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“THE USE OF THE NATIVE LANGUAGE IN THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM”.

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To my brother and sister

Now, they are adults but I continue see them as they were little kids; and I recall Alex who wanted me not to tell anything to my parents about his bad behavior; Kelly, who asked me go to bed with her.... I really miss them!!!!!!

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Introduction.



1 INTRODUCTION

The role of English as a second language is really important in the 21st century due to the world is in various stages of social, economic, and demographic transition. In every stage also in modern communication and technologies in most part of the world English is playing a competitive role. (Economist 1996).

According to Catford (1959) native language (L1) would be the language of early-childhood acquisition also it is the language of dominant. The term foreign language (L2) implies two meanings: first, it refers to the chronology of language learning. A foreign language is any language acquired (or to be acquired) later than the native language. Secondly, foreign language is used to refer to the level of language command in comparison with a primary or dominant language.

The ‘L1’/ ‘L2’ distinction was introduced by Catford in 1959 in which he expressed “We start from the common-sense distinction between ‘mother tongue’ or ‘native language’ and ‘second language’ or ‘foreign language’. As ‘primary language’ ‘L1’ and for the second ‘secondary language’ ‘L2’. We can tabulate the two sets of terms as follows: L1 (first language, native language, mother tongue, primary language, stronger language). L2 (second language, non-native language, foreign language, secondary language and weaker language)” This distinction became popular, particularly in Britain, in the sixties (Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens 1967).



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Teaching and learning have their own definition. Ferguson (1962) stated “The concept of learning, as it is understood today, has been greatly influenced by the psychological study of the learning process, it includes all kind of language learning. Language teaching can be defined as the activities which are intended to bring about language learning”.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs shows the different five need levels that each human being has within a learning process (physical needs “every elemental physical needs are added like hungry, cold, water, sleep, air, etc.”) Therefore, needs for safety, security, protection, freedom from fear “comfort, routine, protection”. Later on, there is love necessity “affection or belongingness”. As fourth level, there is a need of strength and status esteem. Finally, there is self-actualization need in which a person can be all she/he can be. Furthermore, learners motivation (internal and external factors) are important part within learning process (Abraham Maslow 1970).

The theory of the most relevant methods like “The grammar translation, Silent way, Suggestopedia, Community language learning” and their techniques in which experts suggest the Spanish use to facilitate the teaching-learning process are taking into account within this study with the purpose of reinforcing the professionals’ opinions with the reality observed.



Statement of the Problem.





2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.

A proponent of the monolingual approach, Krashen (1981) has argued that people learning foreign languages follow basically the same route as they acquire their mother tongue; hence the use of the other tongue in the learning process should be minimized.

Some other authors of introductory books on teaching EFL, such as Haycraft (1978), Hubbard et al. (1983), and Harmer (1997), do not address this issue or pay very little attention to it. Dörnyei (1998) states that this suggests either the mother tongue does not play an important role in foreign language teaching or the issue of native language use does not exist in the classrooms of these authors, since most of them are native speakers of English accustomed to working with multilingual groups of students.

During the past 15 years, however, monolingual orthodoxy has lost its appeal. Medgyes (1994:66) considers this orthodoxy "untenable on any grounds, be they psychological, linguistic or pedagogical". It has been argued that exclusion of the mother tongue is a criticism of the mother tongue and renders it as a second-class language. This degradation of the mother tongue has harmful psychological effects on learners (Nation 1990).



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The use of the first language in the monolingual second language classroom has or could have effects on how students produce the second language. If teachers use L1 too much in English class in which it is not appropriate, students' ability to produce the foreign language is not stimulated.

Based on the contradicting views, above mentioned, in whether the native language is or not beneficial in the ESL classrooms, the investigators ask: Which are the advantages and disadvantages of using the mother tongue in foreign language classrooms?



Objectives



3 OBJECTIVES

3.1 GENERAL

- ❖ To establish, the effects that Spanish has in the English teaching-learning process.

3.2 SPECIFIC

- ❖ To identify the purposes teachers have to use Native language in class.
- ❖ To differentiate the situations in which teachers speak both English and Spanish in class.
- ❖ To determine if students are in agreement with the use of the native language in class.
- ❖ To list the effects that the use of native language has in the teaching process.



Rationale





4 RATIONALE

The issue of whether or not to use the mother tongue (L1) in the English language (L2) classroom is complex. According to H. Douglas Brown and his 10th Principle of Language Teaching "the native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language (L2) system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient".

There has been contradicting views in whether the most salient effect is the interfering one or the facilitating one among scholars, researchers, and teachers alike. Professionals in second language acquisition have become increasingly aware of the role the mother tongue plays in the EFL classroom.

4.1 *Psycho-Linguistic value*

Contrary to reasons put forth as to why students should be encouraged to use only the target language in class, informal translation in the class can become a form of peer support for the learners. One reality of the classroom is that the students bring their own L1 strengths into the class and try as one may to create a class where the students are of equal abilities, some students have stronger listening skills than others and some have better comprehension of syntax or lexical items. Denying the use of



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the first language denies the students access to an important learning tool: other students. Permitting the students to use their L1 enables them to check their understanding of what they have been asked to do, or what another member or the instructor has said. As well, they can help each other organize their ideas or choose a more precise lexical item to explain their thoughts to the class or the teacher. This informal use of translation can become a vehicle for learning and enforcing language and vocabulary because students are drawing on each other's knowledge (Atkinson: 1987).

While learners could be encouraged to do this in the target language, the pressure it might put on the student could have negative repercussions with the student choosing to remain ignorant rather than struggle at simply trying to verify what has happened; or, with students not attempting to help each other. It is doubtful that such a strict rule of 'only target language' is enforced, but it is a position that many teachers in the private language school system often have foisted upon them. In any case, it is a learner-preferred strategy, as Harbord (1992) concedes, citing reports by Danchez (1982) and DelMar (1982) that beginning students through the preintermediate level will often resort to L1 use. Atkinson (1987) expands on this, stating that even if translation does not actually facilitate learning, it does fit in with students' ideas of what constitutes effective learning, and therefore they are more receptive to it than perhaps more theoretically supported learning activities.

Despite Harbord's fear that this kind of translation use promotes resentment through a structure of hierarchy, students do assert themselves if stronger students are 'helping' too much.



4.2 Arguments against translation

Many valid arguments have been put forth to keep translation out of the classroom. One situation that would appear to hold no place for its use would be in classes consisting of students with different mother tongues. As there is no single unifying language among students, translation use would be at the expense of students who do not share that language.

Harbord (1992) provides further reasons for not using it, citing a return to Grammar-Translation with all of its negative connotations; as well, the isolation of lexis from any real context prevents students from gleaning insight into the multiple uses and meanings of the word. He further contends that in an informal application, translation creates a hierarchy where the stronger students prevent weaker students from contributing in the L2 by enforcing a feeling of inferiority.

The Forum Magazine in 2002 published the following information: “A teacher from United Kingdom believes from the experience that the use of L1 in the English language classroom is not beneficial for students because it cuts down on Teacher Talking Time (TTT) as it is essential for effective EFL teaching and even a few seconds explaining a word is cutting into the time available in class for the students to actively do something, with no guarantee of any benefit from the explanation”.

Another teacher from Mexico, Sofia, advocates the use of L2 in the language classroom since resorting to L1 hinders the development of fluency in students and the ability to think in the target language (L2). There are many opinions on the



subject from the many different language teachers. Also scholars are in controversy about this subject (Forum Magazine 2002).

4.3 Arguments in Support of Translation

Nunan and Lamb (1996), for example, contend that EFL teachers working with monolingual students at lower levels of English proficiency find prohibition of the mother tongue to be practically impossible. Dörnyei and Kormos (1998) find that the L1 is used by L2 learners as a communication strategy to compensate for deficiencies in the target language.

Auerbuch (1993) not only acknowledges the positive role of the mother tongue in the classroom, but also identifies the following uses for it: classroom management, negotiation of the syllabus and the lesson, scene setting, record keeping, language analysis, presenting rules that govern grammar, phonology, morphology, and spelling, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors, and checking for comprehension.

The cognitive psychologist David Ausubel (1964) issued the following statement: "The native language of the learner is not just an interfering factor – it can facilitate learning a second language".



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David Paulin (1999) from South Korea advocates for a more balanced use of L1 in the language classroom. He believes in the judicious use of L1 in the language classroom for the following reasons: a) The students pride and self-esteem must be kept intact, b) The importance of demonstrating a bilingual ability which can, at least, explain parts of speech, spelling, and basic pronunciation , and c) then, progressively omit the use of the foreign words out of the classroom.

Recent articles argue that there is no reason why translation activities cannot be incorporated into a communicatively based lesson, and they promote different activities that suit the different goals and aims of students (Atkinson: 1987; Edge: 1986; Heltai: 1989; Tudor: 1986).

Heltai (1989) suggests a guideline for the use of translation, writing that it should be used when translation is an end in itself; when English is a foreign language and not a second language; with students at an advanced level of language ability; for adults who prefer conscious learning; when formal correctness is important and the students are actively interested in acquiring this formality; and when the teacher shares the same L1 as the students. While these scholars may disagree as to with whom and to why translation should be used, there is accordance in how it benefits students and where it should be used, which is in classes where the L2 is a foreign language and there are few opportunities to experience that language outside of the classroom.

If the translation activities are done in pairs or in small groups, the students must use the target language for negotiation in order to agree on the more appropriate language to be used (Heltai: 1989; Edge: 1986). As Heltai explains, for many



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students, the use of the L2 will be in situations where either neutral or formal language is required, and activities that do not require 'creative spontaneity' yet require transactional language are more appropriate than ones which require more colloquial language. Translation can provide this situation.

