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THE USE OF THE MOTHER TONGUE
IN THE BEGINNER ADULT EFL CLASS

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ABSTRACT

It has for a long time been argued whether the learners' mother tongue, or English only should be used in the EFL class. Some researchers and language teachers have argued that the mother tongue should be used in the EFL class in order to make the teaching and learning more effective. Others have rejected it, and claimed that the mother tongue has no place in the EFL class, and English only should be used. The debate is still continuing.

In this thesis, it was aimed to enlighten the debate on the use of the mother tongue in EFL by answering the question:

' Is English taught more effectively to beginner adult EFL learners when their mother tongue is used as a reference system, or when English only is used in the teaching process?'

In order to realize this purpose, an experiment with two groups of learners - the experimental group and the control group - was designed, and carried out in a private language school.

The data gathered during the experiment revealed that when the learners' mother tongue was used in the adult EFL class, the learners learned the grammar of the foreign language better than the groups where English only was used. The need for the use of the mother tongue was increasing in parallel with the complexity of the structures to be taught. The more complex the structures were, the more necessary was the use of the mother tongue on the part of the learners. On the other hand, the use of the mother tongue in adult EFL class did not make any difference in the learners' communicative performance in either groups.

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DEFINITIONS and ABBREVIATIONS

- academic approach Language learning in academic settings as a school subject.
- acquisition A term used for language learning which is unconscious, i.e. without deliberate attention to rules.
- audio-lingual An approach to teaching where oral imitation, memorization and drilling precede spontaneous speech, extensively using recorded dialogues and drills.
- behaviourism A psychological theory, which considers foreign language learning as a mechanical process of habit formation.
- cognitive style Characteristic self-consistent mode of functioning which individuals show in their perceptual and intellectual activities.
- communicative competence Knowledge of social, functional, and contextual features of a language in question.
- communicative language teaching A teaching approach relating the teaching techniques, language content and materials to the communication needs of the learners outside the classroom.
- contrastive analysis hypothesis Comparison of two languages for the points of difference in order to predict points of difficulty.
- complete beginners Learners starting elementary language courses without any previous experience or study in the language in question.
- curriculum A specification of all the subjects taught in an educational institution, or any values, attitudes, etc., transmitted implicitly or explicitly by the institution.

direct method Language teaching mainly through conversation, sometimes carefully arranged, but without explicit statement of grammatical rules or the use of the mother tongue.

EFL English as a foreign language.

ESL English as a second language.

foreign language learning Language learning in a non-supportive language environment, where instruction is to be the major source of input.

grammar - translation A language teaching method emphasizing the memorization of rules and the practice of translation.

interference The effect that the knowledge of one language has on the attempt to produce or understand another.

learning a language crosslingually foreign language learning by reconstruction of the foreign language on a mother tongue basis.

learning a language intralingually learning a foreign language through it, independently of mother tongue influence.

linguistic (or grammatical) competence Competence with reference to mainly formal and semantic features of a language in question.

mentalism A view of learning and thinking which sees the mind as a non-physical reality underlying observable human behaviour.

TEFL The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

transfer The influence of the knowledge of one language on the learning of another.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Problem

The century old debate in foreign language pedagogy centres around the use of the learners' mother tongue in teaching English as a foreign language. It is still controversial whether the learner should be encouraged to exploit his mother language knowledge and learn the foreign language 'crosslingually', that is, through the mother tongue, or whether he should keep his foreign language completely separate and learn the target language entirely within and through the foreign language, that is, 'intra-lingually' (H.H.Stern, 1983).

Around 1960s, some researchers advocated the use of the mother tongue in the learning of a foreign language, since they favoured the Contrastive Analysis. Contrarily, around 1970s, some researchers rejected the Contrastive Hypothesis and supported the use of foreign language in the teaching - learning process, that is, language learning in intralingual rather than crosslingual terms (for example, Dulay and Burt, 1974).

In learning a foreign language, the learner at first will go from the new language to and from experience (C.C. Fries, 1945), since the older one grows the more deeply embedded are the patterns of one's mother tongue (M.A.K. Halliday, A.McIntosh, P.Stevens, 1964). Cognitively, the learner - especially the adult learner - faces disorientation with regard to all linguistic, semantic and sociolinguistic aspects of the foreign language. While his mother tongue competence is experienced as a secure and familiar frame of reference, the foreign language system appears as indistinct, arbitrary, puzzling, almost entirely meaningless, and often as artificial, even 'wrong', sometimes absurd, and, on many occasions, disconcertingly confusing (H.H. Stern, 1983).

The use of the mother tongue in foreign language learning - teaching process seems more advantageous for adult learners, since they differ psychologically in their approach to foreign language. Adult learners can learn languages more readily by means of cognitive and academic approaches. They bring to the learning task experience and great cognitive maturity (H.H.Stern, 1985). Adult language learners are under the continual influence of their mother tongue, therefore, they tend to learn a foreign language by establishing structural and functional relationship between their mother tongue and the foreign language, that is, contrastive analysis between two languages. D.A. Wilkins (1974:32) cites that 'In any case many older learners will expect linguistic rules to be made explicit to them, and learning can be hindered where expectations are not fulfilled'. On the other hand, L.Bloomfield (1945), in his article 'About Foreign Language Teaching' claims that the unexperienced learner expects a foreign language to contain words with the same coverage of meaning as words in his mother language; the foreign language puzzles him by using several different words for one 'idea' (that is, for one word in his mother language), or one word for several 'ideas' (that is, for several words in his mother tongue). The beginners are also puzzled by such things as inflectional differences. They want to have these things explained; if this want is not met they are likely to lose confidence and develop blockage.

Thus, an adult language learner will strive against the practice of seeking word and form equivalents in his own language until he has established a direct connection between his experience and utterances and forms in the new language (C.C.Fries, 1945).

The debate whether to use the learners' mother tongue or the foreign language only in the EFL class has not been resolved, yet. Nowadays, there is a tendency among some educators and language teachers to reject the

use of the learners' mother tongue in the EFL class completely (F.G.A.M.Aarts, 1968). C.V.Taylor (1972) claims that the rejection of the use of the mother tongue in EFL is the result of methods and approaches exploited in the past in teaching foreign languages. For example, the direct method and the audio - lingual method ban its use completely. The direct method emphasizes the use of the foreign language as a means of instruction and communication in the language classroom and the avoidance of the use of the mother tongue as a technique (H.H.Stern, 1985). Also, the advocates of the audio - lingual method support the use of the foreign language in EFL. They claim that the mother language and the foreign language should be kept apart in order to prevent the learner's mother language interference (D.Larsen - Freeman, 1986).

Contrarily, there are language teachers and educators who believe that the learners' mother tongue should be used in TEFL. They claim that sometimes an explanation in the mother tongue is necessary to avoid waste of time in later correction of misconceptions formed by unexperienced learner deductions (W.M.Rivers, 1964). There is a disagreement, however, between the supporters of the mother tongue about where and when to use it, that is, at which level of the teaching process and how.

Some experts insist that the mother tongue should be used particularly at the elementary level (H.H.Stern, 1983), whereas others reject this idea and insist on its abundance at this level (P.D.Strevens in 'Translation and Foreign Language Teaching' by F.G.A.M.Aarts, 1968). Also, there are educators who advocate its use at every stage of the teaching process for quick and informal checks on comprehension (D.A.Wilkins, 1974).

A number of educators - especially the advocates of the communicative approach to language teaching - claim that the learners' mother tongue should be used on a limited scale - i.e. just to help learners to overcome diffi-

culties related to the linguistic, communicative and cultural differences between two languages (M.Finocchiaro, 1982). Others assert that it may be used in the form of translation to check listening comprehension and to help learners to grasp the linguistic differences and similarities between two languages (J.F.Green, 1970). Contrast and comparison with the mother tongue seems to be the simplest way of helping learners understand and remember a difficult structure (T.Urgese, 1987).

Currently, most of the language teachers are in confusion about the use of learners' mother tongue in the EFL class. As a result of this, they apply their individual approaches which cause disagreement in theory and practice among educators and language teachers.

Mary Finocchiaro, who is one of the advocates of the communicative approach in TEFL, cites that the communicative approach is the principal objective in the majority of current second and foreign language teaching programmes and expresses its attitude towards the use of the learners' mother tongue as follows:

'The use of the learners' native language is permitted - and indeed encouraged - to explain, for example, those elements in the social situation that may require a more formal variety of language; to clarify instructions; to compare or contrast grammatical or communicative expressions in the first and second languages; and, above all, to help students retain their pride in their native tongue and culture' (Finocchiaro, 1982:26).

In this thesis, the researcher assumes that the communicative approach to language teaching and its attitude towards the learners' mother tongue in TEFL is likely to clarify the debate concerning the use of the mother tongue in the adult EFL class.

1.2. Problem

Is English taught more effectively to beginner adult EFL learners when their mother tongue is used as a reference system, or when English only is used in the teaching process?

1.3. Limitations and Assumptions

The research was limited to complete beginner adult EFL learners learning English at private language schools.

The subjects of the experiment were assumed not to have any knowledge of English beforehand, since they were all complete beginners. They were assumed to be well motivated.

The tests used in the experiment were assumed reliable and valid enough to measure the language performance of the learners.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Researchers in foreign and second language have been asking, how it is that an adult can learn a foreign or second language. What is it that enables a learner to internalize a new linguistic system? How does he do it?

Charles C. Fries (1945), whose opinions reflect the behavioral psychology, cites that an adult who has already learned a mother language extensive enough to grasp and express a rich and varied experience can never again in the same position as a child learning his mother tongue. For an adult the new language will probably never function in the same way his mother language does. At first, the adult learner will go from the new language symbols through his own language symbols to and from experience, but he should struggle against translation and the practice of seeking word equivalents in his mother tongue until he has established a direct connection between his experience and utterances in the new language.

Translation and 'word equivalents' which seem to save time at the beginning may cause delay in the long run and may, if continued, even set up such habits and confusions as to obstruct any real control of the new language.

The fundamental matters of the language to be mastered on a production level should, as soon as possible, be made unconscious habits. For this purpose, many whole sentences, questions and answers, require repetition and more repetition until the production becomes an automatic unconscious habit.

As a conclusion, he states that any adult who has learned his mother language can learn another within a reasonable time if he has proper guidance and materials, and if he cooperates thoroughly. If an adult is to gain satisfactory proficiency in a foreign language most

quickly and easily he must have satisfactory materials upon which to work - i.e. he must have the important items of the language selected and arranged in a properly related sequence with special emphasis upon the chief trouble points. With proper materials based on descriptive analysis of both the language to be studied and the mother tongue of the learner can an adult make the maximum progress toward the satisfactory mastery of a foreign language. (C.C. Fries, 1945).

These explanations reveal the fact that Fries' opinions on adult foreign language learning are based on the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

Barry P. Taylor (1972) opposes the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. He cites that it was considered to be able to explain how an adult learner learned a foreign language in the past, but is considered inadequate at present. He claims that the hypothesis seems to be partially or totally invalid in at least three different areas: First, behavioral psychology and transfer theory on which the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is based on, have been found to be invalid, since they do not adequately account for the learner's creative contribution to language learning. Second, linguistic theory is at present insufficient in comparing languages for points of differences in order to predict points of learning difficulty. And third, it has been known for some time that foreign language learners make some errors which cannot be attributed to the structure of their mother tongue, and therefore, cannot be predicted by a comparison of learners' mother tongue and the foreign language.

