

**TEACHERS' USE OF L1 IN YOUNG LEARNER EFL CLASSROOMS IN
TURKEY**

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MA THESIS

**DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM**

**GAZI UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**

FEBRUARY 2016

TELİF HAKKI ve TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

Bu tezin tüm hakları saklıdır. Kaynak göstermek koşuluyla tezin teslim tarihinden itibaren on iki (12) ay sonra tezden fotokopi çekilebilir.

YAZARIN

Adı : Serhat
Soyadı : İNAN
Bölümü : İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
İmza :
Teslim tarihi :

TEZİN

Türkçe Adı : Türkiye’deki İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Çocuklar için İngilizce Sınıflarındaki Anadil Kullanımı

İngilizce Adı : Teachers’ Use of L1 in Young Learner EFL Classrooms in Turkey

ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı: Serhat İNAN

İmza :

Jüri onay sayfası

Serhat İNAN tarafından hazırlanan “Teachers’ Use of L1 in Young Learner EFL Classrooms in Turkey” adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından oy birliği ile Gazi Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı’nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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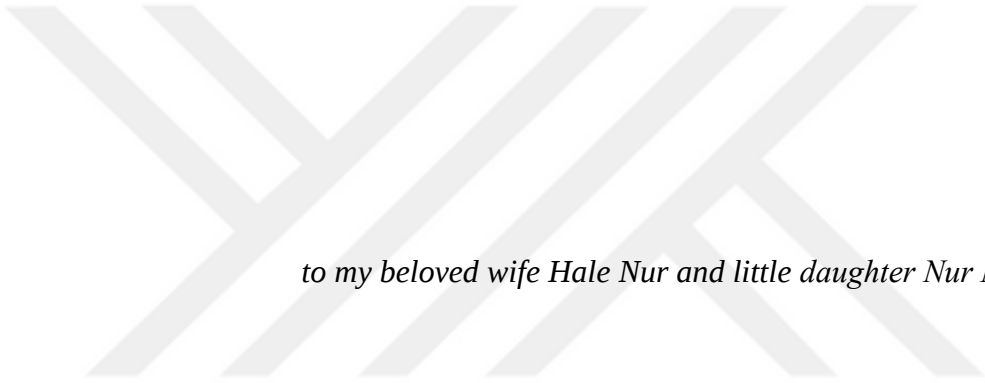
Tez Savunma Tarihi: 05.02.2016

Bu tezin İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı’nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olması için şartları yerine getirdiğini onaylıyorum.

Prof. Dr. Tahir ATICI

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü

.....



to my beloved wife Hale Nur and little daughter Nur Mehlika...

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study could never be completed without the advice and support of the people to whom I would like to express my highest gratitude. First and foremost, I would like to thank my wife Hale Nur İnan, for her endless love, patience and support during the process; and my beloved daughter Nur Mehlika whose smiling face provided the motivation for the completion of this study. Next, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal for all her valuable guidance and help. I count myself fortunate to have a chance to collaborate with her. I cannot deny the critical and timely advice of Dr. Olcay Sert whose assistance provided new insights for this study. Also, I would like to thank my second committee member Dr. Kadriye Dilek Akpınar for her valuable feedback and encouragement. Additionally, I wish to thank my colleagues and friends Mehmet Karaca, Mehmet Eren, and Dr. Ahmet Gökmen for all of their help and advice which were of utmost importance for the completion of this study. I would like to thank Dr. Ali Göksu for his comments at all phases of the study, and Zafer Ertürk for his contributions in the statistical analysis of the data. I wish to thank the brilliant students Bahar, Çağla, Elif, and Nimet for their help in the transcription of the recordings. I would like to thank TÜBİTAK (Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırmalar Kurumu) for the financial support provided through “BİDEB 2210-A Genel Yurt İçi Yüksek Lisans Burs Programı”. I would like to thank participants of this study as well for their committed participation which composed the most important part of the study. Last but not least, I would like to thank my dear parents, brother, and sister whose support has always been with me.

**TÜRKİYE’DEKİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN ÇOCUKLAR
İÇİN İNGİLİZCE SINIFLARINDAKİ ANADİL KULLANIMI
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)**

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GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
Şubat 2016

ÖZ

Bu çalışmada Türkiye’deki İngilizce derslerinde kullanılan anadilin miktarını belirlemek amaçlanmıştır. Çalışmanın katılımcıları tamamı Türkiye’de eğitim görmüş ve öğrencileri ile aynı anadile (Türkçe) sahip 25 öğretmenden oluşmuştur. Bu çalışma kapsamında İngilizce öğretimi derslerinden toplam 50 ders saatlik kayıt yapılmış ve bu kayıtlar yazıya dökülmüştür. Yazıya dökülen kayıtlar öğretmen ve öğrencilerin anadil kullanım miktarlarını belirlemek için kelime sayma yöntemiyle analiz edilmiştir. Sonraki aşamada, öncelikle öğretmen ve öğrencilerin kullandıkları anadil ve yabancı dil miktarları yüzdelik olarak hesaplanmıştır. Sonrasında, öğretmen ve öğrencilerin konuşmaları karşılaştırılmıştır. Son olarak ise öğretmen ve öğrencilerin dersin hangi aşamalarında ne kadar anadil kullandıkları analiz edilmiş ve belirli bir tercih veya model olup olmadığı incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre öğretmenler ortalama %48,12 anadil kullanmıştır. Diğer yandan, öğrenciler ise ortalama olarak %56,31 anadil kullanmıştır. Bu sonuçlar, hem öğretmenlerin hem de öğrencilerin anadili yoğun bir şekilde kullandıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Öğrencilerin yeterli miktarda yabancı dil duyamadıkları ve dili yeterli miktarda kullanmadıkları ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca derslerin, hazırlık, aktivite ve aktivite sonrası aşamalarını içermediği görülmüştür. Buna sebep olarak iki noktadan bahsedilebilir; birincisi, öğretmenler dersi planlarken bu aşamaları göz ardı ediyor olabilirler; bir diğer neden ise öğretmenlerin ders planı hazırlamaması olabilir. Öğretmenlerin derslerinde anadili kullanmaları önerilmektedir ancak öğrencilerin yabancı dil ile temas fırsatını kaçırmamak için anadilin aşırı kullanımından kaçınılmalıdır.

Bilim Kodu:

Anahtar Kelimeler: Anadil Kullanımı; İki Dilli Öğrenme; Yabancı Dil ile Öğretim;

Anadilin Uygun Miktarda Kullanımı

Sayfa Adedi: xiv + 99 sayfa

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal



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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

February 2016

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to explore the amount of the L1 used in EFL classrooms in Turkey. The participants of the study were composed of 25 English teachers who were all trained in Turkey and shared the same native language (Turkish) with their students. For this study, 50 sessions of English language teaching courses were audio recorded and the recordings were transcribed. The analysis of the transcriptions was conducted through a word count method to find out the ratio of L1 used by the teachers and students. After that, first, the percentage of all L1 and L2 use in the classroom is calculated to understand the teachers' and students' preferences in terms of language choice. Second, the ratio of teacher talk to student talk and students' use of L1 is calculated. Finally, under what situations of the classroom teaching, the teachers or students switch to L1 are also examined to understand whether a common preference or pattern exists. The results of the study revealed that the teachers used 48,12% L1 in average in the Turkish EFL classrooms. On the other hand, the students used 56,31% of L1. The results showed that teachers and students used L1 extensively. The students could not get enough L2 input and could not practice language through speaking. Additionally, the courses are found to be missing pre, while, post stages. Therefore, two reasons may be mentioned for this situation, the teachers either neglected those stages during the planning of the course or they simply did not plan the course beforehand. The teachers are recommended to use L1 in their teaching; however, the overuse of L1 should be avoided in order not to miss the chance to provide valuable L2 input for students.

Science Code :

Key Words : L1 Use in EFL; Bilingual Learning; L2-Only Instruction; Optimal Use of L1

Page Number : xiv + 99 pages

Supervisor : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	English Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
FL	Foreign Language
SL	Second Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
TL	Target Language

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Language learning has become an important area of concern since different language communities started to interact with each other. Previously foreign language used to be learned by only a small number of people among which were politicians, traders, and travelers. Along with the technological advancements, more and more people needed to learn foreign languages. Accordingly, researchers have searched for new methods and techniques for better language teaching and learning. The Grammar Translation Method was the oldest of these attempts, and it proposed to teach language through memorization, reading and translating literary texts. In those times, the language was not learned for communicative purposes as there was almost no interaction between the speakers of different languages because of limited transportation and communication facilities. However, with globalization, the development of transportation, and increasing international relations, the need for real communication was understood. In this new era, Grammar Translation Method was not sufficient in language teaching, especially in teaching speaking and listening skills. Then, new language teaching methods emerged one another to solve language learning problems, and each claimed to fix the previous one's weaknesses (e.g. Direct Method, Audiolingual Method, The Silent Way, Desuggestopedia).

Many of these approaches put forward that a language can only be taught through using the target language as the medium of instruction while a few others asserted that first language can also be incorporated in the second language classroom as a teaching technique (e.g. Direct Method, Audiolingual Method, Content-Based Instruction). There have also been a number of studies on the role of first language use in classroom, and while some of them supported the idea of incorporating L1 (e.g. Auerbach, 1993; Bhooth, Azman, and Ismail,

2014; Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2001, 2005, 2009; Duff and Polio, 1990; McMillian and Turnbull, 2009), others did not (e.g. Krashen, 1985; Littlewood, 1981; Moyer, 2004).

The proponents of L2-only instruction claim that using L1 in language teaching is useless or even harmful. For instance, Littlewood (1981) argued that while using L1 for classroom management, the teachers lose a valuable chance for practicing L2 and raising motivation of learners. Additionally, the value of L2 as a communication tool will be degraded if the teachers switch to L1 in such real-life communications (Littlewood, 1981). Moreover, the proponents of L2-only approach claim that L2 use will provide a richer input for the students, and will create a more natural learning environment whereas too much reliance on L1 will inhibit the process of learning (Majer, 2011). Additionally, the target language is degraded through an L1 inclusion policy. However, especially beginner level students may feel insecure through the use of only L2. In addition, L2 use during classroom management, grammar/ vocabulary teaching, and maintaining rapport is perceived as unrealistic. For example, continuous L2 use during grammar instruction instead of providing a simple explanation in L1 appears to be artificial (Majer, 2011) and time-consuming. The use of L1 is considered beneficial in many aspects, such as conveying meaning, explaining grammar, organizing tasks, maintaining discipline, individual contact with students, testing, translation activities, and classroom activities such as small group discussions (Cook, 2001).

Given the controversies surrounding the use of L1 in language classes, and the inconclusive research findings in this area, the present study aims to explore the amount of L1 and L2 use in classroom discourse in young learner EFL classes in Turkey. More specifically, in this study, the following areas are going to be identified: the amount of first and second language use, and the situations in which first language is used.

In order to do that, unlike most previous research which relied on surveys and/or interviews or reflective journals as data sources (e.g. Erdemir, 2013; Franklin, 2007; Kanatlar, 2005; Levine, 2003; McMillian and Turnbull, 2009; Şakıyan-Kayra, 2013; Şimşek, 2009), this study aims to incorporate a comprehensive multifaceted analysis of L1 use in actual classroom discourse in young learner EFL classrooms. From this perspective, the current study is unique as it investigates the amount and functions of L1 use within a large classroom discourse sample composed of 50 sessions of EFL young learner classes taught by 25 teachers. Moreover, most previous research conducted to determine the use of

L1 in L2 classrooms included participants as university instructors (e.g. Duff and Polio, 1990; Edstrim, 2006; Levine, 2003; Taşkın, 2011), high school students (e.g. Sali, 2015), but very few of them studied the teachers of young learner classrooms (e.g. Carless, 2002; Inbar-Lourie, 2010, Macaro, 2001). The fact that this study investigates teachers and students use of L1 in young learner EFL classrooms is another strength.

Language Teaching Methods and First Language Use in Second Language Learning

The language teaching methods since the Classical Method (Grammar Translation Method), have aimed to make language learning process easier and shorter. Each of these methods has a different theoretical point of view towards language learning such as behaviorist, cognitivist, and constructivist. Their approach towards first language use while learning a second language is not the same either. Some claim that using first language is a facilitative factor in the language learning process (e.g. Community Language Learning), some others strongly defend the use of target language as the only medium of all communication in the classroom (e.g. Direct Method). The short description of each method and its view towards first language use in language classes can be seen below:

Grammar Translation Method: The main goals of Grammar Translation Method (GTM) are to gain the reading skill, and to be able to translate the target language into the first language or vice versa. Communication is left behind; that is being able to communicate is not among the goals of language instruction according to GTM (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, p. 13). In order to reach this goal, the teacher uses techniques such as translation of a literary passage, reading comprehension questions, and memorization (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 20-22). The instruction in the classroom is given primarily through the first language of the students (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011 p. 20; Richards and Rogers, 2002). The translation is used as a language teaching technique to reveal the meaning of the target language (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, p. 20). The first language is not pushed out of the classroom in this method; on the contrary, it is intensively used in the classroom activities.

Direct Method: The Direct Method, inspired by the first language acquisition, became very popular especially with the efforts of Maximilian Berlitz. The method continued its popularity at the end of the nineteenth century and beginning of the twentieth centuries. This method puts emphasis on communication, and in order to achieve this, language

instruction should be in the target language. The learners need to learn how to think in the target language; therefore, translation to the students' first language is never used in the classroom. Instead, the meaning is elicited through the use of realia, pictures, pantomime or in other similar ways (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 32-33). In this method while concrete vocabulary is taught through using demonstration, realia, pictures, abstract vocabulary is taught through association of ideas (Brown; 2005, p. 50). Obviously, this method does not give any place to any use of the students' first language inside the classroom.

Audio-Lingual Method (ALM): This method, similar to Direct Method, focuses on the extensive practice of the target language in the classroom. The basis of this method is on the principles of behavioral psychology. From this point of departure, the ALM tries to teach language through habit formation using drills, dialogue memorization and other similar techniques (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 46-48). The ALM proposes that the first language should be avoided for it interferes with the efforts to master the target language and habit formation. Similarly, this approach claims that the source of errors is the negative transfer or interference of L1.

The Silent Way: The Silent Way adopts Bruner's (1966) discovery learning and leads the students to be creative and active rather than passive listeners in the learning process. The Silent Way uses the mediating objects to facilitate learning. In this method, learning process is thought to be a problem-solving activity. The teacher remains silent most of the time and leads the students to speak the target language by guiding them to use nonverbal expressions. This method includes techniques such as a sound-color chart, teacher's silence, rods, and Fidel Charts (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 65-67). The Silent Way permits first language use in the classroom to give instructions, to teach pronunciation, and to give feedback at the beginning levels; however, it still has a negative attitude towards translation in general.

Desuggestopedia (Suggestopedia): This method argues that learning of a language would be much faster if the psychological barriers are discarded. These barriers occur when the learners have negative perception towards their mental abilities such that they have a limited capacity, or that they are going to fail. Peripheral learning, positive suggestion, first/second concerts are some of the methods used in Desuggestopedia (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 81-82). First language is not avoided in Desuggestopedia, and

translation is used in teaching; nonetheless, there is an effort to decrease its use gradually through time.

Community Language Learning (CLL): Adopting the principles of Counseling-Learning Approach, Community Language Learning considers learners as whole persons which means that there is a relationship between the learners' intellect and their emotions, physical behaviors, instinctive behavior and eagerness to learn (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, p. 85). The techniques used in CLL include recording students' conversation, transcription, Human ComputerTM, reflective listening and so on. The first language is used as a basis to build on the target language, in that a link from unknown to known is established. Translation is used as a teaching technique at the beginning levels. Instructions are given in first language and the sessions which include the learners expressing their feelings are held in first language. In addition, the learners' first language is used in order for them to feel secure during classroom activities. When the learners progress to the later stages the target language use increases in the classroom while the use of first language decreases.

