classroom discourse the following questions were posed:

1. How is L1 used in EFL classroom discourse?
2. What are the students', teachers' and managers' beliefs towards the use of L1 in the classroom?
3. How do high school EFL practices affect students' beliefs towards the use of L1?

1.5 Significance of the Study

By exploring whole class discourse and using quantitative and qualitative approaches we can better understand the nature of L1 use in the classroom from multiple dimensions. With this understanding, researchers can better analyze the interaction between different classroom factors and develop a comprehensible framework for “systematic use of L1” (Cook, 2001). Teacher educators and curriculum designers can utilize this framework in their programs. It will also try to satisfy the needs for developing a positive teaching strategy in using L1 or TL in the classroom. The results can shed light on the issues which enable officials to rethink their policies toward bilingual or multilingual education. It will also moderate strong ideas on the use of either L1 or TL in the classroom.

1.6 The Conceptual Framework

This section defines the main concepts of the present study and shows the way they relate to each other. The central concept of this study is “the use of L1 in the classroom” which is believed to be influenced by other concepts such as “beliefs” and “Socio-educational EFL practices”. Here I will turn to each of these concepts and their relationships.

The central concept of this study “ the use of L1 in EFL classroom” can be traced back to Stern’s (1992) three dimensional framework through which he seeks strategies to “operate with flexible sets of concepts...but do not perpetuate the rigidities and dogmatic narrowness of the earlier methods concepts” (p. 277). One dimension of this framework looks into “the use of L1 in the classroom” under the

title of “the intralingual-crosslingual dimension.” Figure 1 shows how Stern’s strategy pair deals with the use of L1 /L2 in the classroom.

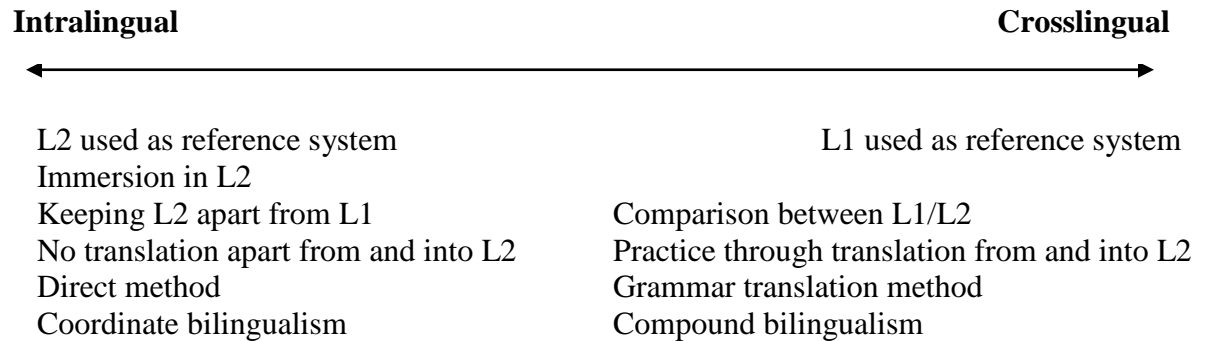


Figure 1. Interlingual and crosslingual strategies (Stern, 1992)

In the light of this framework Stern calls for further research on the use of L1 in the classroom which is later responded by several researchers. (See Chapter 2)

One way that research has looked at L1 use in the classroom is through learners’ or teachers’ “beliefs” to study different attributes that the learners and teachers identify about L1 use in the classroom and the ways they evaluate these attributes as positive or negative (Chavez, 2003; Levine, 2003; Macaro, 1997). Some researchers such as Chavez (2003) have tied “beliefs” towards L1 use to “Institutional context” such as departmental policies towards the use of L1, teacher training or teaching approach and they have emphasized the importance of contextual features on understanding the beliefs towards the use of L1 in the classroom. However, other dimensions such as the role of “beliefs” and “context” on L1 use in the classroom have been studied less intensively.

Regarding the notion of “context” (Chavez, 2003) in settings where two EFL/ESL educational systems are at work, as in Iran, we can make a distinction between “school context” and “private institute context” which can be studied in relation to their orientations towards the use of L1 and their influence on the use of L1 in the classroom discourse. Based on this distinction, research on L1 use can be followed in two directions; first, how the bigger context “school” influences the smaller one “private institutes” and second, how “beliefs” can be influenced by “school context”.

All in all, putting the concepts of “belief” and “context” into the studying “the use of L1 in the classroom” both language and non language factors will be involved in this study. This calls for a holistic approach for the present research. Such holistic approach can be realized in Gee’s (1999) notion of big “D” discourse. Gee (1999) makes a distinction between what he calls small “d” discourse and big “D” Discourse. In his view, discourse (with a small “d”) refers to the language- in- use in the classroom while Discourse (with a big “D”) is a mixture of discourse (language in use) and “non-language stuff” (p. 7). The research literature shows that the previous studies on L1 use in the classroom have looked at parts of classroom Discourse, so its holistic nature has been taken for granted. The present study was designed to investigate the use of L1 in the EFL classroom Discourse where classroom interactions meet concepts like “beliefs” and “context”.

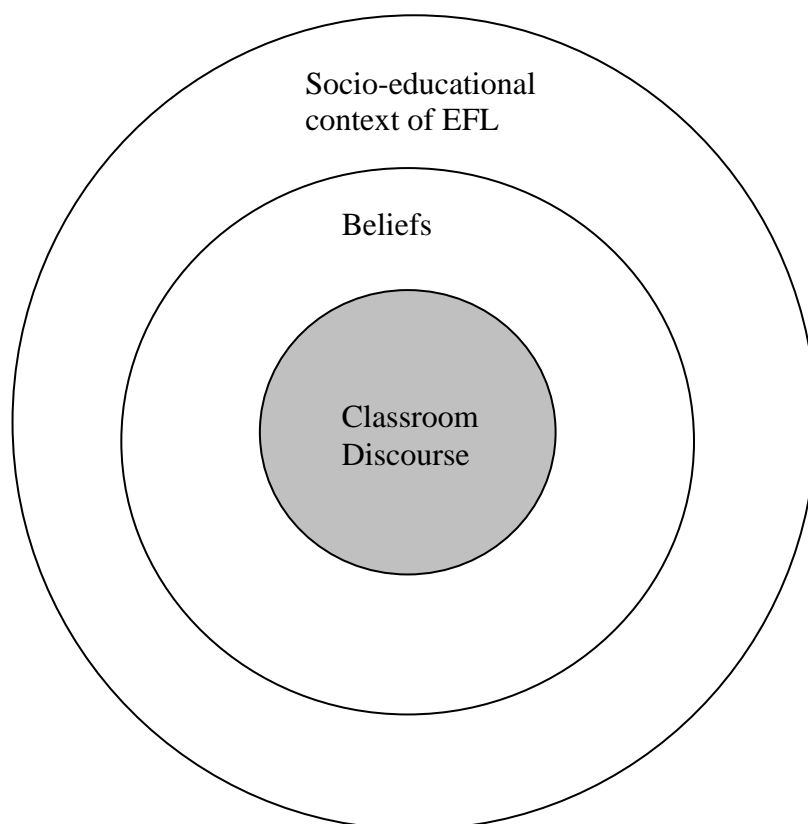


Figure 2. The conceptual framework for the study.

1.7 Theoretical Framework

As the SLA field is increasingly seeking for more holistic models reflecting on the specifics of social and cultural aspects of the context (e.g. Barton, 1994; van Lier, 1988, 2004), so too this study situates itself at the juncture of interactional analysis and ecological perspective to capture the micro and macro aspects of L1 use in classroom discourse.

According to van Lier (2004), ecology was established as a scientific discipline around the middle of the nineteenth century. He draws on Haeckel's work (1866) in his definition of ecology "to refer to the totality of the relationship of an organism with all

other organisms with which it comes into contact” (p. 194). This scientific field was to study and manage the environment in two approaches. One was the traditional way of managing the environment from human impact and natural disasters (shallow ecology) and another approach was to search for the research methods that can capture the interrelatedness and full complexity of processes that mingle to produce an environment (deep ecology). Van Lier believes that both approaches can inform educational research and practice. He summarized the ecological approach as it looks at the entire situation and asks, what is it in this environment that makes things happen the way they do? Therefore, ecology is a form of situated or contextualized research. This perspective extends Vygotsky’s ideas in consideration of knowledge and needs of the present day.

Mediation is one of the central ideas of Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory being discussed in the recent ecological studies. Mediation occurs through tools and artifacts; the use of signs (Ellis, 2003) and interaction. In second and foreign language learning mediation entails social interaction by others; mediation through private speech or self mediation and mediation through artifacts (e.g., tasks and technology). To these forms of mediation, van Lier added mediation by native and other languages. He argues that first language use can blend in the second language learning communicative context as a semiotic system that supports second language use.

Another key concept of the ecological approach to language learning is affordance. Van Lier refers to affordance as “what is available to the person to do something with” (p. 91). In his analogy of “crossing a creek”, he explains that a flat rock rising above water is an affordance to an adult who can step on it to get across,

although it is not an affordance to a child with short legs and limited balance capacity. He proposes a change from the term “input” to “affordance”.

In recent years the notion of affordance has been extended to cultural affordances, social affordances, cognitive affordances and conversational affordances (Forrester, 1999). Such affordances are mediated while the original notion of affordance is indirect and immediate (Gibson, 1979).

Emergence is another concept of ecological perspective which describes the development of complex systems. Emergence is not a linear accumulation of objects, but a transformational growth. In other words, the notion of emergence does not characterize language learning as a linear acquisition but a combination of simple elements resulting in the emergence of a more complex system. Although being called transformation, Vygotsky’s view that the new levels of learning cannot directly come from the existing levels, is emergent in nature. Recent research has looked into teaching grammar through a grammar development or emergent grammar approach (Hopper, 1998; Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

Hornberger (2003) highlights a broader perspective of ecological approach by referring to the works of Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) and Ricento (2000). With regard to the present situation of English worldwide, they contrast “a monolingual view of modernization and internationalization” and a multilingual approach of “building on linguistic diversity worldwide” or the ecology-of-language paradigm (p. 322). The ecology-of-language paradigm counteracts the linguistic imperialism of English language through the notions of multilingualism and linguistic human rights in language planning and policy.

van Lier (2004) refers to context at the macro-ecological level, drawing on Bronfenbrenner's (1979) view of ecology "as a set of nested ecosystems that are densely interconnected" thus allowing for "an organic description of context, moving from the micro to the macro and definitely moving beyond the classroom walls" (p. 785). This rich theoretical ground will inform the concepts of the present study namely classroom discourse, beliefs and socio-educational context to get a deep understanding of L1 use in the classroom. In terms of van Lier, "indeed, only by investigating language learning in context, and documenting this context as carefully as possible, can we find out what the value of an ecological approach might be" (van Lier, 2004 p. 257).

1.8 EFL Practices in Iran

Iran is a country with one official language spoken nationwide and several local languages which are only spoken among their own people. The schools' medium of instruction is Persian language (the only official language in Iran) and English has been a school and university subject for many years. Children start learning English at age 13 when they start the second year of Guidance school (Junior high school) and it continues to the end of their studies through high school and university. There has been no change in official education of English from 30 years ago except for some minor amendments in the year of starting English as a foreign language and some changes in the books. The methodology of teaching has remained untouched for several years since there has been no change in teacher education programs. Lack of a principled system in English language education has led us to these unsatisfactory results (Former Minister of Education, 2006)

Besides the formal school-based EFL education in Iran, several informal private institutions try to compensate for the shortcomings of this system by using new materials in the market and adapting new approaches of language teaching.

1.8.1 Comparison of Mainstream EFL Context and Private Institutions

The mainstream EFL context which is a part of the school program differs from private institutions in some ways:

Methodology: The first difference of the two systems lies in the methodology of teaching. The private institutions mainly have to perform teacher training programs to match the teaching methodology (mostly following a communicative approach) and the current materials in a highly competitive business while the school-based system resorts to reusing the old self designed materials and feel no need for changing the dominant GT methodology.

Materials: private institutions mainly use multi-skill new materials of the market, designed by native speakers of English to be able to continue the challenging business but English books at school are designed in the country aiming at preparing students to pass the university entrance examination (*konkour*) which mainly measures students' vocabulary, grammar knowledge and reading comprehension skills. Another difference lies in the cultural items presented in the materials. Books used by private institutes contain English cultural materials while school books designed by the Ministry of Education exclude any foreign cultural item. Birjandi and Meshkat (2003) studied "the cultural impact of EFL on Iranian learners" comparing the private institutes and school contexts. He concluded that

“books do not transmit cultural values of the foreign language by themselves” (p. 53).

Age: 4 year-old children can start learning English in private institutions while “teaching English has no place in primary schools” (Former Minister of Education, 2006) and English appears in the school curriculum only after the students have finished 5 years of their education in school.

Medium of instruction: school teachers usually use L1 as the medium of instruction. Since the book has been designed based on a reading approach to learning English, the teachers also emphasize reading and translation. New vocabulary is presented in sentences accompanied by pictures and the following vocabulary practices and reading passage guide the teacher and learner to use a comprehension based methodology which can use English as the medium of instruction by exploiting pictures instead of translation. A closer look at the book shows that the instructions of the exercises do not explicitly encourage teachers and learners to use their mother tongue. However, the whole class is performed in the students’ native language and a reading/translation approach is employed by teachers. The author of the books also emphasizes the role of teacher in using the materials in the classroom (Birjandi, 1995). On the other hand, teachers in private institutions usually tend to use the communicative method via group work, dialogues, role play activities and games. Their final goal is to maximize target language input by discouraging L1 use in the classroom.

Comparing these two systems, it is worth mentioning that school learners have to take English courses as a compulsory part of the curriculum while learners

participate in private institutes' English programs on their own (or their parents') will.

As this brief comparison shows, on the one hand schools follow a monolingual approach by *using L1* as the medium of instruction; on the other hand private institutions employ the same approach by *discouraging the use of L1* in the classroom. Anecdotal evidence also suggests that private institutions in Iran prefer the exclusive use of TL in the classroom.

To capture a holistic view of the use of L1 in the classroom Discourse we need to explore the verbal interactions in connection with other factors from the context such as beliefs and policies which can influence our understanding of the phenomenon. By exploring classroom Discourse in language institutes against the EFL school practices through studying both systems and affected areas (beliefs and context) the present study will try to provide a comprehensive view of L1 use in the classroom.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Tracing back the use of L1 in the language classroom will take us through the history of language teaching when the early approaches emphasized reading texts and translating them to students' mother tongue. Since then, there have been fundamental changes in the psychology of learning, linguistics and other language related educational fields which have affected the strategies employed in the language classroom to maximize the outcomes. Anecdotal evidence suggests an increasing trend towards discouraging the use of L1 in the classroom; however several studies in the last decade have indicated a shift in approach.

This section includes research works from two main areas related to the present study. The first part is aimed at highlighting the main works of present and past debates concerning L1 use in the classroom and provides an overall picture of the changes and movements over time and the second part will deal with different orientations to research on classroom discourse.

2.2 L1 in the Language Classroom: Historical Perspectives

L1 or mother tongue in the classroom has been studied from different perspectives. Here we will review the debates concerning this issue in two main periods (a) the age of methods, and (b) the era beyond methods.

2.2.1 The Position of L1 in Language Teaching Methods

L1 has always been considered as one of the language classroom factors which must be taken care of carefully. Some approaches have focused on the use of L1 as the main device for learning a new language (GTM), and some have discouraged the use of L1 in the process of language teaching (DM). Larsen-Freeman (2003) has summarized the “dynamics of methodological changes” as illustrated in Table 1. Larsen-Freeman has divided the changes in three main eras. The first one starts with GTM in the 1950s and ends with the audio-lingual approach in the 1960s when scholars challenged the habit formation views of behaviorist psychology.

The second period which is called a period of “methodological diversity” is characterized by the emergence of innovative methods challenging the past views and practices during the 1970s and 1980s. The notion of communicative competence introduced in late 1980s started the third period and the new communicative approach “reunified the field”, although it exhibited variations in implementation from place to place. The innovations still continued but they mainly focused on the process of learning. Table 1 summarizes the position of L1 among the language teaching methods.

Table 1

The Position of L1 in Language Teaching Methods

Method	Teaching strategies	The use of L1
Grammar Translation (GTM)	Exercise mental muscles by having the students translate from target language texts to native language	The meaning of the target language is made clear by translating it into the students' native language. The language that is used in the class is mostly the students' native language. (p.18)
Direct Method (DM)	Associate meaning with the target language directly by using spoken language in situations with no native language translation.	The students' native language should not be used in the classroom. (p. 30)
Audio-Lingual (AL)	Overcome native language habits and form new TL habits by conducting oral drills and pattern practice.	Native language interferes with learning the new language so the target language must be used. (p. 47)
Silent Way (SW)	Develop inner criteria for correctness by becoming aware	Meaning is made clear by perception not translation however native language can be

	of how the TL works.	used to give instruction and teach pronunciation it is also used in some feedback sessions. (p. 67)
Suggestopedia (S)	Overcome psychological barriers by musical accompaniment, playful practice, and the arts.	Native-language translation is used to make the meaning of the dialogue clear. The teacher also uses the native language in class when necessary. As the course proceeds, the teacher uses the native language less and less. (p.83)
Community Language Learning (CLL)	Learn nondefensively as whole persons, following developmental stages.	Students' security is initially enhanced by using their native language. The purpose of L1 is to provide a bridge from the familiar to the unfamiliar. Directions in class and sessions during which students express their feelings and are understood are conducted in the native language. (pp. 101-102)

		This method is usually
		introduced initially in the
		students' native language. After
Total physical	Listen, associate meaning with	the lesson introduction, rarely
Response	TL directly, make meaning clear	would the native language be
(TPR)	through visual and actions	used. Meaning is made clear
		through body movements.
		(p.115)
<hr/>		
Communicative	Interact with others in the target	Judicious use of the students'
language	language; negotiate meaning	native language is permitted in
teaching	with TL directly by using	communicative language
(CLT)	information gaps, role play and	teaching. (p.132)
		games.
<hr/>		

As Table 1 indicates, L1 use has altered in the course of methodological changes although it has always been there except in the DM and Audio-Lingual method. A closer look at the uses of L1 in Larsen-Freeman's methodology framework shows that after audio-lingualism the role of L1 has been defined in the framework of its function in the process of teaching and learning in each method. Here we are going to take a closer look. The silent way which comes directly after the prohibition era of direct method and audio-lingualism still stands on the position of banning the use of mother tongue specially for teaching the meaning of the new words which can be interpreted as the traces of Direct approaches to teaching (the main reason for using

TL in the direct method is that the meaning of the new words must be learned directly), however it assigns the role of a facilitator for classroom instruction and defines L1 as a device for teaching pronunciation.

As we proceed to the next method L1 acts to “make the meaning clear” while in silent way “meaning is made clear by perception not translation”. This shift, which comes along with the great changes in psychology and linguistics, challenges fundamental roots of the Direct method as the first reaction against L1 in the classroom. Paying more attention to the psychological dimension of teaching puts learners’ inner state into a primary position and the role of L1 is enhanced to help overcome psychological barriers as one of the main concerns. Creating a sense of security and bridging from the familiar to unfamiliar are the responsibilities of L1 in the classroom. In the community language learning method this role has been heightened to a point where some sessions of the class can be devoted to learners to express their feelings in their native language. After reaching this elevated position, the second shift towards limiting the use of L1 occurs in TPR. This method suggests getting meaning directly through target language and action; however L1 is considered as a tool for introducing the method.

Putting communication at the heart of the language learning process makes the use of target language in the classroom as the main source of input in the communicative approach. The notion of communication was first introduced in the Direct method when “the goal of instruction became learning how to communicate” (Larsen-Freeman 2003, p. 23). However after the emergence of audio-lingualism class activities moved towards controlled structural drills which were more mechanical than communicative in nature. The need for a move to a more

communicative rather than controlled and “manipulated” activities in the classroom was described in Prator’s article titled “development of a manipulation-communication scale” (Prator, 1965 in Celce-Murcia & McIntosh, 1979). The early 1970s witnessed the move towards a communicative approach through other innovative methods of the time as a response to Audio-Lingualism. As described earlier, each method assigned a particular role to the use of students’ native language in the classroom. According to Table 1 the “judicious” use of L1 is permitted in the communicative approach. Comparing the role of L1 in the communicative approach with the previous methods reveals a difference in the terms of application. By this I mean that in the past methods L1 has a particularly defined role in the classroom, for example, translating dialogues (suggestopedia), expressing feeling and enhancing security (CLL) and introducing the method (TPR). The question here is why has the role of L1 in the classroom not been clearly defined in CLT?

Answering the above mentioned question takes a broader look at the change of the field from a linguistic-centered approach to a communicative approach in the late 1970s and early 1980s which is the last decade of the age of methods (1960s-1980s). The changes in this period seem to be much smoother than the early rigid methodological reactions and sharp fundamental changes which we observed moving from GTM to AL. This is called “an indication of methodological maturity” by Newton (cited in Celce-Murcia & McIntosh, 1979). She says: “it is a hopeful sign-- perhaps an indication of methodological maturity --that the reaction to one domestic approach has not resulted in another method equally arbitrary and inflexible. Thus far, the suggestions for change have been gentle, and we have not

been left with a vacuum to be filled.” (p. 20). She claims that the thinking in methodology of her time is in the direction of (a) relaxation of some of the more extreme restrictions of the audio-lingual method, and (b) development of techniques requiring a more active use of students’ mental power.

According to Newton (1979) one proof of the relaxation in restrictions is that “the prohibition against using the students’ native language has been considerably relaxed” (p. 20). Although she limits the role of L1 as a means of giving explanation and instruction, I believe that the so called methodological maturity and relaxation of the restrictions resulted in an undefined role of L1 in the communicative approach. It seems that it is the responsibility of the teacher to decide when and how to use L1, based on the context of teaching and students’ need. The evidence of this fact is revealed later in the post method era and it will be fully discussed. Besides, the focus of attention in this period is mainly on communicating in the target language rather than banning the use of L1 in the classroom.

Communication is the center of three other methods discussed here namely, content-based, task based and participatory approaches. “The difference between these approaches and communicative approach is a matter of their focus.... [They] do not begin with functions or indeed, any other language items. Instead, they give priority to process over predetermined linguistic content.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 137) As Howatt (1984) suggested, “they use the language to learn” rather than “learn to use the language”. Obviously, here, the language is the target language. Most of the principles of TBLT seem to be the natural development of the

communicative method, so there is no change in approach towards the use of L1 in the classroom.

Most recent researchers and historians of language teaching methodologies emphasize the prohibition on the use of L1 in the 20th century, significantly after the reform movement and the emergence of DM. However depending on how strong their views toward the issue, they mention some drawbacks and benefits of L1 use in the classroom and they put the burden on the teachers to decide. Addressing the CLT era, Howatt and Widdowson (2004) asserted that:

...as we have seen more than once, the basic position of ELT on this issue [using the mother tongue] has hardly changed for a hundred years: try to avoid switching between languages, but obviously you will have to translate if you want to make sure that the learners understand what they are doing. Very reasonable and seemingly straight forward but in fact it's not really a straight forward issue at all. It is a psychological complex problem and language teachers could do it with appropriate advice... (p. 259)

They continue by mentioning the renewed current interest in bilingualism which looks at the issue mainly from a sociological perspective and they believe that this trend is changing in recent years.

2.2.2 “The Changing Winds and Shifting Sands”¹

What was described previously covers a century from 1885 to 1985. Here we are going to investigate the trends from the mid-1980s when we can hear the first signs of change from the laments of Stern’s (1985) “the changing winds and the shifting sands”. This is a period in which the search for the ideal method which was the main concern of the 1970s is questioned by a change from methods to approaches. “We did not need a method. We needed, instead to get on with the business of unifying our approach to language teaching and of designing effective tasks and techniques informed by that approach.” (Douglas Brown, 1997, in Richards & Renandya, 2001, p. 11)

The nature of method is static but approach is much more dynamic and changes along with time. It grows as you grow older. Recall Newton’s (1979) “methodological maturity”. Regarding the notion of maturity Kumaravadivelu (1992) grounds his argument for the need for an empowered teacher, although he states that:

We cannot prepare teachers to tackle so many unpredictable needs, wants, and situations; we can only help them develop a capacity to generate varied and situation-specific ideas within a general framework that makes sense in terms of current pedagogical and theoretical knowledge. (p. 41)

¹ borrowed from Marckward, 1972

Later in his framework namely “macro strategies for foreign / second language teacher” he does not mention L1 as a classroom factor. Maybe in his view it was a micro strategy for the classroom. Later we will take a closer look at his works to see how this maturity grows in the course of time. Another attempt at giving a dynamic framework within which a language teacher can follow his responsibilities was prepared by Douglas Brown (1997). He introduced 12 principles which “comprise a body of constructs which few would dispute as central to most language acquisition contexts” (p. 12). The 10th principle of this framework is “the native language effect” in which first he praised L1 as a system on which the target language system prediction is based and can act as a facilitator, although he highlighted the interfering effect of L1 on L2 afterwards.

2.2.3 L1 in Post Method Pedagogy

Tracing the early attempts toward the post method pedagogy, Kumaravadivelu (2006) focused on Stern’s (1992) three dimensional framework. The first aspect of this model is “L1-L2 connection, concerning the use or nonuse of the first language in learning the second language” (p. 187) namely interlingual and cross lingual dimensions. These attempts which tried to skip from the constraints of the methods put L1 in the position of a main criterion for the new model of pedagogy.

Reviewing all his works and studies up to 2006, Kumaravadivelu devoted much more value to L1 in the classroom. Analyzing different dimensions and definitions of input and intake, he redefined the role of L1 in his framework under

the title of “knowledge factors”. In his words, knowledge factors refer to “language knowledge and meta-language knowledge.” He states that:

All adult L2 learners exposed to formal language education in their L1 inevitably bring with them not only their L1 knowledge/ability but also their own perception and expectations about language, language learning, and language use. (p. 41)

Recalling the empirical studies of Cook (1992) and Gass (1997) he states that L2 learners use their L1 effectively while processing L2, and the knowledge of L1 is “constantly available” in this process. Metacognitive knowledge is also “considered to be an important factor in L2 development because it encompasses the learners’ knowledge /ability not only to think about language as a system but also to make comparisons between their L1 and L2, thus facilitating the psycholinguistic process of language transfer.”(p. 42)

2.3 English Only Movement and Emergent Bilingualism

Besides the effect of the reform movement on the use of L1 in language classrooms and all methodological struggles, the 1980s witnessed profound educational debates in the United States which shows that the monolingual approach to the teaching of English has its roots in “the controversy over establishing English as the official language” of the U.S. (Gallegoes, 1994, p. 7). However, the recent reports on minority education in the U.S showed an increase in the number of two-way programs which “integrate language minority and language majority students and provide content area instruction and language development in two languages”

(Christian, 1996, p. 1). In her article Christian provides a picture of the two-way education changes between 1991 and 1994. Pointing out the goals of this program as improving bilingual proficiency she says:

Emerging results of studies of two-way immersion programs point to their effectiveness in educating nonnative- English-speaking students, their promise of expanding our nation's language resources by conserving the native language (L1) skills of minority students and developing second language (L2) skills in English-speaking students, and their hope of improving relationships between majority and minority groups by enhancing crosscultural understanding and appreciation. (p. 1)

The most recent research and reviews show a shift toward bilingualism as the norm of education in the U.S. Garcia (2009) argues that this trend will be beneficial for 1) the children themselves 2) teachers and teaching 3) educational policy makers 4) parents and communities 5) the field of language education and TESOL 6) societies at large. She believes that “children's emergent bilingualism would integrate the four aspects of language education--teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), bilingual education (BE), the teaching of the heritage language when available (HL), and the teaching of another foreign language (FL). Teaching would then be centered on the student and not on the profession”. (p. 325) Regarding the growing importance of bilingualism in the 21st century she claims that “the language resources of the United States have never

been greater, despite its insistence on being a monolingual state, the United States has perhaps the world's most complex bilingual practices.” (p. 325)

This historical account mainly concerns minority education and bilingualism in the U.S. educational system which is beyond the scope of the present work, but it seems that the vast spread of English as the world's lingua franca has raised the same debates over the monolingual approach to the teaching of English in a larger global sense. The notion of “linguisticism” introduced by Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) points out that reaching to higher levels of education and better jobs is determined by knowing a particular language which finally leads to unequal social and economic situations (p. 9). Kachru (1994) refers to a similar monolingual approach in SLA research as the dominant paradigm which must be reevaluated from bi/multilingual perspectives. To do so, he examines the notions of “competence”, “fossilization”, and “native speaker” to show that they all result from “a monolingual bias in SLA research” (p. 796). “There are strong theoretical and empirical reasons to challenge the monolingual principle and articulate a set of bilingual instructional strategies” (Cummins, 2009, p. 317). Challenging this principle Macedo (2000) calls the English only movement “as a form of colonialism.” (p. 16)

2.4 L1 Within Linguistic Imperialism

In 1990, Phillipson advanced the skeptic view of the hegemony of the “core” towards the “periphery” by submitting his doctoral dissertation to the University of Amsterdam. In his view there is evidence that ELT is not a neutral

educational field yet; it is a social political tool for dominating the ideologies of the “core”, Anglo-American’s, over the “periphery”, Third World countries. In his book “Linguistic Imperialism” he challenges the main tenets of the monolingual approach in ELT.

1. English is best taught monolingually. (The monolingual fallacy)
2. The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker. (The native speaker fallacy)
3. The earlier English is taught, the better the results. (The early start fallacy)
4. The more English is taught the better the results. (The maximum exposure fallacy)
5. If other languages are used much; the standards of English will drop (The subtraction fallacy)(p. 185).

All the fallacies above are somewhat related to the learners’ L1 in the process of learning L2. He reviews the linguistic dogmas of the past which resulted in these fallacies and argues that there is scientific evidence for rejecting them all. He calls researchers such as Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976), and Cummins (1979, 1984) to provide support against the fallacies. The research works mentioned here are mostly in the area of bilingualism and minority education and support the relationship between cognitive development in L1 and effective L2 learning.

Regarding the social aspects of the dominance of English language, it has been argued that (e.g. Lin, 1999; Pennycook, 1994; Philipson, 1992) the dominance of English language has resulted in a social injustice and language segregation. According to Pennycook (1994) this is not only a dominant position for English

language but also this language (and ELT in general) has become more and more socio-culturally embedded in today's world. Therefore, knowing this language has become an effective factor in people's lives. It can affect their life chances, their social identity and mobility (Lin, 1999).

Regarding EFL settings, Phillipson (1992) argues that the monolingual approach to language teaching is impractical since most teachers are nonnative (p. 192).

2.5 World Englishes and Nonnative Teachers

World Englishes generally are defined as new forms of English emerging in non-English speaking countries. In a broader sense it refers to "a pluralistic approach to the study of English". It is believed that "this approach would enable each learner and speaker of English to reflect his or her own sociolinguistic reality rather than that of a usually distant native speaker" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 173). In recent years, accepting non standard versions of English as the reality of today's language teaching profession has been followed by an increasing interest in the issue of NNS as language teachers (See Braine, 1999; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Cook, 1999; Medgyes, 1994; Tang, 1997). The main argument for supporting this trend is the common knowledge of the first language that the teacher shares with learners. Cook (1999) asserts that this interest is not because the NNS teachers "present a more achievable model" (p. 200). The notion of the multi-competent language teacher is argued to be the advantage of nonnative teachers. Researchers working in this area are concerned about the appropriateness of the

teacher education programs for nonnative teachers and call for changes which can put the non native teachers of English in the “center” rather than “periphery” position by eliminating native- nonnative dichotomy as the main criterion (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, pp. 419-428).

2.6 Code-switching in the Classroom

Code-switching has been a topic of research for linguists, educationists, language researchers and psychologists and even the brain specialists who work on the different functions of the human brain. Within the language classroom code-switching is viewed from an educational point of view and it is directly linked to mother tongue use in the classroom when the learners share the same L1. Edmonson (2004) makes a distinction between code-switching as a general term and code-switching in the classroom and calls the latter a special case of the former (pp. 155-159).

By growing the notion of communication in the language teaching profession, there has been a shift towards group activities rather than individual practices. Long and Porter (1985) review the five pedagogical arguments for using group work in the classroom: (a) increasing the quantity of language input, (b) students’ talk quality improvement, (c) instruction individualizing, (d) positive classroom atmosphere creation, (e) students’ motivation improvement. Besides the previous research arguments they also provide a psycholinguistic rationale to the benefits of group work in the classroom (pp. 207-225).

From a practical perspective, the first concern of the teachers who use group activities in their classes is the shift from TL to L1. They always complain that their students resort to their L1 and in large classes it is really difficult to maintain TL use throughout the class time.

According to Martin-Jones (1995) the early research studied code-switching from an educational point of view whereas the more recent research has focused on applying discourse analysis, pragmatics and ethnography principles (Cook, 2002; Edmonson, 2004; Macaro, 2001). Two main functions have been reported for code switching: (a) discourse related functions and (b) participant related functions (Auer, 1985,1998, in Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005, p. 235). Analyzing code switching in a German content-based classroom, Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005) conclude that the function of code switching in the classroom which was previously argued to be just participant-related can also be discourse-related which was identified as the function of non institutional code switching of bilinguals before. In other words, their research revealed that code switching in the classroom has the elements of code switching in out of the classroom environments. Hancock (1997) explored different layers of code-switching and claimed that:

For the teacher who is worried about the quality of the language practice that learners get in group work, it is important not to assume that all L1 use is "bad" and all L2 use is "good." On the one hand, some L1 interjections are a natural by-product of change in the interaction, and that change could all too easily be defused by an inflexible insistence on the L2. On the other

hand, some L2 contributions are simply recited, in some cases without comprehension, and thus lack any charge. It seems likely that the design and setup of the task will affect the quality of language practice in group work (p. 233).

Macaro (2001) also examined the student teachers' code-switching in the classroom and their decision making in this process. His findings supported Hancock's claims, thus to relieve the teachers who worry about the over use of L1 in group work activities, the results of this study revealed "comparatively low levels of L1 use by the student teachers and little effect of the quantity of student teacher L1 use on the quantity of L1 or L2 use by the learners". (p. 531) His study also suggested that code-switching was not necessarily rooted in the teachers' belief.

2.7 Other Research on Use of L1

Many research works deal with different aspects of L1 in the foreign or second language classroom (Chambers, 1992; Dickson, 1996; Duran, 1994; Franklin, 1990; Hancock, 1997; Kharm & Hajjaj, 1989; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). Here I will turn to three studies on the use of L1 in three different contexts in which English is not the mother tongue. These research studies have been conducted in Canada, Ghana and Iran.

Concerning the cognitive role of L1 in learning L2, Spada and Lightbown (1999) conducted a study on 11-12-year old French students learning English as a second language. The study revealed the influence of L1 on the developmental

sequence of L2 learning. This study showed that “[learners’] judgments of grammaticality and their assumptions about how to create their own questions appear to have been constrained by an interlanguage rule based on their L1” (p. 17). Although Sheen (2000) criticizes their work in terms of methodology and claims that the result concerning the effect of L1 is what we knew from past research, he admits accepting the results.

Regarding a broader scope of L1/TL use, Opoku-Amankwa (2009) conducted a qualitative study to discuss the effects of the recent English-only policy of Ghana on learners’ “communicative practices” and learning in general. Through an ethnographic case study by observing teacher and learner interaction, interviews and focus group discussions he studied a Primary 4 classroom in a multiethnic/multilingual area in Ghana. Finally he draws several benefits for mother tongue/ bilingual education by highlighting the effects of monolingual approach on learners’ “language anxiety and self-esteem”. In other words, the results of this study indicate that “the use of English – an unfamiliar language – creates anxiety among students and stalls effective classroom participation” (p. 121).

Few studies have been done on the role of L1 in the EFL classroom in Iran. Most of the studies in the field of teaching are limited to MA or PhD dissertations of TEFL students in different universities. Nazari (2008) investigated the views of Iranian University students on the use of L1 and the relationship between the learners’ attitudes and their proficiency level. The results showed that university students in Iran have a negative attitude towards L1 use in the EFL classroom.

The role of the learners' mother tongue in the foreign language classroom seems to be elevating as fast as it is moving to the heart of the main professional debates. Hence following the stages of the history of L1 use and regarding the recent research literature we can identify sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic reasons for mother tongue use in the classroom. However the way that L1 is used in actual classroom discourse calls for further insight and exploration.

2.8 Research Concerning Views on the Use of L1 and Context

In a comprehensive review of research on L1 use in the classroom, Rolin-Ienziti and Varshney (2008) classify the research works of the last two decades as “teacher language choice” and “student perspective on L1 use”. Since this study focuses on students' views and the effect of socio-educational context on their attitudes towards L1 usage in the classroom we will just review the part of the literature concerning the focal point of the present research. Following this, a new body of research in the EFL context which has been excluded in previous studies will be described.

The studies dealing with the notion of context and its effect on learners' views have adapted either theories from the cognitive or sociolinguistic framework (Chavez, 2003; Levine, 2003; Macaro, 1997); However they mention the possible effects of context on the results of their studies. We should notice the fact that they report it as a limitation of the study or an intervening variable which is needed to be controlled in future research. Macaro (1997) studied the effect L1 usage on learners' anxiety and notes “a possible impact of teachers' methods on students'

opinion on L1 exclusivity” (p. 104) and Levine (2003) “lists a number of student characteristics (age, gender) and classroom variables (instructor) that may have influenced students’ reported views on the relation between TL amount and anxiety” (p. 348) (Cited in Rolin 2008). Although Chavez’s study falls within a sociolinguistic perspective and she draws attention to some contextual factors such as departmental policy and teaching approaches, the notion of context is not the focus of her attention and she reports these factors in the limitations section concluding that “it is not only difficult to generalize from particular student and teacher populations but these groups themselves can be divided to various subgroups” (p. 193).

To the best of our knowledge, Rolin-Iainziti and Varshney (2008) is the only recent study which focuses on the effect of teaching practices on learners’ view towards the use of L1 in the classroom as the main topic of the research. However it does not go beyond the classroom wall (socio-educational factors) and only explores the effect of immediate teacher practices on learners’ views towards L1 use.

Since learners’ views (alternatively called attitude or perception in the literature) are affected by social factors which are not (or cannot be) controlled, it seems necessary to look at the issue from a broad social perspective to reach a comprehensive interpretation of the phenomenon. Moreover, in the age of globalization and the spread of English as the Lingua Franca of the world from an ecological perspective the whole world dynamics, especially in outer world context, must be taken into account.

2.8.1 Studies in the EFL/ESL Context

Several studies have been done regarding either the use of L1 in the classroom or the learner's perspectives towards the use of L1 in the countries in which English is not the mother tongue.

One of the early studies in which English is not the participants' mother tongue by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) investigated the use of L1 in the ESL classroom to find out whether the L1 was a teaching-learning facilitator or an obstacle to the teaching learning process. The participants were Arabic-speaking students learning English in an ESL setting. The data from teachers' and students' questionnaires, classroom observations, and interviews with teachers and supervisors showed that teachers and learners thought the use of L1 can help foster understanding of content in the classroom. L1 was reported to be a facilitator in giving meaning of difficult points, explaining grammatical structures, saying what could be difficult to say in English, providing contexts for the functional use of language, and guessing meaning. However, a few teachers thought L1 is harmful since it hinders fluency, destroys motivation, distracts students, and increases expectations of more L1 use. Kharma and Hajjaj were mainly concerned about the overuse of L1 or TL in the classroom. They also refer to the contextual factors like the professional and linguistic strategies of the teachers and the previous learning experiences and students' strategies. Yet, these contextual factors are not the center of their study. A recent study on Arab students (but in EFL context of Saudi) confirmed the facilitative benefits reported by students and teachers in Kharma and Hajjaj's study (AlNofaie, 2010).

One of the most recent studies in Japan was conducted by Joyce et al. (2010) to address how teachers can improve L2 learning by “inviting” their students to use their L1. They focused on “the amount of time” teachers give students to use L1 in the classroom and the “frequency of functions” that L1 serves. They also investigated if teacher “invited student use of the L1” is related to “student L2 proficiency”. Supporting the use of L1 in the classroom their study showed that the teachers encourage the use of L1 in certain instances and the teachers decide when and where L1 use occurs in the classroom.

One of the studies on L1 use in the classroom which is not focusing on the contextual factor but has the researcher going beyond the classroom walls and immediate classroom context to interpret the results was conducted by Schweers (1999) in Puerto Rico. The research aimed at teachers’ and learners’ attitudes towards the use of Spanish (learners’ mother tongue) in the classroom, using questionnaire and qualitative data from classroom discourse. The results of this study indicated that “using Spanish has led to positive attitudes toward the process of learning English and, better yet, encourages students to learn more English” (p. 8). Interpreting this popularity of L1 in the context of Puerto Rico, the researcher refers to the socio-educational context of society saying that in his place of teaching (Puerto Rico) the students are reluctant to learn English for “cultural and political reasons.” In his view “welcoming their [learners’] language into classroom as an expression of their own culture could be one way of dispelling negative attitudes towards English” (p. 8). A number of studies in other EFL contexts followed Schweer’s procedure and obtained the same result (Dujmovic, 2007; Shcrrmo, 2006; Tang, 2002).

To the best of my knowledge, the only two studies published on Iranian students' views towards the use of L1 are Nazari (2008) and Mahmoudi & Yazdi Amirkhiz (2011). Nazari (2008) investigated the views of Iranian university students on the use of L1 and the relationship between the learners' attitudes and their level of proficiency. Unlike the other studies in EFL/ESL contexts the results showed that university students in Iran have a negative attitude towards the use of L1 in EFL classroom. Nazari claims "Iranian university students reported reluctance to use their L1" (p.137), although he doesn't interpret the difference between his findings and that of AlNofaie, 2010; Dujmovic, 2007; Kharma and Hajjaj 1989; Shcrrmo, 2006; Tang, 2002; Schweers, 1999. Likewise, Mahmoudi & Yazdi Amirkhiz (2011) concur with Nazari (2008) but do not offer an explanation for their findings (p.121). The analysis of the context of ELT in Iran may throw light on some of the differences that emerge between the Iranian context and other contexts in which L1 is used in L2 classroom.

2.9 Brief Summary of Theoretical Background of Research on L1 Usage

As mentioned in previous sections, from a historical perspective after the reform movement against the traditional GTM (Grammar Translation Method) the use of L1 in the classroom has been questioned. Through the last decades research works have posed different questions to define the role of L1 in the L2 classroom. The early studies dealt with the question "whether L1 should be used in the classroom or not" and some researchers worked on the functions of the L1 in the classroom (See Atkinson, 1987). Later comes a group of studies concerned about the "amount of the use of L1 in the classroom" which use different measures to see

“how much L1/TL are there in the foreign or second language classroom.” In search of balance between the use of L1 and TL in the classroom researchers studied different factors of teaching, learning, learners and context under different theories of SLA.

Theoretically, researchers have been dealing with L1 use in the classroom under three main categories (Macaro, 2009). The first of these involve studies conducted on the cognitive processing effects of the use of L1, which focus on the perceiving, processing and storing of the language. Based on a connectionist view, the studies in the area consider the first and second language as connected entities rather than separate stores in the human mind (See Cook, 2001; Kroll, 1993; Libben, 2000).

So in bilingual language processing both first and second language items are activated and L2 meanings are connected to L1 (Cook, 2001).

The second group of research on L1 use in the classroom is categorized under code switching. Researchers in this area believe that a language learner usually moves from a monolingual condition toward a bilingual status, so we can apply some findings of code switching in bilingualism into our classroom as a bilingual setting. These studies are mainly based on psychological and linguistic grounds. The former one are the situational variables that allow the switch to occur and the latter deals with the factors facilitating the switch (Duran, 1994). However in many researches in this area the social factors are reported to be attached to the codes used by the speakers (Gibbons, 1979).

The third group looks at the use of L1 in the classroom from a sociocultural view (Vygotsky, 1978) supporting the facilitative effects of L1 use in the

classroom. In brief, they deal with the relation of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistic aspects of L1 use in the classroom (see e.g., Brooks & Donato, 1994). Actually they draw a connection between social domain (interpsychological) and cognitive realm (intrapsychological) (Antone & Dicamilla, 1998).

Based on the principles of sociocultural theory, van Lier (2004) developed an ecological perspective, in which language is an activity, not an object, so it is in the world not in the head of the speaker. Providing this theoretical framework meaning, context, activity, learning and development are approached. In this framework, “*meaning* is dialogic and socially constructed” context includes aspects of the physical, social and symbolic worlds (Van Lier, 2004, p. 19).

Analyzing language use from an ecological perspective, Gee (2005) offers a discourse framework. He defines language-in-use in terms of “little d” discourse and “big D” discourse, which is “when little “d” discourse (language-in-use) is melded integrally with non-language “stuff” to enact specific identities and activities” (Gee, 1997 p. 7).

Since the nature of second and foreign language teaching is social as opposed to the individualistic orientation of cognitive studies in SLA, the turn towards more “contextual” analysis of the learners’ code choice makes for a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon and seems to be a necessary change in the this area.

2.10 Orientations to Research on Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse has always been an important tool for researchers and teachers to find the reality behind the educational settings and the relationship between different aspects of the classroom as a part of educational community. Linguistic and behavioral interactions underline the reality of classroom discourse. The most important role of classroom discourse analysis is “helping to explicate the actions in which the primary goal of schools -- learning -- is realized.” (Adger, 2003, p. 1) Adger reviews a rich literature of “discourse in educational setting” in her chapter under the same title in which she tries to report the important changes in this area. A quick look at the changes described in this introduction will indicate a general pattern of movement from mere language based methods towards interdisciplinary ones which mainly benefit from fields such as psychology, sociology and anthropology. Being affected by these fields, discourse analysis has influenced linguistics, psychology, anthropology and recently politics and law by employing powerful multidisciplinary and multidimensional methodologies and the range of the fields benefitting from discourse analysis as a comprehensive way of responding to inquiries of human science studies is increasing.

Since “discourse analysis” has been widely used it has gained different definitions. I think that is why Zuengler (2008), in defining discourse, raised the question “how do your theoretical perspective and your research process define discourse?” Answering the question, she claims “there seems to be a relationship between underlying epistemology and the resulting methodology on the one hand, and what is understood to be discourse on the other hand.” (p. 73) To give a clearer picture of orientations to classroom discourse first, briefly I will try to define

approaches to discourse analysis and then the resulting methodologies; these include underlying ideas and methods of data collection to be presented and rearranged in a proposed model.