Atkinson (1987) suggests that activities that involve some translation promote guessing strategies amongst students and helps reduce the word-for-word translation that often occurs and which results in inappropriate L2 use. Even Harbord concedes that some translation work teaches students to work towards transferring meaning "rather than the word-for-word translation that occurs when the learner's unconscious need to make assumptions and correlations between languages is ignored" (Harbord: 1992:354).

Further arguments reason that the use of translation anchors previously learned vocabulary in the mind and helps learners to expand their vocabulary, rather than relying on a limited syntax. This is an argument put forth by Heltai (1989), who states that advanced learners tend to fossilize in their acquisition of vocabulary because they have learned circumlocution skills. Forcing advanced students to search for other words gives such learners a new goal in their studies. Atkinson (1987) applies the same arguments to support translation in classes with learners at an earlier stage of L2 acquisition.

In Teaching Monolingual Classes, Atkinson (1993) suggests ²a careful limited use of L1 to help students get the maximum benefit from activities which in other



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respects will be carried out in the target language”, and he also provides some procedures on how to use L1 in the procedural stages of a class, for example:

- ❖ Sorting out an activity which is clearly not working
- ❖ Checking comprehension
- ❖ Eliciting language
- ❖ Giving complex instructions to basic levels
- ❖ Cooperating in groups
- ❖ Explaining classroom methodology at basic levels
- ❖ Using translation to highlight a recently taught language item
- ❖ Checking for sense
- ❖ Testing
- ❖ Developing circumlocution strategies
- ❖ And setting up pair and group work

Differing with Atkinson’s view, Paul Nation from Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, second language use in the foreign (monolingual class) needs to be maximized wherever possible, by encouraging its use and by using it for classroom management. It is very important to encourage the use of L2 in the classroom since learners have little opportunity to be exposed to the L1 in its natural context.

Howatt (1984) refers to a number of attitudes, approaches and methods which advocate or reject the use of L1 in ELT, as well as to the debate on the subject in various language teaching publications. For the use of L1 in language teaching were the proponents of the Grammar Translation ‘method’ (the first ‘grammar translation’ course was published in 1783) and Pendergast (around 1860), whereas against L1 use



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were the proponents of the Direct Method, particularly as interpreted by Berlitz (around 1878).

Moderate views were expressed by the Reform Movement (Viator, 1882/1886), and Palmer (mid 1910s to late 1920s). Therefore, it seems that L1 has never been “a skeleton in the cupboard” (Prodromou, 2001: 8); rather it has been a bone of contention for more than two centuries.

1. *“The use and abuse of the mother tongue in the classroom ... cuts across fundamental issues in ELT such as the respective roles of native and non-native speaker teachers of English and the place of the target culture and local culture in the learning process” (p. 8). Luke Prodromou from his article “From Mother Tongue to Other Tongue” (Bridges 5, September 2000)*

Prodromou seems to agree with the ELT professionals who campaign for the emancipation of L1 cultures from an L2 hegemony in terms of both language norms and culture (e.g. Canagarajan, 1999; Phillipson, 1992)

Canagarajan (1999: 56) mentions that “the English language has had a history of imposition for political and material reasons in most periphery communities, often in competition with native languages. It is still deeply implicated in struggles for dominance against other languages, with conflicting implications for the construction of identity, community, and culture of the local people”, and characterizes L2-only practices as “oppressive” (op. cit.: 125).



Also, Phillipson's discussion of the "monolingual fallacy" (1992: 185-193) makes it evident that monolingual English education was first used in the primary and secondary schools of former British colonies. In such contexts the monolingual approach has been criticized because it "legitimizes the ignoring of local languages and the cultural universe that these languages mediate" (op. cit.: 254).

2. *"The skeleton has been there all the time, we just haven't wanted to talk about it - because perhaps we have not had the psycholinguistic or pedagogic framework in which to do so."* (p. 8)

In actual fact, ELT professionals have had a number of helpful frameworks at their disposal. A semantic comparison of the native and target languages can reveal a number of differences in which the two cultures encode meaning in terms of vocabulary (e.g. different collocations) and grammar (e.g. different expression of time). A pragmatic comparison can reveal differences in areas such as communication conventions, the status of explicitness or conciseness, or the ways in which attitudes are expressed in the two cultures (e.g. politeness, irony). A comparison at the discourse level can reveal differences in areas such as information structure. According to the psycholinguistic perspective "failure to provide educational conditions for the development of cognitive-academic proficiency in L1 as well as initial literacy in the L1 may invalidate efforts to build up such skills in L2" (Phillipson, 1992: 191; see also Howatt, 1984: 296-297). Finally, there is interlanguage theory (introduced by Selinker in 1972) and a great number of other SLA theories, which were influenced by the notion of interlanguage (see Ellis, 1994, chapters 9 & 10). Interlanguage is the "system of implicit knowledge that the learner develops and systematically amends over



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time” (op. cit.: 354). Interlanguage “is thought to be distinct from both the learner’s first language and from the target language” (McLaughlin, 1987: 60), and one of the central issues in the different views of interlanguage and the respective theories is the nature and extent of L1 influence on a learner’s interlanguage (Ellis, 1994).

There is an additional reason, which advises caution as regards the use of L1. Learners tend to rely on their existing language knowledge (L1 and any other languages they can use) to understand the logic and organization principles behind the target language. Uncritical use of L1 in the classroom (particularly in terms of translation) will reinforce this tendency. L1 use needs to be handled with care exactly because it exerts a powerful influence on the learning process, as it seems that learners tend to treat it as the obvious starting point when learning a new language, and is a popular communication strategy (Ellis, 1985: 180-189). It is not a coincidence that a large number of the mistakes of non-native users of English (particularly at elementary and intermediate levels) tend to be the result of word-for-word translation, and transfer of cultural norms and communication conventions.

The proposed blend of the two cultures and languages seems to point towards the teaching/ learning of what has been termed lately ‘English as an international language’. Such an international variety of English is defined by Phillipson as “the language used by non-native speakers of English of different nationalities for restricted communication purposes and which bears traces of their mother tongue” (1992: 244).



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The mother tongue is also particularly effective with younger learners and adult learners at beginner level to check instructions, to ensure that concepts have been correctly understood and for general classroom management. In the case of concept checking, for example, if the teacher has just been presenting the difference in concept between present perfect and past simple as in "John has gone to Paris" and "John went to Paris", asking the class to give a quick translation into the mother tongue will enable the teacher to be absolutely sure that the concepts have been understood.

Using the mother tongue can also be very useful in establishing the general "rules" for the class at the beginning of the course, one of which may of course be "English will be used at all times"! Perhaps the greatest potential advantage of a knowledge of the mother tongue of the learners, however, is that it enables the teacher to contrast the language with English and to know which structures are difficult and, possibly even more importantly, which structures are easy and need very little attention.

The teacher with a knowledge of the mother tongue is also in a position to know potential problems with vocabulary items – false friends, words easily confused, words with no equivalents and so on.

Some learners need the security of the mother tongue. They may be the type of learner that needs to relate concepts in English to equivalents in their L1. This may be their most effective way of learning vocabulary. They may also feel that having a



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mother tongue equivalent is a far more efficient way of arriving at meaning than a constant process of working things out.



Theoretical Framework



5 Theoretical Framework

5.1 *The Role of English in the 21st Century*

The world is in various stages of social, economic, and demographic transition. Economically and politically, the world has changed more rapidly in the past few years than at any time since 1945. The emerging global economy is both competitive and interdependent. It reflects the availability of modern communications and production technologies in most parts of the world. So, do we need to be concerned about the future of the English language in the 21st century. According to *The Economist* (1996), English continues to be the world standard language, and there is no major threat to the language or to its global popularity. But, changes are coming.

5.2 *An international economy*

Two factors drive this global marketplace. First, many manufactured products have one or more foreign components. Ford cars and IBM computers are just two examples of this. Second, more than half of all imports and exports, which governments label foreign trade, are transacted between domestic companies and their foreign affiliates.



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The increasing globalization of the marketplace is forcing companies to pay more attention to international developments. Domestic firms are adjusting their structures and methods of operation to fit a broader and rapidly changing economic environment. They are increasing their geographic outreach because more of their suppliers and customers are located on various continents. For example, last year Johnson and Johnson sold more products outside the United States than in the United States. Hewlett Packard, like many companies, lost money when the Asian economy collapsed.

Joint ventures are no longer just theoretical possibilities. Mergers and acquisitions, like Chrysler/Daimler Benz and MCI and British Telecom, increasingly cross national boundaries. This trend is expected to continue into the next millennium. This internationalization is illustrated in three ways. First, companies change their basic goals to conform to a global marketplace. Second, they adapt their products to local markets. But most importantly, they do not set up international bureaucracies; instead, they hire foreign nationals who understand the local markets.

Why discuss economics with the English language? Because the English language is closely associated with this economic modernization and industrial development.

Information is sent and received at increasing speed. The competitive demands of governments, industries, and corporations, both national and multinational, for technological progress require an understanding of the language of that technology—English.



5.3 Spread of English

The global spread of English over the last 40 years is remarkable. It is unprecedented in several ways: by the increasing number of users of the language; by its depth of penetration into societies; by its range of functions.

Worldwide over 1.4 billion people live in countries where English has official status. One out of five of the world's population speaks English with some degree of competence. And by 2000 one in five—over one billion people—could have learned English. Over 70% of the world's scientists read English. About 85% of the world's mail is written in English. And 90% of all information in the world's electronic retrieval systems is stored in English. By 2010, the number of people who speak English as a second or foreign language will exceed the number of native speakers. This trend will certainly affect the language.

