UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

INVESTIGATING THE INFLUENCE OF L1 ON THE TEACHING AND

LEARNING OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AT ST. PETER'S R/C JHS IN

SOMANYA IN THE YILO KROBO MUNICIPAL

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of the requirements for the award of the degree of
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NOVEMBER, 2020

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Frank Agyapong Kweku Oduro, declare that this thesis, with the exception of the quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.
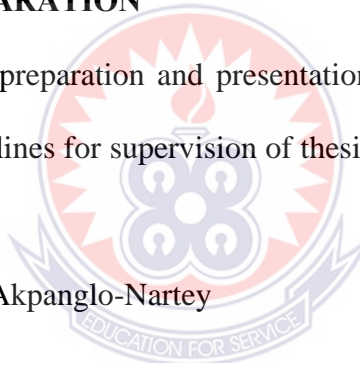
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SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work were supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Dr. Mrs. Rebecca Atchoi Akpanglo-Nartey

SIGNATURE …………………………………

DATE ………………………………………...

DEDICATION

Mr. Stephen Yaw Amaning my dad, Mrs. Agnes Otiwaa Oduro my mum, Mrs. Hilda Akosua Agyapong my spouse, Nana Kwakyewaa, Maame Otiwaa and Papa Kweku Amaning-Agyapong my children.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of L1 on the teaching and learning of English language at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal. The purpose was to examine the L1 factors that militate against L2 teaching and learning and determine strategies that could help overcome the challenges of L2 teaching and learning. From a total population of the school summing up to 374, the researcher selected a sample size of (85) consisting of forty-six (46) girls and thirty-nine (39) boys using the purposive sampling (non-probability) technique for the sample selection. Data used for the analysis was drawn from observations, pre-test and a post-test conducted within three weeks. Data were analysed and presented on tables using frequencies, percentages, and pie charts for illustration. The study found that the differences and similarities of the L1 interferes with students' acquisition of the L2 that has impacted negatively on pupils' ability to grasp vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and pronunciation. Also, the major effect of the L1 on the L2 was pupils' inability to read and understand (comprehension) during teaching and learning in English. The grammar-translation method, audio-lingual, visual methods, functions, notion and communicative language teaching strategies were deployed in overcoming the challenges of pupils in developing the L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal. The researcher recommends that native teachers ought to reduce their use of the L1 during instructional hours but continue to guide and sustain its cultural values. Schools should also intensify training for both pre-service and in-service teachers so that they gain a better understanding of the role of the L1 and L2 in communication and an understanding of multicompetence, linguistic relativity and usage-based approaches should be engaged for second language learning and teaching.
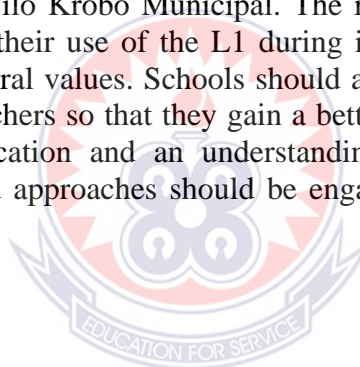
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Language is a method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires employing a system of arbitrarily produced symbols for physiological as well as psychological survival. In a multilingual Ghanaian Society, where English acts as a second language, our aim of teaching English is not to develop British or American accent but to help the learners to overcome regional accents, wrong pronunciation and gradually train them in proper articulation. This research aims to discuss the mother tongue influence in the process of English Language learning and how a teacher can help to overcome some of the problems encountered by learners as well as to improve his/her communicative competence.

Learning a foreign language is a growing need in this age of globalization (Richards and Rodgers). When confronted with something new, whether it is a new food, a different kind of music or just new information, it is an instinct to look for similarities with things that are familiar to us and to draw some comparison with what we know already.

Due to Globalization, every aspect of our world is transforming. In the present scenario, those who are well versed in English can reap its benefits, those who are not being marginalized. The changing and fast-evolving times have witnessed the growing importance of English language in all spheres of life. Conscious and unconscious use of English words in our everyday conversation bears evidence to this fact. Language learning is a great fascinating experience especially the learning of a second language,

but the influence of mother tongue has become a very important area and is usually referred to as "Language Interference, Transfer or Cross-lingual Influence" (Rutherford, 1983, p. 53). Language learning entails the successful mastery of steadily accumulating structural entities and organizing this knowledge into coherent structures which lead to effective communication in the target language (Rutherford, 1987). In reality, second language learners appear to accumulate structural entities of the target language but demonstrate difficulty in organizing this knowledge into appropriate coherent structures. There appears a significant gap between the accumulation and the organization of knowledge.

A relatively high frequency of errors is found in second language learning if the structure of the L1 and that of the L2 of the learners are very different, (Dechert, 1989). This is an indication of interference of L1 on L2 (Dechert, 1989; Ellis 1997). Ellis (1997, p. 51) refers to Interference as "transfer" which he says is the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of L2.

A second language learner tends to transfer his habits from his mother tongue to the second language system. This transfer of L1 linguistic features to L2 is called Interlingual Interference (Ferris, & Hedgecock, 2014). This interference, according to Ferris, and Hedgecock, (2014), maybe: Interference of the First language items with the second language items where both possess certain similarities or interference of L1 items in L2 items which do not possess similarities. At points of similarities between L1 and L2, the second language learner employs their L1 learning strategies and techniques in their L2 learning. But at places of differences, the learner faces difficulties. So second

language teachers should be very careful in employing their teaching strategies to help learners to overcome such difficulties.

The English Language has become the dominating medium of communication, especially in the upper and Junior High School education. The decision championing the use of L1 with L2 in our Ghanaian schools has become a dilemma. This has been so since 1965 till now (Johnson, 2016). The teachers' communicative tool in the teaching of all subjects, centres on the use of the English Language (Phillips and Lonigan, 2012).

The concept of profile dimension was made central to the syllabus developed from 1998 onwards with the sole aim of describing a particular learning behaviour (Phillips and Lonigan, 2012). The policy which recommends the use of L1 has become one of the greatest dilemmas in the foreign language class for nearly a century (Medgyes, 1999). In Ghana today and years before, the enforcement of L2 only in our classrooms had taken a center stage thereby forcing educational institutions including the Basic 4 up to the Tertiary level and beyond to follow suit, (Phillips and Lonigan, 2012). In Ghana, the language policy permits teachers to use English from the upper primary, precisely Primary 4 to the tertiary institutions. They are of the view that the use of L1 should not be introduced at all in the teaching of L2.

In Ghana, the learning of English implies the acquisition of two major abilities or behaviours. These behaviours are Productive Skills and Receptive Skills. The knowledge and understanding acquired through teaching in the area of listening and reading are referred to as the "Productive Skills" while listening, and reading is known as "Receptive Skills". (Phillips and Lonigan, 2012, p 27). The assumption is that the learner at the upper

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primary level has reached a stage where proficiency is required to enable fast and easy communication with others (Phillips and Lonigan, 2012).

There are so many research works carried out on the use of L1 in the L2 classroom, and these have received considerable research attention. This research work sought to investigate the amount of L1 use and the functions of L1 use in the L2 classrooms to find out how the L1 influences the teaching and learning of the L2. Results from other research works prove that some learners asked teachers to use the L1 to explain concepts more clearly (Johnson, 2016; Ferris & Hedgecock, 2014). Others mentioned that learners did not respond so well to teachers' instructions when only English is used in the teaching process. Findings also prove that the advocates of L1 and L2 usage coherently will foster learning and teaching (Marzban, & Jalali, 2016). The primary aim of this research work is to investigate the influence of L1 on the learning of the English language. The study shall focus on a cluster of schools in the Yilo Krobo Municipal, St. Peter's R/C JHS, based in Somanya, the capital town of the Municipal.

Throughout history, the use of L1 in the teaching of L2 has become a bone to contend with. The use of the "L1 is like a skeleton in the closet", (Prodomou, 2000, p 36). Since 2009 and beyond as a teacher of English Language in my school, I have realized that most teachers of English as a Second language, teach the subject with a particular aim and objective in mind. Those that the teachers hope to achieve at the end of the lesson and those that learners must exhibit which should be in line with the set objectives of the teacher. Despite the experiences these teachers may have acquired throughout teaching, they do not influence teaching and learning as expected as students face so many challenges in their classrooms. The major concern of the Curriculum Research and

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Developers in Ghana Education Service is targeted to teaching learners to acquire knowledge and understanding and appropriately use the knowledge gained to solve problems within and outside the classroom work, (Phillips and Lonigan, 2012).

Here the child is expected to acquire and exhibit four (4) skills which include Listening Comprehension which is 10%, Reading skill also 30% of the work to be carried out in the classroom, speaking skills which is also 30% and lastly, acquisition of writing skills which is worth 30%, (Johnson, 2016). These objectives by the CRDD, 2012 suggest that learners must exhibit two major abilities or behaviours. These include Knowledge and Understanding, and Listening and Reading, (Johnson, 2016). Here, the researcher shall find out how learners of the L2 can identify the principles of grammar acquired through a set of instructions given out in the classroom by the teachers of English Language and how the learners can exhibit meaning to the instructions by either positive or negative response in their exercise books and oral communication.

The researcher shall find out how learners can apply the skills developed from the L1 classroom to evaluate situations in the English class. The skills which shall be of interest include: the ability of the learner to compare features of different things and draw conclusions, contrast, criticize, justify, discuss, support and conclude on amount of information available to the learner in the English Learning class.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

More than 46 languages are spoken in Ghana. As with many other countries on the continent, Ghana is struggling to find an effective policy for language in education. According to Owu-Ewie (2006), at present Ghanaian children are taught for the first five

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years of school in their language while they are gradually exposed to the English language, before shifting to English as the medium of instruction in the upper primary and beyond.

Using a bilingual (Ghanaian language and English) methodology, the country is implementing a policy to promote teaching pupils in kindergarten through primary grade three to read and write in their local language (one of 11 selected Ghanaian languages) while introducing them to spoken English, and by class two, to write English. The approach is designed to be a transitional one in which local language literacy is used as a bridge to English literacy. The programme also serves to encourage and celebrate the use of local languages as a valuable aspect of Ghanaian culture.

Many parents and education officials, however, continue to agitate for English to be used as the medium of instruction from the start. It is worth debating whether these concerns are justified and on what basis such propositions are made. It is in this light that the study is taken to investigate the influence of L1 in the learning of English Language, a case study of St. Peters's R/C J.H.S in Somanya.

1.2.1 Diagnosis of the Problem

The problem was investigated by the researcher who found out that:

i. During English lessons, pupils did not contribute to the lesson indicating difficulty in the correct use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation

ii. Also, pupils' comprehension was defective showing inabilities to conform to the appropriate syntactic structures in the L2.

iii. Pupils were taught in abstract leading to the overuse of the L1 in explaining certain concepts leading to challenges in developing the L2.

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1.2.2 Evidence of the Perceived Problem

With the diagnosis above, the following evidence was gathered.

i. Majority refusal to speak English for fear of being mocked by other pupils.

ii. Low marks scored in classwork and homework.

iii. Refusal to do and submit classwork and homework.

iv. Failure to submit classwork and homework on time.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to use fluency based activities to eliminate the influence of L1 on the learning of English Language at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal. It was to aid students to gain adequate skills in reading comprehension and to inculcate a practical approach in dealing with difficulties reading comprehension.
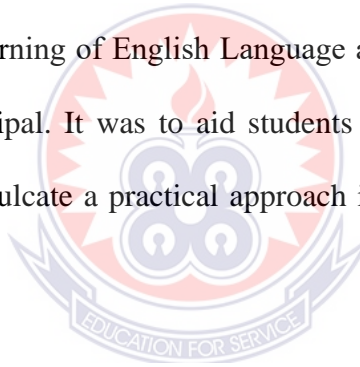
1.4 Objectives of the study

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

1. Examine L1 factors that militate against the correct use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation in L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

2. Examine the effects of L1 usage in the teaching of English comprehension at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

3. Design strategies for overcoming the challenges of pupils in developing the L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

1.5 Research Questions

The study sought to find answers to the following questions:

1. What factors in L1 usage militate against the correct use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation in L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal?

2. What are the effects of L1 usage in the teaching of English comprehension at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal?

3. Which teaching strategies are used in overcoming the challenges of pupils in developing the L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal?

1.6 Significance of the study

This study provides useful information to all education stakeholders who include the government, Ghana National Examination Council, Ghana Ministry of Education, teachers, students, parents, and the community at large. The information about the influence of the use of mother tongue in secondary schools will not only be useful in Municipal but also in Ghana at large.

Specifically, the school administration will be able to garner information that will be helpful in their endeavour to address school's language policy issues in terms of focus on the use of mother tongue in school and how it influences performance in English and by extension academic performance. Consequently, a school teacher can utilize the information, findings, and recommendations to look for ways and means of coming up with informed language polices.

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The findings also benefit teachers by providing them with information to re-examine their personal and professional practices in terms of use of, intending to improve students' performance in English. Parents or guardians, on the other hand, can use the research recommendations to help them to contribute positively to their children performance in English. Students also benefit from the findings by identifying personal characteristics in terms of their interaction patterns with colleagues and thus pick the right practices that can enhance their performance in the English language.