The studies in discourse analysis can be divided into two main categories: (a) those which mainly engage in linguistic aspects of discourse; and (b) the studies dealing with the sociological and psychological aspects of discourse. Discussing the whole area of discourse is beyond the scope of this study and here I will focus on classroom discourse analysis as a part of educational discourse analysis and I will emphasize different orientations towards classroom discourse.

As Mehan (1985) reports in his article on the structure of classroom discourse, when anthropological views were developed in this field, the question of participation in society was phrased by this question: “what do people need in order to operate in a manner that is acceptable to others in the society?” and a similar question was asked about the educational community: “what do teachers and students need to know in order to participate effectively in classroom lessons and other classroom contexts?” (p. 119). This question turns to the main goal of classroom discourse analysis research and the researchers started to examine the structure of classroom discourse. From the educational viewpoint, the classroom is a place where students learn different subjects such as math, history, and so forth. Meanwhile they practice social knowledge. So it is obvious that most of the researchers look at classroom discourse as a part of community in which the social elements play an important role.

Mehan (1985) summarizes some similarities and differences between everyday and educational discourse: first he mentions that classroom lessons are a

form of speech events; second, they are interactional like other speeches; third, the speech shifts from party to party in a sequential organization, and fourth, in the classroom “speakers take turns, overlapping utterances are not highly valued, and access to the floor is obtained in a systematic way” (p. 125). Later he argues that despite the similarities, classroom discourse and discourse in everyday life are not exactly the same. For one, the turn taking and timing patterns of classroom discourse which is mainly allocated by teachers does not match the normal conversation patterns (p. 126). Another difference lies in the question-answer sequence of educational settings compared to the everyday life discourse. “The question- answer sequences of classroom are followed by evaluation rather than acknowledgment” (p. 127).

Similarities of classroom and everyday life discourse and different orientations towards the classroom as a part of the community or schools as institutions which are considered a community within a larger society has led to two main perspectives in educational discourse analysis namely micro-level and macro-level approaches.

2.11 Approaches to Discourse Analysis

2.11.1 Micro level approach

At this level the classroom is considered as a local communication place. In terms of Bloom et al. (2008) it “emphasize(s) face-to-face interactions, the immediate situation, and local events” (p. 20); in this definition face-to-face refers

to immediate social interaction such as telephone calls too and it does not indicate the physical presence of participants only. In this view the face-to-face discourse processes build up the bigger circle of social, cultural, and political patterns in the macro level. According to Bloom the following questions might be foregrounded in this level:

1-what cultural themes are generated through discoursing at the level of face-to-face interaction...?

2-what interpretive frameworks are constructed through the discourse of face-to-face interaction within a particular set of language and literacy events for interpreting and acting on the world beyond the local level? (p. 23)

2.11.2 Macro level approach

In this level the emphasis is on the macro structures of society such as social relations, culture politics, and power relationships. Here the macro structures influence what happens on a face-to-face level. Bloom (2008) gives some sample questions which can foreground this level:

“1-How are race, class, and gender relations in the broad society reflected in the discourse within a classroom?

2-how are economic structures and processes reflected in and influencing how teachers and students converse with each other, their social relationship, and identities?” (p. 21)

Having defined the approaches the most important issue which must be considered carefully is the relationship between these two approaches, which we turn to here.

2.11.3 The Relationship Between Macro and Micro Level Approach

It is really difficult to conduct research at both micro and macro level and a quick look at the discourse related research shows that each have emphasized one side more than the other but from my point of view discussing the existence of one at the expense of the other will resemble the fallacy of chicken and egg; hence the relationship here is a dialectic one. A closer look at the nature of interaction --as the main element of discourse-- and the context in which it happens raises the question of whether interaction builds the context or the context shapes the interaction. Jorgensen and Philips (2002) believe that:

With language, we create representations of reality that are never mere reflections of a pre-existing reality but contribute to constructing reality. That does not mean that reality itself does not exist. Meanings and representations are real. Physical objects also exist, but they only gain meaning through discourse. (pp. 8-9)

In other words interaction makes the context and context shapes the interaction and in a broader sense *discourse* makes the macro structure and macro structures shape *discourse*. So the relationship between macro and micro level approaches must be dynamic and dialectical which can shape or reshape one another. Through this argument we can claim that both levels can exist simultaneously in any discourse

study, but the topic and the research methodology can define the locus of the emphasis on the side of either micro or macro level approach. Figures 3 and 4 show the relative locus of emphasis in micro and macro level approaches. To make a clearer sense of what I mean here in these diagrams, the analogy of parallel mirrors can be used.

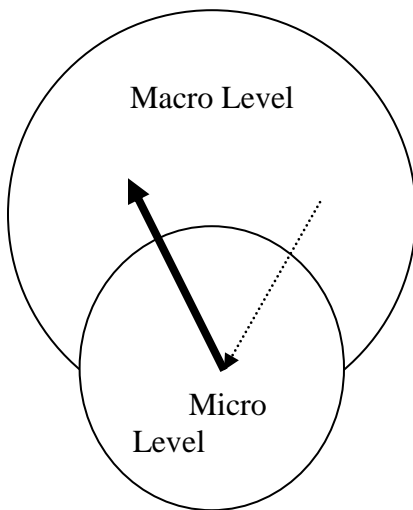


Figure 4. Micro level focused approach.

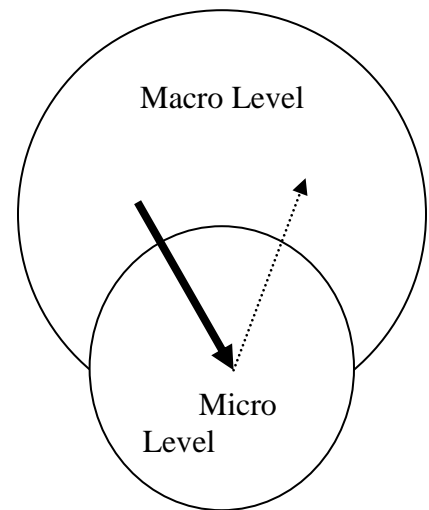


Figure 3. Macro level focused approach.

The appropriate approach to a researcher's study is thus based on the research questions and the researcher's inclinations towards the methodology of the research.

2.12 Approach, Methodology and Method

Before elaborating this topic let us make a distinction between approach, methodology and method, since these terms are used interchangeably in some research studies. I will use the terms but not with the same meaning. As discussed above, an approach is the general way of dealing with the discourse. Methodology refers to the scope of the knowledge related to the topic of the research and its underlying concepts which can act as a framework for providing better understanding of the research area and a method here is a way of collecting and analyzing data. One may ask about the connection of method and methodology as one includes the other. Here I will agree with Smart (2008) that “a methodology is a method *plus* an underlying set of ideas about the nature of reality and knowledge” (p. 56). So, from now I will use methodology as an umbrella term which includes the ideas about the nature of classroom discourse and the ways of collecting and analyzing data.

2.13 Classroom Discourse Analysis Methodologies

A quick look at recent works on discourse (Bhatia et al., 2008; Jorgen & Philips, 2002; Mckay, 2006; Walsh, 2006) shows different categorizations of the notion of classroom discourse mixing terms of approach, methodology and method. Here I suggest a continuum for categorizing different methodologies in classroom discourse studies under the light of approaches which were discussed earlier.

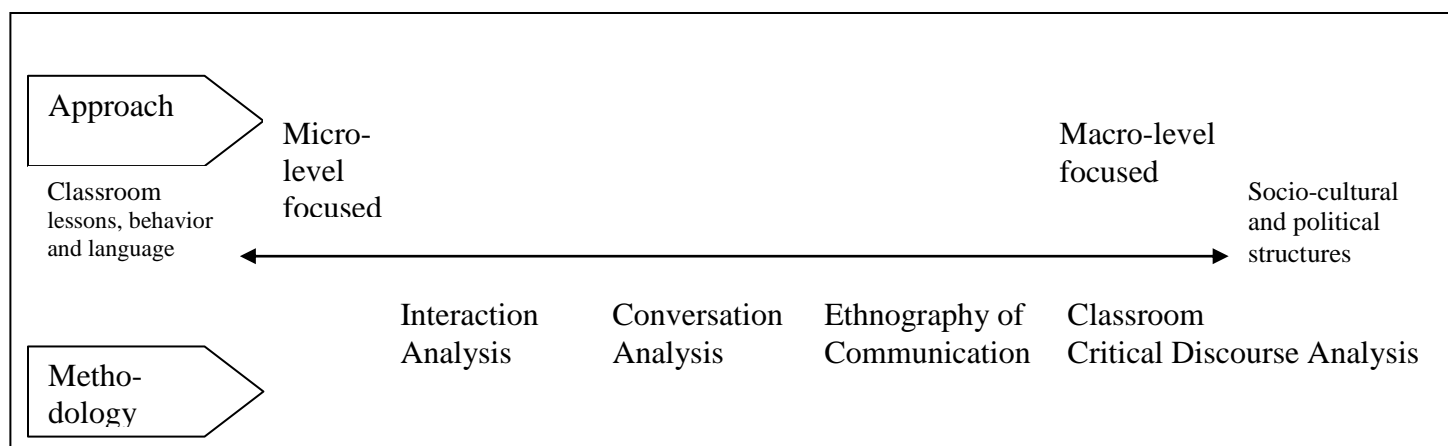


Figure 5. Methodologies continuum of classroom discourse study.

According to this continuum we will define these methodologies on the continuum of two approaches (Micro-level focused and Macro-level focused). As obvious from Figure 5 different methodologies can be explained across the continuum of micro and macro level approaches. At one extreme we have linguistic studies of discourse which mainly follow a structuralist view in their analysis and mostly deploy a quantitative perspective toward classroom language, texts and interaction units and at the other extreme we have interdisciplinary, socio-cultural or political theories of sociolinguistics which mainly deal with social problems hoping for a better democratic society.

Interaction analysis is not generally regarded as a methodology of discourse analysis since some scholars (Kumaravadivelu, 1999; McKay, 2006; Walsh, 2006) believe that it merely engages in linguistic aspects of separate units of interaction rather than concerning itself with the context which encompasses discourse. However Gee (1999) in defining the term “discourse” made a distinction between Discourse with big “D” and discourse with little “d” where he says “when

little ‘d’ discourse (language-in-use) is melded integrally with non-language ‘stuff’ to enact specific identities and activities, then, I say the “big D” Discourses are involved.” (p. 7). Here, I will consider interaction analysis as one of the mythologies which works in the “discourse” / Micro-level focused domain. For conversation analysis also there are some disagreements among specialists; for one, McKay (2006) puts it under the discourse division while Walsh (2006) used “conversation analysis approaches” and “discourse analysis approaches” separately. In this continuum here I will consider it as a methodology which stands between “discourse”/Micro-level and “Discourses” /Macro level. Now let us take a closer look at each methodology.

2.13.1 Interaction Analysis

According to Walsh (2006) this methodology to classroom discourse is regarded as one of the most “reliable”, quantitative methodologies for analyzing classroom interaction. The primary goal of this methodology is to provide an “objective and scientific” analysis of classroom discourse. To do so, it uses a variety of classroom observation or coding system devices. Regarding the second language classroom, McKay (2006) summarizes the aims of these coding systems as follows:

1. “Determine what kind of classroom interaction best promotes L2 learning.
- 2 .Evaluate teachers to determine whether or not they use patterns of communication that have been shown effective.

3. Train prospective teachers to use a variety of communication patterns in their classrooms” (p. 90).

So far the aim of this methodology is to find the effective patterns of classroom interaction through classroom observation devices. According to the long history of this methodology in communication analysis in the 1960s and 1970s, there are over 200 different coding systems which have been categorized from different dimensions. A description of all available instruments for this methodology is beyond the scope of the present study. Here I will just refer to two recent categorizations of these observation instruments offered by McKay (2006) and Walsh (2006). Suggested categories have been made under the notion of systematicity. McKay puts the instruments under the categories of “Generic coding systems” and “Limited systems” whereas Walsh uses “system-based approaches” and “Ad hoc approaches” instead.

2.13.1.1 System-based Methods or Generic Coding Systems

As the name of these kinds of coding systems suggests, they are more systematic or generic ways for collecting data via classroom observation. These instruments generally have some fixed predetermined categories and since they have been used in different research studies and are well known it is argued that they do not need validation. For this category McKay (2006) just refers to COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) as the most widely used generic coding system whereas Walsh (2006) adds some older devices to the list. Here I turn to a brief description of each instrument.

1. SSRR (Structure, Solicit, Response, React)

It was developed by Bellack et al. in 1966 and is one of the first attempts to identify teaching cycles in classroom interaction and later by the works of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) it was developed into a more complex model. This model is now commonly known as IRF/E (Initiation, Response, and Feedback/Evaluation) and is still considered as an important cycle in classroom interaction.

2. FIAC (Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories)

This instrument divides the whole process of classroom interaction into three main parts: Teacher Talk, Pupil Talk, and Silence. Seven (7) out of the overall 10 defined categories of this method belong to teacher talk and it is argued that it is biased on the teacher's side. However, its broad categories make it adaptable for today's complex classroom interactions. It is argued that the categories are subjective, difficult to prove and label.

3. FLINT (Foreign Language INteraction)

It is the extension of FIAC developed by Moskowitz (1971) which increased the categories from 10 to 22 for special methodological consideration of the foreign language classroom.

4. COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching)

It was originally made by Allen, Frohlich, and Spada in 1983. According to the authors "the instructional variables selected for examination in the COLT scheme have been motivated by a desire to describe as precisely as possible some of the features of communication which occur in second language classroom" (p. 233). As the name of the instrument suggests, it has been directly devised for

communicative methodology. Like other devices it aims at finding patterns of classroom interaction and their effect on teaching outcome. To reach this goal, 73 categories of this instrument try to capture the complexities of the nature of communicative classroom interaction. It has two parts: the first part is completed at the classroom real time at the level of activity to picture classroom procedures but its second part is completed afterwards from the transcription of recorded data to show the verbal interaction between teacher and students.

5. COLT (*revised*)

In 1995 Spada and Frohlich published a book titled “Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme: Coding Conventions & Applications.” In the book they tried to contextualize the scheme within a broader discussion of L2 theory, research and practice which affected its development besides describing the use of COLT in relation to changes which have taken place in L2 learning and teaching in the 10 years since the introduction of the observation scheme (Block, 1997). To reach the goal of this revision which was carried out by COLT designers, some new categories were added to make it more comprehensive than before although the authors admitted that for a detailed study of classroom conversational discourse we will need other methods of coding and data analysis too.

2.13.1.2 Ad hoc Methods or Limited Coding Systems

In these methods the categories are designed based on the particular situation of the classroom and research design. This kind of method is much more

flexible and tailored for particular contexts. McKay (2006) refers to the limited coding system of Brown and Rodgers (2002) in which students are provided with a set of pictures telling a story and the students should find the logical order of the pictures with a partner. Then some categories like “Proposal”, “support”, “non-support”... are used to analyze the moves which particularly occur in such an activity. Another example of this kind of methods is called SETT (Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk) which Walsh (2006) has designed to “help teachers gain a fuller understanding of the relationship between language use, interaction and opportunities for learning.” (p. 44) In the SETT framework features of teacher talk include: scaffolding, direct repair, content feedback...and the examples of the researcher’s recording for each feature is written down. Finally the Key will help the teacher or researcher to analyze and interpret the data.

2.13.2 Conversation Analysis

Conversation Analysis analyzes and interprets naturally occurring conversations in relation to the speakers’ achievements, meaning and context. It mainly deals with the sequential order of talk which enables the participant to make sense of the talk and contribute to the situation. According to the views of Heritage (1997) and Walsh (2006), based on conversation analysis methodology “interaction is *context-shaped* and *context-renewing*; That is, “one contribution is dependent on a previous one and subsequent contributions create a new context for later action” (p. 50). Besides analyzing natural daily conversations this methodology is also applied to different workplaces to analyze institutional interactions such as doctor-

patient or teacher-student. Regarding the use of conversation analysis for classroom interaction Walsh states that “possibly the most important role of CA is to *interpret* from the data rather than *impose* predetermined structural or functional categories.” (Italics in original) (p. 52). This important point can be considered as one of the differences of conversation analysis and interaction analysis methodologies. Lazaraton (2002) summarizes the principles of this methodology as follows:

1. Authentic recorded data are carefully transcribed.
2. Unmotivated looking rather than pre-stated research questions are used.
3. The turn is employed as the unit of analysis.
4. Single cases, deviant cases, and collection can be analyzed.
5. Ethnographic and demographic particulars of the context and the participants are disregarded.
6. The coding and quantification of data is eschewed. (pp. 37-38)

The basic structures of conversation analysis are: 1- turn-taking organization which is divided to turn constructional components and turn allocation components; 2- sequence organization which includes adjacency pairs, pre-sequences, and preference organization; 3- repair; and 4- action formation. Using these basics the researcher grounds his/her analysis.

2.13.3 Ethnography of Communication

Generally speaking ethnographic-based research tries to get a deeper insight into the phenomenon in the life of people. Smart (2008) referring to Greetzian interpretive ethnography says:

[It] is used to explore a particular social group's practice-- as these are instantiated in writing, speaking, or other symbolic actions-- in order to learn how members of the group view and operate within their mutually constructed conceptual world. The goal of such research is to gain a quasi-insiders understanding of how group members interact and communicate with one another, what they believe and value, how they define and solve problems, how they create and apply knowledge, and how they accomplish learning and work (p. 56).

To achieve this goal the ethnographer uses a variety of data collection methods, including interviews, survey, observation, field notes, recorded data, and texts. After data are gathered and analyzed "the researcher works to produce a thick description of the local conceptual world that is discursively created and maintained by the group under study" (p. 57). Something that might obscure the mind is the fact that in most of the methodologies discussed so far the main data comes from recorded data from classroom participant or non-participant observation so it might be difficult to find the differences between methodologies. Previously we discussed the differences of interaction analysis and conversation analysis; now let us see the difference between ethnography of communication and conversation analysis. As discussed before the underlying idea of conversation analysis deals with the immediate effects of sequences of interaction and context on each other while ethnography of communication concerns with achieving a holistic perspective of the situation. According to this methodological difference the methods of data collection will also vary. However they might have some instruments in common.

For Lazaraton (2002) the most important difference between ethnography of communication and conversation analysis is the fact that the first one uses transcribed data as “just one (and not necessarily the most important) source of information that should be considered in documenting cultural practice” (p. 40).

2.13.4 Classroom Critical Discourse Analysis (CCDA)

Considering CCDA a subcategory of Critical Discourse Analysis we need to know recent orientations towards this methodology. Flowerdew (2008) reviewing several researchers’ perspectives towards Critical Discourse Analysis states that “CDA is not a theory *per se*, but it draws on a range of theories and uses a variety of methods. As such, CDA is perhaps better referred to as an approach which draws on various theories and methods.” (p. 198) Supporting his view Rogers (2004) also believes that “CDA is both a theory and a method” describing the applications of CDA she continues:

Researchers who are interested in the relationship between language and society use CDA to help them describe, interpret, and explain such relationships. CDA is different from other discourse analysis methods because it includes not only a description and interpretation of discourse in context, but also offers an explanation of why and how discourse works. (p. 2)

Cole (2008) asserts that “many authors who use CDA come to this methodology because they believe that with its tools, it is possible to interrupt

“normal” or “hegemonic” discourses and create a major just and democratic society” (p. 104) As proof of her statement she brings Van Dijk’s (2001) argument on the use of CDA for focusing on social problems in terms of power relationships and taking the experience of the members into account to support the researchers’ “struggle against inequality”. Regarding the definition and application, CCDA as a subcategory of CDA is also considered as a methodology which includes underlying ideas (as a theory) and techniques of data collection (as a method). Conceptualizing this methodology, Kumaravadivelu (1999) introduces the following premises and principles:

1. Classroom discourse, like all other discourses, is socially constructed, politically motivated, and historically determined.
2. The radicalized, stratified, and gendered experiences that discourse participants bring to the classroom setting are motivated and modeled not just by the learning and teaching episodes they encounter in the classroom but also by the broader linguistic, social, economic, political, and historical milieu in which they all grow up.
3. An analysis of classroom discourse must necessarily include an analysis of the discursive practices and discursive formations that support the structure of dominant discourses.
4. An analysis of classroom discourse must include an analysis of various forms of resistance and how they affect business of learning and teaching.
5. Language teachers can ill afford to ignore the socio-cultural reality that influences identity formation in and outside the classroom, or can they afford to

separate learners' linguistic needs and wants from their socio-cultural needs and wants.

6. The negotiation of discourse's meaning and its analysis should not be confined to the acquisitional aspects and interaction...they should also take into account discourse participants' complex and competing expectations and beliefs, identities and fears and anxieties.

7. Any CCDA needs to identify and understand possible mismatches between intentions and interpretations of classroom aims and events.

8. CCDA should be concerned with an assessment of the extent to which critical engagement is facilitated in the classroom.

9. Teachers need to identify the necessary knowledge and skills to observe, analyze and evaluate their own classroom discourse so that they can, without depending too much upon external agencies, theorize what they practice and practice what they theorize (pp. 472-473).

Obviously, according to these principles, this methodology is placed on the one extreme side of the model (Figure 5) which mainly concerns the socio-cultural and political issues. But what are the data collection methods?

Kumaravadivelu (1999) explains that critical ethnography uses different sources of data and different data collection instruments. Like ethnographic-based research CCDA also uses a variety of methods such as participant and non-participant observation, survey, recorded and transcribed data and so on to reach the "thick description " and "thick explanation".

2.14 Interaction Analysis and Data Collection Methods

In the previous section I briefly mentioned interaction analysis as one of the orientations to research on classroom discourse; here I will turn to the literature related to each method of data collection under the methodology of Interaction analysis.

2.14.1 Views and Reviews on COLT

“Communication Orientation of Language teaching Observation Scheme: Coding Conventions & Applications” by Spada and Frohlich (1995) was published to introduce the new COLT and show the abilities and applications of this instrument. Block (1997) in his review on this book states that the authors have tried to put this scheme within a broader scope of L2 research, theory and practice and adapt this instrument to the changes of the field.

In the first chapter of the book explaining the role of COLT in relation to the advancements of the field the authors refer to three major influences on the development of COLT:

(1) the boom in literature on communicative language teaching literature led to a need for studies which might compare the communicative orientation of L2 programs; (2) the boom in the development of the observation schemes meant to describe classroom *processes* as a reaction to an earlier period of method comparison studies which concentrated on classroom *product* led to the need for an observation scheme which would investigate both process and product. (3) the perceived need for observation

categories base on SLA research findings, which had psychological validity.
(p. 125)

The categories of the new COLT have been described in the second chapter of the book.

This chapter describes the research foundation of the instrument and puts it in a broad context of SLA research. In another article from Spada and Lyster (1997) the categories of COLT have been characterized as: “theoretically driven” meaning that “Their conceptualization was derived from a comprehensive review of theories of communicative language teaching, theories of communication, and theories of first and second language acquisition (SLA) research” (p. 788)

Chapters three and four provide real classroom examples of COLT coding which can be really helpful. Chapter five aims at providing clear guidelines for the analysis, synthesis and presentation of data coded by this instrument and the last chapter presents 11 studies from different contexts to show how this instrument have been used in real research project internationally.

Giving a description of COLT, Dornyei (2007) states that “due to its elaborate category system and the high-profile research it has been used in, COLT has been highly influential in L2 classroom research.” (p. 181) According to Spada and Lyster (1997) the COLT instrument permits both quantitative and qualitative analysis L2 classroom interaction.

2.14.2 SETT(Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk)

The most recent framework proposed by Walsh (2006) is called SETT (Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk). Walsh grounded his argument for establishing this framework on the following premises:

1. The L2 classroom context is made up of a series of contexts linked to the social, political, cultural and historical beliefs of the participants (cf. Kumaravadivelu, 1999).
2. Contexts are created by players through participation, face- to- face ‘meaning making’ and through a process of ‘language socialization’ (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000, p. 156).
3. The relationship between communication and pedagogic goals warrants closer understanding since it offers a finer grained framework for developing an understanding of L2 classroom interaction (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 62).

This framework tends to go beyond the classic triadic IRF patterns and provides a rationale for establishing SETT. The writer states that:

Broadly speaking, the concern was to construct an instrument which fairly represented the fluidity of the second language classroom context, which portrayed the relationship between pedagogic goals and language use, which acknowledged that meanings and actions are co-constructed through the interaction of the participants, and which facilitated the description of interactional features, especially of teacher language. In addition, there was

some concern to contribute to work that has been done on the relationship between language use and second language acquisition. (p. 63)

As stated above, this framework is concerned with establishing a description of the relationship between teacher talk and learning objectives. As the name of this framework suggests one may think it can be used in teacher fronted classes for self evaluation. However, by devoting one chapter of the book and providing some examples from different contexts the writer claims that this framework can be applied to different research settings such as:

1. Investigating the primary classroom
2. investigating EFL secondary classrooms
3. investigating the medium of education
4. investigating higher education interaction

2.14.2.1 How does SETT work?

1. Broadly speaking, SETT works on four main micro-contexts, “characterized by specific patterns of turn taking called modes” (p. 64) which are defined as “the interrelatedness of language use and teaching purpose” (p. 62) : 1-managerial mode 2- classroom context mode 3-skills and systems mode 4-materials mode. Walsh explains that other modes can be incorporated into this framework. The modes are assigned by pedagogic goals and interactional features which “are based on the assumption that all interaction in the L2 classroom is goal-oriented and are demonstrated in the talk-in-interaction of the lesson” (p. 65) Appendix E

shows the modes, their pedagogical goals and interactional features, Appendix F summarizes the description of interactional features and Appendix G shows the SETT instrument. Following the tables comes the writer's suggested procedure for teachers who want to evaluate their own classroom which can be adapted and used by a researcher to record classroom interaction in relation to pedagogical goals and interactional features

The next chapter provides the research methodology of the present study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter first I introduce the participants and research site and then give a detailed description of the instrument, data collection and data analysis procedures.

3.2 Participants

Participants in this study involve two institutes in the city of Qazvin, Iran. In language institute T (which had a TL only policy) one class of 11 learners, their teacher and institute manager participated in this study. In the second language institute (Institute F in which first language was allowed) a class of 16 learners with their teacher and the institute manager participated in this study. All learners in both institutes had registered in an EFL beginner level (summer 2010) program and they came with a high school background and their age ranged between 15 and 22. English teachers from the high schools in which some of the participant learners (from the language institutes) were studying also participated in this study. All the participant teachers held a bachelor degree in TEFL and had at least two years of

teaching experience. The managers also had more than two year managerial experience.

3.3 Research Site

This study was conducted in Qazvin, a city which is called “the junction” because of its strategic location in Iran. Qazvin has attracted many people from different parts of the country since it is an industrial city. It is just 140 km away from the capital city, Tehran. Among other cities in Iran it is one of the cities with the most number of language institutes which are highly active and competitive in business with various approaches to teaching methodology; they have different orientations towards using L1 in the classroom. This provides a rich setting to investigate the approaches and beliefs towards the use of L1 in the classroom.

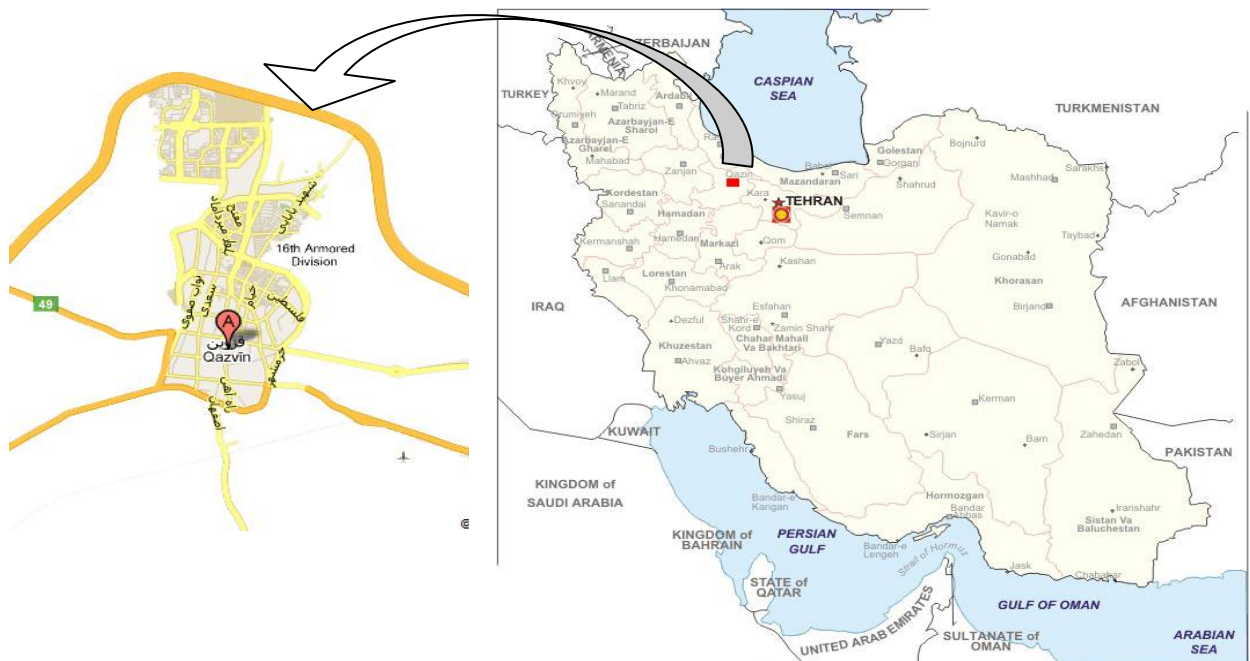


Figure 6. The map of the research site

3.4 Sampling

Since this study intends to investigate the use of L1 in classroom discourse regarding classroom interactions, learners, teachers and managers' beliefs a purposeful sampling process based on the orientations of the institutes towards the use of L1 in the classroom and CLT methodology was conducted. To find two institutes with different approaches towards the use of L1 in the classroom and learners with the characteristics needed for this study, first meetings with institute managers were arranged and preliminary interviews were conducted to find out:

1. The institutional orientation towards the use of L1
2. The material they use in the classroom
3. The learners' age range in each level
4. The beginners' educational background

Based on the information gathered, two institutes with different orientations towards L1 use in the classroom were chosen. One was an institute which allowed the use of L1 in the classroom (institute F hereafter) and the other was one which followed a TL only policy (institute T hereafter). These two institutes used the same material and had high school students registered at the beginners' level. After choosing the participant institutes, class schedules were reviewed to arrange the observation program for both institutes. At the second stage the high schools in which the learner participants were studying was identified and the permission for entry was obtained from the Education and Training Organization to conduct the necessary observations and interviews in the selected schools. After having done this, the data collection procedures started, which will be described shortly.

3.5 Instruments

To get a holistic picture of L1 use in classroom discourse this study used different quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and instruments. To study classroom interactions at the level of activity and verbal interaction within the interaction analysis methodology both parts of COLT (part A and B) were used. Learners' beliefs were studied through a questionnaire (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008) and focus group discussions. Since the learners were at the beginner level, the questionnaire was translated into Persian (learners' first language) and back translated to English by two experts to check the validity of the translation. Teachers and managers participated in an interview to talk about their beliefs towards the use of L1. To get a deeper insight into the use of L1 in the classroom discourse observational notes were taken during the data collection procedure. Here I will turn to a description of each instrument.

3.5.1 The Questionnaire

Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008) devised a questionnaire to study the learners' beliefs towards the use of L1 in the classroom which was published in the *Canadian Modern Language Review*. This questionnaire has two parts (see Appendix I) and the authors describe them as follows:

The first contains 21 closed questions, answered on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The second comprises two open-ended questions asking students to 'list three or more advantages or

disadvantages' to using English in the foreign language classroom. The closed questions assess student views in three main areas of particular relevance to this study: TL exclusivity (3, 7, 9, 13, 16), teacher use of L1/TL in medium-oriented interactions to teach vocabulary (2, 5, 6) and grammar (1, 11, 19), and L1/TL use in framework-oriented interactions for the organization of classroom activities (10) and assessment (14) (p. 257).

As it was mentioned earlier, COLT is the most recent instrument used in this area of research and it has been in an international journal. Besides, the design of the questionnaire allows quantitative and qualitative study of the learners' beliefs. There are questions cross checking the reliability of the responses on the quantitative part of the questionnaire.

3.5.2 COLT: Communicative Orientation to Language Teaching

The most famous and widely used instrument for coding classroom interaction is COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) which was developed in the Modern Language Center at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (see Chapter 2 for views and reviews on COLT). The early version of this scheme first appeared in a conference in Toronto Canada on March 1983 by Allen, Frohlich, and Spada. Allen et al. (1983) describe this scheme as "a classroom observation technique that describes classroom events at the level of activity and analyzes the communicative features of verbal exchanges between students and teachers within each activity" (p. 228). They claim that "it provides a framework for

comparing various features of classroom discourse with patterns of natural language use outside the classroom” (p. 247).

The following activity characteristics are identified in this scheme (Part A: activity analysis):

1. type
2. participant organization
3. content
4. student modality or skill used
5. materials

The communicative features described in this scheme (part B: exchange analysis) include:

1. the use of target language
2. information gap
3. sustained speech
4. reaction to code or message
5. incorporation of preceding utterances
6. discourse initiation
7. relative restriction of linguistic form

They also describe the details of each part in this paper. However, in the abstract they mention that “additional data for different class types....are under analysis” (p. 1). Later in 1985 they published a full description of the process of the development of COLT in *TESOL Quarterly*, the definition of the categories from that paper can be seen in Appendix D. To get a clearer picture of the instrument a

comparison of old and new version of COLT (see appendices B and C) is brought here.

3.5.2.1 A comparison of COLT(A) 1985 and COLT (A) 1995

All major categories have remained the same except one change in the Content category. The sub category of “Topic Control” has changed to a new category called “Content Control”. The rest of the changes occur in sub-categories and their detail columns. Now let us look at the categories, sub categories and detail columns one by one.

I. Participant Organization

There are two changes in this category. In 1985 the last sub of this category was “Comb.” With two columns namely “Individual” and “Gr/Indv.” indicating whether the participants work individually or some are working in groups and others work on their own. In 1995 the sub category has changed to “Individual” and the detailed columns show that the individuals are doing the “same task” or a “different task”.

II. Content

This category with four sub categories has changed much. The first two subs namely “Man” and “Language” have remained untouched while the other two subs – “Other Topics” and “Topic Control”-- have been changed. In 1985 “Other topics” had three sub groups--“Narrow”, “Limited”, and “Broad”-- with four detail columns for each to record the topic of the activity and show whether this activity is about a narrow topic like “classroom” or a limited one such as “school” or a broader topic like “world”. In 1995 this sub was reduced to two columns –“Narrow” and “Broad”

–making it easier for the observer to decide in real time coding. Another big change in this category is that a sub has been rearranged in the form of a new category, while the old version had a sub named “Topic Control” to show who selects the topic being talked about, the teacher, the student or both, the new version has a category –“Content Control” – to show who is controlling the content: teacher and text, teacher-text and student, or student alone.

III. Student Modality

There has been no change in this category.

IV. Materials

The first difference we can see here is a change of name in one of the subs. “Use” has been changed to “source”. Most of the columns--except the first two--have changed. Three columns “pedagogic”, “semi-pedagogic”, and “non-pedagogic” found in the old version have been removed in the new one. Besides the sub category “use” had three columns showing the kind of control on the activity is “high”, “semi” or “mini” while the new version is labeled by “source” having four columns indicating whether the materials come from L2 native speaker, L2 Non-Native speaker, L2 NSA, or it is “student made”.

3.5.2.2 A comparison of COLT(B) 1985 and COLT (B) 1995

This part has been divided into two sections: “Teacher verbal interaction” and “Student verbal interaction” for which we will examine the changes in each respectively:

I. Target Language

This category has remained untouched.

II. Information Gap

This category has remained untouched.

III. Sustained Speech

This category has remained unchanged.

IV. Reaction to form / message

In the old version this category had only one column named “Explicit reaction code” but in the new one it has been divided to two columns namely “Form” and “Message” to make it easier for the observer to code.

V. Incorporation of the students’ utterances

In this part, one column has been added and one has changed. The new column is used if the teachers’ verbal interaction is for “correction.” There was a column indicating “no incorporation” in the old version which has been replaced by “Clarif. Request.”

Now let us see what happened to the “student verbal interaction” section: A quick look at the categories shows that there has been no change in the major parts of this section. Unlike other sections this part has two separate columns--“Choral” and “discourse initiation”-- which have not been categorized under any of the main categories. In the new version the first one which is the first column of this section has been moved to the “Form restriction” category and the second one has been placed in the first column position. Let us continue comparing the categories:

VI. Choral

This part has been moved to “form restriction” category.

VII. Target Language

This category has remained unchanged.

VIII. Sustained Speech

This category has no change.

IX. Form Restriction

This category had three columns namely “restricted”, “limited”, and “unrestricted”. As we can see there are two synonymous words in this category in which one (“limited”) has been replaced by “Choral” as mentioned earlier.

X. Reaction to form/message

In the old version this category had only one column named “Explicit reaction code” but in the new one it has been divided to two columns namely “Form” and “Message” to make it easier for the observer to code.

XI. Incorporation of student/teacher utterances

In this part one column has been added and one has changed. The new column is used if the teachers’ verbal interaction is for “correction.” there was a column indicating “no incorporation” in the old version which has been replaced by “Clarif. Request”.

Comparing old and new COLT indicates that the changes have been made in four general directions to make COLT more effective in classroom research:

1. for the ease of the observer to be able to make a faster decision in real time coding.
2. for giving a clearer and more accurate picture of the activity being described.
3. for avoiding repetitions.
4. for making COLT a more versatile instrument which can be widely used in different research settings.

Finally it is worth mentioning that it is not necessary to use both parts of this instrument. Depending on the nature of the investigation the researcher can choose either part A or B. Spada and Lyster (1997) in emphasizing this issue state that:

Depending on the reasons for its use, however, it may not be (and, indeed, in most cases is not) necessary to use both parts of the scheme or all the categories within each part. For example, some users whose goals are to obtain a general picture of the communicative orientation of teaching in L2 classrooms at the level of pedagogical activities will find it adequate to use COLT, Part A. If one's research goals are to closely examine a specific feature of the linguistic interactions between students and teachers, a more focused and detailed description is required. In such cases, one is free to either select or adapt the relevant categories from a more comprehensive scheme (e.g., features on COLT, Part B) or develop a new set of categories (p.789).

3.6 Validity of COLT

Since the present research is a process-oriented study, it solely uses the features of COLT A and B describing classroom activities and classroom discourse regarding the use of L1 in the classroom, so learning outcomes are not considered here and only the validity of categories are discussed.

In the introduction of COLT observation scheme the authors give a historical account of the developmental process of designing COLT. They discuss

three themes from second language learning and teaching literature. First they ground their argument on the widespread acceptance of communicative approach (CLT) by referring to SLA research and theories of applied linguistics. Then a gap is identified since general theoretical terms do not mean the same thing to everyone (p. 3) and the need for an instrument which can capture the different orientations towards communicative approach (CLT) is raised. The final theme which is of great importance for the validity of this instrument is that COLT is a response to the need for psycholinguistic validity in observation categories (p. 6) the authors say:

...we wanted to identify those features of instruction which communicative theorist and L2 researchers consistently referred to as contributors to successful learning. We also wanted to identify features of communication and interaction which were believed to be important contributors to successful language learning in the L1 research literature (p. 6).

Besides, the authors provide a theoretical rationale for each category of the instrument which makes it more valid as a theory driven instrument. For example for one of the categories namely “use of target language” which has two sub categories of “L2” and “L1” they provide the following rationale:

This category is based on the obvious assumption that in order for L2 development to occur, the target language must be used. It also permits an investigation of whether, in classroom where the students share the L1, more communicative interactions tend to take place in the L1 rather than the L2 (p. 21).

In addition to the amount of L1 used in classroom interaction, well defined categories of COLT can provide detailed features of L1 use in the classroom in a very systematic way. In the words of Dornyei (2007) COLT has been highly influential in L2 research due to its elaborate category system and high-profile research use (p. 181). For the present study, using a systematic scheme of classroom discourse analysis was suggested by Courtney Cazden from Harvard University in personal communications (November 2009).

Furthermore, as mentioned in the previous chapter, COLT has been used in a number of studies for different purposes. Here I will turn to a short description of each study from the COLT observation scheme (pp. 127-150).

1. Use of COLT Part A in process-oriented research. a) Observing intensive ESL programs by Nina Spada: This study was conducted in Canada and COLT was used to describe classroom procedures and instructional practices. The researcher believes that it was useful since it could help get a macro-level analysis and identify different types of instructions. b) Listening strategies in a core French program by Larry Vandergrift (1992): COLT was used to investigate listening comprehension strategies in French as a second language classroom in Canada. The researcher found it useful since it could examine the nature and sequence of learning activities in variety of classroom contexts. c) A case of Japanese EFL elementary classrooms by Jack Yohay and Kyoko Suwa: in this study COLT was used to investigate the consistency of actual classroom activities with the stated goals for promoting communicative skills in the target language. As the researchers state “the extent to which the L1 was used was a key function of COLT in this study” (p. 131). d) Communicative language teaching in Greek high school by Vasiliki Zotou (1993)

and Rosamond Mitchell: the authors found COLT suitable on the following grounds

1) most importantly, COLT seemed to take generally agreed principles of communicative language teaching and organize them into a systematic set of coherent observational categories. 2) COLT was a well developed system which appeared to be both “learnable” and to offer good prospect for achieving reliability of coding. 3) COLT offered a basis for quantification and development of distinctive behavioral profiles for teachers. 4) The fact that COLT had been applied in other contexts offered prospects for contrastive comparisons between the classroom practices of the Greek subjects and documented behavior of other groups of teachers.

2. *Use of COLT part A in process-product research.* a) Using COLT in immersion classes by Joseph E Dicks (1992) : COLT was used to examine the pedagogical differences in French classes regarding teaching more experiential/communicative or more analytical approach in the classroom. b) examining process-product relationship in adult ESL classes by Nina Spada: This study tended to investigate the relationships between classroom outcomes and the process of instruction. The author believes that the quantitative results from COLT with more detailed qualitative analysis led to confident interpretation of the results.

3. *Use of COLT part A and B in process-product research.* a) core French process-product study by Patrick Allen (1987): This study examines the relationship between instructional differences and students’ communicative competence. b) a study of communicative orientation and language learning outcomes in French in Australian secondary schools by Penny McKay (1994): The researcher investigated the nature of communicative orientation of classes by observation and tested the differences against the students’ achievement. For full analysis of the transcript

COLT A and B was used in this study. c) Learning vocabulary in communicative and analytical French as a second language (FSL) classroom by Razika Sanaoui (1995): This research studies the variation of vocabulary learning by adult second language learners with learners' proficiency, vocabulary learning and classroom instruction approach. d) Effects of form-focused instruction and error correction on L2 question formation by Nina Spada: The researcher investigates the impact of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on question form development using COLT B.

As a conclusion, COLT instrument was considered the most valid among other instruments for the present research since 1) it is theory driven 2) it has a high research profile 3) it is very systematic and using a systematic approach was suggested by an expert in the field (Courtney Cazden) 4) its elaborate categories enable the research to explore the nature of L1 in the classroom discourse 5) its dual level analysis helps carry out a comprehensive study of the discourse.

3.7 COLT vs. SETT

As mentioned earlier, COLT is one of the most widely used instruments within interaction analysis methodology and it has been used for different research purposes in different countries such as Japan, Greece, Australia and Canada (see Chapter 2). However, SETT instrument designed by Walsh (2006) is more recent than COLT and it is claimed that it can be applied to different classroom settings for different purposes. It is not considered suitable for the present study for the following reasons:

1. It does not have a high research profile like COLT
2. The categories are too broad and they do not capture the details of classroom interaction.
3. Its main focus is more on pedagogic goals than classroom discourse components and activities.
4. It does not offer a clear, detailed data gathering and data analysis guide as COLT does.
5. It is not as compatible with the CLT approach as COLT.

The next sections provide details on how COLT and other instruments were used for data collection.

3.8 Data Collection

3.8.1 Observations

The data collection process began by observing the two classes from the participant institutes based on the planned observation program. The classes met twice a week and each session lasted one hour and thirty minutes. Based on the institutes' programs, all the sessions of one term were observed and audio-video recorded using a digital voice recorder and a digital camera. Ten sessions from each class were coded using COLT (part A) in real time observation. The audio recorded data from these sessions was transcribed to be coded in COLT (part B) to investigate student-teacher verbal interactions. Field notes were also taken in each session. The researcher role here was that of participant observer meaning that the participants

were aware of being studied but there was no interaction between the researcher and the participants. This helped the researcher to note any forms of classroom behavior and interaction such as non verbal interactions which might not be captured in the recorded data.

School observation started when half of the institutional observation was completed. This round of observations was done in the English classes of the selected schools in which the learners from the observed language institutes were studying. Two sessions of each class were observed and audio recorded. The role of researcher was as participant observer and field notes were taken to help the researcher explore the EFL teaching environment and the data were used to investigate the effects of this environment on the learners' beliefs towards the use of L1 in the classroom.

3.8.2 Questionnaire, Focus Group Discussions and Interviews

After completing all observations according to the planned program, the questionnaire (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008) was administered to the learners to gather the data regarding their beliefs towards L1 use in the classroom. This was followed by a focus group discussion for the learner participants of each institute to let them elaborate on their views and beliefs. The focus group discussions made a dialectic ground for studying learners' beliefs and led to a deeper understanding of the identified attributes towards the use of L1 and the learners' positive or negative evaluations of these attributes. The participant teachers from institutes, high school teachers and institute managers were interviewed at this stage.

The first aim of the interviews was to find the participants' beliefs regarding the use of L1, although it served other purposes too. The managers' interview provided the necessary information about the institutes' policies towards L1 usage in the classroom and the high school teachers' interviews allowed the researcher to explore school EFL practices in which the learner participants were spending most of their educational life.