English is used for more purposes than ever before. Vocabularies, grammatical forms, and ways of speaking and writing have emerged influenced by technological and scientific developments, economics and management, literature and entertainment genres. What began some 1,500 years ago as a rude language, originally spoken by obscure Germanic tribes who invaded England, now encompasses the globe.

Three factors continue to contribute to this spread of English: English usage in science, technology and commerce; the ability to incorporate vocabulary from other languages; and the acceptability of various English dialects. In science, English



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replaced German after World War II. With this technical and scientific dominance came the beginning of overall linguistic dominance, first in Europe and then globally.

English, like many languages, uses a phonetic alphabet and fairly basic syntax. But most importantly, it has a large and extensive vocabulary, of which about 80% is foreign.

David Crystal (1997) commented, there has never been a language so widely spread or spoken by so many people as English. So, there are no precedents to help us predict what happens to a language when it achieves genuine world status.

5.4 Changes in the 21st century

The world is in transition, and the English language will take new forms. The language and how it is used will change, reflecting patterns of contact with other languages and the changing communication needs of people.

English is divesting itself of its political and cultural connotations as more people realize that English is not the property of only a few countries. Instead, it is a vehicle that is used globally and will lead to more opportunities. It belongs to whoever uses it for whatever purpose or need.

One question that arises about the future role of the English language is whether a single world standard English will develop. This could result in a supranational variety that all people would have to learn.



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The widespread use of English as a language of wider communication will continue to exert pressure toward global uniformity. This could result in declining standards, language changes, and the loss of geolinguistic diversity.

On the other hand, because English is the vehicle for international communication and because it forms the basis for constructing cultural identities, many local varieties could instead develop. This trend may lead to fragmentation of the language and threaten the role of English as a lingua franca. However, there have always been major differences between varieties of English.

There is no reason to believe that any other language will appear within the next 50 years to replace English. However, it is possible that English will not keep its monopoly in the 21st century. Rather, a small number of languages may form an oligopoly—each with a special area of influence. For example, Spanish is rising because of expanding trade and the increase of the Latino population in the United States. This could create a bilingual English-Spanish region.

Universities using English as the medium of instruction will expand and rapidly create a generation of middle-class professionals. Economic development will only increase the middle class, a group that is more likely to learn and use English in work places.

While languages such as English, German, and French have been international languages because of their governments' political powers, this is less likely to be the case in the 21st century where economics and demographics will have more influence on languages.



English has been an international language for only 50 years. If the pattern follows the previous language trends, we still have about 100 years before a new language dominates the world. However, this does not mean that English is replacing or will replace other languages as many fear. Instead, it may supplement or co-exist with languages by allowing strangers to communicate across linguistic boundaries. It may become one tool that opens windows to the world, unlocks doors to opportunities, and expands our minds to new ideas.

5.5 A historical review about translation as a teaching technique

Using translation as a teaching technique has had many ups and downs, that is, in different periods it has been accepted as a teaching device or regarded as a controversial subject depending on prevailing objectives and teaching preferences (Rivers and Temperely, 1978). For many years it was right at the heart of language teaching, and indeed it was one of the basic elements of language in the medieval universities and schools (Duff, 1990). However, for the past few decades, translation has been generally out of favor and taking Duff's words.

A brief glance at the history of teaching English as a foreign language would demonstrate these "ups" and "downs". Translation was important in teaching Greek and Latin in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Grammar Translation Method was the only method for teaching these languages.



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Translation in this method had such a dominant role that it was later, in mid-nineteenth century, employed in teaching modern languages. Proponents of this method claimed that translation interpreted the words and phrases of the target language in the best possible manner and ensured comprehension of the vocabulary items, collocations and sentences.

For them foreign phraseology is best assimilated in the process of interpretation, and the structures of the foreign languages are best learned when compared and contrasted with those of another language (Gautam, 1988). However, excessive application of translation led to complete failure of the Grammar Translation Method and the drastic decline of the role of translation in TEFL.

Later on, Berlitz (1887), the founder of the Direct Method, severely reacted against the Grammar Translation Method and totally rejected translation. Thus, the Direct Method theorists de-emphasized it as a teaching device excluding it from the early instruction as much as possible while admitting it as an art at the advanced stages (Rivers and Temperly, 1978).

A study undertaken in 1923 on the state of foreign language teaching concluded that no single method guarantees successful results (Richards and Rodgers, 1990). The study, published as the Coleman Report, advocated that a more reasonable goal for a foreign language course would be a reading knowledge of the foreign language achieved through the gradual introduction of words and grammatical structures in simple reading texts.



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Coleman (1929) offered a compromise in the application of translation. Translation of some of the reading passages and grammatical structures was permissible. The use of the mother tongue was not prohibited in language instruction. Once again, translation was able to establish itself as a technique. Coleman allowed translation for better comprehension and interpretation of the reading passages.

Like the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method attempted to develop target language skills without any reference to the mother tongue. This approach abandoned translation for its mental burden on the learner and advocated habit formation and conditioning without the intervention of any intellectual effort. According to this approach, in the process of habit formation via stimulus and response, old habits tend to get in the way of the new ones.

The theory predicted that negative transfer from the first to the second language would take place in the learning process. Thus, it was believed that the elimination of the mother tongue from the learning environment would facilitate second, or foreign, language learning.

However, the Cognitive Approach, as a reaction to the Audio-lingual Approach rediscovered valuable features in the previous methods and thus emphasized translation (Stern, 1991). In this way the role of the mind, mentalistic activities, conscious and meaningful learning were also emphasized. The natural outcome of this emphasis was the revival of translation as a means of making the learning more meaningful and contextual.



The Communicative Approach was initially hostile to the use of translation in the classroom, but later it adopted a flexible approach. The inclusion of translation activities in the Headway textbooks is the sign of such flexibility. Apart from these ongoing "ups-and-downs," there are some reasons and inherent benefits in using translation as a teaching tool.

5.6 Reasons for using translation as a teaching technique

1. What the students think and feel about language learning is of great importance in language teaching and this should be taken into account in any course planning (Nunan 1999). In some cases it is inevitable that language learners use their dominant languages (L1) as a resource. Indeed it is a kind of individual learning style for some students. They need to be able to relate lexis and structures of target language into their equivalents in their mother tongue. Therefore, sound pedagogy should make use of this learning style.
2. Translation makes the students develop their reading comprehension ability. It is quite obvious that before one can translate any text, he or she should read the text carefully, trying to make sense of its features like sentence structures, context and register. In other words, there should be a kind of textual analysis, which is very important in reading comprehension (Chellapan 1982). Indeed the difference between translation and reading is the degree of attention paid by the reader or translator, that is, in translation attention weighs far more heavily than in mere reading.



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3. Translation is a conscious process of learning. In the translation process there are two types of activities both of which require full engagement of the learner. The first activity is "understanding" the source text and the second is "formulating" it in the target language (Herry and Higgins, 1992). This latter characteristic is what distinguishes translation from reading.

4. Translation is a kind of communicative activity, which is practiced within a meaningful context (Duff 1990). It enhances interaction between the teacher and the students and among the students themselves due to the fact that rarely is there any absolute "right" rendering of the text.

5. Translation can be used as an evaluative technique in reading classes. As reading is totally unobservable, comprehension should be inferred from the other behavior; it is important to be able to accurately assess students comprehension of the text read. That is, among the other techniques like "doing," "transferring," "answering," "extending," and "modeling," we may ask students to translate part of the reading text into their native language to ensure if they have fully grasped the meaning. This can be done at the end of the reading lesson.\



5.7 Practical guidelines

As we have already discussed, students usually use L1 as a resource, so as teachers we should try to find out ways of exploiting this resource rather than neglecting it. To this end, some practical guidelines are presented below:

1. Extreme care should be taken in selecting texts to be translated by the students. Naturally, dull, overlong and uncommunicative texts that are difficult to translate usually demotivate the students. So, it is much more practical to start with short communicative texts.
2. In practical teaching situations, the students who are to work on translation should be given prior guidance on practical procedures before being engaged in the translation itself. Initially they should be told that translation is not just taking the pen and starting the translation word by word or sentence by sentence. They should be briefly informed of translation procedures like "preparation," "analysis," "transfer," "initial draft," "rewording," "testing the translation," "polishing," and "final manuscript" (Larson 1987).
3. Grouping the students is of great importance in our classes. It offers a cooperative climate and promotes learners responsibilities (Brown 2001). So, to get the best translation, students can work in groups and participate in oral discussions. These activities surely will make the translation task interesting since the students are learning the language in an active way.



4. To use translation as an effective teaching tool, the difficulty of the texts should be taken into account. In the selection of the texts, we should not only pay attention to the degree of second-language (L2) proficiency, but also the degree of difficulty of the texts. Unfortunately, there is not any comprehensive view on determining the text difficulty; however, teachers can make a prediction of the relative difficulty of a given text.
5. One practical way of handling this problem is the initial adaptation of authentic translation material. In this way, some lexical, semantic, syntactic and discourse elements, which are supposed to impede the students' comprehension, may be manipulated (Darian, 2001).

There are some good reasons for the purposeful inclusion of translation activity in our classrooms. First of all, as a communicative activity, it enhances interaction between teacher and students and among the students themselves. Second, being a conscious process of language learning, it fully engages the learners in the learning process. Third, translation helps students develop their reading comprehension abilities. Fourth, it can be used as an evaluative technique for checking students reading comprehension of a particular text.

However, in order to obtain the above-mentioned benefits, we must consider some points. The students should be initially given prior guidance on the practical procedures of translation activity and encouraged to work in groups to get the best translation. The degree of students' L2 proficiency along with the degree of the text difficulty should also be considered.



