

Variations of L1 use in the English Language Class

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ABSTRACT

The use of the first language (L1) has been a debatable topic in the area of English language teaching. In Malaysia, the emphasis on the ‘English only’ approach in English language classes is still a common belief among many Malaysian ESL teachers. However, the reality is that this does not happen completely among local university students, especially in speaking skill. Thus, this paper aims to investigate the variations of L1 use, in this case Bahasa Malaysia (BM), in an English language class among university students. The study employs a qualitative approach, in which 14 participants were observed. Data gathered were analysed thematically. The findings show that generally, L1 is used by the participants for purposes reported in the literature. However, four main purposes are emphasized – task management, interpersonal use, language and content management. However, there are variations of L1 use in each category. The result provides clear justification for the need of the L1 use among university students, especially for speaking skill and that its can help build learners’ confidence in improving their L2. Pedagogically, teachers need to consider learners’ linguistic and cultural background in task design and allow L1 use when necessary. Without L1 use, English language learning can be discouraging for learners as it may lead to incomprehensible input. Thus, teachers have an important responsibility to design materials based on different background of learners, and be prepared for use of L1 especially among low proficiency L2 learners.

Keywords: first language; English language teaching; speaking skill; task-based language teaching; language learning

INTRODUCTION

In the past, the use of the first language (L1) was strongly discouraged or prohibited in second language (L2) classes, as it was felt that such use would interfere with the development of the L2 (e.g. Odlin, 1989; Kellerman, 1995). However, in the last two decades, there has been

renewed debate about the relationship between L1 and L2 or target language (TL) use and learner's views on L1 as a meaningful component in the learning process (Jin & Cortazzi, 2018; Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Stapa & Majid, 2017; Choi & Leung, 2017; Al-Amir, 2017; Kim & Yoon, 2014; Canagarajah, 2007; Cook, 2001; Butzkamm, 2003; Macaro, 2005; Cummins, 2009). Yet, many still believe that extensive use of the second language (L2) in language classes is a crucial element of effective language teaching (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Chi, 2000; Cook, 2001).

The use of L1 has been a feature of most language teaching methods. Language practitioners (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Cook, 2001; Howatt, 2004; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) support its use in classroom procedures and acknowledge its role in English language teaching methods. In the Grammar Translation method, learners analyse grammar rules of the target language, and use the L1 by translating sentences into and out of the target language, so that meaning becomes clear (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), this method is still used as the primary teaching method in language classrooms throughout Asia (pp. 4-5). The L2 use is often minimal as language instruction is often entirely in the L1. Nevertheless, this method is often criticised as it reduces L2 input to the learner, emphasizes L2 reading and writing skills, and does not incorporate learners' communicative ability in the L2 (Brown, 2007, p. 16).

In Malaysia, Bahasa Malaysia (BM) is the official language of the country and the school system. BM is also the first language (L1) of most Malays in the country. However, for English, some treat it as a foreign language. However, because English is a compulsory subject in the Malaysian education system, it is regarded as the second language (L2) of Malaysians. Malaysia emphasized the 'English only' approach in the English language classes during the 1990s, and it is still a common belief among many Malaysian ESL teachers. However, L1 supporters argue for the use of L1 in the language classes. According to Butzkamm (2004, p. 19), foreign language learning and teaching should include the use of L1 as an aid to both understanding and expression. Inbar-Lourie (2010) believes that the L1 is a resource that learners bring to the language-learning experience, which should be utilized rather than ignored. However, in Malaysia, there is a strong influence of the national language or Bahasa Malaysia over the learning of English among Malaysian learners (Normazidah Che Musa et. al, 2012).

Due to the on-going debate on use of L1 in the English language classroom, this study partakes a focus on exploring this issue at university level. As students in Malaysia need to undergo at least 13 years of schooling and learn English throughout those years, it is of great concern why students are still weak in the language when they reach university level. Thus, an approach taken in this study is a task-based approach as the researchers are concerned with learners' ability to be involved in communicative tasks in English. The objective of this study is to explore low proficiency learners' L1 use in L2 task-based lessons and the purpose of the L1 use in the tasks. The research questions in this study are:

1. Do low proficiency L2 learners use their L1 in task-based activities?
2. What are the purposes of their L1 use in the task-based activities?

LITERATURE REVIEW

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM IN MALAYSIA

The language curriculum in Malaysia holds to the principle of a communicative approach to English language learning. The CLT was implemented nationally in the Malaysian communicational syllabus in the 1970s (English Language Syllabus in Malaysian Schools,

1975), which is a syllabus for the teaching of English at the upper secondary level (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986). There are two main streams of CLT syllabuses: the Notional Syllabuses (van Ek, 1975; Wilkins, 1976), and Task-Based Syllabuses (Long & Crookes, 1992; Prabhu, 1987). Notional Syllabuses are designed based on learners' needs, motivations, characteristics, abilities, limitations and resources (Yalden, 1983); and focus on meaning rather than forms; while Task-Based Syllabus, or often referred to as Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), focuses on tasks as the basic unit (Long, 1980; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1991). According to Nunan (1989), a task is 'a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while attention is principally focused on meaning rather than forms' (p. 10). Compared to the Notional Syllabus, the Task-based syllabus allows learners the opportunity to practice the target language in the actual speech community rather than just in the classroom. In TBLT, language is believed to be learnt through its use in real situations, as it aims to enable learners to develop language skills relevant to their use of their target language in the real world.

The Ministry of Education (MOE), Malaysia, currently launched its blueprint "English Language Education Reform in Malaysia: The Roadmap 2015-2025", which adopts the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (henceforth "CEFR"). This is a major decision made in the Malaysian Education Blueprint, henceforth MEB 2013-2025 as there are seven (7) – 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 9 and 10 – out of eleven (11) fundamental shifts in MEB that are relevant to English language education. The roadmap highlights the national agenda that sets the overall target for English language programme in the production of school leavers and graduates with the level of English proficiency they need to make themselves employable in the modern globalised world.

The key to the road map is the alignment of Malaysia's English Language Education System with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) — an international standard that focuses on producing learners who can communicate and interact in any language, in this instance, English. A crucial element of the education reform is to adopt the CEFR levels as the governing framework for curriculum development, selection of learning materials and measuring learning outcomes. However, CEFR only provides a guideline for interpreting students' language ability. To keep abreast with this reform, this paper provides an exploration of how learners' L1 use may be useful for their L2 learning in task-based lessons.

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emphasizes on content that reflects learners' needs, focuses on language for communication, aims to make communicative competence (the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately) the goal of language teaching, and develops procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 66). Although CLT focused on communication of meaning, judicious use of learners' L1 is permitted, including translation, where possible (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 132). According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), CLT is accepted worldwide as practitioners from different educational contexts can connect to it in different ways (p. 68). It centres around learners and their experiences of second language use. It is also based on the principle of communicative models of language and language use. In these models, language is a system for the expression of meaning with the primary function of interaction and communication. Hence teaching should reflect functional and communicative uses instead of grammatical and structural features (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 71). The theory that underlies CLT is that,

activities that involve real communication and in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks support the learning process (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 72).

USE OF L1 IN LANGUAGE CLASSES

Studies have shown that L1 use has advantages for L2 teaching and learning. According to Butzkamm (2004), foreign language learning and teaching should include the use of L1 as an aid to both understanding and expression. Inbar-Lourie (2010) believes that the L1 is a resource that learners bring to the language-learning experience, which should be utilized rather than ignored. Nation (2003) discovered that in classrooms where all learners share the same L1 or national language, there is a tendency for tasks to be done in the L1 as it is more natural with those who share the same L1, easier and more communicatively effective than the use of the L2, which can be embarrassing especially for shy learners and those who feel they are not very proficient in the L2. Nunan (2003) believes that the L1 and L2 support one another as the L1 provides a familiar and effective way of achieving engagement with the meaning and content of what needs to be achieved in the L2, but reminds that its use should not be overused.