3.9 Data Analysis

The first set of data from learners, teachers and managers' interviews and also the questionnaire provided answers to the second research question regarding their beliefs towards L1 use in the classroom. The second set of data gathered from school language teachers and school observation satisfied the needs for answering the third research question which was compared and contrasted with part of the first set of data from learner's questionnaire and focus group discussions. High school observation and interviews, and managers' interview provided grounds for analyzing the influence of school EFL practices on learners' beliefs and the use of L1 in language institutes' classroom discourse.

To analyze the qualitative data from open ended questions, field notes and interviews a coding scheme was established. This kind of data was categorized and interpreted through inductive and deductive approaches to provide both descriptive and explanatory answers to the research questions and also confirmatory answers from other studies (Seliger & Shohamy, 1990). The data from COLT instrument was categorized and analyzed according to the COLT observation scheme (Spada &

Frohlich, 1995); finally the categories were studied by cross referencing to find the relationships which can help in answering the research questions and understanding of L1 usage in classroom discourse through answering the overarching research question (research question 1). Table 2 summarizes the details of the whole process.

Table 2

Data Collection and Analysis Matrix

Research Questions	Source of data (Instruments)	Participants	Analysis
How is L1 used in EFL classroom Discourse?	Observation COLT	Learners Teachers	COLT data analysis scheme (Parts A and B) Inductive data analysis deductive data analysis Cross referencing
What are the learners', teachers' and managers' beliefs towards the use of L1 in classroom?	Questionnaire focus group discussion Interview	Learners Teachers Managers	Descriptive statistics (Frequencies) Inductive and deductive categorization Cross referencing
How do high school EFL practices influence learners' beliefs toward the use of L1?	Observation Interview Questionnaire Focus group discussion	Teachers Learners	Inductive and deductive categorization and analysis Cross referencing Descriptive statistics

3.9.1 COLT Coding and Analysis Procedures

Except for the pilot stage and calculation/categorization of the data, coding COLT was completed in four stages (see Figure 7). In this section I will give a detailed description of COLT coding procedure and the coding abbreviations which will be used later in reporting the findings and discussion.

Phase I: real time coding COLT A

The first phase of coding began as the classroom videotaping started. While recording the classroom discourse, all classroom activities were also being coded by the researcher, using COLT A instrument in real time. For classroom activities COLT A coding conventions (Spada & Flohrich, 1995) was used.

Phase II: Transcription and data reduction,

Using COLT transcription conventions (Spada & Flohrich, 1995), I transcribed the video /audio taped data. The instances of L1 use in classroom discourse, technically called “episodes” were extracted. Episodes are the instructional segments of classroom discourse where a new topic is introduced or there is a shift in major categories of COLT. The units of analysis will be discussed in detail later.

Phase III: Grouping data and recoding COLT A

For the third phase of coding and analysis, a soft version of COLT A was reproduced in Microsoft Excel 2007. The extracted episodes were thematically organized and identified as a segment of classroom activity. The activities were finally coded according to COLT A coding conventions (Spada & Frohlich, 1995). Using number 1 instead of check mark for coding the activities under the categories of the instrument helped the researcher to carry out software calculations faster and more accurately.

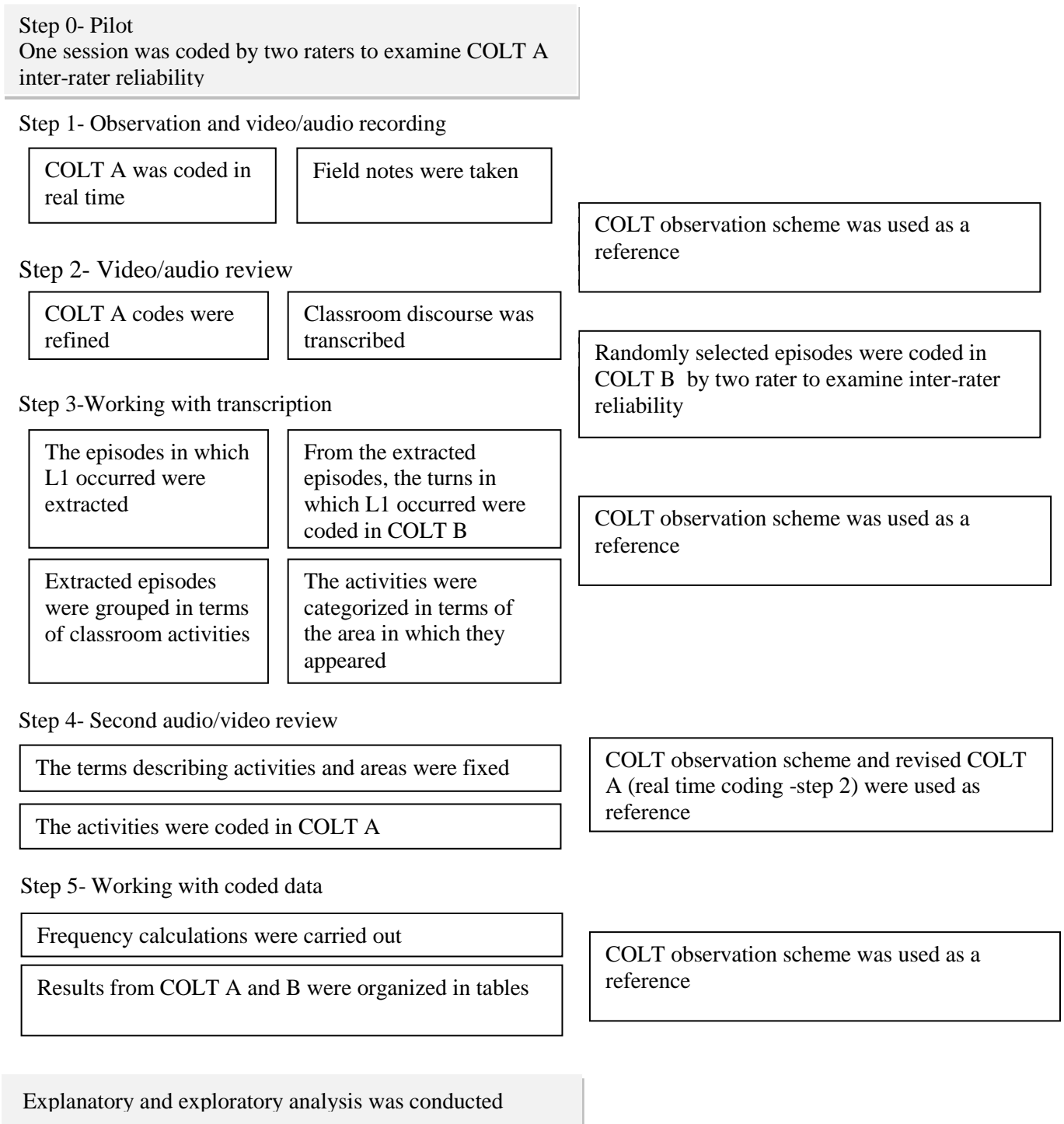


Figure 7. COLT data collection and analysis.

3.10 Reliability of COLT

COLT coding scheme suggests coding from the transcript by two coders to allow the researcher to establish the level of inter-rater reliability (p. 119). Following the scheme, several steps were taken to maintain reliability of the instrument.

Before coding, the episodes in which L1 occurred were extracted from the script of the first four sessions by the researcher. The same thing was done by another TESL Ph.D. student with five years of teaching experience as the second coder. From 75 episodes identified by the researcher 88 percent were in agreement with the ones extracted by the second coder. After discussing the differences and fine tuning the thematic coherence of the instructional segments the rest of the episodes for all 10 sessions were extracted. Using video recordings the coders grouped the episodes in terms of classroom activity segments they belonged to. To ensure that the episodes have been identified as the right activity segment, they were traced in the first COLT A real time coded sheets. Finally the grouped episodes were coded in COLT A by the researcher and the assistant coder and 91 percent agreement was achieved.

Inter-rater reliability was also considered for COLT B. Four episodes of the first four sessions were randomly selected and coded by the second coder. For COLT B 85 percent agreement was observed. Before continuing the coding process the definitions of the categories were reviewed and the new categories which emerged from the data were added to the soft version of the instrument. Having the vague points in coding resolved, the process continued by the researcher.

3.11 The Unit of Analysis

COLT observation scheme uses two level analysis of classroom discourse namely “Activity level” and “Interaction level”. The unit of analysis for each level is defined and exemplified in this section.

A) Activity level

The unit of analysis defined for this level by Spada and Flohrich (1995) is the “episode”. They describe activity and episode as follows:

Activity and episodes are separate units which constitute instructional segments of a classroom. They are marked by changes in the categories of the main features of COLT. Separate activities would include such things as drill, a translation, a discussion or a game. Three episodes of *one* activity would be; teacher introduces dialogue aloud, teacher reads the dialogue aloud, individual students read parts of the dialogue aloud. (Italics original, p.14)

Spada and Flohrich believe that giving a precise definition for activity and episode is not easy. However, they are easy to identify. As described in the COLT scheme “beginning and the end of an activity is typically marked by a change in the overall theme or content” (p. 30). The following examples provide more details on episodes and activities.

Extract 1: before the role play

S1: باکتاباشون اومدن [*ba ketabashoon oomadan*][they came with their books]

S2: من نمی دونستم کدوم باید حفظ کنم: [*man nemidoonestam kodoom o bayad hefz konam*][I didn't know which one I have to memorize]

T: چه ربطی داره باید مکالمه رو حفظ باشی: [*che rabti dare. Bayad mokalema ro hefz bashi*][not an excuse, you should have memorize the conversation]

Extract 2: during the role play

T: you are Helen? Wendy and you're Rex Okay listen to your friends

T: مطمئنید دارید مکالمه رو انجام می دید: I told you when you want to do the conversation you should feel that. Leila, you should be happy, "they're interesting" feel the conversation

[*motma'enid darid mokalema ro anjam midid?*][are you sure you are doing the conversation]

S: اون جلسه من نبودم: [*oon jalaseh man naboodam*][I was absent last session]

T: you were absent; you didn't call your friend?

S: اومدم اونجا، اومدم پیشتون گفتم مریض بودم: [*oomadam oonja oomadam pishetoon goftam mariz boodam*][I came to you there and said that I was sick]

T: خواهش می کنم که لطف می کنید غیبت می کنید به دوستتون زنگ بزنید، بدونید برای جلسه بعد چه کار باید انجام بدید

[*xaharaye ke lotf mikonid gheybat mikonid, be doostetoon zang bezanid bedoonid baraye jalaseye ba'd cheh kar bayad bokonid*][you sisters who are absent should call your friends to know what to do for the following session]

S: شماره تلفنشون نداریم: [*shomareh telefoneshoono nadarim*][we don't have their phone numbers]

T: okay Leila thank you

Extract 3: after the role play

S1: They're earrings بعد گفتن what are these گفتن what's this box? [*bebin goft* what's this box *goftam* what are these *ba'd goftan* they're earrings][look, she said what's this and I said what are these then she said they're earrings]

S3: درستست آخرشو نگفتی: [*dorosteh ghesmate axaresho nagofti*][that's right, you didn't say the last part]

T: okay thank you

S4: نمرت کم نمی شه بیا بشین: S4 [*nomrat kam nemisheh bia beshin*][you don't lose the score come and sit down]

The above episodes of the use of L1 all happen when the teacher is asking the student to perform a role play of the conversation for the class or while the students are performing the role play so all three episodes are labeled as one activity in COLT A: “students role play the conversation for the class”.

B) Interaction level

COLT B introduces “turn” as the basic unit of analysis. A *turn* is defined as “any and all speech which is produced by a speaker until another person begins speaking. Therefore a turn can include a little speech as one word or as much as several sentences in extended discourse.”(P.62) for example in the following episode the teacher and students turns are marked by T and S respectively.

Extract 4

T: now, page 11, conversation, look at the picture what do you see in the picture? Can you tell me where are they? They're in street, at school, university, home, where are they? What are they doing?

S1: Restaurant

S2: No, doing?

S3: ؟کنن [*oona daran chikar mikonan*][what are they doing]

S1: دارن دنبال دسته کلیدی گردن: S1 [*daran donbale dasteh kilid migardan*][they're searching for the keys]

T: English, Hamideh!

T: ok are they brother or sister?

S1: No,

S2: yes,

T: why not, why yes?

S3: زن وشوهرند: S3 [*students laugh*] خواهر وبرادر نیستند دیگه [*xaahar o baradar nistan digeh zan o showharan*][they're not brother and sisters they're husband and wife]

T: they're husband and wife. Look at the woman. Is she beautiful?

Ss: No

T: really

S: yes

T: she has ...blond hair and what about the man?

3.12 Summary of Coding Symbols and Abbreviations

Coding conventions for COLT A and B have been fully described by Spada and Flohrich (1995) in the COLT observation scheme. However, a short description of the abbreviations and a sample is presented to show how the conventions were employed for the purpose of the present research. COLT A just uses check marks under the categories of the instrument, and the process of coding was mentioned in the previous section. The following Table 3 describes the coding abbreviations for COLT B.

Table 3

COLT B coding abbreviation adapted from COLT observation scheme

Key Abbreviation	Relevant Category
L1	L1
Pred.info.	Giving predictable information
Unpred.info.	Giving unpredictable information
Pseudo.req.	Pseudo request
Gen.req.	Genuine request
Ultram.	Ultraminimal (turn)
Min.	Minimal (turn)
Sust.	Sustained (turn)
form	Form (reaction)
Mess.	Message (reaction)
Corr.	Correction
Rep.	Repetition
Para.	Paraphrase
Comment	Comment

Exp.	Expansion
Clarif. req.	Clarification request
Elab.req.	Elaboration request
D.I.	Discourse initiation
Chor.	Choral
Restr.	Restricted (form)
Unrest.	Unrestricted (form)
TR.	Translation
Mit.	Mitigating
humor	humor
Soc.	Socializing
Eva.	Evasion
Manag.	Managerial
Disc.	Discipline
Proc.	procedure
Expl.	explanation
Metaling.	Metalinguistic
Und. check	Understanding check
G.	Grammar
V.	Vocabulary
P.	Pronunciation
mix.	Mixed (L1 and L2)

The following extracts show how the abbreviations were used in coding data.

Extract 5

T: یه دونه از WH های دیگمون چیه ؟

[*ye dooneh az WH haye digamoon chiyeh?*] [What is another WH we have?]

S: who

T: درموردچی سوال می پرسیدیم؟ Who

[*dar mowrede chi so 'al miporsim?*] [What do we ask about?]

S: اشخاص ، چه کسی؟ [ashxaas, cheh kasi?] [people, what person?]

Coded data for Extract 5

T: pseudo.req./min./mix.

T: pseudo.req./min./mix.

S: pred.info./rest./ultramin.

Extract 6

T: اگر جمع باشه بجای is از چی استفاده می کنیم:

[*age jam' basheh bejaye is az chi estefadeh mikonim?*][if it is plural what do we use?]

S: are

T: آفرین who's that? We can say: who are they Who-are-they? For example you want to answer this question, who are they? [*Afarin*][excellent]

S: They are class...

T: They are classmates, or they are my friends or classmates. Okay?

S: ok

نمی شه مثلاً چطوری از that و this استفاده کرد؟ مثلاً توی اینجایی گفتیم اون عکس کیه؟ نمی تونیم بگیم این عکس کیه؟ می شه ؟

[*nemishe masalan chetori az that va this estefadeh kard? Masalan tooye inja migoftim oon a'ks e kieh? Nemitoonim begim in aks kieh? Misheh?*][can't we use this and that?

For example here, we say who's picture is it? Can't we say who's picture is that? Is that right?]

T: Who's that می شه معمولاً استفاده می Okay. part a...? [*Who's that mamooosaln estefadeh misheh?*][usually who's that is used]

Coded data for Extract 6

T: pseudo.req./min.

T: form-comment./min.

S: gen.req./unrest./sust./mix.

T: unpred.info.-metaling./min.

Sometimes the teacher's or students' turn are more complicated than what we saw in the previous extract, meaning that they use a combination of words or sentences which have different communicative features. These kinds of utterances usually appear when we have sustained turns. Since the unit of analysis is a turn we cannot divide them into two separate turns. For such turns COLT suggests coding them under one sustained turn which includes all the present features in the utterance. The following example illustrates coding such complicated turns.

Extract 7

T:

1: what's he like? میگه که با what همیشه پرسیداونه که توی مکالمتون دارین میگه? یه نوع از سوالای دیگه که با what

What's he like? Like فعل and subject, to be, what, Excellent

می تونید در مورد personality ش بگین می تونین در مورد شخصیتش بگین appearance ش

what's he like For example you say he is very smart or you can say he is very cute, he's very kind

[ye now' so'alaye dig eke ba what misheh porsid ooneh ke tooye mokalematooon dain mige what's he like? like fe'leh and subject, to be, what, excellent, mitoonid dar mowrede personalitish begin mitoonin dar mowrede shaxsiyatesh begin appearencesh begin...]

2: What's the meaning of kind? میشه چی kind معنی [ma'niye kind chi misheh?][what's the meaning of kind?]

S: مهربان [mehraban][kind]

Coded data for Extract 7

T: 1: unpred.info.-metaling.// 2: pseudo.req.-TR./sust./mix.

S: Pred.info.-TR/min./rest.

CHAPTER IV

USE OF L1 IN CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

4.1 How is L1 Used in Classroom Discourse?

Chapters five and six report the results and findings obtained qualitatively and quantitatively from different data sources. The findings of the study were organized based on the research questions. Beginning with COLT results, Chapter Five seeks to answer the first research question by examining how L1 is used in EFL classroom discourse. To reach this goal, an exploratory analysis of both macro and micro level that is the use of L1 in classroom activity level (macro) and the use of L1 in student/teacher verbal interaction level (micro) will be presented. To answer the first research question I mainly focused on the data from language institute F (in which the use of L1 was allowed) since the use of L1 in language institute T (in which TL only policy was run) was very infrequent. However, a description and comparison of the use of L1 in language institute T was conducted.

4.2 COLT Results

The analysis of COLT focuses on the communicative features of L1 use in classroom activity (categories of COLT A) and the interactional features of L1 usage in student/teacher verbal interaction (categories of COLT B). The features of L1 usage are presented for the areas of L1 use (i.e., Speaking, grammar, listening...) and the subsequent activities (i.e. Pair/group work, role play) of each area. Four tables describe

the frequency and features of L1 use in each area and activity. First the frequency table presents the number of teacher /student L1 turns in the area of L1 use. The second table shows the communicative features of L1 use (i.e. participant organization, content, control, topic) based on the categories of COLT A. The third table illustrates the general features of the L1 use (i.e. orientation, function) and the last table describes the features of student/teacher verbal interaction in L1 turns. The tables will be followed by extracts of real classroom interactions and descriptions of the situation to draw a clearer picture of L1 use in the areas and activities.

4.2.1 Areas and Activities of the L1 Use

Reviewing video recorded sessions and using COLT A real time coded data, six areas in which L1 appeared were identified. A detailed analysis of classroom discourse revealed different activities within each area. Table 4 shows the areas and their associated activities.

Table 4
Areas and Activities in Use of L1

Area	Activity
speaking	Pair/group work QA/ Discussion Conversation presentation Conversation summary Role play
grammar	Grammar presentation individual/pair work
listening	Transcription Pronunciation
vocabulary	Vocabulary presentation individual/pair work
homework	Homework check Homework assignment QA review
Off task	Requests Starting point

Here I will turn to a description of L1 use by the teacher and students in each area and subsequent activities. Since some categories are self-explanatory I will exemplify the major features from the provided tables.

4.2.2 The Use of L1 in Speaking Area

As Table 4 shows, this area consists of five different activities namely pair/group work, QA/discussion, conversation summary, conversation presentation, and role play. All activities in this area are aimed at helping students improve their fluency. Table 5 summarizes the frequency of the students and teacher turns in which L1 occurred.

Table 5

Frequency of L1 Use in Speaking Area

Activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Speaking	90 (78.9%)	24 (21.1%)

Results displayed in Table 5 indicate that students use L1 in their turns much more than teacher. From all turns in which L1 was recorded in this area 78.9 percent belonged to students while teacher's share of turns was only 21.1 percent. To get a deeper insight into the nature of communication in this area we will need to look into the major communicative features. Table 6 reports the major communicative features of speaking area. As can be seen in Table 6 the participant orientation in this area is dominated by teacher talking to a student or class; however later we will see there are different participant orientations in the activities in this area. The type of material is extended and it is designed for non-native L2 learners. The focus of the content of the material is on discourse and topic is narrow, meaning that participants talk about the immediate context rather than broad issues of the world.

Table 6

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Speaking Area

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
Speaking	T↔S/C	discourse	teacher-text	narrow	speaking	ext-L2-NNS

Although students can change some parts of conversation in some activities of this area especially in pair/group works, the communication in this area is mainly controlled by teacher or text.

Going into the details of student/teacher interaction the following tables will show us more about the nature of L1 in classroom discourse. The first table (Table 7) shows the general features of the turns in which L1 occurred.

Table 7

General Features of L1 Use in Speaking Area

Area	General features				
speaking	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	27 (29.3%)	20 (21.7%)	14 (15.2%)	Task/social	Meaning/humor, evasion
Teacher	1 (4.3%)	6 (26%)	12 (52.1%)	task	Explanation

As can be seen, Table 7 compares students and teacher use of L1 in the speaking area. Beginning with information describing students' use of L1, we can

see a considerable number of students' talk (27 turns) was off task. It indicates that nearly 30 percent of the students' use of L1 in this area occurred while they were engaged in talking about something other than the current class activity. A closer look at the orientation and function of L1 use in speaking (Table 7) shows L1 was task/social oriented and it was used to convey meaning, evade the task or create humor. The following episode (Extract 8) from the second session of the class illustrates how a student was trying to evade the task. As mentioned before, students were supposed to memorize the conversation(s) of each unit at home and role play for the class. In this extract teacher asks a student to come for a role play and she evades the task.

Extract 8

S: من نخوندم: [man naxoondam] [I didn't study.]

T: why?

S: من مريض بودم نتونستم: [man mariz budam, natoonestam] [I was sick I couldn't.]

Comparing teacher's use of L1 in the same columns of the table (off task, orientation, and function) illustrates a great difference in L1 use. Only 4.3 percent of L1 used by teacher was off task. Unlike the students' turn, the orientation of the use of L1 by teacher was not social and it was mainly used for explanation. Another difference of student and teacher's use of L1 was in the mixture of L1 and L2. Some 52.1 percent of L1 in teacher talk was mixed with L2 while L2 appeared only in 15.2 percent of students' turns. As we can see in the following extract (Extract 9) L2 words in teacher talk were mainly the grammar words mixed with Persian explanations.

Extract 9

T: and now we want to make question

[goftim bekhaym soal beporsim jaye this-moon ke halate subjecte-moono dare ba fe'lemoon chikar mikonim?] [we said when we want to ask a question, the place of this which is our subject with the verb is what?]

S: عوض می کنیم: [avaz mikonim] [changed]

T:؟شہ my [my ham tabdil be chi mishe?] [my is changed to what?]

S: you

In the first teacher turn in Extract 9 of classroom discourse from the first observed session, the teacher starts with English to introduce a shift in the topic: “and now we want to make question”. Then she switched into Persian to explain interrogative structure. The words “this” and “subject” were used while she was explaining the structure in Persian. In the second teacher turn also “my” was used in teachers talk while explaining a grammatical point.

Analysis of speaking area will be completed by looking into more details of teacher and student talk in classroom discourse. Table 12 describes major interactional features based on the categories of COLT B. In Table 8 discourse initiation is a feature of student talk which shows how frequent students used L1 to initiate discourse in the classroom. According to the COLT scheme discourse initiation characterizes any non-elicited requests for information, unrequested responses to the teacher or student utterances, or non-elicited incorporation of preceding utterances. In these study students unrequested situational comments were also

Extract 10

S2: من نمی دونستم کدوم باید حفظ کنم: [man nemidoonestam kodoom o bayad hefz konam][I didn't know which one I have to memorize]

In extract 10 from the first session, teacher asked two students to come for a role play. They came in front of the class having their books in their hands. One of the students (S1) who was sitting near me, said “they came with their books” meaning that they were not supposed to take books with them. This kind of student turns described as unrequested situational comments were coded as discourse initiation. Extract 11 also illustrates another situation in which a student initiates the discourse to request information.

Extract 11

T: blue jeans,because of jeans, it is... Here is the problem,این دلیله چون شما دلیل اونومی،
گین

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are telling the reason, here is the problem.what's this problem? It is referring to the problem because the problem is that jeans]

In this extract a student initiated discourse by raising a question after teacher had just finished teaching conversation.

Table 8

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Speaking Area

Area	Major interactional features						
	Dis-course initiation	Giving info.	Re-request info.	Sus-tained speech	Reac-tion	form restriction	Incorporation
student	18 (19.5%)	unpred .	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	Comment
teacher	-	unpred	pseudo. /gen.	min.	mess.	-	Comment

As Table 8 indicates, 19.5 percent of student turns initiated discourse in the classroom. Students' use of L1 in speaking area regarding giving and requesting information, shows they used L1 to give unpredictable information and they requested genuine information using L1 in this area. In Extract 11 we can see genuine request for information when S1 asks the question. Since the response was not known by the questioner it was coded as genuine request. On the other hand, the teacher used L1 in both genuine and pseudo requests for information. Extract 12 is an example of the use of L1 as a pseudo request for information.

Extract 12

T: ؟ مڱن ڇي انگليسي اينوبه [ino be engelisi chi migan?][What's this called in English?]

S1: pencil

In this extract, students were doing a pair work activity and the teacher was monitoring them. The teacher approached a group, showed a pencil and asked one of the students: "What's this called in English?" Actually, the student already knew the answer but the aim of the teacher was to show the procedure of the pair work activity and she emphasized on the way the pair work had to be done in the rest of the interaction.

Form restriction (seventh column of the above table) is a feature of students' talk showing whether student's turn has been restricted to a particular structure or not. As we can see in Table 8 in the speaking area students L1 use was mainly unrestricted meaning that they talked freely rather than being bound to a particular grammatical structure.


Comparing interactional features of L1 use in students' and teacher turns we come to the commonalities in the length of turns, reaction and incorporation of speech. As we can see in Table 8 both students and teacher used L1 in minimal turns. When L1 was used to react to the preceding utterance, they predominately reacted to the message rather than form or situation. This reaction was usually as a comment in this area.


Here I will turn to a description of the activities in speaking area and we will see how L1 was used in each activity of this area.

4.2.2.1 L1 in Pair/group work


As the name suggests, in this activity the students were mainly working in groups of two or three and the teacher was moving around the class answering students' questions or monitoring how they are doing the activity. The following piece of material (Figure 8) is a sample of the pair/group work activity.

6 WHAT'S THIS CALLED?

A  Listen and practice.



A: What's this called in English?
B: I don't know.
C: It's an umbrella.
A: How do you spell that?
C: U-M-B-R-E-L-L-A.



A: What are these called in English?
B: Hmm. I think they're called chopsticks.
A: How do you spell that?
B: C-H-O-P-S-T-I-C-K-S.

B *Group work* Choose four things. Put them on a desk. Then ask about the name and spelling of each thing.

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Figure 8. Group work activity.

In this type of activity students were divided into groups and they practiced simultaneously; therefore it was difficult to record the use of L1 in all groups in recording or real time observation. As stated before, I just focused on one group during each group work activity to solve this problem. After this brief introduction, now we turn to the use of L1 in this activity.

The frequency Table 9 shows that students used more L1 (14 turns) in pair/group work activities than teacher (9 turns). However, from all teacher turns in which L1 was recorded 36 percent was in this activity. Since we have five activities in speaking area, this amount of L1 used by teacher for pair/group work activities shows the significant role of L1 in this kind of activity.

Table 9

Frequency of L1 Use in Pair/Group Work Activity

activity	frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
pair/group work	14 (15.7%)	9 (36%)

Table 10 presents the major communicative features of L1 use in pair/group work activity. The first column of major communicative features of pair/group work activity illustrates a teacher fronted class, although in this activity (as the name suggests) students work together and the teacher only monitors the pairs/groups. In other words, the participant orientation of pair/group work activities is normally expected to be student-student, while when it comes to the use of L1 it changes to teacher-student. This fact will be discussed in the interpretive analysis of COLT later. As Table 10 shows, the material in pair/group work activities was extended and the content was focusing on discourse controlled by teacher or text. The general features of L1 use in pair/group work activities are presented in Table 11.

Table 10

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Pair/Group Work Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
pair/group work	T↔S/C	discourse	teacher-text	narrow	speaking	ext-L2-NNS

Table 11

General Features of L1 Use in Pair/Group Work Activity

Activity	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	-	2 (15.3%)	5 (61.5%)	task	explanation
Teacher	-	3 (33.3%)	7 (77.7%)	task	explanation

An interesting point in this Table 11 is that neither the students nor the teacher used L1 off task in pair/group work. This can be due to the nature of this kind of activity which will be discussed later. By the same token, the use of L1 in student and teacher talk in this activity was task oriented and they used it to explain something. However, teacher talk included more translation (more than twice as much as the students talk) and more teacher turns were mixed with L2, 77.7 percent. Table 12 highlights the major interactional features of the use of L1 in pair/group work activities.

Table 12

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Pair/Group Work Activity

Activity		Major interactional features					
Pair/group work	Discourse initiation	Giving info.	Request info.	Sustained speech	Reaction	form restriction	Incorporation
student	4 (30.7%)	unpred	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	para.
teacher	-	unpred	pseudo.	min.	mess.	-	para.

Regarding students' discourse initiation feature (as shown in Table 12) 30 percent of students' turns in pair/group work activities started a discourse. In giving and requesting information students and the teacher acted differently. Students used L1 to request genuine information while L1 was used in pseudo requests for information in teacher's turns. However, they both used L1 to give unpredictable information. Another significant point was observed in students and teacher's reaction to preceding utterance(s). As can be seen in Table 12 teacher mainly reacted to the message while students' L1 turns were reaction to situations. The following examples from the first and ninth session illustrate some interactional features of students' and teacher turns in a pair work activity.

Extract 13

S: فقط واسه نیم ساعت half میاریم

[faghat vaseh nim saat half miarim?][do we use half just for thirty minutes?]

T: yes, half

Extract 13 is a part of student-teacher interaction in a pair work activity. Students were working on telling time when S1 asked a genuine question: *faghat vaseh nim saat half miarim?* [do we use half just for thirty minutes?] She did not know the meaning of the word (half) therefore she could not make sense of the sentence she was supposed to practice in the pair work activity. Most genuine requests for information in pair/group work activities were to request meaning or request an explanation for the usage. Extract 14 highlights teacher's reaction to student's utterance and incorporation of student/teacher utterances.

Extract 14

T: اینوبه انگلیسی چی میگن؟ [ino be engelisi chi migan][what's this called in English?]

S1: pencil

T: pencil پس بعد از پارتنرت می پرسى what's this called in English How do you spell scarf? How do you spell pencil?

[migan pencil, what's this called in English? ba'd az partneret miporsi how do you spell scarf?, how do you spell pencil?] [it is called pencil, what's this called in English? Then you ask your partner how do spell scarf? How do you spell pencil?]

In the first observed session, while the students were practicing exercise 6 part b (Figure 8) in groups of three, the teacher approached one of the groups to help them with the procedure of the group work. She knew the word “pencil” was known to all students, yet she asked: *ino be engelisi chi migan* [what's this called in English?] to elicit an answer to proceed to the next question related to spelling and help them follow the procedure of the activity. Most of the requests for information by teacher in pair/group work activities were not genuine requests. In other words they were pseudo requests for information. The second teacher turn in this extract

(Extract 13) shows how the teacher reacts to the students answer. In this turn, the teacher repeated the student's answer by adding a word from L1, *migan pencil*. [it's called pencil] therefore she paraphrased the student's utterance. As shown in Table 12. The dominant incorporation of the students' utterances in teacher's turns was recorded as paraphrase. Extract 15 illustrates how a student used L1 to paraphrase the teacher's utterance.

Extract 15

T: what's this called in English?

S1: book

T: How do you spell book?

S1: ش كنم spell, B.O.O.K [spelesh konam.] [I spell it]

T: okay got it, practice.

In Extract 15, a student paraphrased the teacher's question into a new form (a mixture of L1 and L2), before responding the teacher's pseudo request. As mentioned before a great number of L1 turns in pair/group work activities contained L2 words (teacher turns, 77.7% and student turns, 61.5%).

In the following extract (Extract 16) we will see a student's reaction to the message. In this group work activity, students were working on a conversation practice in groups of three. In this conversation S1 had the role of a waiter who found a wallet; she showed the wallet to S2 and S3 searching for the owner. Students used a red wallet which belonged to S2 as they were practicing.

Extract 16

S1: is this your wallet?

S2: No it isn't, it's her wallet

S1: is this your wallet?

S3:let me see, yes it is.

S2: اين مال منه [in ,male maneh !][this is mine !]

As the last turn of this episode shows S2 reacted to S3's response and insisted that the wallet was hers. Since the students decided to use this wallet and perform the conversation roles, they knew whose wallet that was and the real ownership of the wallet was not a part of the practice. From the rising and tense tone of voice, it was obvious that S2 reacted to S3's response just to make humor. This episode was followed by a burst of laughter.

4.2.2.2 L1 in QA/discussion activity

Discussions usually occurred before conversation presentations, when teacher was preparing the scene for teaching conversation. In this type of activity, teacher and students were usually engaged in a talk about the picture or the topic of the conversation. Figure 9 shows a conversation exercise from the second unit of interchange Intro.

7 CONVERSATION Oh, no!

▶ Listen and practice.

Kate: Oh, no! Where are my car keys?
Joe: Relax, Kate. Are they in your purse?
Kate: No, they're not. They're gone!
Joe: I bet they're on the table in the restaurant.
Waiter: Excuse me. Are these your keys?
Kate: Yes, they are. Thank you!
Joe: See? No problem.
Waiter: And is this your wallet?
Kate: Hmm. No, it's not. Where is your wallet, Joe?
Joe: In my pocket. . . . Wait a minute! That *is* my wallet!

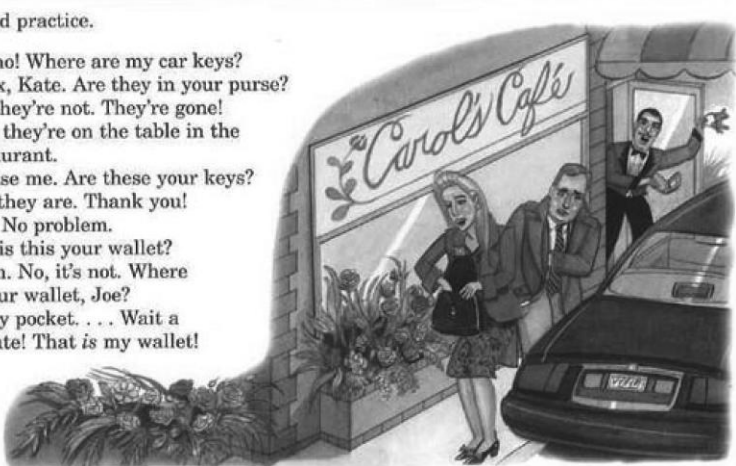


Figure 9. Conversation exercise.

The following discussion was raised by the teacher before teaching this conversation.

Extract 17

T: now, page11, conversation, look at the picture what do you see in the picture?
Can you tell me where are they? They're in street, at school, university, home,
where are they? What are they doing?

S1: Restaurant

S2: No, doing?

S3: اوندان چيکارمی کنن؟ [oona daran chikar mikonan?][what are they doing?]

S5: دارن دنبال دسته کلید می گردن [daran donbaleh dasteh kilid migardan][they are
searching for keys]

T: English, Hamideh! okay are they brother or sister?

S:No,

S:yes,

T:why not,why yes?

S1: زن و شوهرن . خواهر و برادر نیستن دیگه [zan o shoharan, xahar o baradar nistan
dige.][they're husband and wife. They're not brother and sister]

In some lessons the teacher formed the discussions by asking questions related to the lesson topic. For example in the fifth session before stating the lesson she asked students' nationality. Since they were all Iranian she shifted to the cities they came from. This lesson aimed to teach talking about nationalities.

With regard to the use of L1 in discussion activities, Table 13 reports the frequency of the use of L1 in discussions of speaking area. As can be seen, in discussion activities students used L1 in 14 turns while L1 occurred in only 3 teacher turns. Having a glance at the example excerpt above (Extract 17) proves that the teacher tried to keep on speaking in English in this discussion activity therefore, when S5 used Persian to say ” *daran donbaleh dasteh kilid migardan*.

[they are searching for the keys] the teacher emphasized on using English with calling her name in a rising tone .

Table 13

Frequency of L1 Use in QA/Discussion Activity

activity	frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
QA/discussion	14 (15.5%)	3 (12%)

However, the percentages indicate the fact that the ratio of the students' use of L1 in discussion activities to the use of L1 in speaking area (15.5%) is not far different from the ratio of the teacher's use of L1(12%).

Table 14

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in QA/Discussion Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	Partici- pant	content	control	topic	student modality	Mate- rial
QA /discussion	T↔S/C	dis- course	teacher- text-student	narrow	speaking	ext-L2- NNS

Concerning the major communicative features of L1 use in discussion activities, Table 14 shows discussions were teacher fronted, discourse focused activities being controlled by teacher, text or students. Tracing these features in the episode (Extract 17) of discussion activity one will notice that the talk was directed by teacher and the picture. When the teacher asked “where are they?” and “what are they doing?”, yet students had freedom in answering. The teacher continued controlling the talk

by asking more questions and encouraging students to continue the discussion “are they brother and sister?” or “Why yes? Why not?” As an observer I found discussion activities the most natural interactions in this class since both teacher and students were actively involved in negotiation of meaning. Table 15 also confirms that the dominant function of L1 in this activity was to convey meaning.

Table 15

General Features of L1 use in QA/Discussion Activity

Activity	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	-	3 (21%) word	-	task	meaning
Teacher	-	2 (66%)	2 (66%)	task	meaning

General features of teacher and student’s use of L1 in discussion activities indicate that L1 was not used off task in this type of classroom activity. The orientation of the L1 use also has been task focused. Extract 17 shows that L1 was used to convey meaning within the task. When S3 translated the teacher’s question *oona daran chikar mikonan?* [what are they doing?] to make it understandable for S5 who had given the wrong answer ,when S5 answered *daran donbaleh dasteh kilid migardan* [they are searching for keys] or when S1 responded the teacher’s question *zan o shoharan, xahar o baradar nistan digeh.* [they’re husband and wife. They’re not brother and sister], they were all using L1 to convey meaning within the discussion. Extract 18 is an example of the use of L1 to convey meaning by teacher. In the second teacher turn below, when she said *khodesh dorost mikoneh.* [he cooks

himself.], she used L1 to clarify the meaning of the question she asked previously in the first teacher turn.

Extract 18

T: what about you Somayeh. Does your husband make food?

S1: غذارست می کنه؟ [ghaza dorost mikoneh?][he cooks food?]

S2: just eggs

S3: اون چه غذایی درست می کنه یا من چه غذایی براش درست می کنم؟ [oon che ghazaei dorost mikoneh ya man che ghazaei barash dorost mikonam?][what foods does he cook? Or what foods do I cook for him?]

T: no, no, no خودش درست می کنه [khodesh dorost mikoneh.][he cooks himself.]

S3: ماکارونی، املت [Makaroni, Omlet] [Macaroni, Omlet]

In this discussion activity (Extract 18) teacher and students were talking about food. The teacher addressed S3: what about you Somayeh. Does your husband make food? Although S1 was not addressed by the teacher, she initiated the discourse to ask for clarification of meaning *ghaza dorost mikoneh?* [he cooks food?]. However, we can see in Table 16 in discussion activities not many students used L1 to initiate discourse (14.2%). As it is expected, this type of activity is not structure-bound. Table 16 also indicates that students' use of L1 was unrestricted. Students' turns (S1 and S3) in Extract 18 illustrate how L1 was used to react to the message of preceding utterance by asking for clarification.

Table 16

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in QA/Discussion Activity

Activity	Major interactional features						
	Discourse initiation	Giving info.	Re-request info.	Sustained speech	Reaction	form restriction	Incorporation
student	2 (14.2%)	Unpred.info	-	Min.	mess.	Unrest.	clarif.
teacher	-	Pred.	-	Min.	-	-	-

4.2.2.3 L1 in Conversation Presentation

A conversation exercise was taught in three different phases. The first phase was discussion as it was described in previous section. After discussion the teacher taught the conversation which consisted of the following steps: students listened to audio, teacher explained new vocabulary and expressions, students repeated the conversation line by line chorally. After the conversation was presented by the teacher, students practiced the conversation in pairs or groups. The teacher usually assigned the students to memorize and summarize the conversation for the coming session. The conversation in Figure 10 was taught in the sixth session of the class. Extract 19 illustrates an episode of teacher student interaction during conversation presentation activity.

3 CONVERSATION *It's a disaster!*

► Listen and practice.

Pat: Great! Our clothes are dry.
Where is my new blouse?
Julie: What color is it?
Pat: It's white.
Julie: Here's a light blue blouse.
Is it yours?
Pat: No, it's not mine. . . . Wait.
It *is* mine. It's a disaster!
Julie: Oh, no! *All* our clothes are
light blue.
Pat: Here's the problem. It's these
new blue jeans. Whose jeans
are they?
Julie: Uh, they're mine. Sorry.



Figure 10 Conversation presentation activity

In this session after listening to the conversation, students repeated the conversation chorally. Then the teacher started teaching new vocabulary and expressions. As we can see in this episode (Extract 19) all student turns in which L1 occurred are the responses to the teacher's request for the meaning of words or expressions from the conversation. Although teacher's requests for meaning were all in L2, students replied in L1.

Extract 19

T: pay attention light and dark are opposite together [sic]. Yeah, what's the meaning of light?

S1: روشن [roshan] [light]

T: dark?

S2: تیره [tireh] [dark]

T: what's the meaning of disaster?

Means a very bad event. what about event?

S3: اتفاق [etefaagh] [event]

T: Excellent, thank you very much. very bad event.
T: what's the meaning of "Dry"?
S1: کثیف [kasif] [dirty]
S2: خشک شده [xoshk shodeh] [dried]
T: uhu, in English means: Not wet.what's the meaning of wet?
S4: مرطوب-خیس [martoob, xis] [wet]
T: uhum, Do you know what's the meaning of "problem"?
Do you know what the meaning of problem is?
S4: مسئله-مشکل [masa'leh, moshkel] [problem]
T: hum, thank you.

Table 17 also indicates that students used L1 in conversation presentation much more than the teacher (11 turns and 3 turns respectively). However, the ratio of teacher and student's use of L1 to the use of L1 in speaking area was the same (around 12%).

Table 17

Frequency of the use of L1 in Conversation presentation

Activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Conversation presentation	11 (12.2%)	3 (12.5%)

Major communicative features of conversation presentation activity (Table 18) show that the participants predominantly were involved in choral practice described previously as students repeating the conversation. It also indicates that the focus of the content was on discourse and it was controlled by teacher or text. As it can be seen in Extract 19 students' turns were short responses to teacher's requests for information to elicit the meaning of words. Therefore in this activity, students'

modality was expected to be listening as the data confirmed and reported in Table 18.

Table 18

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Conversation Presentation Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
conversation presentation	choral	discourse	teacher-text	narrow	listening	ext-L2-NNS


Extract 19 illustrated how students used L1 to respond teacher's request for the meaning of new words and expressions in conversation presentation activity yet, all teacher turns in this extract were in L2, meaning that the teacher did not use L1 to request information. We will look at another episode (Extract 20) of classroom discourse to see how L1 is used in teacher turns in conversation presentation activities.

In the following excerpt of conversation presentation activity (Extract 20) the teacher was teaching the conversation in Figure 11.

8 CONVERSATION *It's very cold!*

● Listen and practice.

Pat: Oh, no!
Julie: What's the matter?
Pat: It's snowing, and it's very cold!
Julie: Are you wearing your gloves?
Pat: No, they're at home.
Julie: Well, you're wearing your coat.
Pat: But my coat isn't warm.
And I'm not wearing boots!
Julie: OK. Let's take a taxi.
Pat: Thanks, Julie.



I'm not wearing boots! • 25

Figure 11 Conversation presentation activity

After listening to the conversation and choral repetition, teacher started explaining new words and expressions.

Extract 20

T: let's مخففlet us وقتی می خواهیم برای پیشنهاد دادن چیزی به کار ببریم

وقتی که می خواهیم به طرف مقابل پیشنهاد بدهیم که خونه بمونه پیشنهادmake suggestion بدین که تاکسی بگیرد

[*let's moxafafe let us e vaghti mikhaym baraye pishnahad dadan chizi be kar bebarim let's estefadeh mikonim, vaghti mixaym be tarafe moghabel pishnahad bedim ke xooneh bemooneh pishnahad make suggestion bedin ke taksi begirid*] [let's is the contraction for let us, when we want to give a suggestion we use let's. when we want to suggest someone stay at home or take a taxi.]

پیشنهاد ازدواج هم می [*pishnahade ezdevaj ham misheh*][how about a marriage offer?]

S1: شه

تو ترجمه وقتی می خواهیم معنی کنیم می گیم پیشنهاد می دم...پیشنهاد می کنم

S2: مثلاً

[*too tarjomeh vaghti mixaym ma'ni konim migim pishnahad midam ...pishnahad mikonam masalan.*][in translation when we want to translate we say I suggest...I offer for example]

T چگونه مثلاً تاکسی بگیریم:

[*chetoreh masalan taksi begirim*][how about taking a taxi for example]

سهیلا تو دانشگاه برات چه اتفاقی افتاده که الان اینجا به فکرش افتادی هی میگن بچه هار انفرستین برن

دانشگاه همینه ها? Soheila what happened to you?

[*Soheila too daneshgah che etefaghi oftadeh ke ala ninja be fekresh oftadi, hey migan bacheha ro nafrestin beran daneshgah hamineh ha*] [Soheila what happened to you at university that you remembered here and now. That's why they say don't send your children to university.]

S:No happen [sic].anything happened [sic].

T: می خواستی به کسی چه پیشنهاد بدی از این استفاده کنی: [mixasti be kasi che pishnahadi bedi az in estefadeh koni?] [What did you want to suggest someone using this?]