Total Physical Response (TPR): This method is one of those methods which are affected by first language acquisition. This method has its basis on the Comprehension Approach which has got its name from the importance it attributes to listening comprehension. It is claimed that the language learning occurs in a sequence by first listening and then producing just as infants do. Compatible with this principle of the Comprehension Approach, at the first levels in a TPR language classroom, the learners do not speak, but they are physically active while the teacher gives commands in the target language. The learners start speaking when they are ready, and after this time, they start giving commands during language practices. In TPR, the following techniques are incorporated in the language learning process; commands, role reversal and action sequence (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 111-112). The first language is used in the introduction of the method and after this stage, it is hardly ever used; instead, the body movements are used to convey the meaning.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Communicative Language Teaching is an approach which was put forward by those who claimed that the previous methods were not successful in terms of enabling the students to use the target language in real-life occasions. CLT has come out with a purpose to improve the learners' communicative

competence. However, as Klapper (2003) states, unlike some other methods, CLT does not propose specific language teaching techniques which need to be strictly followed. As a result of this, the applications of CLT may differ to a great extent even if the practitioners say that they are using this approach. Stemming from this diversity, strong and weak versions of CLT were appeared; on the stronger side, the learners should learn language by using it in real life settings while on the weaker side, the learners should learn the basics of the language and gradually use it in freer settings, and finally in real life (Howatt, 2004). Some of the techniques incorporated in the CLT classroom include using authentic materials, scrambled sentences, picture strip story, language games and role-plays (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 126-128). CLT aims to develop an understanding towards the target language as it is a means of communication. For this reason, in a CLT classroom, there is an effort towards the use of the target language not only during the language practices but also in all classroom processes. However, the use of first language is perceived as acceptable in only certain situations, such as when communication breaks down, especially at the beginning levels.

Content-based Instruction (CBI): This method is situated at the strong end of the CLT adopting the principle to teach languages by means of communication. A typical CBI classroom teaches languages through teaching other subjects (history, mathematics, science, etc.). That is, the purpose of this method is to teach course content along with language. Language is just a tool to learn the content; it is not the main aim in the CBI classroom. The European equivalent of CBI is content and language integrated learning (CLIL) (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, p. 133). The techniques used in CBI include graphic organizers, language experience approach, dialogue journals (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 142-143). CBI as in the CLT puts utmost emphasis on the use of target language in classes.

The Natural Approach: The theoretical background of the Natural Approach belongs to Krashen while the outlines for classroom applications belong to Terrell (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). The Natural Approach claims that the second language learning takes place in a similar way with the first language acquisition. This approach shares the view of delayed production with the TPR, asserting that the “comprehensible input” should be provided to learners until they feel ready for production. The language learning process according to the Natural Approach does not include the use of learners’ first language in

the classroom; on the contrary, a simplified version -comprehensible input- of the target language is used in all classroom situations.

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT): Being another strong version of the CLT, this method aims to teach language through tasks that may possibly be encountered in real life situations. In Task-based Language Teaching, the learners focus on accomplishing the task, and while doing it, they communicate with each other using the target language. Among the techniques incorporated in TBLT; information-gap, opinion-gap, reasoning-gap tasks, focused, and unfocused tasks can be mentioned (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011, pp. 158-160). TBLT tries to facilitate communication in the target language; first language use is not desired in the classroom (Cook, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

Scholars who are advocates of L1 inclusion in the classroom provide various methodologies to incorporate students' first language (e.g. Community Language Learning, Dodson's Bilingual Method, Desuggestopedia). However, recent trends have proposed the incorporation of the target language as the only medium of communication. Accordingly, it has been widely accepted worldwide by both teachers and learners that the only way to learn a language is through L2 by excluding the first language from the classroom or at least through minimizing its use (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2005; McMillian and Turnbull, 2009). With this purpose in mind, teachers have been doing their best to prevent the first language use within the borders of the classroom. However; it is inevitable that the students are feeling distressed while trying to communicate in a language that most likely they are not competent enough. The teachers, as stated in Atkinson (1993) and Franklin (1990), do not think that 100% L2 use is possible. As a result of this, they become frustrated and end up with L1 dominated classrooms. In addition, while teachers try to explain everything in the target language, they spend extra time on a topic that may easily be explained with the students' first language with less effort and in a shorter time. Thus, the situation with relation to L1 use in L2 classrooms is still not clear, and still subject to serious debates and scientific investigations in the field.

Many studies have been conducted to examine this issue; nonetheless, most studies on the use of L1 have been conducted with university students (e.g. Bhooth et al., 2014; Duff and Polio, 1990); and few of them with high school students (e.g. Turnbull, 1999). There are

only a few studies which were conducted on young learners' and their teachers' use of first language (e.g. Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu, 2015; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Macaro, 2001); therefore, this issue still stands to be investigated in detail with a wider range of participants, since the number of the research in this area is not sufficient to provide a clear picture of the current practices, particularly in young learner classes.

In addition, the studies are mostly conducted through interviews, surveys, learning diaries or reflective journals (e.g. Edstrom, 2006; Kahraman, 2009; Franklin, 2007; Kanatlar, 2005; Levine, 2003; McMillian and Turnbull, 2009; Tunçay, 2014). However, in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of what is going on in real classrooms an investigation of audio/video recordings of EFL classes in terms of the codeswitching practices is essential. Even though there are several studies (e.g. Liu, Ahn, Baek and Han, 2004; Macaro, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Sali, 2014; Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005) which tried to investigate the use of L1 in real classroom in EFL context through audio or video recording, this issue needs a lot more investigation to be clarified. Therefore, because studies providing an insight in the classroom through recording and analyzing the classroom context are quite a few, the current study will provide the amount of teachers' and students' use of L1 as well as the situations in which they use L1 in the classroom through recording and analyzing the EFL classroom discourse in Turkish state schools.

In Turkey, the L1 use research is also mostly conducted in universities (e.g. Kahraman, 2009; Kanatlar, 2005; Şakıyan-Kayra 2013; Taşkın, 2011; Üstünel and Seedhouse; 2005) or in secondary and high schools (e.g. Eldridge, 1996; Sali, 2014) similar to the literature of L1 use. One of the scarce studies to investigate L1 use in young learner classrooms in Turkish EFL contexts is conducted by Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015). In their study, they audio-recorded 3 teachers and analyzed their use of L1 in their teaching. In the present study; however, 25 teachers were audio-recorded, which constitutes a large sample compared to the studies not only in Turkey but also in the whole body of research on the use of L1.

Another important contribution of this study is that despite the worldwide acceptance of communicative language teaching and avoidance of L1 use in language teaching in the world, the case for Turkey is a little bit different. Although the new curriculum imposes communicative language teaching and forces the teachers to adopt a communicative approach highlighting target language use as a medium of classroom communication,

teachers generally are not very successful at preventing their students to use L1 inside the classroom, and as a result the teachers and students tend to use L1 extensively (TEPAV and British Council, 2013). Therefore, L1 becomes the main medium of communication in foreign language classrooms, and this undesired result is likely to lead teachers as well as students to regret and lose motivation as indicated by Cook (2001a), Franklin (1990), and Turnbull (2001). In addition to this, Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) stated that when teachers try to teach through the explicit use of the target language they face resistance from their students, who force them to repeat in their L1, and teachers are pushed to switch L1.

Despite this situation, previous studies on L1 use in EFL classrooms in Turkey (e.g. Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu, 2015; Taşkın, 2011) reported little use of L1 in Turkey. For example, Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) found 8-14 minutes of L1 use in their 90-minute audio recording at a private high school. Similarly, Taşkın (2011) studied the issue in the preparation classes of a university and found that the teachers used from 1% to 31% L1 in their teaching which may still be accepted as a small amount of native language use. However, although the L1 use issue has been studied for decades, it has only recently attracted the attention of researchers in Turkey and obviously there is a gap in the field of L1 use in young learner classrooms; therefore, this study is conducted at state schools with young learners in Turkey to provide a resource for L1 use research in EFL. From this perspective; this study aims to clarify the general opinion about L1 dominance in Turkish classrooms, and reveal the actual practices of both students and teachers inside the classroom.

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study is to determine the amount and functions of first language used by the teachers of young learners in Turkish state schools and identify the possible ways for making advantage of the learners' first languages while using L2 as the main medium of the education. There is a popular belief in Turkey that the teachers are reluctant to use the target language in their instruction. The truth behind this common belief will be clarified in this study with a relatively large number of participants. Finally, the study will explore the situations in which first language is used and the factors that may influence teachers' language preference in classes.

The following research questions will guide this study;

- 1) How much L1 do teachers use in young learner EFL classrooms?
- 2) How much L1 do students use in young learner EFL classrooms?
- 3) What is the proportion of teachers' L1 use compared to the students use of L1?
- 4) What is the ratio of teacher talk to student talk in young learner EFL classrooms?
- 5) What are the situations in which students and teachers use the L1 and TL?
- 6) Which of the following factors influence teachers' L1 and TL use in young learner EFL classrooms?
 - a) Teacher's previous teaching experience
 - b) Teacher's age
 - c) Educational background of the teacher

Importance of the Study

The use of L1 in ELT has been discussed for a long time. However, the number of research about actual classroom practices in terms of the amount of L1 used is very limited (e.g. Macaro 2001; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002). Most of the studies were conducted with participants at the university level, while some of the studies were conducted at high school and secondary level and only a few of them at primary school level. That is, there is little research on young learners' and their teachers' use of L1 in ESL/EFL classroom. The studies investigating L1 use in young learners can be mentioned as follows; Macaro (2001) studied with 6 pre-service teachers of young learners, Inbar-Lourie's (2010) sample was composed of 6 teachers of young learners while Nagy and Robertson (2009, p. 71) studied with 4 teachers of 4th grade learners in Hungary. Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) conducted a study with 4 teachers of young EFL classes through audio-recording in the same context with this study. Looking at these studies which are in parallel with this study regarding their sample, it is obvious that this study with 25 young learner EFL teachers has a relatively large sample. Through a larger sample, the results of this study will be an important step towards understanding the use of L1 in young learner EFL classrooms.

In addition, through this study, not only the teachers' L1 use, but also the learners' use of L1 is analyzed and presented in percentage. Therefore, the teachers will notice their actual practices, and they can assess themselves in order to achieve a balanced/optimal use of L1 in their teaching. Furthermore, after the documentation of their students' preferences for

language use, teachers will be aware of their students' performances and will have a chance to reflect and act upon to improve.

Another important point is the implementation of this study in state schools where all teachers and their students are native speakers of Turkish. In the context of the study, there is a common belief that students and teachers at state schools –especially at primary and secondary level- overuse L1 during the process of L2 teaching. However, it is almost impossible to make inferences about the use of L1 and L2 inside the classrooms without using observation as a technique. Through this study, the actual use of L1 in the sample of the study will be provided, and this study will contribute to the ongoing debate by providing data from the real EFL classes. This study will not only provide an insight into the classrooms but also will give a chance to reconsider the language teaching policies.

In conclusion, this study is one of the scarce studies to shed light on the first language use practices inside the young learner classrooms in Turkey. Both teachers' and students' in-class language use will be identified through this study. As a result of this, the link and/or gap between the theory-in-mind and real-life practices will be revealed.

Assumptions

In the present study, there are three assumptions. Firstly, it is assumed that the teachers are not affected by the audio-recording while teaching. Secondly, it is assumed that the teachers conducted their usual course, since they are asked to do so. Finally, it is assumed that the learners are not affected by the audio-recording during their learning.

Limitations

The nature of the study did not permit to obtain a larger sample. Even though the required permission is taken from the authorities, the teachers were not willing to participate in the study. The willingness to participate in the study was around 30% when it is thought that out of 110 teachers' visited for this study only 35 teachers volunteered. In some of these schools, the school administrators did not want the study to be conducted in their schools. In others, the teachers were consulted and they expressed that they were not willing to participate for various reasons such as the topic of the week, students' upcoming exams, not feeling ready. Since the sample is not large enough to represent the whole EFL

context, the results revealed at the end is limited to the time and scope of the study. The results of the statistical analysis incorporated in this study may not present precise results on the issue of L1 use as well. However, it can be viewed as a good indicator to gain a better understanding of the nature of L1 used in the EFL classes of Turkey. Therefore; even if the study presents a good deal of information about the practices of teachers and students in terms of L1 use in classroom; the results of this study cannot be generalized.

The lessons are 40 minutes in Turkey, however each course analyzed for this study ranged between 30 – 37 minutes because of the reasons as the teachers prolonged the break time and went to the class a few minutes late, the time of preparation for the class (such as taking attendance, looking for the book and other materials, trying to figure out the topic of the week etc.) is omitted since there were not any useful information or there were complete silence. The analysis of the transcripts started when the teachers started the course and finished when they finished the course.

CHAPTER II

RELATED RESEARCH STUDIES

Rationale for L2-Only Instruction in ELT

The idea that L2 should be the only medium of instruction had been widely accepted until recent years in second language teaching research. Only after the studies on the efficiency of purposeful L1 use for L2 instruction were revealed, the L2-only point of view started to be questioned. The advocates of L2 only instruction (e.g. Krashen, 1981) mostly based their ideas on the first language acquisition and thought that just as in child first language acquisition, second language should also be learned subconsciously (naturally) (Krashen, 1981) through exposure to natural input in the target language. L1 is most of the time viewed as a source of negative transfer; thus, should be avoided (e.g. Lado, 1957; Banathy, Trager, and Waddle, 1966). Krashen (1981) states that even if L1 is not the only source of every error in the L2 learning and performance, it is still one of the main causes of errors.

Some of the researchers revealed their concerns about the strategic use of L1 in classrooms in terms of the possibility to provide inefficient and insufficient L2 input (Littlewood, 1981). For example, Littlewood (1981) approaches using first language for classroom management purposes and solving problems inside the classroom as losing an important chance of a 'well-motivated' target language practice. Additionally, in such a situation, the risk of degrading the value of the target language as a communication tool may also occur. Therefore, what is needed is to make the learners accept the target language as a means of every kind of communication in class.

Some others, among which are the proponents of L1 use, state the importance of a balanced/judicious/principled use of L1 and refraining from overuse (Brown and

Yamashita, 1995; Schmidt, 1995; Turnbull, 2001). Schmidt (1995), for example, stated that while L1 is an easy and effective tool to provide meaning during teaching, the teacher should be careful in order not to lead the students' overreliance on the teachers' translations. He adds that as a result of this, students may stop paying attention to the English language spoken inside the classroom, therefore, miss the chance to obtain a good deal of comprehensible input. Similarly, Brown and Yamashita (1995) in their study mentioned their concern that the students are adopting the idea that meaning can only be conveyed through L1. Another possible problem of the extensive use of L1 in the teaching of L2 is that students may perceive language as a subject to be learned with no practical use in daily life instead of a tool for communication (Wachs, 1993).

In terms of the perceptions of teachers to L2 use, Kim's (2002) study provides interesting results. Kim (2002) found through a survey distributed to 53 teachers that the perceptions of teachers towards teaching English through English (TETE) were more positive. TETE is defined by Willis (1981) as using English as much as possible inside the classroom. Most of the teachers thought that central exam constitutes a problem for the effective use of Classroom English (CE) which refers to English used to deal with classroom management issues (Kim, 2002).