Goh and Fatimah Hashim (2006) implied that learners use their L1 due to their lack of vocabulary and ability to express or verbalise their thoughts confidently, clearly and accurately. Liao (2006) further state that L1 use may facilitate TL classroom activities as its use provides a beneficial scaffolding that assists learners in understanding tasks and solving specific problem.

The use of the L1 also provides a social and cognitive space (Carless, 2008; Butzkamm, 2003). Carless (2008) views L1 use as supporting learners in facilitating their language acquisition, and allowing them to complete group or pair work without having to speak the L2 all the time (p. 331). Butzkamm (2003) regards L1 use as a cognitive and pedagogical resource, as it is always available, and provides the fastest, surest, most precise and most complete means of accessing a foreign language. The use of L1 also enables in-depth discussion, sustains involvement in the task, and helps learners verbally control themselves (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). These uses of L1 show the importance of L1 use in the language class and reinforce the aim of this study as relevant in diverse language learning situations.

L1 USE IN TASKS-BASED CLASSROOM

The studies of tasks show that different tasks mainly contribute to different purpose of L1 use. Recent research on use of the mother tongue or L1 in task-based second language learning classrooms has shown a positive contribution to social and cognitive functions (Carless, 2008; Alegria de la Colina & Garcia Mayo, 2009; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Storch & Aldosari, 2010) and pedagogical functions (Storch & Aldosari, 2010). By using their L1, learners are able to maintain their attention, interest and involvement, and expand their expression of meaning, identity and humour (Carless, 2008). Learners also use their L1 to manage tasks and discuss grammar and vocabulary, focus attention and understand meaning, establish fruitful interaction and collaboration (Swain & Lapkin, 2000, 1998, 1999; Thoms et al., 2005), think and self-regulate more quickly as well as transfer their cognitive, metacognitive and social skills to the L2 (Alegria de la Colina & Garcia Mayo, 2009), explain tasks to each other (Swain & Lapkin, 2000, 1998, 1999; Cook, 2001; Thoms et al., 2005; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2006), gain control of the task (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2006), achieve task goals (Guerrero & Villamil, 2000), and moving the task along (Thoms et al., 2005).

Swain and Lapkin (2000) and Kim and Yoon (2014). The findings from Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) revealed that learners were generally reluctant to use the L1 but thought that it could be helpful, especially in activities where meaning is central. They also found that restricting or prohibiting the use of L1 means denying learners the opportunity of using an important tool. In addition, Swain and Lapkin (2000) reported that if learners were not permitted to use the L1, the task presented to them may not be accomplished as effectively as possible, or may not be accomplished at all. They concluded that judicious use of the L1 can ultimately support L2 learning and use. The results from the study conducted by Kim and Yoon (2014) showed that the students of different proficiency levels use their L1 in L2 writing tasks to generate or elaborate ideas and for to clarify uncertainties related to linguistic deficiencies. All these findings show that although learners use their L1 in different kinds of tasks, it proves helpful in their task completion and target language learning

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Alegria de la Colina and Garcia Mayo (2009), the use of the L1 in the second or foreign language classes can be beneficial when the learners share their L1 and when they do not have enough metacognitive skills in their L2. With the help of their L1, they can reflect on language and guide themselves through tasks that they would not be able to perform in the L2 (Alegria de la Colina & Garcia Mayo, 2009). According to Cummins (2008), if students' prior knowledge (information, skills or experiences that learners have previously acquired) is encoded in their L1, then their L1 is inevitably implicated in the learning of L2. This is because instruction should explicitly attempt to activate students' prior knowledge and build relevant background knowledge to help learners in their language learning. Thus, L1 use is necessary as it plays a major role in facilitating L1-L2 transfer.

Since the aim of this study is to explore L1 use in language learning, Cummins' (2008) argument on L1 use as a form of prior knowledge sets the framework of this study. This involves the activation of the L1 in the learning process. When the L1 is used in the language learning environment, it strengthens the need for learners to use it in the language classroom. Thus, in this study, the researchers explored the relationship between learners' L1 use and tasks, based on the contextual support and cognitive demands of communicative tasks.

THE STUDY

This study adopted task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach as it is believed that low proficiency learner participants would learn better through tasks. This belief is supported by Levine (2011), who states that teaching and learning in secondary and university language class is most effective within the framework of a principled, meaning and task-based approach as it responds to diverse learning styles and strategies, promotes learner autonomy and acknowledges the classroom as a sociocultural environment, which is surrounded by the complexity of L2 teaching and learning (p. 7). Other studies that have investigated L1 use within a task-based approach in the L2 classrooms presented in the literature review also strengthened my belief in the need for an exploration of L1 within a task-based approach. Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate the variations of L1 use in English speaking classes among university students.

METHOD

As mentioned in the aim of the study, the researcher explores L2 learners' L1 use in an English language class, by focusing on the use of a task-based approach. This was done by observing a class situation and the steps taken to reach a learning solution. This approach assisted in investigating learners' L1 use in the class. A qualitative approach was undertaken in the study to enable the researcher to gather in-depth data of learners' language use, specifically their L1, while completing the tasks. The instruments used were recordings of participants' interactions during task-based activities. Cummins (2008) states that if learners are given the opportunity to refer to their L1, it opens up their language awareness in learning the L2. Therefore, in this study, the need for L1 use is explored through task-based activities and how it aids L2 learning.

PARTICIPANTS

This study took place at one of the public universities in Malaysia. The study involved 14 first year students from one faculty, representing a total population of 130 students. They were selected to participate in the English Preparatory Class (EPC) designed specifically for the research. Participants' ages range from 20 to 21 years old. The participants were all Malays, as the researcher wanted them to have similar L1 knowledge, which can also be understood by the researcher. The participation of the students was voluntarily, after they were briefed on the EPC and the sessions that they were required to complete for the purpose of the study.

Another similarity among the participants is that they have low English language proficiency, which was determined by the Malaysian University English Test. MUET is a test of English language proficiency, which is a requirement for students to enter public universities in Malaysia. The test is a competency test designed to measure learners' proficiency level and is compulsory for all pre-university students. There are four components of the test – reading, writing, listening and speaking. MUET results are in the form of scores that explain an individual's command of the language, graded on a 6-band scale – Band 6 as the best score, and Band 1 as the lowest score (Malaysian Examination Council, 2006). Since it is a criterion-referenced test, each band has descriptors of the expected performance at each level. The participants in this study are of the lower band in MUET, from Band 1 to 2. This is equivalent to IELTS Band 3 and 4, which categorizes learners as limited to extremely limited user.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

In the first meeting with a group of students identified by the faculty, the researcher conducted a briefing session with 30 students to explain about the study and what was expected from them. Consent forms were distributed to the participants, requesting them to state their agreement or disagreement to participate in the study. Once the consent forms were collected, the researchers calculated the number of agreed responses. A number of 14 students – ten girls and four boys – agreed to participate in the study. They were then provided with a schedule of the EPC sessions and what they would expect from the EPC. The EPC is an added learning session conducted during the students' semester break.

As the study employed TBLT, the EPC class involved task-based lessons so that learners were able to use the language in an academic context and to cater to the aim of the study which was to understand low proficiency English language learners' L1 use in the English class. According to Pica et al. (1993), language is best taught and learned through interaction; thus, employing communicative tasks that allow learners to use language to exchange information and communicate ideas, and share ideas and opinions, collaborating

towards a single goal, or competing to achieve individual goals. The tasks that were designed differed from one another in terms of contextual and cognitive levels. Contextually, tasks were either familiar or unfamiliar to learners; and cognitively, task required low or high levels of thinking. This was so that they would reflect the four quadrants of Cummins' (1981) matrix of contextual support and cognitive demands in designing communicative tasks (refer to Figure 1). Tasks that are familiar to learners and have low cognitive demands are regarded as low-level tasks and non-challenging as the words are simple for the learners to understand and use, enabling learners to comprehend, process and complete the tasks. This variation is tasks provided a wider exploration of learners' first language use in multiple tasks of different difficulty/complexity.