As can be seen in this extract, there is no translation in teacher's turns, however in Extract 19 the students used L1 to respond teacher's request for meaning of new vocabularies. Table 19 also indicates that in 81.8 percent of students' turns L1 was used to translate, predominately words not sentences. Comparing the two episodes (Extract 19 and Extract 20) we can see most students' turns were task oriented while teacher used L1 for both social and task oriented purposes. In the first teacher turn in Extract 20 the teacher explained the meaning and usage of "let's": *let's estefadeh mikonim, vaghti mixaym be tarafe moghabel pishnahad bedim ke xooneh bemooneh pishnahad make suggestion bedin ke taksi begirid* [let's is the contraction for let us, when we want to give a suggestion we use let's. when we want to suggest someone stay at home or take a taxi.] Here, unlike Extract 19 the teacher did not elicit the Persian equivalent of the expression and even she did not attempt to give the L1 equivalent. This will be explored later in relation to the use of L1 in other activities.

Table 19

General Features of L1 Use in Conversation Presentation Activity

Activity	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Conversation presentation					
Student	-	9 (81.8%) word	2 (18.1%)	task	meaning
Teacher	-	-	1 (33.3%)	task/social	explanation/humor

Investigating major interactional features of student and teacher talk in conversation presentation activities (Table 20) revealed that students used L1 to initiate discourse only in 18 percent of turns. The reasons behind it will come later in interpretive analysis section.

A significant diversity in the features of teacher and students' L1 turns can be seen in the form restriction and sustained speech category. According to Table 20 student's use of L1 in conversation presentation activities was restricted and minimal while the teacher used L1 in sustained turns. Teacher and students L1 turns in Extracts 19 and 20 confirm that teacher turns are so longer than the students'.

Table 20

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Conversation Presentation Activity

Activity	Major interactional features						
	Dis-course initiation	Giving info.	Re-quest info.	Sustain ed speech	Reac-tion	form restrict-tion	Incorporation
student	2 (18.1%)	pred..	-	min.	mess.	rest.	elab.
teacher	-	unpred.	-	sust.	mess.	-	elab.

With regard to the reaction to preceding utterance(s), both students and teacher reacted to the message rather than form and they predominantly requested elaboration. For example in Extract 20 when teacher finished explaining the expression S1 requested elaboration when she asked: *pishnahade ezdevaj ham misheh* [how about a marriage offer?] Since this was not a serious request and the

student (S1) intended to create humor, teacher first responded S2 (who asked a question after S1) and then returned to S1's humorous elaboration request by reacting to her message: *Soheila too daneshgah che etefaghi oftadeh ke alan inja be fekresh oftadi, hey migan bacheha ro nafrestin beran daneshgah hamineh ha.* [Soheila what happened to you at university that you remembered here and now. That's why they say don't send your children to university.]

The teacher's reaction to S1's elaboration request was an elaboration request with a social orientation.

4.2.2.4 L1 in Conversation Summary

Similar to discussion activities, conversation summaries were linked to the conversation exercises. As a part of speaking area, this type of activity appeared when in the preceding session they worked on a conversation exercise. When a conversation exercise was taught, students were supposed to prepare an oral summary of the conversation. They also had to memorize the conversation for the following session, as a role play activity. In this section we will see how is L1 used by students and teacher in conversation summary activity and the role play activity will be discussed in the next section.

In the following episode (Extract 21) the teacher called a student to talk about the conversation (summarize the conversation) and she was not ready.

Extract 21

T: okay, Faezeh, explain about the conversation.

S: من اصلاً مکالمه رو آماده نکردم. [man aslan mokalema ro amadeh nakardam] [I have not prepared the conversation]

T: No, what do you understand; the last session you practiced the conversation with your partner

S: نه آماده نیستم: [Na amadeh nistam] [no, I'm not ready]

T: Faezeh try to speak

S: خیلی سخته، نمی تونم: [xeyli saxteh, nemitoonam] [it's very difficult. I can't]

According to Table 21, there was no teacher's use of L1 in conversation summary activities and the students' use of L1 was only 6.7 percent. In Extracts 21 and 22 also all teacher turns are in L2.

Table 21

Frequency of L1 Use in Conversation Summary Activity

Activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Conversation summary	6 (6.7%)	0

As mentioned before, students were supposed to prepare the conversation as an oral summary or a role play. In most observed sessions they preferred role playing a conversation to talking about it, although many students did not like either of them. Extract 21 shows how a reluctant student evaded talking about the conversation. In the first student turn in this episode the student turned down the teacher's request giving an excuse: *man aslan mokalema ro amadeh nakardam* [I have not prepared the conversation] the teacher tried to convince her to talk as she asked her to say whatever she could. Yet, she refused to talk insisting on the excuse: *na amadeh nistam* [no, I'm not ready] when the teacher asked her for the second time she revealed the main reason for being reluctant: *xeyli saxteh, nemitoonam* [it's very difficult. I can't]. This was a recurrent teacher-student discourse in most of the

sessions in which conversation summary or role play activity was practiced. I will return to this in the section on interpretive analysis of COLT.

Table 22 presents the major communicative feature of conversation summary activities. In this type of classroom activity students' modality was speaking although it was known as a teacher fronted activity (participant organization). Obviously students had the chance to control the content somehow since they could summarize the conversation in their own words; yet, they evaded the task as shown in Extract 21.

Extract 22 illustrates how a student attempted to talk about the conversation. She started telling the story in L2: "that is a..... change color and cloth, and two women" but she could not complete the sentence since she did not know the word "fight". Therefore she switched to L1 and used "*da'va kardan*" [fought] instead. In the second student turn she continued the story but turned to L1 after only four English words. This time a phrase in L1 was used to complete the message: "*ghati shodeh bood ba lebasashoon*" [was mixed with their clothes].

Table 22

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Conversation Summary Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	Material
conversation summary	T↔S/C	discourse	teacher-text-student	narrow	speaking	ext-L2-NNS

Extract 22

T:Fereshte

S:that is a.....,change color and cloth, and two womenدعاکردن[laughing][*da 'va kardan*] [they fought]

T:fight together okay.

S:because one blue Jeansبودد بالباساشون قاطی شده [students laugh] [*ghati shodeh bood ba lebasashoon*] [was mixed with their clothes]

An interesting point in this episode (Extract 22) was that when the student mixed L2 with L1 to convey meaning of the sentence, other students laughed showing it was odd to them. This did not happen in other forms of L1/L2 mixture.

Table 23

General Features of L1 Use in Conversation Summary Activity

Activity Conversation summary	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	-	-	2 (33.3%)	social/task	evasion/meaning
Teacher	-	-	-	-	-

Presenting general features of the use of L1 in conversation summary, Table 23 shows that the use of L1 in conversation activity was both social and task oriented. Students used L1 to evade the task as it was described in Extract 20 or convey meaning (Extract 21). The interactional features of the use of L1 in

conversation summary activities in Table 24 will give more details on the characteristics of the L1 used by students in this part of speaking area.

Table 24

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Conversation Summary Activity

Activity Conversa- tion summary	Major interactional features						
	Dis- course initiation	Giving info.	Re- quest info.	Sustain ed speech	Reac- tion	form restrict- tion	Incorporation
student	-	pred/un pred.	-	min.	mess.	unrest.	comment
teacher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

With regard to information gap (third and fourth column in Table 24), students did not use L1 to request information. However, they used it to give predictable and unpredictable information. For example in Extract 21 all students' turns are featured as giving unpredictable information, since the student tried to evade the task and the reasons or excuses could not be known or anticipated in advance by the questioner. On the other hand the student turns in Extract 22 were all predictable since the student was describing a known story from the conversation.

The information under reaction and incorporation columns of Table 24 indicates that in conversation summary activities the reactions to message were mainly comments. For example in Extract 21 the teacher tried to make the student talk when she said: "Faezeh try to speak" but in reaction to her request the student commented on the difficulty of the task and replied: *xeyli saxteh, nemitoonam* [it's very difficult. I can't].

Table 24 reports that students' use of L1 in conversation summary activity was unrestricted meaning that it was not constrained by any language structures taught in

the lesson. Review of student turns in Extracts 21 and 22 confirms the information in this Table.

4.2.2.5 L1 in role play activity

Role play was one of the most recurrent activities in speaking area which usually occurred after conversation had been taught in the preceding session. In this activity two or three students (based on the number of roles in the conversation) were requested to come and role-play the conversation for the class. The use of L1 in this activity was significantly higher than other activities within the speaking area. As shown in Table 25, in 46 student turns and 9 teacher turns of role play activity 51 percent and 37 percent (respectively) of the use of L1 in speaking area was recorded. This high amount of L1 use is a significant point in speaking activities being discussed later.

Table 25

Frequency of L1 Use in Role Play Activity

activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Role play	46 (51.1%)	9 (37.5%)

Table 26 summarizes the major communicative features of role play activities. As can be seen in this Table, most of the communicative features of this activity type are similar to the other activities in speaking area except for student modality. In speaking area, role play activities and conversation presentation activities were the only ones

having students as listeners rather than speakers. This can be due to the nature of these two activities.

Table 26

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Role Play Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
Role play	T↔S/C	Dis-course	teacher-text	narrow	listening/-speaking	ext-L2-NNS

Before proceeding to the general features of the use of L1 in role play activities we will look at an excerpt of classroom discourse which illustrates a common reaction of students to teacher's request for role-playing the conversation.

Extract 23

S: من نخوندم: [man naxoondam][I didn't study]

T: why?

S: من مريض بودم نتونستم: [man mariz boodam natoonestam][I was sick.I couldn't study]

T: English not Persian

S: چی: [chi?][What?]

T: English

S: من بلدنیستم آخه: [man balad nistam axeh!][I can't]

T: try to speak English

S: نشد بخونم شرمنده اولین جلسه ست تکلیفم انجام ندادم

[*nashod bexoonam sharmandeh, avalin jalasast taklifam anjam nadadam*][I

couldn't, excuse me! This is the first session I didn't do my homework]

T: I'm so sorry, I didn't memorize conversation ok Fereshte come here, Hamideh write two times of the conversation for the next session and memorize it

T: two times write the conversation

S: بنویسم [*benevisam?*][should I write?]

T: two times

S: یه بار من نخوندم دیگه [*ye bar man naxoondam dige!*][just once I didn't study]

T: MEMORIZE IT OKAY. For the next session

In the above episode (Extract 23) from the second observed session teacher asked one of the students to role-play the conversation but she evaded by admitting the fact that she had not studied the conversation at home: *man naxoondam* [I didn't study]. The teacher demanded using English to explain the reason but she insisted on the difficulty of the task: *man balad nistam axeh!* [I can't] and finally it resulted in a conflict between the teacher and the student.

Students' evasion was the most frequent episode of L1 use in role play activities. Table 27 indicates the average orientation of L1 use in role play activities was social and the main function was to evade. Therefore, this fact can explain why 45.6 percent of L1 use was off task in this type of activity.

Table 27

General Features of L1 Use in Role Play Activity

Activity	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	21 (45.6%)	3 (6.5%) sentence	5 (10.8%)	social	evasion
Teacher	1 (11.1%)	-	2 (22.2%)	management	procedure

To obtain a clearer picture of the teacher's use of L1 in role play activities I will look into another episode of classroom discourse from the first observed session when three students were role-playing the conversation and they lost their roles.

Extract 24

T: you are Helen? Wendy and you're Rex, Okay listen to your friends

... (Uncodable)

T: مطمئنید دارید مکالمه روانجام می دید [motma'enid darid mokalema ro anjam midid?][are you sure you are doing the conversation?] I told you when you want to do the conversation you should feel that. Leila, you should be happy,"they're interesting"feel the conversation

S: اون جلسه من نبودم [oon jalaseh man naboodam][I was absent previous session]

T: you were absent, you didn't call your friend?

S: اومدم اونجا، اومدم پیشتون گفتم مریض بودم [oomadam oonja. Oomadam pishetoon goftam mariz boodam][I came there I came and told you I was sick]

T: خواهرایی که لطف می کنید غیبت می کنید به دوستتون زنگ بزنید، بدونید برای جلسه بعد چه کاری باید انجام بدید

[xaharaei ke lotf mikonid gheybat mikonid be doostetoon zang bezanid bedoonid baraye jalaseye ba'd che kar bayad anjam bedid.][Dear sisters, when you do me a favor and you are absent, call your friend and ask what you should do for the coming session]

S: شماره تلفنشون نداریم [shomareh telefoneshoon o nadarim][we don't have their phone number]

T: okay Leila thank you

In this episode (Extract 24) when students made several attempts to find their roles using L1, the discourse was uncodable. After some minutes of struggle

they gave up and the teacher ironically asked: *motma'enid darid mokalema ro anjam midid?* [are you sure you are doing the conversation?] She continued explaining the way she expected them to do the task. The first reaction to teacher's dissatisfaction was an excuse: *oon jalaseh man naboodam*. [I was absent previous session]. The defense was neutralized by the teacher when she explained the absentee's duty: *xaharaei ke lotf mikonid gheybat mikonid be doostetoon zang bezanid bedoonid baraye jalaseye ba'd che kar bayad anjam bedid*. [Dear sisters, when you do me a favor and you are absent, call your friend and ask what you should do for the coming session] Actually, this was a management oriented use of L1 aiming to explain a procedure expected to be followed by learners.

These excerpts of classroom discourse (Extract 23 and 24) can also shed light on the interactional features of the use of L1 in role play activities shown in Table 28. As can be seen in this table L1 was used in genuine information request and giving unpredictable information. These features were observed in any request or response (in L1) in the mentioned episodes.

Table 28

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Role Play Activity

Activity	Major interactional features						
	Dis-course initiation	Giving info.	Re-request info.	Sustained speech	Reaction	form restriction	Incorporation
student	10 (21.7%)	unpred.	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	comment
teacher	-	unpred.	gen.	min.	mess.	-	comment

Although there were 10 student turns initiating discourse in L1, they did not represent a high percentage of the use of L1 as a discourse initiator in role play activity (21.7 percent). None of the students' L1 turns in the above episodes (Extract 23 and 24) start a discourse. Regarding the reaction to preceding utterance, no form focused reaction was observed in this type of activity. The researcher's observation also confirms that even the students' pronunciation errors were not corrected by the teacher and most reactions were either student's comments on teacher's message or teacher's managerial comments on the procedural aspects of the activity. We saw teacher's managerial comments in Extract 24 and the following episode (Extract 25) shows how student commented on the situation and each other's utterances. In this excerpt of role play activity after they mixed up roles, S1 reviewed each person's role to manage the activity: *bebin goft what's this box goftam what are these ba'd goftan they're earrings* [look, she said what's this box I said what are these then she said they're earrings] reacting on her message S2 approved what she said and added what S1 had missed herself: *dorosteh. Ghesmate axaresho nagofti*[[that's right, you didn't say the last part] .

Extract 25

S1: They're earrings بعد گفتن what are these گفت what's this box? ببین گفت [*bebin goft what's this box goftam what are these ba'd goftan they're earrings*][look, she said what's this box I said what are these then she said they're earrings]

S2: درستة قسمت آخر شو نگفتی: [*dorosteh. Ghesmate axaresho nagofti*][that's right, you didn't say the last part]

T: okay thank you

S3: نمرت کم نمی شه بیا بشی: [nomrat kam nemishe bia beshin][you don't lose score come and sit]

Finally when they could not find their roles to continue the activity, the teacher thanked them meaning to sit down. Since they hesitated for a moment before sitting down a student commented on the situation: *nomrat kam nemishe bia beshin* [you don't lose score come and sit]. This comment assumes that the students who could not role-play the conversation were worried about the consequences of the situation.

4.2.3 The Use of L1 in Grammar Area

Teaching grammar was an essential part of the classroom discourse. Besides occasional grammar explanations during other classroom activities, in 6 sessions out of 10 the teacher was directly dealing with teaching grammar focus exercises. Figure 12 illustrates a grammar focus activity from the Interchange Intro. This type of exercise coming after conversations (Figure 11) focuses on the main grammatical points of the lesson. The beginning of each grammar focus activity was by a short introduction of the topic in L2.

5 GRAMMAR FOCUS

Possessives		
Adjectives	Pronouns	Names
my	mine	Pat's blouse /s/
your	yours	Julie's jeans /z/
These are his socks.	his	Rex's T-shirt /iz/
her	These socks are hers.	Whose blouse is this? It's Pat's.
our	ours	Whose jeans are these? They're Julie's.
their	theirs	

Figure 12. Grammar activity.

The following extract from the seventh observed session shows the introduction of the grammar focus shown in Figure 12.

Extract 26

T: okay, now we want to talk about possessive adjectives.

Do you know what's the meaning of possessive adjectives? [sic]

S: صفت مالکیت [sefate malekiyat][possessive adjective]

T: uhum, Excellent صفت مالکیت for I.....use, my you? [Uhum, excellent sefate malekiyat][Uhum, excellent possessive adjective].

The teacher introduces the activity directly shifting from conversation role play to grammar focus: “okay, now we want to talk about possessive adjectives”. The introductions in all segments of the classroom activities were in L2. However, the shift to L1 occurs immediately after the introduction especially in grammar area.

Table 29 shows the frequency of students and teacher's use of L1 in grammar area. As shown in the table, surprisingly in grammar area the use of L1 in teacher turns is higher than student's use of L1, 58.4 percent and 41.6 percent respectively.

Table 29

Frequency of L1 use in Grammar Area

Activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Grammar	75 (41.6%)	105 (58.4%)

This high percentage of the use of L1 in grammar area was one of the most significant findings of the study and will be discussed later.

It was expected to see that the participant organization of grammar area activities was teacher centered (Table 30) and the content focus was on form (grammar).

Table 30

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Grammar Area

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	Material
Grammar	T↔S/C	form	teacher-text	narrow	listening	min-L2- NNS

One of the main differences of the major communication features of the grammar area was the type of material that the class was dealing with. Unlike speaking area, in grammar activities students were working on minimal materials meaning that the

material consisted of isolated sentences rather than dialogues or paragraphs (see Figure 12).

With regard to the general features of the use of L1 in grammar activities (Table 31) both students and teacher used L1 (12% and 4% respectively) talking about topics having no links to the task. The following episode (Extract 27) shows the teacher's use of L1 off task.

Extract 27

T: For example we are good students, yeah

S: No

T: انرژی مثبت بدین شاید تاثیر داشته باشه [enerzhiye mosbat bedin shayad ta'sir dashteh basheh][send positive energy it might be effective]

As this excerpt shows, the teacher gave an example sentence to teach a grammatical point: "For example we are good students, yeah" but she got an unexpected response: "No" therefore she used L1 in a social oriented function (off task) to fix the situation: *enerzhiye mosbat bedin shayad ta'sir dashteh basheh* [send positive energy it might be effective]. L1 was used socially oriented in off task turns, although the average use of L1 in this area was task oriented aiming to convey meaning (by students) or explain something (by the teacher).

Table 31

General Features of L1 Use in Grammar Area

Area	General features				
Grammar	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	9 (12%)	21 (28%) word	18 (24%)	Task	Meaning
Teacher	5 (4.7%)	11 (10.4%) word/sentence	69 (65.7%)	task	Explanation

Table 31 indicates that teacher used L1 for translation about half as much the students did. However the mix of L2 with L1 turns was much greater for the teacher than the students (65.7% and 24% respectively). Since this was a major feature of teacher turns in grammar presentation activity, it will be discussed and exemplified later in the grammar presentation activity section.

Table 32

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Grammar Area

Area	Major interactional features						
Grammar	Discourse initiation	Giving info.	Re request info.	Sus tained speech	Reac tion	form restrict tion	Incorpora tion
student	16 (21.3%)	pred.	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	elab./comment
teacher	-	Unpred	Pseudo	Min./sus t	Mess.	-	comment

Regarding the major interactional features of the use of L1 in grammar area, 16 student turns were characterized as discourse initiators (Table 32). Information gap features of the use of L1 in this area shows students used L1 to give predictable

information or they used it in genuine requests for information while the teacher use of L1 was to give unpredictable information or to make pseudo requests. The following extract illustrates a pseudo request for information.

Exctract 28

T: for example this is my wallet

که داریم is&this گفتیم توضیح دادیم singular this باچه فعلی به کاربرده می شه؟
طبق structure درمورد

[*tebghe structure ke darim dar mowrede this va is goftim, tozih dadim this singular ba cheh fe'li be kar bordeh misheh?*][according to this structure we explained about “this” and “is”. what verb is used with singular “this” ?]

S: is

As stated before, the introduction of each new point in this area was in L2. In this part of grammar presentation episode the goal was teaching “identifying things” (is this...?) and the teacher started with an example in L2 using the structure known by students: “for example this is my wallet” then there was a sudden shift to L1 explaining the structure: *tebghe structure ke darim dar mowrede this va is goftim* [according to this structure we explained about “this” and “is”] (Table 31 shows the major function of the use of L1 in teacher’s turns was “ explanation”).To complete her explanation she made the pseudo request for information: *tozih dadim this singular ba cheh fe'li be kar bordeh misheh* [we explained, what verb is used with singular “this” ?] Besides information gap features, this episode (Extract 28) demonstrates a sustained teacher turn (see Table 32) and the teacher’s high tendency of L1/L2 mix in grammar area.

Table 32 also indicates that most of teacher's L1 reactions in grammar area were comments on the message of the students' utterances. However, students both commented and requested for elaboration in their reactions to teacher's talk.

4.2.3.1 L1 in grammar presentation

Besides occasional grammatical explanations in other activities, teaching grammar focus of each lesson (Figure 12) had two main segments. In these parts of the book, teacher first presented the grammatical point(s) of the lesson and then students practiced the subsequent exercise(s). In this section the use of L1 in grammar presentation segment will be explored.

As stated earlier, teacher's use of L1 was significantly noticeable in grammar area. Table 33 indicates that 90.4 percent of this considerable amount of L1 in teacher turns was in teaching grammar. The use of L1 by students during grammar presentation was also 78.6 percent of the students' L1 turns in grammar area.

Table 33

Frequency of L1 Use in Grammar Presentation Activity

Activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Grammar presentation	59 (78.6%)	95 (90.4%)

According to the table of major communicative features of the use of L1 in grammar presentation activities (Table 34), the discourse was teacher fronted and predominantly

controlled by the teacher focusing on form, therefore it was predictable to see students listening to the teacher rather than speaking (Table 34). As Figure 12 shows and Table 34 confirms, the material in this type of activity consisted of separate sentences and phrases rather than paragraphs or longer pieces of discourse.

Table 34

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Grammar Presentation Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
Grammar presentation	T↔S/C	form	teacher-text	narrow	listening	min-L2-NNS

It is interesting to note that in grammar presentation practices only one off task student and teacher turn was recorded (Table 35). Before going further explaining the general features of the use of L1 in grammar presentation area, we will look at an excerpt of classroom discourse in a grammar presentation activity.

Extract 29

T: and now we want to make question

گفتیم بخوایم سوال بپرسیم جای thisمون که حالت subjectمون داره با فعلمون چه کار می کنیم؟
bekhaym so 'al beporsim jaye this e moon ke halat e sabbject e moon ro dareh ba fe'lemoon chikar mikonim? [We said if we wanted to make a question the position of this which is our subject and our verb is what?]

S: عوض می کنیم: [avaz mikonim] [changed]

T: هم تبدیل به چی می شه؟ my [my ham tabdil be chi misheh?] [my is changed to what?]

S: you

As can be seen in this episode, students and teacher's use of L1 was task oriented and the teacher used L1 teaching grammar by explaining the structure (Table 35). After a very brief introduction of the topic in L2 she started explaining in L1: *goftim bekhaym so'al beporsim jaye this e moon ke halat e sabject e moon ro dareh ba fe'lemoon chikar mikonim?* [We said if we wanted to make a question the position of this which is our subject and our verb is what?]

Table 35

General Features of L1 Use in Grammar Persentation Activity

Activity	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	1 (1.6%)	19 (32.2%) word	14 (23.7%)	task	meaning
Teacher	1 (1%)	10 (10.5%) word	64 (67.3%)	task	explanation

Actually this explanation comes in the form of request for information when she asks the students to complete her statement by asking "*chikar mikonim?*" [is what?] . This type of pseudo requests for information (Table 36) was immediately followed by a readymade response: *avaz mikonim* [changed] which is in fact the completion of the teacher's statement rather than a genuine response to the request.

Another important feature of teacher's use of L1 in grammar presentation activity was the high percentage of L1/L2 mix. As shown in Table 35, 67 percent of teacher's L1 turns were mixed with L2 words especially grammar words like subject, adjective, noun etc. For a clear example we can see the first turn of Extract

29 when the teacher said: “goftim *bekhaym so'al beporsim jaye* **this** *e moon ke halat e subject e moon ro dareh ba fe'lemoon chikar mikonim?*” or when she was explaining the order of nouns and adjectives in Extract 30 “*aval adjective ha ro estefadeh mikonim va ba'd noun estefadeh mikonim. Bara'ksesh be hich onvan emkanpazir nist.*” This kind of L1/L2 mixture mainly appeared in teacher's grammar explanations or students' elaboration requests.

To learn more about the features of the use of L1 by teacher and students some episodes of classroom discourse in grammar presentation activities will be discussed here. In the following episode the teacher aimed to teach the order of adjective and noun.

Extract 30

T: All of the colors are adjectives for example you say tall. What's the meaning of tall?

S: بلند [*boland*] [tall]

T: short

S: کوتاه [*kootah*] [short]

T: Thin?

S: لاغر [*laghar*] [thin]

T: fat all of them are adjectives okay? pay attentions at the first we have an adjective then we have a noun for example you say a tall boy, at the first adjective tall, then we have a noun for example you say beautiful girl, beautiful adjective, girl noun, at the first we use adjective then we use noun okay? you shouldn't say a boy tall, No you should say a tall boy, short boy, beautiful girl, handsome man okay? Do you understand?

اول adjective هار استفاده می کنیم وبعد noun استفاده می کنیم. برعکس به هیچ عنوان امکان پذیر نیست.

[*aval adjective ha ro estefadeh mikonim va ba'd noun estefadeh mikonim. Bara'ksesh be hich onvan emkanpazir nist.*][first we use adjective and then we use noun.we can't do the reverse at all.]

Starting with a short introduction in L2 (as it was observed in all grammar presentation activities) she requested meaning of the adjectives from the students. The students' response was ultra-minimal (one word), although the average feature for the student L1 turns was minimal as shown in Table 36. The last turn was a sustained teacher turn in L2 which came with a brief summary of the explanations in L1 at the end of the talk.

Form restriction which is a feature of student's talk in COLT was characterized as both restricted and unrestricted in grammar presentation activity (Table 36). To understand this feature of student talk we need to look at the students' turns in Extract 30 and 31.

Table 36

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Grammar Presentation

Activity	Major interactional features						
Grammar presentation	Dis-course initiation	Gi-ving info.	Re-quest info.	Sus-tained speech	Reac-tion	form restrict-tion	Incorporation
student	13 (22%)	pred.	gen.	min.	form	rest./unrest.	elab.
teacher	-	unpred.	pseud.	sust.	mess.	-	comment

In Extract 30 we can see the teacher's request for the meaning of words: "All of the colors are adjectives for example you say tall. What's the meaning of tall?"

However, this was a part of teaching grammar. The students' restricted turns were the ones in response to the teacher's meaning requests. According to COLT translations are coded as restricted since they impose a relative restriction on the structure of the students' utterances. On the other hand Extract 31 illustrates a student turn in which no restriction was imposed by the teacher or text.

Extract 31

S: ببخشید خانم نوروزی اینجاست و سوالتون الان گفتین are these اینجاست یا نه؟ *bebaxshid xanom Nowroozi inja too so'aletoon alan goftin are they, inja chera these are migin?* [excuse me Ms. Nowroozi, here in your question you said are they, why do you say these are migin?]

T: are these your jeans, are these your earrings? Yes they are

تو جوابش خوب جواباشو با they داریم، گفتیم آگه با this و that سوال پرسیده می شه شمامی تونین با it جواب بدین اینجاهم آگه با these & those سوال پرسیده می شه شمامی تونین جواب بدین

[too javabesh xob javabesho ba they darim goftim ageh ba this o that so'al porsideh mishe shoma mitoonin ba it javab bedin inja ham age ba these ys those so'al porsideh mishe shoma ba they mitoonin javab bedin] [well, in answer we have the response with they we said if the question comes with this or that you can respond with it here also if the question comes with these or those you can answer with they]

In this episode the teacher was teaching the interrogative structure “are these...?” and the short answers “yes, they are” / “No, they aren't”. As seen above, a student raised a question as a reaction to the structure of the teacher's utterance, not being constrained by the teacher's speech: *bebaxshid xanom Nowroozi inja too so'aletoon alan goftin are these, inja chera they are migin?* [Excuse me Ms. Nowroozi, here in your question you said are these, why here you say they are?]. It is important to note here that in grammar presentation activities the students' reactions were

predominantly to the form of teacher's utterance and they requested further elaboration as this episode illustrates (Table 34).

4.2.3.2 L1 in grammar individual/ pair work

Following the grammar focus, grammar exercises in the interchange book tend to provide an opportunity for practicing the newly taught structures. Figure 13 shows a grammar exercise of the third observed session.

A Complete the conversations. Then practice with a partner.

1. A: Hiroshi, *are* you and Maiko from Japan?
B: Yes, we
A: Oh? you from Tokyo?
B: No, not, from Kyoto.
2. A: Laura from the U.S.?
B: No, not. She's from the U.K.
A: she from London?
B: Yes, she But her parents are from Italy. not from the U.K. originally.
A: Laura's first language Italian?
B: No, not English.
3. A: Selina and Carlos from Mexico?
B: No, not from Brazil.
A: you from Brazil, too?
B: No, not. I'm from Peru.
A: So, your first language Spanish?
B: Yes, it



Figure 13. Grammar practice activity.

The grammar focus of lesson three deals with negative statements and yes/no questions with be. As we can see in the above grammar practice activity, the blanks are to elicit the yes/no questions or short answers. In grammar practice activities the teacher usually asked students to fill in the blanks and then they read the completed exercises aloud and the teacher corrected the errors. As Table 37 shows, in this type of activity, unlike grammar presentation activities the use of L1 in teacher turns was less than the L1 used in students' turns (9.6 percent and 21.4 percent respectively).

Table 37

Frequency of L1 Use in Grammar Individual/Pair Work

Activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Grammar individual/pair work	16 (21.4%)	10 (9.6%)

To draw a clearer picture of the use of L1 in grammar practice activities we turn to some excerpts of classroom discourse. Extracts 32 and 33 illustrate episodes of the use of L1 in grammar practice activity shown in Figure 13 (above). In this activity the students first completed the short dialogues individually. Then the teacher called on students to read the dialogues and she corrected the mistakes. The following episodes (32 and 33) of the use of L1 were recorded when a student was reading the second dialogue in this grammar exercise (Figure 13).

Extract 32

S: Is she Laura...

T: No, no, no ..is Laura *شە subject خودش laura* *مون که داریم subject*

[*subject moon ke darim Laura xodesh subject mishe, is Laura..*][we have a subject, Laura is our subject it is, Is Laura...]

Table 38 indicates that students were individually reading or writing during this type of activity. As illustrated in the table and demonstrated in this short excerpt of grammar practice activity (Extract 32), the content of this type of activity was form focused and the material was extended (see Figure 13).

Table 38

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Grammar Individual/Pair work Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
Grammar individual/pair work	individual. same	form	teacher-text student	narrow	reading/writing	ext.-L2-NNS

The participant organization of grammar activities was mainly dominated by individuals working on the same task (Table 38); as stated earlier, the students worked on the activity individually and then they were asked to read their answer aloud to the class. Before proceeding to the major communicative features of L1 use in grammar practice activities we will see another episode of the classroom discourse. Extract 33 illustrates how L1 occurred in the classroom discourse when a student was reading the last two lines of second exercise of grammar practice shown in Figure 13 above.

Extract 33

S: is Laura's first language Italian. No, she is not

T: در مورد first language ش که صحبت می کنه زبانش به اون که بر نمی گرده که No, it is not

she استفاده کنید به زبانش بر می گرده پس از چه کلمه ای استفاده می کنیم. در مورد زبانش صحبت می کنه نه درباره ی خودش

[No, it is not, dar mowrede first languagesh ke sohbat mikoneh zabanesh be oon ke barnemigardeh ke she estefadeh konid be zaboonesh barmigardeh pas az che kalamei estefadeh mikonim, no it is not, it is English dar mowrede zabanesh sohbat mikone na darbareye xodesh][No, it is not, when you talk about her first language, her language,

doesn't refer to her to use she so which word is used, no it is not. It is English. We talk about her language not herself]

Extracts 32 and 33 illustrate teacher's task oriented use of L1 in grammar practice activities. They also show how L1/L2 mixed in this type of classroom activity. Table 39 indicates a high percentage of L1/L2 mixture for the teacher turns compared with the students' turns. This can be observed in the mixture of English words with the L1 explanations of the teacher. For example in the above Extract (Extract33) the teacher mixed words and even short sentences with L1 when she corrected and explained the error: "*No, **it is not**, dar mowrede **first language**sh ke sohbat mikoneh zabanesh be oon ke barnemigardeh ke she estefadeh konid be zaboonesh barmigardeh pas az che kalamei estefadeh mikonim, **no it is not, it is English** dar mowrede zabanesh sohbat mikone na darbareye xodesh*" this kind of L1/L2 mixture can also be seen in teacher's talk in Extract 33 :"*subjectemoon ke darim Laura xodesh **subject** mishe, **is Laura..***" (L2 mixed words/sentences are in bold).

Table 39

General Features of L1 Use in Grammar Individual/Pair Work

Activity Grammar Individual/ pair	General features				
	off task	Transla- tion	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	9 (56.2%)	9 (56.2%) word	6 (37.5%)	task	meaning
Teacher	3 (30%)	1 (10%) sentence	5 (50%)	task	explanation

Off task use of L1 in grammar practice activity was recorded in students' turns (9 turns) more than the teacher's (3 turns). Extract 34 shows off task student and teacher turns in a grammar practice activity of the eighth observed session. After teaching present continuous the teacher asked students to write five questions using the present continuous structure. L1 appeared when a student did not understand the teacher's demand.

Extract 34

T: make questions, questions about your classmates about your friend got it?

S: No

T: پنج تا سوال بنویسید [panjta soa'l benevisid][write five questions]

S: در مورد چی؟ [dar mowrede chi?][about what?]

T: کشتمت حمیده [koshtamet hamideh][I'll kill you Hamideh]

S: انگلیسی در حد صفره دیگه من چیکار کنم؟ [Engelisi dar hade sefre digeh man chikar konam?][my English is equal to zero what can I do?]

T: چی؟ [chi?] [what?]

S: می گم انگلیسیم در حد صفره من چیکار کنم؟ [migam engelisim dar hade sefre man chikar konam] [I say my English is equal to zero what can I do?]

T: خوب اومدی اینجا که در حد صفر نباشی دیگه [xob oomadi inja ke dar hade sefr nabashi dige][well, you came here not to be equal to zero right?]

S: راه می افتم فعلا [rah mioftam felan] [I'll progress for now]

As shown in the preceding episode (Extract 34) the first teacher's reaction to the student's lack of understanding was a translation of the request. It was interesting that even after translating the sentence into Persian the student did not get the instruction so she asked: *dar mowrede chi?* [about what?] This made the teacher angry. To avoid a conflict she added humor, reacting to the message of the student's utterance she

commented: *koshtamet hamideh* [I'll kill you Hamideh] meaning that she was expected to understand the instruction.

Table 40

Major Interactional Features of Grammar Individual/ Pair Work

Activity Grammar Individual/ pairwork	Major interactional features						
	Dis- course initiation	Gi- ving info.	Re- quest info.	Sus- tained speech	Reac- tion	form restrict- tion	Incorpor- ation
student	3 (18.7%)	unpred .	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	comment
teacher	-	unpred .	gen.	min.	form	-	elab.

The Table of major interactional features of the grammar practice activities (Table 40) shows that in this type of activity, students used L1 to react to the teacher's message while the teacher reacted on the form of the students' utterances using L1. As we saw in Extract 32 (the first line) when the student filled the blank with a wrong word (she, in the first line Extract 32), the teacher reacted on the student's utterance by explaining the error. Similarly, in Episode 33 the teacher reacted on the use of a wrong pronoun (she) used by one of the students. Table 40 indicates that most of these reactions were elaborations of the grammatical point as it can be seen in the above mentioned episodes.

4.2.4 The Use of L1 in Vocabulary Area

Word power exercises in interchange intro book were the main source of new words designed to give necessary vocabulary of each lesson. However, as stated

previously in speaking presentation, teaching the new vocabularies of the conversations was an inseparable segment of this classroom activity. Similarly, grammar presentation and grammar individual/pair work activities came with the teacher's requests for the meaning of some new words. The vocabulary area here involves the classroom activities in which their sole aim was to introduce new vocabularies and it consisted of both vocabulary presentation and vocabulary individual/pair work activity. Figure 14 (below) illustrates a word power exercise from the third lesson of new interchange intro book.

Since the presentation and practice activities did not come in separate segments of classroom discourse and the practices came along with presentation activity as a part of the teaching process, both (presentation and individual/pair work activity) are discussed in the next section.

10 **WORD POWER** *Descriptions*

A Listen and practice.



Figure 14. Vocabulary exercise.

4.2.4.1 L1 in vocabulary presentation and vocabulary individual/pair work activity

As Table 41 shows, the frequency of L1 turns in teacher and student talk in vocabulary area is much lower than the rate of L1 turns in speaking and grammar area. From this relative low use of L1 in vocabulary area, students had a higher proportion (80%) of L1 use than the teacher (20%).

Table 41

Frequency of L1 Use in Vocabulary Area

activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Vocabulary	12 (80%)	3 (20%)

Major communicative features of L1 use in vocabulary area (Table 42) picture this type of classroom event as a teacher fronted and form focused activity. Besides grammar, COLT defines vocabulary and pronunciation as “form”. Thus all activities in vocabulary area were categorized as form focused. The material of this type of activity was minimal (short sentences containing the new word) as can be seen in Figure 14. Since the content was controlled by either teacher or text, one can predict that the students’ modality would be listening (see Table 42).

Table 42

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Vocabulary Area

Area	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
Vocabulary	T↔S/C	form	teacher-text	narrow	listening	min.-L2-NNS

Before proceeding to the general features of L1 use in this area we will see some episodes of L1 use in vocabulary presentation and vocabulary Individual/pair work activity. In the following episode (Extract 35a) the teacher was teaching the word power exercise shown in Figure 14.

Extract 35a

T: he is quiet. What's the meaning of quiet?

S: ساکت [*saaket*] [quiet]

T: opposite of talkative, what's the meaning of talkative. A person who talks a lot.

S: زیاد حرف می زنه [*ziad harf mizaneh*] [talks too much]

T: are you talkative or no you are quiet person. In English class you are talkative out of the English class you are quiet person.

S: yes

T: okay what is serious?

S: جدی [*jedi*] [serious]

T: opposite of funny yeah? Opposite of funny

Friendly and shy, shy and friendly are opposite together [sic] what's the meaning of shy

S: خجالتی [*xejalati*] [shy]

An interesting point in teaching vocabulary was the meaning elicitation technique used by the teacher. As you can see in the first teacher turn of this episode the teacher

demands the meaning of the new vocabulary by saying: “What’s the meaning of quiet?” This request was followed by students’ reply in L1, *saaket* [quiet]. Obviously the teacher knew that the students would not be able to give the definition of the word in L2. Therefore, one could conclude that the teacher requested the L1 meaning of the word. The same technique was used for the rest of the words in this exercise and other vocabulary activities. All teacher requests for meaning were replied by students using the Persian equivalent of the word. According to Table 43, student’s use of L1 in vocabulary area was task oriented and the main function of L1 in this area was to convey meaning as we saw in Extract 35a. To learn more about L1 use in this area we will look into the second part of this episode later.

Table 43

General Features of L1 Use in Vocabulary Area

Area	General features				
	Vocabulary	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation
Student	-	7 (58.3%)	1 (8.3%)	task	meaning
Teacher	-	2 (66.6%)	-	management	procedure

As stated earlier, the presentation and practice activities in vocabulary area were intermingled and they were not separate segments of classroom activities. The following extract shows that while teaching new words (vocabulary presentation) the teacher asked students to describe their classmates’ appearance and personality (vocabulary practice). This excerpt (Extract 35b) of classroom discourse is the

continuation of Extract 35a and it will provide more details on the use of L1 in vocabulary area.

Extract 35b

T: are you shy or no you are friendly person?

S1: friendly person

T: okay. Thank you very much

T: Arezoo wants to talk about Faeze

[The student doesn't know what to do]

T: مورد فایزه صحبت کن: about her appearance and talk about her personality [*darmowrede Fae'ze sohbat kon*][talk about Fae'ze]

S2: من باید درموردش صحبت کنم دیگه؟ [*man bayad darmowredesh sohbat konam digeh?*][I should talk about her, right?]

T: هیس میترا [*hiss mitra*][Sh Mitra]

S2: her good looking

T: her no, she is

S2: she is good looking, she is serious. She is shy

T: Really Faeze [she surprises]

S2: she is really tall

T: Faeze you talk about Arezoo

S2: بگو [*begoo*][say]

S3: she is talkative [S2 looks at her surprisingly]

بد نگاه کرد she is very thin she is really friendly
[*xob bebaxshid*, she is quiet, *bad negah kard*, she is very thin, she is really friendly][okay sorry, she is quiet, she gave me a nasty look, she is very thin, she is really friendly]

Besides the use of L1 in translation of the new words in response to the teacher's request for the meaning, L1 appeared in teacher and student turns when they could not make sense of the situation. Table 44 shows, the teacher's use of L1 in reaction to

student's speech in vocabulary area was predominantly situational. For example in the above episode (Extract 35b) when the teacher approached a student and said "Arezoo wants to talk about Faeze" (the fourth teacher turn) meaning that the student (S2) should describe her classmate's (S3) appearance and personality using the newly taught vocabulary, she just looked at the teacher silently. The teacher interpreted this silence as lack of understanding and the gadget of L1 appeared *dar mowrede Fae'ze sohbat kon* [talk about Fae'zeh] to clarify the situation and make the procedure understandable. While most teacher's L1 reactions to students' speech in this area was situational, students reacted to teacher's message using L1 to request for clarification. In the previous example when the teacher translated her sentence to help S2 make sense of the situation S2 reacted on the message for more clarification: *man bayad darmowredesh sohbat konam digeh?* [I should talk about her, right?]. This clarification request was followed by teacher's gesture of approval (a nod).

Table 44

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Vocabulary Area

Area Vocabulary	Major interactional features						
	Discourse initiation	Giving info.	Request info.	Sustained speech	Reaction	form restriction	Incorporation
student	3 (25%)	pred.	gen.	ultra min.	mess.	rest.	clarif.
teacher	-	pred.	gen.	min.	sit.	-	clarif.

As shown in Table 44, the use of L1 in students' turn was ultraminimal meaning that students used only one word in their L1 turns predominantly. A close look at Extract 35

reveals that the L1 words in student turns were the translation of the new vocabularies which were demanded by the teacher. For example when the teacher asked “okay, what is serious?” students answered “*jedi*” [serious] this way of teaching new vocabulary was observed in other classroom activities (i.e., in grammar area and speaking area) when there was an unknown word in teacher’s talk or in the classroom material. Regarding the features of the information gap category, the table indicates that students and the teacher used L1 to give predictable information and request information genuinely. Obviously, since most of the L1 turns were translations of words (in students’ turns) or the translation of procedural instructions (in teacher’s turn) the given information would be featured as predictable.


L1 as a discourse initiator was only observed in 3 student turns in vocabulary area. For one we can refer to the last three turns of Extract 35b. In this part of discourse the teacher asked a student (S3) to use the newly taught vocabulary and describe the appearance and the personality of her classmate (S2). She addressed S3: “Faeze you talk about Arezoo” but before S3 could respond to the teacher’s request, S2 started short a self-initiated turn which was not elicited by the teacher or task encouraging S3 to respond: *begoo* [say].

4.2.5 The use of L1 in listening area

The Interchange Intro book is accompanied by a CD providing audio material for most of the activities in the book. Conversation, listening, pronunciation and even grammar focus sections come with audio tracks on the CD yet it does not mean all these activities are in the listening area. Listening, pronunciation and the second part of conversation activities (part B) were considered as a part of listening area since the

primary goal of these sections was listening. Before proceeding to the features of use of L1 in listening we will look into the activities in this area.

Conversation activities in the interchange intro book have two parts accompanied by audio tracks. The first part (part A) which is a conversation contextualizing the grammatical points in a dialogue was considered as a speaking activity and the second part (part B) in which students listen to the rest of the dialogue from part A (but there is no text and they only listen to the audio CD and answer the question) was considered as a listening activity since its sole purpose is listening. Figure 15 shows the second part of conversation activity (part B) from interchange intro page 16.

B  Listen to Jessica and Tim talk to Tony, Natasha, and Monique. Check (✓) True or False.

	True	False
1. Tony is from Italy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Natasha is from New York.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Monique's first language is English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Figure 15. Conversation part B.

Another section of the book which came under listening area was pronunciation. Students learn the pronunciation of sounds and words or they practice the intonation or rhythm of the sentences in pronunciation exercises of each lesson. In this type of activity, the students listen to the correct pronunciation from the CD tracks and then practice the same pattern until they learn how to pronounce it. Figure 16 illustrates a pronunciation practice on syllable stress from interchange intro page 18.

4 **PRONUNCIATION** *Syllable stress*

A Listen and practice. Notice the syllable stress.

China	Japan	Canada	Morocco
Turkey	Brazil	Mexico	Malaysia
.....
.....

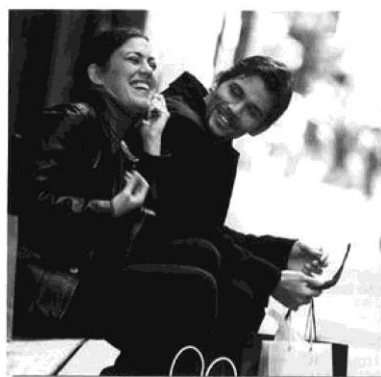
B What is the syllable stress in these words? Add the words to the chart in part A. Then listen and check.

English	Spanish	Arabic	Korean
Mexican	Honduras	Chinese	Peru

Figure 16. Pronunciation activity.