5.8 Second language

We start from the common sense distinction between “mother tongue” or “native language” and “second language”. At a more technical level we also find the first two terms “primary language” and “L1” and for the second two “secondary language” and “L2”. We can tabulate two sets of terms as follows:

L1	L2
First language	Second language
Native tongue	non-native language
Mother tongue	foreign language
Primary language	secondary language
Stronger language	weaker language

These two sets of terms –like such words as “left” and “right”, “I/we” and “you”, or “at home” and “abroad”– are always relative to a person or a group of persons. They indicate a subjective relationship between a language and an individual or group. We can never assign any particular language, for example, French, English, Arabic, or Japanese, in any absolutely way to one or the other set of terms. There is a third set of terms which describes language objectively I. e., without reference to the relationship of individuals of that language.

Thus the L1 terms are used to indicate, first of all, that a person has acquired the language in infancy and early childhood (hence “first” or “native”) and generally within the family (hence “mother tongue”).



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Consequently it would be best to reserve the terms “native language” for the language of early-childhood acquisition and “primary language” for the language of dominant or preferred use when this distinction has to be made, with the terms “first language” or “L1” to cover both uses, allowing the context to make clear the distinction.

The concept of L2 (“non-native language”, “second language”, “foreign language”) implies the prior availability to the individual of an L1 in other words some forms of bilingualism. Again, the use of the L2 set of terms has a dual function: it indicates something about the acquisition of the language and something about the nature of the command.

Whether the learning is formalized in any way, for example, through a language course in school, through private study, or is left informal, in all three cases the languages learned as a “second language” or “foreign language”; that is to say, it implies that French, Sinhalese, or English are learned by these individuals after they have already acquired an L1.

Secondly, the L2 terms may indicate a lower level of proficiency in the language in comparison with the primary language. The language is the individual’s “weaker” or “secondary” language. It feels “less familiar”, “new” or “strange”.

To sum up, the term “second language” has two meanings. First, it refers to the chronology of language learning. A second language is any language acquired (or



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to be acquired) later than the native language. This definition deliberately leaves open how much later second languages are acquired. At one extreme the second language learning process takes place at an early age when the native language command is still rudimentary. On the other hand, it may take place in adult life when L1 acquisition process is virtually completed or slowed down. Or it may take place at any stage between these two extremes.

Secondly, the term “second language” is used to refer to the level language command in comparison with a primary or dominant language. In this second sense, “second language” indicates a lower level of actual or believed proficiency.

5.9 Teaching and learning

The concept of learning, as it is understood today, has been greatly influenced by the psychological study of the learning process, and as a result is much more widely interpreted than has been customary in popular uses of the term. The psychological concept of learning goes far beyond learning directly from a teacher or learning through study or practice. It includes not only the learning of skills (for example, swimming or sewing) or the acquisition of knowledge. It refers also to learning to learn and learning to think; the modification of attitudes; the acquisition interests, social values, or social roles; and even changes in personality.



Language learning, in keeping with this broad interpretation, is also very widely conceived. It includes all kinds of language learning for which no formal provision is made through teaching. First of all, there is the vast area of first-language acquisition to be discussed shortly. Secondly, an individual in his lifetime, without a specific tuition, acquires new terms, meanings, jargons, slangs, codes, or “register”; he may learn new patterns of intonation, new gestures or postures; he may acquire a new dialect; in many multilingual settings, may learn to function in more than one language. (Ferguson 1962:6)

5.10 Language teaching

Language teaching can be defined as the activities which are intended to bring about language learning. “Language Teaching” is more widely interpreted than “instructing a language class”. Formal instruction or methods of training are included; but so is individualized instruction, self-study, computer assisted instruction, and the use of media, such a radio or television.

Likewise, the supporting activities, such as the preparation of teaching materials, teaching grammars, or dictionaries, or the training of teachers, as well as making the necessary administrative provision inside or outside an educational system –they all fall under the concept of teaching.



5.11 Differences and Similarities between Adult and Young Learners

The acquisition of the second language by adult learners is slow, discouraging and often frustrating. All learners want to use a foreign language with confidence and spontaneity, in the same way as they use their mother tongue. The major complaint that teachers hear is ‘I can’t say anything off the top of my head’ (Rivers, 1992). Moreover, ‘none of learners can talk on unrehearsed topics without constant and painful hesitation’. The latter point is also applicable to young learners. It is noteworthy to examine how adult learners differ from young learners.

Adult learners are notable for a number of special characteristics (Harmer, 2000): “They can engage with abstract thought, have a range of life experiences, definite expectations about the learning process, their own set patterns of learning, and are more disciplined than children.

On the other hand, adult learners have a number of characteristics which can make learning and teaching problematic: can be critical of teaching methods, anxious and under-confident because of previous failure and worry about diminishing learning power with age”. They more often than young learners face certain linguistic problems like ‘fossilized’ errors – persistent deviations from the L2 norm, language transfer - negative influence of the mother tongue on the productive skills.

Research in error analysis shows that over half the errors are interference errors. Adult learners are believed to be focused on form or correctness: “they are



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particularly conscious of deviations from the established networks, and seek to understand the nature of the rule system” (Rivers, 1992).

In one respect, however, adult learners are similar to young learners. All may be grouped according to their preferred learning styles. Differences in cognitive styles influence learners’ priorities for particular approach to learning. Learners employ different learning strategies, i.e. “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990). The common learning styles for each type of learners are (Richards & Lockhart, 1996):

- ❖ concrete - learners use active means of processing information;
- ❖ analytical - learners prefer logical and systematic presentation of new material;
- ❖ communicative - learners prefer social approach;
- ❖ authority-oriented - learners prefer the teacher’s authority.

5.12 Needs Analysis

In the early stages of work, it is necessary to assess the future learners’ aptitudes, analyze their needs and expectations and design appropriate materials for learning. Learners’ grammar and listening skills must be tested before the course, and have to be divided into two groups according to their performance.



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Needs analysis in the form of questionnaire help to establish priorities and varieties of topics for the content of the course. The answers to the questionnaire are rather vague. What all the learners request is practice in communication activities, making phone calls and presentations, and comprehension of formal ESP vocabulary and texts.

Customers' wishes have regarded as a must, because "it is usually the students who with the help of the teacher direct the selection of the activities" (Hollett, Carter, 1989).

5.13 Motivation

Motivation is an important part of learning. Adult learners, contrary to young learners who can study for the sake of a good grade or other indirect rewards, put forth sustained efforts for some other goals than the immediate enjoyment of the activity itself. Internal and external factors that promote learners' motives are: new challenges and promotions at work, requirements for English literacy, overseas assignments and trips, workshops and conferences in English, welcoming foreign visitors, professional differentiation and specialization, e-communication.

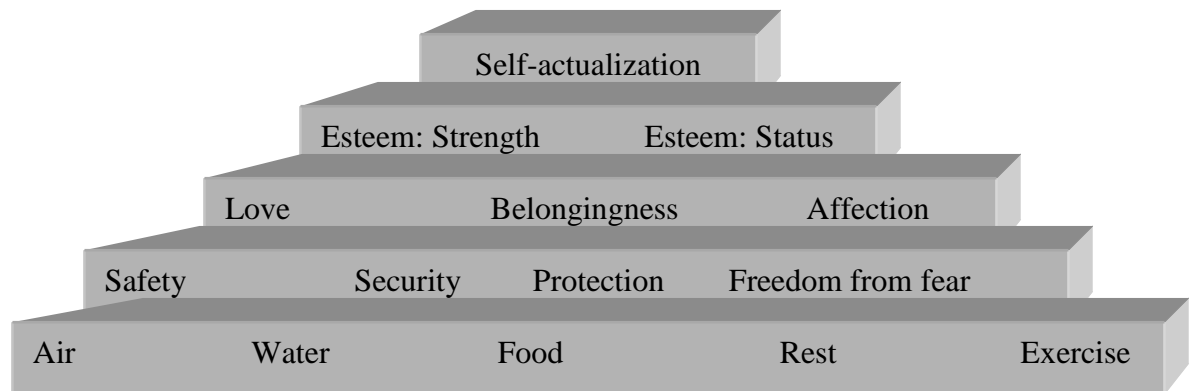
One of the most widely cited theories of motivation comes from Abraham Maslow (1970) who, in the spirit of drive theory, elaborated further to describe a system of needs within each human being that propel us to higher attainment.



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Maslow's hierarchy is best viewed metaphorically as a pyramid of needs, progressing from the satisfaction of purely physical needs up through safety and communal needs, to needs of esteem, and finally to "self-actualization," a state of reaching your fullest potential. (see Figure).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs



5.14 The Grammar Translation Method

In the Grammar Translation Method, a fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature written in the target language. To do this, students need to learn about the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language.



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The roles of the teacher and the students are very traditional; the teacher is the authority in the classroom. The students do as he says so they can learn what he knows.

Some characteristics of the teaching/learning process are:

- ❖ Students are taught to translate from one language to another. Often what they translate are readings in the target language about some aspects of the culture of the foreign language community.
- ❖ Students study grammar deductively; that is they are given the grammar rules and examples, are told to memorize them, and then are asked to apply the rules to other examples.
- ❖ Students also learn grammatical paradigms such as verbs conjunctions.
- ❖ Students memorize native language, equivalents for foreign language vocabulary words.