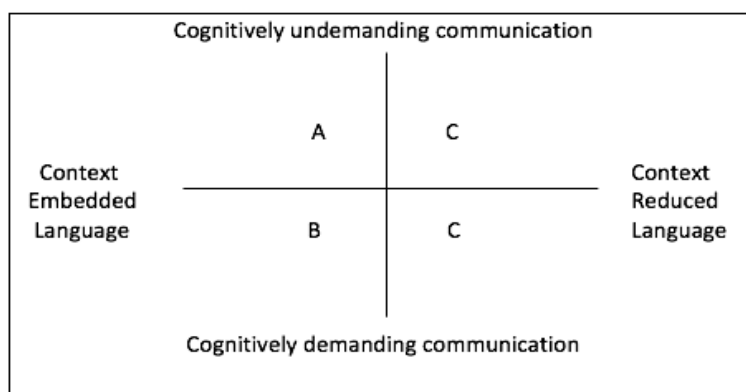


FIGURE 1. Cummins' (1981) matrix of contextual support and cognitive demands in communicative tasks

In the first EPC session, the researcher divided the students into pairs. They were informed that they will be working with their partner in each EPC session. Each EPC session lasted for 2 hours. In general, there were three EPC sessions, which involved three types of tasks – problem solving, decision making and opinion exchange – which were selected based on the theoretical accounts of types of tasks explored by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) and which are described as pedagogical tasks by Richards and Rodgers (2001). According to Pica et al. (1993), a communication task reflects the belief that language is best learned and taught through interaction, where learners and teachers can exchange information and communicate ideas. The activities were structured so that learners will talk as a means of sharing ideas and opinions, collaborating toward a single goal, or competing to achieve individual goals (Pica, Kanagy & Falodun, 1993, p. 172).

The three types of tasks prepared are regarded as pedagogical tasks, which are communicative and have the potential to trigger second language learning processes and strategies, and demand learners' higher-order thinking (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 162). There were four sub-tasks prepared under each type of task. Each task type was labelled as PS (problem solving), DM (decision making) and OE (opinion exchange); followed by the four sub-tasks, which were numbered 1 to 4. The numbering of tasks signalled the level of difficulty of the tasks – task 1 as the simplest and task 4 as the most difficult. For that reason, the time allotted for task 1 was lesser than task 4 – 15 minutes for task 1, 25 minutes for task 2, 35 minutes for task 3 and 45 minutes for task 4 – all totalling to two hours for each EPC session. The tasks and instructions are described in Appendix A.

In each task, the researchers observed each pair's discussion when completing the tasks. The researchers did not provide any instruction in relation to what language learners should use, as learners know that the EPC sessions focus on English language. As the participants have low proficiency in English, the researcher suspected that there will be use of the L1 among learners. In addition, recorders were located close to each pair of learners so

that their interactions are clearly recorded. The researcher was present during all EPC sessions, as the researcher played the role of the teacher. This was necessary as the tasks for the EPC sessions were prepared by the researcher, and thus he would have a clearer understanding on how to conduct the tasks.

THE TASKS

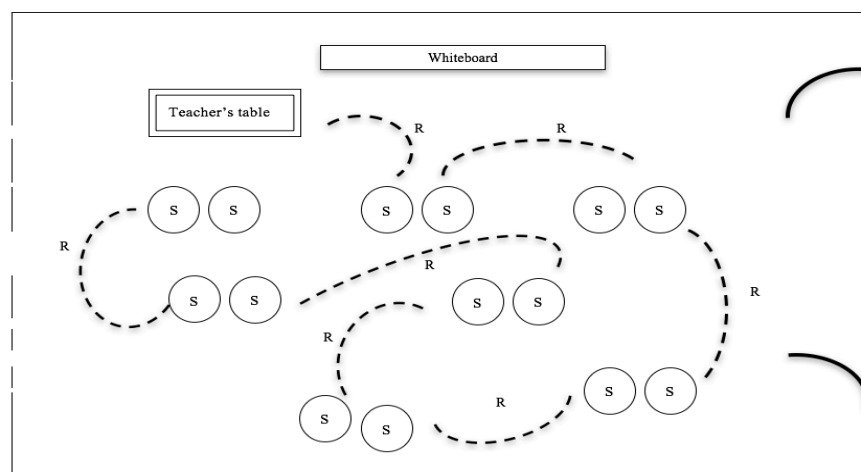
There were three task types used in the study. The Problem Solving tasks that the researcher used were Problem Game (PS1), Problem Advice (PS2), Teenage Problem (PS3) and Career Problem (PS4). PS1 was taken from a book (Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 98), PS2 from an internet link (http://esl.about.com/od/conversationlessonplans/a/l_advice.htm), and PS3 and PS4 were self-designed. These tasks were selected because they required learners to solve different problems that were simple, related to learners' lives and also their future. The Decision Making tasks that were used were Menu Making (DM1), Dialogue Making (DM2), Gift Decision (DM3) and Survival Decision (DM4). DM1 and DM2 were taken from internet links, DM3 from a journal article and DM4 from a book. These tasks were chosen because they involved learners in real-life communication and situations, and required them to use their decision-making skill.

The Opinion Exchange tasks that were used were Job Opinion (OE1), Invention Opinion (OE2), Cultural Exchange (OE3) and Language Exchange (OE4). OE1 and OE2 were taken from different books (Nunan, 2000; Nunan, 2004), OE3 from a module (English Language Support Programme 3, 2008), and DM4 was self-designed. These tasks were used as they required students to provide views from simple to complex issues. They were related to learner' life and environment, and they ranged from simple to slightly challenging for learners. A sample of all these tasks can be found in Appendix A.

TASK RECORDINGS

All lessons were audio recorded, from general to specific task-based activities given to learners. Each pair's discussions were also recorded so that the researchers could re-listen to their interaction while completing the tasks prepared. The recordings consisted of the class lessons from beginning to end. This helped the researchers to listen back to the actual occurrence of participants' language use in the language class. MP3 recorders were used to record each pair of learners' discussion as the tasks given required them to work in pairs in order to allow communication and interaction. The recorders were located in the centre of two tables, one recorder for each pair of learners. The researchers ensured that the recorders were turned on and off at the appropriate time. The learners were not allowed to control the recorders so that they were not burdened with the additional task of monitoring the equipment. These audio recordings were later transcribed verbatim and coded based on the need for the participants' use of their L1.

The classroom used in the study was large and could fit in about forty learners. One of the researchers took the role of the teacher in the EPC class. This teacher sat at the teacher's table, which was in front of the class. Participants sat in pairs, on chairs with a folding table attached. The teacher who was also the researcher (R) moved from one pair to another (as shown in the dotted lines in Figure 2) to observe the learners' interaction when doing the tasks. The set-up of the EPC class is shown in Figure 2. When learners were informed that their interaction were going to be recorded, they felt anxious as they felt that they would have to communicate fully in English. However, when the researchers told them that any use of L1 is allowed in the discussion, they felt relieved. This was shown when the researcher noticed the learners were more relaxed during their discussions as they were able to share their ideas in any language that they felt at ease with.