It is also highly stated by the popular language teaching methodologies (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching) that L1 should be kept out of the borders of the classroom. In her study Franklin (1990) searched for the reasons why teachers could not follow the prescriptions of these methodologies and the institutions which keenly adopted an L2-only approach. It should be noted that her belief was towards incorporation of the target language in the classroom instruction. She thought that the teachers who share the same native language with the students tend to resort to L1 for classroom management issues, detailed explanation of grammar, and 'teaching background' (Franklin, 1990, p. 20). She conducted a survey with 201 teachers. The results of her study revealed that the main function conducted through L1 was discipline issues in the classroom. She mentioned that at the roots of the other two factors, which were mixed ability classrooms and class size, the discipline factor was the main indicator. The classroom size mentioned in her study was not too large, which ranged from 17-32 when compared to the EFL context in which the current study is conducted. The class size in this study ranged between 23 and 30. As Franklin (1990) also stated, the class size did not seem to be the real source of the

problem. She indicated that the teachers who complained about the size of classes were working with the smaller sized classed in the study. Interestingly, it is mentioned in Franklin's (1990) study that 95% of the respondents agreed that behavior of the students are one of the reasons why they do not use L2. These findings of the study showed correlation with the suggestions in the literature towards using L1 for classroom management purposes (e.g. Atkinson, 1987a; Cook, 2001a). The incorporation of L1 would be more practical for organizing classroom; however, when the opposite is preferred (L2 is used for classroom management) as shown in Franklin's study, there is a risk that teachers may not be successful at implementing an L2 medium instruction. They may finally turn back to so-called 'traditional' L1 medium instruction for convenience which is also stated by Atkinson (1993).

A final issue to be approached with caution according to the proponents of L2-only approach is the subconsciously transferring the 'sense of failure or hopelessness' to the students by constantly switching to their native language (Schmidt, 1995). In this situation, students may feel that they are not competent enough to understand the language that they are learning. In accordance with the views of Schmidt (1995), the teacher is the sole source of input in an EFL classroom; that's the reason why if the teachers do not provide enough language input, the students will not be able to develop communicative competence.

Rationale for L1 Use in ELT

The inclusion of L1 as a teaching and learning tool in the ELT process has long been discussed. The stronger and weaker versions of the ideas on the argument of first language use in the classroom range from totally banning the first language in the classroom tasks to decreasing the use of it as much as possible. The methodologists (Krashen, 1981; Lado, 1957; Littlewood, 1981; Moyer, 2004; Willis, 1981) claiming that no first language should be inside the classroom, mostly base their ideas on the first language acquisition theories of children. They believe that second language learning should occur in the same way as first language acquisition. However, Cook (2001a) states that they are missing one point that children acquiring their first language do not know any other language, and this can never be duplicated. To be clearer, the learners of a second language know at least one language (mother tongue) that's the reason why they should be treated differently from a baby acquiring his/her first language. Therefore, the notion of L1 avoidance should be

approached with caution, or the chance of benefiting from the previous knowledge would be missed and more time and effort would be wasted.

Another argument is that second language should be learned only through second language because the two languages form two different systems in the learners' minds which is called coordinate bilingualism, on the contrary to this view compound bilingualism asserts that both languages are "interwoven" in the learners' minds that's to say they are linked to each other (Cook, 2001a). Cook provides evidence from his claim that languages are not stored separately in the brain from the perfect use of code-switching according to the contexts. Therefore, he claims that the efforts to put languages in different parts of the mind are in vain since those parts have lots of links to each other. Therefore, it is important to activate the ties between first language and the target language during the language teaching and learning process.

The most important point about the advocates of first language use is that they do not propose an L1-medium instruction; however, their efforts are towards 'legalizing' the judicious, principled, or balanced use of L1 (e.g. Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001a, Hall and Cook, 2012, Macaro, 2001). Cook (2001a) is one of those researchers who claim that judicious use of the first language can help the learners learn a language easier as well as faster. He asserts that first language can be viewed as a good source in order to create real second language speakers contrary to the radical belief adopted by most of the methodologists and teachers of the 20th century that it should certainly be avoided. Whether first language should be included in the second language education or not may not have an answer that is useful in all contexts she says. However, the studies conducted all around the world including Turkey (Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005; Sali, 2014); Korea (Liu et al., 2004); Hungary (Nagy and Robertson 2009, pp. 66-86); Canada (McMillian and Turnbull, 2009, pp. 15-34) the USA (Polio and Duff, 1994), Sweden (Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult, 1999), Sri Lanka (Canagarajah, 1995), and Germany (Butzkamm, 2003) revealed promising results on the future of L1 use in L2 teaching. The claim by Hall and Cook (2012) about the future of L1 use deserves serious consideration. According to Hall and Cook (2012), bilingual education will certainly revive and after this revival, monolingual language teaching will not be able to survive. Similarly, Owen (2003) states that within a short time translation will regain its popularity among educators. The

increasing number and supportive findings of the emerging studies on this issue are clearly concurring Hall and Cook's (2012) and Owen's (2003) belief.

As mentioned earlier, the aim is not teaching without any use of target language which would be impossible. However, with the pressure for an L2-only instruction, Cook (2001a) states that no matter how hard the teachers try not to use the first language in the classroom, they often incorporate the native language in their teaching and feel guilty for going beyond the borders of the second language. Throwing first language out of the classroom limits the success of language teaching he explains; adding that there is no logical basis for excluding first language from communicative tasks to bring the real life communication into the classroom. Turnbull (2001), contrary to Cook (2001a) is against 'licensing' teachers to use L1 in certain situations or for certain functions. He believes that it is obvious that the teachers used L1 to a wide extent without being licensed; thus, after gaining official permission, the L1 can be used far too much than L2. Instead, the teacher trainers should guide the teachers about principled, judicious use of L1. This may be seen as logical when the current practice of teachers is considered, the idea of positive pressure by official guidelines can be deemed as helpful.

It should again be born in mind while reading L1 proponents' comments on L2 that they are not against maximum incorporation of L2, the argument stems from the artificial, compulsory and only use of L2, leaving L1 outside the boundaries of the classroom with the expense of no matter what the results are. Similarly, Cook (2001a) mentions that to maximize second language learning the best way would be to encourage second language use and provide teachers with good examples rather than prohibiting first language. The teachers should be free to use L1 when it is necessary; nevertheless, this belief is questioned by Turnbull (2001) in spite of being an advocate of judicious use of L1. According to Turnbull (2001), the need for 'licensing' teachers to use L1 deserves a second thought; since the current practice revealed that teachers use L1 extensively even though almost all of the guidelines suggest the opposite. However, this claim may be seen as overrated. Widdowson (2003, pp. 152-153) states that the appeal of L1 in language classes may be a result of the fact that it is forbidden by the curriculum and condemned by almost all of the language teaching methods, he suggests that the legalization of L1 would result in a decrease in the tendency of using too much L1. Therefore, the teachers' current levels of L1 use cannot be regarded as a predictor for their practice in a context where L1

is freed. A proportion of the amount of L1 used by teachers, if not all, may be the essential amount that has to be used under certain conditions. Of course, the ‘overusers’ of L1 are not under this umbrella. However, in a situation where the teacher could find no way to explain the meaning of an L2 word or a cultural concept, the ban would not work.

Auerbach (1993), who is one of those setting the grounds of L1 use inside the classroom, states that English-only approaches are mainly based on ideology rather than pedagogy. On the other hand, evidence shows that use of first language can be of great benefit to the learners and teachers. For instance, Garcia (1991) stated that in the language classes he studied the use of first language was not prohibited. The learners at all levels are allowed to use their first language while the teachers used mostly English at higher levels. The study showed that the comprehension levels of the students were extremely good. Moreover, they are not forced by their teachers to use English; on the contrary, they made the transition by themselves. This and similar studies, as Auerbach explained, revealed that initial literacy in first language promoted better learning of the second language.

Language choice is also a reflection of power relations. Auerbach notes that “prohibiting the native language within the context of ESL instruction may impede language acquisition precisely because it mirrors disempowering relations” (1991, p. 16). She mentions that learning a second language is in contact with “societally determined value attributed to the L1” (1991, p.16). Although she mentions this for minority languages in immersion programs, it may also be a case for EFL learners. A total ban of the first language could provoke the learners to question the value of their first language when compared to the second language.

Similarly in his study, Cook (2001a) mentions the ways of positively including first language in the classroom as; using first language to explain or control meaning rather than trying to explain with pantomime, pictures or other ways so that the conversation will be more realistic. McMillian and Turnbull (2009, p. 31) in line with Cook (2001a), stated that judicious use of first language is helpful in teaching a foreign language. They studied first language use in French immersion programs in Canada. In their study, McMillian and Turnbull (2009, pp. 16-17) indicated that in immersion programs, a direct method viewpoint was adopted in which the main principle is to use solely target language and leave the first language out of the borders of the classroom. The main logic behind the immersion program is offering other courses in the target language, which is French in

Canadian French immersion programs. They report that the effectiveness of the immersion programs in Canada is obvious. They agree that one of the main reasons behind the success of this program is the use of the target language (French) as the main medium of both communication and instruction. However; some other researchers (e.g. Lapkin and Swain, 1990; Genesee, 1994; Cummins, 2000) say that the immersion programs still need to be improved. The areas as lack of accuracy in speaking and writing skills are one of the most important ones to be considered in depth. McMillian and Turnbull (2009, p. 32) propose in their study that more flexible and inclusive practices on the native language use would help the improvement of the French immersion program in Canada.

In their study McMillian and Turnbull (2009, pp. 15-34) interviewed two teachers in one of the French immersion program schools in Canada. In these schools, French is taught as an SL to the English speaking students. The teachers' practices in the classroom were in conflict with each other when the first language use is considered. Both of the teachers in this study realized the need to use first language in the immersion program. Pierre's (one of the two teachers in this study) use of the first language did not impede the improvement of the target language, rather further promoted the use of French (L2). The researchers state that Pierre's use of English did not exceed Macaro's (2005, pp. 63-84) suggested limit of first language use (10%-15%) above which first language use may begin to be harmful to the students' target language development. To conclude, Pierre may be considered as a good example for sensible use of the first language in the classroom.

Macaro (2009, pp. 35-49) conducted a comprehensive study on 159 Chinese learners of English. He tried to find out the effect of the first language use on vocabulary learning. After two weeks, he conducted a delayed test for the three groups participated in the study. The first group was given the first language translation of the vocabulary and the second group was given English explanations of the words. The last group was given both first language translation and explanation as well as they were provided with contextual information. The test results showed no difference between the three groups. Analyzing the results of this study, it can be seen that first language use in vocabulary teaching at least does not cause any harm on the students learning. Therefore, it may be considered legitimate to use the first language with a purpose of lessening cognitive burden on students and lead them to concentrate on comprehension. In addition, the teachers do not need to spend so much time on trying to explain vocabulary through second language.

The Canadian context has provided fruitful research in the field of L1 use in L2 learning due to the experience they had in teaching French as an L2 in both immersion and core language teaching programs (Hall and Cook, 2012). Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002), for example, studied with 4 teachers of elementary French in Canada. They recorded and transcribed the lessons. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) analyzed the reasons of codeswitching practices by the teachers. They classified the codeswitching instances under three main categories as 'Translation', 'Metalinguistic Issues', 'Communicative Uses' (Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002, pp. 409-410). The results revealed that Translation was used 30.94% in all codeswitching, Metalinguistic Uses composed 20.44% of all codeswitching, and the highest proportion of the codeswitching examples were under the category of Communicative Uses with 48.62%. They found out that teachers are not the only factor on teacher code-switching, students are also pushing the teachers towards code-switching. Especially the examples under the translation category showed that the students are requesting the teachers to switch to the L1.

To investigate the use of L1 in the North African context, Bhooth et al. (2014) studied Yemeni tertiary students' perceptions of using L1 in EFL. The majority of the students' views were positive towards using their first language in EFL. They thought L1 would be helpful especially while learning difficult concepts or when the teacher realizes that the students have difficulty in understanding English. Some of the students stated that at higher levels of proficiency, first language should not be used. Some students also shared their opinions that too much use of first language would not help because they could only hear or produce the target language in the classroom. This showed that they were also aware of the harmful effects of excessive first language use. It is understandable in advanced classes an L2-only language instruction may be considered as more beneficial; however, it should be noted that sometimes L1 use may be a must rather than being an option. For instance, during the flow of the speaking activity when a student stuck for the meaning of a word in L2, s/he may simply use the L1 equivalent or ask for the translation of the word. Moreover, while asking the question, the student may have to use the word in his/her L1. In such a situation, in order not to interrupt the activity, the teacher can simply provide translation of the word. Or the same situation may occur when a student does not understand an L2 word in teacher's speech. When the student asks for the meaning, it would be wiser to stop moving on the topic and simply provide the L1 equivalent of the word. When the teacher

simply translates and moves on, the student's L2 learning would not be impeded, but be facilitated.

Contrary to the Bhooth et al.'s (2014) study, McDonough's (2002) findings revealed that for some situations, students need L1 for a better learning. It is beneficial to visit McDonough's (2002) study in order to have an idea about the diverseness between the teachers' methods and students' preferences. McDonough (2002) in her study mentioned her experiences as a foreign language learner. She also conducted a small survey to find out if her views were shared by other students and teachers. She criticized the popular practices of L2-only approach, such as avoiding translation, not encouraging the students to use bilingual dictionary, explicit grammar teaching rather than providing the gist. She found out that most of the students agreed with her, but the teachers disagreed. It is obvious in McDonough's (2002) study that the methods do not always work as in theory. As stated in Atkinson (1987) and McDonough (2002), L1 use is a student-preferred method in language teaching; therefore, the teachers should make advantage of it rather than banning and avoiding it.

The strategic use of L1 is important to facilitate the students' L2 learning. Otherwise, it may work as a debilitating factor. In other words, it is of importance to offer ways on how to use L1 in the classroom. Otherwise there is a danger of wrong and overuse of the native language which would make the situation even worse. The proponents of L1 use should not be considered as blind defenders against the target language, on the contrary, they try to establish a more effective and clear-cut method for language learning (Butzkamm, 2003). Similarly, He (2012) designed a study with his Chinese speaking students and proposed three strategies to include L1 into L2 learning process as a natural and effective learning tool. The strategies he offered was "... 1) taking advantage of similarities between Chinese [L1] and English [L2]... 2) taking advantage of differences between the two language systems 3) taking advantage of learners' conceptual understanding in L1 for L2 learning..." (He, 2012, p. 11). In his study, He (2012) used a similar structure in both L1 and L2, in other words, he made use of learners' existing background knowledge as proposed by Butzkamm (2003). On the contrary, in another example, He (2012) showed how to benefit from differences between L1 and L2, which were seen as the basis of negative transfer. The differences between L1 and L2 as in He's (2012) study make as good resources as the similarities between languages while teaching languages. And

finally, he used a technique that uses the learners' conceptual understandings of the world. Of course, it is possible to find out some other ways to teach the students these structures through using only the target language but is not necessary while there is an easy, time-saving and obviously effective way.

Levine (2003) conducted a survey study to identify two important issues one of which is in close relationship with the scope of this study. She explored the relationship between anxiety and L1 use and found no significant correlation between the two variables. She also thought that there would be a relationship between L1 use and the context as well as the group of interlocutors. She conducted a survey to 600 university students learning a foreign language and 163 FL instructors. She asked the students and the instructors about the amounts of L1 used by the students. The perceptions of students as well as the instructors about their L2 use are explored in the study. The results revealed that in the classrooms, the highest proportion of L2 is used while the instructors are talking to the students which is an expected result when the FL classrooms are considered. The amount decreases in student-to-instructor talk while the least amount of L2 is used in the student-to-student communication. Obviously, the students easily switch to L1 while speaking to each other which may be due to the pair/group works where the instructor control is less. Levine (2003) investigated the context factor on the use of L1 and L2 in her study as well. There occurred a conflict between the students' and the instructors' estimations in all of the three contexts which are namely 'Topic/Theme', 'Grammar', 'Tests' (Levine, 2003, p. 350). However, she stated that there was an agreement on the decreasing amount of L2 use topic/theme context being the highest, test and other assignments being lowest. She reaches three 'tenets' from these findings which are 'Optimal Tenet', as suggested by Macaro (2001) refers to accept L1 as a natural part of the classroom and through L1, various functions can be fulfilled; 'Marked Tenet' refers to create opportunities in classroom in which L1 used purposefully as a facilitator for learning, and finally the 'Collaborative Language Use Tenet' which refers the students' actively taking part in managing L1 and L2 use (Levine, 2003, p. 355).