The listening section of the interchange intro book is an activity dedicated to the listening practice. As the name of this section suggests, its sole purpose is providing tasks and exercises to improve student's listening skills. Figure 17 shows a listening activity from interchange intro.

4 **LISTENING** *It's 4:00 P.M. in Vancouver.*



Tracy and Eric are calling friends in different parts of the world. Listen. What time is it in these cities?

City	Time
Vancouver	4:00 P.M.
Bangkok
Tokyo
São Paulo

Figure 17. Listening activity.

4.2.5.1 L1 in transcription and pronunciation activities

The use of L1 in listening area was limited to two main activities, listening transcription activity and pronunciation activity. Listening transcription was not a

section of the book, yet it was demanded by the teacher. In this activity students were supposed to listen to the audio tracks of a listening exercise (Figure 17) or conversation part B (Figure 15) and transcribe the audio material. Pronunciation exercises were the sections of the book shown in Figure 16. Here, I will turn to the features of the use of L1 in transcription and pronunciation activities.

The frequency table (Table 45) shows a relative equal use of use of L1 turns for teacher and students in listening area. Detailed analysis of L1 turns in this area indicated a significant difference in the use of L1 within transcription and pronunciation activities. From 16 teacher turns in which L1 occurred only 2 turns belonged to the pronunciation activities and it was surprising that students did not use L1 in this type of activity.

Table 45

Frequency of L1 Use in Listening Area

activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Listening	18 (51.4%)	17 (48.6%)

The table of major communication features of the use of L1 (Table 46) illustrates teacher fronted and form focused use of L1 in listening area. This means that L1 occurred when both teacher and students were involved in a talk and the main focus of the talk was either the recognition or the correct pronunciation of a word rather the meaning.

Extract 36 illustrates how a student used L1 in a transcription activity when she did not recognize a part of the sentence.

Extract 36

T: what did you say?

S: آهاچی پرسیدم؟ اون قبلش میگه thanks you چی چی می گه بعدش؟

[*aha, chi porsidam. Oon ghablesh migh thanks you chi chi migh badesh?*] [Oh, what did I ask? He said before thanks you what did say then?]

T: thanks you look good too,

As shown in Table 47, teacher's use of L1 in listening area was predominantly task oriented and she used L1 to give explanation. However, students' use of L1 was either social oriented to evade the task (Extract 37) or task oriented to request explanation. The above excerpt of a transcription activity shows how students requested for any single word or phrase of the audio tracks since they were supposed to transcribe it. However transcription of audio tracks was not part of the activities in the interchange intro book and interchange teacher's guide book does not even suggest it as a supplementary activity.

Table 46

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Listening Area

Activity	Major communicative features					Material
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	
Listening	T↔S/C	form	teacher-text	narrow	listening	Audio

Table 47 indicates that around 45 percent of students' L1 turns and 30 percent of teacher's turn in listening area was off task, although the detailed analysis of two activities in this area (transcription and pronunciation) revealed that all off task turns occurred in transcription activities.

Table 47

General Features of L1 Use in Listening Area

Area	General features				
Listening	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	8 (44.4%)	4 (22%)	5 (27.7%)	task/social	explanation/evasion
Teacher	5 (29.4%)	3 (17.6%) sentence	10 (58.8%)	task	Explanation

Extract 37 illustrates the off task use of L1 in transcription activity in the fourth observed session.

Extract 37

T: Faezeh

S: من ننوشتم [man naneveshtam][I have not written]

T: Hamide

S: منم نوشتم , نوشتم ولی این listening نیست نباید بنویسیم منم فقط گوش دادم

[manam neveshtam, neveshtam vali in listening nist nabayad benevisim manam faghat goosh dadam] [I have written, I have written but this is not listening we weren't supposed to write it]

T: چند دفعه سر کلاس [chan dafe sare keals][how many times in the class]

S: listening نیست [axeh in listening nist][well, this is not a listening]

من جلسه اول اومدم سر کلاستون فارسی صحبت کردم گفتم listening نوشته شده باشد شما باید بنویسید: T: [man jalaseye aval oomadam sare kelasetoon farsi sohbat kardam goftam listening neveshteh shodeh basheh shoma bayad benevisid] [the first session when I came to your class I spoke in Persian and I said that listening should be written and you have to write]

S: ببخشید من فقط گوش دادم: [bebaxshid man faghat goosh dadam][sorry I have just listened]

S2: باید می نوشتیم: [bayad mineveshtim][were we supposed to write]

T: بله: چه partb چه قسمت جدا از conversation باید بنویسید , گفتم جلسات اول اشکال نداره تا با روش: T:

من آشنا بشین اما بعدن دیگه شرمنده دیگه نمرات listening تون کم میشه مگه اینکه جبران کنین؟ Ok: [baleh, che part B che ghesmate joda az conversation bayad benevisid, goftam jalasate aval eshkal nadare tab a raveshe man aashna beshin ama ba'dan digeh sharmandeh nomarate listeningtoon kam misheh mageh inke jobran konin okay?][yes, either part B or separate parts from the conversation you should write. I said it's not a problem for the first sessions till you get used to my method but I'm sorry you will lose your listening score unless you compensate for that okay?]

Evasion as one of the functions of the students' use of L1 (Table 47) in transcription activities can be seen in off task discourse in this area. In the above episode the teacher asked a student to read the transcription of the conversation (part B) and she evaded the teacher's demand giving unpredictable information in a minimal speech turn (Table 4.45): *man naneveshtam* [I have not written]. Then the teacher asked the second student and she also evaded: *manam neveshtam, neveshtam vali in listening nist nabayad benevisim manam faghat goosh dadam* [I have written, I have written but this is not listening we weren't suppose to write it] to mitigate the effects of this conflict students claimed that it was not a part of listening activity therefore they were not supposed to transcribe it: *axe in listening nist* [well, this is not a listening]. Finally, in a sustained turn (Table 48) the teacher had to use L1 to remind them of the procedure she expected to be followed. Table 48 indicates that teacher and students predominantly reacted to

the message of the preceeding utterance and most of the reactions were their comments as we saw in this episode.

Table 48

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Listening Area

Area		Major interactional features					
Listening	Discourse initiation	Giv- ing info.	Re- quest info.	Sustain ed speech	Reac- tion	form restrict- tion	Incorpora- tion
student	1 (5.5%)	unpred	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	comment
teacher	-	unpred	gen.	min./sus t.	mess.	-	comment

To learn more about L1 use in pronunciation activities I will look into the following episodes.

Extract 38 (pronunciation activity)

T: We say chi, na, the stress is on the first syllable look at here, chi, na, okay? The stress is from the first syllable. do you understand?

S: Yes.

T: No, sharareh we say China two syllables okay? Japan, two syllables, but stress, do you know the meaning of stress? چیزی که خیلی قوی تر از قسمت‌های دیگه تلفظ می‌کنیم [chizi ke kheyli ghavitar az ghesmathaye digeh talafoz mikonim][something which is pronounced stronger than other parts]

As Extracts 38 and 39 illustrate, the use of L1 in pronunciation activities was limited to the teacher's explanations of the pronunciation of words or sentence intonation. For example in Extract 38 in the final turn the teacher requested the meaning of the word "stress" immediately after she used the word (stress) explaining the syllable stress

(Figure 16). She asked: “do you know the meaning of stress?” actually she did not use L1 to request information here, yet L1 occurred when she explained the word “stress” before receiving any response from the students.

Extract 39 (pronunciation)

T:yes, No questions intonation is rising but for wh-que your intonation is falling. got it?

S: Yes

S: No

T:تن صدائون برای yes/no que یعنی می ره بالا rising

You say are you married? Are you a teacher? But wh-question your intonation falling
You say where are you from? Falling Not for example: where are you from?No Where
are you from?Where do you like? Okay? [*tone sedation baraye yes/no question risingeh yani mireh bala*][the tone of your voice for yes/no question is rising meaning that it goes up]

Similarly, in Extract 39 the teacher used L1 to explain the meaning of “rising tone”:
tone sedation baraye yes/no question risingeh yani mireh bala [the tone of your voice for yes/no question is rising meaning that it goes up] it is important to note that in both episodes (38 and 39) the teacher’s explanation appeared after she checked student’s understanding and she realized that they did not understand the point.

4.2.6 The use of L1 in homework area

The L1 used in classroom discourse dealing with students’ homework such as homework assignment, homework check or homework reviews was analyzed and reported as the use of L1 in homework area. Unlike the previous areas (speaking,

listening, vocabulary, grammar) homework area has no particular section in the book and it could be either any part of the book assigned as a homework practice by the teacher or teacher requested material (student made material, Table 50).

As Table 49 shows, the students' use of L1 in homework area was far more than the teacher's (76 turns and 25 turns respectively). A noticeable pattern in teacher's language choice during the classroom was starting and ending the class in L2 and regarding the fact that most of the classroom talk about homework was in the beginning (talking about the previous session homework) or at the end of the class time (talking about the homework for the following session), one could predict the teacher's use of L1 in homework area would not be so high.

Table 49

Frequency of L1 Use in Homework Area

activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Homework	76 (75.4%)	25 (24.6%)

The table of major communication features of the use of L1 in homework area (Table 50) indicates that the participant organization of most of the activities in this area was teacher-student or teacher-class and the focus of the material (which was predominantly student made) was on the form. As the title of this area suggests, the topic was narrowly around the students' homework and the students were mainly reading their own writings in the classroom.

Table 50

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Homework Area

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
Homework	T↔S/C	form	teacher-text student	narrow	reading	student made/no material

All teachers' L1 turns and most of the students' L1 use in this area was task oriented (Table 51). However there are 14 student turns (18.4% of the students' turns) in which students used L1 to talk about something other than homework.

The use of L1 for translation was relatively low in this area for both the teacher and the students (10.5% and 20% respectively) while the teacher mixed L2 with L1 around twice as much. Regarding the function of L1 in this area, one could see from the Table 51 that students used L1 to convey meaning whereas L1 was used by the teacher to check students understanding.

Table 51

General Features of L1 Use in Homework Area

Area	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
Homework	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	14 (18.4%)	8 (10.5%)	19 (25%)	Task	Meaning
Teacher	-	5 (20%)	12 (48%)	task	Understanding

The major interactional features of teacher and students' L1 turns in this area have been summarized in Table 52. As seen in the table, L1 cannot be considered as a major discourse initiator in homework area since only 9.2 percent of the students' L1 use was to start a discourse. Comparing the information gap features of the students and teacher's use of L1 revealed that students used L1 to give unpredictable information and ask genuine questions; nevertheless the teacher's use of L1 to give information was predictable and unpredictable, and similarly L1 was used to request both pseudo and genuine information.

Table 52

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Homework Area

Area	Major interactional features						
	Dis-course initiation	Giv-ing info.	Re-quest info.	Sus-tained speech	Reac-tion	form restrict-ion	Incorp-oration
student	7(9.2%)	unpred .info	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	comment
teacher	-	unpred /pred.	pseudo. /gen.	min.	mess.	-	comment

The table also indicates that students and teacher used L1 to comment on the message of preceding utterance. It is also noticeable in the table that the use of L1 in this area is mainly in minimal teacher and student turns. The next section will provide more details and examples of the use of L1 in classroom discourse within activities of the homework area.

4.2.6.1 L1 in homework check

Homework check was one of the most recurrent classroom activities observed in nearly all sessions. In this activity the teacher moved around the classroom and checked the students' notebook or workbook while one of the students was reading her homework aloud. The teacher interrupted the student's speech when there was a problem in her homework. Extract 40 illustrates a typical beginning of homework check activity.

Extract 40

T: Ask questions, your friends answer your questions.

S1: where is your blouse?

S2: یه بار دیگه بخون: [ye bar dige bexoon][read it again]

T: یه بار دیگه بخون no,repeat-please.repeat [ye bar dige bexoon no,repeat please repeat][read it again no, repeat please repeat]

S2:it is blouse

T: No, No

S2: نمی فهمم معنیش چیه: [nemifahmam manish chieh][I don't understand what it means]

In the above episode (Extract 40) of classroom discourse, while the teacher was going around the class checking student's homework she addressed S1 to ask her self-made questions: "Ask questions, your friends answer your questions." It was stated earlier that the students read their homework material in the classroom. This can be seen in the above excerpt when S2 could not answer S1's question, she asked S1 to read again: ye bar dige bexoon [read it again]

As Table 53 indicates, there was a high frequency of L1 use in homework check activity (57 student turns and 17 teacher turns). The percentages of L1 use in this

activity refer to the fact that from all activities in homework area 74% of student's use of L1 and 68% of teacher's L1 turns was in homework check activity.

Table 53

Frequency of L1 Use in Homework Check Activity

activity	frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Homework check	57 (74%)	17 (68%)

The Table of major communicative features of this activity (Table 54) shows that this activity was teacher fronted and form focused. The classroom observations also confirm that most of the class time was spent on correcting the students' errors in this activity since the material was student made.

Table 54

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Homework Check Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
Homework check	T↔S/C	form	teacher-text student	narrow	reading	student made

Sometimes students' grammatical errors or questions were followed by teacher's L1 explanations as can be seen in Extract 41.

Extract 41

S: Excuse me من تو این جمله های کوتاهاو می خوام بگم مشکل دارم:

[excuse me, man too in jomlehayee kootaaho mixam begam moshkel daram][excuse me, I have problem when I want to say these short sentences]

T: چرا؟ به سوالی که داره طرف مقابل ازت می پرسه دقت کن ببینی چه سوالی می پرسه بعد دیگه:

میدونی اگر she باشه باید با she جواب بدی اگر نمی دونم یه نفر می پرسه اقا باشه he باید جواب بدی اگر بیشتر از یک شخص باشد مثلا این گفت محمد و مریم دیگه لزومی نداره مثلا محمد و مریم استفاده کنی به جاش

همون they استفاده می کنیم they aren't ,they aren't ,they are from ahvaz No ,they are ,they are

from Ahvaz. در مورد language می پرسه مثلا می پرسه is her first language در

مورد زبانش داره سوال می پرسه نه در مورد خود شخص پس جوئدار که نیست زبان یه چیزی که مثلا مثل انسانها ، آره از it استفاده می کنیم.

[chera? be soali ke tarafe moghabe azat miporse deghat kon.bebin che soali miporseh ba'd digeh midooni ageh she basheh bayad ba she javab bedi age nemidoonam ye nafar miporseh agha bashe ba he bayad javab bedi age bishtar az yek shaxs bashe masalan in goft Mohamad va Maryam dige lozoomi nadareh Mohammad va Marayam estefadeh koni be jash az hamoon they estefadeh mikonim yes they are they are from Ahvaz, No they aren't from Ahvaz. Dar mowrede language miporseh masalan miporseh is her first language dar mowrede zabanesh dareh so'al miporseh na dar mowrede xode shaxs pas joondar ke nist zaban ye chiziye ke masaln mesle ensanha, a're az it estefadeh mikonim] [why? Pay attention to the question your partner asks.then you know if he is used you should answer with he if she is used you answer with she. if the person is male you answer with he if more than one person for example she said Mohamad and Maryam you don't have to use Mohamad and Maryam instead you can use they, yes they are, they are from Ahvaz, No they aren't they aren't from Ahvaz. For language for example she asks is her first language is asking question about her language not the person herself so the language is not animate something like human, yes we use it.]

This lengthy explanation on the subject pronouns (Extract 41) was delivered by the teacher during a homework check activity when a student could not answer her classmate's question.

Table 55

General Features of L1 Use in Homework Check Activity

Activity Homework check	General features				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	8 (14%)	3 (5.2%) word	13 (22.8%)	task	meaning/explanation
Teacher	-	4 (23.5%) word	7 (41.17%)	task	explanation

As Table 55 shows, the use of L1 in homework check activities was predominantly task oriented in teacher and student turns although they used L1 for different purposes. L1 was used by students to convey meaning or request explanation. However, the teacher utilized L1 to give explanation (as can be seen in Extract 41). In this activity, L2 mixed in L1 turns was recorded twice more in teacher's turns than the students' (41.1% and 22.8% respectively).

Table 56

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Homework Check Activity

Activity Homework check	Major interactional features						
	Dis-course initiation	Giving info.	Re-request info.	Sus-tained speech	Reac-tion	form restrict-tion	Incorporation
student	5 (8.7%)	unpred.	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	Comment
teacher	-	unpred.	-	min.	form/ mess.	-	corr./ comment

Table 56 illustrates that L1 in homework check activities was not a significant discourse initiator since only 8% of students used it to start a discourse in the

classroom. One of the five occasions of L1 use for discourse initiation can be seen in Extract 42. In this episode S2 was supposed to answer S1's question. When S2 reacted to S1's utterance and requested for elaboration: *nemidoonam. Maryam va Mohammad kian?* [I don't know who are Maryam and Mohammad?] S3 started a nonelicited response: *pedareshooneh* [he is her father] which is coded as discourse initiation in COLT.

Extract 42

S1: Are Maryam and Mohamad from Ahvaz?

S2: Maryam and Mohamad? *نمیدونم, مریم و محمد کین* [*nemidoonam. Maryam va Mohammad kian?*][I don't know, who are Maryam and Mohammad?]

T: Mohamad is her brother

S3: *پدرشونه* [*pedareshooneh*][he is their father]

T: Her brother

S2: Brother

S1: *شوهر خالمه* [*shohar xalameh*][he is my uncle]

S2: No, he is not.

T: Mohammad and fereshte?

S2: And Maryam

T: Mohammad and fereshte [laughing] Mohammad and Maryam

S2: No, we not.

T: *نه در مورد اونا داری صحبت میکنی در مورد محمد و مریم*

[*na. darmowrede oona sohbat mikoni dar mowrede Mohamad va Maryam*][No. you are talking about them about Mohamad va Maryam]

S2: No, they re not. They're Maryam and Mohammad Qazvin.

The analysis of data in the information gap category (giving information and requesting information in Table 56) showed the teacher only used L2 to request information

meaning that all teachers' L1 turns were to give information or to react on the form or message of students' utterances. Three final turns of Extract 42 show a reaction to the form of student's utterance. In this episode when S2 said "we not" (instead of "they're not") the teacher commented on S2's utterance: *na. darmowrede oona sohbat mikoni dar mowrede Mohamad va Maryam* [No. You are talking about them about Mohamad va Maryam] to correct her statement.

4.2.6.2 L1 in homework assignment

Assigning homework was a part of every session, yet it was a brief L2 teacher turn. It usually occurred either after a grammar activity or at the end of the class. Table 57 shows low frequency of L1 use in student and teacher talk in this type of classroom activity (6 turns and 3 turns respectively).

Table 57

Frequency of L1 Use in Homework Assignment Activity

activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
Homework assignment	6 (7.8%)	3 (12%)

The major communication features of this type of activity present it as a teacher centered activity in which the content is predominately procedural (Table 58). Extract

43 shows an episode of L1 use in homework assignment activity from the seventh observed session.

Table 58

Major Communication Features of L1 Use in Homework Assignment

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	Material
homework assignment	T↔S/C	procedure	teacher-text	narrow	listening/speaking	min-L2NNS

As stated earlier, homework assignment usually started with teacher's L2 : "for the next session complete the other numbers and write...6 sentences at home about present continuous okay?" following the teacher's request a student's L1 turn appeared asking for clarification: *shishta az and o but ya az...* [Six sentence with "and" and "but" or of...] as this turn shows the student attempted to check her understanding of the teacher's talk. In the following teacher turn (the second teacher's turn) L1 was used to give the procedure of the homework: *na baraye and va but az harkodoom dota mesal ba subjecti ke darim present continuous dota mesal mizanin ba and va but harkodoom dota mesal mizanin* [Write two example for and and but with the subjects we have. Present continuous give two examples with and and but each one two examples]. The L2 words are boled faced.

Extract 43

T: for the next session complete the other numbers and write...6sentences at home about present continuous okay?

S: ...شش تا از and و but یا از ...:

[shishta az and o but ya az...][six sentence with and and but or of...]

T: نه برای and و but از هر کدام دو تا مثال بزنید باهر subjectی که داریم Present cont دو مثال می زنیم

با and و but هر کدام دو تا مثال می زنیم

For the next session you should memorize the conversation and listen to part 6 and you should write example for grammar on page 24 okay? thank you very much

[na baraye and va but az harkodoom dota mesal ba **subjecti** ke darim **present continuous** dota mesal mizandin ba **and** va **but** harkodoom dota mesal mizandin][Write two example for and and but with the subjects we have. Present continuous give two examples with and and but each one two examples].

Table 59 also indicates that students' use of L1 in homework assignment discourse was task oriented and its main function was understanding check, while the teacher's use of L1 was management oriented. The last two turns of Extracts 43 and 44 the teacher assigned the homework by giving the procedure which must be followed by students. Two out of three teacher's procedural turns in L1, were mixed with L2 words (see the last teacher turns in Extracts 43 and 44, L2 words are in bold).

Table 59

General Features of L1 Use in Homework Assignment Activity

Activity	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
Homework assignment	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	-	2 (33.3%) word	1 (16.6%)	task	understanding
Teacher	-	-	2 (66.6%)	management	procedure

Extract 44

T: thank you very much, for the next session, bring your workbook with yourself and do unit2, and I ask you unit one and unit 2,okay.

S: درس یک و دو رومی پرسه: [dares yek o do ro miporseh][she wil ask lesson one and two]

T: do your listening بدین بایدانجام داشتهین که یه دونه لیسنینگ داشتهین که بایدانجام بدین For progress check and I ask you unit one and two یونیت یک و دو روازتون می پرسم ورکیوکاتونم باخودتون بیارین

[do your **listening**, yek dooneh **listening** dashtin ke bayad anjam bedin][you had a listening which must be done] for progress check and I ask you unit one and two [**unit** yek o do ro azatoon miporsam **workbook**atoomam ba xodetoon biarin][I'll ask unit one and two bring your workbooks with you]

Regarding the major interactional features of the use of L1 in homework assignment activities, the blank cells of Table 60 demonsterate that the teacher only used L1 to give information in her minimal and sustained turns (e.g. the last teacher turns of Extracts 44 and 43 are the sustained turns).

Table 60

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Homework Assignment

Activity	Major interactional features						
Homework Assignment	Dis-course initiation	Giving info.	Re-request info.	Sus-tained speech	Reaction	form restrict-tion	Incorporation
student	1 (16.6%)	unpred.	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	para./clarif.
teacher	-	unpred.	-	min./sust.	-	-	-

On the other hand students used L1 to give unpredictable information and request genuine information. Besides, as shown in Extract 43 students reacted to the teacher's message since they could not understand it. This sort of students' reaction to teacher's message was predominantly as paraphrase or clarification request. For example in

Extract 44 after the teacher assigned the homework (in L2) for the coming session, one of the students did not understand the teacher's message, therefore she asked her classmate: *dares yek o do ro miporseh?* [She will ask lesson one and two?] Actually she understood the last part of the teacher's message "...and I ask you unit one and unit 2" and she paraphrased and translated it into Persian and added the rising tone to make a clarification request. The teacher came into the stage with a comprehensive L1 turn before student 2 replied the request.

4.2.6.3 L1 in QA/Review

Question/answer (QA) was the dominant technique for the reviews of previous lessons or the new lesson warm up in all observed sessions. According to the frequency table (Table 61) of this classroom activity the use of L1 in this activity of homework area was not so high in both teacher and student talk (5 turns and 13 turns respectively). However, within homework area, the proportion of L1 use in teacher's turns was nearly 4 percent higher than that in students' turns in this activity.

Table 61

Frequency of L1 Use in QA/Review Activity

activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
QA/ Review	13 (17.1%)	5 (20%)

Similar to the previous activities of homework area, review activities were teacher fronted and form focused. In this type of activity the teacher usually started with asking

questions from the previously taught lessons especially grammar and vocabulary area. According to Table 62 in review activities students' were engaged in speaking and listening while they were working on minimal material (i.e., grammatical structures and new vocabularies of the previous lesson).

Table 62

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in QA/Review Activity

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	Material
QA review	T↔S/C	form	teacher-text student	narrow	listening/ speaking	min-L2-NNS

Extract 45 illustrates the use of L1 in a review activity from the sixth observed session.

This review activity was the starting point of the class after calling the roll.

Extract 45

T: okay...Mitra can you talk about your mother's appearance?

S: my mother appearance.my mother is...؟ شخصیتش بگم [shaxsiatesho begam?][should I talk about her appearance?]

T: appearance

S: she is a little...؟ کوتاه چی می شد؟ [kootah chi mishod?][how do you say kootah in English?]

T: short

S: short, a little short.

T:Sharare, can you talk about Fereshte,what's she like?

And can you talk about her appearance.

S: یه بار دیگه بپرسین [ye bar digeh beporsin][ask again]

T: talk about her appearance. Fereshte's appearance

As can be seen from the given extract, the aim of this activity was to review the vocabulary describing appearance and personality (which was the part of the previous lesson). The teacher asked one of the students (S) to describe her mother's appearance. L1 appeared when the student could not understand the meaning of the word "appearance" in the teacher's speech and requested for the meaning "*shaxs Yatesho begam?*" [Should I talk about her appearance?] The teacher's response was a gesture showing the body, to give the meaning of "appearance". In the next student turn also the same request for meaning occurred when the student tried to describe her mother "she is a little ... *kootah chi mishod?*" [How do you say *kootah* in English?] Table 63 (below) summarizes the general features of students' use of L1 in review activities. As can be seen in Table 63, students' use of L1 was task oriented and its main function was to convey/request meaning.

Table 63

General Features of L1 Use in QA/Review Activity

Activity	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
QA review	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	-	3 (23%) word	7 (53.8%)	task	meaning
Teacher	-	1 (20%) word	4 (80%)	task/ management	meaning/procedure

To see the features of the teacher's use of L1 in this type of activity we must look into an episode of the use of L1 from the eighth observed session.

Extract 46

ببخشید خانم نوروزی یک سوال داشتم این صفحه ۲۴ قسمت ۵ چهارمیش our برای چی اول آوردیم مگه نگفتیم این S: ضمائر ملکی همیشه آخر میان؟

[bebaxshid xanoom nowroozi yek so'al dashtam in safheye 24 ghesmate chaharomish our baraye chi aval avordim mageh nagoftim in zamayere melki hamishe axar mian][excuse me Ms. Nowroozi I have a question, on page 24 part 5 the fourth one why do we use our in the beginning of the sentence didn't we say possessive pronouns are always at the end?]

T:؟ قسمتش [kodoom ghesmatesh?][which part?]

S: شماره ۴ قسمت ۵ [shomareye 4 ghesmate b][number 4 part b]

T: ۳ و ۴ قرار بود تو خونه انجام بدین قرار شد تو خونه حل کنید ۳ و ۴ ش

Number 4 you say: hey these are not our clothes You're right. Ours are over there

اینجا our او مددومی از ours استفاده می کنیم بخاطر اینکه بعد از ours اسم نیاوردیم بعدش are بعدش اسم نیستش که متوجه شدید؟ بعدش اسم قرار نگرفته part b شماره چهار؟ ok?

[se va charesh gharar bood too xooneh anjam bedin, gharar shod too xooneh hal konin se va charesho][you were supposed to do number 3 and 4 at home][inja our oomad dovomi az ours estefadeh mikonim bexatere inkeh ba'd az ours esm nayavordim badesh are e ba'desh esm nistesh ke, motevajeh shodid? ba'desh esm gharar nagerefteh. part b shomareye 4 ok?][here we have our and for the second one we use ours because we don't have noun after that. Did you understand? There in no noun after that part B number 4 okay?]

In the above episode, the first student turn was a discourse initiator. On this occasion she used L1 to request information related to a particular part of the book. The teacher could not find the page that the student was referring to, therefore she reacted to the student's message with another request for elaboration: *kodoom ghesmatesh?* [Which part?] As Table 64 indicates, most teacher and students' L1 questions were characterized as genuine requests for information. Teacher and students reactions were predominantly to the message. However students reacted by giving a comment, the

teacher's speech incorporated with the students utterances by either giving a comment or explanation.

Table 64

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in QA/Review Activity

Activity	Major interactional features						
	Dis-course initiation	Giving info.	Re-quest info.	Sus-tained speech	Reac-tion	form restrict-tion	Incorporation
student	2 (15.3%)	unpred.	gen.	min.	mess.	unrest.	comment
teacher	-	unpred.	gen.	min.	mess.	-	comment/ expl.

According to the table of general feature of the use of L1 in review activity (Table 64) the main function of teacher's use of L1 in this type of activity was to convey meaning or give procedure. As can be seen in the last teacher turn of the above episode (Extract 46), first the teacher reminded the student that she was supposed to follow the procedure: *se va charesh gharar bood too xooneh anjam bedin, gharar shod too xooneh hal konin se va charesho* [you were supposed to do number 3 and 4 at home] then the teacher explains the point: *inja our oomad dovomi az ours estefadeh mikonim bexatere inkeh ba'd az ours esm nayavordim badesh are e ba'desh esm nistesh ke, motevajah shodid? ba'desh esm gharar nagerefteh. part b shomareye 4 ok?* [here we have our and for the second one we use ours because we don't have noun after that. Did you understand? There is no noun after that part b number 4 okay?] According to table 64 most teacher and students' given information through L1 was characterized as unpredictable as we saw in last example.

4.2.7 The use of L1 in off task area

Within other areas and activities in the previous sections, the term “off task” was used to describe single utterances not being relevant to the task. In this section we will look into episodes of L1 use in off task area when the whole discourse is not relevant to any classroom tasks. The following Extract (47) shows how L1 appeared at the opening of class in the third observed session.

Extract 47

T: How was today, good,bad, fine

S: great

T: Excellent,great

S2:Full of stress

T:Why

S2: امتحان داشتم [*emtehan dashtam*][I had an exam]

The greeting in the above episode continued and some students replied in Persian. The following episode (Extract 48) of the use of L1 was recorded in the same session when the teacher started calling the roll and asked one of the students why she was absent last session.

Extract 48

T: Faeze ,last session you were absent?

S: کار داشتم دیگه .کار اداری داشتم [*kaar dashtam dieh, kaare edari dashtam*] [I was busy, I had an

T: Fereshte is absent,Leila is present.

Besides the starting points of the class, sometimes students' requests were also off task. Later we will see examples of this type of L1 use in off task area (see Extract 49, below).

According to the table of frequency (Table 65), the use of L1 in off task area was limited to 5 student turns and the teacher did not use L1 off task. However, there were some uncodable teacher-student and student-student interactions in which the observational clues and video reviews showed they were off task.

Table 65

Frequency of L1 Use in Off Task Area

activity	Frequency	
	students turns	teacher turns
off task	5 (100%)	0

Major communicative features of the use of L1 in this area (Table 66) indicate that the interaction was mainly teacher centered and the content of interaction was procedural.

Table 66

Major Communicative Features of L1 Use in Offtask Area

Activity	Major communicative features					
	participant	content	control	topic	student modality	material
off task	T↔S/C	procedure	student	narrow	speaking	no material

An interesting point in off task area was that in this area L1 was used socially oriented and its main function was to create humor in the classroom (Table 67). The following Extract 49 shows how L1 was used to create humor in off task area.

Extract 49

T: Thank you very much. look at the picture

S1: [Laughing] خسته شدیم استاد، تنفس [xasteh shodeim ostad, tanafos][we got tired teacher, a break]

S2: شما خسته شدین [shoma xasteh shodin][you got tired] [laughing]

T: Okay, one, two, three minuts

As stated before, in this area L1 was also used in requests. The Table of major interactional features (Table 68) reports that requests in this area were predominantly genuine. In this episode of L1 use one of the students requested a break after one hour of class work: *xasteh shodeim ostad, tanafos* [we got tired teacher, a break] this request was followed by another students' (S2) reaction to message which created humor: *shoma xasteh shodin* [you got tired].

Table 67

General Features of L1 use in Offtask Area

Area	General features of the use of L1 in classroom discourse				
	off task	Translation	L1/L2 mix	orientation	function
Student	5 (100%)	-	1 (20%)	social	humor
Teacher	-	-	-	-	-

As the table of major interactional features of the use of L1 in off task area (Table 68) shows, L1 was a discourse initiator in 60% of students' turns. Extract 50 illustrates a discourse initiation episode.

Extract 50

S: من می گم هاروبخونیم حداقل listening

[*man migam listeningha ro bexoonim hadeaghal*][I say we can do the listening]

T: Do we have any listening

S: yes

Regarding the information gap features of the use of L1 in discourse initiations, the table illustrates that the students gave predictable information (Extracts 47 and 48) and their request for information was a genuine request (Extract 49 and 50).

Table 68

Major Interactional Features of L1 Use in Offtask Area

Area	Major interactional features						
	Discourse initiation	Giving info.	Request info.	Sustained speech	Reaction	form restriction	Incorporation
student	3 (60%)	Un-pred	gen.	min.	sit.	unrest.	comment
teacher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

As shown in Table 68, reaction to the situation was another important feature of students L1 turns in this area. In Extracts 50 and 49, the students' reaction was to the situation. Meaning that there was no specific utterance in the discourse to which they react. For example in Extract 49, reacting to the boring situation of the classroom, one

of the students requested for a break: *xasteh shodeim ostad, tanafos* [we got tired teacher, a break]

4.3 Overview of Classroom Observation and the Use of L1 in Institute T

Classroom observations of language institutes T and F were conducted simultaneously so I had the chance to compare what I observed in Institute F with classroom behavior and the use of L1 in Institute T. However, the teachers did not cover exactly the same pages in the same observed sessions. Here I will describe the classroom behavior and the use of L1 in Institute T and I will give a brief comparison of the classroom behaviors and the use of L1 in the two institutes.

As mentioned before, I was usually a little early for the class to set the audio/video recording equipment. Therefore, I had the opportunity to observe the students behavior before the commencement of the class. This time was usually 10 to 15 minutes before the official class time. Similar to Institute F, students entered the class one by one or in groups of two while I was setting up the camera. Unlike the students in Institute F who used to do homework or chat in Persian during this time, the students were mostly quiet and they only murmured in Persian which was difficult to hear. Students' gestures helped me realize that they mainly talk about the lesson in these murmurs.

Each session started with a whole class short greeting and in some cases addressing one of the students and greeting her closely. The greetings were always in English. Following the greeting, the teacher used to review the previous lesson briefly. This usually took 5 to 10 minutes. The teacher in institute F usually started the lesson by asking "where should we start today?" or "what did you have for today?" This

shows that the teacher had no plan for the lesson (because she did not know what she was going to teach) while in institute T the teacher started the lesson immediately after the review.

The teacher taught everything *in English*. Classroom procedures, homework assignments teaching grammar, classroom instruction, and teaching vocabulary (the areas in which Persian appeared in Institute F) were all in English. The students, however, used Persian to ask for metalinguistic explanations, correcting each other or some classroom instructions plus few murmuring occasions in Persian being difficult to hear. These uses of L1 were not recurring in all sessions and the teacher's response was always in English.

One of the most noticeable differences of the two teacher's teachings practices was their approach in teaching grammar. In institute F grammar was taught inductively in a mixture of Persian and English through rules and formulas. In Institute T, however, the grammar parts were taught entirely in English via an inductive approach by giving single sentence examples.

4.3.1 The use of L1 in Institute T

The use of L1 in Institute T was not recurrent and only 5 instances of the use of L1 were recorded. These instances of the use of L1 were words or very short sentences in grammar and speaking areas. Here I will turn to these instances of the use of L1 and the areas and activities in which they appeared.

One of the areas in which L1 occurred was grammar. As mentioned earlier, the teacher never used L1 for teaching grammar. The only instance of the use of L1 in grammar

occurred when the students finished completing a grammar exercise and they were reading their answers to the class in pairs.

Extract 51

S1: what's this?

S2: باید بگیریم what are these? [*bayad begim*] [should be said]

T: uhu glasses, sunglasses, what are these?

As we can see in the above episode, S2 uses L1 to correct her classmate's question. Except for this episode the rest of L1 use in Institute T was recorded in the speaking area. The following excerpt (Extract 52) illustrates the use of L1 in conversation presentation activity. In this episode the teacher was teaching the conversation and she asked the meaning of a new word from the text, "bet". S1 gave the Persian equivalent of the word "*motmaenam*". The teacher usually used to voice a strong objection when students used L1 but in this episode she approved S1's answer by saying "very good". The question is why the teacher accepted the use of L1 in this episode while she rejected it on other occasions.

Extract 52

T: I bet, what is bet? [in a rising tone]

S1: مطمئنم [*motmae'nam*] [I'm sure]

T: I'm sure, very good.

To answer this question I looked into the teacher's interview where I could find the teachers' views towards the use of L1 in different teaching activities in the classroom. In this part of the interview I asked her about the use of L1 in different teaching areas and she believed that except for some rare vocabularies she did not need to use L1 in the classroom.

We can use gesture or body language to teach words but sometimes for teaching some words like...for example *bet* there is no way to use gesture. Of course we can use several examples to make them understand but sometimes you see that gaze in students' face which shows they are puzzled and they have not understood the word then you can just blurt out a Persian word [laughing] (Interview, July 2010)

It was very surprising that she used the same word (*bet*) as an example for the use of L1 in teaching vocabulary. As Extract 52 shows, for teaching this word the teacher did not use L1 although, she allowed the use of L1 by the students.

The next three episodes of the use of L1 occurred in pair work activity. The first episode happened when the students were trying to practice the conversation. In this activity the teacher asked them to change the conversation and use their own information.

Extract 53

S1: where are.....

S2: my books مثلاً [*masalan*][for example]

S1: نه درباره ی کلید بگیم, where are my keys?[*na darbareye kelid begim*][no, let's talk about keys]

Extract 53 (above) shows the use of L1 for managerial purposes. S1 could not decide how to start the conversation. At this moment S2 gave an offer “*masalan* my books” [for example my books] but S1 did not accept it and while she was searching her bag to find the keys, said “*na darbareye kelid begim*” [no, let's talk about keys]. The use of L1 in the next two episodes in pairwork activity was to initiate the discourse.

Extract 54

S1: اسمت چی بود؟ [*esmet chi bood?*][what was your name?]

T: اسمت چی بود؟ [rising tone], is it good to say no, what's your name?
[*esmet chi bood?*][what was your name?]

S1: what's your name?

T: uhu, speak English with your friend.

Extract 55

T: ask her Fahimeh

S1: بگو [*begoo*] [say]

T: بگو [rising tone] Fahimeh [rising tone] [*begoo*] [say]

S1: what's your telephone number?

In Extract 54 which is the beginning of a pair work S1 asked her classmate's name. This genuine question was not a part of the conversation. She really did not know her classmate's name and she wanted to address her in the conversation. So she asked "*esmet chi bood?*" [What was your name?]. This was followed by teacher's objection "is it good to say *esmet chi bood?* No, what's your name?" In the second episode (Extract 55) also S1 used L1 to ask her classmate to start the conversation which was interrupted by teacher's objection to the use of L1.

4.4 A Comparison of Classroom Activities in Institute F and Institute T

Table 69 compares the areas and activities in which L1 appeared in institute F with the same areas in institute T to give a clearer picture of similarities and differences in the two institutes.

Table 69

Comparison of Activities in Institute F and Institute T

Institute F		Institute T	
Area	Activity	Area	Activity
Speaking	Pair/group work QA/ Discussion Conversation presentation Conversation summary Role play	Speaking	Pair/group work QA/ Discussion Conversation presentation Role play
Grammar	Grammar presentation Individual/pair work	Grammar	Grammar presentation Individual/pair work
Listening	Transcription Pronunciation	Listening	Completion Pronunciation
Vocabulary	Vocabulary presentation Individual/ pairwork	Vocabulary	Vocabulary presentation Individual/ pairwork
Home work	Home work check Home work assignment QA review	Homework	Homework assignment Homework check
Off task	Requests Starting point	Off task	No activity

After a quick look at Table 69 one will presume that the teaching approach in both institutes must have been the same since most of the activities in each area of the use of L1 were the same. The noticeable and significant point here is that despite this similarity, there were differences in teaching approach in the two institutes.

4.4.1 Speaking

Speaking was one of the main activities in both institutes. The analysis of participant orientation of the activities showed that students' modality in both the

institutes is predominantly speaking or listening in most of the activities. As Table 69 shows all activities of speaking area (Pair/group work, QA/ Discussion, Conversation presentation, Role play) in institute F were observed in institute T except for conversation summary activity. In fact the activity which was not observed in institute T (conversation summary) was not an activity designed by the author of the textbook (i.e. pair/group work) or an activity to be suggested by the teacher's guide (i.e. role play).

Teaching practices in speaking area went through different stages in the two institutes. In Institute T the teacher started with a theatrical action plan to introduce the topic of the conversation which was going to be taught. In this stage everything sounded real. For example in the fourth observed session the teacher was going to teach the conversation titled "oh, no!" (Figure 9). Before introducing the conversation, she just pretended as if she has lost her keys. Searching inside her bag, she said "Oh, no. where are my keys?" then, addressing students one by one, she asked simple yes/no questions like "do you know?" or "is it in your bag?" During this scenario some of the new vocabularies and expressions in the conversation (e.g., they're gone) were taught. Once the topic was introduced, the teacher asked the students to look at the picture in the book and they discussed the picture.

This stage of teaching conversation in institute F was completely different. The shift from the previous activity to conversation was not so smooth. The teacher in institute F shifted from the previous activity immediately and asked the students to turn to page 11 (the conversation page). Then she asked: "look at the picture. What do you see in the picture?" there was no reply to the teacher's request so she changed the question to "can you tell me...where are they?" This was the moment that the use of

L1 appeared in this episode. The communication continued with a mixture of Persian and English words and sentences.

The second phase in teaching conversation in both institutes was listening to the conversation audio tracks. In institute T the students listened to the conversation while the books were closed. Then the teacher asked some simple comprehension questions. The conversation was played for a second time but this time the students read along with the audio track silently. This was followed by choral repetition segment. The teacher in institute F did not go through the first segment of this process. She just asked the students to look at the conversation in the book and listen. In other words, the closed book segment and the comprehension question part were not observed in her approach to teaching conversation. Consequently, when she addressed the class and asked “any question?” several questions regarding the vocabulary and understanding the conversation came up. Lack of understanding in this part resulted in the use of L1 in conversation presentation in institute F.

Role playing the conversation was another activity in this area in which the teachers performed differently. In institute F students were supposed to memorize the conversation at home and role play it in front of the class the following session. This did not seem to be liked by the students since they usually evaded the task.

The teacher asks Hamideh to come for a role play. She says that she is not ready. She explains the reason in Persian but the teacher asks her to say the same sentences in English. She says: “*nemitoonam*” [I can’t]. (observation notes, May 2010)

The students often tried to concoct an excuse which needed a great deal of reasoning and narratives and it was out of the students' English language ability. Consequently, they resorted to their mother tongue (Extract 23).

4.4.2 Homework

Homework was another area of difference in teachers' practices in terms of time, amount and teacher's strategy in assigning or checking homework. In institute T the teacher assigned homework briefly at the end of the class time while the teacher used to assign homework during the class time after each activity in institute F. The amount of homework was also much more in institute F than institute T. For example conversation summary was an activity in the speaking area which was regularly assigned as homework after each conversation. The students were supposed to write a summary of the conversation at home and talk about it in the classroom. This homework was not a part of classroom activity in institute T. Listening transcription was homework for listening area which was not a part of classroom practices in institute T. Teacher's strategies for homework check was also different in the two institutes. Homework check was done indirectly (i.e. question/answer in pairs) in institute T while in institute F the teacher used a direct homework check strategy. This means that she spent between 10 to 20 minutes moving around the class and checking students' notebooks.

The teacher is checking students' homework. Some of them have not done it so they talk in Persian to explain their reasons and excuses. The teacher also

explains the class rules in Persian. While she is checking the homework around the class she explains students' grammar mistakes. Again Persian is used for these explanations. Sometimes the topic is followed by another question in Persian and it continues for some minutes. (Observation notes, June, 2010)

The episodes of the use of L1 in homework area (e.g. Episodes 43 and 44) suggest that the students in institute F used L1 to convince the teacher to reduce the amount of homework or they used it to concoct their excuses.

4.4.3 Grammar

One of the most obvious differences of teachers' approaches in the two institutes was observed in teaching grammar. The reason behind these fundamental differences in teaching grammar was partly related to the institute's policies towards the use of L1 which will be discussed later. As the result of COLT showed, grammar presentation was the classroom activity in which use of L1 was most recorded and here I will turn to a description of the differences in teaching practices in grammar presentation activity.

Teaching grammar in institute F usually started with a direct introduction of the topic (e.g. "okay now we want to talk about WH-questions"). Then she wrote the new structure on the board and went through a lengthy explanation of the grammar point which was mainly in Persian. On the other hand, the teacher in institute T used to write some simple examples of the new structure on the board. Using the sentences, she encouraged the students to make sentences. This activity was followed by more

practices in the book so the students could learn the new structure. English was the classroom language during the whole process of grammar presentation. Generally speaking; the teacher in Institute F followed a deductive L1-oriented approach while the teacher in institute T used an inductive TL-oriented approach to teaching grammar in all observed sessions.

4.4.4 Listening

As mentioned earlier (the use of L1 in listening area), conversation exercise part B, pronunciation and listening exercises of Interchange intro book were categorized as listening practices in this study. One of the major differences in teaching was observed in listening activities in the two institutes. As Table 69 indicates, two activities in this area were different in the two institutes, completion activity and transcription activity. Completion activity was the listening activity in which the students completed a sentence, a conversation or a table while they were listening to the audio CD. The teacher in Institute T followed the Interchange intro teacher's guide instructions in teaching listening exercises. For example the following instruction is given in the teacher's book for exercise 11 (listening) of the third unit of interchange intro book.

Explain the task. Ss [students] listen to four short conversations about Karen, Marco, Elena, and Andrew. They check the words that describe each person. Play the audio program once or twice. Ss listen and complete the chart individually. Ss check their answer in pairs. Go around the class and encourage

them to use complete sentences (e.g., *Karen's not tall, she's short*). Go over answers with the class play the audio program again if needed. (p. 21)

She almost always followed this sort of instruction as it was described for each listening activity in the teacher's guide. The other teacher in institute F, however, did not adhere to the teacher's book instructions for listening exercises (and almost all other activities). She usually assigned listening exercises as homework and asked students to transcribe the audio tracks at home.