Key: S = students; R = researchers; ----- = researchers' movement

FIGURE 2. The set-up of the EPC class

DATA ANALYSIS

The audio-recorded recordings were transcribed using verbatim transcription. This means that not only the words heard in the recordings were transcribed, but also other conversational cues like pauses, overlapping speech and break in utterance. The researchers used key transcription conventions (refer to Appendix B) which was created by one of the researchers, Darmi (2011) based on works on transcriptions developed by Jefferson (2004), Hepburn and Potter (2009), Atkinson and Heritage (1984). An addition made to the key transcription conventions was on ambiguities in the study's set of transcriptions as they consisted other language use or variety. This included differences in L1 words, L2 words, and other local varieties of L1, ambiguous language and varieties – which was coded {L}; other mixed ambiguities like proper names, place name, name of cultural events, or words from its origin – which was coded is capital letters; ambiguous pronunciation of an English word – which was coded with the actual word between open and close brace brackets, unintelligible speech – which was coded {X}, and use of fillers. – which was coded as {F}. Examples of the use of these conventions are provided in Table 1:

TABLE 1. Examples of transcription conventions to represent ambiguities

Code	Example	Description
MALAYSIA	<i>T: how many would like to work a bit outskirts like SEREMBAN</i>	Mixed ambiguous: proper names, place names (in Malaysia), Malaysian cultural event names, words from its origin (e.g. KOPITIAM, KIASU, SAMPAN, ORANG UTAN, KAMPUNG)
SAMPAN	<i>T: they don't have to go to school by SAMPAN or . boat</i>	
hight{high}	C1: i have a relate{relative} who works in SABAH	In the case of ambiguous pronunciation of an English word, an approximation of the meaning of the word is given in curly brackets after the pronunciation
{X}	C2: {X} lain dulu lah . doctor? . actor?	Unintelligible speech
{L}	C2: pilot boleh {L}	Local varieties of Bahasa Malaysia; other ambiguous language and variety
{F}	B1: hah go {F}	Common fillers of Bahasa Malaysia

Key: T = teacher; C1 = Participant C1; C2 = Participant 2, B1 = Participant B1

The recordings were transcribed using a transcription software, 'Express Scribe' version 5.06, which is a professional audio player application for PC or Mac designed to assist the transcription of audio recordings. This software can be downloaded from

<http://www.nch.com.au/subscribe/index.html>. The researchers transcribed the spoken data into its written form by listening to segments of the recorded recordings (based on the total number of minutes) i.e. to shorter sections e.g. in five-minute intervals. The minimum number of minutes for a recording is thirty minutes, and the maximum two hours. Once transcription of the whole recording was complete, the researchers combined them into a whole transcript based on the number of minutes for each class recording of each task.

The researchers performed a few trials of transcriptions to determine the conventions to be used before transcribing all the recordings. In each transcript, codes and pseudonyms were used. Codes refer to the symbols used to describe speech characteristics that occur in the transcript. Pseudonyms are used instead of real names to refer to the people in the transcripts. This is to ensure that the participants remain anonymous in the study. The researcher focused on learners' L1 (BM) use and English language. L1 (BM) was marked in bold, and English was marked using normal font. Learners' use of their local (L1) varieties also occurred in the recordings, which was coded as [L]. After all the transcriptions were complete, the researcher validated them by providing the recordings and completed transcription to an external editor, so that the transcriptions can be verified.

FINDINGS

Generally, from the task recordings, it was found that all learners used their L1 in the tasks. Nine different variations of L1 use were identified in the study, which emerged from the four categories of L1 use, and these are related to past studies mentioned earlier (Kim & Yoon, 2014; Cook, 2001; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Sharma, 2006; Gregg & Gil, 2007; Bergsleighter, 2002). The four categories are task management, interpersonal use, language and content management. These categories were identified based on the literature, in which the researchers identified 15 different L1 functions which were grouped according to the four basic types of functions used in this study. These categories of L1 use were then verified through the data gathered from the study. Figure 3 shows the categories of L1 use and their variations of L1 use.

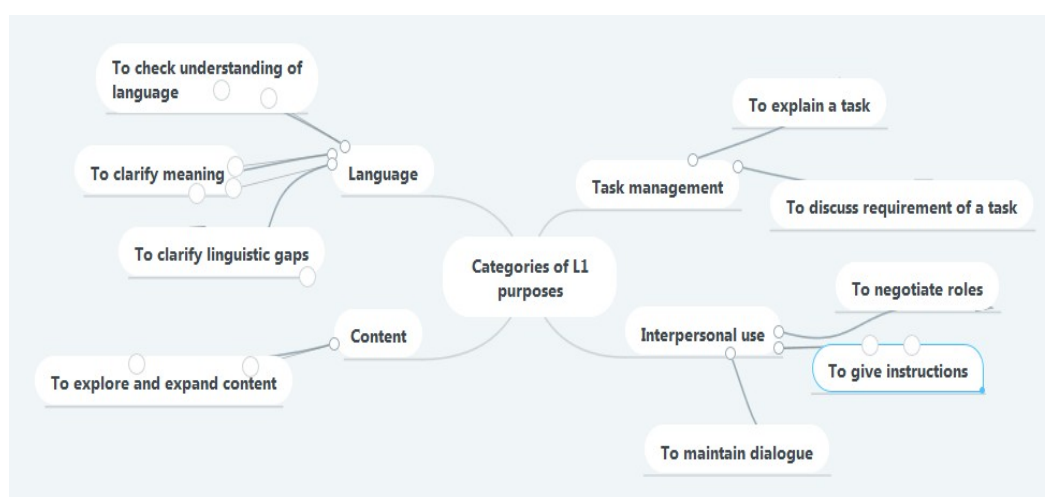


FIGURE 3. Categories of L1 use

Figure 3 is used as a frame for the analysis of the analysed transcripts of the learners' talk as they completed the tasks. In the transcripts, 9 of the 15 L1 functions identified from the literature occur. The recorded L1 functions and the number of occurrences of each function type in the transcripts are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. L1 functions in the study

Task management (Low-cognitive)	Interpersonal use (Low-cognitive)	Language (Low-cognitive)	Content (High-cognitive)	Total
1. To explain a task 2. To discuss requirement of task	1. To negotiate roles 2. To give instructions 3. To maintain Dialogue	1. To check understanding of language 2. To clarify meaning 3. To clarify linguistic gaps	1. To explore and expand content	9 different L1 functions
50 examples (17%)	63 examples (21%)	90 examples (31%)	91 examples (31%)	294 examples (100%)

The nine variations of L1 functions identified in the transcriptions are categorised based on the L1 purposes. The variations show that learners explain tasks and discuss requirement of tasks to show their management of tasks. When they negotiate roles, give instructions, and maintain dialogue, learners are applying their interpersonal use. L1 is used for language purpose when learners want to check understanding of language, clarify meaning and linguistic gaps. Learners also use their L1 for content purpose when they want to explore and expand content. This finding shows that learners use their L1 more in tasks for language and content purposes and this contributes to 31% subsequently from the whole occurrences of L1 use in the transcriptions.

Task management

1. Explanation of tasks

Extract 1

KHA meet sister MARY?

RAJ hah MARY . ((student reads the sentence on the board) .
 maybe PETER at LONDON (student reads the sentence
 on the board)) . **susunan** arrange who PETER where **ni**
 when **ni**

(We have to arrange which is PETER, where he is and when it was.)

(Transcript PS Pair C)

Extract 1 shows discussion between KHA and RAJ about the explanation of tasks. Using the L1 during this interaction helps both students to understand what is required from the task. This shows their use of explanation of tasks for management of task.

2. Discussion of requirement of task

Extract 2

HAS {X} **dia macam ni . madam cakap a: kita
 kena buat contoh dulu berdasarkan kepada
 siapa . di mana . kenapa**

(It's like this, we have to provide an example first based
 on who, where and why.)

TIN **kenapa** (Why.)

HAS **kalau boleh kan ambil {X} lagi lah sebab ini dah
 masuk sekali {X} is the important eh penting**

(If possible, take {X} again because it's included as an important one.)

(Transcript PS Pair F)

Extract 2 shows HAS and TIN discussing the requirement of the task. By using the L1, both learners are trying to understand what they have to do in the task. This understanding helps learners before they proceed discussing the tasks in more detail. This helps in their management of task.