5.15 The techniques

Methods	Techniques
Grammar Translation Method	Translation of a literary passage Reading comprehension question Antonyms/synonyms Cognates Deductive application of rule Fill-in-the blanks Memorization Composition



5.16 Mother Tongue as a Learning Tool.

Research shows that a program that develops reading and writing skills in the learners' first language is ideal. There is no loss of time in learning English since skills will transfer as English is introduced. Dual language programs have been shown to be effective and are used more and more through out the United States.

However, they are not always practical for all schools. In order for a dual language program to be effective, most, if not all, the teachers in the school must be fluent and biliterate in the other language being taught. This type of program also requires schools to purchase quality materials in both languages. The number of students speaking each of the languages and the support of the community are elements that factor into the success of such a program.

According to Stephen Krashen, a linguist at the University of Southern California, when we give students quality education in their primary language, we give them two things:

1. Knowledge, both general knowledge of the world and subject-matter knowledge, which helps make the English they hear more comprehensible. This results in more English acquisition.



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2. Literacy, which transfers across languages. Here is a simple, three-step argument:
 - (1) We learn to read by reading, by making sense of what we see on the page.
 - (2) If we learn to read by reading, it will be much easier to learn to read in a language we already understand.
 - (3) Once you can read, you can read. The ability to read transfers across languages.

Therefore, time spent studying in the native language is not time wasted in learning English. To the contrary, it supports English acquisition.

Native language use and development have many psychological benefits. Using and valuing students native languages in schools and classrooms supports and enhances the students learning because they themselves are indirectly valued (Lucas, Henze, & Donato, 1990). I want my students going away from my classroom feel proud and confident of the individuals they are and the culture of which they belong to. By using their native language in the classroom and curriculum, it reaffirms to them that their language is acceptable and valuable.

The use of students' native languages can also increase their openness to learn by reducing the degree of language and culture shock they are encountering (Auerbach, 1993).

Using students native languages in schooling can also help them develop English proficiency. Although it may appear contrary to common sense, maintaining and developing their native language does not interfere with the developing of second language proficiency.



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Experience shows that many people around the world become fully bi- and multilingual without suffering interference from one language in the learning of the other (Beardsmore, 1993). Research findings show that "one of the best predictors of second-language proficiency is proficiency in the mother tongue" (Stanford Working Group, 1993). Cummins' linguistic interdependence principle (1981, 1989, 1991, 1992) explains this phenomenon by identifying a common underlying proficiency that enable cognitive/academic and literacy-related skills to transfer across languages. Students' native languages can be employed in a variety of ways and for a variety of uses in the classroom. Students using their native language among each other in different settings can be very effective. By allowing students to assist one another, they are able to learn from each other. When grouping students together, Stanford made sure each group contained students with different skill levels so that students could help each other in either English or their native language. He also encouraged the students to interact socially with each other in their native language. By doing this they were more comfortable in school and happier.

5.18 What the Critics Say

Critics of bilingual education maintain that the best way of teaching English to non-English speakers is not to instruct them in their home language but instead to immerse them in English. They often look to Canadian total French immersion, the approach adopted by Montreal, Canada, in teaching French to English-speaking, middle-class children. Under this program, native-English speakers start school entirely in French, with English introduced gradually. By the end of elementary school, most students become fluent in French, exhibit competence in English, and do



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well academically. The approach, which gained instant popularity, spread all throughout Canada and has become a model for other countries.

Critics of bilingual education in the United States find fault with the lengthy transition period during which Spanish speakers are immersed in their mother tongue before they move to the mainstream classes where they start learning English. They say that under established rules, the transition should only take three or four years, but this rarely happens; in many cases, children stay with the mother tongue up to seven years, which, critics maintain, amounts to wasted time and lost opportunity.

Opponents also point out the lack of bilingual teachers nationwide, which renders existing bilingual programs questionable. Susan Headden, writing in U.S. News & World Report, comments, “Poorly trained teachers further complicate the picture. . . . The paucity of qualified candidates has forced desperate superintendents to waive some credentialing requirements and recruit instructors from abroad. The result is teachers who themselves struggle with English.”

Most importantly, critics of bilingual education attribute much of the 30 percent high-school dropout rate among Hispanic children to their confinement to Spanish-only classrooms. They observe that the dropout rate is highest among ethnic groups, and that it has not decreased after many years of implementing bilingual instruction.



Methodology



6 METHODOLOGY

6.1 PROCEDURE

With the objective to gather students' and teachers' opinions about the use of Spanish in an English classroom, the data collection was carried out during the second term of the present year in five universities of El Salvador:: Universidad de El Salvador (UES), Universidad Tecnológica (UTEC), Universidad Pedagógica (UPES), Universidad Francisco Gavidia (UFG), and Universidad Centroamericana (UCA).

The universities selected were visited by researchers, in the first time, to ask for permission to the authorities to carry out the survey with students and teachers. Then, when the second term started, investigators observed different classes in each university; each investigator was studying a specific class during a week to gather real information, during each observation everything teachers and students said and did was jotting down on the observation sheet that each investigator had. Later, investigator passed a questionnaire to the 40 percent of students in each different group; also a questionnaire was filled by the teacher in charge of the class.

The subjects observed were selected by researchers according to schedule each university had. It is important to mention that subjects in which L1 is used were not taken into account due to the research topic. The subjects observed in each university



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were the 40 percent of them. Later, they were distributed among researchers with the objective to cover all the sample.

Besides, observations and questionnaires, it was necessary to interview the teachers in charge of each subject in order to know their opinions about the use of L1 in an L2 classroom.

Investigators started the data collection in UPES University, then they visited UCA University, later UTEC and UES Universities and finally UFG University. At the end, it was possible to collect the data, despite, some difficulties like time and money absence of teachers and lack of students' cooperation.

Investigators invested 50 days to gather the whole information from those universities. As soon as the data was completed, data analysis was carried out by researchers. To do this, it was necessary to number each questionnaire and observation sheet. 271 students answered the questionnaires and 27 teachers were observed and interviewed by researchers.

When every instrument was in order, researchers started to save the data in a computer program in order to obtain frequencies and real percentages to do the written data analysis.



6.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

6.2.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 271 students and 27 teachers that is the 40% selected of the population from five different universities of El Salvador. Students and teachers were chosen from the Bachelor and Teacher degree in English, and also from Bachelor in Modern Languages.

The five selected universities for this research were Universidad de El Salvador (UES), Universidad Tecnológica de El Salvador (UTEC), Universidad Pedagógica de El Salvador (UPES), Universidad Francisco Gavidia (UFG), and Universidad Centroamericana José Simeón Cañas (UCA). They were selected because they offer English as a Second Language (ESL) classes in careers such as Bachelor in English (UES, UTEC, UPES, UFG), Teacher degree in English (UES, UPES, UCA) and Bachelor in Modern Languages (UES).

The groups of students were made up of men and women and the size of each of them ranges in a number of 6 to 50 students in each class. The age of the chosen students ranges from 18 to 52 years and from 33 to 66 for teachers.



The 27 teachers participants were all faculty members at the universities mentioned with their teaching experience ranging from one year to 26 years.

6.3 Instruments and Procedures

6.3.1 Classroom observations

The classes chosen for this study were those in which English is taught and used as a Second Language. The subjects taken into account were English Reading and Vocabulary/Conversation I, II; Literature I, Advanced English Grammar, English Grammar II, Didactics I, II, Phonology and Morphology, Text Analysis, Phonetics I, II, Linguistics, Stylistics, North American and English Literature, English Composition II and Intensive Basic English I, II; Intensive Intermediate English I, II; Intensive Advanced English I, II making a total of 26 groups observed.

The classes were about from one hour to two hours in length on weekdays and from three hours twenty minutes on Saturdays. To obtain more authentic classroom data, students were not informed of the observation purpose beforehand. Teachers on the contrary did already know the researchers' purpose because before observing their classes, they handed in a letter with the reasons and objectives of their visit. So this interfered a little the results since teachers of the study did try not to use Spanish in class, which was obviously observed.



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The procedure followed by researchers for observing the classes was with the aid of a guide (See annexes) in which items related with the use of Spanish (L1) or English (L2) or both in the class were checked not only for teachers but also for students. The criteria used in the guide was a space for the name of the university, the subject, the teacher, the observer; and also space for information such as the date of the observation, time of the class, number of students, the desk arrangement and material aids used by teachers and a little description of the infrastructure the classes were taken place. Next, there are items related with Questions and Responses from teachers and students, Explanations in the class, Motivation, Students talk, How groups work were developed, Dealing with understandability and errors, criticism, and other important aspects observed in the classroom.

To get a better observation, researchers sat down at the bottom of the classroom in order to have a good angle of both, teacher and students. The observation was non-participant since the researchers role was to “observe” without taking place in the class and without interrupting neither the teacher nor students tasks and this was informed to the teacher before developing the activity.

6.4 Questionnaires

Another instrument was the questionnaire for teachers and for students (See annexes). The teacher questionnaire was made up of twenty items related with their educational level, teaching experience, their attitude toward the use of Spanish in the English class; and there was a space for general information such as gender, birth



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year, work time, the name of the subject he/she was in charge of, and the name of the university in which he/she was a faculty member.

The student questionnaire contained twenty seven items focused on the use of Spanish in the English class, the various occasions when they think L1 can be used, the perceived effectiveness of L1 in their ESL classroom, and information such as the career they are taking, the starting year of the career, the current year of study, reasons why they are studying English, the name of other languages they know, previous studies of English and the name of the place they learned English before entering the university.

The teachers' questionnaires were distributed before or at the end of the class. Then, teachers gave a space of time to the researchers to distribute the students' questionnaires in the classroom at the beginning or at the end of the class. Researchers gave instructions to the students to answer the questions and also the investigators were always helping the students doubts related with the instruments.