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was popular around 1960s, and it was assumed that the foreign language learner was a passive participant in the language learning process, totally dependant on his teacher for drill and reinforcement in order to learn.

However, at the end of 1960s and around 1970s the

attitude was to consider that the adult language learner, like the child, is an active participant in language learning and that he copes directly with the foreign language in his attempts to learn it. Like the child, the adult language learner will try to speak the foreign language before he has mastered it, and his linguistic attempts will reflect his imperfect control of the language (B.P.Taylor, 1972).

In other words, it was assumed that a child learning his mother tongue and an adult learning a foreign language could be using the same system.

D.A.Reibel (1969) tries to enlighten the case basing his opinions on the Nativist view. He claims that there is some innate language learning competence, which, applied in the right way, leads to linguistic competence that underlies linguistic performance. Together, the innate learning principles and their application constitute the learner's language learning strategy.

Adults possess the same innate language learning competence as the child, but not all of them apply it in the same way, or even at all, and it was such differences in language learning performance that accounted for the wide variation in degree and kind of foreign language ability that is seen in adults as opposed to children (D. A.Reibel, 1969).

Contrarily, some researchers reject the idea that the adult and the child learner learn a foreign language by using the same system, and argue that language is a complicated abstract formal system, and young children seem not to have the general cognitive capacity to deal with such systems. Theories which assume an essential similarity between adult foreign language learning and child language acquisition have been driven to demand additional apparatus to account for the various differences (B.L.Kennedy, 1988).

At present, contrary to the assumption, which was common in late 1960s and early 1970s, that the adult language learner learning a foreign language and the child acquiring his mother tongue could be using the same system, it is assumed that they apply different systems. The reason being that the conditions of learning a foreign language and acquiring a language are not identical (D.A. Wilkins, 1974).

S.D.Krashen characterises language acquisition as a subconscious process which results in the knowledge of language whereas 'language learning' is a conscious process which results only in 'knowing about' the language or explicit learning. The discussion of language acquisition has centered entirely on children learning their mother tongue. Some researchers have assumed that children acquire, while adults can only learn (S.D.Krashen, 1982).

Adults have already had learned a language. They have had more practice in speaking their mother tongue, and therefore, the rules and the system of the mother tongue is likely to interfere with learning the system of the foreign language. This is what makes foreign language learning and mother tongue learning (language acquisition) quite different processes (R.L.Politzer, 1970).

Jeremy Harmer (1983:33) argues,

'...adults learning a foreign language are not children acquiring their mother tongue. The latter have a tremendous amount of time to acquire their language, and it is a slow process. The former, however, may be very limited in the amount of time they have to learn, and they may want or need to see results quickly'.

Adult learners generally expect formal instruction and want it, and it seems to be true that language that is learnt in this way, and then practised, can become part of the acquired store. Young learners may not benefit greatly from an emphasis on conscious learning whereas

adults have variety of learning strategies which they can draw upon (J.Harmer, 1983). Adult learners can call upon learning abilities which children have not yet developed. They can recognize the overall activities of language learning. They can identify and make explicit the aim of any particular learning sequence. They can bring to bear deductive and analytical abilities. They can sustain mental effort and perhaps motivation over longer periods. Adult learners are therefore able to exploit a wider range of learning strategies than children, so that their actual achievement can be well ahead of that of children (D.A. Wilkins, 1974). Adults learning English bring to the task a mature personality, many years of educational training, a developed intelligence, a determination to get what they want, fairly clear aims, and above all strong motivation to make as rapid progress as possible. An adult is no longer constrained by the educational system or parental pressure to learn English, so the problem of dealing with conscripts do not exist. Since people choose to be present in an English class, the opposite is more the case - the teacher's task is to utilize and channel his student's motivation so that his specific needs and aims are optimally fulfilled.

Adults require a different teaching strategy from that used with younger age groups. On the whole they learn more quickly as they have been trained in learning for many years. Less demonstration is called for, and more explanation, since an adult mind demands reasons for things and a clear formulation of the principles involved. Hence the constant requests from an adult class for the 'rules' of English grammar.(G.Broughton, C.Brumfit, R.Flavel, P.Hill and A.Pincas, 1978).

H.H.Stern (1983) makes a review of the learning research, and from this he derives strategies which he hypothesizes good adult learners are likely to employ while less efficient learners employ them only weakly,

fail to maintain them concurrently, or fail to develop them altogether.

1. Good language learning involves first of all an active planning strategy. He/she will select goals and subgoals, recognize stages and developmental sequence, and actively participate in the learning process.

2. The good adult language learner employs an 'academic' (explicit) learning strategy. Language learning is, to some extent a perceptual and cognitive task, and good language learners are prepared to study and practise. That is, they regard the language as a formal system with rules and regular relationships between language forms and meaning. They pay attention to these features and, either independently, or by comparison with their mother tongue, develop the foreign language as a consciously perceived system which they constantly revise until the learning process is completed. They analyse the language and develop the necessary techniques of practice and memorization. They learn to exclude the mother tongue more and more until they gain internal standards of grammaticality and appropriateness. They are capable of treating the language as knowledge and as a skill to be acquired. Failure to learn can be attributed to failure to employ one or the other strategy when its use would have been critical (H.H.Stern, 1983).

2.2. Language Learning Strategies for Adults

Some of the most effective methods currently in use are those which recognize the learners as adults with emotions, needs and values. These factors seem crucial in the development of lessons for adult EFL learners. Such lessons need to be:

1. Meaningful to the learner. The presentation must be in the language that the learner can understand, and it must concern situations and contexts that the

learner recognizes useful and realistic.

2. Limited and controled. There must be some kind of system to the presentation of language to make the learning efficient, and to motivate the learners through a series of successful stages. It minimizes frustration and confusion on the part of the learner if there is a progression from 'no choice' activities to those of limited choice to those with some free type of activity within the proficiency of the learner. Emphasis needs to be placed on asking a learner to perform only when he/she is ready.

3. Focuses on a few areas at a time. Besides focusing on the foreign language itself, cultural awareness and non-verbal aspects of communication need to be introduced. At the same time, it is important to be highly selective when combining language/culture skills into a single presentation. Overloading learners with many new concepts at one time is counter-productive. (D.Ilyin, T.Thomas, 1978).

2.3. When and How to Use the Mother Tongue

Language pedagogy between 1900 and 1980 and language learning research between 1950 and 1980 have tried to solve the major language learning problems, one of which is the use of the mother tongue in EFL (H.H.Stern, 1983).

Some researchers have advocated the use of the learners' mother tongue in EFL class, others have rejected its use, and claimed that the foreign language only should be used in the teaching of a foreign language. (Dulay and Burt, 1974. in H.H.Stern, 1983). The learner can not progress to independent use of the language until its basic patterns of phonology, grammar, and lexis become so established that he can stop worrying about such matters as tense usage or word order. He cannot become competent in the foreign language until he breaks down the habit of mentally translating every sentence into the mother tongue

or forming ideas in the mother tongue and then translating them into English; English utterances must be directly associated with the situations and contexts in which they normally occur, not with supposed 'equivalents' in the mother tongue.

In the light of these goals the teacher should assess the contribution of the use of the mother tongue, whether as a teaching technique or as a skill to be mastered (J.F. Green, 1970).

The researchers, who advocate the use of the mother tongue in the EFL class, have, for a long time, been debating when and how to use it. Many of them have claimed that the most convenient way of approaching the question of when and how to use the mother tongue might be to differentiate between two separate functions, the first involving the conveying of information, and the second related to translation. (K. Piasecka, 1988).

2.3.1. Conveying the Information

The experts and researchers advocating the use of the mother tongue for conveying the information claim that it may be used for the following purposes:

a) Class management - giving instructions. Instructions should normally be in the foreign language, but at the beginning they need to be explained in the mother tongue, and thereafter, they should be in English (J.F. Green, 1970; F.G. French, 1948). Once the learners' competence has progressed to a level where the foreign language itself can be understood clearly, there will be no need to use the mother tongue for this purpose (D.A. Wilkins, 1974; F.G. French, 1948).

b) Setting the scene.

c) Language analysis.

d) Rules. Rules governing grammar, phonology,

morphology, spelling, formal speech and writing can be arrived at collectively or explained by the teacher in the mother tongue (K. Piasecka, 1988). Explanations of grammatical points and usage often require the use of the mother tongue. Many grammatical errors made by learners are caused by the differing systems of the learners' mother tongue and the foreign language. Comparison and contrast with the mother tongue on grammatical points is often very helpful, especially to adult learners (F.G. French, 1948; J.F. Green, 1970; M. Collingham, 1988). Where the teacher decides that a comparison is justified, he should emphasize differences rather than similarities (J.F. Green, 1970).

e) Cross-cultural issues. The teacher of the same ethnic origin is aware of the cross-cultural issues and can explain them (K. Piasecka, 1988).

f) Teaching phonology. Individual sounds as well as patterns of stress, rhythm and intonation can be compared between two languages. The relationship of the sound patterns to the writing system of different languages can also be contrasted (M. Collingham, 1988).

g) Materials. Worksheet and tapes with mother-tongue instructions or prompts (K. Piasecka, 1988).

h) Resolving individual areas of difficulty.

i) Assessment and evaluation of the lesson.

j) Correcting, indicating the nature of errors.

k) Pattern practice. This involves very little use of the mother tongue, a single mother-tongue cue usually enables the learner to produce a correct English sentence (J.F. Green, 1970).

2.3.2. Translation

Some researchers insist that the use of 'translation' can be useful in teaching a foreign language. However, they do not refer to the method whereby trans-

lation passages are set in order to test whether particular linguistic items have been grasped, but a more creative use of translation (M. Collingham, 1988).

'Translation' can be used for the purposes below:

a) Discussion.

(1) Learners can write down what they want to do in the class in their mother tongue. This can later be translated by the teacher (M. Collingham, 1988).

(2) Learners can talk on to a tape in their mother tongue. This can later be translated (M. Collingham, 1988).

b) Role - play. Learners can role - play a situation, first in their mother tongue. If they tape it, they can play back the tape and gradually translate what they said into English (M. Collingham, 1988). This process of translating the mother tongue version into English alerts learners to the fact that one cannot translate words separately, but only ideas and phrases. Thus, learners will be able to develop an awareness of how the two languages differ (K. Piasecka, 1988).

c) Teaching Vocabulary. By comparing words in English and the learners' mother tongue, questions can be raised concerning the boundaries of translation - one word in one language may be translated into two words in another, and vice versa (M. Collingham, 1988).

d) Comprehension. Translation may be used for checks on comprehension. There are many ways of testing comprehension; asking for synonyms, examples, sketches, and so on. However, sometimes it is quicker and easier to ask for a mother tongue explanation. The teacher should not expect a perfect translation, for probably none exists, but he should be able to determine whether the learner is using the language intelligently (D.A. Wilkins, 1974; J.F. Green, 1970; T. Urgese, 1987).

e) Creative writing. Learners can tell stories in their mother tongue, and then this can be translated into English (M.Collingham, 1988).