Interpersonal use

3. Negotiation of roles

Extract 3

MAS ah? **macam mana?** (how?)

JIH **dah . cuba baca** (it's done, just try and read it)

MAS **yelah . kita pegang . so nanti kita bawa satu je . apa ni . a.:** (yes, we hold it so later we just need to bring one of it only)

(Transcript OE Pair G)

In Extract 3, MAS and JIH are negotiating roles on how to present their task. Both use their L1 to have a clearer understanding of their roles during the presentation. This shows how learners use their L1 for interpersonal use.

4. Giving instructions

Extract 4

IDA **kejap** (wait)

(Transcript DM Pair B)

In Extract 4, IDA uses the L1 to give instructions. This provides a clear view of learners using the L1 for interpersonal use.

5. Maintaining dialogue

Extract 5

KHA your idea short or long? **tengok tengok tengok . panjangnya**
(let me see. It's long.)

RAJ ah **ye ke?** (really?)

(Transcript OE Pair C)

In Extract 5, KHA and RAJ are both using the L1 to maintain dialogue. This is so that they are able to be in the dialogue for a longer time. When this happens, the L1 is used for interpersonal use.

Language

6. Checking understanding

Extract 6

FAR hah? starter **tu benda mula mula nak makan tu kan?**

(Starter is the food that you start with right?) SIT hah

(Transcript DM Pair E)

In Extract 6, FAR is using the L1 to check her understanding of the L2 word in the task. This shows the use of L1 for language purpose.

7. Clarifying meaning

Extract 7

JIH knife **boleh?** (What about knife?) MAS knife?

MAS **pisau** (knife) (*Transcript OE Pair G*)

Extract 7 shows that MAS is clarifying meaning from JIH on the L2 word that JIH used. MAS used the L1 to clarify her understanding of the word. The L1 here is shown to be used for language purpose.

8. Clarifying linguistic gaps

Extract 8

UMU confident confident

IDA what? for what?

UMU confident . about the: e:r **nak cakap macam mana nak kata lebih konfiden tentang BAHASA ENGLISH tu . macam mana ah? macam mana aku nak buat ayat ni?**

(How do we say 'more confident about ENGLISH'? how do I make the sentence for that?)

(*Transcript OE Pair B*)

In Extract 8, UMU is trying to clarify words that she is unsure of to refer to the idea of 'confidence'. She elaborates her idea in the L1, hoping for IDA to clarify the linguistic gap. This also shows the use of L1 for language purpose.

Content

9. Exploring and expanding content

Extract 9

LIA I think you give kamera {camera}

YAH camera? **boleh ke? macam mana camera tadi? apa namanya tadi?** {L} (Can we give camera? What was it called just now?)

LIA **maknanya eh {X} gambar ni lah**
({X} means this picture.)

(*Transcript DM Pair D*)

In Extract 9, LIA and YAH are exploring and expanding content by using their L1. The content, which is in a picture form, are explored and expanded through their interaction of the idea in the L1. This show L1 use for content purpose.

From the task recordings, the researchers also analysed the number of pairs who used L1 based on the four categories identified. This is represented in Table 1. In Table 3, the ticks (√) represent the categories of L1 use identified among participants, while the shaded crosses (X) show the pairs who did not use the identified categories of L1 use in the tasks.

TABLE 3. Categories of L1 use by participants (pairs)


Task Type	Pair	Categories of L1 use			
		Task management	Interpersonal use	Language	Content
Problem Solving (PS)	A	√	√	√	√
	B	√	√	√	√
	C	√	√	√	√
	D	√	√	√	√
	E	X	X	√	√
	F	√	√	√	√
	G	√	√	√	√
Opinion Exchange (OE)	A	√	√	√	√
	B	√	√	√	√
	C	√	√	√	√
	D	√	√	√	√
	E	√	√	√	√
	F	√	√	√	√
	G	√	√	√	√
Decision Making (DM)	A	√	√	√	√
	B	√	√	√	√
	C	√	√	√	√
	D	√	√	√	√
	E	√	√	√	√
	F	√	√	√	√
	G	√	√	√	√


Based on Table 2, all pairs used their L1 due to language reasons in all types of tasks; while one pair did not use their L1 for task management (Pair E in PS tasks), and for interpersonal use (Pair E in PS tasks). In general, learners used their L1 across all tasks for almost similar purposes.

The researchers then explored whether the relative proportions of L1 use by type of function relates to task type. To do this, the number of L1 functions (by type) that occurred in each task was counted, and grouped them together based on the task type. I then calculated the total percentage of L1 functions in the task type. This is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4. L1 function and task type

Task Type	Range of L1 use	Task management	Interpersonal use	Language	Content
Opinion Exchange (OE)	Mid	3 (8%)	10 (25%)	12 (30%)	15 (38%)
Problem Solving (PS)	High	15 (21%)	14 (20%)	19 (27%)	23 (32%)
Decision Making (DM)	High	20 (22%)	19 (21%)	24 (27%)	27 (30%)
Mean score (%)		14	21	34	31

 Highest proportion of L1 functions for each task type

 Lowest proportion of L1 functions for each task type

In Table 3, L1 use is presented by function, revealing how it relates to task type. Table 3 shows that learners use their L1 most for the language and content management function types and least for task management and interpersonal use function types. L1 use is generally mid in Opinion Exchange (OE) task, and high in Problem Solving (PS) and Decision Making (DM) tasks. However, this pattern does not hold equally strongly for the different types of functions. In addition, the table shows that L1 functions differ for different

task types. The proportion of L1 use for task management shows that it is used less in OE tasks, but increases to a level that is almost the same in the PS and DM tasks. For interpersonal use, the proportions are similar, 17% - 25%, for all task types, as one would expect this to be unrelated to task.

As for language use, the proportion of L1 use is similarly high across three of the task types. In contrast, for content purpose, the proportion is at the same high level for four of the task types. As for content purposes, for the other three task types, both language and content management seem to have almost equal significance for the learners. This finding shows that task type may influence the pattern of L1 use functions, such that the functions may differ for some tasks.

DISCUSSION

Based on the findings of categories of L1 use, it shows that the L1 functions occur in each of the four major categories of L1 use. However, the analysis shows that this does not occur in the transcripts in some sub-tasks. As indicated, these gaps occur in two of the major function types: interpersonal use and language. In both interpersonal use and language functions, three sub-functions from each type do not occur. Of the interpersonal uses, the learners do not use their L1 for warm-up brainstorming (Weschler, 1997), to promote discussion (Atkinson, 1987) or for social functions (Liao, 2006; Sharma, 2006; Eldridge, 1996). This may be due, at least in part, to the task phase explored in this study. In the during-task phase, learners are unlikely to use their L1 for the three absent functions as they are focused on discussing the content of the tasks, having already completed any warm-up phases.

For the language function type, the three functions identified in other studies that do not occur in this study are: to clarify form (Bergsleighner, 2002; Greggio & Gil, 2007; Sharma, 2006; Goh & Hashim, 2006; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Storch & Aldosari, 2010), and to explain abstract words (Prodromou, 2002). Based on those studies, these functions are more associated with higher cognitive demands. However, the L1 functions found to be used by learners in this study are cognitively low. This may be due to the nature of the task-based activities, which was not focused on language form and structure and thus, might be a contributing factor in the non-occurrence of more demanding 'language' functions. However, another reason why L1 was not used to explain abstract words in this dataset is possibly because the words required for the tasks were not particularly abstract. An implication from this is that particular features of tasks and their relationships to learners' experiences and approaches may affect the use of different L1 functions, thus influencing the ways in which learners use their L1.