Finally, the research contributes to the existing knowledge on the use of mother tongue and how it influences the performance of English. The study provides information on the issue for future researchers in identifying priority areas in which to carry out more research in terms of use of language in the context of secondary schools. The findings may also serve as useful feedback to language policy makers, curriculum developers and implementers.
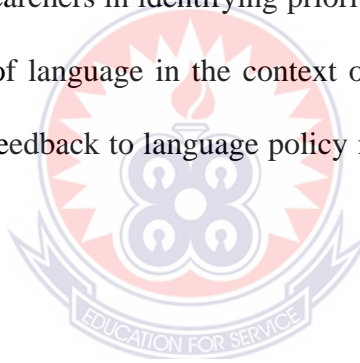
1.7 Delimitation

The study was delimited theoretically to the influences and effects of L1 on English in terms of vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and pronunciation and syntactic structures. Geographically, the study was delimited to St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

1.8 Limitations

The study was conducted at St. Peter R/C JHS in the Yilo Krobo Municipality. Taking into consideration that the location is not bilingual enough as majority speak

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Dangme, assessing the influence of L1 on the English language will be limited. This is because if different languages (L1) are spoken, it gives a clearer picture of the actual impact. After all, the pronunciation of certain sounds is different depending on the L1 that a learner is exposed to. The sample for the study is not representative enough to generalize the outcome of the study. This is because carrying out an important study such as this research would have meant taking samples from various schools within the municipality but the time frame for carrying out this research work made the researcher limit the work to St. Peter R/C JHS.

1.9 Definition of Terms

First Language: (L1, Native Language, or Mother Tongue): Is a language or languages a person has learnt from birth or that a person speaks best.

Second Language: a language that a non-native speaker is in the process of learning.

Code-Switching: when a speaker alternates between two or more languages or language varieties in the contest of single conversation.

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language Acquisition

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

Monolingual Approach: This is a view held by language researchers. They expressed an opinion that the target language should be the only means of communication in foreign language teaching. They have the strong belief that by practice, the use of L1 in ESL classroom should be prohibited.

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Bilingual Approach: This is a view held by a school of thought in the language research fraternity which argued that L1 represents a powerful source that can be used to embrace foreign-language learning but should be used in a principled way.

1.10 Organisation of the Study

The study is organized into five (5) chapters. The first chapter deals with the introduction which gives an insight into the background of the study, the purpose of the study and the research questions which serves as a guide to the study. It also deals with the significance of the study, the delimitation, limitation of the study.

Chapter two focuses on the review of related literature on the topic. The review covers L1 influences on L2 learning in the areas of vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, pronunciation; effects of L1 on teaching L2; attitudes of teachers and students about the use of L1 in English lessons. It comprises the definition of concepts, theoretical framework, and the empirical framework.

Chapter three comprises of the methodology used in the research. It highlights the research design, the study area, the population, sample, and sampling techniques used in the study. It again describes the instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure and ethical consideration. The analysis of the data collected for the study opens chapter four. It also contains the analysis of the questionnaires with the research questions and the subsequent discussion of the findings with literature.

Chapter five deals with the summary, conclusion, recommendations, and suggestions made on the topic for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter comprises the definition of concepts discussed in the study. It dealt with the theoretical, the conceptual and the empirical framework. Literature was reviewed on L1 influences on L2 learning in the areas of vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, pronunciation; the effects of L1 on teaching L2; and attitudes of teachers and students about the use of L1 in English lessons.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

L2 Learning: Behaviourists, Innatist and Interactionist Theory

Behaviourism gave birth to stimulus-response (S–R) theory which strives to explain L2 learning as the acquisition of a set of structures through the process of habit formation (Powell, Honey, & Symbaluk, 2016). It only takes into account the linguistic environment and the stimuli produced by the L2 learners without regarding any internal mechanisms involved in learning the L2. Since behaviourists believe that learning is an observable behaviour, automatically acquired from stimulus and response through mechanical repetition, L2 learning is nothing more than acquiring automatic linguistics habits.

Chomsky (1976) counterattacks the theory of Behaviourism by bringing into light his concept of Universal Grammar (UG) in which every human is biologically equipped to learn the language using the language faculty or the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), which is responsible for the initial stage of language development. Based on the

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UG theory, the input from the environment alone is not sufficient to determine the success of L2 learning. The learners are viewed as processors of a mind that contains language and not just by the repetition of mechanical aspects of language (Mitchel & Myles, 2004).

The Interactionists claim that language maturation results from the complex interplay between the unique human faculties and the environment of the L2 learners. Long (1985) and Rashid (2016a) stress the importance of interactional modification to L2 learners which makes the input comprehensible, therefore facilitating and promoting L2 learning. He argues that there are no cases where L2 learning occurs without some sort of modification on behalf of the native speakers to assist L2 learners in learning the target language. Nonetheless, there has been no conclusive evidence to suggest that comprehensible input affects L2 learning (Davies & Elder, 2004).

Rooted in Interactionist theory is social constructionism which is associated with Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural perspective on learning. As highlighted by Rashid, Rahman, and Rahman (2016), constructionism is the most widely employed epistemological position in recent research on language learning. It is useful to discuss sociocultural theory based on the two themes proposed by Wertsch (1991, p. 18) as the themes reflect the 'assumption' of a sociocultural approach that "action is mediated and that it cannot be separated from the milieu in which it is carried out". The two themes are: 1) individual development, including higher mental functioning, originates in social sources; and 2) human action, on both the social and individual planes, is mediated by tools and signs.

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The first theme is based on the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86), which is defined as: "the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers". Based on the definition of ZPD, it is clear that Vygotsky (1978) views language acquisition and learning occur from the interactions with other people, especially the more capable others, such as teachers or friends who are more fluent in the language. The second theme is based on Vygotsky's (1981, p. 137) concept of semiotic mediation where "language; various systems of counting; mnemonic techniques; algebraic symbol systems; works of art; writing; schemes, diagrams, maps and mechanical drawings; all sorts of conventional signs and so on are all important in mediating social and individual functioning, and connecting the social and the individual". Vygotsky's semiotic mediation thus suggests that knowledge is not something directly internalized but rather, is developed through the use of socially-created 'psychological tools', that is, the shared interactions between individuals (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996, p. 193).

Similarities and Differences between L1 Acquisition and L2 Learning

McLauhglin (1981) argues that comparing and contrasting L1 acquisition and L2 learning means comparing and contrasting different learning situations, various input received and diverse cognitive and linguistic skills of the acquirers and learners. To provide a relevant explanation, he further recommends four contexts of learning to explain the process of being bilinguals. Firstly, children who received balanced exposure to two languages develop both languages in the same way as monolinguals. In the

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beginning, children work from a single set of rules and in the process of learning, generally, mix up both languages but gradually, both sets of rules for separate languages will become differentiated. Secondly, if, however, the exposure to both languages is less balanced, the continual linguistic transfer may exist and there may be a high frequency of the introduction of the vocabulary from L1 into the grammatical system of L2 and vice versa. Thirdly, it is believed that there is a single language system that underlies both languages of the bilinguals. Fourthly, bilinguals develop two subsystems for L1 and L2 to make inferences about the structural complexity of both languages.

Saville-Toike (2012) and Zaid, Zakaria, Rashid, and Ismail (2016) support McLaughlin's (1981) claim by stating that linguists attempt to explain the similarities and differences of L1 acquisition and L2 learning by taking into account the linguistic competence, which is the underlying knowledge of that particular language and the linguistic performance, referring to the actual production by the learners at various stages of L1 acquisition or L2 learning. He states that behaviourists explain the success of acquiring L1 and learning L2 through a process of imitation and habit formation. On the other hand, Innatists claim that when a language is successfully acquired or learned, it is because humans have built-in mental or cognitive processes to represent the L1 and L2 in the brain. The Interactionists believe that group-related tasks account for the successful acquirers of L1 or learners of L2. Their theory also extends to communicative competence or pragmatic competence, aside from linguistic competence and linguistic performance. Communicative competence is an individual's ability to use language appropriately and in a socially acceptable manner. However, it should be kept in mind that no one, solid, linguistic theory can provide the ultimate

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explanation for the similarities and differences of L1 acquisition and L2 learning as many factors influence the success in language acquisition or language learning.

Relationship between L1 and L2: Behaviourist Theory

Behaviourists define learning as a permanent change in behaviour, where the learners have no free will and are shaped entirely by their external environment (Ludescher, 2010). To be successful in L1 and L2, parents or teachers need to provide positive reinforcement whenever children or students perform the desired behaviour. In time, they will learn to perform the behaviour on their own.

In Behaviourism, there are two types of conditioning—classical conditioning and operant conditioning. Classical conditioning happens when learning occurs involuntarily when there is a conditioned response to a neutral stimulus after having been paired repeatedly with an unconditioned stimulus. In other words, classical conditioning can be likened to a reflex reaction. This theory can be used to explain L1 in children. When parents are trying to teach children manners, for instance, saying "thank you", the parents may (without them being aware of this particular behaviourist theory) train their children to politely say "thank you" or "please" by giving their children a toy or food and explaining to them that every time someone gives them something, they are supposed to say "thank you". Also, when they want to have something or ask for permission, the parents would teach the children to say "please" before proceeding with their request. Over time, the children learn how to say "thank you" and "please" even without their parents reminding them or without associating the utterance with giving the children something or letting them do something or go somewhere. The act and the language are learned naturally and become a habit for children.

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Operant conditioning, where a favourable response that is given from a stimulus will be rewarded (reinforcement), can aptly justify L2 learning. In a formal classroom, when the teacher asks a question (stimulus) and if a student answers correctly (response), the student may receive a candy (reinforcement) from the teacher. Soon, this student will be motivated to answer questions that are posed by the teacher because the student knows every time a question is answered correctly, the respondent will get a reward (the reward may not necessarily be something physical, sometimes praise or approval will do). Other students in the classroom would also compete with each other to get the right answer for they will also be given a reward for every correct answer. However, if the students provide the wrong answer, the teacher would execute negative reinforcement or punishment. With a balanced and alternate use of positive and negative reinforcement, the teacher can control and train the students to learn L2 successfully.

Relationship between L1 and L2: Innatist Theory

One of the best-known Innatists, Krashen (1982), attempts to distinguish between L1 acquisition and L2 learning as he believes that there are two ways to develop language competence. Firstly, language acquisition, which is a process similar to the way children develop their ability in L1; it is done subconsciously in the same way language acquisition happens. The language acquirers are usually unaware of the fact that they are acquiring language, resulting in acquired competence where they generally have a "feel" for the correctness and when sentences "sound right" or "feel right" without being aware of the specific grammatical rules. He posits that the language acquirers are only aware of the language that they are using during the communication process.

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The second way is through language learning, where the process of learning L2 is done consciously. The L2 learners learn and know about the language rules, are aware of these rules, and can talk about them. Some people call L2 learning formal learning or explicit learning. In contrast, language acquisition is also known as informal learning or implicit learning or simply, picking up a language. Krashen (1982) makes a distinction between acquisition and learning, stating that acquisition is implicit and subconsciously acquired in informal situations while learning is explicitly and consciously done in formal situations. Moreover, acquisition occurs when the language acquirers make use of grammatical "feel" while language learners use grammatical rules. The acquisition of language depends on the language acquirers' attitude while language learners' success depends on aptitude. Also, language acquisition happens in a stable order while language learning is usually organized from simple to complex to ease learning.

Krashen (1985) introduces five hypotheses to explain language acquisition and language learning. First, in The Natural Order Hypothesis, learners acquire rules of language in a predictable order. Second, in The Acquisition/Learning Theory, learners have two distinctive ways of developing competence in L2—acquisition is where the learners use language for real communication, while learning is where the learners know about the language. Third, in The Monitor Hypothesis, L2 learners are conscious of their learning process and this monitor can be used as an editor of their L2 progress. Fourth is The Input Hypothesis, where language learners acquire language by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input. Fifth, in The Affective Filter Hypothesis, there is some sort of mental block that prevents input from entering the LAD. When the affective filter is low, knowledge of the language can be acquired more easily or in

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simpler terms, when the learners' anxiety is lessened and their defensiveness to learning a language decreases, they will be more receptive to learning a language, thus creating an optimal learning environment where successful language learning can occur.

L2 learning bears a resemblance to L1 acquisition according to the Innatist Theory. Children acquire language through interacting with the people around them, for instance, parents who accommodate children with 'Baby Talk', where the speech is typically slowed down, enunciation is more precise, and the tone is nurturing. Similarly, 'Foreigner Talk' or 'Teacher Talk' is used in an L2 classroom where native speakers speak in different ways to L2 learners to ensure a safe and non-threatening atmosphere, at the same time, allowing the input to be absorbed better by giving time for the L2 learners to be fully prepared and ready to produce the target language. Furthermore, when comprehensible input is ample, both children and adults are more successful in the acquisition and learning of languages as more comprehensible input means greater language proficiency. Likewise, a lack of comprehensible input equates with poorer language proficiency.

Relationship between L1 and L2: Interactionist Theory

The Interactionist Theory has been contributed to largely by Vygotsky and his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) Theory. In explaining his notion of ZPD, Vygotsky (1978) argues that: "Utilizing copying, the child can perform much better when together with and guided by adults than when left alone and can do so with understanding and independently. The difference between the level of solving tasks that can be performed with adult guidance and help and the level of independently solved

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tasks is the zone of proximal development" (as cited in Erben, Ban, & Castaneda, 2009, p. 53).

When children come across a problem that they cannot solve by themselves, they seek help from the people around them like their parents, siblings, or immediate family members (Rashid, Mohamed, Rahman, & Wan Shamsuddin, 2017). Therefore, this effort of collaborating with others is an important step in acquiring L1 for the children. Without this collaboration, language development is not possible. Vygotsky believes that children take part intellectually in their community by using language. The collaboration between the children with members of the community will spark development in language through the process of negotiating to mean.

Those learning L2, for example, in a language classroom, benefit for the teacher's assistance and classmates' help to learn the language productively. Since the classroom can be considered as a community of its own, with its own rules and authorities (class monitors or teachers), the classroom can be a simulation of real-life tasks, in terms of communicating with each other and getting to know how interaction takes place in different contexts and situations. Moreover, the teacher can exemplify real social interactions employing varying classroom activities like role-playing, drama, choral speaking, or simply by grouping students to work cooperatively with their classmates, whom they know personally and are comfortable to be with so that they have little or no problem communicating using the L2 to negotiate the task given by the teacher. They would also feel safe to speak up and not feel threatened or embarrassed if they make any mistakes while interacting using L2 among their peers.