6.5 Interviews

Teachers and some students were observed, and also interviewed to gather more relevant data. The interviews were done individually and orally and answers were written down by researchers. To reach the objectives of the present research, the most relevant questions were: In which situations they use Spanish in the English



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classroom, when they think it was necessary to use Spanish in the English class, and the effects that Spanish use have in the English classroom. The answers were varied according to teachers and students' point of view. Moreover, the interviews were done after they completed a questionnaire and in order to contrast the information gathered by the different instruments used in this investigation.

It is important to mention there were teachers who refused to be interviewed; their refusal was respected by the researchers.

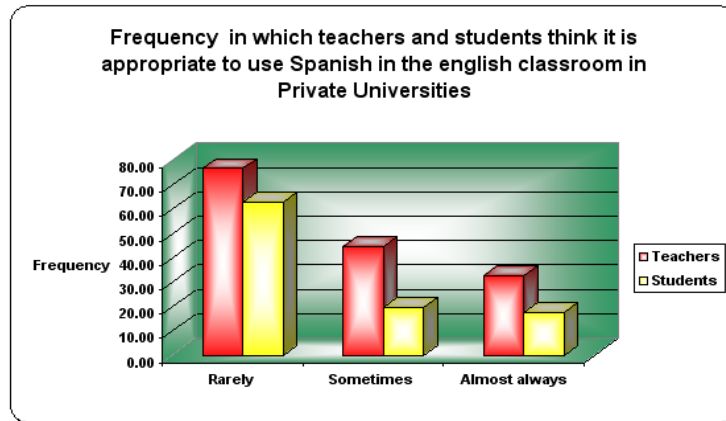


Analysis



7 ANALYSIS

Teachers and students questionnaire analysis Private Universities



In this graphic it is showed a high percentage of teachers and students who are in disagreement with the use of the mother tongue in the English classroom. For better understanding of the data, the percentages are these:

The 8.6% of teachers consider the use of Spanish almost always to explain different concepts or ideas in the EFL classroom. The 17.8% of students think that to understand better the class, Spanish is also almost always used.

The 14.7% of teachers sometimes use Spanish to explain grammar points, to help define new vocabulary and to measure comprehension.



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Besides, sometimes the 19.5% of students use the mother tongue to explain grammatical structures and new vocabulary.

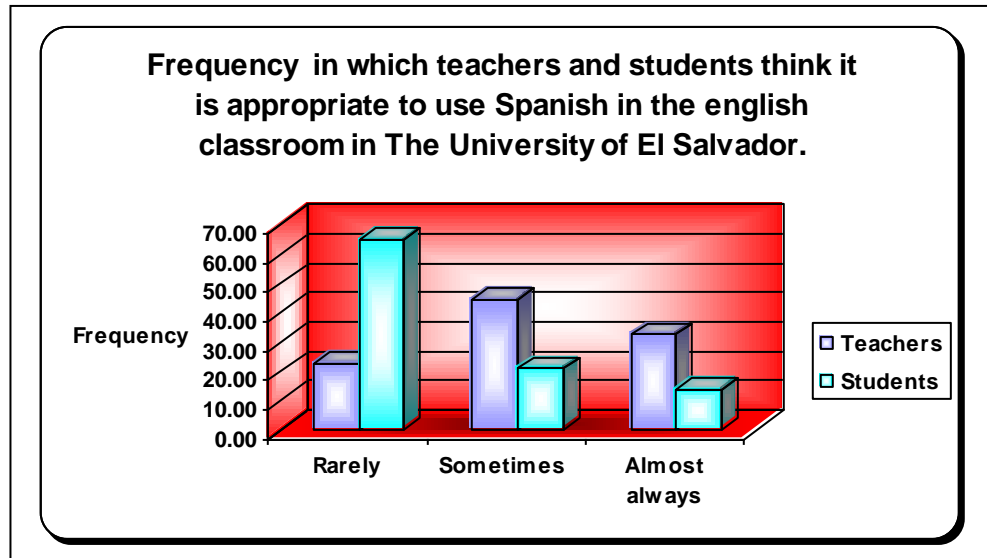
The 76.7% of teachers prefer the use of the native language in a rarely manner for testing and the 62.7 of students to give instructions in the classroom.

The highest percentages indicate that both teachers and students are in agreement with the use of English in the classroom either to test or to give instructions more than the use of only Spanish.

This reflects a good use of English in class and also, it is important to mention that during the observations, it was proved that Spanish is used in a rarely manner because there is a high exposure to speak English and also because these universities demand a high intermediate level of English and the previous studies students had in high School. So this makes students able to take the English career easily.



**Teachers and students questionnaire analysis
UES**



In the questionnaire for teachers and students, it was asked the situations in which Spanish should be used.

The 32.6% of teachers remark that they use Spanish almost always to explain different concepts or ideas. The 14% of students use also almost always the mother tongue to understand better the class. Another situation was for explaining grammar points and help define new vocabulary, which the 44.7% of teachers mentioned that they sometimes use L1 in the situations mentioned before. The 21% of students also consider the use of Spanish sometimes to explain grammar points.

Finally, the 22.7% of teachers sustain that for testing, Spanish should never be used.



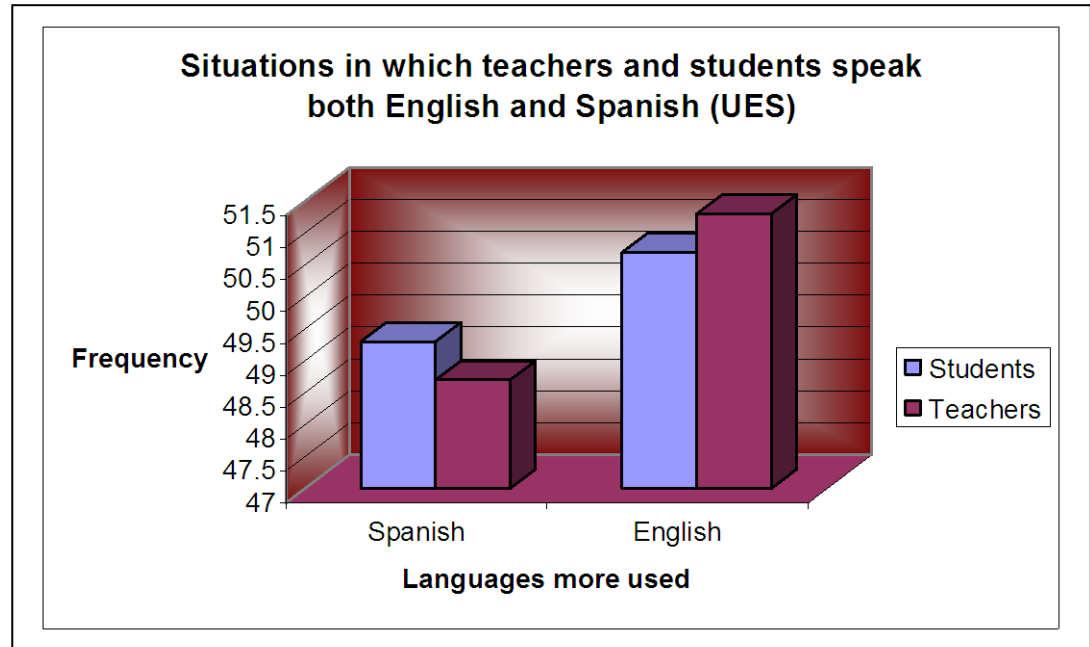
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A 65% of pupils answered that to give instructions for evaluations or assignments, Spanish should not be allowed either.

So it can be noticed that Spanish is mainly used by teachers to explain difficult concepts or ideas and to explain grammar points and to help define new vocabulary in order to have a better comprehension from students but these consider that for giving instructions in the classroom, they should use English, in this way, they are encouraged to talk the second language in an EFL classroom.



**Teachers and students observation analysis
UES**



This analysis aims to state the situations in which teachers and students speak both

English and Spanish in class. And answers are summarized as follows: firstly, using the different teaching techniques such as: mimics, synonyms, drawing or examples a 48.7% of teachers almost always use English to explain grammar, meaning of a word, phase or sentence, give directions, encourage class, ask for understanding, and treat errors.



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Concerning to students, the 49.3% almost always use the second language to answer questions based on discussion tasks, use short sentences, phrases and expressions and work on reading comprehension and grammar exercises tasks. Mostly this was observed, in the specialized area in which the students' proficiency level was low, nevertheless, in the rest of the subjects teachers always use English in their classes. According to the observations this contrast is due to teachers who teach Basic, Intermediate and Advance levels were supposed to teach English and help them to really understand what they were asked to do or say, and teachers from the rest of the subjects like: Literature, Didactics, Syntax, and so on assumed students already know the language, so this makes them to try to understand even it was very hard for them.

Secondly, 24.7% of teachers sometimes use Spanish when they thought students did not or could not understand their English grammar explanations, meanings of a word, phrase or sentence, asked for comprehension of tasks and repeated students' utterance. A 26% of students almost always use the mother tongue to talk among them about the lesson developed in the classroom and other subjects not related with the class.

Teachers use Spanish only after first giving instructions in English, apparently to ensure that every student was clear about what was said; also they used Spanish



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instructions to call the students' attention and make them follow the teacher. Besides, teachers use Spanish when they explained abstract or culturally-specific words. Moreover, teachers use Spanish because of their students low proficiency level in English, students fail to follow them when they only use English to explain something.