In general, the findings show that the purposes of L1 use by L2 learners vary in different types of tasks. These purposes are similar to past studies (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Storch & Aldosari, 2010) that have shown interpersonal use, task management and language purpose relate to tasks that have low-cognitive demands; while content management purpose signals high-cognitive use. In this study, the findings have shown how particular L1 purposes are prioritised for particular tasks, and the ways cognitive demands of tasks influence L1 use. L1 is used for high-cognitive functions in PS and DM tasks, and in both low- and high-cognitive functions in OE task.

These findings proof that the theoretical underpinnings provided by Alegria de la Colina and Garcia Mayo (2009) and Cummins (2008) is true. When learners share similar L1 and have limited metacognitive skills in their L2, L1 becomes crucial to them. L1 use will help them to reflect on language and guide them through the tasks given. In addition, Cummins' (2008) emphasis on relation of prior knowledge also affects learners' use of L1. Learners' L1 helps to facilitate transfer of knowledge to the L2, but which needs to be

activated and supported. Thus, in L2 classes, learners' with low L2 proficiency need support in activating their prior and background knowledge to help them in their language learning.

CONCLUSION

The general findings of the study on the use of L1 in task-based lessons seem to signal a vital link to the context of tasks and their cognitive levels. This brings in implications for material design in the L2 classroom. The data in this study could provide considerable resources for designing tasks that would raise teachers' awareness of how tasks might affect different uses of L1 use, especially with groups of low L2 proficiency learners. The basic aim of the task could be to focus on communication of meaning or flow of speech, without disruption of ideas. With the allowance of learners' L1 use, learners may be able to build up their confidence in improving their L2 learning through collaborative engagement in tasks. This means that task design based on Cummins' (1981) model could be a benchmark for enabling progression from a high use of L1 to a low use of L1, and subsequently to full use of the L2. The reality is that in the L2 classroom, it is almost never true that L2 learners will use the L2 only, thus teachers need to see the practicality of their task design. This would hopefully raise learners' awareness of using the L2.

For the language policy, in task-based pedagogy, curriculum designers should realize that in practice, it is almost impossible to exactly match theory and reality. Banning the L1 use from the L2 classroom is not always easy to achieve. With the current change in the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2012), we see that the government is hoping that Malaysians will be bilingual at the end of their tertiary education. With this in mind, there is always a need to make some reference to the L1 in the L2 classroom. Hence, policy makers and teacher-trainers shoulder a great responsibility. Rather than banning the L1, they should instead equip teachers with the premises of the post method concept and how to adapt the teaching techniques to their context, making use of the learners' linguistic and cultural background (Hasan Eid Waer, 2012).

To conclude, this study has shown that there is diverse and interesting variations in different categories of L1 use in English language tasks. Through explicit investigation of learners' L1 use in three types of tasks, the data in the study prove that there is a need for L1 use, and that learners use it for four main reasons, with sub-variations for each one. The range of L1 use that is shown among learners is seen necessary for them to provide ideas in relation to the tasks given to them. By limiting or stopping L1 use among learners, it may hinder them from expressing the ideas that they have in mind due to limited L2 vocabulary and other reasons. The overall findings show that L1 was used systematically for each category of L1 use investigated. Thus, when using task-based lessons in teaching English, teachers need to ensure simple use of English language for low proficiency learners. This is because the aim of task-based language classroom is to provide a platform for learners to communicate meaningfully. With the help of their L1, learners may not need to worry about form and structure of the L2, but that their L2 fluency will hopefully be strengthened through the help of their L1 use.

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APPENDIX A

DESCRIPTION OF TASKS

Problem solving (PS) tasks

	TASKS	TASK DESCRIPTION
PS1	Problem game (Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 98)	Teacher wrote a problem on the class board. Students read the problem. They were then given a question about the problem and had to discuss with their partner the answer to the question. Teacher provided some clues to the problem to guide students in their discussion. Teacher then requested answers from each pair and asked them how they came up with the answer.
PS2	Problem advice (adopted from (http://esl.about.com/od/conversationlessonplans/a/l_advice.htm))	Each pair was given a letter of problem. They had to read and understand the problem and discuss ways to advice the writer. They then had to reply to the writer on their advice. They presented their answer to the class. Other students had to listen to the solution and comment on the answer.
PS3	Teenage problem (own)	Teacher reflects on 'Problem Advice' task with students. Teacher then asks students some common teenage problems, and writes each one on board. Teacher assigns one teenage issue to each pair. Each pair had to discuss the issue. Teacher then exchanges the issues with other pairs. Each pair is now to think of solution to the problem. Students then had to present their answer.
PS4	Career problem (own)	Students were asked about their dream job. Teacher then asks students the common problems in job hunting. Teacher lists down the items that students gave on the board. Each pair was then given a problem from the one listed. They were to discuss 2 or 3 solutions to their assigned problem. Students then wrote their answers on board and compared their solutions to other pairs. Teacher asks the class which is the best solution and students had to justify their choice.

PS1: Problem Game (Sample task)

Peter, Mary and John all went away last weekend. One of them went to Birmingham, one to Manchester, and one to London. One of them went to the theatre, one went to see a relative, and one went to buy a computer.

- A. Who did what?
- B. Work with a partner. Write one true sentence about each person.
- C. Explain to the other pair how you did the puzzle. Did they do it the same way?

Clues: One of them went to London to visit her mother; John bought a computer but not in Manchester.

Answer: Peter went to Manchester to go to the theatre.
 Mary went to London to visit her mother (relative).
 John went to Birmingham to buy a computer.

(adopted from Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 98)

PS2: Problem Advice (Sample task)

A. Teacher writes a sample problem page letter on the board.

Dear Angie,

My husband and I are worried about our daughter. She refuses to do anything we tell her to do and is very rude to us. She has become very friendly with a girl we don't like. We don't trust her anymore because she is always lying to us. Are we pushing her away from us? We don't know what to do, and we're worried that she is going to get into trouble.

Worried Parents

Based on the letter, teacher asks questions to the whole class:

1. What do you think of the relationship between the daughter and her parents?
2. How does she feel?
3. Where might he/she live?
4. Why might she have this problem?

B. Teacher distributes one teenage problem letter to each pair. In pairs, students discuss the following:

1. What advice would you give to the person who wrote this letter?
2. Discuss your ideas and then agree on the two best suggestions.
3. Draft out a reply letter of advice.
4. Read your reply to the class.
5. Ask comments from students.

(adopted from (http://esl.about.com/od/conversationlessonplans/a/l_advice.htm))

PS3: Teenage Problem (Sample task)

A. Teacher and students reflect on previous task (PS2). Teacher asks students for some common teenage problems and writes them on board.

- E.g.
- | | |
|--|----------------------------|
| a. Smoking | b. No place to hang out |
| c. Quarrels | d. Truancy |
| e. Lack of money | f. Peer pressure/influence |
| g. Loitering | h. Vandalism |
| i. Lack of communication between parents and teenagers | |

B. Teacher assigns one of the problems above to each pair. Students discuss the cause of the problem and write them on paper.

C. Teacher exchanges each pair's problem with other pairs. Based on the causes listed, students discuss the solution to the problem. Students then present their answers to the class.

PS4: Career problem (Sample task)

A. Teacher asks students about their dream job. Teacher poses these questions to students:

1. What kind of employee are you looking for?
2. What kind of company are you looking for?
3. What's the salary you are expecting?

B. Teacher asks students for some of the common problems of job hunting and common work problems.

Teacher lists students' response on board:

1. Preparing for job interviews
2. Juggling work and family
3. Dealing with the boss.
4. Inequality in the workplace.

C. In pairs, students discuss two or three solutions to each problem. Students write their answers on the board. After all pairs have written their answers, teacher asks the whole class which is the best solution for each problem and the reason.