2.4. Arguments in Favour of the Use of the Mother Tongue in EFL

Sometimes language teachers have been told to use only the foreign language in the classroom, but in most cases the learners' mother tongue and the foreign language, English, is used both by the teacher and the learner. Often, certain explanations of the language or activities will be most efficient if done in the learners' mother tongue (M.Lewis, 1986).

The use of the mother tongue cannot be neglected in the EFL class. The teachers who forbid the use of the learners' mother tongue, have forgotten what goes inside the learners' head. The learner searches in his mind for the equivalent of the item in question in his mother tongue, and he is satisfied only when he finds it (F.G. French, 1948).

The thinking, feeling and artistic life of a person is rooted in his/her mother tongue. At the elementary stages of learning a new language, the learner's repertoire is limited to those few utterances already learnt, and he/she must constantly think before speaking, when having a conversation, people often become fully aware of what they actually mean only after speaking. People need to speak in order to sort out their ideas, and when learning a new language this is often best done through the mother tongue (K.Piascka, 1988).

At the early stages of learning a foreign language the learner - especially the adult learner - faces disorientation with regard to all linguistic, semantic and sociolinguistic aspects of the foreign language (H.H.Stern, 1983).

For these reasons, the use of the mother tongue should not be neglected in EFL - especially at the initial stages of learning a foreign language .

Some researchers argue that learners frequently mentally interpose the translation process themselves in the initial stages of learning. Irrespective of the method applied or approach adopted, they think in their mother tongue. Therefore, translation is taking place, even though the learner has said nothing aloud (F.G.French, 1948; Z.Nadstoga, 1988; W.M.Rivers and M.S.Temperley, 1978).

In order to break the habit of mental translation and to establish a direct association between the item and the context in which it is used the language should, wherever possible, be taught 'situationally', using pictures, gestures, verbal contexts, etc., to establish use and meaning and stimulate meaningful practice, but it should not be interpreted as a technique to avoid the mother tongue when presenting a new item and not as a way of practising the language. The effectiveness of a presentation is to be determined not by the teacher's avoiding the learners' mother tongue, but by how quickly the learners can use the item correctly in appropriate situations.

Many words, especially abstract nouns, are difficult or time-consuming to present situationally. Where other presentation techniques seem likely to waste time or cause misunderstanding, the most sensible solution is to give a mother-tongue explanation or approximate equivalent. However, 'situational presentation' is worse than useless if it leaves the learner confused (F.G.French, 1948; J.F.Green, 1970).

However, 'situational presentation' or 'giving the mother tongue equivalent' of a lexical item both have disadvantages. To present a lexical item in association with a single object is to do little in establishing the

meaning of the word. It invites the learner to overgeneralize the meaning of the word, encouraging the idea that there is a clear class of objects, indicating by the one that is shown, and that for this class there is a label in the foreign language just as there is one in the mother tongue.

In the same way as when 'translation' is used to teach meaning, the learner may assume the meaning of the word as the same meaning of the equivalent word in the mother tongue, so that the foreign-language form will become associated with the semantic system of the learners' mother tongue (D.A.Wilkins, 1974). This is dangerous, since a word in one language hardly ever 'means the same', for they operate within quite different systems of relationships and contrasts. Sometimes their range of meaning is completely different. This is even true of grammatical structures (J.F.Green, 1970).

The teacher can do his best to discourage it by presenting the language in a general cultural context which is clearly different from that of the learners' mother tongue and by establishing a set of visual associations for any item so rich that assumptions of interlingual synonymy will be difficult to sustain. It is also necessary for the learning of any one item that its extralinguistic associations should be contrasted with those of other related items. Without this the limits of its denotations cannot be known.

The teacher can use a number of techniques for using the foreign language to teach the meaning of language, and these will be valuable to him on some occasions. He can use definitions, exemplifications, paraphrases, in general, the verbal context, to make meaning clear. He may also make such relations as antonymy and synonymy quite explicit (D.A.Wilkins, 1974). To summarize, the disadvantages of the use of translation in teaching vocabulary outweigh

the advantages (D.A.Wilkins, 1974; R.Wang, 1990). Nevertheless, 'translation' should not be totally banished from the EFL class. There are occasions when 'translation' will be necessary because the use of linguistic and non-linguistic context of the foreign language will lead to confusion and ambiguity (D.A.Wilkins, 1974). Once the learner's competence has progressed to a level where the foreign language itself can be understood clearly, there will be no need to use the mother tongue (translation) for this purpose (F.G.French, 1948; D.A.Wilkins, 1974).

In spite of all these views, the question whether to use the learners' mother tongue in EFL or not, has not been resolved, yet. There are language teacher who avoid the use of the mother tongue as much as possible.

C.V.Taylor (1972) asserts that the reason why many teachers have been frightened of using the learners' mother tongue or any 'translation' in EFL class is the reflection of the attitude aroused among the teachers after the rejection of the grammar - translation method. In practice, however, a large number of teachers translate words or sentences when they see that their students do not understand what they say in the foreign language, since gestures and situations are frequently ambiguous.

The behaviourists have insisted on the use of the foreign language in the EFL class, so that it becomes a habit. This view accepts the idea that language includes habit formation. In practice, however, the situations created in the class have been artificial for the learner to guess the meaning of the item being taught.

Principles on the Use of Translation in EFL.

C.V.Taylor (1972) draws out three principles on the use of 'translation' in the EFL class.

1. Teacher's translation is preferred to the learners'. Meanwhile, it does not depend on who translates,

but also the level at which translation is done. Translation should be done in clause or sentence level. What is bad about translation is the word-for-word method.

2. Teachers who translate should translate at utterance level. The teacher should never use bits and pieces to assist the learner.

3. Any use of translation should involve a decision about when to use it.

a) All translations into the learners' mother tongue should be given after the new linguistic material has been presented.

b) In many cases it will not be required.

Translation or mother tongue should be used when communication breaks down; even early in the course, if it appears at the right moment in relation to the perplexity of the learner. W.M.Rivers (1964) points out that translation at utterance level is legitimate way of facilitating the language-learning process when concepts are too abstract, or too confused for the use of situational and gestural methods.

2.5. The Current Attitude Towards the Use of the Learners' Mother Tongue in EFL

At present, there is not an agreement among the language teachers on the use of the mother tongue in EFL. It is not much used in teaching foreign languages, since the debates concerning its use are still continuing. Teachers are told to use it only to explain difficult points of grammar or how to do an exercise or when, after many attempts through the foreign language the learners do not understand the meaning of an item, but many teachers generally apply their individual approaches. (T.Urgese, 1987). Meanwhile, the majority of the current researchers claim that used in moderation and with common sense, the learners'

mother tongue is a valuable aid - for instance, in helping to make explanations faster and more precise (M.Swan and C.Walter, 1984). For example, the English teaching programme of the Open University in Turkey. In this programme, the grammatical and communicative structures are first presented in English by a native English teacher, and then explained in Turkish by a Turkish teacher.

2.6. The Organization of the Use of the Mother Tongue

The foreign language and the learners' mother tongue both have a role in the EFL class, but not in disorganized mixture. The teacher should try to avoid the situations in which an explanation in one language is broken by examples in both languages. This serves only to confuse. As far as possible, he should have a clear break between language changes. Teachers have probably experienced the strange situation of someone speaking to them in their mother tongue in a situation where they expected a foreign language and not understanding, simply because they were expecting something else. The teacher who constantly switches languages in the classroom is exposing learners to exactly that difficulty. As far as possible, the teacher should separate the mother tongue and the foreign language clearly, without being afraid of either (Michail Lewis, 1986).

2.7. Arguments Against the Use of the Mother Tongue as a Method of Teaching in EFL class

There are strong arguments against the use of the mother tongue as a technique. Some experts insist that every language has its own set of habits: habits of word-order, sentence-patterns, and phrase-patterns, habit of using certain words not found in other languages. It is impossible to get command of the habits of one language by using continually the quite different habits of another

language. The use of learners' mother tongue or 'translation' recalls the language habits of the mother tongue, and is therefore an obstacle to the learning of a foreign language (F.G.French, 1948).

On the other hand, some experts claim that the use of the mother tongue could be a help, but the disadvantages outweigh the advantages. A presentation in the foreign language is important, and it is especially important for beginners - because, without the help of the mother tongue, learners have to adjust to a new language, environment with the aid of the teacher's facial expressions and gestures so as to form habit of thinking in the foreign language, which is of vital importance in acquiring competent speech (R.Wang, 1990).

The strongest argument against the use of the mother tongue or 'translation' comes from A.R.Bolitho (1976). He asserts that both J.F.Green and C.V.Taylor recommend an 'occasional' judicious use of the mother tongue in the EEL class, putting the responsibility on the teacher to decide when and how to use it. He states that the idea of using the learners' mother tongue seems to be weak on the following grounds:

1. While the older teacher with great amount of experience may feel sure of this ground and may be able to choose the right moment for 'judicious' use of the mother tongue, but younger and less experienced teacher may find such a decision difficult and he may do more harm than good if his own attitude to the use of the mother tongue is seen by his students to be uncertain and inconsistent.

2. Explaining the meaning of a word or phrase by the 'direct' or, also called 'situational' method is more effective than explaining it by the use of 'translation'. In 'direct' method the learner may have to work hard to understand the meaning, but their satisfaction will be greater for it, whereas if the meaning is expressed by the

use of the mother tongue, the learner will have a comfortable, reassuring feeling that they 'know' the new item, but the learning tension will be lost. Learners generally remember an item better if they have had to work hard to grasp it in the first place. This applies as much to the teaching of structures as to that of individual words or phrases.

3. 'Translation' does not help the teacher to save time. He may believe he is saving time by resorting to the mother tongue, but that time will soon be added to if constant revision and remedial teaching of the item in question are later found to be necessary.

The teacher may have to work hard to establish the atmosphere of the foreign language in the classroom. However, if he allows the introduction of the mother tongue by himself or by one of the learners, this hard-won achievement would be destroyed. It may take a considerable time to restore the atmosphere and to recapture the learner's concentration. Indeed, if the mother tongue is used too frequently, the learners may lose the will to make the effort to concentrate on communicating in the foreign language.

4. If a teacher decides to use the mother tongue, for whatever reason, he should also analyse its more clear implications in terms of time spent speaking the foreign language as compared with the time spent speaking in the mother tongue. Time spent speaking in the mother tongue may be considered time lost. Even if foreign language explanations are sometimes long and tortuous, they have the advantage of being in the foreign language, and the learner is thus continuously exposed to a meaningful use of the foreign language.

5. If learners realize that their teacher is willing to make use of the mother-tongue explanations in the initial attempts in the foreign language, they may

refuse the effort to understand in the foreign language in the first place. On the other hand, the lazy teacher may like such a vague state of affairs, for he will also have the feeling that he can rely on the mother tongue to help him out, and this can consequently break the motivation of the learners.