The teacher pauses the audio CD and calls the student's name to repeat the sentence. She calls Soheyla she says "*man naneveshtam*" [I didn't write]. The teacher wants her to say that in English but she can't. this seems a very demanding job for students at this level. Many of the students try to wriggle out of it. (observation notes, June, 2010)

Summary

Having completed the analysis of classroom discourse in the COLT instrument, six areas of the use of L1 (speaking, grammar, homework, listening, vocabulary and off task) were identified. The major communicative features, general features and major interactional features of the students' and teacher's use of L1 in each area and its activities were described in detail. The classroom activities of language institute F and T were also compared and contrasted in this chapter. Here I will give a brief description of students' and teacher's use of L1 in each area and its activities in which L1 appeared most.

In the speaking area, the results showed that the students used L1 far more than the teacher. The dominant participant organization of the speaking area was teacher-student and the focus of the material was on discourse. Students' L1 use was task/social oriented and it was used to convey meaning, evade the task or create humor while the teacher's use of L1 was only task-oriented. Some 19.5 percent of student turns initiated discourse in the classroom. Students' use of L1 in speaking area regarding giving and requesting information showed they used L1 to give unpredictable information and they requested genuine information using L1 in this area while teacher's information requests in L1 were both pseudo and genuine ones. The detailed analysis of the activities (pair/group work, role play, conversation summary, conversation presentation, and QA/Discussion) under the speaking area revealed that the students used L1 most in role play activity. The communicative features of L1 use in this activity showed that the participant organization of the interactions in this activity was teacher-student/class. Students' use of L1 in role play activity was socially oriented and they used L1 to evade the task while the teacher used L1 in a management-oriented manner to give the procedures of the task.

Grammar was the second area of classroom discourse in which many L1 turns were recorded. Unlike the speaking area, the teacher's use of L1 in grammar area was far more than the students' use of L1. Participant organization of the classroom discourse in L1 turns was teacher-student/class and the focus of the content was on form. The use of L1 was mainly task-oriented in students' turns and it functioned to convey or request meaning. Similarly, the orientation of teacher's use of L1 was on task, although the function was to explain grammar. Regarding the information gap features of the use of L1 in this area, the results showed that students' requests were

genuine while the teacher used L1 mostly in pseudo requests. The teacher used L1 in giving unpredictable information, although students' use of L1 was for giving predictable information. Among the two activities of grammar area (grammar presentation, individual/pair work) the use of L1 in grammar presentation activity was considerably more than L1 use in individual/pair works. In fact, the most number of L1 turns (for both students and teacher) was recorded under grammar presentation activity. Similar to the other areas, the dominant participant organization of this activity was also teacher-student/class. Listening was the predominant student modality and the focus of the content was on form. Both teacher and student use of L1 in this activity was task oriented. However, the students and teacher's L1 use served different functions. The students used L1 for conveying meaning while the teacher utilized L1 in explanations. Regarding giving and requesting information, students' L1 turns were predictable and genuine, while the teacher's L1 turns were mainly coded as unpredictable and pseudo.

The third prominent area of L1 use in classroom discourse was homework area. The comparison of students and teacher's use of L1 in this area revealed that during homework checking or assigning, student used more L1 than the teacher. The participant organization was teacher-student/class. The focus of the content in homework area was mainly on form and students' predominant modality was reading. Regarding the orientation and the function of the L1 use, both teacher and students' L1 use was task-oriented in this area. However the students used L1 for meaning but the teacher's L1 turns aimed to check students understanding. From the two activities of this area (homework check, homework assignment and QA/review) homework check recorded more L1 turns. The participant organization of this activity was also teacher-

student/class and the use of L1 for both teacher and the students was task-oriented. However the students used L1 for conveying the meaning while the teacher utilized L1 to explain.

In listening, vocabulary and off task area, L1 did not appear as much as it was used in the other areas described above. However, there were significant similarities and differences in the communicative and interactional features of L1 use in these areas. Similar to the areas described previously, the participant organization of the use of L1 in all of the three areas (listening, vocabulary and off task) was teacher-student/class. Students' use of L1 was mainly task-oriented except for students' L1 turns in off task area and listening transcription activity being socially-oriented.

CHAPTER V

BELIEFS AND CONTEXTS

5.1 What are the Students, Teachers and Managers' Beliefs towards the Use of L1?

As stated in chapter three, to explore students' views on the use of L1 in the Iranian EFL context a questionnaire (Rolin & Varshney 2008, RV hereafter) was used and the learners also participated in focus group discussions. In their study, RV used Rod Ellis's categories for classroom interaction namely 'medium-oriented goals,' which focus on the teaching of the "medium" or the target language, and 'framework oriented goals,' which are 'related to the organization and management of classroom activities (Ellis, 1988, pp. 100–126; 1994, pp. 577–578). As RV have focused on a number of closed questions for medium oriented goals (1, 2, 6, 11 and 19) and framework oriented goals (10 and 14) this study also focuses on the same parts of the questionnaire. However, the qualitative results from open ended questions and focus group discussions were used to support the quantitative data interpretations and new categories and subcategories emerged from the qualitative data.

5.1.1 Students' Beliefs on L1 Use for Medium-oriented Goals

Students in both language institute and high school contexts attributed a highly important role to the use of L1 in the vocabulary and grammar area. The following statements from the open ended questions show that the students think that L1 helps them "understand words".

We understand the new vocabularies much easier [by using L1].

For new words it's better to use Persian to learn.

[L1 helps] Understand what we couldn't understand.

We can learn the Persian meaning of words [by the use of L1].

The analysis of closed question 2 showed that students in language institute T, students in language institute F and high school students agreed or strongly agreed with the use of L1 in learning vocabulary (72%, 75%, and 78% respectively).

The use of L1 in language institutes revealed that students mainly used L1 to access meaning. The students' use of L1 in the vocabulary area was task-oriented and L1 was used to convey meaning, in language institute F (see Table 43). Although there were rare occasions of L1 usage in language Institute T, L1 use was observed as one of those instances that the students tried to access meaning (Extract 52). Observations of high school English classes also showed students used L1 for learning vocabulary. In the high school setting, in addition to L1 use in teacher/student classroom interactions in vocabulary area, L1 appeared in desk mates' talks, vocabulary notebooks, and word lists of the students' textbook. Desk mates mainly used L1 for personal communications or to access meaning as seen in the following observation note from one of the high school classes.

The teacher gives them [the students] five minutes to read the text silently. During this time, the students talk in Persian. Mainly they ask the meaning of words or they translate sentences of the text for each other. (Observation notes-Ha, June 2010)

Figure 18 illustrates the word list of a student's book in one of the high schools. As can be seen, the only strategy for learning vocabulary here is word translation.

I. Vocabulary			
a foot wide*	employ	loaf	soft drink
airport	oven	low	soup
along*	factory	magazine	speed (v)
altogether	fairyland	match	stone
bar	glow*	merry-go-round*	through*
biscuit	golden*	model*	thumb*
bottle	hammer*	offer (n)	tiny*
bridge	highway*	packet	toy*
canal*	history	price	track*
child's wagon*	Holland*	pull*	waist
chocolate	hurt	punish	walk (through)
church*	jam	repair=fix	war
coach*	jar	run along*	whole
cost	light bulb*	sail* (v, n)	
dollhouse*	light up*	soap	

Figure 18. Word list from a high school textbook.

On the other hand, the frequencies for questions 2 and 6 on the use of L1/TL for teaching vocabulary in the classroom did not show such a close agreement. The analysis of questions 2 and 6 revealed that 55 percent of high school students liked it when the teacher used L1 to translate vocabulary items while 38 percent of institute F students and 36 percent of institute T students maintained the same view. The question asking students' preference for teacher explanation of vocabulary in the TL (not for teacher translation as in question 2) was added by RV to test the reliability of answers to question 2. Regarding this question (question 6), the results showed a reverse trend which indicates a high validity of the participants' answers. In institute T (where TL only policy was running) 81 percent of the students preferred vocabulary to be explained to them in TL. The agreement decreased to 50 and 38 percent in language institute F and high school setting respectively.

In addition to vocabulary, students pointed out that L1 facilitates learning grammar. They emphasized the role of L1 in understanding complex grammatical items. They state that:

[L1 helps to] understand better specially the grammar.

We learn grammar easier [by using L1].

It helps understand the grammar.

For difficult grammatical points we have no other choice [except using L1].

Teaching the grammar the teacher should use Persian.

In the context of language institutes, the results of question 1 on the use of L1 in understanding grammar revealed the same preference for the use of TL in giving grammatical explanation. More than half of the students in both language institutes (54% in institute T and 63% in institute F) agreed that L1 can facilitate understanding of grammatical explanations. Surprisingly, however, asking students' preference for the use of the TL in explaining sentence structure (question 16) revealed a high agreement among the students of language institute T and F. In contrast, the high school students' answers to these questions (questions 1 and 16) showed reverse trends. The highest percentage was found in high school students' views on understanding grammar when the teacher explains it in L1, with 93 percent of the students in high schools agreeing or strongly agreeing that it was easier for them to understand when the teacher used their L1 in teaching grammar. The result of question 19 indicates that this high frequency has to be valid. Only 28 percent of high school students preferred grammar structures to be explained to them in TL. In other words, students in language institutes see a role for

both languages (L1/TL) in grammar area while the high school students mainly prefer L1 to be used.

5.1.2 Students' Views on L1 Use for Framework Oriented Goals

Students' responses to open ended questions and their discussions in the focus groups showed that classroom management was another area in which students attributed a role to L1 use in the classroom. Qualitative data from open ended questions and focus group discussions revealed that students in language institutes and high schools see a role for the use of L1 in classroom instruction. They perceived the role of L1 in getting familiar with the environment, examination procedures, teaching methods and classroom outlines. Counting the advantages of L1 use in the classroom students in high schools and language institute settings list the following ideas:

Getting familiar with:

- Classroom and institute environment

- The way exams are performed

- The teachers' methods

Assignments and class time are also among the responses of the institute students indicating that the role they attribute to L1 for framework oriented goals is not limited to exams, environment and methods:

- We can do the assignments more effectively [if] we know exactly what the teacher assigned.

Sometimes when students have problems understanding, it's good to use it [L1] to save more class time and avoid the mess in the classroom.

Enumerating the benefits of L1 for classroom management, however, they frequently emphasized that they like the TL to be the classroom language.

If the teacher uses English in the classroom we will learn more vocabulary.

The teacher must use a simple English language all the time.

Persian should not turn to a habit for the class.

Persian can help only for the points we can't understand.

Results of the quantitative analysis on the closed questions 10 and 14 indicated a strong preference for instructions to be in TL in language institute setting. In language institute T and F students strongly agree or agree that instructions should be given in the TL (90 percent and 69 percent respectively). This preference for TL decreased to 35 percent for high school students, although they stated that if there was no examination at school they would prefer only TL to be the language of the classroom. Regarding the classroom outlines and assessment details, the students think that Persian plays a role.

L1 must be used for classroom outlines

Teacher can summarize the lesson in Farsi

If the class was in English summary in Persian would help weaker students to learn the lesson.

Among the benefits they attribute to the use of L1, high school students mentioned “exam procedures” and “explaining the questions” as the most recurring themes.

During the exam our teacher should explain the questions in Persian

In exams when we don't know what to do so they should tell us in Farsi

If we don't understand the exam Persian must be used

Good for exam in the classroom

The quantitative analysis of question 14 revealed that high school students have stronger agreement (63%) that assessment details and class outlines should be given in Persian. Although the participants in the context of institutes advocated the use of L1 for classroom outlines and assessment details, only 25 percent of students in institute F and 27 percent in institute T agreed on the use of L1 for assessment details and classroom outlines. However, the number of participants who strongly disagree with question 14 was very low in the two institutes (institute F 14% and institute T 9%). Conversely, many students in institute F (61%) and T (64%) were neutral meaning that they were not certain whether L1 should be used for assessment details and classroom outlines. In high schools, the discussions on the use of L1 for assessment details in focus groups led to the students' stories about their English examinations.

We always have exams, when the school started even we didn't have English teacher for the first two month, but the first week after the teacher came we had exam, and we always have it, every week. You know, what they teach and what they ask for exams are different. Exams are at the level of TOEFL students [laughing] (Focus group discussion-S, June 2010).

The high agreement of high school students on the use of L1 for assessment details can be attributed to these frustrating situations in high schools. Talking about the examination problems at school, another student described the situation in the

examination sessions: “The teacher never answers our questions, you look at the paper, everything is in English, and even you don’t know what to do. (Focus group discussion-SK, June 2010).

All in all, the comparison of students’ views on the use of L1 for framework oriented goals in the two contexts (high school and institutes) shows that most student participants prefer instructions to be in TL in language institutes. However, a minority of students preferred TL for the instructions in the classroom in high schools. Conversely, High school students demonstrated a stronger agreement on the role of L1 in classroom assessment than the students of language institutes. However, in the language institute setting the views represent a condition of uncertainty rather than disagreement.

5.1.3 Students’ Perceived Dangers of L1 Use

Analysis of the data from open ended questions and focus group discussions indicated the students’ awareness in both contexts (high schools and language institutes) that the use of L1 may have some drawbacks. They believed that L1 has negative effects on their listening and speaking; L1 may turn to a habit, and it can change their learning style. Many students in both contexts identified L1 as a threat to their speaking ability.

We get weak in speaking English

We won’t be able to speak in English in the future

Our speaking ability gets weak

It harms our speaking

It's harmful since it has negative effects on our speaking ability

Besides, the students think that lack of TL may also affect their "listening" ability:

It turns our ears from getting used to English language

Weakening our listening

We can't understand our listening

If only Persian is used and no English learners will have problem in
Listening.

Our listening may get weaker and weaker

And only one student was worried about pronunciation:

Not getting familiar with correct pronunciation

In addition to aforementioned worries, the participant students were concerned that the use of L1 in classroom can transform into a kind of addiction and finally lead to laziness.

Students get addicted to using Persian and using English become difficult for them.

It makes the students lazy

It changes to be a habit

Our ears become accustomed to hearing Persian

There would be less effort to speak in English

We get used to speaking Persian

Regarding the negative effects of L1 use on the cognitive process of learning, students in language institutes think that translation makes "confusion" and "contradiction" which affects negatively on "concentration".

Sometimes students translate a word or sentence to understand it and it results in a contradiction.

It [translation] reduces the “concentration” in learning.

Sometimes I become confused.

Students see “slow learning” as an ultimate danger in using L1. As one of the students wrote:

It makes the process of learning slower and it is harmful for all of the students in the classroom and it changes to a habit which will increase the amount of Persian in the classroom

Some respondents also believe that using TL students can learn “better” and “faster”:

When Persian is spoken students don’t learn well

I think the use of Persian reduces the speed of learning

It hinders learning

learners see the dangers of L1 not only in relation to its effects on the cognitive process of learning and classroom habits but also in connection with their own personal learning style and the learning habits out of the classroom .

We won’t search for the word ourselves

We get lazy in searching words

If we use Persian we won’t try to look up the words

The students don’t look up the new words and they lose their perseverance

Students in language institutes referred to “Searching for the new words “as one of their responsibilities out of the classroom before each teaching session. In their view

teachers' use of L1 negatively affects students' "perseverance" in looking up the new vocabularies which was interpreted as a kind of "laziness".

In sum, the disadvantages of L1 use in the classroom for students go beyond its negative effect on "cognitive process" of learning and makes confusion for learners. Moreover in the participant students' eyes exposure to TL in the classroom not only has positive effects on learning but also affects students' learning styles.

Besides the aforementioned dangers, language institute T students thought that using L1 in the classroom could lead to "only" and "always" Persian situation.

If Persian is used *all the time* the person won't be able to speak in English

If *only Persian* is used and no English the learner will have problem in listening.

If L1 is *always* used our speaking may get weak.

5.1.4 Students' Beliefs on the Affective Role of L1

Student participants believed that L1 can foster "understanding" when there is an ambiguity; they do not report any negative feeling associated with the lack of understanding or misunderstanding. The following responses show their feelings towards the use of L1.

I feel better somehow.

It gives me a better feeling when I understand something completely

It makes the difficult points clearer

Sometimes it helps me understand better

Responses to open questions in this study revealed that students think that L1 can be used as an aid for some students to overcome problems in the classroom.

Some students may feel easier to talk about their problems

It helps weaker students to communicate in the classroom

Some students can ask their question if L1 is allowed

However, language institute students stated that L1 “reduces classroom attraction”.

It reduces the attraction of English class

English class is nice when English is spoken not Persian.

It can help some students but don't you think the class will get boring?

The analysis of students' beliefs towards the use of L1 confirms the findings of the previous studies in the context of Iran (Mahmoudi & Yazdi Amirkhiz, 2011; Nazari, 2008) that Iranian students have a negative view towards the L1 use in the English classroom. The findings of this study, however, show that they also see some benefits for the use of L1 in different areas. The results indicate that the students do not reject L1 use, although they emphasize the TL use in the classroom.

5.1.5 Teachers' Beliefs on Cognition-driven Use of L1

The teachers in language institutes and high schools considered L1 as a medium for teaching language, especially grammar and vocabulary. The teacher in

institute T however, emphasized the use of TL for teaching grammar. She found a very limited role for L1 in teaching “problematic” new words. Unlike the teachers in the context of high school and language institute F, she rejected the role of L1 in students’ “understanding”.

5.1.5.1 L1 for teaching vocabulary and grammar

For the use of L1 in teaching English language (medium-oriented goals), the views held by the teacher in institute F was akin to the views of the high school teachers, while the beliefs of the teacher in language institute T revealed some distinctive points.

Language teachers in high school and language institute F emphasized the role of L1 in teaching grammar and vocabulary. They believed that the use of L1 in teaching grammar helps students “understand” the grammar. They said:

Persian is most needed in teaching grammar.

Grammar should be in our mother tongue.

The benefit of the use of L1 is that when they [the students] don’t understand something it can help.

In contrast to the aforementioned views on the use of L1 in grammar area, the teacher in institute T thought there is no need to use L1 in this area.

In grammar, L1 is not needed since they [the students] learn it automatically by giving examples.

It is worth mentioning here that the views taken by the teachers in the two sides -- language institute F and high schools as opposed to language institute T, represents their approach in teaching grammar. In my observations, I realized a close similarity between teaching grammar in high schools and language institute F, while teaching grammar in language institute T was distinctively different. The following observed situations illustrate the differences.

Language institute F:

In the beginning of teaching grammar the teacher explains present continuous tense in Persian and asks the students to translate it into Persian. She continues explaining the formula (subject+ have/has+ PP) using a mixture of Persian and English. (Observation notes-F8- June, 2010).

High school A:

In teaching grammar, just like in other observed sessions, the teacher only explains the formulas of the grammatical point. Then she asks the students to take notes. All students are taking notes now. Sometimes the teacher uses some English words. All classroom communication and teaching practices in the classroom are in Persian....Finally the teacher asks the students to do the exercises in the book. (Observation notes-HS- July 2010)

Language institute T:

The teacher uses white board, gestures, situations and clear examples effectively to teach grammar and avoid using Persian. It seems that teacher's teaching abilities and teacher's creativity in making teaching situations and using teaching aids can reduce L1 use or may exclude Persian from teaching grammar, does this teacher need to use L1?

(Observation notes-T5- June 2010)

Vocabulary was another area in which the teachers attributed a role to the use of L1. Teachers in both language institutes and high schools believed that L1 is needed for teaching some vocabularies and expressions.

In grammar and vocabulary Persian is needed.

In teaching vocabulary, sometimes students don't understand [the meaning] so we have to use Persian.

We need to use Persian in teaching expressions like "anything else, sir?"

Although the teacher in institute T also finds a role for the use of L1 in teaching vocabulary, she limits the L1 use to the problematic words. In fact she enumerates different teaching techniques for teaching vocabulary (i.e., gesture, picture, and drawing) and she suggests L1 as the last strategy for challenging abstract words such as "bet".

For vocabulary we use gesture or body language and pictures and drawings but some words like "bet" are problematic.

The teacher in institute T suggested L1 use for some words, although in her teaching, she did not use Persian to translate the word “bet”. Instead she elicited the meaning from the students (see Extract 52 in chapter 4). The elicitation of Persian equivalent of the new words was a common strategy of vocabulary teaching in high schools (see Figure 18) and language institute F (see Extract 30 and 35a in chapter 4). Maybe the reason behind the higher proportion of the L1 use by students (80%) in vocabulary area (Table 40) lies behind the fact that the teacher’s elicitation strategy invites students to the use of L1. Joyce (2010) referred to such kind of L1 use as “teacher-directed”, “teacher-invited” or “teacher-encouraged” use of L1, although he did not include the aforementioned elicitation strategy (p. 4).

5.1.5.2 L1 for understanding

The teachers in high school held the view the use of L1 in their teaching was meant to ensure the learners’ “understanding”. This emphasis on L1 for “understanding” was found in students’ views towards the use of L1 for medium oriented goals (see students’ beliefs on L1 use for medium-oriented goals). The student participants did believe that they could not understand the lesson if “only” TL was used for teaching grammar. However, they did not attribute the lack of understanding to a deficiency in their knowledge or language skills. On the other hand, the teachers in high schools believed that students’ lack of English language “knowledge” forces them to use L1 in their teaching practices.

If students don’t pass any courses out of school they will be only saying yes or no [in response to teacher’s use of English in the classroom].

When we don't use L1, the students don't understand so they don't listen.

L1 is used since students are not strong enough [in TL language]

The high school teachers also directly linked the amount of L1 use to the level of students' knowledge of TL.

The use of L1 depends on the level of the student's in the classroom.

Similarly, in institute F when I asked the teacher about the amount of Persian used in her classroom, she asked in reply: "in which level?" meaning that the amount of Persian used varies in different classes and she explained that L1 use depends on "students' level" or "knowledge of the language". Not surprisingly, however, this was not found in the views of the teacher in institute T. In this institute the teacher believed that the students have no problem understanding the lesson.

Up to now we haven't had any problem in making the lesson understood in TL. Fortunately we haven't had any problem and the students in this institute have been satisfied. (Interview-TT- July 2010)

5.1.6 Teachers' Beliefs on the Context-driven Use of L1

Beside the cognitive reasons for the use of L1, teachers believed that the educational context has also affected L1 use in their classroom. They referred to factors such as parents' requests for the use of L1, the habitual use of L1, and the EFL educational system. From the teachers' point of view, these contextual factors encourage the use of L1 in the classroom.

5.1.6.1 Students and parents demand the use of L1

All participant teachers believed the students and their parents demand the use of L1 in the classroom. However, the results of the interviews revealed that this demand is not equal in high schools and language institutes. The data from teacher interviews showed the lowest request for the use of L1 was in the language institute T and the highest demand for L1 was in high schools. The following data from teachers' interview exposes this high demand for the use of L1 in high school.

Most of the students want Persian to be used.

The number of students who like Persian in the classroom is much more than those who prefer English.

Students and their parents ask for Persian to be used in the classroom.

The parents of the students who have not been to language institutes disagree with English only classroom.

If I use English in the classroom they will go to the school principal and complain about it. They'd say they didn't understand anything.

Students' questionnaire results (see students' beliefs section) also confirm the fact that high school students prefer L1 use as compared with students in language institutes. Conversely, in questions asking for the use of TL, high school students rank lower than the students in language institutes. The demand in language institute T is only limited to the new students.

Those who disagree with this policy [English only] usually are new students who come from other places....they think it is easier for them if Persian is

used... if you asked the students who have been here for a time, you see they are satisfied with this [English only] . (Interview-TT- July 2010).

This demand for use of L1 is usually attributed to students' laziness and fear. The teachers in institutes said:

They [students] feel that when the teacher talks in Persian, it is easier for them and they are more comfortable but this way [using English] they have to endure a hardship. (Interview-TT- July 2010)

In my opinion the students are eager to use Persian in the classroom; I mean not to use English all the time, since they are afraid of that [English] atmosphere. It's like that it is difficult for them.... (Interview -TF- July 2010)

Later she linked the students' demand for the use of Persian to different reasons such as "getting tired", "mental pressure", "lack of interest", "laziness", or "not being accustomed to the use of English".

I think there are several reasons, when we start with English our students scare, may be they don't like English. Many other things, I don't know exactly but I think sometimes the students get tired or they feel a kind of mental pressure when they want to speak in English then they say, "*Nemidoonam alan chi bayad begam! Che loghati bayad estefadeh konam?*" [I don't know what to say, which word should I use?] (Interview-TF- July 2010)

5.1.6.2 The use of L1 as a habit

Teachers in high school and language institute F noted that students' use of L1 is a matter of getting used to the condition. They claimed that the students use L1 since they have been using it for a long time from the junior High school (Guidance School).

They have not been asked [to use English]...since they have been allowed to use Persian they even use it in higher levels. (Interview-TF-July 2010)

In high school they have been asked for the meaning of words and the grammar has been taught in Persian. They have never been told to use English in the classroom since Guidance School. Actually they have never been asked to. (Interview-TF-July 2010)

From the teachers' viewpoint, the condition of L1 use at schools has accustomed the students to the use of L1. On the other hand, the teachers in high school offered the same habit formation process for the use of TL in the classroom.

If students get used to English [tolerate it] we can reduce Persian use in the classroom. It is needed to start from the beginning. If we had time and we started [English only policy] from the very beginning, like some language institutes, they will become interested. Why not? Then there is no need to use Persian. (Interview-THa-July 2010)

5.1.6.3 The system encourages the use of L1

High schools teachers believed that the undesirable situation of the use of L1 in high school English classrooms is the result of a malfunctioning educational system. In their views, this problem is so serious that it makes the reduction of Persian [from the English classroom] “impossible”. They referred to “starting age of language learning”, “books” and “evaluation process” as the main problems of the system causing the present undesirable condition of L1 use.

I think the students are not responsible for that [the use of L1]. This is the problem with the system. From the first grade of the primary school or guidance school, which they start English, they must be told that your teacher can't speak Persian. I think that would be a good way. (Interview-THb- July 2010)

To make a change in the system, the teachers considered the optimum age for starting English to be Pre School age (5-6-year-old children go to preschool in Iran). The premise of this view is that children learn faster and better than adults (critical period hypothesis) and they can easily grow accustomed to the condition of the English-only classroom.

The starting age [of language learning] isn't right. They start from guidance school. I think it should be started from primary school. In my own experience, my child is learning much better in primary school. (Interview THb-July 2010)

Books were another part of the system which appeared to be defective from teachers' perspectives. High school teachers supposed that the English books designed in English

speaking countries (used in language institutes in Iran) are the ideal material for the classroom.

These are the problems that we have with the books too, look at the books at the institutes, they are quite different. One of the reasons that we use Persian in the classroom is the way the books have been designed. (Interview-THb-July 2010)

They thought the present high school books are so fraught with problems that any revision would be useless and the only solution seems to be a fundamental change in material and methodology.

We need to change books and the methods of teaching. In-service training programs are also needed. (Interview-THa- July 2010)

The methods of language teaching should be changed in Iran. It must be start from preschool age and the books which are used outside [language institutes] are much better than our books [books in high schools] in terms of the illustrations and exercises. This causes a reduction on the use of Persian in the classroom. Even the grammar is presented in a way that minimizes the use of Persian but our books don't have pictures and it is mainly text, so students have to rely on Persian language. (Interview-THb- July 2010)

The last component of the education cycle which was viewed as being responsible for the L1 use in the high school English classroom was the evaluation process. High school teachers assumed that giving more credit to oral examination can encourage students to use TL in the practice of oral skills in the classroom.

Students are worried for their scores so they have to use L1.

We can say they use L1 because of laziness, but more importantly they are concerned for passing [the English course].

The more concerns for score, the more L1 use.

If we change in a way that conversation and listening [is added] -- now they [students] don't have conversation and listening and it has no marks for exam-- they just write to score pass but if the exam sections were different--like the language institutes-- and the students have to talk or for example they have to have a conversation for a part of exam, the amount of Persian will reduce in the classroom. (Interview-THb- July 2010)

On the other hand, the teachers in language institutes looked at teaching methodology as the main problem of English education at school. They mentioned that “lack of qualified teachers” and “using old teaching methods” have resulted in the undesirable condition in which students cannot master the language skills at school.

In school everything is in Persian, in teaching grammar they still use the cliché of the formula subject +object +verb (Interview-TT- July 2010).

The students are not satisfied with their teachers at school. They always say our teachers are old and impatient. Sometimes the geography teacher comes to our English class. This is a disaster. How is it possible? They don't have enough

teachers. Sometimes my students tell unbelievable stories about school.
(Interview-TT- July 2010)

You know, my sister ...I don't think students are eager to speak in English in high schools. The teachers don't want them [students] to do so. They just present the lesson, teach vocabularies in Persian, teach grammar and they don't ask them to talk in English. They memorize the vocabularies, practice the spellings and learn the grammar. I myself wouldn't learn this way. I would learn what the teacher asked me to memorize... (Interview-TF- July 2010).

In the context of the language institute F (in which L1 was allowed) the teacher linked undesirable use of L1 to the language institute system that is the manager and the whole body of the owners who decide for the business. The teacher criticized this pressure from the management system while she admitted that she has to follow their decisions.

I don't like to teach the whole grammar in Persian; in my own method I used to explain it in English if I saw that special gaze in students' eyes which showed they had big problems understanding I would explain it in Persian but not that much. Just to a point that I felt that they had problem I used Persian, otherwise I would use only English....but in our meetings in the institute the manager asked us to use Persian in the classroom I mean [he asked us] to explain the grammar in Persian. They said they didn't want the class time to be wasted (Interview-TF- July 2010).

To all mentioned above I should add students' use of the guide books as another important issue which might be related to the educational system and the culture of learning. A quick survey of English books in Iranian bookstores will produce a long list of guide books (e.g., Tajik, Gaam be Gaam) for high school and university students including the answers of the textbook exercises and the translation of the texts.

5.1.7 Teachers' beliefs on the affective role of L1

Previous research on teacher's use of L1 in the classroom indicates that teachers use L1 to deal with some affective factors of classroom interaction. It is reported that they use L1 for the following purposes: (a) establish a positive social relationship with students (Macaro, 2001), (b) show empathy toward the students (Polio & Duff, p. 317), or (c) alleviate anxiety associated with the exclusive use of TL (Moore, 1996). To this, the present study added the use of L1 as a motivation for the students.

5.1.7.1 L1 improves teacher-student relationship and communication

In the context of this study some of the teachers thought that using L1 can reduce students' anxiety in the classroom.

Sometimes Persian is needed to change the classroom atmosphere, I think in these cases it's okay, since the students are also eager to use Persian I mean they don't like to use English all the time, there is an atmosphere like they are frightened . . . (Interview-TF- July 2010).

The teachers in the context of high schools associated the alleviating effects of L1 to the “students’ understanding” (see students’ beliefs on the use of L1 for medium-oriented goals) meaning that enhancement of students’ understanding by the use of L1 results in allaying the students’ anxiety.

It [L1] has a positive effect. For example a low achieving student doesn’t understand a part of the lesson which has been taught in English so she comes to me and asks me to explain that part to her [in Persian], she can understand the lesson, so this can make her interested in the lesson and the class. (Interview-THa- July 2010)

Another important role of L1 in classroom communication was raised by one of the high school teachers who found it difficult to communicate with students through TL only. She stated that L1 can ease teacher-student communication.

I think it [L1] has an effective role. That means if we don’t use students mother tongue in the classroom, it will be really difficult to communicate with students. (Interview-THb- July 2010).

5.1.7.2 L1 is a motivation at school

The teachers in high schools drew an indirect connection between the motivational effects of L1 and different aspects of the EFL education in high schools. From the following statement we can see the teacher criticizes the high school EFL

system for being incapable of forming the habit of TL use in English classroom while she justifies the students' use of L1 as it is motivated by the system.

I think using Persian in the classroom motivates students since they think their understanding increases. Persian has a positive role in their learning because they have not grown accustomed to the use of English. (Interview-THb- July 2010).

As obvious in the statement, the teacher used an ironical language to show the students' illusory perception of learning a language. She said "using Persian in the classroom motivates students since they *think* their understanding increases." That means the teacher assumes L1 use does not enhance student understanding in terms of real language learning. This is clearer when she connected the positive role of L1 to the deficiency of the system in forming the habit of TL use in the classroom.

They have to learn the lesson to be able to pass the course so they think Persian can help them to do that. (Interview- THa- July 2010)

Another reason for the motivational effects of L1 can be found in the statement of the second teacher, when she notes the relation between the "learning the lesson", "passing the course" and "the use of L1". As Crooks (1988) notes "classroom evaluation has powerful direct and indirect impacts [on students], which may be positive or negative." (p. 438). From the high school teachers' perspective, this is the negative effect of the evaluation system which serves as a motivation for undesirable habit of L1 use as a learning strategy.

5.1.8 Teachers' personal theories towards the use of L1

Investigating teachers' beliefs and attitudes, Macaro (2009) reported three major personal theories towards the use of L1 taken by the teachers. The first position was held by the teachers who believed in a TL-only classroom. This was named "virtual position" since they believed the TL- only situation can provide a "virtual reality" classroom similar to the real target language environment. The second position was taken by the teachers who believed in using TL in language teaching, yet they declared that the ideal learning condition (TL-only) is not attainable, therefore the target language should be used as much as possible. This position was named "maximal position". The last position, "optimal position", describes the teachers seeing some value in the use of L1 in language teaching. To investigate teachers' personal theories towards the use of L1/TL in the classroom the aforementioned categories were utilized.

5.1.8.1 Teachers' optimal position

TL was considered as the desirable language of the classroom for teachers in both language institute and high school contexts. In language institute F (L1 allowed context) the teacher was not satisfied with the condition of the L1 use in her classroom. She thought TL should be the dominant language of the classroom.

...you know I don't like this much Persian in the class... (Interview- TF- July 2010).

Although she is criticizing too much Persian use, it can be inferred from her statement - “this much Persian” –that she considers a certain amount of Persian use necessary for the classroom. Another implied meaning of this statement might refer to the fact that the amount of Persian use in her classroom is determined by the authorities in the context of language institute.

By the same token, high school teachers believed that L1 use is a predestined reality of English classrooms created by the educational system. However, they considered minimizing the use of L1 and maximizing the TL in the classroom favorable.

I think the use of mother tongue is not very effective and useful. I mean it's better to decrease its role in the classroom but it all depends on fixing our methodological issues (Interview-THb- July 2010).

As discussed earlier, the “methodological issues” and “educational system” here refers to different aspects of school EFL education such as books, teaching methods and evaluation processes encouraging the use of L1 in the classroom. From the teachers’ perspective, it is desirable to minimize L1 use and maximize TL use but this is not a personal issue for the teachers to decide for. In contrast to Edstrom (2006), the teachers’ believed that the use of L1 in the classroom is not a very subjective issue.

Within this educational system we have no other choice [except using L1] (Interview-THa- July 2010).

5.1.8.2 Teachers' virtual position

The analysis of teachers' beliefs towards the use of L1 in both language institutes and high schools revealed that they believe in a TL-only language learning environment as an ideal situation for learning a language.

I think the teacher who uses Persian in the classroom gets better results [in the present system] but a teacher who uses only English in the classroom is doing the right job. (Interview- THb- July 2010)

One can expect that the teacher in language institute T (in which TL-only policy was running) would totally agree with this view. As the teacher in this institute said (with confidence and pride in her voice):

In fact I think we have been very successful in removing mother tongue from the classroom and institute (Interview-TT- July 2010).

In language institute F and high schools, however, the teachers referred to some conditions for this ideal TL-only situation to happen. They believed that the language learning should be started from preschool (see teachers' beliefs on context-driven use of L1) and the students must be accustomed to the use of TL from the commencement of the language learning.

If we start from beginning we can use only English in the classroom. (Interview- THa- July 2010)

5.1.9 L1/TL in managers' approach to language education

The analysis of the managers' interviews revealed fundamental differences in their approaches to language teaching and learning. The manager in language institute T (in which the TL-Only policy was running) believed in “exposing” the students to the target language.

I believe that students can only be exposed to the language when they use it in the conversation you know in interaction in real use of the language (Interview-MT- July 2010)

Explaining the reasons for the English-only policy she mentioned the classroom as the only opportunity for students to be exposed to the target language. She believed classroom is the only place for students to use the language to express themselves.

well the reason why is because we want the students to be more exposed to the use of the language, because we know that in the classroom it is the only time when students can use the language actually because in other areas like outside schools or some institutes they do not have the opportunity so we try to make it you know an opportunity for the students to use the language you know any way expressing their everyday conversation (Interview-MT- July 2010)

To be successful in providing such rich target language input environment she provided basic guidelines to follow. The guidelines included a) students' “error tolerance”

awareness-raising which can help students “start speaking” in English and b) zero-tolerance policy towards the use of L1 in the classroom.

well, it all depends on the teachers, if the teacher just tolerate speaking Farsi in the classroom as long as the teacher knows how to handle, tell the students that you don't have to worry even if you speak wrong English even if your grammar is not correct just say it and we will try you know correct you. In any way we can so we just simply, encourage students to begin ...English and I think that's the way we can straighten them up but if you just give them silence and tolerate them speaking Farsi in the classroom so we won't be successful you know.
(Interview-MT- July 2010)

It seems that the “error tolerance awareness- raising” strategy is to alleviate the students’ “fear of speaking in TL” which was brought about by as a reason for the use of L1 the teacher (see teachers’ beliefs on context-driven use of L1) in institute F. The implementation process of “students’ error tolerance awareness-raising” is simply “telling the students” the fact that they “don't have to worry” about the errors. However, it can be argued that the teacher’s error correction techniques should also be aligned with the “error tolerance” strategy to provide the ideal fearless environment for students to use TL. Although she did not recount these “error correction” techniques, she informed the interviewer about the vital teaching techniques in implementation of her “zero-tolerance” policy.

For “framework-oriented” use of TL (for definition of “framework-oriented” see students’ beliefs section) she proposed the use of imperative structures from the

very early sessions. This proposition relies on the fact that “in the long run” the TL words will be “injected into” the students’ mind.

Let me give you an example for the starters. I always tell my teachers okay. once you sit in a zero class make simple instructions like, when you say, stand up they say *beshin* [sit down] *pasho* [stand up], no never use these words, you know you can use these imperative sentences in English so you know in the long run it will just injected into their mind. (Interview-MT- July 2010).

This use of TL for classroom language has its roots in Asher’s Total Physical Response (TPR) method. In this method students’ responses to commands require physical movement (e.g., sit down, stand up). However, the question how to use TL for complicated patterns of teacher-student interactions in the classroom (i.e., social interactions) of beginner students remains unanswered.

In addition to the techniques for the classroom managerial language, several teaching techniques were offered to ensure the zero-tolerance policy of the institute. Reproducing her conversation with the teachers in “teacher orientation sessions” the manager offered classic methods of avoiding L1 in teaching vocabulary (i.e. using realia, objects, pictures, and drawing).

I said but there are so many teaching realia which you can use, board, pictures, everything and do a lot of and some teachers are even defining higher definition than that is very simple. I think this is the worst thing they are doing because if you say, for example what is the grape, grape grows on tree with a...grows like bunch like this I said what is this definition, you can simply draw it on the board

and everybody knows that, I think teachers need to know about the use of teaching materials or facilitate some I don't know posters, there are a lot of things that they can do in order to...and you know some teachers are trying consuming a lot of time just because they want to explain a word. (Interview-MT- July 2010).

Regarding language teaching and learning, the manager supported “the direct association of meaning with target language” which is one of the main features of the direct method (see chapter 2). However, she never referred to any teaching methodology except for CLT. Another important methodological point from her perspective was the central role of “teacher” in her approach. The manager's own experience of teaching rose as a “model” for other teachers in the following excerpt.

you know in the experience of teaching I was teaching for the adults level and I was using the simple word you know with a lot of gestures for the students to understand simply or even facilitating with some drawings on the board but may be these are some teachers who simply do not have these skills you know they simply okay facilitate okay, you don't understand I say it in Persian, I think it all depends on the versatility of the teacher how to teach because you can do it and have tried it you know, I didn't speak any word in Farsi but I was able to let them understand. (Interview-MT- July 2010)

Starting the argument with her own experience of the use of preferred teaching techniques, she implies herself as a role model- a versatile teacher who can perform all

the techniques to avoid L1 and maintain the zero-tolerance policy. As we can see above, she asserted that only the “novice” teachers resort to using the students’ L1.

On the other hand, the manager of language institute F presumed a crucial role for the use of L1 in the classroom. He only limited the amount of L1 for different classrooms based on the level of the students.

Using Persian for teaching English I think is very effective. But how much to be used in each level is different. (Interview-MF- July 2010)

Unlike the language learning/teaching approach of language institute T manager, the manager in the context of language institute F did not prescribe a particular methodology as a model of teaching for the institute teachers to follow. Nevertheless, his description of current problems of language teaching in the following excerpt of the interview, unveiled his major approach to language learning and teaching.

When for example you ask the role of a word in a sentence for example you ask them to explain how it is used, what’s its position, or for example to explain its usage, we asked the teachers to explain it in Persian. (Interview-MF- July 2010)

For example in the 8th or 9th term if you ask them to make a sentence in future tense, they can’t make it quickly or for example when you say present perfect or past perfect tense most of them don’t know the structure. (Interview-MF- July 2010)

In the above excerpts, terms and phrases such as “role of a word”, “its position”, “make a sentence in future tense” conveys the impression of a true grammar based approach to

language learning and teaching. In this approach the “structure” is “explained” to learners and they are supposed to produce “sentences” based on the learned “structures”. Therefore, it will come as no surprise to learn that grammar was taught deductively through long teacher monologues in this institute (see chapter 5: A comparison of classroom activities in Institute F and Institute T).

5.1.10 L1 as a managerial policy

Commercial intentions behind the deliberate application of L1-policy in language institute F was a peculiar theme which emerged from the interview with the manager of institute F.

We had a normal teacher [a teacher who is neither exceptional nor poor in teaching] ... we had to give him a class, we knew that he is just a normal teacher but we had no other choice; there were 15 students in that class. At the end of the term there were 15 students in the class. It was an excellent result. We conducted a survey and we saw everybody was satisfied. We gave him the class in the second term and observed his class; we realized that he uses a considerable amount of Persian in his class, and we didn't lose any students. This shows that we have two sides, one is the commercial side of the story and the other is our commitment to the proper education... (Interview-MF- July 2010)

As can be seen in the above excerpt from the interview, the use of L1 for classroom was discovered as an effective strategy for “keeping” students in the institute. This seems to be the turning point for the business owner after a student drop out crisis.

As a rule of thumb we have seen here, in basic classes in which Only English is used after 6-7 sessions, the number of students’ drops. We thought it [TL-only approach] has a lot of positive educational benefits but to be able to keep the students [in the institute] you have to know their needs ...then you can put your educational programs into practice. (Interview-MF- July 2010)

Later in the interview, he revealed that despite all the benefits of TL use might have for students, he has to take this strategic position towards L1 use in his institute to keep the business running. L1 finds its important position in his perspective since it is considered as a “need” in the classroom. However, this experience does not elucidate how TL-only institutes survive with no use of L1. We will come back to this issue later in the discussion.

5.1.11 The implementation of TL-only policy

The manager of institute T pointed out several problems in implementation of the TL-only policy in the institute. The first problem was transferring students’ orientation from an L1 environment to TL environment of the institute.

As far as I know in schools where they are, only Persian is used Of course outside the schools at home, so when they come to an institute or a place there is

a pure English speaking environment so sometimes they feel like, you know, awkward. (Interview-MT- July 2010)

To alter this awkward feeling of the first encounter with a TL environment, she referred to lengthy and demanding negotiations with students or their parents as the only strategy for convincing them of the benefits of this environment. However, parents and students were not the only people to be persuaded to follow the TL-only policy. Teachers' deviation from the guidelines remains to continue as the second problem.

It all depends how we supervise and monitor our teachers, because if they just simply, they just simply deviate our basic guidelines, then they can do whatever they want, we said that no, this is our aim you know we try to help our students improve their English. (Interview-MT- July 2010)

well, I have been doing a lot of teachers orientation I'm not saying teachers training but I've given a lot of demonstration what to do the basic guidelines you know, how, what is the best way that you can improve your knowledge you know just doing a lot of actions doing a lot of words everything using the simplest words (Interview-MT- July 2010)

As mentioned earlier (see L1/TL in managers' approach to language education), any attempts at using L1 in the premises of the institute T was considered a deviation from the first basic guideline that was zero-tolerance policy towards the use of L1. To ensure this policy she needs to carry out internal quality audits through constant classroom

observation. The problems in implementation of TL only policy were described by contrasting the two environments (the environment in the language institute T and out of the language institute T).

5.1.12 Managers' beliefs on the schools and institutes contextual effects

From the managers' views the effects of schools on language institutes have always been negative. To show the heavy burden of removing the negative effects of high school practices, one of the managers used the metaphor of "straightening a broken tooth". In her metaphor, she illustrated the role of language institutes as an orthodontist.

It has somehow a negative effect; the effort that we are trying is something like, straightening a you know tooth that has already been like an orthodontist you have to straighten up things which have broken. (Interview-MT- July 2010)

Later in the interview, some elements of the "broken tooth" metaphor such as "incorrect pronunciations", "the habit of L1 use" and "the misguided methodology" were highlighted.

definitely it would be hard for us you know, as I said, to let the students adapt to our system uh, this is hard for us you know let me give you an example ... they're learning the wrong pronunciation like simple words like the colors you know, they would learn saying /belak/ but here we say it should be black you know and this students learn the first you know, pronunciation wrong . . . they

could adapt it when you want to correct it, it will take as maybe 180 degrees to change this kind of pronunciation. (Interview-MT- July 2010)

When we say we should use mother tongue to transfer the subject [or theme] the reason is that we have to fill the gaps of formal training and education of school. ...not only their methodology is incorrect but also their pronunciation, a student who has studied English for 4 years still pronounces /valk/ or /talk/unfortunately the school education has been left behind if they ...expand the students' vocabulary knowledge in a way that they can understand and they can talk... (Interview-MF- July 2010)

On the other hand, the impact of the language institutes on school English education was reported to be positive, although, sometimes it has consequences for high school teachers. One of the effects of the language institute education on high school language education is transforming homogenous classrooms at school to heterogeneous ones being far more difficult to handle.