Decision making (DM) tasks

	TASKS	TASK DESCRIPTION
DM1	Menu making (adopted from Ralph's ESL Junction http://www.ralphsesljunction.com/worksheets.html)	Students were given a story 'Once upon a time in 'Gangwondo'. In pairs, students had to read and understand the story and answer the questions given. They were also asked to discuss the food that appeared in the story. They then had to create a menu for a restaurant they would like to open. Students were required to discuss the food, its description and price and complete 'Making the Menu' chart provided by the teacher. Students then presented their menu to the class.
DM2	Dialogue making (adopted from http://esl.about.com/library/lessons/blordering.htm)	Based on 'Menu Making' task, teacher exchanges each pair's menu with other pairs. Students are to create a dialogue for ordering food in a restaurant. Teacher presented a sample dialogue to students first, and discussed some common expressions used. Teacher gave students 15 minutes to create the dialogue. Students then presented a role-play using the dialogue that they created.
DM3	Survival decision (Paramasivam, 2009)	Teacher distributes a situation of survival context to each pair. In pairs, students had to read and understand the situation. They had to select ten most important items given for their survival and provide valid reasons for their choice from number 1 to 10. Students were given 15 minutes to discuss their choices. Students then presented their choice to the class.
DM4	Gift decision (adopted from Nunan, 2004, p. 104-105)	Teacher distributes each pair (Student A and Student B) with different sets of handout. Each pair has to discuss gifts for the person in each other's handout. Information on the person on each handout is provided and students are to share the information prior to deciding the gifts.

DM1: Menu making

A. Teacher distributes a reading text to each pair. Students read and understand the story.
 Teacher asks the whole class on the reading questions related to the story.

Directions: Read the story and answer the questions that follow the story.

Once upon a time in Yanggu-si there was a student named Joo-Hee. She loved to eat at nice restaurants that served delicious dishes such as Tak-Kalbi and Sam-ghe-tang. One day, Joo-Hee went with her friends to eat Tak-Kalbi (a chicken dish) in the world famous city of Chuncheon (everyone knows Chuncheon has the best Tak-Kalbi in the world)! Upon finishing dinner, Joo-Hee realized that she had forgotten her wallet! She had no money! Oh my Goodness! She ate Tak-Kalbi with noodles and some vegetables, and now, she couldn't pay for the dishes! Luckily, the restaurant owners were very nice and told her she could pay next time. Two weeks later, Joo-Hee went back to the restaurant and paid the owners. The End.

1. What city has the best Tak-Kalbi in the world? _____.
2. What did Joo-Hee not eat? Tak-Kalbi, vegetables, or Sam-ghe-tang.
3. How long was it before Joo-Hee returned to the restaurant? _____

(adopted from Ralph's ESL Junction <http://www.ralphsesljunction.com/worksheets.html>)

B. Teacher distributes a handout on 'Making a Menu' to each pair. Based on the instructions on the handout, students are to create a menu for a restaurant that they would like to open. Students have to name the food item, describe the food, decide the price and provide a picture of the food (optional).



C. Students write their menu on the board and present it.

Directions: Create a menu for a restaurant that you would like to open.

Item	Description	Price	Picture

DM2: Dialogue making

- A. Based on task 1, teacher exchanges each pair's menu with other pairs. Based on their friends' menu, teacher instructs students to create a dialogue for ordering food in a restaurant. Teacher first provides an example of dialogue. Teacher asks students for some of the common words/phrases in a dialogue for ordering food.
- B. Based on the menu that each pair has, students decide on a food item and drink that they would like to order and create a dialogue between a customer and a waiter / waitress. Students are given 15 minutes to create the dialogue.
- C. Once completed, teacher calls out 2 students randomly at one time to act out their role as a customer and a waiter/waitress. Students present their role play in front of the class.

(adopted from <http://esl.about.com/library/lessons/blordering.htm>)

DM3: Survival decision

- A. Teacher asks students about their experiences in making choices in life. In class, teacher and students discuss these choices.
- B. Teacher informs students of other situations where they may be required to make choices. E.g. What would you do if you had no transport and stuck at university campus? How would you go back?
- C. Teacher distributes a survival situation to each pair. Students read the situation and follow the instructions. Teacher gives students 15 minutes to discuss the solution. Students present their discussion decision to the class.

Survival Situation 1

You and three other people are trapped in the middle of the ocean. You have become separated from the main ship. You have about 300 miles of ocean to cover in order to reach the main ship. The following items are available, to be numbered in order of necessity of survival. Select the ten most important items. Give valid reasons for your choice. Discuss with your partner and reach consensus. The items are:

small boat, matches, signal-flares, oars, oil-lamp with oil, telescope, map of the ocean, knife, life-jackets, string, water, tent, blankets, compass, fish-hooks.

Survival Situation 2

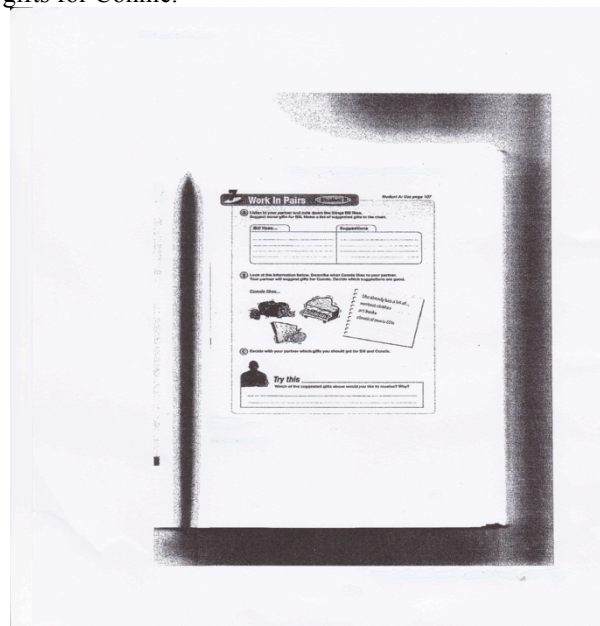
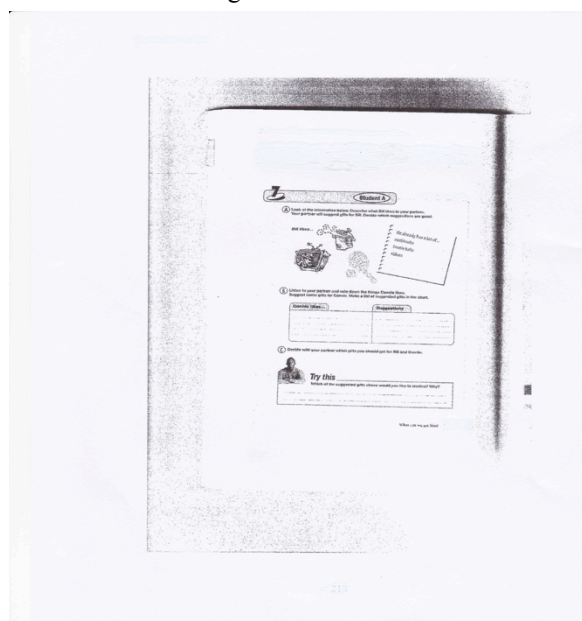
A group of people of which you are a member are trapped underground. Nobody knows you and your friends are trapped. You have to find your way up yourselves. You have with you a number of items which you have to number in order of necessity for survival. Select what you think are the ten most important items. You have to have valid reasons for your choice. Discuss with your partner and reach consensus. The items available are: twenty metres of nylon climbing rope, spade, battery-run transistor radio, torch, pick, small amount of explosives, spare batteries, water, watch, coats and warm clothing for each person, cigarette-lighter, magnetic compass, protective helmets, first-aid kit, chalk.

(adopted from Paramasivam, 2009)

DM4: Gift decision

A. Teacher instructs each pair to divide role as Student A and student B. Teacher distributes each student (Student A and Student B) with different sets of handout. Students follow the instruction in the handout. Student A has to describe what Bill likes to student B. Student B has to take note on the things Bill likes. Based on the list, student B suggests gifts for Bill. Then both student A and B decide which gift is the most suitable to give to Bill.