6. The direct association of a foreign-language word with an image or of a phrase with a situation, may be exclusive to the culture of the foreign language. For instance, these items which are untranslatable in some or all of their contexts. Also, by means of approximation and oversimplification, the teacher may even distort the true meaning of the item concerned.

In Bolitho's opinion (1976) there is nothing in a language which cannot be taught quite satisfactorily in that language. The mother tongue has no place in the EFL class, whether in the form of the spoken or of the written word, or even in the learners' thoughts.

' In any case, the consequences of constant reference to the mother tongue whether mental or otherwise, are grave. If the learner is allowed to develop this habit, he may never succeed in making the all-important 'leap' into the culture of the foreign language and without this, he can never master the language'. (A.R. Bolitho, 1976:113).

At the beginning of a course, if a teacher explains clearly to the learners why he is banning the mother tongue from the classroom, he will get results, and the problem of mental translation will eventually solve itself; there will come time it will cease of its own accord.

The teacher should aim at his students self-sufficiency in the foreign language, but not success in examinations which prove little. This self-sufficiency depends primarily on an ability to paraphrase in the foreign language; it will never be attained as long as the

learner depends on reference to the mother tongue (A.R. Bolitho, 1976).

2.8. The Role of the Learners' Mother Tongue in the Most Widely Applied Foreign Language Teaching Methods

2.8.1. The Grammar-translation Method

The learners' mother tongue is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the foreign language (H.H.Stern, 1983). The meaning of the foreign language is made clear by translating it into the learners' mother tongue. The language that is used in the class is mostly the learners' mother tongue (Diane Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Vocabulary is presented in the form of a bilingual list (S.D.Krashen, 1982). The learners' mother tongue is a keystone of the learning and testing in the grammar - translation method (W.Rivers, 1964).

2.8.2. The Direct Method

The foreign language is used as a means of instruction and communication in the language classroom (H.H.Stern, 1983). The direct method theorists exclude the learners' mother tongue from the early instructions as much as possible, but admit it as an art at advanced stages (W. Rivers, 1964). They reject the use of the learners' mother tongue and translation as a technique in the classroom (Diane Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

2.8.3. The Audiolingual Method

The habits of learners' mother tongue are thought to interfere with the learners' attempts to master the foreign language. Therefore, the foreign language is used in the classroom, but not the learners' mother tongue. A contrastive analysis between the learners' mother tongue and the foreign language is supposed to reveal where a teacher

should expect the most interference (D.Larsen-Freeman, 1986). However, the use of learners' mother tongue in the language class or in the learning materials is not as severely restricted as it is in the direct method (H.H.Stern, 1983).

2.8.4. The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching

This approach allows the use of the learners' mother tongue to explain those elements in the social situation that may require a more formal or informal variety of the language; to compare or contrast grammatical and communicative expressions in the mother tongue and the foreign language; and to help learners retain their pride in their mother tongue and culture (M.Finocchiaro, 1982).

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1. Method

The method of the research was experimental with two groups - the experimental group and the control group. The research design model was longitudinal.

The purpose of the experiment was to measure and compare the communicative and grammatical performance of the beginner adult learners in EFL classes where the foreign language only was used and where the learners' mother tongue was used for the following purposes: to give and clarify instructions; to explain those elements in the social situation that may require a more formal or informal variety of the language; to compare or contrast grammatical and communicative expressions in the mother tongue and the foreign language.

3.2. Subjects

The subjects of the experiment were beginner adult language learners learning English as a foreign language at private language schools.

The experiment was administered at one of the language schools in Bursa. In the language school there were both complete-beginner classes and false-beginner classes. The experiment was applied to two groups of complete-beginner adult learners, since the researcher aimed to maintain homogeneity between the groups at the beginning of the experiment, and this could be best achieved with complete beginners.

The subjects in the first group, which was the experimental group, were drawn from the groups taught by Turkish teachers. It consisted of sixteen learners. The subjects in the other group, which was the control group, were drawn from the groups taught by native English

teachers. This group consisted of seventeen learners. In the drawing out of the groups the observation technique was used. The researcher observed the classes in the language school, and tried to draw out the most suitable two groups from the point of age, education, and number. Attention was paid to the teaching techniques and experience of the teachers of the groups as well.

Subjects ranged in age from 20 to 35. The balance of males females was in favour of the males - 40% females and 60% males. The majority of the learners were high-school (lise) graduates.

3.3. Materials

In the experiment three tests were used. They were standard tests used for the examinations in the language school, and were prepared by the test designers of the language school where the experiment was administered. The category of the tests used in the experiment was achievement tests. The tests were intended to measure the communicative and grammatical performance of the learners.

In preparing the tests, the curriculum of the language school and the textbook - The Cambridge English Course, Book 1, by M.Swan and C.Walter, 1984., - were taken into consideration.

The writers of the textbook summarize the basic principles which have guided them in writing the course as follows:

1. The language-learning process. They claim that very little is known about how languages are learnt. However, two things seem clear:

a) Most adults learn a foreign language more effectively if it is 'tidied up' for them to some extent, so that they are exposed especially to items which correspond to their needs, and so that they can more easily

perceived the regularities of the language structure.

b) They also need to be exposed to a certain amount of 'untidy' natural language. Without this unstructured input, the individual's unconscious ability to acquire languages cannot operate effectively.

Besides, it is important to provide materials which cater for both of these ways of approaching a language (sometimes called 'learning' and 'acquisition' respectively).

2. Preview. Teaching materials should introduce learners from the beginning to some language which is beyond their productive capacity; they should be trained in techniques which help learners to cope with such materials; key learning items should be 'previewed' whenever possible.

3. Respecting the learner. Adult beginners are people of normal sensitivity and intelligence, with a wealth of personal experience and knowledge. Language course materials should respect the learner, involving as much of his or her personality as possible.

Different individuals have different learning strategies and different aims. Some learners learn better through practice in which they express their own ideas and feelings; others when dealing with impersonal, factual materials; others when playing a role of some kind. All of these learning styles should be taken into consideration.

Learners have views about what they want to learn and how they can best achieve their aims.

4. Fiction and humour. These are both good in their places, but neither should be allowed to dominate teaching materials. In courses which are based on functional input heavily, learners do not usually get enough opportunities to talk about things outside the 'pretent' world of the story - line or dialogue, and thereafter, learning is depleted.

5. The syllabus - formal or communicative. Until recently, courses have almost taken the forms of the language as their starting point. A typical 'beginners' course of this kind will work systematically through a list of basic structures and common words.

However, since they do not work from a systematic semantic syllabus, there is no guarantee that all the most important meanings are in fact covered by the course.

Recent developments in linguistics have made it easier to draw up a 'syllabus of meaning' to look systematically at the things we do with language, 'functions' and the ideas we express 'notions'. Some newer language courses have taken these meaning categories as the basis for their syllabus. Instead of working through a list of structures, learners will work through a list of functions, for example, 'asking for information', 'offering help', 'agreeing', and skills, for example, 'listening for gist', 'speaking fluently', 'writing personal letters'.

This approach, however, has its drawbacks. For instance, only structures and words which are obviously relevant to the functions, notions and skills that have been chosen are certain to get into syllabus.

In fact, neither a formal progression nor a communicative syllabus is adequate as a basis for a language course. Several intertwined syllabi (lexical, structural, phonological, thematic, functional, notional, situational, skills) are required to capture the complete range of language items and language uses which our students will need to master.

6. Vocabulary. Vocabulary acquisition is the largest and most important task facing the language learner. It is essential to make sure that all the most important words and expressions of the language are included in a course, and that they are taught in such a way that learners will learn, retain and be able to use them.

7. Practice. Quantity and quality of practice are both important. Learners must have plenty of opportunities to engage in communicative activities, including group work and pair work.

8. Setting realistic standards. At elementary level, learners should aim for comprehensibility in their speech and writing; perfect accuracy should not be required.

9. Regularity and variety. Variety of approach should be aimed, in order to prevent boredom among the learners. It is important to achieve a reasonable compromise between regularity and variety.

10. Variation of level. There will always be variations of level and ability inside one class. The pace of the class should neither be kept down to that of the slowest learner nor constantly held at that of the quicker learners.

11. The Mother Tongue. The learners' mother tongue is a valuable aid if it is used in moderation and with common sense - for instance, in helping to make explanations faster and more precise.

12. Study and memorization. Effective language learning must involve some effort to study and memorization on the part of the learner. Learners should be expected to spend some time every week, outside the class, consolidating what they have learnt (M.Swan and C.Walter, 1984).

In preparing the tests, the curriculum of the language school was, also, taken into consideration. The curriculum included the following communicative and grammatical points.

3.3.1. The Communicative Points

1) Asking and giving names; asking and telling where people are from.

2) Asking and giving personal information.

- 3) Describing people; telling the time.
- 4) Describing places; giving compliments; expressing uncertainty.
- 5) Describing houses and flats.
- 6) Expressing likes and dislikes.
- 7) Asking and telling about quantity.
- 8) Asking for and giving directions.
- 9) Expressing degree of certainty; talking about frequency.
- 10) Describing people's appearances.
- 11) Revision - using what the learners have learned in different ways.
- 12) Asking for and giving information.
- 13) Making and granting requests; saying where things are.
- 14) Asking for and giving information.
- 15) Asking for and giving information; narrating.

3.3.2. The Grammatical Points

- 1) Verb 'to be' present.
- 2) 'a/an' with jobs; subject pronouns.
- 3) Noun plurals; 's possession; present of 'to be' plural.
- 4) 'a/an' contrasted with 'the'.
- 5) There is/there are.
- 6) The simple present tense.
- 7) Countables and uncountables - expression of quantity.
- 8) For + expression of distance.

9) Complex sentences; frequency adverbs; impersonal it.

10) Have got; 'both' and 'all'; look like.

11) Revision - 'be' contrasted with 'have'; there is/there are; questions with noun-phrase subjects.

12) Simple past - 'do' as pro-verb; subject and object questions with 'who'.

13) 'one(s)' as substitute word; 'would like'; 'much' and 'many'.

14) 'Can'; good at + noun/-ing verb; comparative and superlative of adjectives; 'a bit/much + adjective'.

15) 'Ago'; 'a' contrasted with 'the'; past 'to be'; simple past; sequencing devices.

(each item represents 'a unit' in the textbook.)

The tests were in dialogue form, since the curriculum of the school was based on the communicative approach to language teaching. In this approach, dialogues are widely used as a teaching and testing device (J.M. Dobson, 1987).

The first test was based upon the first five units of the textbook used in the language school where the experiment was applied (cf. Appendix I). The communicative and grammatical points included in this test are given on pages 31-33 (cf.). The second test (cf. Appendix II) was based on the first ten units of the textbook, and the third test (cf. Appendix III) was based on the first fifteen units of the textbook. The communicative and grammatical points included in these tests are given on pages 31-33 (cf.).

3.4. General Procedure

Duration of the total teaching process was fifteen weeks. The learners met two hours per day, three days a week, for a total of nearly 90 hours. In the teaching-learning process, the teacher of the experimental group, who was a Turkish teacher used the learners' mother tongue, Turkish, but it was limited to the following purposes: To give and clarify instructions; to explain those elements in the social situation that may require a more formal or informal variety of the language; to compare or contrast grammatical and communicative expressions in the mother tongue and the foreign language. Translation was hardly ever used. The teacher of the control group, who was a native English teacher, used the foreign language, English, since he was a native English speaker, and did not speak Turkish at all.