Edstrom (2006) in her study reflected on her own practice of L1 use in teaching Spanish as an FL. She audio recorded her courses at a university level beginner Spanish class; kept a reflective journal, and conducted a questionnaire to the students. The main aim of her research was to identify the amount of L1 use and compare her perceptions as a teacher

with her actual practice during the course, the functions as well as motivations and reasons of L1 use, and finally to compare teacher's L1 use with perceptions of students. Edstrom explained her expectation about the amount of L1 use was around 5-10%; however the findings of her study revealed that she used an average of 23% L1 in her courses. She found out that the amount of L1 she used increased as the semester progressed which showed a conflict between her own perception and some of the students' perceptions as gradually decreasing the amount of L1. This may show that a lack of strategy about the use of L1. This issue is strictly pointed out by other researchers along with Edstrom (2006) to incorporate a purposeful use of L1 (e.g. Brooks-Lewis, 2009) and using L1 as a language teaching strategy (e.g. Cook, 2001a; Cook, 2001b, pp. 154-157; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002). Edstrom used L1 for various functions including; "grammar instruction", "classroom management", "to compensate for a lack of comprehension", "cultural issues", "connecting with students" (2006, pp. 283-284).

Additionally, Edstrom (2006) identified three reasons and motivations behind her L1 use; first one is about her perception of "moral issues." She explains this with an example; in which she tries to pronounce one of the student's name, after unsuccessful trials she switches to L1 at least to show her "good intentions" (2006, pp. 286-287). On this instance, Edstrom shares other researchers' hesitation about the use of L1 for creating rapport with students (Polio and Duff 1994); she approaches the issue from a humanistic point of view and explains that sometimes her perception about moral issues forces her to switch to L1. Secondly, she stated that in accordance with Cook's (2001a) suggestions as having multiple goals, she stated that core teaching should not be the only concern. Edstrom (2006) states that among others; she aims to teach her students the "...difficulty of learning a language, better understand the relationship between language and the realities it describes and avoid stereotypical ideas about Hispanic cultures." (p. 287). This concern may be related with being aware of students' needs to get improved and prepared not only in terms of language but also the realities of life. The final reason behind her L1 use is explained by Edstrom (2006) as "laziness" (p. 288). She stated that through the end of the semester, she realized a high frequency in her journal records pointing tiredness. This may be the case for teachers as stated in other studies as well; they may sometimes resort to L1 to save time simply because they are tired (e.g. Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Turnbull, 2001).

Polio and Duff (1994) in their study examined the functions of L1 used in the classroom. They transcribed six sessions from six FL teachers who were native speakers of the language that they were teaching. They adopted an exploratory perspective without preconceived categories. The reason for this may be because the body of the literature at that time was not as large as today's to provide a good range of categories. This relatively low number of studies on this issue may be understood when the challenging processes of recording and transcribing the courses with the limited technology of the time are considered. The analysis of the teacher talk in six FL classes revealed eight functions carried out by L1. These functions are namely; "Classroom administrative vocabulary", "Grammar instruction", "Classroom management", "Empathy/solidarity", "Practicing English", "Unknown vocabulary/translation", "Lack of comprehension", and "Interactive effect involving students' use of English" (Polio and Duff, 1994; pp. 317-320).

As it is stated in their study, the teachers may not be aware of the amount, and the purpose of L1 use (Polio and Duff, 1994). Moreover, sometimes during the course, the teachers may not be aware that they are using L1 (Polio and Duff, 1994). In order to raise awareness about the use of L1, such studies need to be conducted as it is stated in Edstrom's (2006) study as well. The possible reasons behind the teachers use of L1 is stated by Polio and Duff (1994) as; in order to ensure understanding of the grammatical issues for an upcoming exam or quiz; when the precise L2 word does not exist; when the teachers may feel that using L1 will be easier to set order inside the classroom; and when the teachers do not have the knowledge of the strategies to cope with lack of comprehension in L2.

Turnbull and Arnett (2002) state that the researchers who think that maximizing L2 in ELT is of vital importance can be based on a reasonable ground that the teachers are the only sources of input, especially in EFL contexts. However, it is noteworthy that the proponents of L1 use does not claim an L1 medium classroom, but rather they propose justified and sensible use of L1 (e.g. Butzkamm, 2003; Carless, 2008; Cook, 2001a, Macaro, 2009, Turnbull, 2001). The maximum amount of exposure is questionable according to Turnbull and Arenett (2002). The efforts towards maximizing L2 input most of the time led to a total ban or strictly limiting the L1 inside the classroom (Cook, 2001a; Lier cited in Turnbull and Arnett, 2002).

Harbord (1992) mentions non-native ELT teachers that they have to use mother tongue in teaching because of their lack of L2 strategies to convey the meaning, and this may lead to incomprehension by students. This suggestion is highly important, especially in EFL contexts since most of the teachers, as mentioned in Harbord's (1992) study, cannot easily cope with the momentarily emerging issues. They need to prepare for all possible scenarios, for instance developing strategies every week to explain the possible unknown vocabulary. It is not possible to be prepared for all of the possibilities; therefore, instead, the teacher can incorporate strategies of L1 use. According to Harbord (1992), these L1 strategies in teaching can put under three main categories which are; 'facilitating teacher-student communication', 'facilitating teacher-student rapport', and 'facilitating learning' (Harbord, 1992, p. 352).

Atkinson (1987) in his article also discusses ways of benefiting from L1 in language teaching. He argues for integrating useful strategies (Table 1), while attracting teachers' attention to possible consequences of overuse. He mentions the reasons of current negative attitudes towards L1 as; setting a link between grammar translation method and the use of L1 in language teaching Widdowson (2003, p. 160) and Owen (2003) also draws attention to this perception by asserting that associating translation with GTM produces a negative implication. Secondly, Atkinson (1987; 1987b p. 5) mentions a 'backwash effect' in native speaker teachers of L2, who were also trained by native speakers. Atkinson (1987b, p. 7) highlights the point that it is not possible to say native speakers are superior to non-native speakers or vice versa in either a multilingual class or a monolingual class, he states that the best achievement would be with the help of both native and non-native teacher in combination. Butzkamm (2003) along with West (cited in Butzkamm, 2003) and Widdowson (2001, p. 12; 2003, p. 155) agrees with this by stating that the reason behind the L1 avoidance may partly stem from the teachers' lack of knowledge of students' L1. The influence of theoreticians such as Krashen; the idea that a language can only be learned by speaking that language is mentioned as another reason for the negative perception of L1 (Atkinson, 1987, p. 242, Owen, 2003). However, Atkinson claims that these ideas are not scientifically grounded. There are many advantages of the use of L1 according to Atkinson (1987), and among them he mentions; a student-preferred approach; a humanistic way of teaching; and time saving. It can be concluded that according to Atkinson (1987) in language teaching, L1 is a useful tool when used efficiently. The following table (Table 1) includes ways of efficient using L1 efficiently suggested by

Atkinson (1987a, pp. 241-247); Piasecka (1988, pp. 98-99); and Collingham (1988, pp. 83-84).

Table 1. Ways of Positively Incorporating L1 in Teaching

Atkinson (1987)	Piasecka (1988)	Collingham (1988)
• Eliciting language	• Educational counselling	• Discussion/negotiation of the syllabus
• Checking Comprehension	• Publicity	• Role-play
• Giving complex instruction	• Negotiating syllabus	• Teaching grammar
• Cooperation among learners	• Negotiating the lesson	• Teaching language functions
• Discussion of classroom methodology	• Access skills	• Teaching vocabulary
• Presentation and reinforcement of language	• Profiling and record keeping	• Teaching phonology
• Checking for sense	• Integrating newcomers	• Teaching literacy
• Testing	• Personal contact	• Comprehension
• Development of useful learning strategies	• Classroom management	• Creative writing
• Using translation to highlight a recently taught language item	• Setting the scene	• Record keeping
• Using translation to promote guessing strategies	• Language analysis	• Providing information
	• Rules governing grammar, phonology, morphology, spelling, formal speech and writing can be arrived at correctively or explained by the teacher	
	• Cross cultural issues	
	• Materials (worksheets and tapes with mother tongue instruction)	
	• Correcting	
	• Resolving individual areas of difficulty	
	• Assessment and evaluation of lesson	
	• Focusing on a particular skill	

(adapted from Kahraman, 2009)

Two important books first one is authored by Deller and Rinvulcri (2002) and the other one by Atkinson (1987b) provides a practical guide on how to use L1 actively in an L2 classroom. It was previously mentioned in this study that the proponents of L1 inclusion do not claim that L1 should completely be free in hands of learners and teachers with no limitation. On the contrary, they set limits and provide strategies to use a balanced in other

words sensible L1 to facilitate learning. In the prolog of Deller and Rinvulcri's (2002, p. 5) book *Prodromou* put forward a few metaphors that describe how L1 should be viewed;

- a drug (though it has therapeutic potential, it may damage your health and may become addictive)
- a reservoir (a source from which we draw)
- a wall (for writing on or an obstacle to progress?)
- a crutch (it can help us get by in a lesson, but it is recognition of weakness)
- a lubricant (it keeps the wheels of a lesson moving smoothly, it thus saves time).
- a window (which opens out in the world outside the classroom; if we look through it we see the students' previous experience, their interests, their knowledge of the world, their culture) (Deller and Rinvulcri, 2002, p. 5)

The above-mentioned metaphors describe the role and potential of L1 in an L2 classroom by drawing attention to the danger of abusing as Prodromou states (Deller and Rinvulcri, 2002, p.5). Many researchers including Atkinson (1987b), and Turnbull (2001) who are proponents of L1 inclusion states that this issue needs to be handled carefully otherwise the danger of overuse would cause more problems.

Bilingual Education

Bilingualism concept is negotiated in Grosjean's (1989) study in a critical way against the view of bilinguals as "...two monolinguals in one person" (p. 3). He criticizes the approach on ground of scientific studies on bilinguals. One of the problems stated in his study is about the concept of interference. He states that "... the contact of the bilingual's two languages is seen as accidental and anomalous" (Grosjean, 1989, p. 5). The possible contact according to the supporters of this view is not only a consequence of interference, speech borrowing, or code-switching, but also accidental (Grosjean, 1989). This view misled the researchers; thus, they did not take the bilingual individual who "...has a unique, and specific language configuration" (Grosjean, 1989, p. 3). He divides bilingual speech into two modes, one of them being "Monolingual Speech Mode" which is used in conversations with monolinguals; and the other is "Bilingual Speech Mode" which is incorporated in conversations with another bilingual (Grosjean, 1989, p. 9). Cook (2001a) states that the debate on these modes (language compartmentalization) is one of the reasons why L1 has been avoided in language teaching. In other words, the perception of bilingualism affects the decision on whether L1 should be incorporated into language

teaching or not. Grosjean (1989) asserts that interferences occur involuntarily during the monolingual mode; while code-switching and speech borrowing are deliberately incorporated during the bilingual mode. To conclude, Widdowson (2003) draws attention to the nature of language teaching through asking the following question; “How ... can you teach a bilingual subject by means of a monolingual pedagogy?” (p. 154).

Butzkamm (2003) in his paper tries to re-establish the roots of bilingual education. He mentions the long-lasting pressure on mother tongue after the Great Reform in the 19th century. Most of the current methods put emphasis on an L2-only classroom. Butzkamm (2003) mentions that current communicative approaches, as a masked form of direct method, are not any less guilty than the classical grammar translation method. Even the direct method can be seen as triumphed as it is -at least subconsciously- accepted that mother tongue is necessary sometimes. Along with Mac Donough (2002), Butzkamm (2003) emphasizes those teachers as an example who agreed on the necessity of L1 use when they tried to learn a new foreign language. Obviously putting themselves in the learners’ shoes; teachers realized the needless difficulty created through an L2-only approach. On the issue of L1 use, Butzkamm sets a humanistic theory describing the role of mother tongue as;

Using the mother tongue, we have (1) learnt to think, (2) learnt to communicate and (3) acquired an intuitive understanding of grammar. The mother tongue opens the door, not only to its own grammar, but to all grammars, inasmuch as it awakens the potential for universal grammar that lies within all of us. (Butzkamm, 2003, p. 31)

Butzkamm (2003) further explains that there is the background knowledge carrying the whole previous experiences and more. Persons built their personality on this ‘foreknowledge’ which is “...a result of interactions between a first language and our fundamental linguistic endowment...” (Butzkamm, 2003, p. 31). He describes the L1 as of crucial importance being the door that takes the learner towards foreign languages in the easiest and quickest way. By setting the grounds for his bilingual theory, he mentions ten maxims that can be seen as a *bilingual manifesto*;

1. The FL learner must build upon existing skills and knowledge acquired in and through the MT.
2. Ersatz-techniques for meaning-conveyance function less well than the MT and can even be harmful.
3. MT aids make it easier to conduct whole lessons in the foreign language. Pupils gain in confidence and, paradoxically, become less dependent on their MT.

4. MT aids can promote more authentic, message orientated communication than might be found in lessons where they are avoided.
5. MT techniques allow teachers to use richer, more authentic texts sooner. This means more comprehensible input and faster acquisition.
6. Bilingual techniques allow teachers to bypass the grammatical progression of textbooks. No postponement of the subjunctive.
7. We need to associate the new with the old. To exclude MT links would deprive us of the richest source for building cross-linguistic networks. No quarantine for MT cognates and related words.
8. It is not possible to avoid interference, but it can be greatly reduced.
9. Paradoxically, the counter-productive, haphazard use of the mother tongue may be an unwanted side-effect of the doctrine of monolingualism.
10. All newly-acquired FL items have to sink roots in our minds which are eventually deep enough for the items to function independently of the MT. (Butzkamm, 2003, pp. 31-36)

The inevitable contact between the two languages of a bilingual is looked as interference by the proponents of L2 only instruction, and interference of L1 should be eliminated or at least minimized in L2 classrooms through banning the first language of the students during the foreign language learning process (Widdowson, 2003, p. 150). However, he stated that this is a natural process and it is not possible to ‘immunise’ the learners against the effect of their first language (Widdowson, 2001, p. 8). Widdowson (2001; p. 8; 2003, p. 150) states that even if the teachers try to achieve a coordinate bilingualism, the learners necessarily pass through a compound bilingualization process (Widdowson, 2003, p. 150). In order to achieve “...that well-attested stage when one begins to think in foreign language” (Widdowson, 2001, p. 9) the compound bilingualization process should be accomplished. He states that compound bilingualism is in the natural process of language learning a foreign language; however, coordinate bilingualism may occur if the two languages are acquired simultaneously.

The input should be comprehensible to the learners, in order to facilitate their learning; “...the learner makes the input comprehensible: in part, no doubt, by reference to the concept, but in part also, one must suppose, by invoking L1 equivalents.” (Widdowson, 2001, p. 11). Additionally, he states that the learners refer to their L1 in the learning of another language because they perceive this new language as *foreign* and try to make connections with what is familiar to them and this way the learners start the process of compound bilingualization regardless of their teachers efforts to set a coordinate bilingual framework through a monolingual teaching approach (Widdowson, 2003, p. 154). From this point of view, he asserts that the language learning process includes at least two

languages (L1 and L2) if not more, therefore, neglecting and avoiding one of them would be 'at least odd' (Widdowson, 2001, p. 11).