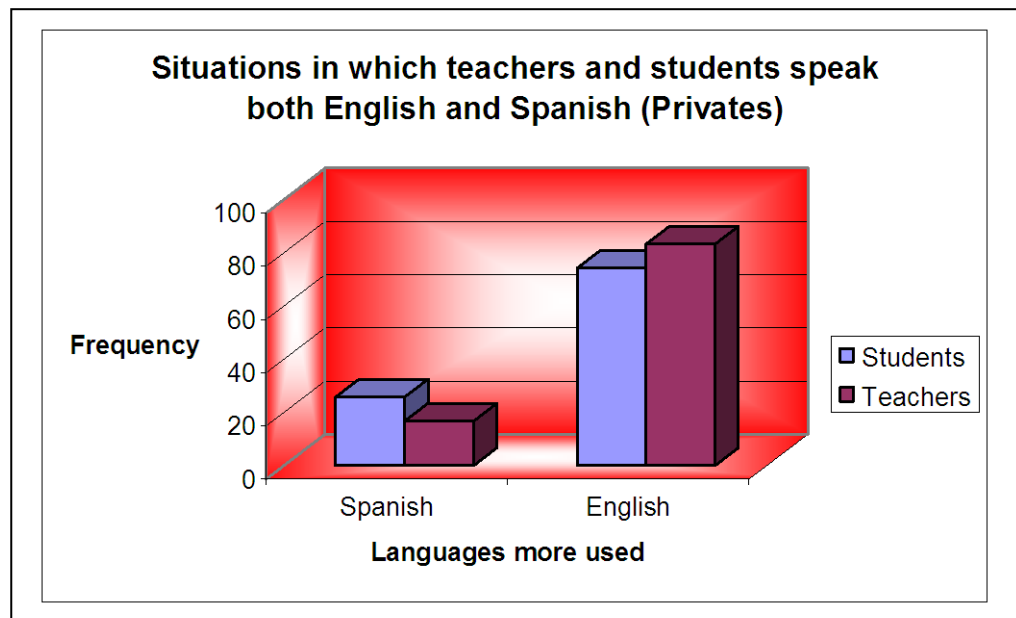
Besides, even though teachers said that the use of Spanish in the English classroom could have negative effects such as: it hinders students learning, students get accustomed to use only Spanish and it creates independency of the L1. Observations demonstrate that the 26% of the students who use Spanish feel more secure and increase their comfort level. For example, some teachers used to group students together, making sure group contained students with different skill levels so that students can help each other. By doing this students were more comfortable and happier because they could perform different activities in English or in the native language, even the teacher does not allow them to use Spanish.

As a conclusion Spanish was used in occasions when English explanations fail to work, and frequently in the Universidad de El Salvador happens because most of the students who enter the University have limited English proficiency which means that it is their first time to be exposed to English-only instruction. Hence the L1 plays a supportive and facilitating role in their learning process.



Teachers and students observation analysis

Private Universities



A 83.3% of teachers use English to explain grammar, meaning of a word, phrase or sentence, give directions, encourage class, ask for understanding and treat errors.

And a 74.2% of students use English to ask and answer questions, to talk based on the lesson and subjects other than lesson based, use short and complete sentences, present oral evaluations and participate in short conversations.



Besides a 16.7% of teachers use Spanish to explain grammar, meaning of a word phrase or sentence, ask for comprehension of task, and repeat students' utterance. Related to students a 25.8% use Spanish to ask and answer questions, talk about topics not related with the class and explain meaning of words, phrases or sentences.

According to the interviews 54.2% of students had previous English knowledge and it could be observed that for the ones who did not manage the English skills were pushed to speak in English during classes or outside the English classroom. Moreover, this made the job easier for the teacher since they do not have to go on deep for making sure their students really understand.

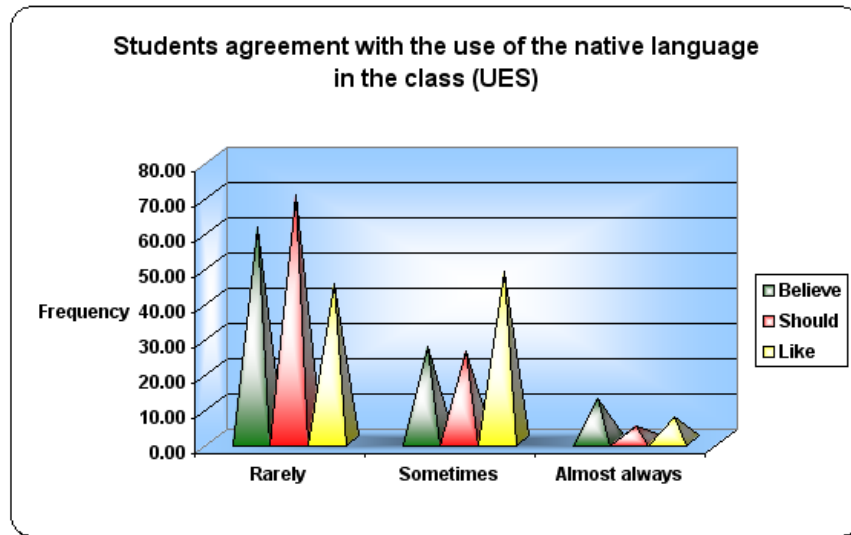
In some private universities Spanish was not allowed in the English classroom. Very rarely teachers use Spanish and there was no problem for the majority of students but some of them 25.8% did not know what exactly they were asked to do, so they asked classmates for explanations.



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Teachers and students interview and questionnaires analysis.

(UES)



Some questions, researchers asked to students from National and Private universities are the following. “Do you like your teacher to use Spanish in the English class? ; Should Spanish be used in the English class? And Do you believe Spanish use in the English classroom helps you learn this language? The previous questions were also used to determine if students were in agreement with the use of the native language in an English class.

The data collected is presented as follows : The 48.4% of students from the UES answered they liked teachers to sometimes use Spanish just when it was really necessary to give grammar explanations, to explain difficult concepts or to explain



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grammar structures, to give advice to students, to translate a word or a phrase etc. As it is showed in the graphic.

In addition, another 44.8% of students from the same university liked their teachers used the native language rarely times just when students did not understand a class, to express personal ideas related to class, to give meaning of words, etc.

And the rest of students which were the 6.8% of them preferred the use of Spanish frequently or almost always during their classes due to most of the time they got confused.

Related with the second question “Should Spanish be used in the English classroom?,” the 70.3% of students expressed that Spanish should be used in an English class rarely times due to they were interested to learn English but in some occasions the use of the native language is a good instrument for teachers.

Moreover, the 25.4% of pupils said that sometimes Spanish should be used in an English class, to explain difficult grammar points for example. And the lowest percentage which is the 4.3% of learners thought Spanish should be used in an English class every time to feel the learning process more comfortable and easier.



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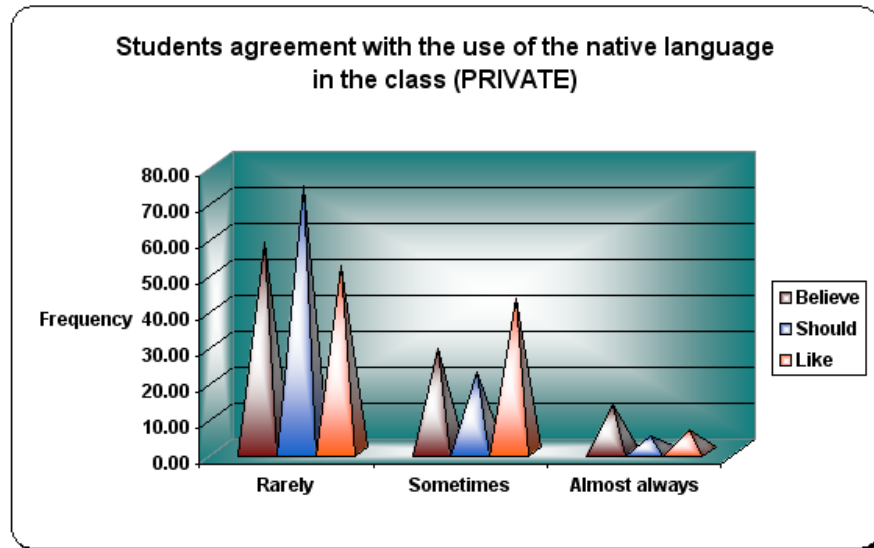
To talk about the third question which is “Do you believe Spanish use in the English class helps you learn this language? The data collected is :The 61% of students from the UES believed the Spanish use in their English class rarely can help them learn more English due to the frequent use of the native language in class they could not practice the second language as it is required.

In addition, the 27% of pupils from the same university believed that the use of Spanish sometimes helped them learn the second language because there was less stress and more students’ participation during English classes. And the last 12% of learners believed the use of Spanish always helped them learn English as a second language due to they could participate during classes.



Teachers and students interview and questionnaires analysis.

(PRIVATE)



In private universities the data collected by questionnaires and some interviews is the following: The 51.6% of pupils from privates universities liked their teachers used Spanish in the English class just in specific situations such as when learners did not understand the class or when they did not know how to say a specific word or phrase, most of the time they rarely used their native language.



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Moreover, the 42.6% of learners from the same universities said that they liked their teacher to sometimes use Spanish in class, just to clarify doubts, to translate a word or phrase, to explain grammar points. And finally, the 5.8% of students enjoyed teachers used Spanish in their classes due to it was easier for them to understand everything in class by using their native language.

Should Spanish be used in class? The data collected from the same students sample expressed that 73.8% thought Spanish should be used rarely in an English class; in some occasions it was necessary but not always because the teachers used different techniques and methods to teach English as a second language.

Furthermore, the 22.1% of learners said that sometimes Spanish should be used in class to help students understand the class better. Finally, the 4% thought Spanish should always be used in an English class to have a successful learning process.