The teachers of both groups had Bachelor's Degree in ELT, and similar amount of teaching experience. The teacher of the experimental group has taught English as a foreign language for three years, and the teacher of the control group has taught English as a foreign language for two years, one year in Italy and one year in Turkey.

In order to increase the reliability of the experiment both groups were given three tests in sequence. The tests were given at the same period of time by the assistant director of the language school, not by the researcher or the teachers of the groups.

The first test was given after the 5th unit; the second after the 10th unit; and the third after the 15th unit of the textbook. It took five weeks to teach each five units.

The tests were scored by a native English teacher, who was the assistant director of the language school. The contextually acceptable scoring criteria was applied. That is, counting correct words or sentences other than the

exact word or sentence which fit the total context of the original dialogue. As for the spelling and grammatical mistakes, only mistakes which would change the meaning were graded down. Ungrammatical answers which make sense to a native speaker were considered acceptable.

The researcher assumed that the scoring method did not reduce the reliability of the experiment, since the options were limited. The subjects could fill in the blanks in two ways at most, since they were complete beginners; the number of the communicative and grammatical functions they had learned was limited.

The tests were evaluated over 100 % - 60 % for communicative performance, and 40 % for linguistic performance.

After scoring the tests, the 't-test' was exploited to the scores in order to determine whether there was a significant difference between the performances of the control group and the experimental group in the tests.

The reason why the 't-test' was preferred was that the data gathered during the research was suitable for it, but not for the other statistical tests. The learners' performance was represented by marks, which is the most common way of representing the success of a learner. Furthermore, when two groups are compared, it is generally done by comparing the average arithmetical marks of the groups. The same technique was used in this research, and the most common statistical test for this purpose was the 't-test'. Also, the groups in the research were homogeneous in quality, and this makes the application of the other statistical tests difficult. For instance, for the application of ' χ^2 ' test multi-optional qualitative divisions are required. Moreover, the researcher aimed to see whether there was a significant difference between the performances of the experimental and the control group after each test, and compare them with the results of the other tests, as

the research model was longitudinal. The 't-test' was the most suitable one for this purpose, and it is the one commonly used in such researches.

The first 't-test' was applied to the total scores of both groups; the second one to the scores in the communicative section; and the third one to the scores in the grammatical section. The same procedure was followed for all the three tests.

In the administration of the 't-test' a computer was used. The computer programme given on the next page was used.

The programme included the following symbols:

X_1 : the average of the experimental group.

X_2 : the average of the control group.

S_1 : standard error of the experimental group's average.

S_2 : standard error of the control group's average.

S : standard error between the averages.

n_1 : number of the subjects in the experimental group.

n_2 : number of the subjects in the control group.

Degree of freedom: $n_1 + n_2 - 2$

$(16 + 17) - 2 = 13$ from the table:

t table value :2.042

Level of significance: 0.05

T: t value

The computer programme used in the application of the 't-test':

```

5 L = 0
10 DIM VERI (50),B(50)
15 CLS:L = 0
20 INPUT "VERI SAYISI:";VS
30 FOR I=1 TO VS
40 INPUT "VERİLERİ GIRINIZ:";VERI(I)
50 NEXT I
55 TOP=0 :L=L+1 :TP=0
60 FOR I=1 TO VS
70 TOP=TOP+VERI(I)
80 NEXT I
90 XORT(L)=TOP/VS
100 FOR I=1 TO VS
110 TP=TP+(VERI(I)-XORT(L))^2
120 NEXT I
130 S(L)=SQR(TP/VS)
140 INPUT "DEVAM ICIN E,CIKIS H:";CV$
150 IF CV$="E" THEN CLS: GOTO 20
160 SO=SQR(S(1)^2/16+S(2)^2/17)
170 T=ABS((XORT(1)-XORT(2))/SO)
180 CLS:LOCATE 5,10:PRINT "X1 ORTALAMA=";XORT(1)
190 LOCATE 6,10:PRINT "X2 ORTALAMA=";XORT(2)
200 LOCATE 7,10:PRINT "S1 DEGERI = ";S(1)
210 LOCATE 8,10:PRINT "S2 DEGERI = ";S(2)
220 LOCATE 9,10:PRINT "S DEGERI = ";SO
230 LOCATE 10,10:PRINT "T DEGERI = ";T
240 END

```

CHAPTER IV
THE ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The results of the research explained in chapter III are given in this chapter together with the t-test results.

As mentioned in chapter III, the learners were given three tests in longitudinal model.

The first test total scores of the experimental and the control group were as follows:

Table 1. The first test total scores of the experimental group

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	97	(9)	97
(2)	100	(10)	96
(3)	93	(11)	68
(4)	93	(12)	70
(5)	89	(13)	80
(6)	90	(14)	68
(7)	79	(15)	85
(8)	76	(16)	96

Table 2. The first test total scores of the control group

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	79	(10)	94
(2)	68	(11)	94
(3)	88	(12)	83
(4)	88	(13)	88
(5)	55	(14)	36
(6)	91	(15)	94
(7)	94	(16)	67
(8)	75	(17)	30
(9)	66

The hypotheses for this test were as stated below:

H_0 refers to the statistical hypothesis, also called 'null' hypothesis.

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the experimental group and the control group.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores (cf. Table 1 and 2) the results were as follows:

X_1 : 86.062 % over 100 % X_2 : 75.882 % over 100 %

S_1 : 10.755

S_2 : 19.423

S : 5.424

t-value: 1.876

The rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 1.876 < 2.042$

Since the t-value was smaller than the t-table value, H_0 was accepted; H_1 was rejected. Therefore, there was not a significant difference between the performances of the experimental group and the control group in this test.

The tests consisted of two sections - the communicative section and the grammatical section.

The scores of the two groups in the communicative section and the grammatical section of the test are given in the following tables.

Table 1.1. The first test scores of the experimental group in the communicative section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	57	(9)	57
(2)	60	(10)	60
(3)	57	(11)	48
(4)	57	(12)	42
(5)	57	(13)	48
(6)	54	(14)	36
(7)	39	(15)	51
(8)	48	(16)	56

Table 1.2. The first test scores of the experimental group in the grammatical section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	40	(9)	40
(2)	40	(10)	36
(3)	36	(11)	20
(4)	36	(12)	28
(5)	32	(13)	32
(6)	36	(14)	32
(7)	40	(15)	34
(8)	28	(16)	40

Table 2.1. The first test scores of the control group in the communicative section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	51	(10)	54
(2)	36	(11)	54
(3)	48	(12)	51
(4)	48	(13)	48
(5)	39	(14)	24
(6)	51	(15)	54
(7)	54	(16)	45
(8)	54	(17)	18
(9)	54

Table 2.2 The first test scores of the control group in the grammatical section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	28	(10)	40
(2)	32	(11)	40
(3)	40	(12)	32
(4)	40	(13)	40
(5)	16	(14)	12
(6)	40	(15)	40
(7)	40	(16)	32
(8)	21	(17)	12
(9)	12

For the communicative section of the test the hypotheses were as follows:

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the communicative section of the test.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the communicative section of the test.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores of the experimental group (cf. Table 1.1.) and the control group (cf. Table 2.1.) in the communicative section, the results were as follows.

X_1 : 51.687 % over 60 % X_2 : 46.058 % over 60 %

S_1 : 7.269 S_2 : 10.541

S : 3.136

t-value: 1.794

Rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 1.794 < 2.042$

Since the t-value was smaller than the t-table value, the H_0 was accepted; H_1 was rejected. Therefore, there was not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the communicative section of the test.

As for the grammatical section of the test, the hypotheses were as stated below.

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the grammatical section of the test.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the grammatical section of the test.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores of the two groups (cf. Table 1.2 and 2.2.) in the grammatical section of the test, the results were as follows.

X_1 : 34.375 % over 40 % X_2 : 30.411 % over 40 %

S_1 : 5.411 S_2 : 11.013

S : 2.997

t-value: 1.322

The rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 1.322 < 2.042$

Since the t-value was smaller than the t-table value, the H_0 was accepted; H_1 was rejected. Therefore, there was not a significance difference between the performances of the two groups in the grammatical section of the test.

The second test total scores of the experimental group and the control group are given in the following tables (cf. Table 3 and 4.).

Table 3. The second test total scores of the experimental group.

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	90	(9)	90
(2)	80	(10)	90
(3)	89	(11)	70
(4)	91	(12)	75
(5)	78	(13)	78
(6)	76	(14)	70
(7)	70	(15)	85
(8)	73	(16)	93

Table 4. The second test total scores of the control group

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	70	(10)	75
(2)	62	(11)	81
(3)	78	(12)	76
(4)	83	(13)	85
(5)	67	(14)	38
(6)	93	(15)	67
(7)	85	(16)	76
(8)	68	(17)	32
(9)	74

The hypotheses to be tested for this test are stated below:

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores of the two groups (cf. Table 3 and 4.) in this test, the results were as follows:

$$X_1: 81.00 \% \text{ over } 100 \% \quad X_2: 71.176 \% \text{ over } 100 \%$$

$$S_1: 8.147 \quad S_2: 15.294$$

$$S: 4.231$$

$$t\text{-value: } 2.321$$

$$\text{The rejection area: } t > 2.042 \rightarrow 2.321 > 2.042$$

Since the t-value was bigger than the t-table value, the H_0 was rejected; H_1 was accepted. Therefore, there was a significant difference between the performances of the two groups. The difference was in favour of the experimental group, deriving the conclusion from the data available.

This test, also, consisted of two sections - the communicative section and the grammatical section.

The scores of the experimental and the control group in the communicative and grammatical section of the test are given in the following tables.

Table 3.1. The second test scores of the experimental group in the communicative section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	54	(9)	51
(2)	45	(10)	51
(3)	54	(11)	39
(4)	54	(12)	46
(5)	51	(13)	48
(6)	48	(14)	39
(7)	42	(15)	48
(8)	42	(16)	57

Table 3.2. The second test scores of the experimental group in the grammatical section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	36	(9)	39
(2)	35	(10)	39
(3)	35	(11)	31
(4)	37	(12)	29
(5)	27	(13)	30
(6)	28	(14)	31
(7)	28	(15)	37
(8)	31	(16)	36

Table 4.1. The second test scores of the control group in the communicative section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	42	(10)	54
(2)	48	(11)	42
(3)	48	(12)	45
(4)	48	(13)	51
(5)	36	(14)	26
(6)	57	(15)	42
(7)	51	(16)	45
(8)	45	(17)	18
(9)	42

Table 4.2. The second test scores of the control group in the grammatical section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	28	(10)	21
(2)	14	(11)	39
(3)	30	(12)	31
(4)	35	(13)	34
(5)	31	(14)	12
(6)	36	(15)	25
(7)	34	(16)	31
(8)	23	(17)	14
(9)	32

The hypotheses to be tested for the communicative section of the test were as stated below:

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the the performances of the two groups.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores of the experimental group and the control group in the communicative section (cf. Table 3.1. and 4.1.), the results were as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} X_1: 48.062 \% \text{ over } 60 \% & X_2: 43.529 \% \text{ over } 60 \% \\ S_1: 5.378 & S_2: 7.977 \\ S: 2.175 & \\ t\text{-value: } 1.715 & \end{array}$$

The rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 1.715 < 2.042$

Since the t-value was smaller than the t-table value, the H_0 was accepted; H_1 was rejected. Therefore, there was not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the communicative section of the test.