The Quantity of Target Language Input Used in Language Classes

Although L1 use in language teaching has been left aside since the rise of the Direct Method; nowadays the debate has revived. One of the important questions arises was about the quantity of L1 that should be used in language classes. Before taking an action in this field, the knowledge of actual classroom practices in terms of language use preferences was a prerequisite. Since the reawakening of the debate; the quantity of L1 use has been investigated by many researchers including Macaro (2001); Turnbull (1999); Duff and Polio (1990); Liu et al. (2004); Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2004); Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015). The studies provided an understanding of what is happening in the classrooms in terms of language preference. However, these studies were limited in terms of the participants' number. For that reason, the current study uses a relatively wider range of participating teachers.

Among the previous studies, Macaro (2001) investigated 6 student teachers in a secondary school where French was taught as a second language and English as first language. He found that the quantity of first language used in the classroom was ranging from 0% to 15.2%; however, only in two lessons the quantity of first language exceeded 10%, and the mean score of the first language use during lessons was 4.8%. In this study, he concluded that the learners' language choice was not affected by the teachers' language use. In other words, whether their teachers used first language or target language did not affect the success of L2 learning.

Turnbull (1999) studied with 4 experienced core French teachers who were teaching French as a second language to the 9th-grade students in Canada. They were all native speakers of English. And the use of the target language (French) ranged between 9% and 89%. Interestingly, the teacher who used the less amount of L2 did not differ when proficiency in the target language was considered; however, the teacher perceived himself/herself as less proficient (Turnbull, 1999). It can be concluded from Turnbull's (1999) study that not only the proficiency level but also the perception of language proficiency level of teachers is effective in the language preference in the classroom.

Liu et al. (2004) conducted their study with 13 teachers of English in South Korea. The teachers reported in this study to have used 32% of second language in their instruction, and the recordings of their lessons revealed that they used 57% of second language. The researchers believe that the 32% which is the teachers' self-reported amount of second language used in the classroom reflects their usual use, while 57% may be an exception they think that this percentage may be a result of being observed. This study set a good example for overuse of L1 by teachers. Korea is an EFL context where the students' could only be exposed to L2 input in classroom; therefore, the limited valuable time of courses seem to be wasted.

Duff and Polio (1990) studied in 13 FL classes where different languages were taught by native-speaker teachers. They observed that the amount of second language spoken in the classes was ranging from 10% to 100% while the mean was 67.9. They inferred from the interviews with teachers that the language choice may have been affected by the following factors as; language type, departmental policy/guidelines, lesson content, materials, and formal teacher training. The teachers' attitudes were diverse on the reason why they used or did not use the second language. Teachers who used second language more inside the classroom explained reasons as; their training imposed it as an effective way and their belief is in parallel with this; the language teaching theories recommends it, and the students' attitude was on this side. Other teachers mentioned reasons as it takes too much time and effort to explain the course content in second language; the pressure on learners would be too high; students wouldn't understand much of the language inside the classroom and their performance would decrease; the subject would be best taught through the first language. Clearly those teachers seem to have spent students' only chance for L2 input for the sake of a better understanding of the subject, but the questions of when and how the students would use authentic language stayed unanswered.

In the next part of their previously mentioned study Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) measured the amount and functions of L1 in classrooms. They stated that in their context of teaching, even if there is not a written rule, the teachers are expected and also assumed to be using only L2. However, there were some clues that L1 is still used inside the classroom. For that reason, Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie aimed to discover the amount of L1 use as well as the reasons why L1 is used and the functions carried out by the students' first languages. Two of the teachers were native speakers of the target language (French)

while the other two teachers' native language was English. They state that the majority of the students were native English speakers, but there were also international students who could speak English very well. There were five groups of students, and each group was audio-recorded for one lesson hour. They transcribed the recordings and counted the words to find out the amount of L1 and L2 used inside the classroom. The results of their study revealed that the use of L1 ranged between 0% to 18.15% while the average was 8.80 %. When the optimal amount of L1 suggested by Macaro (2009, pp. 35-49) is considered, two of the teachers may be thought as using L1 at the optimal level (T2: 18.15 %, T3: 12.75%). Nevertheless, according to Macaro's (2009, pp. 35-49) suggestion other two teachers are not using enough L1 (T1 used no L1 and T4 used only 4.32%). Interestingly while T1 did not use L1 in the listening activity, L1 use showed a great increase with 55.51% in the grammar activity. They believed that if the variables such as "...the teaching of the same language, shared departmental traditions, similar materials and lessons..." (Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002, p. 422) could decrease the level of variation between teachers in terms of the amount of L1 used.

Turnbull (2001) discussed the positive and negative perspectives towards the role of L1 inside the language class. He warns against the extensive use of L1 while strongly claiming that L1 should be incorporated in the process of language teaching. While he quite agrees with the point that L2 should be used as much as possible during teaching, since most of the time -especially in EFL contexts- teacher is the only source of the target language. However, he questions the concept of 'maximizing' with regard to optimal and acceptable use of L2. He states his belief as, L2 use will have a positive effect on learners' proficiency, but the relationship does not have to be 'linear' between them he adds.

Turnbull (2001) claims that L1 can be used to save time, the teacher may check the students' understanding through making a "quick shift to the L1" (p. 535); nevertheless, he highlights that extensive use of L1 can have debilitating rather than facilitating effect on learners L2 development, when the limited course hours along with other factors are considered. As mentioned above, in some studies the teachers are reported as using extensive amounts of L1, for instance, the amount of L2 used by teachers ranged from 9% to 89% (Turnbull, 1999), and it even ranged from 10% to 100% (Duff and Polio, 1990).

Atkinson (1993) believes that the medium of instruction should be mainly English. However, this should not be considered as an English-only classroom. Atkinson (1993)

states that “the key word here is 'main'.” (1993, p. 2). The idea of an English-only instruction perceived as perfect in theory he states. However, “...there is no solid theoretical evidence to support any case for a methodology involving 100% target language.” (Atkinson, 1993, p.2). Therefore, based on the evidence which led to questioning the English-only teaching; it may be concluded that the notion of English-only classroom may leave its place back to L1 inclusion (Hall and Cook, 2012).

In the Hungarian context, the situation of first language use has been investigated by Nagy and Robertson (2009, pp. 66-86). They observed and audio-recorded the 4th-grade students for four lessons. Two of the classes were studying English for four years, and the other two were in the first year of English language education. They called the first two classes as intermediate classes and the rest two classes as elementary. They reported an 81.4% target language use by the teacher in the elementary classes and 55.6% at the intermediate classes. They selected the classroom in which the highest amount of target language used by the teacher (90.6%) and the classroom where the lowest amount of target language used by the teacher (52.5%). According to their study, the factors that influence teacher's preferences were both external and internal. Among external factors, there were “the curriculum, examinations, expectations in the school, the attitudes of the head-teacher, colleagues, parents and the political context” (Nagy and Robertson, 2009, p. 85). They mentioned four types of internal factors as teacher-related, learner-related, context-related, and use of language. At the beginner levels it is quite understandable that the amount of L1 may be a little bit higher; however, when more than half of the lesson is conducted through L1, it may pose problems in terms of input and the students may perceive language class similar to a history or a mathematics course.

Carless (2008) interviewed with ten teachers and ten teacher educators to reveal their views about L1 use in the implementation of task-based teaching. Four main themes were revealed after the analysis of the interview data. The themes included ‘classroom interaction’, ‘perspectives on MT [mother tongue] use’, ‘strategies for encouraging use of TL’, and finally ‘relevant implications for teaching methodology’ (Carless, 2008, p. 332). In terms of classroom interaction, he found out that the students are reluctant to speak in the foreign language tend to use L1, they tend to give short answers, even in group work which is expected to elicit more target language output. The participants in his study stated that the use of L1 is inevitable, and should be permitted. He explained that the teachers feel

frustrated when the tasks are done in L1; thus, they switch to the whole class teaching instead of interactive tasks. It should be accepted that the students who share the same L1 may easily switch to L1 as mentioned, but developing strategies to maintain the task in L2 and letting the students use L1 in certain situations may also work well. For instance, one strategy mentioned in Carless (2008) is that the students may record themselves during the group works and later translate the L1 utterances into L2. In this way, both the amount of L1 gradually decreases, and the students improve their L2 competence through translation. In addition to the problem in group works, teachers also stated that overuse of L1 should not be permitted, and higher ability learners should be directed to speak in the L2. The strategies to increase L2 production reported by the participants include determining certain students as 'language monitors'; providing 'incentives' such as awards, stickers, stars; 'recording' the students (Carless, 2008, p. 334). Carless (2008) states that a balanced and flexible use of L1 is necessary. He adds that the use of L1 will be helpful in terms of formulating hypotheses about language and make inferences by comparing their first and second languages.

Brooks-Lewis (2009) designed a study based on her own language learning experience. In her experiences, she realized that trying to learn a language in an L2 only classroom was not as learner-friendly as it is thought by the teachers. She defined her overall experience as being disappointing and discouraging accompanied with excellent grades. In order to find out if other learners were sharing similar ideas with her about the inclusion of L1 in the classroom, she designed her study. She started teaching EFL in classes where all of the students were adults who were native speakers of Spanish. She used L1 at a gradually decreasing pace in her teaching. Her students' kept learning diaries and wrote an essay about the course at the end of the semester. According to the findings of the study her students' were mostly happy about the inclusion of their L1 except for a few contradicting opinion. It was revealed in her study that the use of L1 was helpful in terms of lowering anxiety, creating a stress-free environment, involving students' experiences in the learning process, providing a learner-centered education, making benefit of similarities and differences between the L1 and L2 along with many other benefits.

Kim and Elder (2005) studied the amount of L1 used in the classroom by L2 native speaker teachers. Additionally, they investigated the patterns of the L1 and L2 used by the seven teachers who participated in their study. They audio-recorded three lessons for each

teacher and applied a sampling method during the analysis of these audio recordings. They selected two 10-minute recording of teacher-student interactions for each teacher. The sampled data was transcribed and analyzed in terms of the amount and functions of the L1 and L2. The results of their analysis revealed that the teachers' amount of L2 use showed a highly varying range from 23% to 88%. The results are interesting in a way that the teachers are the native speakers of the language that they are teaching. One important point explored in their research is that high amounts of L2 input do not mean "valuable" and "meaningful" input all the time (Kim and Elder, 2005, p. 376). Similarly Cook (2001b, p. 153) stated that when the teacher speaks L2 every time for the sake of genuine communication, s/he will end up with creating an unrealistic language environment contrary to what s/he expected. Because there is a place of L1 every time in authentic use of language, since the students are not native speakers of the language and they do not have enough proficiency indeed. Kim and Elder (2005) draw a conclusion from the example of the teacher they named as Marie about the issue of valuable input. Even Marie was found out to be using 88% L2 in her classes; the activities in which L2 is used in her lesson revealed little meaningful interaction. But rather she conducted her lessons on tightly scheduled activities with almost no deviation from the main goal. However, as Ellis stated (cited in Marie, 2005) "...most valuable input occurs during 'side-sequences', when the teacher deviates from the primary goal to deal with other issues" (p. 376). Therefore, the students in Marie's classroom couldn't find opportunities for authentic use of language, but they participated in the artificially generated dialogue activities (Kim and Elder, 2005). It can be concluded from this experience that quality should not be sacrificed for quantity in language classrooms.

Swain and Lapkin (2000) investigated L1 use from the perspective of task-based language instruction. They conducted their study on 22 pairs of 8th-grade students who were working on either a dictogloss task or a jigsaw task. They tried to find out the if there were a difference between the two tasks in terms of L1 use. According to the findings of their study, the two groups' differed in terms of L1 use. The first group who conducted a dictogloss task used 29% L1 while the second group who conducted jigsaw task revealed a 21% use of L1. Tasks turned out to have an effect on the use of L1. Swain and Lapkin (2000) also stated students conducting dictogloss tasks strive to understand the story while it was easier fro the students doing jigsaw tasks. The reason behind this was that jigsaw tasks included pictures which help eliciting meaning while there were no such clues in

dictogloss tasks. The results of Swain and Lapkin's study is interesting in terms of revealing the correlation between the type of tasks and the use of L1. It can be concluded that in certain tasks there may be a need for using L1 more than other. Therefore, the teachers should not worry when they realized that they used a little bit more L1 than usual.

Another attempt to explore the use of L1 in EFL classes was the study conducted by Peng and Zhang (2009, pp. 212-228). In their study, they investigated the use of L2 in Chinese young learner EFL classrooms, through audio-recording 16 sessions from the 4 teachers' classes. Due to the low number of teachers observed they applied the questionnaire to 50 teachers and 203 students who are aged between 10-11 in order to triangulate the results. They measured the duration of the English (L2) uttered by the teachers and compared with the duration of L1 utterances to find out the ratio of L2 used. Their study revealed that the TL use in classes were all under 60% which is not at the desired level. Though L1 is suggested to be included in the FL teaching, the teachers should be aware of the fact that it is not possible to teach a language without using it at all (Atkinson, 1993).

The Optimal Amount of First Language Use in ELT Classrooms

It is widely suggested that L1 should be included in the classroom to some extent. However, there is no clear description of how much L1 should be in the classroom. In his study Macaro (2009, pp. 35-49) mentions this issue by putting teachers under categories according to their theoretical positions in terms of L1. In the first group; there are teachers who believe that the only way to learn a second language could be possible through using only that language. The result of this type of language use will create a "virtual reality" and this position is named as "virtual position" by him (Macaro, 2009, p. 36). Especially for non-native teachers it is hard to keep up with this position, when the teachers share the same native language with the students it becomes even more difficult. According to Macaro (2009, p. 37) this viewpoint can be based on the research and idea of the researchers who viewed language learning as a result of innate properties (Chomsky, 1965), the learning realizes with the help of input as in the example of the children acquiring their first language (Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki, 1994; Krashen, 1985), or the learners may be forced to communicate (forced output) (Ellis and He, 1999; Swain, 1985).

The second group of teachers also believes that the way to teach a language is only possible by using that language with a difference; they are aware that it is utopic trying to

use only L2 in the classroom. Therefore, they try to use the target language as much as possible. Macaro (2009, p. 38) labeled this as “maximal position”. On the other hand, he says that he could not find any theory that proposes to use the target language as much as possible. Similarly, he mentions that currently he does not know any theory that argues 75% of the target language use in one situation will lead to the same results as 85% in another situation. The quantity does not ensure quality as stated by the researchers in this area (e.g. Eldridge, 1996). Therefore, the quality of the input should also be considered before making a judgement on the input through the quantity of L1.

The last group values the target language in the classroom and claims that the target language may be used in certain situations purposefully and it may foster the learning of the target language. This position is named as “optimal position”. Macaro (2009, p. 36) claims that first language is not something to be avoided at all costs in the classroom. On the contrary, he concludes from his own language learning experience that using a certain amount of first language, he uses the term ‘justified’ for this, can lead to a better learning of the target language without any observable damaging effects.

Macaro (2009) claims that ‘optimal use’ of L1 fosters the language learning process. He defines the term as “optimal use is where codeswitching in broadly communicative classrooms can enhance second language acquisition and/or proficiency better than second language exclusivity” (p. 38). He indicates that with the help of first language the learning environment can be cleaned from the following problems as; not being able to make use of some aspects of first language, not being able to make comparisons between the first language and the target languages, not being able to convey crucial information only because it is too hard to for the learners to understand in the target language. He admits that these judgments need to be supported by research since the number of research on this issue is scarce. He highlights one point about the definition of optimal use that this definition only works in classes where the focus is mostly on communicating. He calls these classes as ‘broadly communicative’ classes. Macaro (2009, p. 38) draws attention to one point that the notion of optimal use differs from the practice in classrooms where there is an overuse of translation.