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The Interactionist Theory relates the language development of acquirers or learners to social interaction (Rashid, 2016b). Ziglari (2008) divides social interaction into interpersonal and intrapersonal. Interpersonal interaction occurs when the acquirers or learners are communicating face-to-face via an oral medium or written medium. In contrast, intrapersonal interaction happens inside the acquirers or learners as they try to construct meaning as a response to a phenomenon. Doughty and Long (2003) further clarify the term interaction by stating that interaction happens when participants of equal status who share the same needs, try to make an effort to understand each other. Gass and Torres (2005) add to the Interactionist Theory that interaction refers to exchanges of information in which some utterances are not understood and it is through the process of error corrections that the attention of the acquirers or learners is drawn to the particular language structures. Gass and Torres believe that input plus interaction will enhance language acquisition or language learning.

Implications for Teachers

For teachers, classroom management and the pedagogical techniques in the classroom will pretty much be influenced by how the teachers view L1 acquisition and L2 learning. If the teachers adopt the Behaviourist Theory, they would most probably rely heavily on rote learning using repetition to fossilize the behaviour of students. To substantiate, if the students answer correctly, the teacher would praise the students to positively reinforce the desired behaviour. On the contrary, if the students make some mistakes, the teacher would put negative reinforcement into effect such as reprimanding the students or repeating the students' answer but with an applied correction. Teachers who adopt the Behaviourist Theory in their language teaching would view language

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learning as a learned behaviour which can be altered, modified, and reinforced using positive and negative reinforcement.

Teachers who believe in the Innatist Theory would most probably adhere to a more student-centred classroom where the students feel at ease and are not threatened by the teacher and their peers. The teacher would ensure that the students' anxiety about embarking on a new voyage of language learning would be safe with 'life-jackets' and 'buoys' which students can grasp in moments of 'near-drowning' from the unknown and confusion of unfamiliar terms and grammar rules of the L2. The teacher would also most probably delay the inevitable language testing to avoid students clamping shut when it comes to communicating. The teacher would foster a 'silent period' where the students are not required to provide output, instead, they would just receive the input for an inordinate amount of time. Eventually, students would muster enough courage and confidence to gather all the input received and provide reasonable output.

Teachers who adopt the Interactionist Theory as their guiding principle in language teaching would try to get the students to participate in collaborative group work, where the students can put their social skills to good use as a stepping stone towards successful language learning, as these teachers believe the more the students use the language interactively, the better their chances of learning the language effectively. The teacher would also most probably administer a diagnostic test before the language class begins to group students of more or less the same linguistic ability to make their communication attempts viable and meaningful. Students might be required to write a short journal or blog post as a form of intrapersonal communication to detail their progress in language learning. After all, Interactionists believe language learning works

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best when the language is practised and is being put to use, ideally in both interpersonal and intrapersonal communication.

2.3 Conceptual framework

Language

A language is a systematic means of communicating ideas by the use of sounds, gestures, signs or marks. It is the code used to express oneself and communicate with others. It is the mental faculty or power of vocal communication (Rough, 2012). Any means of communicating ideas, specifically human speech, and the expression of ideas by the voice and sounds and articulated by the organs of the throat and mouth is a language. This is a system of combining words to create meaning used by a particular group of people. Language is something specific to human, that is to say, it is the basic capacity that distinguishes human from all other living beings. Language, therefore, remains potentially a communicative medium capable of expressing ideas and concepts as well as moods, feelings and attitudes (Rough, 2012).

Mother Tongue

Mother tongue is one's native language which is learned by children and passed from one generation to another. It is their natural language or first language. Mother tongue is the language that one learns from his parents when one is a baby (Tulasiewiex and Adams, 2005). Another definition for mother tongue is that language which "denotes not only the language one learns from one's mother, but also the speaker's dominant and home language", i.e. not only the first language according to the time of the acquisition, but the first concerning its importance and the speaker's ability to master its linguistic and communicative aspects. Mother's tongue is closely associated with culture. Hence, it

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is the language community of the mother tongue, the language is spoken in a region, which enables the process of enculturation, the growing of an individual into a particular system of linguistic perception of the world and participation in the century's old history of linguistic perception (Tulasiewiex and Adams, 2005).

The philosophy of second language acquisition

Marysia (2004) observes that language acquisition is innately determined and that we are born with certain systems of language. This is supported by different linguistic scholars. For example, Chomsky (1975, p.26) asserts that each human being possesses a set of innate properties of language which is responsible for the child's mastery of the native language. He further argues that this language mechanism defines the forms in which language may take. The innate properties of language are as well underlined in the philosophy of idealism. Plato puts it that, "we are born possessing all knowledge and our realization of that knowledge is contingent on our discovery of it.

Brown (2003, p. 21) claims that filter is responsible for extent in which the learner's acquisition of the second language is influenced by the social circumstances such as motivation and effective factors like anger and anxiety. The organizer determines the organization of the learner's language. It organizes the usage of incorrect grammatical instructions and provisional precursors, grammatical structures, the systematical occurrence of errors in the learnt item.

Brown (2000, p. 278) puts forward the affective filter hypothesis by stating that it is easier for learners to acquire language when they are not tense, angry, anxious or bored. According to Marysia (2004, p.39), performers with an optimal attitude have a lower effective filter. A low filter means that the performer is more open to the input

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language. According to the theory of second language acquisition, communicative competence is very necessary. Hacking (2005, p. 12) defines competence as what a speaker needs to know to be fluent in speech. This involves both language and ability for language use. Hacking (2005, p. 13) underlines four dimensions of communicative competence that are defined as linguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. To realize these competencies, it is logically appropriate for learners to develop a general knowledge of the language they want to understand and produce. Hurst (2004, p. 26) argues that things we know and use automatically may not necessarily be learned through the gradual build-up of automaticity, but they may be based on the interaction of knowledge that we already have. They may also be based on the acquisition of new language which somehow fits into an existing system and may restructure the system.

As outlined by Tharp and Gallimore (2008, p. 9), native speakers possess pragmatic competency that places language in the institutional setting of the use, relating intentions and purpose to the linguistic means at hand. Philosophy of second language acquisition has a place in the study under investigation. Learners in Ndhiwa Sub County, as elsewhere in the world, have innate nature in the acquisition of the second language. It may mean that they possess internal process in the acquisition of the second language; for instance, their acquisition of the second language (English) can be influenced by social circumstances such as their Mother Tongue (Dholuo). Their acquisition of the second language (English) may depend on the interaction of the knowledge they already have (knowledge of Dholuo). Learners are advised to use their internal process in learning English as a subject in their curriculum. English is a second language to these learners.

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Therefore, their ability to achieving fluency demands a commitment to four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and exposure to an environment where the language is practised.

The Five Stages of Second Language Acquisition

The process of Second Language Acquisition occurs in stages. To examine SLA, it is important to look at the 5 stages of second language acquisition. According to Haynes (2007), the first stage is Preproduction and is also referred to as "the silent period" where learners gradually build up their vocabulary to about 500 words without speaking the language but more echoing the language. Then there is the second stage called Early Production and at this stage, learners will have around 1000 word vocabulary with the capacity of constructing words in short phrases and memorize and use short language forms although not necessarily correctly (Haynes 2007). Haynes talks about the third stage, Speech Emergence, where learners have acquired around 3000 words and should be able to speak short sentences and simple phrases. By now, learners should be able to engage in conversation and ask simple questions. Also, they can understand short stories if they are supported by pictures.

The 4th development stage, Intermediate Fluency, he explains that the learners have an active vocabulary of 6000 words. Also, he adds that students can now form longer and more complex phrases both spoken and written with grammatical errors but demonstrate excellent comprehension (Haynes 2007). The last developing stage is called Advanced Fluency and as he points out, it takes around 5- 10 years to achieve proficiency in second language acquisition and by now the learners are considered near-native. Indeed, Haynes says that on the surface it might look quite effortless to learn a second

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language but various factors can have an impact on the learning process such as motivation and age (Haynes 2007).

Teacher's use of L1 in teaching the English language

In recent years, numerous studies (e.g., Al Masaeed, 2016; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Bruen and Kelly 2014) have held either a maximal or an optimal position, claiming that L1s may play a positive role in the L2 classroom. For example, Antón and DiCamilla (1999) found that the L1 can play a crucial role in overcoming students' L2 task problems by creating a social and cognitive space in which students can help each other through the tasks at hand. Interaction in the students' L1 can perform the functions of "construction of scaffold help, the establishment of inter-subjectivity, and use of private speech" (Antón and DiCamilla, 1999, p. 245) and thus enable learners to complete meaning-based L2 language tasks. Hence, L1 can be an effective learning tool in pair or group work; students can revert to it to achieve the goals of particular L2 tasks and to help each other overcome learning challenges (Storch and Aldosari, 2010).

Polio and Duff (1994) conducted one of the earliest studies to shed light on L2 teachers' in-class linguistic behaviours. They investigated when teachers tend to use their students' L1 rather than the target L2, and identified the functions of that usage. The study found that teachers and students' use of their shared L1 in the L2 classroom enhanced the L2 teaching and learning process. For example, the study suggested that the L1 was used in the L2 to provide translations for unknown L2 vocabulary items which may help students to better understand the lesson.

Taking a different approach to teacher perspectives on L2 usage, Cook (2001) found that teachers were aware of the need to expose learners to the L2 as much as

possible, and so implied that any L1 in the L2 classroom is essentially detrimental and should be excluded. In other words, teachers feel guilty for using L1 in L2 classes. Therefore, Cook called for licensing L1 use in the L2 to give teachers absolution from the guilty feelings which they experience when they revert to their L1.

Students' functions of L1 use current communicative language teaching approaches to the L2 classroom encourage the use of small group work, such as pair work, as an effective method of increasing the opportunities for learners to be exposed to the L2 (Storch and Aldosari, 2010). However, it has been noted that many L2 teachers do not favour group work since study use their L1 throughout group tasks without any effective control (Storch and Aldosari, 2010). At the same time, as mentioned earlier, using the L1 can help students to overcome learning difficulties. Lucas and Katz (1994), for example, observed that pairing L2 students who share an L1 allowed more fluent partners to help their less fluent partners.

Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) studied the functions that are served by students using their L1 in pair work. In the study, twenty-four university students were split into 12 pairs; six pairs shared the same L1, while the other six did not. The pairs were asked to complete two tasks: a text reconstruction task, and a short joint composition task. The learners' talk was audiotaped while they were working on their tasks. Data analysis of the same-L1 pairs revealed four main functions were achieved through the use of the L1 during the tasks: task management in which students communicate in the L1 to discuss how the task should be completed and structured; task clarification in which the students used the L1 to discuss the meaning of the task instructions; vocabulary and meaning in which students reverted to their L1 to discuss lexical choices and the definitions of some

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words; and grammar in which deliberations were held regarding grammar points. In follow-up interviews, the same-L1 students showed an awareness that using the L1 enabled them to discuss the structure of the tasks in greater depth, which helped them to complete them more easily and quickly. The study concluded that L1 usage can be a beneficial means of facilitating the L2 learning process during group work and allowing L1 use in the L2 classroom can provide learners with a significant cognitive tool for L2 learning (Artemeva, 1995).

A second study by Storch, this time with colleague Aldosari (Storch and Aldosari, 2010), shed further light on the functions of L1 use by L2 students. The study was conducted at a University College in Saudi Arabia in which Arabic was the L1 and English was being taught as a foreign language. Thirty-six first-year university students participated in the study. The participants were placed in three groups according to their proficiency level: six pairs comprised of two students from the high proficiency group (H-H); six pairs comprised of one high proficiency student with a lower proficiency partner (H-L, and six pairs comprised of two lower proficiency students (L-L). All groups were asked to complete three tasks jigsaw, composition, and t over three weeks. All the pairs' conversations were audio-recorded.

2.4 Teaching pedagogies used in L2

Grammar-translation method (GTM)

The grammar-translation method was first used to teach the classical languages, Latin and Greek (Chastain, 1988, as cited in Freeman, 2000), and the use of the learners' mother tongue was considered to be necessary to assist the L2 teaching-learning process (Mahmoud, 2012). However, although it was and still is, in widespread use in KSA, it is

not advocated by all (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Fareh (2010) indicates that there are some obstacles that Arab learners (e.g. Saudi EFL students) may encounter in EFL learning; two of these are inconvenient language teaching approaches, such as using GTM and exposure to English.

GTM mainly emphasise 'literary texts', vocabulary and grammar rather than verbal production of the TL (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Freeman, 2000). Its focus is on comprehending the system of the FL instead of knowing how to produce the L2 in communicative situations (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Moreover, the nature of GTM means it revolves mainly around the interaction between the L2 teacher and the learners in the classroom, with a lack of student-student interaction (Freeman, 2000). Maclntyre and Gardner (1991) found that university students with language anxiety faced obstacles in speaking the TL and preferred the GTM and the use of L1, as they were not required to talk in the language, which resulted in their underestimating their capabilities. Language anxiety, concerning the Saudi context, will be discussed in a later section of this chapter. The following section will discuss the audio-lingual teaching approach.

Audio-lingual, Visual methods, functions, and notions

The audio-lingual approach was prominent between the 1930s and the 1970s; it involved teaching and learning an FL through drills, in language laboratories (Castagnaro, 2006). This approach was related to Skinner's (1957) principles and originated from behaviourism, depending on repetition, drills and the use of textbooks to formulate and practise the TL to develop communicative skills, with a focus on grammar (Richards, 2002), as tends to be the case in the Saudi context. This approach also focused

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on structure and form rather than meaning, as well as on memorisation methods (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983).