As for the grammatical section of the test, the hypotheses to be tested were as follows.

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the experimental and the control group.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores of the two groups in the grammatical section (cf. Table 3.2. and 4.2.), the results were as stated below:

$$\begin{array}{ll} X_1: 33.062 \% \text{ over } 40\% & X_2: 27.647 \% \text{ over } 40 \% \\ S_1: 3.976 & S_2: 7.977 \\ S: 2.175 & \end{array}$$

$$t\text{-value: } 2.489$$

The rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 2.489 > 2.042$

Since the t-value was bigger than the t-table value, the H_0 was rejected; H_1 was accepted. Therefore, there

was a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the grammatical section of the test. The difference was in favour of the experimental group, deriving the conclusion from the data available.

The third test total scores of the experimental group and the control group are given below.

Table 5. The third test total scores of the experimental group

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	87	(9)	80
(2)	99	(10)	86
(3)	92	(11)	78
(4)	99	(12)	78
(5)	86	(13)	79
(6)	91	(14)	61
(7)	79	(15)	89
(8)	78	(16)	89

Table 6. The third test total scores of the control group

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	76	(10)	77
(2)	67	(11)	90
(3)	82	(12)	83
(4)	84	(13)	87
(5)	62	(14)	58
(6)	83	(15)	75
(7)	81	(16)	58
(8)	66	(17)	45
(9)	66

The hypotheses to be tested for this test were as indicated below.

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the experimental group and the control group.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the experimental group and the control group.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores (cf. Table 5. and 6.), the results were as follows:

X_1 : 84.437 % over 100 % X_2 : 72.941 % over 100 %

S_1 : 9.117 S_2 : 12.051

S : 3.706

t-value: 3.101

The rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 3.101 > 2.042$

Since the t-value was bigger than the t-table value, H_0 was rejected; H_1 was accepted. It proved that there was a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in this test. Deriving the conclusion from the data available, the difference was in favour of the experimental group.

This test, also, consisted of two sections - the communicative section and the grammatical section.

The scores of the two groups in the communicative and the grammatical section of the test are given in the following tables.

Table 5.1. The third test scores of the experimental group in the communicative section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	51	(9)	45
(2)	59	(10)	48
(3)	54	(11)	50
(4)	59	(12)	51
(5)	48	(13)	48
(6)	51	(14)	45
(7)	51	(15)	54
(8)	51	(16)	51

Table 5.2. The third test scores of the experimental group in the grammatical section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	36	(9)	37
(2)	40	(10)	38
(3)	38	(11)	28
(4)	40	(12)	27
(5)	38	(13)	28
(6)	40	(14)	16
(7)	28	(15)	35
(8)	37	(16)	37

Table 6.1. The third test scores of the control group in the communicative section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	55	(10)	46
(2)	55	(11)	52
(3)	51	(12)	51
(4)	49	(13)	49
(5)	48	(14)	42
(6)	48	(15)	54
(7)	52	(16)	43
(8)	54	(17)	26
(9)	51)

Table 6.2. The third test scores of the control group in the grammatical section

Subjects/Scores		Subjects/Scores	
(1)	21	(10)	31
(2)	12	(11)	38
(3)	31	(12)	32
(4)	35	(13)	38
(5)	14	(14)	16
(6)	35	(15)	21
(7)	29	(16)	15
(8)	12	(17)	19
(9)	15

The hypotheses for the communicative section of the test were stated as follows.

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores of the two groups in the communicative section of the test (cf. Table 5.1. and 6.1.), the results were as stated below:

X_1 : 51.00 % over 60 %	X_2 : 48.588 % over 60 %
S_1 : 3.921	S_2 : 6.748

S : 1.907

t-value: 1.264

The rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 1.264 < 2.042$

Since the t-value was smaller than the t-table value, the H_0 was accepted; H_1 was rejected. This suggested that there was not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the communicative section of the test.

As for the grammatical section of the test, the hypotheses to be tested were as follows.

H_1 : There will be a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

H_0 : There is not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

When a 't-test' was applied to the scores of the two groups in the grammatical section (cf. Table 5.2. and 6.2.), the results were as follows:

X_1 : 33.812 % over 40 % X_2 : 24.352 % over 40 %


S_1 : 6.424 S_2 : 9.317

S : 2.772

t-value: 3.411

The rejection area: $t > 2.042 \rightarrow 3.411 > 2.042$

Since the t-value was bigger than the t-table value, the H_0 was rejected; H_1 was accepted. This suggested that there was a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the grammatical section of the test. The difference was in favour of the experimental group, since the data available revealed this.



CHAPTER V CONCLUSION

5.1. Discussion

Since the research was in the longitudinal model, the researcher considered all the three tests as a whole to draw the conclusions.

In the first test and its communicative and grammatical section, there was not a significant difference between the performances of the group where the mother tongue, Turkish, was used and the group where English only was used.

However, in the second and the third test, in their grammatical section there was a significant difference between the performances of the two groups, whereas there was not a significant difference between the performances of the groups in the communicative sections of the two tests. This implies that the difference in the performances of the learners in the group where the mother tongue, Turkish, was used and the group where English only was used resulted from their performance in the grammatical sections of the tests.

In the light of these findings it is possible to conclude that in the beginner adult EFL classes where the learners' mother tongue is used the learners become grammatically more competent than the learners in the classes where English only is used. The learners in both groups remain communicatively constant.

The reason why there was not a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the first test and its communicative and grammatical section might have been that the number of the communicative and grammatical structures and functions included in the test was limited. The grammatical structures included in this test were based on 'verb-to be' present which do not

generally require a frequent use of the mother tongue. It is possible to teach them by using various presentation techniques such as demonstration, and visual aids. The communicative functions and notions included simple forms such as 'asking and giving names'; 'saying hello formally or informally'; 'telling the time', and so on.

The superiority of the learners in the group where the mother tongue, Turkish, was used in the second and the third tests and their grammatical sections may have resulted from the use of the mother tongue. These tests included grammatical structures which required the use of the mother tongue in order to make the usage and the forms of the items explicit to the learners. For instance, the simple present tense was introduced to the learners in the sixth unit of the textbook, and they were required to answer questions related to it in the second test. Both languages have this tense, but its usage in Turkish and English is different.

In the teaching - learning process learners face some difficulties in understanding its usage. Therefore, some use of the mother tongue is required to reveal the differences in usage and form between two languages since the learners competence at this level is not sufficient to understand explanations in English. The teacher of the experimental group, who was Turkish, used the learners' mother tongue, Turkish, to compare and contrast the grammatical differences between two languages.

The third test included such problematic structures as well. For instance, the 12th unit of the textbook included the simple past tense. Observations have revealed that learners face some difficulties in forming the past participle form of verbs in this tense, since there are regular and irregular verbs in English, which do not exist in Turkish. Furthermore, they face some difficulties in understanding its usage as English speakers use either the simple past or the present perfect tenses according

to the relation of the action with present, whereas Turkish does not have the present perfect tense. These kinds of grammatical differences were explained in Turkish in the in the group where the mother tongue was used.

The learners' mother tongue, Turkish, was, also, used to compare or contrast the communicative differences between Turkish and English. However, the findings show that it did not have any effect in the learners' communicative performance.

The explanations made up to this point were based upon the statistical findings summarized in the following tables.

Table 1. The statistical findings gathered from the first; second; and the third tests

Tests	Groups	X_1/X_2	S_1/S_2	S	t
1st test	exper.	86.062	10.755	5.424	1.876
	contr.	75.882	19.423		
2nd test	exper.	81.00	8.147	4.231	2.321
	contr.	71.176	15.294		
3rd test	exper.	84.437	9.117	3.706	3.101
	contr.	72.941	12.051		

Rejection area: $t > 2.042$

Table.2. The statistical finding gathered from the grammatical sections of the first second and the third tests

Tests	Groups	X_1/X_2	S_1/S_2	S	t
1st test	exper.	34.375	5.411	2.997	1.322
	contr.	30.411	11.013		
2nd test	exper.	33.062	3.976	2.175	2.489
	contr.	27.647	7.977		
3rd test	exper.	33.812	6.424	2.772	3.411
	contr.	24.352	9.317		

Rejection area: $t > 2.042$

Table 3. The statistical findings gathered from the communicative sections of the first, second, and the third tests

Tests	Groups	X_1/X_2	S_1/S_2	S	t
1st test	exper.	51.687	7.269	1.907	1.264
	contr.	48.588	6.748		
2nd test	exper.	48.062	5.378	2.175	1.715
	contr.	43.529	7.977		
3rd test	exper.	51.000	3.921	1.907	1.264
	contr.	48.588	6.748		

Rejection area: $t > 2.042$

When the findings given in Table 1. were examined, it was noticed that the t-values were going up in each test. The t-value of the first test was 1.876. Since the t-table value was 2.042, the H_0 was accepted. However, the t-values of the second and the third test were above the t-table value (2.042) - the t-value of the second test (2.321) was smaller than the t-value of the third test (3.101). Therefore, the null hypotheses were rejected.

This meant that the performance of the group where the mother tongue was used was increasing parallel with the the learners exposure to the foreign language and the complexity of the structures to be taught. This implies that when the learners' mother tongue is used in the beginner adult EFL class, English is taught more effectively.

However, when the findings in Table 3. were examined, it was noticed that there was not any significant difference between the t-values in each test, and this implied that there was not any significant difference between the performances of the groups in the communicative sections of the tests.

This suggested that the difference in the performances of the groups did not result from their communicative performance, but resulted from the grammatical performance of the group where the mother tongue was used. When the Table 2. was examined, it was justified. There was close relationship between the t-values in the grammatical sections and the tests as a whole.

In the light of these findings it is possible to draw the following generalizations:

When the learners' mother tongue is used in the beginner adult EFL class, English is taught more effectively.

Learners learn the grammatical structures and their usage better, when their mother tongue is used in the teaching process.

The further implication may be that adults learn foreign languages by applying academic (explicit) approaches.

The use of the learners's mother tongue in the beginner adult EFL class does not have any effect on the communicative performance of the learners.



5.2. Suggestions

The research was applied to adult EFL learners learning English at private language schools. Therefore it concerned the learners, the administrators of the private language schools and teachers teaching English there.

Observations in the language school where the experiment was applied revealed that the administration faces some problems in arranging the beginner classes, since most of the learners want to join the classes taught by native English teachers without being aware that they can benefit more at that level if they join the classes taught by Turkish teachers. They seem to believe that if they join the classes taught by native English teachers, they can learn English more easily and effectively. Also different learners have different goals in learning English. Some of them want to learn English for academic purposes, but others for communicative purposes.