One of the problems of the formal School education is that they are getting left behind by the language institutes. For example my daughter is in the second grade of guidance school and she has been learning English since she was 4. Now she is going to get her IELTS, well when she goes to the English class at school in which the students...don't know the alphabet yet, there would be a really terrible mismatch I'm concerned for the teacher in such a class, what can she do? (Interview-MF- July 2010)

It is really difficult to run a heterogeneous class having students far ahead of the classroom. Sometimes it turns into a big problem of classroom management and evaluation. As we can see in the following excerpt from an institute manager's experience, some teachers have to take double standards.

I ask my daughter why you got 14 [out of 20] , she said “they [other students] had a one page test and 30 minutes time to answer but I had three pages, I couldn't finish the test in half an hour”, you know these are big problems which are rising these days..

5.2 How do School EFL Practices Affect Learners' Beliefs Towards L1 use?

The analysis of students' beliefs towards the use of L1 confirms the findings of the previous studies in the context of Iran (Mahmoudi & Yazdi Amirkhiz, 2011; Nazari 2008) that is Iranian students have a negative view towards the L1 use in the English classroom. This study, however, showed that the students' beliefs vary in terms of the students' learning context within the Iranian socio-educational environment.

The results of students' beliefs towards the use of L1 in the context of language institutes and high schools highlighted two major extreme beliefs. One is that of high school students characterized as highly dependent on L1 use, although it values the dominance of TL in classroom language. The second one is that of students in language institute T, being negative towards the use of L1, although it sees a limited role for L1 use in understanding. In this section, I explore the effect of school EFL practices on the

high school students' beliefs towards the use of L1 by comparing the views of the students in language institute T to the views of high school students.

5.2.1 A comparison of institute T and high school students' beliefs

Except for the use of L1 for learning vocabulary, students' views toward L1 use in the classroom in institute T and high school showed a sharp contrast. Students in language institute T agreed (or strongly agreed) with all statements concerning TL use much stronger than high school students. Conversely, High school students indicated stronger agreements on the use of L1 in all aspects of the language classroom. The question is whether the high preference for L1 use by high school students is an effect of high school EFL practices. To answer this question I will need to look at the discrepancy of the students' views in high school and language institute T.

5.2.2 Comparison of students' beliefs on the use of L1 for medium oriented goals

As discussed earlier in reporting students' beliefs, the use of L1 for medium oriented goal refers to the use of L1 in teaching of the "medium" or the target language. The comparison of students' beliefs in the context of high schools indicated the highest demand for L1 use in grammar area. Conversely, they did not show any significant interest in using TL in teaching grammar. The majority of high school students agreed with the use of L1 in teaching and learning vocabulary. On the other hand, L1 students in institute T thought that they were allowed to use L1 when they had problems understanding vocabulary and grammar but the teacher must perform his/her teaching acts in TL.

5.2.2.1 L1 for understanding grammar

Although a majority of the students (54%) in language institute T reported that they understand the grammar easier when explained in L1, the agreement of high school students is notably higher by 93 percent. In fact, the high school students' agreement on the use of L1 for understanding grammar was the highest agreement in the survey. Proving the reliability of the answers, the reverse trend came out in favor of TL for teaching grammar. The results of the open ended questions also confirm that L1 use for grammar was the most recurrent theme in the high school setting (see students' belief section). The question is what is the reason for this high demand for the use of L1 in grammar area?

The grammar based approach to language education in high schools may have shaped this demand for the use of L1 in the high school context. Observations and teachers' interview and focus group discussions illustrated a teacher test, and text based instruction (TTT methodology hereafter) in which grammar carries a high weight. In the following excerpt, a high school teacher described the need of L1 use in the classroom.

Sometimes the students don't understand and we have to use Persian,... for example we ask a student "make a sentence with *masalan* [for example] present perfect" she can't understand, then I give a hint " for example subject+have/has+ past participle" she understand somehow but still there is no answer, here I have to use Persian. (Interview-THa- July 2010).

The classroom evaluation described by the teacher can show the high school grammar based approach, a methodology which relies on grammatical formulas for making sentences rather than using language in meaningful situations. The same approach to learning grammar can be seen in students' views.

If the students know enough words, they may understand the teachers in the classroom, but in case of grammar, even if they know the words there might be some points they wouldn't understand ...they may get the formula of the grammar, which [word] comes first or last [in the word order in a sentence], but we won't understand the meaning. (Focus group- SHa- July 2010)

The overemphasis of grammar in high school teaching methodology has been linked to the structural nature of ELT textbooks in high schools (Azizfar et al., 2010; Razmjoo, 2007). An investigation on locally produced Iranian high school ELT textbooks revealed that "they [the books] are fundamentally based on the structural views of syllabus design." This study concludes that

"[The high school textbooks] have overemphasized the practice of the linguistic forms, and not many of their language learning activities actually include activities which stimulate or lead to authentic communication and language use" (Azizfar et al., 2010, p. 140).

5.2.2.2 L1 for teaching and learning vocabulary

The analysis of closed questions 2, 5 and 6 (see the Appendix for the questionnaire) shows that the students in the context of high school and language

institute T have different views towards the use of L1 in understanding new vocabulary in terms of teaching and learning.

Both groups strongly agree or agree (78% in high schools and 72% in institute T) that L1 helps them to learn vocabulary (question 5). In other words, they believe that it can aid learning and remembering the new vocabulary, for instance by providing equivalents in L1 or associating it with an L1 learning environment. However when it comes to teaching new vocabulary the numbers do not show such a close agreement, with 55% of high school student participants as opposed to 36% in language institute T agreeing that they like L1 to be used for teaching vocabulary in the classroom. Similarly, the number of learners who advocate TL for teaching vocabulary is also different. In the high school context only 38% of the participants like TL to be used to explain new vocabularies but 81% of the participants in the context of institute T said they prefer TL to be used (question 6). In the qualitative data from open ended questions and focus group discussions we can see that the students emphasized the role of L1 in learning and understanding new vocabulary. They said:

For new words it's better to use Persian to learn

[When we use L1] we understand the new vocabularies much easier

[When we use L1 we] understand what we couldn't understand

[When we use L1] we can learn the Persian meaning of words

Only two students supported the use of L1 for teaching vocabulary in the classroom.

They said:

In case of difficult words if they [teachers] explain in Persian it is excellent.

Some difficult and new words must be told in Persian.

It is worth noting that most of the participants mentioned that L1 can enable them to *memorize* the vocabulary. The following statements show the role of L1 in memorization of new vocabulary.

Persian can help us memorize new words easily

We should know the meaning in Persian to be able to remember the meaning.

Researchers (e.g. Riazi & Mosallanejad, 2010) have highlighted the role of memorization in education in the Iranian state sector education.

5.2.2.3 Just Difficult Points in L1

The answers to a question which tends to check the students' preference for the explanation of grammar in TL (question 19) shows that in the context of institute T many of the students like TL to be used for grammar explanation. In high schools only 28% of the students agree or strongly agree with TL use for teaching grammar. However 72% of participants in the context of language institute T said that they like TL to be used for this purpose.

Qualitative data shows that understanding grammatical structure is one of the main concerns of the learners in both contexts:

[L1 helps with] understanding better specially the grammar.

[Using L1] we learn grammar easier.

The teacher should use Persian in teaching grammar.

It [L1] helps understand the grammar.

For difficult grammatical points we have no other choice. [We have to use L1.]

However, the students in language institute T restricted the use of Persian only to the teaching of difficult points:

The use of Persian for teacher is only allowed when teaching difficult parts of the grammar.

In teaching grammar I think sometimes it must be explained in our original language I mean Persian, to understand it better and the rest of the class must be in English.

A comparison of the closed questions which ask the learners' preference for the use of TL in teaching vocabulary, grammar, and classroom instruction (questions 2, 19, and 10 respectively), shows that institute T students' preference for the use of TL stands (by 44% and 55%) higher than the high school participants'.

In sum, the majority of students think that L1 is important in understanding vocabulary and grammar. Despite this agreement, the results of closed questions focusing on learners' preferences for the use of TL in teaching grammar and vocabulary shows that the students in the context of institute T perceive a more important role for the use of TL in *teaching* grammar and vocabulary than the students in high school. Conversely, they attributed a more limited role to the use of L1.

Regarding the use of L1 in medium oriented interactions, students in the context of institute T tend to make a distinction between the use of L1 in teachers' language and learners' language, a distinction which was not noted in the high school context. They emphasize that the teacher is only allowed to use L1 for the difficult points which cannot be explained in TL. In other words, in their opinion, L1 can be used by learners to improve their understanding in vocabulary and grammar but teachers can only use L1 when the students ask them to do so. However many high school students prefer L1 for *teaching* vocabulary (55%) and grammar (93%) in the classroom. If we accept the

effect of TTT high school methodology on the dominance of the use of L1 in high schools, the key question here is why TL is more popular in the private sector than the state sector. Before answering this question we will see how students in the two contexts (high schools and language institute T) view the role of L1 for framework oriented goals.

5.2.3 Comparison of students' beliefs on L1 use for framework oriented goals

Management, assessment and instruction were other areas in which the students' views on the functions and usage of L1 in the classroom were studied. The comparison shows a sharp contrast in the views of high school students and institute T students. The institute T students emphasized that "TL should be the classroom language" while the high school students saw a role for "L1 in classroom assessment."

5.2.3.1 TL as the Classroom Language

The results of the questionnaire shows that 90 percent of students in institute T prefer classroom instruction to be given in TL (question 10) while only 35 percent of students in high schools agree with TL use in classroom instruction. On the part of the benefits of L1 in the classroom, the responses to the open ended questions showed that students perceived the role of L1 in getting familiar with the environment, examination procedures, teaching methods and classroom outlines. In listing the advantages of L1 use in the classroom high school students were reported to use L1 for getting familiar with the classroom and environment, examination procedures, and the method of

teaching lessons. They also believed that classroom outlines must be given in Persian (see students' beliefs on the use of L1 for framework-oriented goals).

5.2.3.2 L1 for Classroom Assessment

According to the quantitative results of the questionnaire, the percentage of students who strongly agree or agree that assessment details should only be given in students' mother tongue in high school context is far more than in the institute T context. Only 20 percent of participants disagree or strongly disagree with the use of L1 for assessment and 17 percent are not sure whether L1 or TL must be used.

Among the benefits the high school students attribute to the use of L1 are “exam procedures” and “explaining the questions” as the most recurring themes. For instance they said:

During the exam our teacher should explain the questions in Persian.

In exams when we don't know what to do, so they should tell us in Farsi.

If we don't understand the exam Persian must be used.

[L1 is] Good for exam in the classroom

All in all, the comparison of students' views on the use of L1 for framework oriented goals in the two contexts shows that in language institute T, students prefer instructions to be in TL while high school students consider L1 as a tool for classroom assessment.

To explain the higher popularity of TL in medium oriented and framework oriented goals among the learners in institute T, I will look at schools in the larger EFL educational context in Iran. As mentioned earlier, the dominant medium of instruction in Iranian high schools and universities is Persian, so students have no choice for the use of English as the target language even in the EFL classroom. However English

examinations are mainly written tests in which L1 has no place. Ironically, although L1 is the medium of instruction in school EFL classrooms the final examinations are in the TL and L1 is not used even for examination instructions. The students' preference for TL to be used by the teacher in language institute T can be interpreted as a reaction against the dominant use of L1 as the medium of instruction in mainstream school classrooms. By contrast, high school students see a role for L1 use in classroom assessment because TL was the only language for assessment in school tests.

5.2.4 Comparison of Perceived Dangers of L1 Use

The analysis of data revealed that the students attribute some dangers and drawbacks to the use of L1 in the classroom. Perceived dangers of L1 are: (a) lack of exposure to TL (b) overuse of L1, and (c) dependence on L1. Referring to these threats of L1 use in the classroom, students used different terms (i.e., listening, speaking, and searching for new words) which can be a reflection of the effect of contextual factors on their beliefs.

5.2.4.1 L1 harms speaking and listening

The data from open ended questions showed that the students believed L1 can affect their speaking and listening ability negatively (see students' beliefs: perceived dangers of the use of L1). However, this concern for speaking and listening skills (being affected by the use of L1) was mentioned more frequently in responses of students in language institute T. The following statements of the students in language

institute T illustrate their concerns about the negative effects of L1 on their speaking ability.

[By using L1] we get weak in speaking English.

[By using L1] we won't be able to speak in English in the future.

[By using L1] our speaking ability gets weak.

Besides speaking, in the context of language institute T students think that lack of TL may affect their "listening" ability too:

It [L1] turns our ears from getting used to English language.

[By using L1] our listening may get weaker and weaker.

The data shows that the institute T students see the use of L1 as having a negative effect on speaking and listening skills. This emphasis on the listening and speaking skills can be traced in the methodology of the textbook (interchange series) used in language institute T. Previous research on the interchange book has shown that it is conducive to CLT methodology (Razmjoo, 2007) which puts speaking and listening at the heart of classroom communication.

5.2.4.2 The "only" and "always" phenomenon

In addition to the lack of exposure to TL, another prominent danger identified by students in language institute T was the danger of absolute use of L1 in the classroom. Consider for example the following comments from the students in language institute T.

If Persian is used *all the time* the person won't be able to speak in English

If *only Persian* is used and no English the learner will have problem in listening.

If L1 is *always* used our speaking may get weak.

The data reveal that language institute T students framed the arguments in absolute terms, using the words *only* and *always*. This indicates that their prior experience of too much exposure to Persian in school mainstream education has influenced their views towards L1 use as a danger arising from an “*always*” or “*only*” Persian situation. They think the use of L1 will cause “laziness”. This will finally lead to “addiction” which can revive the “only L1” situation in high schools.

Students get addicted to using Persian and using English become difficult for them.

It [L1] makes the students lazy.

It [L1] changes to be a habit.

Our ears become accustomed to hearing Persian.

There would be less effort to speak in English.

We get used to speaking Persian.

By the same token, this study indicates that language institute T students see translation not just as a form of reliance or dependence on L1 but as a source of “confusion” and “contradiction” which has negative effects on “concentration”.

Sometimes students translate a word or sentence to understand it and it results in a contradiction.

It [translation] reduces the “concentration” in learning.

Sometimes I become confused [by translations].

They see “slow learning” as an ultimate danger of the use of L1. As one of the students wrote:

It [the use of L1] makes the process of learning slower and it is harmful for all of the students in the classroom and it changes to a habit which will increase the amount of Persian in the classroom.

Some participants also believe that by using TL students can learn “better” and “faster”:

When Persian is spoken students don’t learn well.

I think the use of Persian reduces the speed of learning.

It [the use of L1] hinders learning.

The results indicate that institute T students have a stronger opinion regarding the dangers of L1 use in the classroom. The impact of school context on students’ views can also be traced in the dangers the students attribute to the use of L1. Students in the context of language institute T think L1 can turn into an “addiction” and change their “learning style.” They are also worried about “*only*” and “*always*” use of L1 in the classroom. They believe that using L1 eventually leads to a kind of “addiction” which will result in a “school-like classroom” environment in which English is *only* or *always* be taught in L1.

5.2.4.3 L1 changes students’ vocabulary learning style

A new category which emerged from the qualitative data in this study indicates that learners in the context of language institute T see the dangers of L1 not only in relation to its effects on the cognitive process of learning and classroom habits but also

in relation to their own personal learning style and the learning habits out of the classroom.

[If L1 is used] we won't search for the word ourselves.

[By using L1] we get lazy in searching words.

If we use Persian we won't try to look up the words.

[If L1 is used] the students won't look up the new words and they lose their perseverance.

“Searching for the new word” is a recurring phrase in the data which refers to the responsibility that student must fulfill out of the classroom before each teaching session. As mentioned earlier in the students' perceived dangers of L1 use (see student beliefs), teachers' use of L1 negatively affects students' “perseverance” in looking up the new vocabularies which is interpreted as a kind of “laziness” by the students. Focus group discussions with students revealed that “searching for new vocabulary” is related to the notion of being a “good student”. In the Iranian EFL educational context the notion of “good student” refers to the one whose learning style is characterized by previewing the lessons and carrying a dictionary (a definition that all participants agreed on). When the learner knows that the teacher will give the meaning of words in L1, they become demotivated to search for the meaning of words themselves and their learning style changes from that of a “good student” to a “bad student”. Cortazzi and Jin (1996) observed that this understanding of what it means to be a good/bad student or teacher forms a part of the teacher's and students' ideological model of their expectations from each other which is a part of the “culture of learning.”

5.2.5 Comparison of students' beliefs on the affective role of L1

Regarding the affective role of L1 in the classroom, high school students noted that L1 can create a positive atmosphere in the classroom and it can build a more conducive classroom communication. However the language institute T students report that L1 can reduce motivation.

5.2.5.1 Negative feelings toward TL are not so strong

The student participants in language institute T believed that sometimes L1 can foster “understanding” while they did not report any negative feelings associated with the lack of understanding or misunderstanding when they use TL. The following responses from the open ended questions show that students' negative feelings are not so strong.

I feel better somehow [when L1 is used].

It [the use of L1] gives me a better feeling when I understand something completely.

It [the use of L1] makes the difficult points clearer.

Sometimes it [the use of L1] helps me understand better.

5.2.5.2 TL is a strong motivator

Answers from the qualitative data suggest that from the institute T students' view point, TL is not *only a motivator* but *the main reason* to participate in an English course in language institutes.

If we are supposed to speak Persian in the classroom there is no need to come to English class.

If we want to speak Persian why should we come to English class?

Let's talk in Persian and have fun but no English class.

Why should we come to English class if Persian is spoken?

Should we sit in a class in which Persian is used? Isn't it something like school?

This view is also supported by the students in high school, since they expect the TL to be used in language institutes. From the high school students' perspective TL should be the language of classroom instruction in language institute contexts since the textbooks and teachers' methods are different.

5.2.5.3 TL has a socializing role in the classroom

Another category from qualitative data shows that learners in language institute T consider a socializing role for the use of TL in the classroom which was not mentioned in the context of high schools. Learners' explanations on the concept of "speaking" revealed that it is used in two senses in the language institute T context. One is speaking as a "language skill" (knowing enough English to be able to talk) and the other is speaking as a "social skill" (having enough self-confidence to talk).

[Using L1 will result in] getting used to speaking Persian and lack of practicing speaking.

[By using L1] students remain shy in speaking English in the classroom.

They [some of the students] can't overcome their shyness if Persian is used.

Students need confidence to speak so they shouldn't use Persian.

We should learn how to speak so we need to learn it in the classroom.

We can't speak [English] out of the classroom.

The social role of TL in the classroom was a new category in this study showing the effect of social context on learners' attitude. In the context of language institute T, learners see the use of TL in the classroom as a practice to overcome the problem of "shyness" in speaking English. To understand this, I will need to have another look at the Iranian social and educational context. In the Iranian context "speaking English" is an "investment" (Peirce, 1995) according to the needs of the market while there are some social values which limit the real practice of English in the social context. For example, people will laugh at you if you talk to your fellow classmate in English out of the classroom since it's a sign of "showing off" (the same instance is reported in Gibbons' (1979) study in the context of Hong Kong). Under these circumstances, we can understand why learners in language institute T see using TL in the classroom as a practice of overcoming "shyness".

5.2.6 Teachers' beliefs on the effects of contexts

High school language teachers agreed on the positive effects of language institutes on students' language ability. During the interviews, they frequently differentiated those students who have the "outside classes" background from the students who have "never been to a language institute." One can expect that the language institute teachers do not disagree.

On the other hand, the teacher in language institute T took the opposite side, mentioning the negative effects of students' language learning practices at school.

These negative impacts included the students' undesirable habits such as "laziness", "using L1", "thinking in L1" and "incorrect pronunciation".

Unfortunately the schools have had more negative effects on language institutes than the other way around..... one of the effects is the use of Persian, ...I can say school makes the student lazy....at school they always ask for Persian so they use Persian, they are not encouraged to search for the meaning in English , they are not encouraged to talk in English...(Interview-TT- July 2010).

Wrong pronunciations [that the students learn at school] has an effect on our teaching herewhen they want to write, first they think in Persian then they translate it into English....at school they ask them to translate the texts, I have seen that and I think this is not the right way, they learn the language word by word and they make sentences word by word. (Interview- TT- July 2010)

Summary

The learners, teachers, and managers' beliefs towards the use of L1 and the effects of the context on learner's views were investigated in this chapter. Learners' beliefs were gathered through a questionnaire and the focus group discussions in two language institutes and two high schools. The teachers and the managers participated in an interview to discuss their views on L1 use in the classroom. The learners' views were categorized according to 'medium-oriented goals', which focus on the teaching of the "medium" or the target language, and 'framework oriented goals,' which are related to the organization and management of classroom activities, the perceived dangers of the use of L1 and the affective role of L1 use in the classroom.

With regard to the medium-oriented goals of L1 use, students in both language institute and high school contexts attributed a highly important role to the use of L1 in the vocabulary and grammar area. Most of the students in language institute T prefer TL to be used for teaching vocabulary while this preference decreases in language institute F and the high school context. Concerning the use of L1 for teaching and learning grammar, students in language institutes see a role for both languages (L1/TL) in the grammar area while the high school students mainly prefer L1 to be used.

Regarding the framework-oriented goals of L1 use, the results indicated a strong preference for instructions to be in TL in the language institute setting. However, this preference for TL decreased for high school students, although they stated that if there were no examinations at school they would prefer only TL to be the language of the classroom. They also saw a role for L1 in the classroom outlines and assessment details. High school students showed a stronger agreement on the role of L1 in classroom assessment than the students of language institutes. However, in the language institute setting the views represent a condition of uncertainty rather than disagreement.

On the other hand, the students believed that L1 use may have some drawbacks. They believed that L1 has negative effects on their listening and speaking, L1 may turn into a habit, and it can change their learning style. They were also concerned that the use of L1 in the classroom can transform into a kind of addiction and finally lead to laziness. Regarding the affective role of L1, the students believed that it can foster “understanding” when there is an ambiguity, although they did not report any negative feelings associated with the lack of understanding or misunderstanding.

Teachers' beliefs towards the use of L1 were organized into their views on the cognition-driven use of L1, for example L1 for teaching vocabulary and grammar or L1 for understanding, and context-driven use of L1 such as the use of L1 as a habit or the system demands for the use of L1. For the use of L1 in teaching English language (medium-oriented goals), institute F teachers' view was akin to the views of the high school teachers. Language teachers in high school and language institute F emphasized the role of L1 in teaching grammar and vocabulary while the teacher in language institute T did not agree with their view. Concerning the context-driven use of L1 the teachers believed that not only the students and their parents demand the use of L1 in the classroom but also the condition of L1 use at schools has accustomed the students to the use of L1. The teachers believed that the school EFL education system encourages the use of L1. They referred to "starting age of language learning", "books" and "evaluation process" as the main systemic problems causing the present undesirable condition of L1 use.

The affective role of L1 and the teachers' personal theories towards the use of L1 were also investigated in this chapter. The teachers in the context of high schools associated the alleviating effects of L1 to the enhancement of students understanding by the use of L1. They concluded that this can improve the teacher-student relationship and communication. From the high school teachers' viewpoint the negative effects of the evaluation system serve as a motivation for undesirable habit of L1 use as a learning strategy. The teachers in this study took different positions in their views towards L1 use in the classroom. The high school teachers and the teacher in language institute T took the optimal position meaning that they believed in some values for the use of L1 in the classroom. However, by taking a virtual position all participant teachers agreed that

a TL-only language learning environment can be an ideal situation for learning a language.

The analysis of the managers' interviews revealed fundamental differences in their approaches to language teaching and learning. The manager in language institute T (in which the TL-Only policy was running) believed in "exposing" the students to the target language through "zero-tolerance" policy towards the use of L1 and employing versatile teachers while the manager in language institute F saw value in using L1 in the classroom. However, they both agreed that effects of schools on the process of language learning in language institutes have always been negative.

The results of students' beliefs in the context of language institutes and high schools highlighted two major extremes. One is that of high school students characterized as highly dependent on L1 use, although it values the dominance of TL in classroom language. The second one is that of students in language institute T, being negative towards the use of L1, although it sees a limited role for L1 use in understanding. Regarding the contextual effects on learners' views towards the use of L1 in the classroom, the comparison of learners' views in the two contexts revealed some significant points. One point was the distinction the students made in the use of L1 for teaching and learning. In language institute T the students saw a role for L1 when they need it to understand something (e.g., a grammatical point or new vocabulary) while they did not support teacher's use of L1 in the classroom. However, high school students' responses did not show such a sharp distinction. The comparison of students' views on the use of L1 for framework oriented goals in the two contexts showed that in language institute T, students prefer instructions to be in TL--as it is

emphasized in the context--while high school students consider L1 as a tool for classroom assessment.

The analysis of attributed dangers and drawbacks of L1 usage revealed the perceived dangers of L1 as: (a) lack of exposure to TL (b) overuse of L1, and (c) dependence on L1. Speaking of these threats of L1 use in the classroom, students used different terms (i.e., listening, speaking, and searching for new words) which can be a reflection of the effect of contextual factors on their beliefs. Regarding the affective role of L1 in the classroom, high school students noted that L1 can create a positive atmosphere in the classroom and it can build a more conducive classroom communication. However the language institute T students report that L1 can reduce motivation.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This study has examined the use of L1 in EFL classroom in the Iranian EFL educational context. The study explored three major themes: First the use of L1 in classroom discourse, second the learners, teachers, and managers' beliefs towards the use of L1 and finally the effects of the context on the learners' beliefs. This chapter integrates and discusses the findings of the previous chapters.

6.2 The Use of L1

O'Caine and Liebscher (2009) assert that it is necessary to make a distinction between students' and teacher's use of L1 in the classroom since "some of the code switches take on different meanings depending on whether the students or the teacher perform them" (p. 143). The results of this study add to O'Caine and Liebscher's findings by highlighting similarities and differences of communicative and interactional features of teachers' and students' L1 use in the classroom. Here I will turn to a description of the similarities and differences in activity and interaction level followed by a discussion of the major areas and activities of L1 use.

6.2.1 Student and teacher's use of L1 across areas

Figure 19 illustrates student's use of L1 across six areas of classroom activities identified in the previous section. As can be seen, the highest number of student's L1 turns (90 turns) was in activities in which students were engaged in speaking. After speaking, grammar and listening were the two areas of classroom discourse in which student's use of L1 was recorded more frequently (75 turns). The lowest amount of L1 was between 5 to 25 turns in listening, vocabulary and off task area. However, teacher's use of L1 follows a quite different pattern.

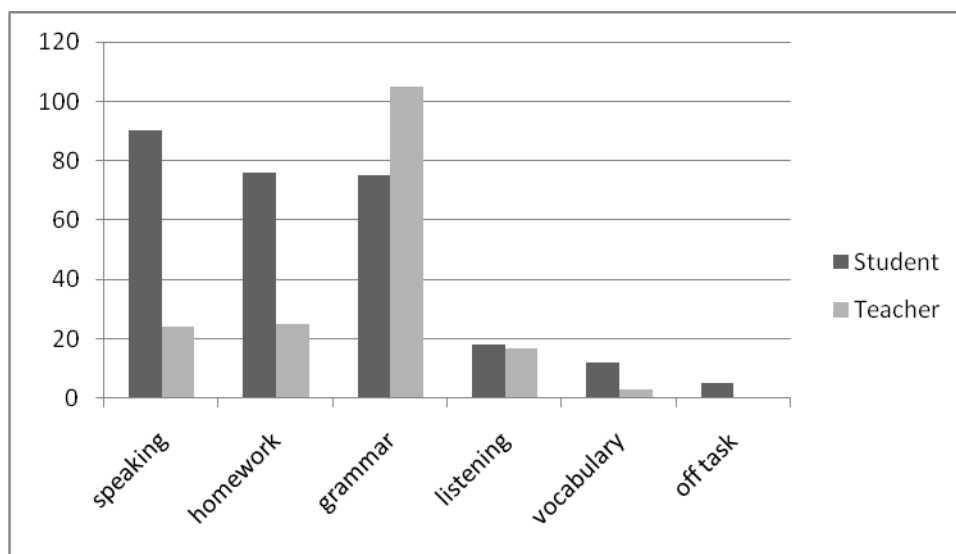


Figure 19 Students' and teachers' use of L1 across areas.

As Figure 19 shows, most of L1 used by the teacher was in grammar area by 105 L1 turns. The greatest difference of the use of L1 in teacher and student talk was in the speaking and homework area. Students used L1 in 90 turns in speaking activities and 76 turns talking about homework while the teacher's use of L1 in both areas was approximately 20 turns. The same number of L1 turns appeared in student and teacher

talk while they were engaged in listening activities. Surprisingly, the teacher did not use L1 in off task interactions. To get a deeper insight into the nature of the similarities and differences of teachers' and students' use of L1 we need to look into the interactional features of L1 in classroom discourse. Here I will turn to the interactional features of three major areas of L1 in classroom discourse namely speaking, grammar and homework area.

6.2.1.1 Speaking Area

The dominant participant organization of the speaking area was teacher-student and the focus of the material was on discourse. Students' L1 use was task/social oriented and it was used to convey meaning, evade the task or create humor while the teacher's use of L1 was only task-oriented; 19.5 percent of student turns initiated discourse in the classroom. Students' use of L1 in speaking area regarding giving and requesting information, showed they used L1 to give unpredictable information and they requested genuine information using L1 in this area while teacher's information requests in L1 were both pseudo and genuine ones.

6.2.1.2 Grammar Area

Grammar was the second area of classroom discourse in which many L1 turns were recorded. Unlike the speaking area, the teacher's use of L1 in grammar area was far more than the students' use of L1. Participant organization of the classroom discourse in L1 turns was teacher-student/class and the focus of the content was on form. The use of L1 was mainly task-oriented in students' turns and it functioned to convey or request meaning. Similarly, the orientation of teacher's use of L1 was on

task, although the function was to explain grammar. Regarding the information gap features of the use of L1 in this area, the results showed that students' requests were genuine while the teacher used L1 mostly in pseudo requests. The teacher used L1 in giving unpredictable information, although students' use of L1 was for giving predictable information.

6.2.1.3 Homework area

The third prominent area of L1 use in classroom discourse was homework area. The comparison of students and teacher's use of L1 in this area revealed that during homework checking or assigning, students used more L1 than the teacher. The participant organization was teacher-student/class. The focus of the content in homework area was mainly on form and students' predominant modality was reading. Regarding the orientation and the function of the L1 use, both teacher and students' L1 use was task-oriented in this area. However the students used L1 for meaning but the teacher's L1 turns aimed at checking students' understanding. To get a clearer picture of the distributional patterns of teacher and student L1 use, the following section provides a breakdown of L1 use across the activities within each area.

6.2.2 Students' and teacher's use of L1 across activities

Figure 20 illustrates student's use of L1 across different activities of speaking, homework, grammar, listening, vocabulary, and off task areas. The first five activities from the left (pair work, QA, conversation summary, conversation presentation, role play) belong to the speaking area. As can be seen, in this area L1 was used mainly in role play activity (more than 40 turns) while the use of L1 is relatively moderate in

other activities, fewer than 20 turns. However, most of L1 use in student talk-- approximately 60 turns-- was recorded in homework check and grammar presentation in homework area and grammar area respectively. L1 was used in fewer than 20 turns in the other three areas (listening, vocabulary, off task). The relative high number of L1 turns in role play activity, homework check and grammar presentation activity will be discussed shortly.

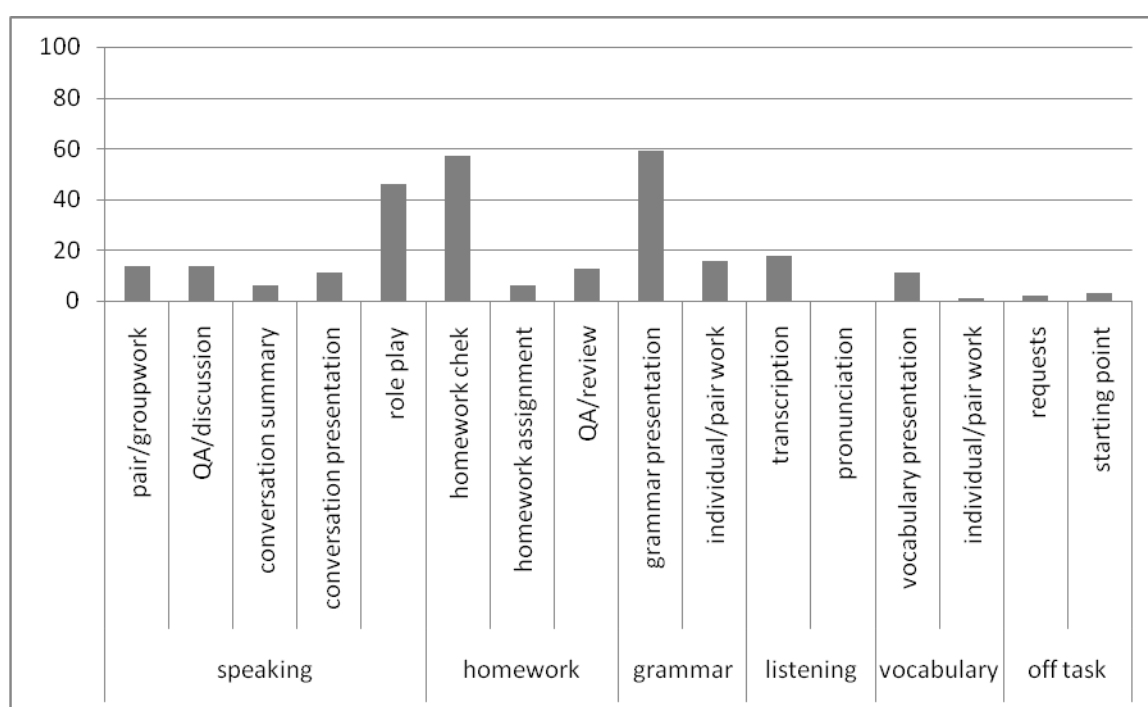


Figure 20. Students' use of L1 across activities.

On the other hand, the teacher's use of L1 across activities (Figure 21) illustrates a significant low use of L1 across all activities except grammar presentation. In grammar presentation teacher's L1 turns reached 95 turns. Comparing with other areas being below 20 turns, this significant difference must be due to some factors in the grammar area. From different activities in these areas the major activities in which L1 was

recorded most-- role play, homework check and grammar presentation-- and listening transcription and pair/group work activity are discussed here.

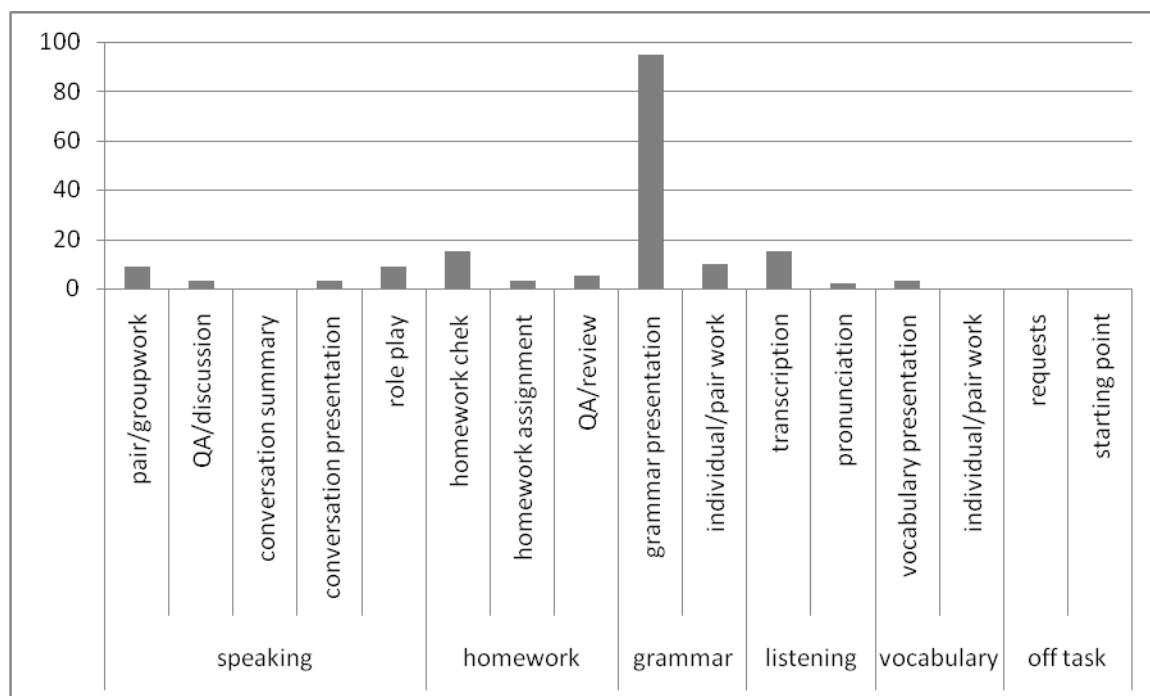


Figure 21. Teachers' use of L1 across activities.

6.2.2.1 Role Play Activity

Under speaking, the results show that the students used L1 far more than the teacher. However, students' use of L1 was moderate across all activities of this area except for the role play activity. Analysis of activities under speaking (pair/group work, role play, conversation summary, conversation presentation, and QA/Discussion) revealed that the students used L1 most in role play activity. Although, in this activity, the students were playing the role and the participant organization of the interaction is expected to be student-student, the communicative features of L1 use in this activity

showed that the participant organization of the interactions in this activity was teacher-student/class. This was because the students did not like to participate in this activity. As can be seen in Extract 23 (Chapter IV), when the teacher asked the students to come for the role play they were reluctant. Students' use of L1 in role play activity was socially oriented; they used L1 to evade the task by making excuses.

According to Liu and Littlewood (1997) student's reluctance can be due to the following reasons: (a) lack of experience in speaking English that is most conversation in the classroom and out of the classroom is performed in L1 and this poor-input environment contributes to the lack of experience and eventually the reluctance of the students in the classroom, (b) Lack of confidence in speaking English that is seen in relation to the previous reason as the lack of experience in speaking can result in lack of confidence in speaking, (c) Anxiety from high performance expectation; the students feel uneasy speaking English as they think they are not performing well, and (d) The mismatch between teacher and student's perception of the learner role that is the students do not value all forms of classroom participation equally. The first three reasons for their reluctance can be observed in relation to the student's evasion from role play activity in this study.

In the Iranian social context, as English is just limited to the classroom and there is almost no opportunity for students to use it in real communication out of the classroom; hence the lack of experience in speaking English can result in the lack of confidence in speaking English especially when they have to talk in front of others. Students' speaking ability in lower levels is not expected to be high in Iranian language institutes, although, sometimes they are expected to role play the whole conversation from memory. This form of language practice (role playing by heart) is not part of text

book activity or teacher's guide suggested activities, yet it is an activity requested by the teacher. Past and present studies on Iranian language teaching and learning show that students and teachers place a "strong reliance on memorization" (Farhadi & Hedayati, 2009; Riazi & Mosallanejad, 2010; Stevenson, 1977).

This strong reliance on memorization was observed in vocabulary learning in the high school setting while in the language institute setting it was in the form of role play activity. L1 appeared in two situations of role play activity episodes of classroom discourse. One was when the teacher calls the students to come for a role play activity and they needed to evade the task by making an excuse. In such a face-threatening situation "excuse making process" needed a high level of reasoning and language ability being far beyond the ability of lower level students (see chapter IV, Extract 23). The other situation is when a student "loses his/her train of thought" due to the heavy working memory load of the activity, lack of experience, lack of self-confidence and the anxiety of performing in front of the class (see chapter IV, Extract 24). It is worth mentioning that in such situations of role play activity the teacher's help or explanation occurred in the form of L1. This L1 use was predominantly management-oriented and its function is to give procedures (see chapter IV, Table 27). Cheng (2000) emphasizes that the causes of the student's reluctant behavior are situation specific and refer to "unsuitable methodology" and "lack of required language proficiency" as two main causes for such behavior. In role play activity teacher's unsuitable methodology resulted in high memory load activity which caused a face threatening situation in the classroom discourse. For the first situation a student needs her mother tongue (L1) to maintain her face in the classroom and for the second one she needs L1 to retain her

train of thought and find her role in the conversation. Therefore, the quantity of use of L1 sharply increases in this activity.

6.2.2.2 Grammar presentation activity

Among the two activities of grammar area (grammar presentation, individual/pair work) the use of L1 in grammar presentation activity was considerably more than L1 uses in individual/pair work. In fact, the most number of L1 turns (for both students and teacher) were recorded under grammar presentation activity. Form-focused use of L1 for understanding grammatical item, explaining the complexities of grammar and translation activities has been mentioned in the literature (Braine, 2010; Jenkins, 2003; Latsanyphone, 2009). However, the high use of L1 in grammar presentation activity cannot be explained simply by the fact that L1 has a role in teaching grammar. Thus a closer look into the teacher's grammar teaching seems necessary.

As stated earlier, the activities under grammar area were presentation activity and individual/pair work activity. The presentation stage was devoted to long turns of teacher explanations on the new grammatical structure(s) whereas, in individual/pair work stage students completed the exercise in the text book individually or sometimes in pairs. This stage was followed by practicing the same exercise in pairs in the form of question-answer or oral conversation practice (depending on the form of the exercise). This short description illustrates teacher's PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) model of language instruction. This approach is the most popular grammar based approach being used in the context of Iranian EFL education. Nassaji and Foto (2011) describe the stages of this model as follows:

In the PPP model, grammar instruction consists of a structured three-stage sequence: a presentation stage, a practice stage, and a production stage. In the presentation stage, the new grammar rule or structure is introduced, usually through a text, a dialogue, or a story that includes the structure. The students listen to the text or read it out loud. The main purpose of this stage is to help students become familiar with the new grammatical structure and keep it in their short-term memory (Ur, 1988). The presentation stage is followed by a practice stage, in which students are given various kinds of written and spoken exercises to repeat, manipulate, or reproduce the new forms. The practice stage usually begins with controlled practices that focus learners' attention on specific structures and then moves to less controlled practices with more open-ended activities. The aim of the practice stage is to help students gain control of the knowledge introduced in the presentation stage, to take it in, and to move it from their short-term memory to their long-term memory (Ur, 1988). Finally, in the production stage, learners are encouraged to use the rules they have learned in the presentation and practice stages more freely and in more communicative activities. The aim of this last stage is to fully master the new form by enabling learners to internalize the rules and use them automatically and spontaneously. In a sense, the aim here is to develop fluency. (p.4)

In the description of the PPP model the presentation stage involves introducing new L2 structures to learners (Scrivener, 2009). Nassaji and Fotos (2011) describe how introducing L2 structures requires the students to read or listen to a text, dialog or a story to learn the new structure. In fact the new structure is introduced within a context;

therefore the students become familiar with this new grammar rule through interpreting the context. In fact, the contextualized presentation of L2 structures in this model has made it legitimate for some researchers (Batstone, 1994). However, the presentation stage in Iranian EFL education is rarely contextualized. Instead, as we saw in the previous chapter, in teaching grammar the teacher gives long lectures introducing new grammar structures by writing formulas on the board and giving single sentence examples. The facts that the students' modality is listening in grammar presentation activity and participant orientation of this activity is teacher-student/class (see chapter IV, Table 34) reveal its teacher-fronted nature. One can hypothesize that in a teacher-fronted activity when the context is removed the teacher needs more metalanguage explanation to get the point across. Besides, the complexity of such metalanguage explanations is far beyond students' L2 understanding (especially in lower levels) when it is given in TL. Thus, most of the time the teacher needs to use L1 to translate what she has just explained in TL (see chapter IV, Extract 30) and the quantity of L1 use will increase dramatically. The interactional features of L1 use in grammar presentation also showed that the predominant function of teacher's L1 use was for explanation. The reason for the considerable students' L1 use in grammar presentation activity might be due to the complexity of the teacher's TL explanations and the inefficiency of the explicit explanations either in TL or L1. The findings also indicate that the students mainly used L1 to reach meaning in this activity (see chapter IV, Table 35). Ellis (2012) emphasized the conviction that the traditional explicit explanation-based grammar teaching is unlikely to result in acquisition.

6.2.2.3 Homework check activity

Homework was usually assigned at the end of the class time or immediately after the grammar activities and its content was mostly related to the grammar structure. From the three activities within the homework area (homework check, homework assignment and QA/review) homework check recorded more students' L1 turns. The material in this type of activity was student-made (see chapter IV, Table 54), that is, the students had to prepare some example sentences or questions using the newly taught grammar structures. Coutts (2004) summarizes the reasons for assigning homework as follows:

The research literature (Epstein, 1988) recognizes a number of established reasons why teachers assign homework. These can be grouped as (a) academic functions (e.g., to complete unfinished work, revise, drill, consolidate, prepare, expand on concepts introduced in the classroom); (b) more general socialization purposes (e.g., to encourage responsibility, study skills, or time management)- what Epstein and Van Voorhis (2001) call "personal development;" (c) home/school/community communication; and (d) school and system requirements (e.g., to ease time constraints in a crowded curriculum). Obviously, not all reasons apply in any one situation and those designated functions are not equally applicable across stages of schooling (p. 183).

In the context of this study the teacher's reason for assigning homework seemed to match the first reason mentioned by Coutts (2004) as to complete unfinished work (e.g., grammar exercises in the book) or drill, consolidate, prepare, expand on the

new grammar concepts introduced in the classroom (e.g., write sentences or questions using the new grammar items). The features of student's L1 use in homework check activity was similar to that in the grammar area. The participant organization of the use of L1 in this activity was teacher-student and the focus of the content was on form (see chapter IV, Table 54). It seemed that this activity was a follow-up of the grammar area. That might account for the students' use of L1 for the meaning of the grammar structures or requesting more explanation (see chapter IV, Table 55). In fact, the "decontextualized" grammar exercise assigned as homework resulted in understanding problems (Ellis, 2012). This can unveil why the function of the students' use of L1 was to reach the meaning or request explanation.

6.2.2.4 Listening transcription activity

In listening, vocabulary and off task area, L1 did not appear as much as it did in the other areas described above. However, an interesting question can be raised on the reasons for the relatively high L1 use in listening transcription activity in listening area. Among the activities of the listening, vocabulary and off task area, transcription activity in listening area has the most instances of both teacher and students' L1 use. For a better understanding of this let us take a closer look at this activity.