Following this approach, audio-visual methods emerged in the mid-1970s in France (Molina et al., 2015), employing language, which encompasses meaning and contextualisation. Materials that were used for this method include tapes and filmstrips used for repetition, memorisation and drills to practise the TL structure (Molina, et al., 2015). More recently, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), which could be considered an audio-visual method, was developed. With this method, students can use innovative materials such as videos on computers to develop their language learning (Beatty, 2003). Beatty (2003, p.7) states that CALL is 'any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language', and as it is an independent learning method, it may not involve the communicative practices and interaction that can be found in the classroom.

Another approach that could lead to communicative situations is 'functions and notions'. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) report, analysed the communicative meanings that an FL learner requires to express and comprehend. They divided communicative meanings into notional categories such as time, sequence, location, quantity and frequency, while communicative function indicated complaints, offers, requests and denials in the TL. This potentially enables learners to use the TL structure by using language structure in a variety of context to explain ideas and introduce topics that involve the concepts those EFL students are discussing (Richards, 2006). The communicative approach, which involves communicative language teaching, will be discussed in the next section.

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Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the TL classroom

A communicative approach may be considered an extension of the functional-notional approach in that each shares the same process by focusing on meaning and the use of authenticity in their materials (Skehan, 2006). CLT was developed to replace the previous methods practised in FL teachings, such as the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods (Warschauer and Kern, 2000). CLT has served a beneficial purpose for the language teaching profession for several years (Bax, 2003). The CLT approach was developed by Hymes (1972), who suggested that the approach should take account of the language involved rather than just setting out a group of phonological, grammatical and lexical rules (Hiep, 2007). Hiep (2007) argues if EFL students wish to use the L2 appropriately, they must develop communicative competence. Hymes notion of communicative competence was also promoted by other language scholars such as Canale and Swain (1980), who considered communicative competence as encompassing grammatical competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and sociolinguistic competence (please see p. 31 for further information), while others (e.g., Breen and Candlin, 1980) contend that communicative competence is the aim of learning an L2 (Hiep, 2007).

Since the emergence of CLT as a widely-used approach in the early 1980s there have been debates regarding its definition (see Richards, 2006) and the suitability of its practice in a variety of cultures (Hiep, 2007). In the communicative approach, the assumption is made that L2 students will require a focus to be placed on the development of communicative competence, and this cannot be accomplished without realistic communication strategies (Skehan, 2006). Richards and Rodgers (2001) indicate that

CLT can be considered an approach rather a method. Richards (2006, p. 2) states that CLT 'can be understood as a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teacher and learners in the classroom'. In other words, CLT is an approach that may contribute to facilitating the learning of an L2 (e.g. English) and enhance interaction, as both are the purpose and the ultimate aim of language learning. Crichton (2009) argues that the use of CLT may involve learners in using the TL in interaction in the language classroom.

Brown (2000) suggests 'interconnected' characteristics of CLT; first, the classroom aims to give attention to all elements of communicative competence: function, strategy, grammar and discourse. Second, the language used by the teacher is chosen to engage the learners in the genuine, functional and meaningful use of the language. Organisational language forms are not the focus, but rather aspects of the language that support the learner in accomplishing these aims. Third, as noted by Brown (2000), fluency and accuracy are generally regarded as important communicative techniques; however, in some circumstances, it might be necessary to focus on fluency rather than accuracy to keep the learners engaged.

Brown (2000) offers several characteristics of CLT related to naturalness. Interaction involves naturalness in communication, as the conversation and discussion are similar to those in a real-life situation in terms of the process of understanding and making themselves understood. Moreover, naturalness is a result of the cooperation among speakers, and of their conversation having 'no pre-defined goal and the negotiation of topical coherence [being] shared between the participants' (Warren, 2006,

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p. 13). According to Richards (2006), if CLT means teaching conversation, it may be inferred that it is an open-ended talk and negotiation activities ought to be meaningful and include everything that learners may need in language learning.

Richards (2006) also claims that the goal of CLT is the achievement of 'communicative competence', which can be related to what is called grammatical competence. Grammatical competence as Richards argues indicates the capability to perform and structure a meaningful sentence in the language. Furthermore, Savignon (2002, p. 3) emphasises that CLT is related to learners' needs, and states that 'learner communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating program goals in terms of functional competence'. Savignon (2002) suggests five factors of communicative materials and curricula that may assist the CLT's practical and theoretical; while all of these are important, those most relevant to this study and the context investigated are: 'Language for an objective' refers to the production of the L2 for actual communication aims.

'Outside the classroom door' indicates students' preparation to use the L2 in an informal setting (real-life situation). Corresponding to Sauvignon's factors, which are related to the materials, part of the criticism that has often been levelled at Saudi ELT is that the materials are not relevant to the learners' communicative situations, and can therefore not achieve that functional competence Sauvignon refers to. This implies that the EFL students lack communicative competence as a result of an inadequate curriculum, inefficient materials (textbooks) and tasks used in those materials of ELT in the Saudi context (Rababaa, 2003; Al-Seghayer, 2007; Abu Ellif and Maarof, 2011). Similarly, Khankar (2001) found that the elements of the ELT curriculum or textbook

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materials did not emphasise cultural aspects and problem solving to make learners discuss and communicate in English outside the language classroom.

2.5 Approaches to Language Acquisition

Communicative competence

Richards (2006), refers to grammatical competence as the knowledge that an individual has regarding a language to form language expressions such as phrases, sentences patterns, parts of speech, clauses and tenses. Although grammatical competence is an essential dimension of learning a language, it is plain that it is not the only element involved in learning a language and it is possible to be competent in grammar without achieving great success in terms of using the language in communication and vice versa (Richards, 2006). Besides, aspects of language knowledge which are derived from communicative competence may include the awareness of the language for several functions and purposes: 'Strategic competence': how to differentiate between the informal and formal by the setting and participants of the language use.

'Discourse competence': how to perform and comprehend various types of text, for example, reports, conversation and narratives. 'Sociolinguistic competence': how to maintain communication despite experiencing obstacles in an individual's language knowledge (Canal and Swain, 1980; Richards, 2006).

Furthermore, as these functions can be significant in communication, Saudi EFL students are likely to need them to develop their overall communicative competence.

Moreover, communicative competence may be developed from the use of communicative interaction that includes meaning. Nevertheless, how it is developed depends on the L2 teacher's perception of what communication refers to, and how it can

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be integrated into the students' context (Hiep, 2007). Several techniques in ELT can be used in the L2 classroom, two of which are presentation, practice, production (P-P-P.), and task-based teaching and learning, these will be discussed below.

The P-P-P approach

The P-P-P cycle is a sequence of three phases in a model of a lesson, which is referred to as the situational approach (Richards, 2006). Similarly, it is an approach used deductively that can be adopted into the structure of a lesson, in which the L2 instructor presents the TL, illustrates the structure assuring the students' understanding and provides the students with the opportunity to perform the planned tasks in using the new language in a controlled context (Richards, 2006; British Council, 2006). Richards (2006) proposes that this type of grammatical teaching method can provide a link to functional and skills-based teaching, and accuracy activities such as drill and grammar practice have been replaced by fluency activities based on interactive small-group work.

Task-Based teaching and learning method

Chambers (1999) and others suggest that to assist learners in making a connection between their classroom activities and the outside world, learning through interactive activities is an approach that could encourage the use of English language communication skills. More specifically, the simulation of a real-life situation can help learners to relate what is taught in the classroom to events in their everyday lives, such as buying something in a shop (Holden, 1981). A task-based learning approach can convey to learners some notion of how the TL can be used in a real-life language situation. Ellis (2000) describes task-based learning as a 'work plan'. Further, according to Skehan

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(2003), four criteria can be used to make the distinction between a task and an exercise. These are: content is crucial; there is a specified target to work towards; the outcome of the activity is evaluated, and there is a connection with the real world (e.g. travelling on an aeroplane). Tasks can encourage language learning, as they usually need learners to work in pairs or groups, which they generally find enjoyable. Harmer (2001) argues that tasks encourage language acquisition through the types of language and interaction they require. Hence, when learners complete tasks and achieve goals, this is an indication that they are motivated (Brophy, 2005).

These language teaching approaches and methods discussed above, with all their practices and strategies, might contribute to allowing EFL students to use the TL in the L2 classroom through employing communicative activities set in real-life situations with relevant tasks and materials (Rabab'ah, 2005; Richards, 2006). However, a post-method teaching approach could also be selected as a package that might include a variety of approaches and methods, comprising procedures of 'eclecticism', adopting a particular teaching approach or method that is deemed appropriate in the L2 classroom (British Council, 2009), such as the Saudi context's L2 classroom. This could lead to a new era of language teaching approaches (Galante, 2014), as will be discussed in the following section.

Post-method teaching in the TL classroom

The shift between language teaching methods or approaches could enhance awareness of the complexity of the nature of L2 teaching and learning (Galante, 2014). The reason for this is, as Galante (2014), argues, concerns the appropriate path or method that L2 teachers implement and their role in that respect, and the aims of the EFL

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students. The employment of several language teaching approaches and methods in FL classrooms between the middle and the end of the 20th century appears to have resulted in the assumption that there is no guarantee that anyone, single teaching approach or method exists that is or appears to be consistently successful or appropriate (Brown, 2014). It has been reported in the domain of ELT that a number of these teaching approaches are unlikely to be adopted in L2 classrooms (Fat'hi et al., 2015). This is due to the likelihood of complications in some circumstances, such as considerations arising from the specific context in terms of applying a certain L2 teaching approach (e.g. CLT), as Bax (2003), Hiep (2007), (Galante, 2014) and Al Asmari (2015) argue. The context can include ethnic, social and economic elements, consistent with Brown's (2014) hypothesis noted above. Furthermore, there may be difficulties in terms of the awareness of a particular approach's use, leading to deficiencies in its practical application, implying that further training and a shift in personal teaching beliefs might be required (Hiep, 2007 and Allwright, 1991). This has led to the introduction at the beginning of the new millennium, of the post-method teaching era (Galante, 2014).

The post-method teaching era emerged in response to a desire to find an optimal teaching approach that could be free from the constraints of one restrictive method (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Post-method teaching is a more 'democratic approach to language teaching profession since it assigns a voice to practitioners and respects the type of knowledge they possess' (Akbari, 2005, p. 5). Kumaravadivelu (1994) proposes three characteristics of post-method teaching. He highlights that it is an alternative to a method, as it requires moving beyond the concept of methods and approaches. It encourages the autonomy of language teachers to support them in the implementation of a reflective L2

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teaching approach of their own. Such autonomy could be significant in terms of the development of L2 teachers' teaching practices and is considered to be 'the heart of post-method pedagogy' (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 548). Also, it stimulates English language teachers to analyze the teaching context and to make decisions throughout their teaching practice. This 'forms teachers' context-based knowledge of their classroom teaching' (Fathi et al., 2015, p. 309).

The post-method approach places L2 teachers at the heart of L2 teaching and learning; moreover, it values their knowledge, confidence and teaching experience because they are the ones who are fully aware of the own L2 classroom context (Fathi et al., 2015), and their EFL learners' needs. Awareness of these needs might revolve around considering the EFL learners' identity within their context, as discussed above; when their identity, such as L2 learning experience, languages and culture, is determined, then these EFL students can potentially be engaged in the language classroom and use the TL (Galante, 2014), as will be discussed further in the following section. In other words, English language teachers should provide their learners with a 'safe place' in the language classroom (Galante, 2014). In the Saudi context, this may be through the use of translanguaging, and the use of GTM for Saudi EFL students in order potentially to facilitate L2 learning. Translanguaging will be discussed further. The post- method approach could, as Galante (2014) suggests, support learners, to 'voice their feelings, values, beliefs and experience while learning English is necessary for their engagement in language learning' (p. 60).

L2 teachers are deemed to have significant expertise, as a consequence of their learning experience, previous teaching experience, and knowledge of theoretical

perspectives and practice of teaching methods gained throughout their training as L2 teachers (Prabhu, 1990). Thus, L2 teachers who construct a post-method teaching approach and do not limit themselves to a certain teaching approach or method are likely to be reflective, as they monitor their teaching, assess its outcomes, define issues with and obstacles to L2 learning, provide solutions for these and attempt to use new techniques and strategies (Fat'hi et al., 2015).

The post-method teaching approach attempts to explore the instructional methods appropriate for real-life communication in the L2 classroom, allowing the EFL students not to focus solely on linguistic accuracy, but also to develop their fluency (Fat'hi et al., 2015) in the TL. The success of this method is based on the assumption that EFL students are committed participants in the collaborative adventure of L2 learning and oriented towards the achievement of their goals in terms of performance and production of the TL (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Brown, 2001). Shifting from one method or approach to the post- method teaching approach therefore requires a partnership between L2 teachers and their learners as key players in constructing knowledge (Galante, 2014) of the L2. Language teachers should not be restricted to particular teaching approaches; their main focus should be on their students and the allocation of methods that inspire them and meet their needs, as discussed above, which will support both EFL learners and language teachers to select the most suitable path (Galante, 2014). Thus, this approach may stimulate EFL students, allowing them to use the TL in the language classroom and develop their communicative competence. It has been recognised that the use of TL in the classroom by the teachers may also be influential in developing communicative competence. More discussion about the use of the TL will take place in the next section.

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The Direct Method

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

If one attempts to trace the DM back to a point in time, it becomes apparent that "As a matter of fact, this method had been a common practice in private home tutoring using a foreign language since the 16th century" (Ferreira, 1999:359). Generally, this method of teaching was common before 1800 as increasingly people preferred to teach their children at home. As a consequence of this, there would be a rise in the employment of many Huguenot refugees as private tutors of French with more financially able families.