Following the debate of whether L1 should be used in the classroom or not, another question arises; how much L1 should be used in L2 teaching? Many researchers gave non-precise answers to this question as claiming that judicious, balanced, symmetric use of L1

helps teaching (e.g. Butzkamm, 2003; Carless, 2008; Cook, 2001a, Turnbull, 2001). It may be acceptable not to mention numbers, and it is hard to mention an optimal amount of L1 use. There are many variables that affect the balance between L1 and L2; the subject of the course, teachers' ability, the type of the activity, the proficiency of students, and the students' willingness to participate are just some of them. However in order to take this debate on a concrete ground, some of the researchers including Atkinson (1987a) and Macaro (2005), Turnbull (2001) mention percentages. Atkinson (1987a) argues that about 5% L1 use in the classroom at early levels of teaching is useful. However, this amount seems to be very little when a whole class speech is considered. Harbord (1992) states that it is inevitable that L1 is used in EFL settings where teachers are generally non-native speakers of L2. This study is also conducted in an EFL context with non-native L2 speaker teachers, who share the same L1 with their students, the results of this study will most probably show that L1 used in the classrooms is above the level stated by Atkinson (1987a). It is worth to mention here that even in the contexts where teacher is L2 native speakers with a command in students L1; Atkinson (1987) mentions a risk of teachers' using the classroom as a place to show their proficiency in students L1. The amount suggested by Atkinson (1987a) can be seen as too utopic for an EFL classroom, in the real teaching situation, the amount will be much higher. Therefore, it is not surprising that Macaro (2005) proposes a higher percentage of L1 use with 10-15%.

According to Turnbull (2001) if the teachers are sparing only %25 of their time for speaking L2 it can be said that an over-reliance to L1 is the case. He cites the studies on optimal amount of L2 speech as; 95% use of L2 is taken as acceptable by Calman and Daniel (cited in Turnbull, 2001); and in the study conducted by Shapson, Kaufman and Durward (cited in Turnbull, 2001) stated that 75% of L2 use can be seen as an acceptable amount. The optimal or acceptable use of L1 varies according to the contexts of the studies, teachers, or researchers as it is obvious from the studies. However, when the literature reviewed, no one claimed that the amount of L1 spoken in the classroom more than 25% is acceptable.

Studies in Turkey

The use of L1 in Turkish EFL classrooms has only recently gained the interest of the researchers. When the literature is reviewed, it will be clearly realized that the issue of L1

use in the Turkish context did not attract the researchers' attention for a long time. Most studies belong to the last two decades, to be specific after the year 2000. These studies mainly focused on specific age groups; such as university level (e.g. Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005); high school level (e.g. Sali; 2014); and secondary school level students (e.g. Eldridge, 1996). However; the studies on L1 use in young learner classrooms of language learning are quite few (e.g. Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu, 2015).

Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) analyzed the teacher-initiated/induced codeswitching practices in six EFL classrooms at a university in Turkey. They audio-recorded six conversation classes. At the end of the analysis; it was revealed that teachers employ code-switching for 'curriculum access' ('academic' function in Sali, 2014, p. 311); 'classroom management' ('managerial' function in Sali, 2014, p. 311); 'interpersonal relations' ('social/cultural' function in Sali, 2014, p. 311) (p. 308).

Taşkın (2011) investigated the teachers' perceptions towards L1 use in the classroom at a private university in Turkey. Along with the two lesson-hour audio recordings from six teachers, she conducted interviews with the teachers and applied a survey to students, teachers, teacher trainers, and administrators. Being an in-depth insight into the EFL classrooms at university preparatory school this study revealed that; according to the survey results the teachers were neutral towards the use of L1 in the classroom, while the interview data showed that although the teachers do not wish to incorporate L1, they use it in order to keep up with the curriculum, or because of student's low proficiency. Other reasons expressed by the teachers are; regulating classroom management, drawing the students' attention, motivating the students, revising, summarizing, and correcting the errors. They thought that they are using L1 from one to ten minutes in a fifty minutes lesson. However, the classroom observations showed that they use far less L1 than they mentioned. Another mismatch between the teachers' self-report and real classroom practice was they used L1 in reading for various purpose while they did not mention in during the interviews. Additionally, even though they reported that they are not supporting using translation, their classroom practices showed that they do.

Solhi and Büyükyazı (2011) used a questionnaire to determine the attitudes of non-native EFL teachers towards first language use. They developed a questionnaire and applied to 57 teachers 53 of whom were instructors at a university while 4 of them primary school teachers. Therefore, this study can also be considered among those conducted with

participants from universities. They found out that teachers' attitude was generally positive towards allowing their students to use L1 with 84,2% agreement; while 79% of the teachers thought that it would be beneficial if teachers used L1 in the classroom. The reasons why teachers allowed L1 use in the classroom was classified under 16 categories. Three most frequent categories were "Level and interest of learners", "To explain something difficult and unclear and ask questions about some parts/points they haven't understood", "To ease the burden of the learners and to lower anxiety" (Solhi and Büyükyazı, 2011, p. 862). The perceptions of teachers in Turkey is revealed through this study as confirming the general belief about Turkish EFL classes. The result of this study was in contradiction with Kim's (2002) and Taşkın's (2011) studies where teachers were reluctant towards using L1.

A similar result was found by Raman and Yiğitoğlu (2015) regarding the view of teachers towards using L1. They observed six pre-intermediate classes from 3 novice teachers. Additionally, they conducted interviews with the 3 teachers and their 12 students in Northern Cyprus. It was revealed in their study that both the teachers' and their students' attitudes towards code-switching was positive. They perceived it as a facilitator for learning regarding its functions as; creating a feeling of connectedness, forming a bridge between L1 and L2, expressing feelings, emotions, abstract concepts, facilitating comprehension, and keeping the students engaged in class (Raman and Yiğitoğlu, 2015).

Sali (2014) questioned the functions of L1 in a high school with three teachers as well as the views of teachers on the use of L1. She audio-recorded five classes from each teacher and interviewed with them upon the completion of the recording process. She transcribed the data collected from these classes. After the analysis of the transcription, three main categories were revealed regarding the functions of L1 used in the classroom. She named the categories as "academic, managerial and social/cultural" (p. 311). The academic function occupied 59% of the total L1 used in the classroom. While managerial function was occurred %27, and social/cultural function was %13. Obviously, the three teachers investigated used L1 mostly for academic purposes, and under this category, the most frequent academic purpose was 'Explaining aspects of English' (p. 311). Consistently, when we look at the interview results, all three teachers expressed this issue as they used L1 to explain grammar because they do not want their students to miss any important information. In this study Sali (2014) stated that teachers' views towards incorporating L1

in the EFL classroom are positive since they believe that using L1 will facilitate comprehension, as well the classroom interaction. The teachers take such factors as learners' level of proficiency, and the type of the classroom activity into consideration before deciding to use L1.

Eldridge (1996) studied code-switching practices in a secondary school setting in Turkey. He conducted a study to analyze a corpus of one hundred code-switching instances performed by the students. He has found that 77 % of all code-switching were about classroom tasks. The functions carried out by codeswitching were found as; equivalence, floor-holding, metalanguage, reiteration, group membership, conflict control, and alignment and misalignment. When the students are forced not to use codeswitching, they replaced it with pauses. He states that even if the teachers should aim L2 only performance, codeswitching should be approached more flexibly. Additionally, codeswitching is a result of deficiencies of the students in the target language; however, the teachers should be careful that too early operations may result in hindering L2 learning, while there is always the risk of fossilization and production of a hybrid variety of L2.

As mentioned in previous sections the L1 use in young learners is not a widely studied area. One of the studies in this field is conducted by Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) who studied Turkish young-learner-EFL teachers' L1 use at a private primary school in Turkey. They audio-recorded two lesson hours for each 3 teachers and analyzed the recordings in terms of the functions and amount of codeswitching practices of teachers. They found out that the amount of L1 use varied between 8-14 minutes among the teachers. The duration of L1 use is surprisingly small for Turkish context. However, as they stated in their study the study is conducted at a school where not only there is a ban on the first language, but also the school principal would verbally remind the teachers that L1 should not be used in the classroom (Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu, 2015). Though their study is similar to this study in terms of the participants, there are differences that outweigh the similarities. To mention some of them, the study is conducted only 4 teachers of young learners, while only 3 of them were audio-recorded, while in this study there exist 25 teachers as participants. Another difference is about the context; although Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) conducted their study in Turkey, the school that they preferred does not reflect the general practice since the number of private schools is lower when compared to the state schools. In this study however, state schools are selected so that the L1 use practices would

not be diverse from the general Turkish schools. A third difference can be mentioned as they used a student questionnaire in their study; due to time and space limitation implementation of a questionnaire or interview was not possible in this study.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

Qualitative and quantitative methods are the two most frequently encountered research methods in social sciences. Even though they seem to be easily separable from each other, it is worth clarifying in order not to pose any problems in further reading of this study. The quantitative studies are described as; “Quantitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analyzed primarily by statistical methods.” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). Likewise, qualitative methodology is defined in Dörnyei (2007, p. 24) “Qualitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analyzed primarily by non-statistical methods.” It is obvious from the definitions, in line with the common perception, quantitative research mainly deals with numbers. And the data is replicable while in qualitative research the interpretive power of the researcher is replaced with the numbers. For this reason, the data in qualitative research is subjective and specific to the time and place in other words context of the study. In addition to quantitative and qualitative methods there is a third approach to research design; mixed method which make benefit of both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis techniques by merging the two methods (Creswell, 2013, p. 215; Dörnyei, 2007, p. 163). ‘Mixing’ these two methods, the researcher obtains a better understanding of the issue that is investigated (Creswell, 2013, p. 215).

This study is planned to be a mixed method research; it includes quantitative analysis of the amounts of L1 use in the classroom. In other words, *quantified* data is included in the

analysis of the audio recordings, along with the qualitative content analysis of the transcriptions in terms of the situations in which L1 is used. Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 182), and Polio and Duff (1994) named this process as ‘quantification’. In this respect, the data were collected both quantitatively and qualitatively using classroom observation and survey techniques which are going to be mentioned in the following sections. Additionally, in the process of the data analysis again both a qualitative and quantitative perspectives were adopted.

First, the data collected from the audio recordings of the classrooms were analyzed by the researcher, at the end of this analysis, the frequency and percentages of L1 use in the classroom were computed. Second, the data were analyzed to identify the situations in which L1 was used.

The classroom observation was a non-participant observation which means that the researcher did not participate in any of the classroom activities (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 179). The developments in technology have changed the nature of some of the data collection techniques. As a result of these changes, the audio/video recording has taken an important role in the classroom observation techniques. But of course, it could not clear all of the disadvantages of classroom observation technique, and it also brought unique problems including technical issues such as the quality of the recorder, the inability to grab all of the image/sound in the classroom; the difficulty of excluding the students who did not agree to participate; distracting the students especially in a young learner classroom setting as stated in Mackey and Gass (2005, pp. 206-208). Nevertheless, the distraction caused by the presence of the observer is lessened in this technique especially in audio-recording for which very small devices are used by placing in the classroom in a way that they will stay out of the students’ sight. Additionally, they enabled the researcher to listen several times for a good transcription and to grasp the details that may be missed in non-recorded observation.

Even if the observation was planned to be video-recorded at the beginning of this study; because of the unwilling remarks from the school administrators and the teachers it was replaced with audio-recording. That’s the reason why the audio-recording technique had to be decided upon instead of collecting richer data which includes non-verbal clues of the classroom discourse. Even though video recording would provide better results in the analysis of the functions carried out by L1, audio-recording was also sufficient for a

detailed analysis. That's why it is thought that the results of the study were not too much affected by this decision.

Sample of the Study

This is a qualitative study as mentioned above, and there is no purpose of generalization but rather transferability is concerned. In a quantitative study, sampling techniques need to be carefully selected in order to increase generalizability and external validity. However, in a qualitative research, "the main goal of sampling is to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation..." (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 126). Due to the nature of this study finding participants is a highly difficult task, especially in the context of the study where the teachers most of the time feel heavily nervous about the idea that others are watching/listening their lesson. This nervousness would cause problems for this study. Therefore, the ones who are willing to participate in the study are selected through convenience sampling method in which the main factor is selecting the willing participants which is of high importance for achieving rich data (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 129). The teachers who expressed that they would be nervous, so they need to be prepared beforehand were excluded from the sample.

The results of this study cannot be generalized to whole Turkish EFL classes. This study is restricted to the time and place in which the data were collected. The universe of this study is composed of 12 primary and secondary schools in Keçiören and Yenimahalle districts in Ankara. The socio-economic situation of the people living around the schools where this study is conducted is moderate, and they generally belong to middle-income class. The schools are state schools where the students do not need to make any kind of payment. Education, including the course books, is free in these schools.

Participants

The participants of this study are composed of 25 non-native English teachers (Table 2) and their students. Each class is composed of 25-30 students. For this study 110 teachers were visited and among which 35 teachers volunteered, but 10 of the teachers could be recorded only for one lesson because of the conflict in the teachers' program, upcoming exams/activities, and the teachers' personal factors such as illness. Therefore, these 10

teachers were excluded from this study. All of the participants completed their education in Turkey, with no experience of living abroad. The teachers had graduated from not only ELT departments, but also other departments such as Linguistics, English Language and Literature, Chemistry, Biology, and so on. The graduates of these departments can work as ELT teachers if they have a certificate on pedagogy and language teaching which is given by the universities. The ages of participating teachers ranged from 23 to 55. The teaching experience of the teachers ranged between 1 and 25 years. In order to protect the teachers' identity alphanumeric codes were used instead of their names (e.g. T1, T2, T3...). Appointing pseudonyms for teachers could be considered as a more humane approach; however, due to the high number of participating teachers, doing so would make the analysis more complicated. Therefore this method was preferred. The students in this study are students attending 4th to 7th grade. The 4th and 5th-grade students started learning English at the 2nd grade while the 6th and 7th-grade students started in 4th grade. Despite this diversity, they are all regarded as young learners, and a grade-based analysis was not conducted. They have a 4 sessions of English language course every week.

Table 2. The Teachers Participated in the Study

Teacher	Gender	Age	Teaching Experience	Educational Background
T1	F	31	5-9	ELT
T2	F	40	15-19	OTHER
T3	F	49	20+	ELT
T4	M	38	10-14	ELT
T5	F	35	10-14	ELL
T6	M	43	15-19	OTHER
T7	F	39	10-14	ELL
T8	F	25	1-4	Linguistics
T9	F	31	5-9	ELT
T10	F	30	5-9	ELL
T11	F	32	5-9	ELT
T12	F	37	15-19	ACL
T13	F	39	10-14	OTHER
T14	M	48	20+	OTHER
T15	F	44	15-19	ELT
T16	F	31	5-9	ELT
T17	F	31	1-4	ELT
T18	M	36	5-9	ACL
T19	F	32	5-9	ELT
T20	F	38	10-14	ELT
T21	F	30	5-9	ELL
T22	F	33	5-9	ELT
T23	F	36	10-14	ELL
T24	M	35	10-14	ELT
T25	F	27	1-4	ELT

Data Collection Techniques

In this study Background Questionnaire and Classroom Observation were used as data collection techniques. At the beginning of the study a descriptive background questionnaire including age, teaching experience, department of graduation was used to collect the background information of the teachers.

As a classroom observation method, audio-recording of the EFL lessons is incorporated in this study. The recording was conducted through a small voice recorder which is put on a place (usually on the teachers' table or on the bookshelf) where it could easily grab all the speech and it would not always be distracting the students. The audio recorder that is used in this study was selected by reviewing the technical properties and consulting experts. The device was first piloted by the researcher in a similar setting with the classes where the actual implementation would be done. The technical properties of the device were proved to be good for the purpose of this study. The researcher briefly explained the use of the

device to the teachers who would do the recording. Before the actual recording, the recorder was piloted by the teacher so that the possibility of any technical problems was decreased. The device is taken to the classroom by the teacher, and in the case of any technical problem the researcher was contacted through mobile, and the problem was solved. There was one occurrence of a technical problem where the teacher (T10) was not sure if the device was recording properly or not. She called the researcher and asked if it was working, and then the researcher realized that there is no problem with the device. The lesson continued when the researcher left. The extract of the dialogue between T10 and the researcher is below;

T: (She is speaking on the phone) siz gelin gelin. Çünkü sıfır altı diyor bu sefer de ve duruyor. Şeydeyim ben. Karşı binada 4 B'deyim. Ben kapının önüne çıkayım da size şey yapayım.