Another important opinion to clarify if students were in agreement with the use of Spanish in an English class is the following: the 58.4% of pupils from private universities said that they believed Spanish rarely could help them learn English as a second language due to it could interrupt their process of learning.



The use of the Native Language in the English Classroom

Moreover, the 28.6% of them believed Spanish sometimes could help students learn English as a second language. Finally, the 13% of pupils believed that to use Spanish in an English class always helps students learn English better due to it helped to create a good environment until they were studying the foreign language.

During observations researchers realized that most of learners, preferred or tried to use the second language in the class but when it was really difficult for them to express their ideas or opinions in English they used Spanish.



Students interview analysis

Due to the number of students sample, few of them were interviewed with questions like: When do you think it is necessary to use Spanish in the English class?. The most predominant answers in the Universidad de El Salvador were when students do not understand the class, for explaining grammar points, new vocabulary and giving instructions for evaluations or homework assignments.

Both Private universities and The University of El Salvador mentioned that it is essential the use of the native language when something is not clear and to give instructions in the classroom, to explain grammatical instructions and new vocabulary

In the question, which could be the effects of using Spanish in the English class? the students from Universidad de El Salvador provided answers such as the lack of English practice and therefore the low learning of this language as a negative effect but they mentioned a positive effect such as a better understanding of the target language. The negative effects provided in the private universities were the low learning of English and the custom to use L1 to understand L2 yet they also mentioned a positive effect as in University of El Salvador, both sustained that using the mother tongue is a tool for learners.



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In the third question it was asked to students to mentioned the situations in which the teachers use Spanish. According to students from Universidad de El Salvador, teachers use L1 to help students to understand difficult concepts better and for translating specific words. In the private universities, students coincide with UES students because their teacher clear students' ideas or concepts when they are lost by using Spanish and to give general information related with the classroom as well.



Difficulties



8 DIFFICULTIES

As in every research some difficulties were faced during the process of investigation, and the most relevant are:

- ❖ Some teachers did not like the idea of being observed or interviewed by investigators, they seemed uncomfortable with researchers present in their classes, they did not have time to be interviewed, they did not want to answer the questions with their personal point of view. Moreover, teachers schedule was a difficult factor for researchers due to it was not easy to meet them out of classes. Those teachers attitudes were one factor that contributed negatively in the investigation process.

- ❖ In addition, some students attitudes were not in favor to the study due to they did not want to fill the questionnaires, some of them did not answer all the questions; also they did not give personal opinions. Within an investigation, students participation is really important because each piece of information is necessary to complete the research but some of them did not realize that.

- ❖ Another difficult aspect for researchers were the schedules due to they were different in each university. It was really hard to come to an agreement with them because researchers had to organize their time with universities schedule.



- ❖ This organization was really hard due to it was necessary to observe different levels like basic, intermediate advanced English and some of them were single groups in the morning or at night, researchers time was limited in the morning because of their jobs.

- ❖ In some cases when researchers arrived to universities they did not find the teacher and the class which was being observed because their schedule was different from the original one. They were in another classroom or they had changed the schedule. Investigators had to look for the teacher in charge to talk about but the situation required more time.

- ❖ The last difficult researchers had to face was related with technology due to data had to be saved in a specific program. Investigators did not have any experience on it. They had to ask for extra tutorial sections twice. That was the principal reason why the data analysis process was prolonged too.



Conclusions



9 CONCLUSION

The results of the present study on the use of Spanish in the English classroom show that teachers and students from University of El Salvador (UES) and from the private universities (UFG, UTEC, UPES, UCA) justify the use of the mother tongue either positive or negative manner although it is important to get accustomed to talk and use the target language in order to improve it and in this context, the EFL classroom is the only place in which English is more focused.

The teachers and students participating in this research indicate that the translation of some words, complex ideas, or even grammatical structures is a good way to learn a foreign language. However, this study reveals that in an EFL classroom, Spanish plays a supporting and facilitating role, even though, the main objective in the class is the communication in English, the use of the mother tongue is a means of improving foreign language proficiency.

It was also observed that there is a high motivation to learn English from the beginner levels, and for weak students the use of the mother tongue is a vital tool to achieve a better comprehension of the L2 and it does not matter the major of the teachers since there were teachers that have studied and lived in countries such as England and The United States with different cultures than ours and they are in total agreement with the use of the mother tongue in a rarely manner and in isolated situations specially in the beginner levels because according to their opinions, if the students learn to use the mother tongue to achieve an improvement of English from the beginning, when they are in higher levels, they will reduce the use of L1 to speak



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the L2 and this is not considered as a “losing of identity”; on the contrary, it is seen as to success academically and to get better employment opportunities. So Spanish should be used only when it is necessary to learn English better.



Glossary



10 GLOSSARY

EAP stands for English for Academic Purposes. This covers activities such as the reading skills necessary to understand academic papers, taking notes, writing summaries, writing essays and so on.

EFL: English as a foreign language. Originally this term referred to non-native speakers who are learning English language in a non-native English environment, for example, Koreans, Chinese, and Japanese learning English in Korea, China, and Japan. This can be contrasted to ESL. However, now ESL has become a standard term to mean learning English by a non-native speaker regardless of the environment

ELT stands for English Language Teaching - a general term that includes EFL and ESL.

EPP stands for English for Professional Purposes, such as English for workers in the tourist industry, English for computer programmers and so on.



ESL: English as a second language. Originally this term referred to non-native speakers who are learning English language in an English language environment, for example, immigrants to the U.K., Canada, or the U.S. This can be contrasted to EFL.

ESL programs are likely to have students from a number of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They tend to be taught exclusively in English (the teachers may or may not have any foreign language background), although some teachers working with homogenous groups may rely on L1 explanations. Teachers tend to be native speakers of English (although this is by no means a hard and fast rule). ESL teachers tend to find themselves obliged to deal with cultural issues, as classes may be comprised of individuals from a number of different cultures, and many students have questions about the new culture in which they find themselves. ESL is studied by people trying to survive in a country new to them. They may often be working-class people whose aims are to deal with everyday language and sometimes with administrative issues. Many may have no previous foreign language learning experience. Of course, there are other aspects to ESL and EFL and the differences between them. This is just a basic overview.



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ESOL stands for English for Speakers of Other Languages. This is a general term that includes EFL and ESL.

ESP: English for Specific Purposes. This includes English for scientists, English for academic purposes, English for doctors/health care workers, tourism English, and English for international conferences

Fossilization: When an error becomes a habit of speech in a second language learner. This happens especially when the error does not interfere with communication, and hence, the speaker does not get corrective feedback.

Interlanguage: In the process of acquiring a second language, a language learner may acquire forms of language that are in between their first language and their target language. This can happen when, for example, they incorrectly apply rules of their native language to the target language, or they have not completely learned the full extent or limitations of a rule's use and so misapply it systemically.

Interlanguage may seem completely logical and correct in the mind of a language learner. It may also be a part of a natural learning process where rules get more



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refined as more input is received. However, if learners fail to receive corrective feedback, these interlanguage forms may fossilize

L1: L1 is an abbreviation for first language, or mother tongue. Sometimes it is used to refer to speakers who are speaking their mother tongue. Often contrasted with L2.

L2: L2 is an abbreviation for second language, or a language that is not the mother tongue. Sometimes, it is used to refer to speakers who are speaking a second language. Often contrasted with L1.

Language acquisition / Language learning Language acquisition is the process by which children learn their native language. They can achieve full competence in speaking without any formal instruction.

Language learning is the process by which we learn a language through formal instruction. Adults taking English classes are learning the language, not acquiring it. The distinction sometimes becomes blurred, as in the case of children learning a



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second language at school, or an adult “picking up” a language by living in the country but not taking language classes.

TTT and STT: Teacher Talking Time. The trend in ESL/EFL pedagogy has been to limit the amount of time that the teacher is talking and increase STT (Student Talking Time). TTT is often associated with a teacher-centered classroom and STT with a student-centered classroom.

However, there are some problems with the view that student talking is good for students. For one, communication should be meaningful. Two, at the lowest levels, students may not be able to communicate effectively with each other. Three students may teach or reinforce each other's bad habits or incorrect expressions and grammar. Four, students will lack pragmatic competence in English and will not be able to pick it up from each other. A lot of research has shown that language is for the most part input driven. That is students learn most when they are being given sufficient comprehensible input.



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Universal grammar: This is an innatist view that all people are born with some knowledge of language. Linguists use this hypothesis to explain how it is we can acquire a language with a 'poverty of stimulus' or not enough input to account for the complexity of output. Essentially, we are all born with the capacity for any kind of language. This is not to say we are born with knowledge of the particular rules of our own language, but rather general or universal principles of all languages. This innate knowledge allows us to select a particular language based on a few instances of input and produce very complex output that we have never encountered as input. One example of a kind of principle proposed by universal grammar theorists is the innate parameter. Essentially, we are born with parameters of language and minimal instances of input will allow us to figure out how to set the parameters for our own language (keep in mind this is a subconscious process). Evidence for this is found in the head-first or head-last parameter of language, which has been uncovered: In English, phrases are head-first: that means that a noun is at the head of a noun phrase, a preposition is at the head of a prepositional phrase, and verb is at the head of a verb phrase. Our innate parameter is such that if one of these phrases is headfirst, they all will be. And hence a few utterances whereby a child understands that a preposition heads a prepositional phrase will allow the child to correctly construct other phrases too. In Korean and Japanese, prepositional phrases are head-last and accordingly, so are the other phrases. This will resonate well with any English speaker who has studied Japanese or Korean and discovered that everything seems to be backwards.



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The Innatists claim that this is an example of the parameter having been set differently.



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