Berlitz succeeded in founding the highly popular Berlitz language schools in 1878 in Providence, Rhode Island. However, neither Gouin nor Berlitz succeeded in developing his method through scientific or systematic manner. In The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages, Gouin highlights both his failure at learning German through the old method while also detailing the inspiration behind this method. In his book, he attacks the old GTM as it had failed him in attempting to learn German while in

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Hamburg. Gouin undertook this endeavour without the assistance of a teacher, while also adopting the same manner of learning in which he was taught Latin and Greek. After numerous attempts at learning German through employing the same classical method approach and the use of different textbooks, Gouin concludes that the classical method, with its grammar, its dictionary, and its translations, is a delusion nothing but a delusion. Nature knows and applies another method. Her method is infallible; this is an undeniable, indisputable fact. And with this method, all children are equally apt in learning languages. Do they not all learn their mother-tongue, and this within a time sensibly the same? (Gouin, 1892:35).

Gouin's upholds his stance towards GTM and mother tongue used throughout his book. He believes that translation interferes in thinking directly in the FL, doubtless having negative implications in his view. The following passage illustrates his views of the use of the mother tongue: So far as regards our mother-tongue, each of us has learnt the construction directly while learning to think, and we apply it intuitively. Our language is not, therefore, the place to study it, at least with the view of its practical application (Gouin 1892: 279, Swan, and Betis, Trans).

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

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Gouin believes that this manner of teaching, which he models on the way children learn, makes learning a language easier. Gouin works out a linguistic system that ought to include the entire vocabulary of the language to be taught.

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

As Stieglitz (1955) puts it "the objective of the Berlitz Method is the fourfold aim of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing, which emphasizes on speaking from the very beginning. …the primary objective of the method is oral communication …its secondary objective are reading and writing" (p. 300). Additionally, translation in learning a foreign language was an area completely abandoned by this method, "We can develop new speech habits only by continuous practice in the new language, not by consciously applying rules, nor by the translation" (Stieglitz, 1955, p 302). That is, from

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the beginning teachers only present the TL to learners. This was justified on several reasons including the fact that in all translation methods: most of the time is taken up by explaining in the student's mother tongue, while but a few words are spoken in the language to be learned; he who is studying a foreign language utilizing translation does not become accustomed to thinking in it; a knowledge of a foreign language, acquired through translation, is necessarily defective since there doesn't exist for every word of the one language the exact equivalent in the other; furthermore, the ideas conveyed by an expression in one language are frequently not the same as those conveyed by the same words in the other (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004, p 224).

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

Dodson's Bilingual Method

The Bilingual method would develop in the 1960s which supported L1 use in the EFL classroom and regarded as a reaction against the direct method of language teaching. Dodson (1967) developed this method and attacked the direct method arguing that: It is only possible to teach a second language by direct method techniques at the expense of the first language, and it is sheer hypocrisy to claim that the final aim of such teaching

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philosophies is bilingualism. Every aspect of the direct method teaching is directed towards keeping the two languages as far apart as possible, thus destroying the bridge which the learner must continuously cross to and fro if he wishes to be truly bilingual.

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

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

In Dodson's opinion, a good method should promote thinking in the language. He specifies the specific features that a new method should have and these include that it must be simple, needs to train learners in both the written and the spoken skill. Also, it offers an approach to translation which is original. Also, it needs to offer teaching opportunities that nurture teacher-pupil intercommunication. Furthermore, a new method should be flexible allowing for handling different classroom conditions as well as students' abilities. This method aims to make the pupil fluent and accurate in the spoken and written words and aim to make possible the achievement of bilingualism in the true

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sense. The main principles of the bilingual method include controlled use of the L1, the early introduction of both reading and writing and combining the skills of writing and reading (Dodson, 1974).

The technique in Dodson's Bilingual Method of the teacher reading and giving meaning in the L1 is interpreting rather than translating. Subsequently, the students repeat the sentence in the chorus and then individually. Teachers assess students' comprehension through the teacher saying a sentence in the L1 while pointing to a picture, and the students then respond in the L2. It is better understood in terms of PPP (presentation, practice, and production). Teachers support students in achieving conversational proficiency in a short space of time through the use of ordered activities (Butzkamm, 2003).

Alternative approaches and methods

The 1960s also witnessed a significant development in linguistics triggered by Chomsky. This led to a heightened emphasis on the structure of language amongst linguistics as well as teachers. At the same time, psychologists became highly interested in the affective and interpersonal nature of learning. The outcome took shape in the form of new methods that focused on the significance of psychological influences at play in the language classroom. During the 1970s and 1980s, the set of approaches and methods visible would include suggestopedia, Total Physical Response (TPR), and community language learning (CLL) (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Some of these methodologies disapprove of the use of the L1, for example, Total Physical Response; others, for example, Suggestopaedia and Community Language Learning, allow its users to a degree. Although some attention was paid to these methods, it is apparent that they were

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never truly embraced in ELT, giving way after the 1980s to the emergence of another set of methods which draw on new language theories.

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

The second method is Total Physical Response (TPR), which the psychologist Asher (1974) developed. This is based on the notions that learning is improved when students are involved physically as well as mentally. Asher (1977) was guided by first language acquisition in developing his method. These considerations encompassed child comprehension of much of the input received before production of oral utterances. Additionally, the input a child receives is characteristically rich in action and physical manipulation. Such a relationship between action and language aids natural acquisition due to stimulus and response association. Furthermore, in his method, Asher incorporated humanistic principles and paid attention to the affective aspect of language. This model has an obvious audiolingual orientation and similar disfavour of the use of L1.

The final method that I will be covering in this section is Community Language Learning (CLL), developed by Curan (1972). This rejected the hierarchical relationship

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

The attitude of teachers and students towards the use of L1

Many studies have focused on teachers' perceptions and justifications for L1 use in their English classes. Krieger (2005) stated that in a multilingual classroom, using the L1 is not an essential means of interaction. He also mentioned that it makes students feel that they can depend on their native language for communication rather than facilitating TL acquisition. He thought that students use their L1 even when they are not allowed by their teachers. He also believed that teachers should do their best to help students determine when to use their L1 and when to avoid this use.

Lin (2005) elaborated the issue of how learners' attitudes are affected by the teachers' use of learners' native language. He determined that an "English-only" policy is more important in classes with students majoring in English than one in classes with non-major students. Almost all the teachers agreed to use the L1 with non-major students. This study demonstrated that the teachers used their L1 in different ways (as single words

and complete sentences). The study also indicated that the amount of teachers' L1 use depended on students' levels. They used students' L1 more frequently with elementary students than with relatively more advanced students such as university students.

Al-Hadrhami (as cited in Borg, 2008) conducted a study on the use of Arabic in English classes and how it affected the learning process. He held interviews with EFL teachers and observing their classes. The study demonstrated that teachers utilized the L1 in translating new ideas, concepts, and vocabulary terms as well as for classroom management and instructional purposes. Similarly, Al-Buraiki (2008) conducted a study on teachers' perceptions of their L1 use in English classes. The results were similar to those of previous studies, as giving instructions and explaining new concepts and vocabularies were the main reasons behind L1 use. Most participants (teachers) believed that L1 use can aid students in acquiring fluency and it can facilitate English language acquisition. They also thought that L1 use is a time-saving technique, as it takes a longer time to clarify concepts in the TL.

Kim and Petraki (2009) conducted a study of teachers' perspectives regarding L1 use. The research took place in Vietnam and utilized a mixed method of data collection by incorporating questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. Two types of English teachers were examined: native and non-native English teachers. The research deters- mined that native English teachers used students' L1 less frequently than did non-native English teachers. On the other hand, both teachers and students agreed that students' L1 can be used while presenting new vocabularies and expressions, explaining grammatical points and managing classrooms.

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Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz (2011) implemented a study in Iran which examined the amount of L1 use in EFL classes. The research investigated two teachers using two different ELT methodologies. The first teacher based his teaching on GTM, relying on translation from the TL to the students' L1. Therefore, L1 use was quite high. The other teacher utilized CLT, and L1 use was remarkably lower than with the first teacher. The teachers stated that the students' parents gave priority to obtaining high grades over language acquisition itself. In this case, the teachers were forced to use the L1 rather than the TL.

Effects of L1 structure on the teaching of English

The term transfer in language learning is defined by Odlin (1989) as "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired" (p. 27). The transfer is a psychological term that is used to describe a situation where one learned event influences the learning of a subsequent learning event. The influence in this case has two facets; commonly known as interference or negative transfer and positive transfer. Positive transfer or facilitation entails the transfer of skill or part of the native language which facilitates the learning of the target language. On the other hand, negative command of transfer or interference in the transfer of a skill which impedes the learning or has a negative influence on the command of skill in the target language.

According to (Wardhaugh, 1970) transfer is a tool used to account for or explain the errors which occur. He further argues that transfer is the basis for predicting which patterns in the second language (L2) will be learnt more readily and which will prove more troublesome. The assumptions held under this point of view are: the chance of

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second language learning problems occurring will increase proportionally to the linguistic differences between first language (L1) and L2 linguistic differences give rise to negative transfer or interference; the second assumption is that the chance of L2 learning problems occurring decreases proportionally to the absence of linguistic differences between L1 and L2 absence of linguistic differences give rise to positive transfer or facilitation.

Corder (1981) observes that when people are learning a second language, they already have a first language (L1). He also realized that the rules they have learned and understood in the first language are used in the second language (L2). As a result, people form habits of using the rules of the first language in the second language and therefore make errors. These findings are important to this study because the researcher needs to figure out the influence of mother tongue (first language) on the acquisition of English (second language) skills and thus the performance of English.

Researches that have been done in the area of native language show there is the interference of native language on the target language. Various scholars have addressed the issue of interference: Dulay and Burt (1982) consider interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. Lott (1983) defines interference as 'errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue' (p. 256). Ellis (2001) refers to interference "as transfer which he says is 'the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2" (p. 51). He argues that transfer is governed by learners' perceptions about what is transferable in L2 learning. According to Ellis (2001) in learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or

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when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible. This study sought to find out the influence of mother tongue (L1) on the acquisition of English (L2) thus performance. Perception of teachers and students on the influence of mother tongue on English was sought in terms of whether they thought mother tongue influenced the performance of English.

According to Corder (2001), errors are deviations from correct usage because a learner does not know the relevant language rule yet. Furthermore, a distinction between mistake and error is made. Both McLaughlin (2000) and Lott (2003) reveal a criterion that helps us to do so: it is the self-correctability criterion. A mistake can be self-corrected, but an error cannot. Errors are systematic, that is, likely to occur repeatedly and not recognized by the learner

There is a divergent view by scholars about the use of mother tongue in education. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) report of 1953 articulated the significance of using mother tongue as the language of instruction in early schooling. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (1953) observes: It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his [her] mother tongue. Psychologically, it is the system of meaningful signs that in his [her] mind works automatically for the expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among members of the community to which he [she] learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium, (p. 11).

According to the observation above learning using mother tongue hastens the process of learning since the learners are considered to be familiar with the language of

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instruction. However, in the context under study, English is the medium of instruction; consequently, the mother tongue has no place in the teaching-learning process. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2008) maintain that literacy acquisition and second language proficiency depend on well-developed first language proficiency; that is, proficiency in mother tongues. However, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2008) cautions that a mother tongue needs necessarily not be the language which a child's parents use or need it to be the first language a child speaks. Mother tongue is the language, which a person acquires in early years and which becomes his or her natural instrument of thought and communication (UNESCO, 2003). However, mother tongue in most cases will be the language spoken by the parents because the parents are normally the first people to be in contact with the child and hence their language. Also, the question of whether proficiency in mother tongue leads to proficiency in the acquisition of the second language is not well explained, in that, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2003) does not take into consideration the use of the second language as the medium of instruction and how the previous and current use of the mother tongue affect later performance in English.

Use of mother tongue can affect both reading and writing and thus the performance of English since the more the students' dialect departs from the Standard English, the great the students show problems in learning in printed words both in reading and writing (Asher, 1986). It is therefore important for teachers to know as much as they can from the students' dialect for them to optimally teach them. Mother tongue interference retards the progress for reading, speaking and writing since patterns of

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mother tongue do not correspond with those of English. This study endeavoured to find out whether indeed the use of mother tongue in the context under study influenced the performance of English in terms of the pronunciation and when students are writing in English.

According to Cummins (2000) students need to have control of formal English to do well in English exams. They also argue that language develop through authentic language use. This is a clear indication that, if students frequently use their mother tongue, their written English will be greatly influenced. Also, students need more than social language skills to be successful in school, they need academic language skills which involve using both receptive and productive language, thinking and reasoning in all content area. According to Cummins (2000) schools have a responsibility to provide a wide "range of experiences that will facilitate language development for social interaction, performing highly in English as well as language for academic purposes" (p.29). This explains why schools have mechanisms to curb mother-tongue speaking. In this study, the researcher wanted to find out some of the mechanisms that were put in place by schools to curb the use of mother tongues and whether these mechanisms worked.

2.6 Empirical Review

Several studies (e.g., Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Kim and Petraki, 2009; Schweers, 1999; Storch and Aldosari, 2010; Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003) have explored students' perceptions and views regarding the use of their L1, particularly amongst themselves in pair and group work. Many of these studies concluded that L1 can serve as a useful cognitive tool for achieving learning tasks. Storch and Wigglesworth's (2003)

study noted that students support L1 use in their L2 learning, particularly when they do not have the required metalanguage in the L2. Using their L1 enabled them to achieve several immediate goals, such as providing each other with word definitions and explanations of grammar points. Using their L1 was thus perceived as conducive to their studies by helping them to negotiate and provide justifications for grammatical choices more quickly and more clearly. The same study also found that even students who did not use their L1 in their L2 learning felt that using an L1 could be useful because it can enable L2 learners to discuss the prompt and structure of activities in greater depth and complete tasks with greater ease. Moreover, Kim and Petraki (2009) reported that L2 students in Korea believed that L1 played a supportive role in the classroom and that it was very useful for learning the target L2. Duff and Polio (1990) found that students were satisfied with their teachers' amount of L1 use, even when the amount of L1 use as a percentage of classroom time was very high.