S: (There is noise in the classroom) Kapı açık. Arkadaşlar kapı açık.

T: (The researcher has arrived at the classroom) Böyle. Kaydediyor mu?

R: Şu an kaydediyor galiba.

T: Siz saracak dediniz ya ben onun için şey yaptım. Demin de yalnız tamamen kapalıydı.

R: O sıkıntı olmaz hocam.

T: Mesela. Yeni mi kaydetmeye başladı. Bundan Öncekini de kaydetti mi ?

R: Yok yok. Büyük ihtimal kaydediyor hocam.

T: Tamam. Tamam. Devam o zaman.

R: Kolay gelsin. (The researcher leaves.)

T: Sağ olun. Hadi bir iki örnek duyalım mı?

Two sessions for each teacher were audio-recorded. During the recording process the researcher did not participate in the course in order to decrease the observer effect.

In their study Mackey and Gass (2005) present a checklist to be able to get rid of aforementioned problems;

- Select a recording format that will facilitate the ultimate uses of the data (e.g., transcription, analysis, presentation).
- Consider whose voices and actions need to be recorded, as well as how sensitively and distinguishably this needs to be done and in which situations.
- Determine what kinds of microphones and other equipment should be used for these purposes and where they should be placed to collect as much relevant data as possible.
- Supplement your primary recording method with backup, but try to gauge what is necessary and sufficient for the job in order to avoid equipment malfunction or undue complexity. Pilot testing can help.
- Consider the amount of intrusion in the classroom caused by equipment and equipment operators.

- Take anonymity concerns seriously and act accordingly.
- Plan the physical arrangement beforehand, taking into account the suitability and adaptability of the environment.
- Consider human factors such as the age of the participants and how the equipment may affect them; acclimate participants if necessary. (pp. 208-209)

In order overcome possible problems mentioned previously the checklist above is considered by the researcher.

Validity and Reliability

It is hard to mention validity and reliability in a qualitative research. The concepts of validity and reliability are mostly preferred in quantitative research rather than qualitative studies (Mackey and Gass, 2005, pp. 178). Instead, there exist four other criteria in qualitative research which are *credibility*, *transferability*, *confirmability*, and *dependability*. Since this study is designed as a mixed method study using mostly qualitative data collection techniques, these criteria are regarded as primarily important along with the validity and reliability concepts. Trochim and Donnelly (2007, p. 162) included a table which refers to these criteria as discussed in Guba and Lincoln compared to the criteria of quantitative research.

Table 3. Criteria for Judging Research Quality from a More Qualitative Perspective

Traditional Criteria for Judging Quantitative Research	Alternative Criteria for Judging Qualitative Research
Internal Validity	Credibility
External Validity	Transferability
Reliability	Dependability
Objectivity	Confirmability

(Trochim and Donnelly, 2007, p. 162; adapted from Guba and Lincoln)

Validity can be defined as “...the extent to which a piece of research actually investigates what the researcher purports to investigate.” (Nunan, 1992, p. 14). Similarly, Trochim and Donnelly define the concept of validity as “...the best available approximation to the truth of a given proposition, inference, or conclusion.” (2007, p. 20). Considering the definitions, it can be inferred that the term validity reflects the extent to which the researchers’ purpose coincides with the research results. Mackey and Gass (2005, pp. 106-107) mentions validity types as content validity, face validity, construct validity, criterion-

related validity, and predictive validity, along with the most common thus important two types; internal validity and external validity. According to Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 107) content validity is about the "...representativeness of our measurement regarding the phenomenon about which we want information.". Similarly, face validity "...refers to the familiarity of our instrument and how easy it is to convince others that there is content validity in it." (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 107). Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 108) mention construct validity as being the most complex of the validity types which can be defined as "...the degree to which the research adequately captures the construct of interest." Criterion-related validity concept "...refers to the extent to which tests used in a research study are comparable to other well-established tests of the construct question." (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 108). Predictive validity is about being able to use the instrument as a scale for some other performance related to what is planned to measure previously (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 108). Internal validity on the other hand "...refers to the extent to which the results of a study are a function of the factor that the researcher intends." (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 109). External validity is about "...the extent to which the findings of the study are relevant not only to the research population, but also to the wider population..." (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 109). As they state, the issue of generalizability is not a concern in a qualitative research.

Reliability is another important concept that needs to be fully understood and applied while doing a quantitative research. "Reliability refers to the consistency of the results obtained from a piece of research." (Nunan, 1992, p. 14). A similar definition by Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 128) also highlights consistency of results. They define the term as "Reliability in its simplest definition refers to consistency, often meaning instrument consistency." (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 128). Two types of reliability are mentioned in their study; rater reliability and instrument reliability. The rater reliability refers to the consistency between two raters rating the same test which is called as interrater reliability (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 128-129). If the two raters give the same scores, then it can be said that there is interrater reliability. Another rater-related reliability is intratester reliability which refers to the consistency within one rater rating in different times. The results are again expected to be the same to be able to say that the test is reliable. Apart from the rater instrument also needs to be reliable, in order to test the reliability of the instrument there are three ways to be used; test-retest, the equivalence of forms, internal consistency (Mackey and Gass, 2005, pp. 129-130).

To start with, *credibility* is one of those concepts that need to be taken into account while conducting a qualitative study. Trochim and Donnelly (2007) mentioned this term as “The credibility criteria involve establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research.” (p. 162). Before the analysis, a pilot analysis was done to determine if the method of analysis worked well. The analysis of the data was conducted by the researcher; however, another researcher also analyzed a sample of the data.

The second important concern in a qualitative research is *transferability* which “...refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings.” (Trochim and Donnelly, 2007, p. 162). “Thick description” is used as a method to determine the similarity between contexts (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 180). In order to obtain a better understanding of the term Mackey and Gass (2005) gives the following definition for “thick description, which refers to the process of using multiple perspectives to explain the insights gleaned from a study, and taking into account the actors’ interpretations of their speech.” (p. 180). The function of thick description is that the study is explained in detail, so that the procedure, context, and participants could be understood to transfer the findings to a similar setting (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 180). In order to enhance transferability of the results of this study, the context where this study was conducted is described in detail, also procedures and participant profiles are included with sufficient information in the methodology section of the study.

Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 180) make a connection between *confirmability* and replicability which is used in quantitative research. “Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others.” (Trochim and Donnelly, 2007, p. 163). To ensure confirmability the transcripts of the interviews and a sample of the audio-recordings’ transcripts are attached at the end of this study (Appendix 2). It was not possible to attach all of the transcripts of this study when it was considered that each of them for one lesson-hour ranged from 13-15 pages, that’s the reason why only a sample of the transcripts could be attached.

On the other hand, dependability can be viewed as similar to reliability in quantitative research (Kumar, 2011; Trochim and Donnelly, 2007, p. 162). “The idea of dependability, on the other hand, emphasizes the need for the researcher to account for the ever-changing context within which research occurs.” (Trochim and Donnelly, 2007, p. 163). The

researchers in a qualitative research should describe the phases of the study in detail to enhance dependability. In this study for dependability concerns, audio-recordings of the observations were analyzed by two researchers as mentioned in Macaro (2001). After the analysis, the two researchers compared their findings and it was revealed that the results were similar with 95%. There was almost a full agreement between the researchers.

Data Collection Instruments

Two data collection instruments namely a Background Questionnaire (Appendix 1), and Classroom Observation used in this study.

The background questionnaire was used in this study to determine participant profiles and check their eligibility for this study. This questionnaire shed light on the participants' previous teaching experiences, educational background, and their age range as well as gathering information about the classroom level that they teach, along with class size. The classroom observation was conducted as an audio-recorded, non-participant observation. The teachers recorded their lesson. The audio-recordings provided information about the quantity of the L1 use inside the classroom as well as the situations in which L1 is used.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis method is adopted for this study which would be the best applicable for the analysis of the amount of L1 use in the EFL classrooms. During the transcription of the data, the researcher adopted "edited transcription" method which is mentioned in Hansen (2003). In this method, the transcriber may omit some words and add some words for clarity. However, the nature of this study did neither require nor permit to add additional words, but the words such as "hmm", "uh", "huh" and so on were omitted in order to ease the process of transcription and analysis. Also, a very little amount of utterances was incomprehensible because of too many people's speech at the same time. The audio-recorded data were transcribed in this direction.

In order to find out the amount of L1 used in one lesson; a word by word analysis suggested in (Polio and Duff, 1994) and used by (Liu et al., 2004; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Thompson, 2006) was adopted. The researcher copied the L1 and L2 words into different word documents. For both teachers and students, this procedure was

applied. With the help of word count feature of MS Word the number of words was found. During the analysis of the data which words to exclude had been determined through reviewing the literature. Following Kim and Elder (2005) the mechanical L2 utterances "...such as dictations, repetition drills, songs or reading the textbook." (p. 378) were not considered. In addition, the words produced by mixing both L1 and L2, and proper names were not included in the analysis, too. A pilot study with three of the transcriptions was done before starting the actual analysis.

The number of L1 and L2 words was included in a table for each teacher. The number of words uttered by the students was also calculated and included in the table. The L1 and L2 words were calculated to find out the ratio of L1 for both teacher talk and student talk. Additionally, the ratio of teacher talk to student talk is also identified.

The reason why this technique was adopted can be explained as follows. Even if the two languages subject to this study (Turkish and English) may not be considered close to each other in terms of syntactic structures, it is thought as the most secure way since other methods have greater disadvantages. To name a few of them; the time-based technique for the analysis L1 may produce misleading results since the pace of the utterances may change greatly depending on many factors including the proficiency of L2, and speaking in mother tongue is likely to be faster. Moreover, the pace of speech may change to a wide extend depending on the person who is speaking. The teachers in this study are all non-native L2 speakers who were trained in Turkey and do not have an experience of living abroad. Therefore, it is quite understandable that their pace in L1 and L2 may differ. The second approach was an utterance counting approach which could also be misleading as mentioned in Polio and Duff (1994) simply because the length of utterances may differ. Additionally, the classification of code-switched utterances would take this study out of its scope since in this study the aim is providing the amount of L1 and L2 rather than the amount of codeswitching practices which may be considered in another study. Finally, as stated by Polio and Duff (1994) although they used a sampling technique in their study; incorporating this technique could provide vague results when compared to analyzing the whole speech in class. In conclusion; none of the approaches in terms of the calculation the amount of L1 and L2 in the classroom is perfect. Therefore, the word by word analysis technique applied by Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) was selected being the most convenient for the aim and scope of the current study.

This study is conducted with a small sample of teacher for a quantitative analysis. However, in order to have an idea about the relationships between groups SPSS was used to analyze the results. It should be noted here that the discussion of the findings was not based mainly on the results of the tests conducted through SPSS. It is only used as a supplement to attribute meaning to the numbers. Since the sample was composed of less than 30 participant non-parametric tests are used to analyze the findings, therefore, Kruskal Wallis H Test was used instead of t-test to determine the relationship between teachers' experience and their use of L1, and the effect of teachers background education on their L1 use. Secondly, a correlation analysis was administered to find out the relationship between age and L1 use as well as the relationship between teachers' and students' use of L1.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The data of this study is analyzed from different perspectives being the teachers' use of L1 during language classes; the relationship between teachers' teaching experience, educational background; their use of L1 in their classes; and students' use of L1 and L2. As mentioned previously 25 teachers participated in the study. This study revealed important results which are included in this section and discussed in the 'Discussion' section. Another point investigated through this study was the patterns of L1 use, which is also presented in this section, in which the teachers use of L1 in the pre, while and post activity stages of the course was analyzed.

Teachers' Use of L1

This study revealed that a high amount of L1 is used in the Turkish state schools. Being among the first studies in the world investigating such a large sample of teachers' L1 use (composed of 25 teachers) through audio recording the findings below are notable. The language use preferences of teachers were shown in Table 3. The quantity of L1, L2, and total teacher speech are shown in the table. The percentages represent the rate of each language which are Turkish (L1) and English (L2). The proportion of L1 used in classrooms was ranged from 10.49% to 89.14%. The lowest percentage of L1 is used by T3 while the highest percentage belongs to T17. It is worth to remind here that the teachers are appointed an alphanumeric code such as T1, T2 to keep their anonymity. Though there is a high variation in the amount of L1 used, it generally tends to be higher as only 3 of the teachers under 25% who are T3, T14, T16, while three teachers (T11, T17, T18) used L1

more than 75% of their speech in the classroom. This showed that 88% of the teachers (19 teachers) used L1 between 25% and 100%. The average of L1 used in the classrooms was revealed as 48.12% which is again a high percentage revealing the undesired situation of the EFL classrooms investigated in this study.

Table 4. Teachers' Use of L1 and L2

Teacher	Number of L1 Words	%	Number of L2 Words	%	Total Teacher Word Count
T1	1959	62.94	1153	37.05	3112
T2	1288	48.14	1387	51.85	2675
T3	330	10.49	2814	89.5	3144
T4	2871	67.98	1352	32.01	4223
T5	1547	47.95	1679	52.04	3226
T6	796	30.07	1851	69.92	2647
T7	1467	39.47	2249	60.52	3716
T8	1882	74.53	643	25.46	2525
T9	1300	69.18	579	30.81	1879
T10	1352	41.34	1918	58.65	3270
T11	1678	80.63	403	19.36	2081
T12	432	39.7	656	60.29	1088
T13	790	25.43	2316	74.56	3106
T14	702	24.13	2207	75.86	2909
T15	1459	50.8	1413	49.19	2872
T16	304	23.82	972	76.17	1276
T17	2430	89.14	296	10.85	2726
T18	4393	76.38	1358	23.61	5751
T19	1716	40.37	2534	59.62	4250
T20	1486	44.86	1826	55.13	3312
T21	906	36.51	1575	63.48	2481
T22	1112	45.7	1321	54.29	2433
T23	1031	39.2	1599	60.79	2630
T24	425	26.62	1171	73.37	1596
T25	1723	67.83	817	32.16	2540

The chart below (Figure 1) presents a clearer picture of the variation of L1 and L2 use between the teachers participated in this study. The teachers who are at peak in terms of L1 use (shown in blue columns) and the lowest users of L1 can be seen clearly from the chart. It is obvious that 9 teachers which consist of 36% of all participants used L1 more than L2.