In listening activities, the teacher usually paused the CD and called up a name. Then the student named had to recite the exact sentence from the CD. This "bottom-up" approach to listening has been appreciated by some scholars (Field, 2003; Hulstijn, 2003) when learners are poor in lexical segmentation and word recognition skills. However, Goh (2008) argues that "there is a potential risk of learning becoming decontextualized and some teachers returning to drills involving sound discrimination."

(p. 207). In this case the teacher returned to the word recognition state of listening comprehension and this was a diversion from the strategic purpose of the listening practice in the text book (see chapter IV, Figure 17). Chen (2005) refers to this distraction as one of the barriers to the learning of listening comprehension strategies. She categorizes this predisposition to word by word listening under habitual barriers which hinder learning listening strategies. This deviation from the real purpose of the listening exercise (from strategic listening comprehension skill to a word by word activity) makes it a complex activity for the student. Therefore they have to use their L1 to evade the task by making excuses (similar to role play activity) or request more explanation and clarification (see chapter IV, Table 47).

Skehan (1992) analyzed task difficulty based on code complexity, cognitive complexity and communicative stress. Such complexities seemed to be present in the above mentioned activities (role play activity, grammar presentation, and homework check and listening transcription). Teacher's TL grammar explanation was highly complex for the beginner English learners due to some "vocabulary load and variety" for example, the grammar jargon such as adjective, adverb, positive statement, and different varieties being used interchangeably (e.g., statement and sentence). Teacher's TL use also suffered from lack of clarity. Brown et al. (1984) categorized "information type" --as a part of cognitive complexity-- based on concrete-abstract, static-dynamic, contextualized-decontextualized contrasts. Regarding the information type, teacher's TL use in grammar presentation activity (teaching through formulas, metalanguage explanations and single sentence examples) was abstract, static and decontextualized which make it highly complex. Homework check was also a form-focused activity having the same complexity described above. The homework was mainly making

questions or statements for the newly taught structures in which the information was too static and decontextualized. In addition, “communicative stress” (Skehan, 1992) as another dimension of complexity was observed during interactions in this activity. Communicative stress reflects the performance condition which can affect the cognition processing as well. In this activity, the teacher usually addressed a student to read her homework to the class (sometimes she had to read it in front of the class). The errors were also corrected directly by the teacher. This would make the performance condition much more difficult for the student. Similarly, the other two activities of excessive use of L1 (role play and listening transcription) reflected high level of communicative stress. As stated earlier, students were reluctant to go for a role play activity and they refused to read their listening transcriptions for the class. Performing a memorized conversation in the form of a role play in front of the class needs high capacity of working memory to remember the conversation and quick reactions to the speech prompts. Time pressure, speed of presentation, length of the text and students’ lack of control in interaction were the factors contributing to the complexity of role play and listening transcription activity.

Looking into the areas and activities of excessive L1 use in classroom discourse, one can hypothesize that the excessive use of L1 in some activities (role play, grammar presentation, homework check and listening transcription) is the result of unsuitable methodology (in other words, a methodological issue) in the teaching process which leads to high level of complexity in these activities either in the way information is presented to the learners (i.e., teaching grammar in grammar presentation activity) or the learning activities required of the learners (i.e., role play and listening transcription). Paas et al. (2003) believe that both manner of presenting information to

the learners and the required learning activities can impose a “cognitive load”. When this load is unnecessary and interferes with learning it is referred to as “extraneous cognitive load” or “inefficient cognitive load”. As we saw here, in this condition L1 appears as an “affordance” to increase understanding or mitigate the negative effects. It seems that as the complexity of information presentation and the complexity of the activity students are required to perform increase, the quantity of the L1 use goes up. However, to get a better understanding of L1 use in classroom discourse I will turn to pair/group work as one of the major classroom activities in the Iranian language institute setting in which the use of L1 was considerably lower than in the above mentioned activities.

6.2.2.5 Pair/groupwork activity

The relative low use of L1 in pair/group work by students and the teacher (see Chapter IV, Table 9) confirms the findings of Storch and Aldosari (2010) in the context of Saudi Arabia as they found moderate use of L1 in pair/group work activity, although they used a different calculation process. It is worth mentioning that neither the students nor the teacher used L1 off task in pair/group work. This can be attributed to the communicative nature of this type of activity. Classroom observation revealed that in pair/group work activities (compared with other classroom activities) students were more involved in using TL. However they used L1 naturally for different purposes. In each pair/group work activity, the L1 use was limited to some groups and the individualized instruction of group work (Long & Porter, 1985) helped the teacher to provide *individualized* scaffolding assistance by the use of L1 (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Storch & Wiggleworth, 2003) while other groups were engaged in using TL.

L1 was also used in student and teacher talk to react on the message (not the form) of the preceding utterance (see chapter IV, Table 12). This indicates that the reactions were predominately meaning oriented in pair/group work discourse. These reactions mainly incorporated to the message of preceding utterance as paraphrase in private speech (self-talk) (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Studying private speech in adult language learners, Brooks et al. (1997) found that learners acquiring a second language at the early stages use more L1 for mediation of thought and planning of an action. Storch and Aldosari (2010) also reported the use of L1 in private speech as vocabulary deliberation.

Previous research has shown that the amount of classroom interaction is affected by factors such as repeated questions, low language proficiency, and limiting the class to the textbook (Shomoossi, 2004). Most of the pair/group work activities observed in the present research were short dialogues which limited the class to the text book and were practiced in low proficiency pairs/groups over and over again. Consequently, after a few minutes of practice the atmosphere became boring for the learners. To relieve this boredom, some researchers encourage teachers to use humor in the classroom to help learners to create a comfortable atmosphere, to create bonds among classmates, to raise interest and to make learning more enjoyable (Bell, 2009). However, this remedy cannot be used in pair/group work since the predominant participant organization is not teacher-student (see chapter IV, Table 10). Therefore, whenever possible, students used L1 to create humor and boost the group atmosphere.

Hancock (1997) asserted that teachers should not be worried about the quantity of the target language that learners use in group work because not all cases of L1 use will be equally accessible to remedy. He suggested the teachers use awareness-raising

activities to persuade learners to use the target language instead; however, the findings of the present study showed that not all uses of L1 need a remedy since in real classroom discourse, when L1 is used naturally (i.e., private speech, or humor) the features of the activity or verbal interaction invite the L1 for a specific function.

6.3 Mediated Affordances of L1 Use

Van Lier (2004) believes that first language use can blend in the second language learning communicative context as a semiotic system that supports the second language learning. Looking at the use of L1 within the Vygotskian framework Anton and DiCamila (1998) referred to the L1 use “as a powerful tool of semiotic mediation between learners (at the interpsychological level) and within individuals (at the intrapsychological level).” They maintain that

Interpsychologically, the use of L1 enables learners to work effectively in the zone of proximal development (ZPD) by providing scaffolded help (Wood et al., 1976) to each other and by enabling them to construct a shared perspective of the task, that is, to achieve intersubjectivity (Rommetveit, 1985). Intrapsychologically, L1 emerges in collaborative activity in the form of private speech (Vygotsky, 1986) as a cognitive tool in problem resolution (p. 234).

From an ecological perspective, the findings of the present study draw on the interpsychological and intrapsychological use of L1. Interpsychologically, they suggest that L1 is not only a tool of “semiotic mediation” in the classroom between learners but it also is an affordance to different individuals and groups depending on the properties of the surrounding environment (teaching methodology, material, institutional policies,

learners' and teacher's beliefs and the socio-educational context). Regarding the intrapsychological dimension, it seems that the beginner students of English language as novice learners have limited schematic knowledge of the second language (Van Merriënboer et al., 2003); dealing with complex ways of teacher's information presentation and complex activities in the classroom, the use of L1 affords them access to the vast schematic knowledge of their first language. Thus, the more complex the information presentation and required activities are the more scaffolding and support from L1 use is needed. This is where intrapersonal dimension of L1 use (cognitive processing) meets interpersonal dimension (teacher-student / student-student interactions) and the self is connected to the environment. In an ecological definition "environment is conceived as a set of nested structures, each inside the other like a set of Russian dolls moving from the innermost level to the outside." (Bronfenbrenner, 1994, p. 39) The following section will give us more insight into this issue by looking at the beliefs and contextual factors.

6.4 Beliefs and Contexts

Borg (2001) asserts that "the concept of belief which has been a common feature of research papers in education for the past decades has recently come into practice in ELT" (p. 186). Although, the impact of teachers and learners' beliefs on classroom practices have been investigated by several researchers (see e.g. Borg, 1998; Davis, 2003), this body of research has not addressed how contextual factors can shape the beliefs. Pajares (1992) believes that:

Clusters of beliefs around a particular object or situation form attitudes that become action agendas. Beliefs within attitudes have connections to one another and to other beliefs in other attitudes, so that a teacher's attitude about a particular educational issue may include beliefs connected to attitudes about the nature or society, the community, race, and even family. These connections create the values that guide one's life, develop and maintain other attitudes, interpret information, and determine behavior (p. 319).

This relationship between beliefs and behavior and the interconnectivity of teacher and learners' educational beliefs and their social life leads us to looking at teacher and learners' beliefs as a context-specific construct which is shaped by contextual factors such as their prior experiences, mainstream educational practices, and institutional policies.

Furthermore, Chavez (2003) asserted that departmental characteristics, especially the explicit policy of department under study towards the use of L1 (if any) deserve attention. The facts that how often the teachers are supervised, how they make teachers follow the teaching and learning policies and “the degree of independence the teacher enjoy in setting their own policies” vary from context to context. These contextual factors may affect the beliefs towards the use of L1. Here I will look at findings of this study through different policies towards the use of L1 in three settings within the Iranian EFL educational system.

The results of this study show that not only does the quantity of L1 use depend on the institutional policies but the learners' and teachers' beliefs towards the use of L1 is also mostly affected by the learning environment. In this study the use of L1 was

observed in three different settings. In the high school context there was no control over the use of L1 (actually there was no policy towards the use of L1) while in language institute F the use of L1 was allowed but limited to grammar teaching and in language institute T the use of L1 was totally banned. According to classroom observations the medium of instruction in high school was Persian (students' L1) while in language institute F (in which L1 was allowed) a mix of Persian and English (L1 and TL) was used as the medium of instruction. However, English was taught almost always through TL in language institute T. Interviews with managers revealed that the manager of language institute F not only appreciates the use of L1 but he uses L1 as a managerial policy in his institute (see chapter V, managers' beliefs). The teacher in this institute also confirmed that she had been told to use L1 in teaching grammar (see chapter V teachers' beliefs). The quantity of the L1 use in these settings was also in line with the managers' beliefs towards the use of L1. Similarly, the manager of language institute T emphasized the "zero-tolerance" policy to maximize exposure to TL in the classroom. The same view was highlighted by the teacher in this institute. The students and the teacher's excessive use of L1 in grammar presentation activity in language institute F can be seen in accordance with the manager's emphasis on the benefits of using L1 for teaching grammar in the classroom. However the teacher in this institute believed that the amount of L1 she had to use for teaching grammar was much more than she expected.

Comparing learners' beliefs in these settings revealed that learners' beliefs towards the use of L1 varied from "L1 maximized context" (high school) to "TL maximized context" (institute T). Students in the language institute context saw a role for both L1 and TL in understanding grammar and learning vocabulary while they

preferred TL for teaching grammar and vocabulary. However, high school students strongly agreed with the use of L1 for both teaching and learning vocabulary and grammar. The findings highlighted that the students in the language institute setting highly restricted the use of L1 for teaching rather than learning. Some researchers have suggested the students to use L1 in the classroom when necessary but teachers not to be allowed to initiate a turn in L1 (Duff & Polio, 1990; Zephir & Chirol, 1993). The comparison of students' beliefs on the use of L1 in the two contexts (high school and institutes) showed that most students prefer instructions to be in TL in language institutes while a minority of students prefers TL for instructions in the classroom in high schools. Conversely, high school students demonstrated a stronger agreement on the role of L1 in classroom assessment than the students of language institutes.

Research on the use of L1 in the EFL/ESL context has reported positive views towards the use of L1 in the classroom (AlNofaie, 2010; Dujmovic, 2007; Kharma & Hajjaj 1989; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008; Sherrmo, 2006; Schweers, 1999; Tang, 2002). Unlike this body of research, the studies investigating Iranian learners' beliefs have unearthed negative views towards the L1 use in the classroom (Nazari, 2008; Mahmoodi & Yazdiamirkhiz, 2011). However, on the other hand the results of the present study revealed that the learners' beliefs towards the use of L1 was in line with the "immediate educational environment" policies and varied in different settings (high school, language institutes) within the Iranian EFL educational context. To explain this discrepancy in beliefs I will look at the broader context of EFL education in Iran.

Holliday (1994) introduced two basic contexts in English language education, the first is the instrumentally oriented English language education based in Britain, Australasia and North America (BANA), and the second one is the state English

language education in the rest of the world (TESEP). He argues that “lack of knowledge of what is happening between people in these contexts makes it difficult to be certain about what the optimum methodology or classroom situation might consist of.” (p. 19). The concept of TL (English) use as the classroom language was also introduced through the BANA methodology and material. This BANA material is used in Iranian language institutes while the Iranian high schools use the locally produced textbooks. The following diagram adapted from Holliday (1994) illustrates the relationship of TL use in the Iranian and BANA context.

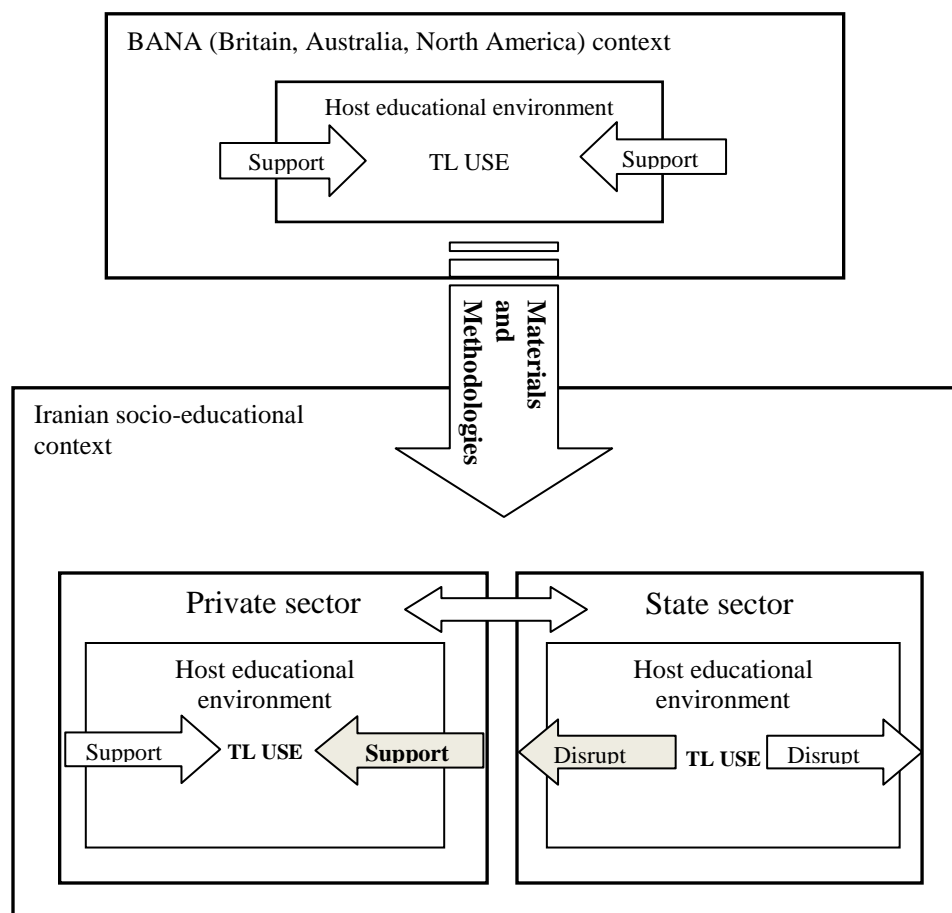


Figure 22 The relationship of TL use in BANA and Iranian context.

Figure 22 illustrates how TL use is dealt with in the two macro contexts and their sub context(s). As can be seen in Figure 22, the notion of “TL use” comes through the materials and methodologies of the BANA context. On the other hand, the host educational environment either in the state sector or private sector of Iranian socio-educational context reacts to this notion (TL use) according to their own needs, goals and missions. For instance, one of the main goals of mainstream EFL education in Iran is to prepare students for the university entrance exam. Studying learning objectives of high school EFL textbooks in Iran, Riazi and Mosallanejad (2010) state that:

teachers try to help students attain the required skills to successfully perform on the university entrance exam (Konkoor) which is a high-stakes multiple choice test. The English section of the test is based on the high school and pre-university textbooks and can be answered just by memorization of the vocabulary and the structural points in the textbooks. There is no need to be able to use the language in a functional way (e.g., speaking or writing) for this very important exam. Students need to learn and practice how to manage their time, acquire test-taking skills, and perform well on the questions rather than to learn how to use the language.

However, because of globalization and the increase of population mobility there is a growing urge to learn how to communicate in English as an international language. Moreover, the ability to communicate in English is also becoming a desired advantage for employers especially those engaged in global trade. This puts learning to communicate in English at the heart of learners’ personal investment, yet the literature

shows that this is not the goal to be pursued through the EFL educational system in the Iranian state sector (Khajavi & Abbasian, 2011).

Comparative analysis of textbooks in high school and private institutes has shown that the locally produced textbooks used in the educational environment of the state sector (i.e., high schools) are not conducive to CLT methodology, while the text books in private language institutes (produced in the commercial sector of BANA context) represent the principles of CLT methodology to a great extent (Razmjoo, 2007). Therefore, using culturally neutral text books (Khajavi & Abbasian, 2011) which do not adhere to the principles of CLT has resulted in the disruption of the TL use in the state sector educational environment. One of the obvious consequences of this disruption is the replacement of the L1 as the medium of instruction in EFL classrooms within the state educational environments. As reflected in the findings, a deeper influence can be traced in the overestimating of TL use in private language institutes. The findings of the present study indicate that Iranian students in a private institute language setting in which TL use is maximized (language institute F) strongly support the TL use. This strong adherence to the use of TL, also reported in previous studies on Iranian students' views towards the use of L1 by Nazari (2008) and Mahmoodi and Yazdiamirkhiz (2011), could be seen in relevance to that disruption of TL use in the state educational environment.

Looking at the learner's views as a social psychological factor (Larsen-Freeman, 1991) and adapting a poststructuralist definition of "individuals" as "diverse, contradictory, and dynamic; multiple rather than unitary, decentered rather than centered" (Pierce, 1995, p. 15), students' views on the use of L1/ TL in the classroom should be studied through the socio-educational world in which they live from an

ecological perspective. Previous studies interpreted the differences of the views in terms of “the influence of teacher classroom practices on learner preferences” (RV, 2008, p. 268) or the impact of institutional policies (Chavez, 2003). To capture the (L1/TL) preferences of “individuals” within a larger “social context”, this study suggests a more dynamic approach through the consideration of the impact of mainstream educational practices and socio-educational factors on learners’ views.

6.5 Conclusion

This study investigated the teacher and students’ use of L1 in EFL classroom discourse within the Iranian socio-educational context. Looking at the use of L1 from an ecological perspective this study suggests that L1 can be used as a semiotic affordance in the classroom discourse. In other words, in some activities (e.g., pair/group work) students mediate meaning through L1 naturally. This is not to say that meaning cannot be understood without the use of L1, but rather that it is mediated by the use of L1 when it is needed. The results showed that the quantity of L1 use is in line with the institutional policy of the context. However, the analysis of classroom activities and interactions revealed that excessive use of L1 in some activities (i.e., grammar presentation, homework check, and role play activity) was due to the complexity of information presentation or the complexity of required activity being in turn related to the teaching methodology of the educational context. In this study, the context is approached “as a set of the nested ecosystems that are densely interconnected” (van Lier, 2004, p. 785). This includes the immediate classroom environment and wider socio-

educational context which can affect the quantity and quality of L1 use in the classroom and teacher/learners' beliefs towards L1 use.

Drawing on Bronfenbrenner's (1993) notion of context from an ecological perspective, the educational environment, or context, in this study involves three interrelated systems. The first is the immediate educational environment (microsystem) in which the learner spends a good deal of time engaging in activities and interactions (i.e., institute F, institute T and high school). The findings of this study indicated that L1 use in the classroom varies depending on the institutional policies and teaching methodology of the microsystems. The second is the macro system (i.e., socio-educational context of Iran) that is the context encompassing other subcontexts whose members share "resources, hazards, lifestyles, opportunity structures, life course options and patterns of social interchange" (Bronfenbronner, 1993, p. 25). Macrosystem subsume the other systems, influencing (and being influenced by) all of them. The results of this study revealed that not only do the learners' beliefs vary across microsystems but macrosystem norms (mainstream socio-educational norms) also affect the learners' beliefs towards the use of L1. There is also another important context (exosystem) in which the learners and teacher are not actually situated, but which has important indirect influences on them (i.e., BANA context in this study). The materials produced in the BANA context reflect the English-only policy as one of the main tenets of monolingual approach in ELT (Philipson, 1992). Although the BANA materials claim to address the worldwide EFL/ESL contexts, they have ignored the socio-educational needs and norms of different contexts (Holliday, 2005). However, if there is no suitable material and methodology to fill this gap, either adapting or

disrupting BANA methodology and materials may affect the ecology of language education in a particular macrosystem and its microsystems.

6.6 Pedagogical Implications

The pedagogical implications of this study are three fold. First this study can serve as a helpful resource for the teacher educators. Teacher education programs can include courses on the effective use of L1 in the classroom considering the particularities of the learner's culture and socio-educational context. The courses will make the teachers aware of the "systematic" (Cook, 2001) and "judicious" (Larsen-Freeman, 2003) use of L1 in the classroom. According to the findings of this study, it goes without saying that the notion of "systematic" use of L1 is not a fixed framework of L1 use to be utilized in all settings; rather it refers to the particular distributional patterns of the use of L1 considering the educational goals, features of the discourse and the institutional policies towards the use of L1 in a specific context. This teacher awareness-raising program can empower teachers to make judicious decisions on the use of L1 in reference to their local ecology of language education.

Second, ELT policy makers in the state and private sector can benefit from the study. The detailed analysis of the classroom discourse in this study offered a glimpse into the ways in which L1 can be used in classroom discourse. Although it is not my intention to draw general conclusions based on a single class analysis, I intend to emphasize the role of context in making decisions on the use of L1 in the classroom. The findings suggested that not making an explicit policy towards the use of L1 in the classroom (like high school context in Iran) can make it a subjective issue being mainly

driven by other interconnected forces of the context such as parents/students' demands, examinations, or teacher/learners' beliefs. In other words not making a sound context-based policy towards the use of L1 results in an unsound ad hoc policy. From a wider cultural view of this study, the English-only policy of BANA methodology does not satisfy the needs of EFL learners as it does not match their cultures of learning (Holliday, 1994). A substantial body of research in the last two decades has valued the role of L1 in the L2 classroom (Atkinson, 1993; Cook, 2001; Garcia, 2009; Macaro, 1997; Stern, 1992). However, BANA material and methodologies reflect the main tenets --or fallacies in terms of Philipson (1992)-- of the monolingual approach to ELT. This raises skeptic views on the neutrality of the field; that is, the English-only policy can be considered as a means of linguistic imperialism (Philipson, 1992). But, whatever political reason may be involved, this study has provided some insights into the realities of the use of L1 in classroom discourse, and it is hoped that its findings will form the basis for culturally sensitive context based policy making .

Third, curriculum designers can make use of the results of the present research to develop the appropriate materials reflecting the suitable methodology for bilingual EFL pedagogy in a new position in which the local context is the norm not the native speaker (Holliday, 2005). This study will particularly inform the Iranian EFL state and private sector to rethink their methodologies and materials in the light of the local needs and norms. The results indicated that “decontextualized, abstract and static” teaching in high schools is continued in the language institutes although the language institutes use the textbooks adhering to the principles of CLT (Razmjoo, 2007). This study showed that Iranian language institutes have adapted a weak version of CLT methodology as the dominant focus is on face to face interaction in the classroom although they still use

the traditional PPP model for teaching. Recent research (Allahyar, 2006; Allahyar & Ramezanpour, 2011) also confirms the findings of this study that the teaching methodology of Iranian language institutes has the features of traditional and communicative classrooms. The activities are teacher-fronted with an explicit “focus on form” and grammar activities are traditional rather than the communicative type. Students have no opportunity to make sense of grammar through examples and they are provided with the rules than discovering the rules themselves.

Holliday (1994) illustrates how various aspects of the weak version of CLT can be bolted on to more traditional lesson types piecemeal. He characterizes the weak version of CLT as it focuses on the language use practice. The basic input of the lesson is language models presentations in the form of structures, albeit in the context of a function, notion or topic. This is usually followed by a communicative activity to practice language items. Thus, the teachers accustomed to the presentation, practice, production model find this version of CLT easier to understand and adapt (p. 170). However, it is considered a difficult methodological regime because in this version students’ face to face interaction is at a premium; the quality and quantity of oral participation is a crucial criterion; students initiation is considered important to enhance negotiation of meaning; and there is a strong requirement for pair and group work. Moreover, these requirements do not stay in line with the educational goals and socio-cultural norms of EFL countries like Iran. Holliday (2005) questions the role of “imported teaching styles” (BANA material and methodologies) and casts doubt on their effectiveness in both the short and long term.

Based on the findings of this study the language institutes BANA materials (weak version of CLT) and grammar-based textbooks of Iranian high schools (Azizfar

et al., 2010) adapt a decontextualized PPP model of teaching which cannot lead to acquisition. Rather, it gives a false sense of language acquisition (Willis, 1996). Therefore, adapting a strong version of CLT (Holliday, 1994) in which the learners' first language and culture can be embedded seems to be appropriate to the needs and norms of the Iranian EFL educational system. Holliday describes the strong version as follows:

in the strong version rather than language practice the focus is on how language works in discourse. As an input to new language production, the lesson input is language data in the form of text rather than language models. The student carries out tasks which are carefully designed to pose language problems, and which when solved will help the student to unlock the text. Here the student works out how the text is constructed and it operates- the language rules which it incorporates- making the adjusting hypothesis very much like as children do when they acquire language naturally. (p. 171)

Central to this version of CLT is the fact that the term communicative relates to the ways that students communicate with the text. It is crucial that communication is not limited to the face to face teacher-student or student-student interaction. Students can use the strategic aspects of their first language communicative competence. In other words the purpose of collaborative work is not providing an activity for students to communicate with each other, but it helps them discuss and solve language problems. Therefore, students do not have to speak English all the time and their mother tongue is used to talk about the text to solve language problems. This

type of material and methodology can embed the aspects of local culture in international topics in which learners' L1 can be used efficiently and systematically to "open up the polarity between the language and culture of the students (L1/C1) and the foreign language and culture (L2/C2)" (Kramsch, 2008, p. 404), to let the teacher and students reflect on the diversity of meaning in their own interpretation within their own culture and language.

6.7 Directions for Future Research

The findings of this study suggest that it is vital for SLA/FLA research to investigate the nature of L1 use in relation to the context in which learners live and learn. This study has expanded the direction of the research on the use of L1 into a new domain by exploring the use of L1 in the Iranian socio-educational context from an ecological perspective, yet the use of L1 in various EFL/ESL contexts remains to be explored from such holistic views. An important next step in this research agenda is to find out the possible links of the position of L1 in the learner's cognitive architecture in second and foreign language learning and the socio-cultural contexts of education.

This study investigated the use of L1 in beginner adult EFL classroom discourse. In order to fully understand the nature of the use of L1 in classroom discourse, further research may investigate the use of L1 in varying ability levels (beginner, intermediate and advanced levels) in the same context. Further study of a variety of teachers in different classes and different contexts will also provide information on the variety of distributional patterns of L1 use across areas and activities of classroom discourse. This study has provided glimpses into how the use of L1 and the beliefs towards L1 use can be shaped by the contextual factors. Future researches

will demonstrate how personal factors such as motivation and proficiency can play a role in L1 use in the classroom. Longitudinal case studies will provide more insight into the specifications of the context and the interplay between the personal and contextual factors. Besides, it will allow the researcher to follow individual students to investigate L1 use in a particular area or activity such as grammar, vocabulary, and so forth. It is hoped that this study will provide a platform for future work on the use of L1 in classroom discourse, and that it lays the groundwork for training language learners to be skilled bilinguals and future language teachers to be empowered by principled pragmatism (Kumaravadivelu, 1992).

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Appendix A

Historical changes in discourse analysis orientations Adger (2003)

Date	Scholar(s)	Discourse Orientation and Changes
1960s		The focus is on discrete chunks of language
1972	Hymes	The focus is changing towards communication as a whole, both to understand what is being conveyed and to understand the specific place of language within the process
1973	Greetz	Interpretive ethnography aid us in gaining access to the conceptual world of our subjects.(Smart, 2008, p.56)
1975-79	Gumperz & Herasimchuk; McDermott; Mehan	Scholars with disciplinary roots in anthropology, social psychology, sociology, and sociolinguistics began to focus on structural cues by which interactants understand what is going on.
1975	Sinclair and Coulthard	Found that elicitation turns could not be explained in terms of formal linguistic characteristics alone.
1976	Mehan et al	The notion of topically relevant sets of talk + elicitation sequences (IRE= Initiation, Response, Evaluation)as a basic unit of instructional interaction.
1978	Griffin & Shuy	Combined ethnographic, ethnomethodological, and pragmatic perspectives and research methods contributed significantly to developing analytic techniques for classroom talk. Like Sinclair and Coulthard They found that “ elicitation turns could not be explained in terms of formal linguistic characteristics alone” Griffin and Shuy adopted the notion of topically relevant sets of talk as outlined in Mehan et al. (1976), linking talk to an element that might lie outside the discourse.
1981	Shultz et al.	They examined social interaction in classrooms and homes in terms of participation structures. These account for who is participating, what turn-taking patterns are in effect, who has rights to the conversational floor, proxemics, all aspects of talk (such as directness, register, aralinguistic cues), and gaze.
1982	Green and Wallat	
1981	Goffman	Participant framework

1996	O'Connor and Michaels	Their findings suggest that the participant framework “encompasses (a) the ways that speech event participants are aligned with or against each other and (b) the ways they are positioned relative to topics and even specific utterance.
1996	Erickson	He showed that classroom interaction frequently demonstrates a complex ecology of social and cognitive relations. The flow of interaction in dyadic
1998	Merritt	His study indicates that each student is engaged in an individual vector of activity involving the teacher but their joint interaction coheres around social relations and the shared instructional task

Appendix C

COLT 1995

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme

COLT PART A
Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School Grade(s) Observer

Teacher Lesson (min.) Visit No

Subject Date Page

TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION			CONTENT				CONTENT CONTROL	STUDENT MODALITY				MATERIALS																		
		Class	Group	Indiv.	Manag.	Language	Other topics	Listening		Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Type		Source																
														Text	Audio	Visual	L2-MS	L2-NSA	Student-made													
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33

FIGURE 1 (continued)

COLT PART B: COMMUNICATIVE FEATURES
Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School Date of visit

Teacher Subject Coder

Offtask	TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION														STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION																								
	Target language		Information gap		Sustained speech	Reaction to form/message	Incorporation of student utterances						Target language	Information gap		Sustained speech	Form restriction	Reaction to form/message	Incorporation of student/teacher utterances																				
	L1	L2	Predict.	Unpred.			Request. Info.	Genuine requ.	Minimal	Sustained	Form	Message		Correction	Repetition				Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion	Clarif. request	Elab. request	Discourse initiation	L1	L2	Predict.	Unpred.	Request. Info.	Genuine Requ.	Ultra-minimal	Minimal	Sustained	Choral	Restricted	Unrestricted	Form	Message	Correction
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40

Appendix D

COLT: Definition of Categories

The COLT observation scheme is divided into two parts. Part A describes classroom events at the level of episode and activity, while Part B analyzes the communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students or among students themselves as they occur within each activity.

Part A: Classroom Events

I. Activity

The first parameter is open-ended; no predetermined descriptors have to be checked off by the observer. Each activity and its constituent episodes are separately described: e.g., drill, translation, discussion, game, and soon (separate activities); alternatively, teacher Introduces dialogue, teacher reads dialogue aloud; students repeat dialogue parts after teacher (three episodes of one activity).

II. Participant Organization

This parameter describes three basic patterns of organization:

A. Whole Class

1. Teacher to student or class, and vice versa (One central activity led by the teacher is going on; the teacher interacts with the whole class and/or with individual students.)
2. Student to student, or student(s) to class (Students talk to each other, either as part of the lesson or as informal socializing; one central activity led by a student may be going on, e.g., a group of students act out a skit with the rest of the class as the audience.)
3. Choral work by students (The whole class or groups participate in the choral work, repeating a model provided by the textbook or teacher.)

B. Group work

1. All groups at work on the same task
2. Groups at work on different tasks

C. Individual seat work (Students work on their own, all on the same task or on different tasks.)

D. Group/individual work (Some students are involved in group work; others work on their own.)

III Content

This parameter describes the subject matter of the activities, that is, what the teacher and the students are talking, reading, or writing about or what they are listening to. Three major content areas have been differentiated, along with the category Topic Control:

A. Management

1. Procedural directives
2. Disciplinary statements

B. Explicit focus on language

1. Form (explicit focus on grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation)
2. Function (explicit focus on illocutionary acts such as requesting, apologizing, and explaining)
3. Discourse (explicit focus on the way sentences combine into cohesive and coherent sequences)

4. Sociolinguistics (explicit focus on the features which make utterances appropriate for particular contexts)

C. Other topics (the subject matter of classroom discourse, apart from management and explicit focus on language)

1. Narrow range of reference (This subcategory refers to the immediate classroom environment and to stereotyped exchanges such as “Good morning” or “How are you?” which have phatic value but little conceptual content. Included in this category are routine classroom references to the date, day of the week, weather, and so on).

2. Limited range of reference (Topics in this subcategory refer to information beyond the classroom but still conceptually limited: movies, holidays, school topics such as extracurricular activities, and topics which relate to the students’ immediate personal and family affairs, e.g., place of residence, number of brothers and sisters and so on).

3. Broad range of reference (Topics of broad range go well beyond the classroom and immediate environment and include reference to controversial public issues, world events, Abstract ideas, reflective personal information, and other academic subject matter, such as math or geography.)

D. Topic control (Who selects the topic that is being talked about—the teacher, the student, or both?)

IV. Student modality

This section identifies the various skills involved in a classroom activity. The focus is on the students, and the purpose is to discover whether they are listening, speaking, reading, or writing, or whether these activities are occurring in combination. The category other covers such activities as drawing, modeling, acting, or arranging classroom displays.

V. Materials

This parameter describes the materials used in connection with classroom activities.

A. Type of materials

1. Text (written)

a. Minimal (e. g., captions, isolated sentences, work lists)

b. Extended (e.g., stories, dialogues, connected paragraphs)

2. Audio

3. Visual

B. Source/purpose of materials

1. Pedagogic (specifically designed for L2 teaching)

2. Non-pedagogic (materials originally intended for nonschool purposes)

3. Semi-pedagogic (utilizing real-life objects and texts but in a modified form)

C. Use of materials

1. Highly controlled (close adherence to materials)

2. Semi-controlled (occasional extension beyond the restrictions imposed by the materials).

3. Minimally controlled (materials as a starting point for ensuing conversation, which may cover a wide range of topics)

Part B: Communicative Features

I. Use of target language

- A. Use of first language (L1)
- B. Use of second language (L2)

II. Information gap

This feature refers to the extent to which the information requested and/or exchanged is unpredictable, i.e., not known in advance.

A. Requesting information

- 1. Pseudo (The speaker already possesses the information requested,)
- 2. Genuine (The information requested is not known in advance.)

B. Giving information

- 1. Relatively predictable (The message is easily anticipated in that there is a very limited range of information that can be given. In the case of responses, only one answer is possible semantically, although there may be different correct grammatical realizations.)
- 2. Relatively unpredictable (The message is not easily anticipated in that a wide range of information can be given. If a number of responses are possible, each can provide different information.)

III. Sustained speech

This feature is intended to measure the extent to which speakers engage in extended discourse or restrict their utterances to a minimal length of one sentence, clause, or word.

- A. Ultraminimal (utterances consisting of one word—coded for student speech only)
- B. Minimal (student utterances consisting of one clause or sentence, teacher utterances consisting of one word)
- C. Sustained speech (utterances longer than one sentence or consisting of at least two main clauses)

IV. Reaction to code or message

This feature refers to a correction or other explicit statement which draws attention to the linguistic form of an utterance.

V. Incorporation of preceding utterances

- A. No incorporation (no feedback or reaction given)
- B. Repetition (full or partial repetition of previous utterance/s)
- C. Paraphrase (completion and/or reformulation of previous utterance/s)
- D. Comment (positive or negative comment on, but not correction of, previous utterance/s)
- E. Expansion (extension of the content of preceding utterance/s through the addition of related information)
- F. Elaboration (requests for further information related to the subject matter of the preceding utterance/s)

VI. Discourse initiation

This feature measures the frequency of self-initiated turns (spontaneously initiated talk) by students.

VII. Relative restriction of linguistic form

- A. Restricted use (the production or manipulation of one specific form, as in a transformation or substitution drill)

- B. Limited restriction (a choice of more than one linguistic form but in a very narrow range, e.g., responses to *yes/no* questions, statements about the date, time of day, and so on)
- C. Unrestricted use (no expectation of any particular linguistic form, as in free conversation, oral reports, or personal diary writing)” (p.53-56)

Appendix E

L2 Classroom Modes According to SETT

Mode	Pedagogic Goals	Interactional Features
managerial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To transmit information To organize the physical learning environment To refer learners to materials To introduce or conclude an activity To change from one mode of learning to another 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and/or instructions The use of transitional markers The use of confirmation checks An absence of learner contributions
materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To provide language practice around a piece of material To elicit responses in relation to the material To check and display answers To clarify when necessary To evaluate contributions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Predominance of IRF pattern Extensive use of display questions Form- focused feedback Corrective repair The use of scaffolding
Skills and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To enable learners to produce correct forms To enable learners to manipulate the target language To provide corrective feedback To provide learners with practice in sub- skills To display correct answers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The use of direct repair The use of scaffolding Extended teacher turns Display questions Teacher echo Clarification requests Form- focused feedback
Classroom context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To enable learners to express themselves clearly To establish a context To promote oral fluency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Extended learner turns. Short teacher turns Minimal repair Content feedback Referential questions Scaffolding Clarification requests

Appendix F

Interactional Features According to SETT

<i>Interactional features</i>	<i>Description</i>
(A) Scaffolding	(1) Reformulation (rephrasing a learner's contribution). (2) Extension (extending a learner's contribution). (3) Modeling (correcting a learner's
(B) Direct repair	Correcting an error quickly and directly
(C) Content feedback	Giving feedback to the message rather than the words used.
(D) Extended wait- time	Allowing sufficient time (several seconds) for students to respond or formulate a response
(E) Referential questions	Genuine questions to which the teacher does not know the answer.
(F) Seeking clarification	(1) Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said. (2) Student asks teacher to clarify something the teacher has said.
(G) Confirmation checks	Making sure that the teacher has correctly understood the learner's contribution
(H) Extended learner turn	Learner turn of more than one clause
(I) Teacher echo	(1) Teacher repeats a previous utterance. (2) Teacher repeats a learner's contribution
(J) Teacher interruptions	Interrupting a learner's contribution
(K) Extended teacher turn	Teacher turn of more than one clause
(L) Turn completion	Completing a learner's contribution for the learner
(M) Display questions	Asking questions to which the teacher knows the answer
(N) Form- focused feedback	Giving feedback on the words used, not the message.

Appendix G

SETT Instrument

Features of teacher talk	Tally	Examples from your recording
(A) Scaffolding		
(B) Direct repair		
(C) Content feedback		
(D) Extended wait- time		
(E) Referential questions		
(F) Seeking clarification		
(G) Confirmation checks		
(H) Extended learner turn		
(I) Teacher echo		
(J) Teacher interruptions		
(K) Extended teacher turn		
(L) Turn completion		
(M) Display questions		
(N) Form- focused feedback		

Appendix H

SETT Procedures

This is the procedure that teachers followed when recording and analyzing their language use in the classroom:

1- Make a 10–15 minute audio- recording from one of your lessons. Try and choose a part of the lesson involving both you and your learners. You don't have to start at the beginning of the lesson; choose any segment you like.

2- As soon as possible after the lesson, listen to the tape. The purpose of the first listening is to analyze the extract according to classroom context or mode. As you listen the first time, decide which modes are in operation. Choose from the following:

- Skills and systems mode (main focus is on particular language items, vocabulary or a specific skill);
- Managerial mode (main focus is on setting up an activity);
- Classroom context mode (main focus is on eliciting feelings, attitudes and emotions of learners);
- Materials mode (main focus is on the use of text, tape or other materials).

3- Listen to the tape a second time, using the SETT instrument to keep a tally of the different features of your teacher talk. Write down examples of the features you identify. If you're not sure about a particular feature, use the SETT key (attached) to help you.

4- Evaluate your teacher talk in the light of your overall aim and the modes used. To what extent do you think that your use of language and pedagogic purpose coincided? That is, how appropriate was your use of language in this segment, bearing in mind your stated aims and the modes operating.

5- The final stage is a feedback interview with me. Again, try to do this as soon as possible after the evaluation. Please bring both the recording and SETT instrument with you.

6 In total, these steps need to be completed FOUR times. After the final self-evaluation, we'll organize a video- recording and interview. (p.166)

Appendix I

Questionnaire on students' beliefs regarding the use of the L1

Using the following abbreviations, how strongly do you feel about the following statements? SA (strongly agree), A (agree), N (neither agree nor disagree), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree) Please circle the appropriate response.

1. I find it easier to understand the grammar of the foreign language when my teacher explains it in English.
2. I like it when my teacher uses English to translate vocabulary items.
3. I believe that to learn another language well, the student should use that language all the time in class.
4. I prefer textbooks written only in the foreign language.
5. I think that translating vocabulary items helps me to learn them.
6. When I don't know a word in the foreign language, I prefer to have it explained to me
in the foreign language.
7. Students should not use English in the language classroom.
8. I think it is natural for a native English-speaking teacher to use English in the classroom.
9. I believe that translation from a foreign language into English is not a good way to learn the foreign language.
10. I think the teacher should give instructions (about exercises, activities and homework,
etc.) in the foreign language.
11. I like to read explanations in English about the foreign language.
12. I use English to help me study for my language exams.
13. Teachers should speak using only the foreign language in the language classroom.
14. Assessment details and class outlines should only be given in English.
15. I expect that language teachers who are native English-speaking teachers should use English in class when needed.
16. I believe that students should use only the foreign language when working together on a task in the classroom.
17. It is confusing when the teacher switches from one language to another during class.
18. When preparing for exams, I think you should use only the foreign language.
19. When my teacher explains how sentences are constructed in the foreign language, I prefer the explanation in the foreign language.
20. I expect that a teacher who uses only the foreign language in class is less approachable than one who uses English more frequently.
21. I feel more at ease when my teacher uses English.
22. List three or more advantages to using English in the foreign language classroom.
23. List three or more disadvantages to using English in the foreign language classroom.

Appendix I

Translation of the Questionnaire on Students' Beliefs Regarding the Use of the L1

پرسشنامه

- ۱- وقتی معلم به فارسی توضیح می دهد دستور زبان انگلیسی برای من آسان تر است.
- ۲- دوست دارم معلم برای تدریس کلمات جدید از فارسی استفاده کند.
- ۳- معتقدم برای آن که زبانی را خوب یاد بگیریم باید از آن در کلاس همیشه استفاده کنیم.
- ۴- کتاب های درسی را که فقط به زبان انگلیسی هستند ترجیح می دهم.
- ۵- فکر می کنم ترجمه ی کلمات جدید در یادگیری آن ها به من کمک می کند.
- ۶- وقتی یک کلمه ی انگلیسی را نمی دانم ترجیح می دهم آن را به زبان انگلیسی برای من توضیح دهند.
- ۷- زبان آموز نباید از زبان فارسی در کلاس زبان استفاده کند.
- ۸- فکر می کنم برای معلمی که زبان مادری اش فارسی ست، طبیعی ست که در کلاس از فارسی استفاده کند.
- ۹- فکر می کنم ترجمه کردن از زبان انگلیسی به فارسی روش خوبی برای یادگیری زبان نیست.
- ۱۰- فکر می کنم معلم باید دستورالعمل های کلاسی را (درباره ی تمرین ها، فعالیت های کلاسی، تکالیف و...) به زبان انگلیسی بگوید.
- ۱۱- دوست دارم توضیحات درباره ی زبان انگلیسی را به فارسی بخوانم.
- ۱۲- در مطالعه برای امتحان از زبان فارسی کمک می گیرم.
- ۱۳- معلم ها باید فقط از زبان انگلیسی در کلاس زبان استفاده کنند.
- ۱۴- جزئیات مربوط به ارزشیابی کلاس و جمع بندی رئوس مطالب باید به فارسی باشد.
- ۱۵- انتظار دارم معلم هایی که فارسی زبان هستند زمانی که لازم است در کلاس از فارسی استفاده کنند.
- ۱۶- من فکر می کنم زبان آموزان در حین انجام تمرین کلاسی باید فقط به انگلیسی با یکدیگر صحبت کنند.
- ۱۷- استفاده ی معلم از دو زبان فارسی و انگلیسی در کلاس گیج کننده است.
- ۱۸- فکر می کنم برای آمادگی امتحان فقط باید از زبان انگلیسی استفاده کرد.
- ۱۹- وقتی معلم چگونگی ساخته شدن جملات در زبان انگلیسی را توضیح می دهد، ترجیح می دهم این توضیحات به زبان انگلیسی باشد.
- ۲۰- با معلمی که زبان فارسی بیشتر استفاده می کند نسبت به معلمی که فقط از زبان انگلیسی در کلاس استفاده می کند راحت تر هستم.
- ۲۱- وقتی که معلم از زبان فارسی استفاده می کند احساس راحتی بیشتری می کنم.
- ۲۲- مزایای استفاده از زبان فارسی در کلاس زبان انگلیسی را بنویسید (به سه مورد یا بیشتر اشاره کنید)
- ۲۳- معایب استفاده از زبان فارسی در کلاس زبان انگلیسی را بنویسید. (به سه مورد یا بیشتر اشاره کنید)