Furthermore, many studies (see, for example, Al Shammari, 2011; Schweers, 1999; Sharma, 2006; Tang, 2002) have come to the same conclusion that students feel favourably toward L1 use in the L2 classroom. Schweers (1999) reported that nearly 90% of students participating in his study believed that their L1 (Spanish) should have a role in their L2 (English) classroom. Tang (2002) had similar results: 70% of students in the study supported the use of their L1 (Chinese) in their L2 (English) classes. Kovacic and Kirinic (2011) came to the same conclusion as Tang, with 68% of students in their study stating that their L1 (Croatian) should be used in their L2 (English) classes. Al Shammari (2011) and Sharma (2006) reported similar findings in the contexts of EFL.

On the other hand, Nazary (2008) showed different results. Nazary conducted a study in the EFL context of Iran with 85 students who were selected based on their L2 proficiency according to three categories: elementary, intermediate, and advanced level. The study used a questionnaire and found that EFL Iranian university students in all levels were reluctant to use their L1 in the L2 classroom because such usage would reduce their exposure to the L2.

The studies discussed in this section show that while there are two perspectives on using L1 in the L2 classroom, L2 students tend to support balanced and judicious in-class use of L1 for the reason that it may help them overcome certain learning challenges. Still, at least one study found that some students reject the idea for the reason that they believe that in-class use of their L1 might reduce their exposure to the target L2. Additional studies would allow further exploration of students' perceptions toward using L1 in L2 classrooms.

Learners' attitudes regarding L1 use is valuable, as they are directly involved in learning the TL. Nevertheless, their views have not been sufficiently examined, especially in Iraq. They usually are not considered alone, but rather in connection with their teachers' attitudes. Satio and Ebsworth (2004) conducted a study of L1 use among Japanese students. The students preferred teachers who know their native language because they found L1 use to be helpful. They wanted their teachers to explain ideas and present new vocabularies in their native language. The study also indicated that the students were shocked while being taught by native English speakers who did not allow them to use the L1 in their classes.

Sharma (2006) conducted a study of the use of the Nepali language in Nepal's secondary schools. The study concentrated on the frequency of L1 use and the attitudes of teachers and students regarding L1 use. The study showed that students employed their L1 more frequently than teachers did (ranging from 52-64%). Only one per cent of the students wished their teachers to use their L1 frequently during class. The research exhibited some contradictory results among students due to various points of view. About 46% of the learners thought that L1 should be used in about 5% of class time. Nevertheless, the study indicated a negative correlation between their wishes and their deeds, as the learners tended to use their native language more frequently than they had wished.

Huang's (2006) study of students' attitudes towards L1 use in a writing class at a university in Taiwan found that the learners believed their teachers should use the L1 to explain grammatical points, brainstorm ideas and explain difficult concepts. The learners also believed that the use of L1 should not comprise more than 25% of class time. They thought that if teachers were to use the L1 frequently in their writing classes, their attention to the teachers would be less. Nazary (2008) conducted a study of students' attitudes to-wards L1 use among Iranian University students. The study indicated that the learners did not prefer to use their L1 in English classes. Moreover, learners with various proficiency levels had different perceptions of the use of L1. On the other hand, about 72% of the learners preferred to have a teacher who could speak their native language. Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz's (2011) study of L1 use in EFL classes involved low and high-level students of English. Both levels of students agreed that the interactions should be in English and not in their native language.

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Another study conducted by Afzal (2012) on the effect of L1 on active and passive vocabularies indicated opposite results. The study indicated that when Persian equivalents are provided in addition to English definitions, the vocabularies became more active. Alshammari (2011) conducted a study concerning the use of Arabic among university-level EFL learners. The results showed that approximately 61% of the learners thought that Arabic should be used in their EFL classes. Moreover, nearly 69% of the teachers had the same idea. Nearly 54% of the students thought that L1 use is beneficial in terms of explaining new vocabularies, while 5% thought that the L1 is useful when giving instructions. Most of the teachers shared the belief that L1 use is time-saving. An interesting point is that 21% of the participants (both teachers and students) thought that the L1 should always be used in EFL classes. Finally, in his study concerning teacher attitudes, Hidayati (2012) determined that 36% of learners believed that L1 should be used for nearly 30% of class time. Students claimed that they became confused and, consequently, disinterested when English was over-used in their classes.

In a different context, Koucka (2007) examined L1 use by teacher trainers. Her study indicated that teacher trainers used L1 too frequently. She also determined that the teacher trainers used L1 in fourteen different situations ranging from lesson introductions to providing feedback. The study also indicated that the L1 was used more when giving instructions and translating new words than in any other situation.

In a different foreign language context, Campa and Nasaji (2009) conducted a study concerning the teaching of German as a foreign language in Canada. Two classes of two different teachers were videotaped and audio-recorded. The recordings aimed to identify situations in which the L1 (English) was used by the two teachers. The most

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common situation was the translation from German to English. Checking the meaning of new words was also another situation, as was the comparison between the two languages. Giving instructions, classroom management and interactions between the students and the teachers took place in the L1. The study showed that L1 use was also influenced by students' culture. When discussing something related to the students' culture, the teachers used the learners' L1. The research also showed that an experienced teacher used the L1 less frequently than did the novice teacher.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3. 1 Overview

This chapter covers the methodology used in the study. The discussion in the section was structured around the research design, the study area, the population of the study, sampling procedure, instrumentation, validation of the instrument, validity, reliability, trustworthiness of qualitative data, data collection procedure and data analysis procedure.

3.2 Research Design

The study design was a case study as it sought to study teachers in their practice and empower them to take measures in remedying problems identified in their local teaching contexts. Research design according to Mills (2003), is any systematic enquiry conducted by teacher-researchers to gather information about the ways that their particular school operates how they teach, and how well their students learn. Action research is defined as "an approach in which the action researcher and a client collaborate in the diagnosis of the problem and the development of a solution based on the diagnosis" (Bryman and Bell, 2011 pp. 74). In other words, one of the main characteristic traits of action research relates to collaboration between researcher and members of the organisation to solve organizational problems. The information gathered is with the goals of gaining insight, developing reflective practice, effecting positive changes in the school environment and on educational practices in general, and improving student outcomes. Action research is conducted by teachers and for teachers with students/pupils at the

centre. It is small scale, contextualized, localized, and aimed at discovering, developing, or monitoring changes to practice (Kemmis and McTaggert, 1998). The defining features of action research also reflect the qualities of leaders in collaborative cultures of change. These qualities include a deep understanding of the organization, vision and insight, a quest for new knowledge, a desire for improved performance, self-reflective activity, and a willingness to effect change (Fullan, 2000).

The study was quantitative in approach due to the use of tests in a classroom situation to generate data to answer questions that were asked by the researcher (Creswell, 2009). The overall intent of this design is to have the data to help explain in more detail the initial quantitative results from the data collection.

3.3 Population of the Study

Ogula (1998) defines a population as the group of institutions, people or objects that have at least one characteristic in common. It is the aggregate of all cases that conform to some designated set of specifications. The population for this study was teachers and learners of English language at St. Peter's R/C JHS two, Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal. The school is made up of 10 teachers and 364 students. This means that the total population of the school sums up to 374.

3.4 Sample Selection

Sampling deals with sorting out of a subset of individuals from within a statistical population to assess its absolute characteristics (Shahrokh and Dougherty, 2014). The researcher selected a sample size of (85) consisting of forty-six (46) girls and thirty-nine

(39) boys. The selection criteria considered the entire JHS two class of the St. Peter's R/C JHS, Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

3.5 Sampling Techniques

The purposive sampling (non-probability) technique was used in the sample selection. According to Shahrokh and Dougherty (2014) is a sampling technique that allows the researcher to make a choice of a sample based on a predetermined characteristic. In using purposive sampling, preparation is needed in that one must know about the culture before one sample the population to find knowledgeable and reliable informants most efficiently (Snedecor, 1989). The sampling technique adopted is a handy tool in homogenous populations where the researcher purposely selected the pupils who were unable to read well during observations and the pre-test. Therefore, they possess the right characteristics that meet the prescribed criteria prescribed by the researcher. The sample, therefore, used is a good representative of the population.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

This study used observations and tests as a means of data collection. These are discussed in the subsequent sections.

3.6.1 Observation

Observation is a tool used by the researcher during the conduct of the study as a primary tool to help document what went on in the school setting. The researcher in this situation was a participant-observer who observed the activities of the pupils in a normal classroom environment as they exhibit their knowledge. The researcher made other staff

members and stakeholders fully aware of the study and its purposes. The researcher observed the pupils methods of reading and how they answer questions in class. Their response and attentiveness in the class were also observed together with their extracurricular activities outside the classroom. Their interactions with other members of the school community were strictly observed to find out how they use the L1 outside their learning classroom and the extent to which other students compromise their use of the L2. The researcher participated in all the activities of the class as an observer participant to better understand how the pupils go about their class exercises, during lessons, how they handle their textbooks, other teachers approach classroom management and the general atmosphere of the school. The observation was considered critically for this study since the researcher was part of the study setting to ensure that the data that was gathered was a true reflection of the pupils who took part in the study.
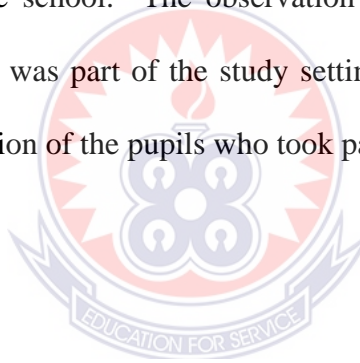
3.6.2 Tests

Two tests (pre-test and post-test) were conducted to assess the pupil's abilities in the problem identified in the classroom. The test aided the researcher in assessing the impact of the problem under study. It also assisted the researcher in gathering data such that the right comparison was made in the two tests for the right judgement to be passed. The pre-test used was to gather preliminary data at the onset, while the post-test gathered data after the intervention plan.

3.7 Stages on Intervention Implementation

3.7.1 Pre-Intervention

Week One Day One

The researcher intended to find out the extent to which the L1 has influenced the teaching and learning of the L1 in terms of reading comprehension and other language acquisition skills. It is emphasised that pupils' inability to read and to understand basic concepts in the L2 marks the beginning of problems or difficulties for the future development of the English language. These issues were determined before implementing the main intervention. A passage (Appendix A) selected from the junior high school form two textbook was given to the pupils to read. Based on this passage, a pre-test was conducted at this stage of the research and the results presented in chapter four for analysis.

The L1 factors identified after the pre-test was conducted that militate against the correct use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation in L2 included students perceived ability in English; frequency of use of English with non-English speakers; use of English to read for enjoyment; use of English for communication at home and integrative motivation. To deal with these and other problems identified, an intervention strategy was implemented using three methods.

3.7.2 Intervention

The strategies implemented included the use of the Grammar Translation Method, the Audio-lingual method and the Communicative Learning Teaching. After implementing these strategies, another test was conducted to ascertain whether the intervention

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technique implemented worked or not. The intervention strategy was designed to cater to the grammar-translation aspect that the L1 has over the L2 in the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language.

The audio-lingual approach was prominent between the 1930s and the 1970s; it involved teaching and learning a Foreign Language through drills, in language laboratories (Castagnaro, 2006). This approach was related to Skinner's principles and originated from behaviourism, depending on repetition, drills and the use of textbooks to formulate and practise to develop communicative skills, with a focus on grammar (Richards, 2002), as tends to be the case in many contexts. This approach also focused on structure and form rather than meaning, as well as on memorisation methods (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983). As an intervention strategy, drills were used during the teaching of meaning and pronunciation of key vocabulary. The language structure requires dynamism to aid students who have over-relied on the L1 to adjust in no time.

The communicative approach may be considered an extension of the functional-notional approach in that each shares the same process by focusing on meaning and the use of authenticity in their materials (Skehan, 2006). CLT was developed to replace the previous methods practised in Foreign Language teachings, such as the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods (Warschauer and Kern, 2000). In this study, the CLT has served a beneficial purpose for the teaching of English language taking into account that the language involved more of purposeful communication rather than just setting out a group of phonological, grammatical and lexical rules (Hiep, 2007). Hiep (2007) argues that if English as Foreign Language students wish to use the L2 appropriately, they must develop communicative competence from practice.

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Week Two Day Two

The researcher at this stage prepared a lesson for the Junior High School form two class with the Grammar Translation Method as the Intervention.

Objectives: By the end of the lesson, the teaching methods used by the teacher should have aided the pupils to read the passage provided and answer ten (10) questions on it.

Introduction

The teacher provided grammar rules together with the pupils and requested that the rules are followed as a guide to completing the lesson but with some exceptions.

Teaching/Learning Activities

Step One

Grammar Translation Method

The passage provided, a list of vocabulary was selected and translated into the mother tongue. The translation was considered to be the most important classroom activity for the day. Using the GTM, Students were taught the meaning of all new vocabulary in the local language.

Audio-Lingual Method

With the Audio-Lingual Method, drills were used to teach pronunciation and structural patterns and set phrases memorised with a focus on intonation to aid in consolidating pronunciation in the English language.

Teacher ensured that correct responses are positively reinforced immediately such that learners are motivated to participate.

Communicative Learning Teaching

The third method was the communicative learning teaching were learning to communicate was done through the interaction of the teacher in class.

i.   The teacher introduced authentic texts into the learning situation making learners happily involved.

ii.   Learners were induced through classroom activities to focus on language and the learning process itself.

iii. Through the aforementioned methods, students own personal experiences were enhanced.

iv.   The teacher ensured that classroom language learning was linked to language activities.

Week Three Day Three

Step Two

Sentences were selected and translated into the L1 to ensure that pupils had the meaning of the content much clearer. It was followed by a translation of the selected paragraphs.

Step Three

Students were aided to find antonym and synonym words in the passage provided first as individuals and later in groups.

Students were asked to form sentences using the new words extracted from the passage.

With the support of the teacher, pupils were asked to read the passage provided.