The findings of the research are likely to suggest solutions to these problems. First, the findings revealed that in the groups where the learners' mother tongue is used English is taught more effectively. Learners master the grammar of the foreign language better than the groups where the foreign language only is used while the communicative competence of the learners in both groups remains equal. Then, joining the classes where the mother tongue is used seems to be more advantageous on the part of the beginner adult learners.

If the beginner adult learners, coming to the private language schools in order to learn English, are made aware of the case, they are likely to recognize the fact, and join the classes where their mother tongue is used.

As for the second problem mentioned above, learners learning English for academic purposes want the grammatical rules of the foreign language to be made explicit to them. This is satisfactorily done in classes where the

learners' mother tongue is used, since the teacher uses the mother tongue to compare or contrast grammatical expressions in the mother and the foreign languages. Therefore, such learners may feel comfortable in such classes, and their motivation is likely to be high.

On the other hand, the learners learning English for communicative purposes want the communicative expressions of the foreign language to be emphasized. If they are made aware that there is not any significant difference between the communicative performances of the beginner adult EFL learners in the groups where the learners' mother tongue is used and the groups where English only is used; in addition to this, if they are made aware that the grammar of the foreign language is taught more effectively in the groups where the mother tongue is used in comparison to the groups where the foreign language only is used, they are likely to join the classes where the learners' mother tongue is used.

The administrators of the private language schools can inform the learners of the case, and encourage them to join the classes where the mother tongue is used. Later, as they progress to a level at which they can understand explanations in English and can communicate, they can join the classes where English only is used.

The research has also practical implications for the teachers of English. Most of the foreign language teachers are not certain whether to use the learners' mother tongue in the EFL class or not. The findings of the research reveal that if the learners are beginner adults, their mother tongue can be used in the teaching process.

However, the purposes which the use of the mother was limited to in the research should be taken into consideration.

The period of this research was limited to a certain amount of time. It is suggested that further researches can be administered to see whether similar or different findings will be obtained in the long run. For instance, first it can be investigated: whether the grammatical superiority of the group where the mother tongue was used will continue or end at some point in the progression of the learners in the foreign language; second, whether their grammatical superiority will influence their communicative competence in a positive or a negative way; third, whether their knowledge of grammatical rules will enable them to produce sentences of their own, and by this way make them more fluent in the use of the foreign language.

As for the group where English only was used, it can be investigated: whether the learners will end up learning English by learning a certain number of communicative expressions; in what ways their deficiency in grammatical knowledge of English, as compared with the group where the learners' mother tongue was used, will influence their progression in the use of the foreign language.

Also, the fluency of the groups in English in the long run can be compared in order to determine the effect of the case revealed in this research.

Similar researches can be administered with different age groups at various levels of English. A similar research on children may reveal very different results because children and adults are likely to apply different strategies in learning foreign languages.

The findings in this research revealed that the use of the learners' mother tongue have a positive effect on the learners in the initial stages of foreign language learning. However, it can be investigated whether it can be used less frequently or completely drawn out of the adult EFL class at more advanced levels.

SUMMARY

The use of the learners' mother tongue in foreign language teaching has been one of the most controversial issues. Some researches and language teachers have claimed that it should be used in teaching foreign languages in order to make the teaching and learning more effective. Others have opposed to this idea, and insisted that it has no place in the foreign language class.

In 1960s, a number of educators claimed that in order to make the foreign language teaching more effective the learners' mother tongue should be used in the teaching process. Contrarily, in 1970s it was argued that in teaching foreign languages the foreign language only should be used. These two contradictory approaches to foreign language teaching have caused some problems in practice among the language teachers. It has led to confusion whether to use the learners' mother tongue in the EFL class or not.

At the end of 1970s, the communicative approach to language teaching was introduced to the field of foreign language teaching. It had great impact on this field. The advocates of this approach claimed that the mother tongue cannot be banished from the foreign language teaching, and that it could be used for the following purposes:

' To compare or contrast communicative and grammatical expressions in the mother and the foreign languages; to explain those elements in the social situation that may require a more formal or informal variety of the language; to clarify instructions; and above all, to help learners retain their pride in their mother tongue and culture.'

At present, the arguments on the use of the mother in foreign language teaching are still continuing, and therefore, most of the language teachers apply their individual approaches, which cause some problems in practice.

These debates on the use of the mother tongue in foreign language teaching has been the starting point in

the preparation of this thesis. The researcher has aimed to enlighten the debates by answering the following question:

' Is English taught more effectively to beginner adult EFL learners when their mother tongue is used as a reference system, or when English only is used in the teaching process?'

The research was limited to complete beginner adult EFL learners, and was experimental. The experiment was applied to two groups of adult learners learning English at a private language school. One of the groups consisted of sixteen learners, and was the experimental group; the other group consisted of seventeen learners, and was the control group. The teacher of the experimental group was a Turkish teacher; the teacher of the control group was a native English teacher. The teacher of the experimental group used the learners' mother tongue in the class for the following purposes:

' To compare or contrast communicative and grammatical expressions in the mother and foreign languages; to clarify instructions; to explain those elements in the social situation that may require a more formal or informal variety of the language.' The teacher of the control group used English only in the class since he did not know Turkish at all.

The observation technique was used in the drawing out of the groups. The researcher observed the classes in the language school, and tried to draw out the most suitable two groups from the point of age, education, and number. Attention was paid to the teaching techniques and experiences of the teachers of the groups as well.

In the experiment, achievement tests were used. These were the standard tests used in the examinations of the language school. They were designed by the test designers of the language school where the experiment was applied. In the preparation of the tests, the textbook, ' The Cambridge English Course' was taken as a basis.

The tests consisted of two sections - the communicative section and the grammatical section. The total teaching period was fifteen weeks. By the end of the course the learners studied fifteen units, that is, half of the textbook. It took five weeks to teach each five units. The learners were given a test after the each five units of the textbook. Therefore, they were given three tests during the experiment.

The tests were marked not by the teachers of the two groups or the researcher, but by another native English teacher. In the evaluation, the acceptability of the answers by a native English speaker was taken into consideration.

As a statistical test the ' T-test' was applied since the data gathered during the experiment was more suitable for its application than the others. The 'T-test' was applied to each achievement test and its communicative and grammatical sections. The aim was to compare the performances of the two groups in each test and their communicative and grammatical sections, and to determine whether there was a significant difference between the performances of the groups.

The data gathered from the first test revealed that there was not any significant difference between the performances of the groups in the test as a whole, and its communicative and grammatical sections. However, the data gathered from the two following tests revealed that the performance of the group where the mother tongue was used was superior to the group where English only was used in these two tests and their grammatical sections. There was not any significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the communicative sections of the tests. This demonstrated that the superiority of the experimental group in the second and the third tests resulted from their superiority in the grammatical sections of the tests.

When the 't-values' were examined, it was noticed that the superiority of the group where the mother tongue was used was increasing in parallel with the complexity of the grammatical structures to be taught.

In the light of these findings, the following generalizations can be made:

1. When the learners' mother tongue is used in the adult EFL class to compare or contrast the communicative and grammatical expressions in the mother and the foreign languages, the learners learn the foreign language more effectively - especially the grammatical structures and their usage.

2. The use of the mother tongue in the beginner adult EFL class does not make any difference in the communicative performance of the learners.

3. The further implication of the experiment can be that adults apply academic approaches in learning foreign languages. They regard the foreign language as an entity with rules to be learned.

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Yabancı dil öğretimi alanında, en çok tartışılan konulardan birisi öğrencinin anadilinin dil öğretim aşamasında kullanılıp kullanılmayacağıdır. Bazı araştırmacılar ve dil öğretmenleri öğrencilerin anadilinin, yabancı dil öğretiminde kullanılması gerektiğini savunmuşlar, bazıları ise buna karşı çıkmış ve anadilin yabancı dil öğretiminde yeri olamayacağını savunmuşlardır.

1960 lı yıllarda eğitimciler, yabancı dil öğretiminin daha etkili olabilmesi için öğrencinin anadilinin kullanılması gerektiğini savunmuşlardır. Buna karşın 1970 li yıllarda buna karşı çıkılmış ve yabancı dil öğretiminde sadece yabancı dilin kullanılması gerektiği savunulmuştur. Bu iki zıt yaklaşım, pratikte bazı karışıklıklara yol açmış ve dil öğretmenleri arasında, yabancı dil öğretiminde anadili kullanıp kullanmama konusunda bazı tereddütlere neden olmuştur.

1970 li yılların sonlarına doğru, 'İletişimsel dil öğretim yaklaşımının' (Communicative approach to language teaching) ortaya çıkmasıyla, öğrencilerin anadilinin varlığının inkar edilemeyeceği ve bundan yararlanmak gerektiği iddia edilmiştir. Bu görüşü savunanlar, anadilin aşağıda belirtilen amaçlarla kullanılabilceğini savunmuşlardır:

"Anadil ile yabancı dil arasındaki dilbilgisel ve iletişimsel (communicative) ifadeleri karşılaştırmak; daha formal veya informal bir ifadenin kullanılmasını gerektirecek sosyal durumları açıklamak; öğrencilerin kendi kültür ve dilleriyle gurur duymalarını sağlamak ve bu şekilde motivasyonlarını yüksek tutmak".

Buna rağmen, dil sınıfında anadilin kullanılması veya kullanılmaması konusunda yabancı dil öğretmenleri arasında kesin bir birlik hala sağlanamamıştır. Öğretmenlerin çoğu kendi kişisel yaklaşımlarına göre hareket etmektedir.

Yabancı dil öğretiminde, öğrencilerin anadilinin kullanılıp kullanılmaması konusundaki bu tartışmalar, bu tezin hazırlanmasında başlangıç noktası olmuştur. Araştırmacı bu konudaki tartışmalara deney yoluyla ışık tutmayı amaç edinmiştir. Araştırma sonunda, aşağıda belirtilen genel soruna bir cevap bulunmaya çalışılacaktır:

"Başlangıç düzeyindeki yetişkinler yabancı dil sınıfında anadil bir 'başvuru sistemi' (reference system) olarak kullanılırsa mı yoksa sadece İngilizce mi kullanılırsa daha etkili İngilizce öğretilir?"

Araştırma, kursa başlamadan önce, hiç İngilizce bilmeyen başlangıç düzeyindeki yetişkinlerle sınırlıdır. Araştırmanın modeli deneyseldir. Deney, özel bir dil kurumunda İngilizce öğrenen başlangıç düzeyindeki iki grup yetişkinine uygulanmıştır. Bu gruplardan birincisi, deney grubuydu ve onaltı öğrenciden oluşuyordu, diğeri onyedii öğrenciden oluşuyordu ve kontrol grubuydu. Deney grubunun öğretmeni bir Türk, kontrol grubunun öğretmeni ise bir İngilizdi. Türk öğretmen, öğrencilerin anadilini şu amaçlarla kullanıyordu:

"Anadil ve yabancı dil arasındaki dilbilgisel ve iletişimsel ifadeleri açıklamak ve karşılaştırmak; daha formal veya informal bir ifadenin kullanılmasını gerektirecek sosyal durumları açıklamak. İngiliz öğretmeni ise Türkçe bilmediği için sadece İngilizceyi kullanıyordu."