B. Student B exchange role with student A and discuss gifts for Connie.



(adopted from Nunan, 2004, p. 104-105)

Opinion exchange (OE) tasks

	TASKS	TASK DESCRIPTION
OE1	Job opinion (Nunan, 2004)	Teacher listed seven jobs on the board and asked students whether they are familiar with the jobs or not. In pairs, students were to discuss the jobs and rank them from the highest paid job to the lowest paid job. They also had to provide reasons for the ranking that they decided. They then had to present in class and other students were to listen and argue (if applicable) on any disagreements about the job ranking.
OE2	Invention opinion (Nunan, 2000, p. 63)	In pairs, students were required to list five most helpful inventions and five most annoying inventions. They had to discuss the invention and explain their choices. Each pair presented their answers to the class and others listen and comment.
OE3	Cultural exchange (English Language Support Programme 3, 2008)	Teacher distributes a picture to each pair. In class, teacher and students discuss the scene in the picture. Teacher relates the picture and discussion to culture. Teacher then assigns a feature of Malay culture to each pair. Each pair had to discuss the feature and later presented it to the class.
OE4	Language exchange (own)	Each pair was given a question on a global issue. They had to discuss the question and prepare for a presentation in front of the class. At the presentation stage, other pairs had to listen to each pair's presentation and ask questions on the issue.

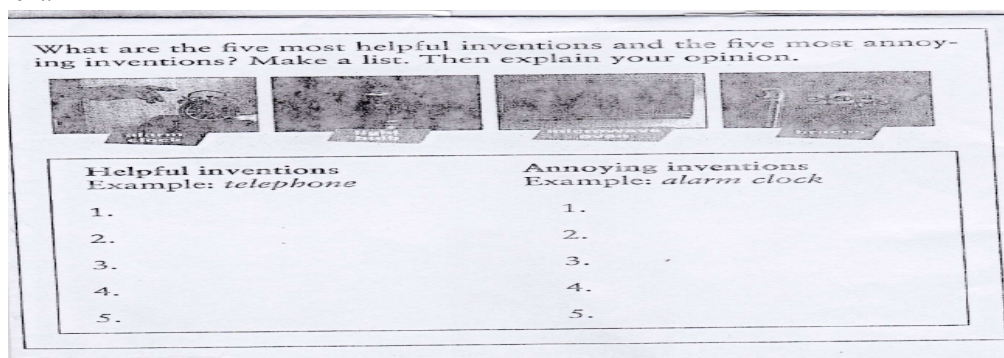
OE1: Job opinion

- A. Teacher asks students about their dream job. Students share their answer with teacher.
- B. Teacher lists down seven jobs (pilot, actor, pop-singer, nurse, fireman, doctor, teacher) on the board and ask students whether they are familiar with the jobs or not. In pairs, students discuss the jobs and rank them from the highest paid job to the lowest paid job. They discuss reasons for the ranking that they decided.
- C. Students present their rank to the class. Other students listen and argue (if applicable) on any disagreements about the job ranking.

(adopted from Nunan, 2004)

OE2: Invention opinion

- A. Teacher asks students to list some of the inventions in the world. Students share their ideas.
- B. Teacher distributes a handout to each pair. In pairs, students are required to list five most helpful inventions and five most annoying inventions. Students then present their answers to the class. Others listen and comment.



(adopted from Nunan, 2000, p. 63)

OE3: Culture exchange

A. Teacher distributes a picture to each pair. In pairs, students study and understand the picture.

Teacher asks the following questions:

1. What does the scene show? What kinds of people do you see in the picture?
2. In your view, from what culture are the people in picture? Why do you think so? (Look at their clothing, the space between them, their body language, etc.)
3. What do you think the people are saying about culture?

B. Teacher asks students the meaning of 'culture'. Teacher asks student to provide some features of culture (e.g. eating, greeting etc.). Teacher assigns one feature of Malay culture to each pair: wedding ceremony, eating custom, funeral, coming of age, traditional clothes, beliefs about hospitality, giving gifts, treating the elderly.

C. Students present their answer to the class.



(adopted from English Language Support Programme 3, 2008)

OE4: Language exchange

A. Teacher gives one question on language issue to each pair. Students discuss the question with their partner.

B. Students present their answer to the class. Other pairs had to listen to each pair's presentation and ask questions on the issue.

Questions:

1. What is the best way to learn English?
2. What kind of activities are suitable for the English language classroom? Why?
3. Which learning skill (reading, writing, speaking, listening) is most important in an English language classroom? Why?
4. How should English language teachers teach English to their students?
5. Do you think that students should be allowed to use/speak their Bahasa Malaysia in their English classes? Why?
6. Do you think that English language teachers should use/speak Bahasa Malaysia in the English language classroom? Why?

APPENDIX B

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

The transcription scripts consist three columns:

Column 1: refers to the line numbers of the transcripts.

Column 2: refers to the participants involved in the transcript.

Column 3: the recording transcripts with transcription conventions used.

Participants		Description						
T		Teacher turns and utterances are italicised						
S		Single unidentified student						
SS		Multiple unidentified students						
IDA DAM	UMU NAI	MAS YAH	JIH LIA	HAS FAR	TIN SIT	KHA ABD	RAJ	Pseudonyms of participants' names
Code	Example		Description					
[]	KHAI: i think [pop singer] AIN : [how]		Mark the start and end of overlapping speech, aligned to mark the approximate position of overlap					
=	T : they get extra allowance= S : ooh . i want i want T : =in SABAH		Continuation of one speaker's utterance from one turn to the other					
.	T: alright . emm . today i'm going to		Short pause; less than 3 seconds long					
..	T: how many of you would like to work .. for example		Long pause; more than 3 seconds long					
-	T: last week i think - last week i think i asked you right		Indicates breaks in utterance(s)					
/	T: three more years to study / that would be . two †thousand		Indicates new utterance in each speaker turn					
?	T: you got <u>three</u> more years to study?		A question; may not be in question structure					
¹ saya	KHA: i think docto:r . empat tu		Bahasa Malaysia words are in bold					
MALAYSIA SAMPAN	T: how many would like to work a bit outskirts like SEREMBAN T: they don't have to go to school by SAMPAN or . boat		Mixed ambiguous: proper names, place names (in Malaysia), Malaysian cultural event names, words from its origin (e.g. KOPITIAM, KIASU, SAMPAN, ORANG UTAN, KAMPUNG)					
hight{high}	HAS: i have a relate{relative} who works in SABAH		In the case of ambiguous pronunciation of an English word, an approximation of the meaning of the word is given in curly brackets after the pronunciation					
{X}	AIN : {X} lain dulu lah . doctor? . actor?		Unintelligible speech					
{L}	AIN : pilot boleh {L}		Local varieties of Bahasa Malaysia; other ambiguous language and variety					
{F}	AIDA: hah go {F}		Common fillers of Bahasa Malaysia					
{-}'text'	AIN: {-} 'yes this job must have reason'		Slow utterance					
{+}'text'	AIN: {+} ' sekarang ni kerja mudah nya cikgu dengan polis kan? '		Fast utterance					
↑start ↓start	T: they get extra allowance but their house rent is ↑cheaper than those teachers who stay in ↓SEMENANJUNG		A marked rising and falling shift in intonation; indicated prior to the rise or fall					
<u>three</u>	T: you got <u>three</u> more years to study?		Words that are stressed/emphasised are underlined					
wo:rd	KHAI: firem:an aaa . the salary		Elongated word; lengthening of the preceding sound; the more colons, the more elongation					
((comments))	T : so the first task that i will give you is ((teacher writes the task on board))		Contextual comments					

(adopted from Darmi, 2011)

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