Students were made to read the passage and a discussion was made.

3.7.3 Post Intervention

Week Three Day Four

Evaluation

Since the pre-test examined the effects of L1 usage in the teaching of English comprehension, the student was made to answer comprehension questions based on the passaged read. The post-test assessed pupil's ability to deal with factors that militate against the correct use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation in L2 since an intervention was made using the Grammar-translation method, audio-lingual and the communicative language teaching. A Post-test (Appendix B) was conducted to ascertain the potency of the intervention implemented and whether or not the understanding, fluency and comprehension of students of St. Peter's R/C JHS, Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal were enhanced. It was also to obtain data on the effectiveness of the intervention procedures put in place to make a valid comparison with the pre-test results obtained. The two tests were used to draw a logical conclusion on the effectiveness of the intervention and to measure the success of the study.

3.8 Method of Data Analysis and Presentation

Data obtained from both pre-test and post-test were analyzed and presented on tables for easy understanding. Since the data was from the test conducted, it was quantitative hence analysed using descriptive statistics, i.e. frequencies and percentages.

CHAPTER FOUR

## DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of the study is to use fluency based activities to eliminate the influence of L1 on the learning of English Language at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal. It was to aid students to gain adequate skills in reading comprehension and to inculcate a practical approach in dealing with difficulties reading comprehension. The research instruments used by the researcher to undertake the study are observations and tests. It facilitated the smooth collection of data on the respondents such that the problem identified is solved. This chapter gives an outline of the analysis, presentation and discussion of the data obtained from the test in the study. The statistical tool was the frequency distribution tables, percentages and pie charts. In the analysis, the key variables considered included gender of respondents, description of performances, pre-test results, post-test results, and comparisons of test results.

4.1 Factors that militate against the correct use of vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation in L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS

Considering the repercussions the language of instruction has on students' academic success, the pre-test conducted on 12th October 2020 shows that 85 pupils participated as shown in Table 1 and Figure 1 of this study.

Table 1: Pre-Test Results

Marks	Frequency	Percentage	Calculation	Angle
0 - 30	63	74%	$\dfrac{74}{100} \times 360°$	$= 266°$
40 - 60	15	18%	$\dfrac{18}{100} \times 360°$	$= 65°$
70 - 100	7	8%	$\dfrac{8}{100} \times 360°$	$= 29°$
Total	**85**	**100%**		**360⁰**
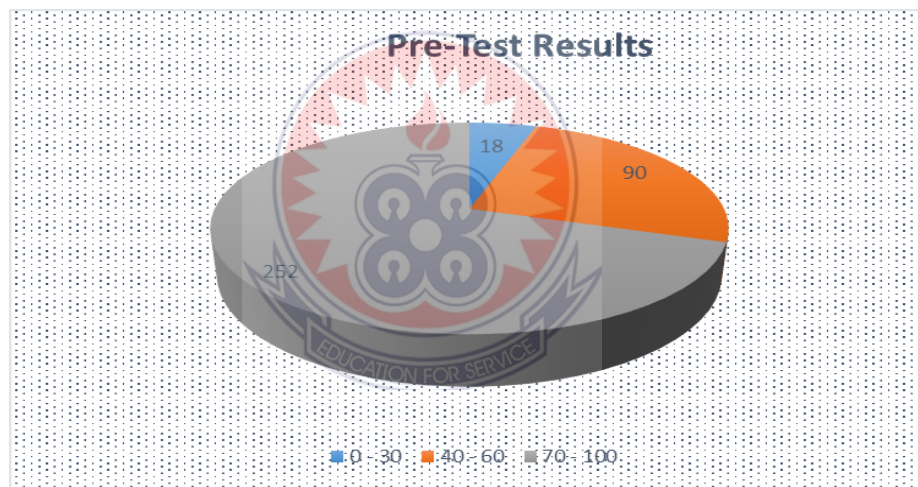
Figure 1: Pre-Test Results

The pre-test results as indicated in Table one and figure one exemplifies poor performance of students in the test conducted. In this table, 63 students representing 74% scored between zero and thirty marks showing a poor performance per the Ghana Education Service ratings. Also, 15 students representing 18% scored between 40 and 60 marks which is an average performance. The third category who performed well were only seven students representing 8% of the class. Per this performances, the problems

identified by the researcher during observation and interactions with the class was a conflict between the local language and English language where difficulties exist in dealing with English Vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation.

Difficulties in Vocabulary Acquisition

The data in table 1 shows that only 8% of the students score above average (70 - 100). Most of the students the researcher observed and later interacted with claimed they have difficulties in learning new vocabulary in English because of the differences in vocabulary in their language and the English language. For example, when the students pronounce the word muscle, listen, write, honour, and honest. Some words that contain silent letters that are particularly problematic especially for Ghanaian students who are very conversant with their local language becomes difficult to acquire in the English language. In a situation where 74% performed below the average, stakeholders definitely have to raise concerns. In this study, the researcher discovered during interactions with students that incorrect pronunciation is caused by the lack of sound similarity between English and the student's native language. This is in line with what Varasarin (2007) described that in this situation, the students wish they could speak English fluently but most of them think that English is too challenging for them to master unlike their L1. Regarding this, incorrect pronunciation has been caused by instructional goal and the teacher himself and the teaching and learning in this area which is inappropriate (Varasarin, 2007).

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Difficulties in Spelling

The problem of spelling mismatches was identified during interactions observation after the pre-test where about 74% of the students scored below average. The researcher identified that the inability of students to spell words correctly was a result of spelling mismatch coming from the differences between the local language and English led to a large number of the students scoring below average in the pre-test conducted. The written form of the local language in terms of spelling is different from the spoken form in English. When the students want to write a word muscle, they instead write mosle or mosel indicating that students found difficulties in spelling the appropriate words. With only 18% of students scoring average marks and only 8% scoring above average shows that aside spelling, students sometimes usually overlap the meaning of the words such as the use of do and make. Make and do are a case in point: you make breakfast and make an appointment, but you do the housework and do a questions. In this case the students looks for word in their mind and do not know the exact collocation. Students also try to find the words that best fit the sentence semantically, hence tries to pick up the word which is closest in meaning. However the choice could not be undoubtedly correct, since the students randomly selected the word. If the choice of word is not correct the whole meaning of the word may be distorted. The researcher was aware that in a language like Twi and many other Ghanaian languages, there is a 1:1 correspondence of sounds to letters which means that if you can say a word, you can usually spell it. Unfortunately, this is not the case for English, which has plenty of exceptions to its spelling rules and multiple ways of spelling the same sound. This poses a problem for second language learners as spelling is not intuitive.

Difficulties in Pronunciation

As 74% of the student have failed or performed below average, the interactions with students revealed that almost all of the students have difficulties in pronouncing the words, how to write and spell, how to use in grammatical pattern correctly. Learning foreign language becomes difficult since the target language has different system from the native language (Haryanto, 2007). According to Haryanto (2007) when someone learns a foreign language, he often faces interference when s/he applies his/her mother tongue or first language structure to structure of the foreign language which is different from his/her native language. In addition, the students found difficulties in pronouncing words that have more than two syllables for example bothered, delicious, satisfaction, cartridges, following etc as used in the passage. The students are also still confused in using the word based on the context. As a result of the influence of the L1 as observed by the researcher, students are also still confuse when they found words or expression that are idiomatic (like make up your mind, keep an eye on....). It will generally be more difficult than words whose meaning is transparent (decide, watch).

Other Factors Identified

With about only 18% of the students scoring average marks (40 - 60) in the pre-test shows that aside from spelling, pronunciation and vocabulary, it was also observed that, the different grammatical form of a word known as inflections was one of causes of students' difficulties in learning vocabulary. The example is affixation, affixation is one of the ways new words are formed from old including prefix and suffix. It was hard for the students to know the meaning of the words because by adding prefix and suffix in a words can cause a change in word class. The changing in word classes sometimes

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changes the meaning of the word. Furthermore, next factor of difficulty was related to diction. The students faced the difficulty when they want to use the words based on the context. As we know that a word consists of more than one meaning. It also can be categorized based on word classes. It was observed that influence of the L1 still confused most of the students resulting in only 8% scoring above average (70 - 100). The passage had names that were in the local language where students are still confused when they find words or expression that are idiomatic. It caused by idioms were difficult because of the lack of the cultural background. Students thinks that the cultural background affects understanding of idiomatic expressions'. According to the students, they could not recognize the meaning of the words in the whole expression, hence were unable to denote the meaning of the whole expressions.

4.2 Effects of L1 usage in the teaching of English comprehension at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal

Data on Table 1 shows that about 63 students representing 74% scored marks ranging between 0 and 30. It also shows that 15 students representing 18% scored marks between 40 and 60. Only seven students representing 8% score higher marks between 70 and 100 in the pre-test. In effect, the findings showed that there was no marked improvement in comprehension performances of students who utilized their first language to generate ideas before using their second language for writing. Also, the researcher attempted to see the extent of first language usage while reading second language texts in a collaborative situation among students. It was discovered that the L1 was used by all the students in study and that more than 30% of the total instances of strategy usage involved

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inclusion of the L1.It also revealed various reasons for the students' use of the L1 while reading L2 text particularly in context of group reading. One reason was that the L1 facilitated resolutions of word-related and ideas- related difficulties. It can be said that using the L1 did not help the students reduce affective barriers to gain more confidence in tackling the L2 texts.

The researcher tracked through syntactic errors, structural changes, and wrong choice of words during observation and interactions after the pre-test and identified the effect of L2 as a transfer from the L1. While the L1-L2 effect is mostly described as negative on account of its grammatical, lexical and/ or phonological errors, the L2-L1 influence is generally positive, since it enhances the knowledge base still dominated by L1. The researcher observed the bidirectional influence between the two language channels as a developmental issue spreading from an additive to a synergic period. During the additive period, the interaction of the two or more languages and the L1-dominated conceptual base lead to transfer of a sound pattern, a lexical item or a structure from one language system to another. It is an indisputable fact that one's ability to use and understand the language of instruction has repercussion on class participation and performance (Andoh-Kumi, 1992).

Everyone can master a language if he or she wants but the mistakes made in SLA are explained as a kind of interference of L1 when the learners are learning the target language. And this kind of interference is called negative transfer. The similarities between L1 and L2 are thought to help the SLA. So that is positive transfer. In other words, the distinctions between L1 and L2 cause difficulties and mistakes in SLA, while the similarities promote it. Now, it is commonly believe that it is biased to conclude that

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the habit of using L1 can influence SLA. Here the researcher divided L2 transfer into four levels: sounds transfer, words transfer, syntax transfer and culture transfer.

Sounds transfer is the most enduring and prominent phenomenon in L1 transfer is sounds transfer. In the SLA, it is widely found that L2 learners' pronunciation is deeply influenced by their L1 and deviate the pronunciation of the native speakers. So the function of L1 transfer plays a very important role in SLA of sounds.

Words transfer occurs when there are many similarities of words between L1 and L2, learners feel easier to learn the target language and vice versa. This is why French students feel easier than Chinese students when both of them are studying English. For the reason that in English, there are many words borrowed from French. When French students come across those words, they feel no difficulties remembering them. While Chinese and English belong to different language systems. There are few similar words between the two languages. So Chinese students feel more difficult to learn English than French students do.

The syntax transfer contains syntax structure, such as word order, negative sentence, interrogative and relative clause and so on. The positive and negative transfer are existent at the same time. According to behaviourism theories, when the sentence pattern of L1 and L2 is different, the mistake will come into being. According to contrastive analysis hypothesis, when L1 is different from L2, L1 will interfere with the SLA. In other words, all the L1 transfer in SLA is negative transfer. When the mode is the same of L1 and L2, the positive transfer comes into being.

Culture transfer is a kind of influence made by the difference between L1 and L2. L2 learners' tend to express themselves in their own habit from their culture. It is obvious

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that L1 transfer exists in all the language structure level. And when the transfer was analyzed from the aspect of sounds, words, syntax and culture. It was found that L1 plays a very complicated role in SLA as a result of projection phenomenon in language acquisition.

4.3 Strategies for overcoming the challenges of pupils in developing the L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

Having identified the challenges and its effects on the students, strategies were put in place to help overcome them. The researcher sought to know the extent to which the use of teaching strategies such as the grammar-translation method, audio-lingual, visual methods, functions, and notion and communicative language teaching could aid in overcoming the influence of the L1 on the teaching and learning of the L2 such that pupil could develop the L2 effectively at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal. A post-test was thus conducted with the (85) students who participated in the pre-test after the researcher implemented the intervention strategy. The result of the test is shown in Table 2 and Figure 2 of this study.

Table 2: Post-Test Results (After Intervention)

Marks	Frequency	Percentage	Calculations	Angle
0 - 30	10	12%	$\frac{12}{100} \times 360°$	$= 18°$
40 - 60	14	16%	$\frac{16}{100} \times 360°$	$= 90°$
70 - 100	61	72%	$\frac{72}{100} \times 360°$	$= 252°$
Total	**85**	**100%**		**360^0**
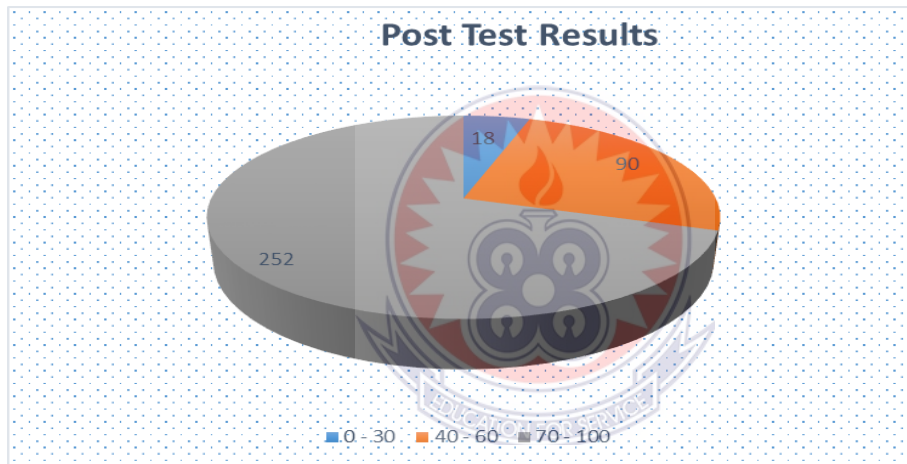
Figure 2: Post-Test Results

Data available in Table 2 and Figure 2 shows that 10 pupils representing (12%) scored between 0 – 30 marks described as a below-average performance. Also, 14 pupils representing (16%) scored between 40 – 60 marks and rated as average performance. Finally, 61 pupils representing (72%) scored between 70 - 100 marks and classified as above-average performance. It indicates that the majority of the pupils (72%) performed above average in the test conducted after the intervention. The post-test results as

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indicated confirms that the problem identified at the start of the study which results from the influence of the L1 on the L2 has been resolved by the intervention strategy put in place. One of the most glaring challenges of the pupils stemming from the influence of the L1 was their inability to read and answer reading comprehension questions as required of JHS two students.