Grupların belirlenmesinde, gözlem tekniği kullanıldı. Çeşitli grupların dersleri izlenerek, birbirine yaş, eğitim ve sayı bakımından en uygun iki grubun seçilmesine çalışıldı. Öğretmenlerin öğretim yöntemleri, tecrübeleri ve becerilerinin de birbirine yakın olmasına dikkat edildi.

Araştırmada, gelişim (achievement) testleri kullanıldı. Bu testler, dil kurumunun sınavlarda kullandığı standart testlerdi ve kurumun test yazarları tarafından hazırlandı. Testlerin hazırlanmasında, kurumun kullandığı "The Cambridge English Course" kitabı esas alındı. Test iki bölümden oluşuyordu - iletişimsel bölüm ve dilbilgisel

bölüm.

Öğrenciler onbeş hafta süren, bir kurs dönemi boyunca belirli aralıklarla sınava tabi tutuldu. Öğrencilere, kitabın her beş ünitesinden sonra bir test verildi. Beş ünitenin işlenmesi, beş hafta sürdü. Toplam olarak üç test verildi. Testler, tarafsız bir İngiliz öğretmen tarafından değerlendirildi. Değerlendirmede, cevapların bir İngiliz tarafından kabul edilebilirliği dikkate alındı.

İstatistiksel yöntem olarak "t-testi" kullanıldı, çünkü verilerin niteliklerine en uygun istatistiksel test buydu. Testlerin herbirine ayrı ayrı "t-testleri" uygulandı. Amaç, iki grubun önce testin tamamında gösterdikleri performansları kıyaslamak, daha sonra da grupların her testin iletişimsel ve dilbilgisel bölümleri arasında anlamlı bir farkın bulunup bulunmadığını tespit etmektir.

Bulgular, birinci testin sonunda iki grubun testin tamamındaki, iletişimsel ve dilbilgisel bölümlerdeki performansları arasında anlamlı bir farkın bulunmadığını gösterdi. Bununla birlikte, daha sonraki iki testten elde edilen bulgular, anadilin kullanıldığı gruptaki öğrencilerin testlerin tamamı ve dilbilgisel bölümlerinde diğer gruba oranla daha başarılı olduklarını gösterdi. Fakat grupların testlerin iletişimsel bölümlerinde gösterdikleri performansları arasında anlamlı bir farkın bulunmadığı görüldü. Bu da, anadilin kullanıldığı grubun ikinci ve üçüncü testteki üstünlüklerinin, dilbilgisel bölümdeki üstünlüklerinden kaynaklandığını gösteriyordu. Ayrıca birinci, ikinci ve üçüncü testlerden elde edilen "t-değerleri" dikkate alınır- sa, ana dilin kullanıldığı grubun başarısının öğretilen yapıların zorluğuna paralel olarak arttığı görülür. Bunun nedeninin deney grubunda anadilin kullanılmasının olduğu söylenebilir, çünkü Türk öğretmen diller arasındaki dilbilgisel farklılıkları açıklamak ve dilbilgisel yapıların kullanımlarını göstermek için Türkçe açıklamalarda bulunuyordu.

Bu bulguların ışığında aşağıdaki genellemelere gidilebilir.

1. Başlangıç düzeyindeki yetişkin yabancı dil sınıfında öğrencilerin anadili, diller arasındaki dilbilgisel ve iletişimsel farklılıkları açıklamak amacıyla kullanılırsa öğrenme daha etkili oluyor - özellikle dilbilgisel yönden.

2. Anadilin veya yabancı dilin kullanılması öğrencilerin iletişimsel (communicative) performanslarında bir farklılığa yol açmıyor.

3. Anadilin kullanıldığı gruptaki öğrencilerin diğer gruptakilere oranla daha başarılı olması, yetişkinlerin yabancı dili öğrenirken "akademik" bir yaklaşım izledikleri yani dili öğrenilmesi gereken kuralları bulma bir varlık olarak kabul ettikleri söylenebilir.

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Appendix I.

ENGLISH ACHIEVEMENT TEST - I

Section-I

Fill in the blanks: (20 blanks-Each blank is 3 pts)

- 1) AYDIN: Hello, my name's Aydın.
..... ?
JANE: My name's Jane.
AYDIN:How do you do?
JANE :.....?
AYDIN:Where ?
JANE :I'm from England, and you?
AYDIN:..... Turkey.
JANE :..... ?
AYDIN:No, I'm single.
JANE :..... ?
AYDIN:I'm 23 years old.
..... ?
JANE :I'm 20.
AYDIN:Are you a teacher?
JANE :No, I'm a secretary.
..... ?
AYDIN:I'm a doctor.
JANE :Pardon?
AYDIN:
JANE :Well, here's my bus. Goodbye, Aydın.
AYDIN:
- 2) MARY: Hello, Dan.
DAN :
MARY: How are you?
DAN : , and you?
MARY:
DAN : How is your father?
MARY:
DAN : Well, here's my bus. Bye, Mary.
MARY:

3) PETER: Where do you live?
YOU : Bursa.
PETER: Where in Bursa?
YOU : Street.
PETER: What floor do you live on?
YOU :
PETER: What's your address?
YOU :

Section-II

Fill in the blanks: (10 blanks-Each blank is 4 pts.)

1) ISN'T , IS or ARE ?

ALICE: there a living-room in your flat?
BETTY: Yes, there
ALICE: there any armchairs in the living-room?
BETTY: Yes, there two and there is a sofa.
ALICE: there a cooker in the kitchen?
BETTY: No,

2) AT, IN or ON?

ALI : I live 37 Flamingo Road.
MARIA: Where do you work?
ALI : New York. My office is the first floor.
MARIA: Are you American?
ALI : No, I live the USA, but I'm Turkish.

Appendix II.

ENGLISH ACHIEVEMENT TEST - II

SECTION-I

Fill in the blanks: (20 blanks-Each blank is 3 pts.)

ONUR: Hello. My name's Onur.

.....?

MARY: My name's Mary.

ONUR: How do you do?

MARY:

ONUR: Where are you from, Mary?

MARY:

ONUR:, Mary?

MARY: I'm a secretary. And you?

ONUR:engineer.

.....on holiday, Mary?

MARY: Yes,

ONUR: Do you speak Turkish?

MARY: No,

ONUR: Do you like Turkish food?

MARY: Yes,

ONUR: What sort of music do you like?

MARY:

ONUR: Do you like Turkish folk music?

MARY: Yes,

ONUR: Do you like Turkish people?

MARY:

ONUR: Have you got any Turkish friends?

MARY: Yes,

ONUR: What are their names?

MARY:

ONUR: How often do you visit them?

MARY:

ONUR: Okey! Now we are friends!

(2)

ALAN : Where is the nearest supermarket, please?

AHMET:

ALAN : I want to buy some cheese. How much is cheese?

AHMET: TL.

ALAN : tomatoes?

AHMET: 3000 TL a kilo.

ALAN : Are bananas expensive here?

AHMET:

ALAN : Thank you very much.

AHMET:

SECTION-II

Fill in the blanks: (40 blanks-Each blank is 1 pt.)

(1)

Put in do, don't, does, doesn't, like, likes, it or them.

JOHN: Do you cats?

MARY: No, I don't them, but Jane very much.

JOHN: you like tea?

MARY: No, I like at all, but my sister it.

JOHN: What about milk?

MARY: My brother and I it, but our friend He likes coffee.

JOHN: you like whisky?

MARY: Yes,

JOHN: your father work?

MARY: No,

(2) Put in is, are, have got, has got.

CAROL: Anne blue eyes, but her sisters brown eyes.

WILLY: How old she?

CAROL: She 19 years old.

WILLY: How many people there in her family?

CAROL: There too many people.

(3)

Put in the appropriate verbs. (For example: live, works, ...etc.)

JOHN: Where does your sister work?

MARY: She in London.

JOHN: Where do your parents live?

MARY: They in Liverpool.

JOHN: Does your father work?

MARY: Yes, he in a factory.

JOHN: What time does he in the morning?

MARY: He at 7 o'clock.

(4)

Put in is or are.

JOHN: How many students are there in your class?

MARY: There too many students.

JOHN: Well, there enough sugar in your tea?

MARY: Yes, there

JOHN: there a television in the class?

MARY: Yes, there a colour TV.

(5)

Put in room or rooms; armchair or armchairs; radio or radios;
fridge or fridges; child or children; bed or beds;
car or cars; chair or chairs; lamp or lamps; and
wardrobe or wardrobes.

MARY: How many are there in your flat?

JOHN: There are three.

MARY: Are there any in the living-room?

JOHN: Yes, there are two.

MARY: Is there a ?

JOHN: Yes, there is.

MARY: Is there a in the kitchen?

JOHN: Yes, there is a big one.

MARY: Have you got any ?

JOHN: Yes, I have got two sons and a daughter.

MARY: Have you got a ?

JOHN: No, I haven't, but I want to buy a Renault.

MARY: What are there in your bedroom?

JOHN: There are two and two , and there
is a

Appendix - III.

ENGLISH ACHIEVEMENT TEST-III

Section-I

(1) Fill in the blanks. (10 blanks-Each blank is 3 pts.)

TRAVELLER: two singles London, please.

CLERK : 14.40 pounds,

TRAVELLER: Let's see, there's fourteen, and, twenty,
..... , forty.

CLERK :

TRAVELLER:

NEXT TRAVELLER: Return Oxford,

(2) Fill in the blanks. (10 blanks - Each blank is 3 pts.)

A: I help you?

B: Yes, I'm looking for a

A: What size?

B:

A: Here's a nice one in black. And here's another

B: Well, doesn't really suit me. you got
anything in blue?

A: Here's a lovely one.

B: are they?

A: 50 000 TL.

B: try on?

A: Yes,

Section-II

(1) Fill in the blanks. Use the correct form of the verbs in
brackets. (5 blanks-Each blank is 2 pts.)

FRED: What you last weekend, John? (do)

JOHN: I football with my friends. (play)

FRED: you play football every weekend?

JOHN: Yes, I

FRED: George come last weekend?

JOHN: No, he

(2) Fill in the blanks. Use the correct form of the verbs in brackets. (10 blanks-Each blank is 2pts.)

FATHER: What time you home last night? (come)
ANNE : Oh, I don't know. I think.
FATHER: Two o'clock? I you. (not hear)
ANNE : Well, I in quietly. (come)
FATHER: Where you? (to be)
ANNE : I to a folk concert with Alice and Mary. (go)
FATHER: Why you back so late? (come)
ANNE : We talking about politics, you know. (start)
FATHER: late next time, Okey? (to be)

(3) Fill in the blanks. Use the comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives in brackets. (5 blanks-Each blank is 2 pts.)

AYŞE: How tall are you, Şule?
ŞULE: I'm 1m65 tall.
AYŞE: Is your siseter than you? (tall)
ŞULE: No, she isn't.
AYŞE: Who's the (tall), and who's the (short) in your family?
ŞULE: My father's the (tall), and my mother's the (short).