4.4 Discussion and Implications of Pre and Post Test

The results of the pre and post-test were compared to examine the differences in the performances of the pupils before and after the intervention strategy. Table 3 shows the differences in the performance of the pupils.

Table 3: Comparison of Pre and Post Test Results

Marks	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Differences
0 - 30	74%	12%	62%
40 - 60	18%	16%	2%
70 - 100	8%	72%	64%
Total	**100**	**100**	

According to the percentages indicated in Table 3, the percentage of pupils who performed below average (0 – 30) was 74% in the pre-test and reduced to 12% in the post-test making a difference of 62% according to the performance rating. It shows that extent to which the intervention strategy was effective. It was also evident in Table 5 that the average (40 - 60) performances decreased by only 2% after the intervention strategy was implemented. This category of pupils could raise or lower their performances

depending on the attention given to them. The evidence again puts performances above average to have increased by 64% from 8% before to 72% after the intervention. The increase from below average to above average is remarkable indicating that the overall performance has increased. It implies that the intervention strategy implemented by the researcher has succeeded in overcoming the influence L1 has had on the teaching and learning of the L2.

The researcher found from the analysis that there has been a significant improvement in pupils' ability to read passages and understand. Pupils have turned to do and submit home and classwork without excuses. The use of the English language has become a free and frequent phenomenon in the school. As indicated by the post-test performance rating, pupils have demonstrated a strong desire to use the L2 in their daily communication in the schools along to their homes. Also, from the analysis of the two results and their discussion, it was evident that the materials employed have aided in increasing their reading skills and comprehension. It aided their ability to read passages at their level understand and answer questions on them.

Despite these successes, the researcher observed that the number of students for a single class was too much for a teacher to handle which was one of the problems noticed by the researcher. In the early approach of CA, the influence of the L1 was considered to be the cause of most of the difficulties that students experience when they are acquiring an L2, for a reason a comparison of the two languages was carried out to see what aspects of the languages should be emphasized. In doing this, the researcher was perceived by other teachers to be disregarding and disrespecting the L1. The researcher overcame this challenge by reiterating that in the interlanguage this

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perspective is highly individual and it is an independent situation for EFL where transfer occupies a central role, hence in the current multicompetence framework the use of the L1 in the classroom is not conceived as a negative issue. In other words, the L1 is not the enemy, teachers should use it as it can facilitate positive transfer and it can also help internalize new concepts. More importantly, cross-linguistic comparisons can help the learner to become aware of differences in L1-L2 patterns. The L1 is present in the students' minds, therefore it cannot be switched off while students are in the classroom. As Cook (1999) claims, it can help classroom goals to be achieved more efficiently and it can be used in different ways in the classroom. It can be helpful as a metalanguage for the teaching of grammar and in the teaching of vocabulary, it can help convey the meanings of words or sentences. The L1 can also help in classroom management, such as in giving instructions for different activities. At the level of testing, it can be a useful tool to assess vocabulary.
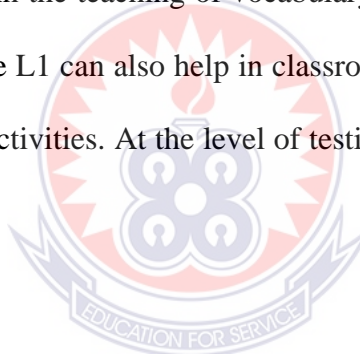
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

Summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations were made by the researcher on the problem identified in chapter five.

5.1 Summary

To mitigate the influence of L1 on the teaching and learning of English language at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal, action research was conducted. The purpose was to use effective teaching strategies that would assist pupils to gain adequate practical skills in the teaching and learning of the English Language that sought to eliminate the influence of the L1. Through these activities, it would facilitate reading comprehension and inculcate practical approaches in dealing with difficulties emanating from all forms of influence of the L1 on teaching and learning of the L2. From a total population of the school summing up to 374, the researcher selected a sample size of (85) consisting of forty-six (46) girls and thirty-nine (39) boys using the purposive sampling (non-probability) technique for the sample selection. Data used for the analysis was drawn from observations, pre-test and a post-test conducted within three weeks. Data were analysed and presented on tables using frequencies, percentages, and pie charts for illustration. A summary of findings was made at this section based on the objectives set for the study.

5.1.1. L1 factors that militate against the correct use of vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation in L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS

With the difficulties in vocabulary acquisition, there exist differences in vocabulary in the local language that affects vocabulary in English language. For example, when the students pronounce the word muscle, listen, write, honour, and honest.

The problem of spelling mismatches was identified during interactions with the inability of students to spell words correctly was a result of spelling mismatch coming from the differences between the local language and English led to a large number of the students scoring below average in the pre-test conducted. The written form of the local language in terms of spelling is different from the spoken form in English.

It also revealed that almost all of the students have difficulties in pronouncing words that have more than two syllables for example bothered, delicious, satisfaction, cartridges, following etc as used in the passage. The students are also still confused in using the word based on the context. As a result of the influence of the L1 as observed by the researcher, students are also still confuse when they found words or expression that are idiomatic.

The researcher found that in situations where words in the L1 and L2 both possess certain similarities, there is interference from L1 items with the L2 items making it impossible for students to grasp the meaning of the words and sentences in a passage while reading.

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5.1.2. Effects of L1 usage in the teaching of English comprehension at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal

As a result of the factors identified, teaching and learning have been negatively affected as evidenced in the pre-test results where the majority (74%) of the pupils performed below effects of L1 usage in the English comprehension. The effects as identified through the test and observation was the difficulty that the learners face in the production of English speech sounds. Many English consonant sounds are different from those in their local language. For instance, English (f) as in „fine‟ is a voiceless labio-dental fricative sound, which was different from the learners' native language especially in the sound /ph/ which is a voiceless bilabial stop. The effects are that students of English find it difficult to learn English (f), which is a fricative sound i.e. the active articulator (lower lip) does not touch the passive articulator (upper teeth). Similar problems may occur in the production of English /Ɵ/ (a voiceless dental fricative. Apart from the difficulties encountered by the students in the area of segmental phonology of English, problems also occurred at level of supra segmental phonology. There are major differences in the use of stress and intonation between English and their local language which are stress neutral languages. In effect, communicating in English, reading and comprehension, finding the meaning of new vocabulary, punctuation and other basic skills was deficient in many pupils.

5.1.3 Strategies for overcoming the challenges of pupils in developing the L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

The strategies designed for overcoming the challenges of pupils in developing the L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal. Having considered the effects of L1 usage in the teaching of English comprehension at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal, the study found that strategies such as the Grammar Translation Method, the Audio-lingual method and the Communicative Learning Teaching are effective in dealing with the situation. As a result of the interference of L1 items in L2 items which do not possess similarities, teachers must use teaching methods that ensures that at points of similarities between L1 and L2, the second language learner employs his L1 learning strategies and techniques in his L2 learning. Also, at places of differences where the students faces difficulties, a second language teacher should be very careful in employing his teaching strategies to help learners to overcome such difficulties. Finally, in the teaching and learning context, the teacher should be careful to develop a kind of functional intelligibility with persistent efforts on learners to help develop their skills.

5.2 Conclusion

The study concluded the following:

1. There exist differences in vocabulary, spelling mismatch and length of words, idiomatic expressions etc in the local language are found to have impacted negatively on pupils' ability to grasp vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation in L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

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2. The major effect of the L1 on the L2 was pupils inability to read and understand (comprehension) during teaching and learning in English at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

3. The grammar-translation method, audio-lingual, visual methods, functions, and notion and communicative language teaching were effective interventions in overcoming the challenges of pupils in developing the L2 at St. Peter's R/C JHS in Somanya in the Yilo Krobo Municipal.

5.3 Recommendations

It is recommended based on the findings and conclusions that:

1. Native teachers reduce their use of the L1 during instructional hours but continue to guide and sustain its cultural values and abide by the use of the language policy in Ghanaian schools.

2. Intensify training for both pre-service and in-service teachers so that they gain a better understanding of the role of the L1 and L2 in communication in Ghanaian schools.

3. Advances are made in the understanding of multicompetence, linguistic relativity and usage-based approaches that have implications for second language learning and teaching in schools across Ghana.

5.4 Suggestions for Future Research

Since the researcher could not deal with all aspects of language acquisition among students, the following studies are suggested for future research.

1. Native language interference in learning a second language: Exploratory case studies of native language interference with target language usage.

2. Selective Attention and Transfer Phenomena in L2 Acquisition: Contingency, Cue Competition, Salience, Interference, Overshadowing, Blocking, and Perceptual Learning.

3. Cross-linguistic influence in the second language processing of Ghanaian Language (Twi) morphological and syntactic causative constructions.

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APPENDICES

COMPREHENSION PASSAGE - I CAN'T BE BOTHERED

Unit 72

READING

▶ *I CAN'T BE BOTHERED*

Kweku Asare and his wife Daakoa lived in a small village. They were farmers. They grew cash crops like cocoa and oil palm. They also grew food crops like plantain, cocoyam and cassava. Kweku Asare had a gun that he used to kill animals for bush meat. He also set traps to catch animals. They had three children Obuo, Nkuu and Okata.

Tortoise lived in the forest. It fed on leaves and mushrooms. One day Tortoise was looking for food. He came to a small **ant hill**. He found a lot of mushroom. He was very happy. He ate to his **satisfaction**. Bird came to **perch** on top of a tree. Tortoise was enjoying the shade of the tree. Bird began eating the fruits on top of the tree. When she was satisfied, it began to sing. Bird later flew away. The following day, Bird came back. After eating, she became **excited** and began singing.

The singing was loud and **echoed** through the forest. Tortoise became **alarmed.** He shouted at Bird to keep quiet. Bird did not hear it. Tortoise told Bush Rope that was close to Bird to tell him to keep quite. Bush Rope said I can't be bothered. "We are in a free society and everybody is **entitled** to what they want to do", Tortoise replied, "we shall see one day."

Daakoa returned from the market. She did not get any good fish to buy. She complained to her husband about the situation. Kweku Asare said "None of the traps caught game". He went to his room and picked his gun. He loaded his gun with a **cartridge**. He put a spare one in his pocket. He roamed the forest for a long time but could not even see a **squirrel**. He heard the singing of Bird. He traced the singing to the tree where Bird was perched.

Asare shot Bird. Bird died instantly. It fell near where Tortoise was hiding. Asare searched for Bird. He found Bird. He also saw some mushrooms. He plucked them. Just when he was about to go home, he saw Tortoise. His joy knew no bounds. He had a lot to carry home, Bird, Tortoise and mushroom. He cut Bush Rope to tie his load. Tortoise said "I told you so". Now we all are going to die. Asare took his load home. Daakoa and her children were very happy. He quickly boiled water to pluck the feathers of Bird. She prepared a very **delicious** meal. She also prepared fufu and served the food with it. She later **roasted** the mushroom to preserve them. Tortoise was put in a big basket and covered with **rags**. He was killed four days later and the meat was used in preparing palm nut soup.

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PRE-TEST QUESTIONS

1. What cash crops did Asare and his wife grow?

2. How many children did they have?

3. What food did tortoise eat?

4. What did tortoise enjoy after eating the mushrooms?

5. Why did begin to sing after eating the fruits?

6. What did tortoise do when he became alarmed?

7. Where did bird fall when Asare shot it?

8. What did Asare find when he searched for the bird?

9. Why did Asare cut the bush rope?

10. How did Daakoa preserve the mushrooms?

PRE-TEST MARKING SCHEME

1.   Cocoa and Oil palm

2.   Three children

3.   Leaves and Mushrooms

4.   Enjoying the shade of trees

5.   Bird was satisfied

6.   He shouted at the bird to keep quiet

7.   It fell near where the tortoise was hiding

8.   He found mushrooms and tortoise

9.   He had a lot to carry home

10.   She roasted them.

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POST -TEST QUESTIONS

1.   What food crops did Asare and his wife grow?

2.   What are the names of Asare's children?

3.   Where was the bird perching?

4.   What did the bird do the first day when it was satisfied?

5.   What did bush rope tell tortoise?

6.   What was tortoise reply when bird said we are in a free society?

7.   Was happened to bird after the shot?

8.   What did Daakoa do with the bird?

9.   How long did it take tortoise to die after it was picked?

10. What meal was prepared with the tortoise?

POST TEST MARKING SCHEME

1.   Cocoa yam, plantain, and cassava

2.   Obuo, Nkuu and Okata

3.   On top of a tree

4.   It flew away

5.   I can't be bothered

6.   We shall see one day

7.   Bird died

8.   She prepared a delicious meal with it

9.   Four days after

10. Tortoise meat was used in preparing palm nut soup.