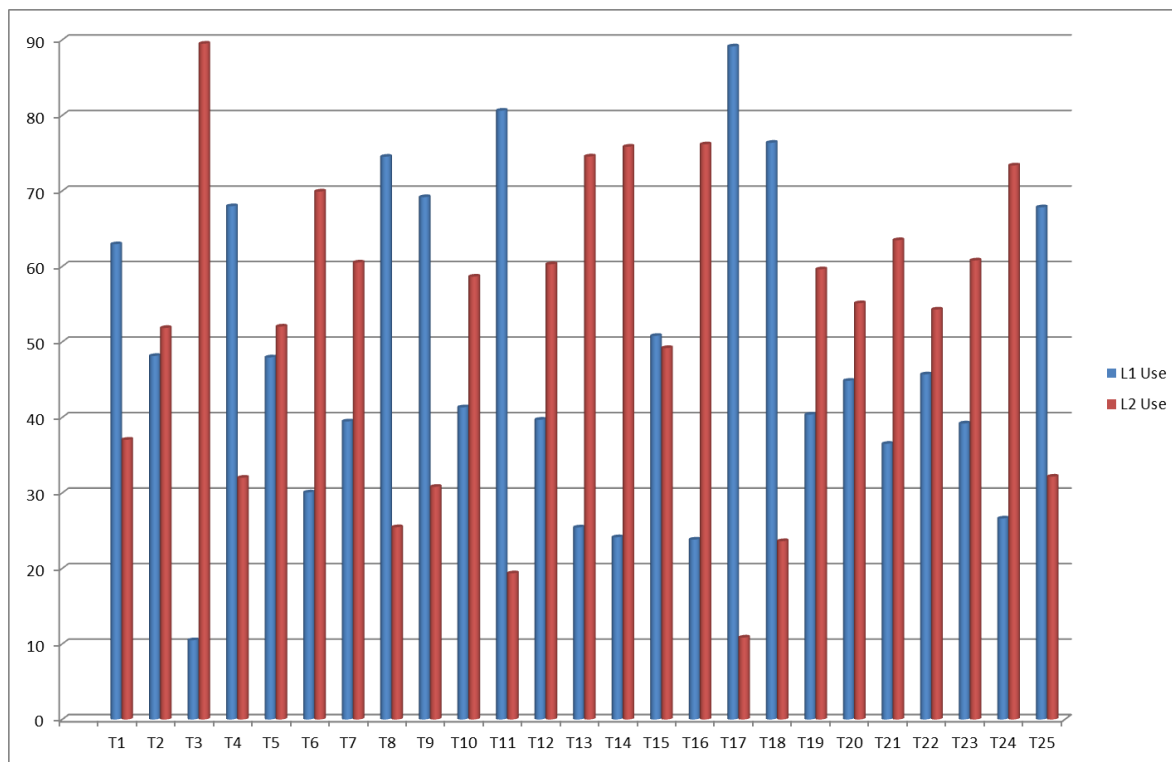


Figure 1. Teachers' use of L1 and L2

The Teacher Talk and Student Talk in Classroom

The students revealed a higher percentage of L1 use during EFL courses than the teachers. Students' use of L1 varied between 22.3% and 86.9%. The mean score of L1 use was quite high with 56.31%. This means that students used only 43.69% of L2. After a correlation analysis, it was revealed that there is no significant relationship between the teachers' and students' use of L1. When the results of students' and teachers' L1 use were compared, it was found that there is a large variation between teachers and students except for two teachers. In the classes of T12 and T17 the teachers' and students' scores were close to each other. T12 used 39.7% L1 while S12 used 41.11%; similarly, T17 used 89.14% L1 while S17 used 86.9%.

Table 5. The Percentage of L1 and L2 Used by the Students

STUDENT	L1	%	L2	%	Total Student Speech
S1	738	55,11	601	44,88	1339
S2	498	37,67	824	62,32	1322
S3	829	49,16	857	50,83	1686
S4	495	45,58	591	54,41	1086
S5	957	61,18	607	38,81	1564
S6	391	22,3	1362	77,69	1753
S7	1166	59,18	804	40,81	1970
S8	1711	74,68	580	25,31	2291
S9	1239	53,01	1098	46,98	2337
S10	1800	77,35	527	22,64	2327
S11	744	44,79	917	55,2	1661
S12	474	41,11	679	58,88	1153
S13	1040	51,84	966	48,15	2006
S14	1744	60,97	1116	30,02	2860
S15	608	43,33	795	56,66	1403
S16	1346	62,43	810	37,56	2156
S17	1414	86,9	213	13,09	1627
S18	1713	69,49	752	30,5	2465
S19	497	41,69	695	58,3	1192
S20	1276	55,3	1031	44,69	2307
S21	1281	55,47	1028	44,52	2309
S22	2246	73,27	819	26,72	3065
S23	1354	83,01	277	16,98	1631
S24	444	50,16	441	49,83	885
S25	799	52,77	715	47,22	1514

The percentage of student talk to teacher talk is investigated in this study as well. The results revealed that in the classrooms the teachers are the one who speak most of the time. There is a variation in the percentages of student talk. The student talk analyzed in the classes ranged from 20.45% to 62.82%. However, only in 4 classes, which are the classes of T9, T12, T16, T22, the percentage of student talk was higher than the teachers'. When the amount of L1 in these classes investigated (T9: 69.18%; T12: 39.7%; T16: 23.82%; T22: 45.7%) it is obvious that it varies considerably which does not allow to mention a relationship between these two factors. The average of student talk in these classes was revealed as 39.83%.

Table 6. The Percentage of Student Talk to Teacher Talk

TEACHERS	Total Teacher Word Count	%	Student Word Count	%	Total Speech
T1	3112	69.91	1339	30.08	4451
T2	2675	66.92	1322	33.07	3997
T3	3144	65.09	1686	34.9	4830
T4	4223	79.54	1086	20.45	5309
T5	3226	67.34	1564	32.65	4790
T6	2647	60.15	1753	39.84	4400
T7	3716	65.35	1970	34.64	5686
T8	2525	52.42	2291	47.57	4816
T9	1879	44.56	2337	55.43	4216
T10	3270	58.42	2327	41.47	5597
T11	2081	55.61	1661	44.38	3742
T12	1088	48.54	1153	51.45	2241
T13	3106	60.75	2006	39.24	5112
T14	2909	50.42	2860	49.57	5769
T15	2872	61.18	1403	32.81	4275
T16	1276	37.39	2156	62.82	3432
T17	2726	62.62	1627	37.37	4353
T18	5751	66.99	2465	30	8216
T19	4250	78.09	1192	21.9	5442
T20	3312	58.94	2307	41.05	5619
T21	2481	51.79	2309	48.2	4790
T22	2433	44.25	3065	55.74	5498
T23	2630	61.72	1631	38.27	4261
T24	1596	64.32	885	35.67	2481
T25	2540	62.65	1514	37.34	4054

When the Figure 2. is investigated the difference between the percentages of teacher and student talk can easily be seen. The percentage of student talk is below 40% in 15 classes which make the 60% of all classes.

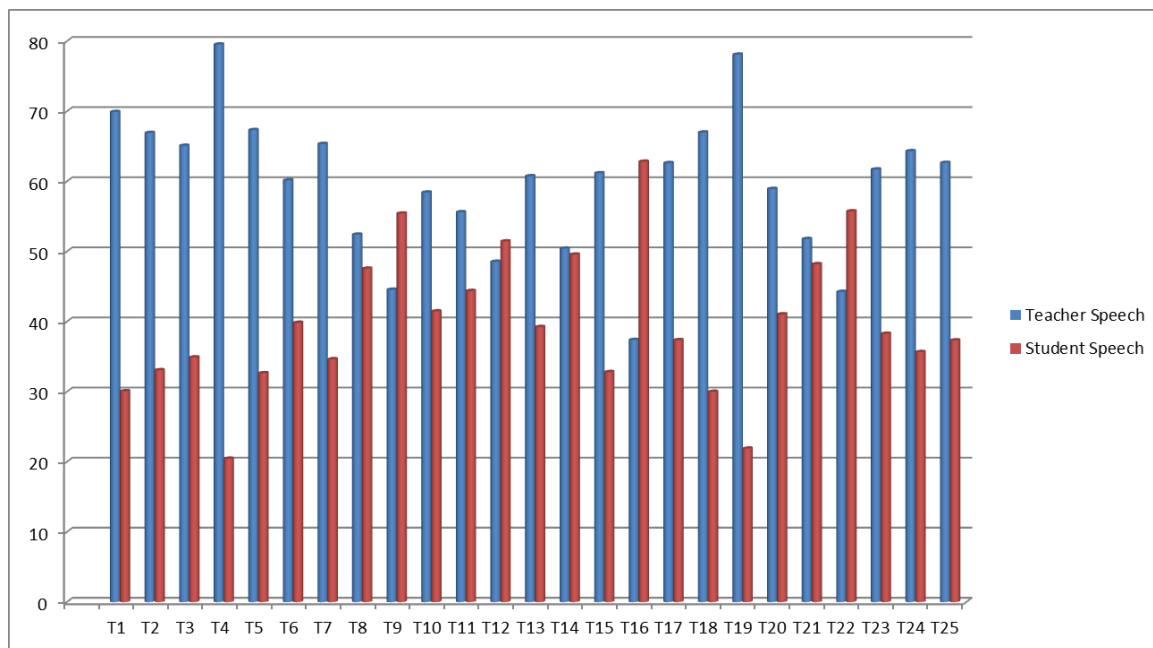


Figure 2. The percentage of student talk to teacher talk

The Pattern of L1 Use

One important issue this study aimed to clarify is the amount of L1 used in different situations in a course namely; warm-up, pre-activity stage, activity stage, and post-activity stage. However; surprisingly the courses were found out as not following the mentioned patterns. The teacher just came in and started the course after saying good morning perhaps. On the other hand, most of the time the course was cut by the voice of a bell (which is used to signal for the end of the course time in Turkish schools except for universities), or the teacher cut the course to make an announcement about exams or so, and then the bell rang. A smooth transition could not be observed in the audio-recorded courses. The extracts presented in Table 7 provide examples for the beginning and end of the courses. As it is clearly seen in the table, the teachers did not feel the necessity to set the scene and prepare the learners for the lesson. Similarly, they rushed all through the lesson to continue the activities or explain the subjects in order to keep up with the curriculum, as a result they were not aware of the time. For these reasons the analysis of this issue turned out as impossible. After all; this provided a valuable finding that needs to be investigated further in detail to find out the underlying reasons and motivations for this behavior.

Table 7. Extracts from the Beginning and End of the Courses

Beginning of the Course

T9

T: Hello!

Ss: Helo!

Ss: Fine, and you.

T: Hello!

Ss: Hi!

T: How are you?

S: Fine, thanks. And you?

T: I am fine. Thanks, sit down. Look at your flash card. Flash card.

T15

T: Good morning!

Ss: Good morning!

T: How are you?

Ss: I am fine, and you?

T: I am fine. Thank you very much. Sit down. Ok. Murat, şu bilgisayar da...

S: Bağlayayım.

T: Bağlayalım gel. Böyle vereyim. Şunu da vereyim. Al bakalım. İmza defterimizi de imzalayalım da. Çocuklar ! Biraz, bugün kitabımızı da bitirdiğimiz için, biraz tekrar yapalım, tamam mı? Ama son, son bir alıştırmamız vardı. O sayfayı açın ben defteri imzalayana kadar.

T13

T: Okay, open your books please. We have anywhere words. Yes.

S: Mehmet bak.

T: Page one hundred and forty nine.

S: Forty nine.

T: Yüz kırk dokuz çocuklar. Be quiet. Burayı yapmıştık CD'den.

End of the Course

T15

T: It's eleven o'clock. It's eleven o'clock. Ok. Dokuz olduğunu düşünelim. What time is it? Yes?

S: It's nine.

T: Nine o'clock. Ok. Very good. It's break time. Teneffüsteyiz. Thank you very much.

See you!

Ss: See you later!

T18

T: Çocuklar.

Ss: Çalmadı.

Ss: Çaldı.

T: Zil çalalı beş dakika olmuş. Beş dakika olmuş.

S: Olsun, bir şey olmaz.

T: Beş dakika olmuş, teneffüsümü yemeyin yedirtmem.

S: Öğretmenim.

T: Şimdi konu anlaşıldı mı?

T8

T: Sonra devam ederiz çünkü bir dakika kaldı.

Quiz'lerinizi okuyayım.

S: Zil çaldı.

S: Ama okuyun öğretmenim biz sınıfta kalırız.

The Effect of Teachers' Educational Background on Their L1 Use

ELT teachers in Turkey are not necessarily to be graduates of ELT departments, as mentioned previously the graduates of the departments such as American Culture and Literature, English Language and Literature, Linguistics, and Translation and Interpretation can also be appointed as teachers after one year of pedagogical training. Moreover, the graduates of departments which adopts an English Medium Instruction principle can also work as English teachers, again after taking a pedagogical training in addition to presenting a proof (Language Certificate or Exam Score) of their proficiency. Therefore as a natural result of the above-mentioned policy; in this study, there were participants who are graduates of departments except ELT. The proportion of their L1 use will be investigated under three categories namely; graduates of language oriented departments, graduates of other departments, and ELT graduates.

In Table 8 the scores of ELT department graduate teachers are available. Surprisingly the applications in classrooms where an ELT department graduate teacher is present varies greatly. The ratio of L1 used in these classrooms varied between 10.49% and 89.14%. Again it is surprising that the average of L1 use (52.33%) is higher than the overall average of L1 use (48.12%). This showed that the teachers graduated from ELT departments feel themselves freer to use L1. More than half of the teachers' (7 of 13 ELT-graduate teachers) percentages of L1 use is higher than 50%, while only 2 of them (T3 and T16) revealed below 25% of L1 use.

Table 8. ELT Department Graduate Teachers' Use of L1

Teacher	Number of L1 Words	%	Number of L2 Words	%	Total Teacher Word Count	Educational Background
T1	1959	62.94	1153	37.05	3112	ELT
T3	330	10.49	2814	89.5	3144	ELT
T4	2871	67.98	1352	32.01	4223	ELT
T9	1300	69.18	579	30.81	1879	ELT
T11	1678	80.63	403	19.36	2081	ELT
T15	1459	50.8	1413	49.19	2872	ELT
T16	304	23.82	972	76.17	1276	ELT
T17	2430	89.14	296	10.85	2726	ELT
T19	1716	40.37	2534	59.62	4250	ELT
T20	1486	44.86	1826	55.13	3312	ELT
T22	1112	45.7	1321	54.29	2433	ELT
T24	425	26.62	1171	73.37	1596	ELT
T25	1723	67.83	817	32.16	2540	ELT

The teachers who are graduates of departments dealing with foreign language showed a lower variation compared to ELT graduates. As it is apparent in Table 9, their use of L1 varied between 36.51% and 76.38%. The average percentage of these teachers was 49.38% which is closer to the overall average (48.12%) and slightly lower than the average of ELT graduate teachers. However; the percentage of L1 revealed in the analysis of these teachers showed closer to each other except for 2 teachers' who scored around 75% all of the teachers' percentages were around 30-40%.

Table 9. L1 Use of English Oriented Department Graduate Teachers

Teacher	Number of L1 Words	%	Number of L2 Words	%	Total Teacher Word Count	Educational Background
T5	1547	47.95	1679	52.04	3226	ELL
T7	1467	39.47	2249	60.52	3716	ELL
T10	1352	41.34	1918	58.65	3270	ELL
T21	906	36.51	1575	63.48	2481	ELL
T23	1031	39.2	1599	60.79	2630	ELL
T12	432	39.7	656	60.29	1088	ACL
T18	4393	76.38	1358	23.61	5751	ACL
T8	1882	74.53	643	25.46	2525	Linguistics

* ELL: English Language and Literature
ACL: American Culture and Literature

The third group of teachers is composed of teachers graduated from other departments than foreign language related ones and ELT departments. In Table 8, the percentages of

teachers who are graduated from non-language departments were presented. The most surprising feature of this group of teacher is presenting the most consistent results between each other. The percentage of L1 used by these teachers varied between 24.13% and 48.14%. The average of these teachers' L1 use is only 31.94% which is a highly small number when compared to other groups and overall average. Interestingly the highest percentage of L1 use in this group (48.14%) is almost equal to overall average (48.12%).

Table 10. The L1 Use of Teachers who are Graduates of Other Departments

Teacher	Number of L1 Words	%	Number of L2 Words	%	Total Teacher Word Count	Educational Background
T2	1288	48.14	1387	51.85	2675	OTHER
T6	796	30.07	1851	69.92	2647	OTHER
T13	790	25.43	2316	74.56	3106	OTHER
T14	702	24.13	2207	75.86	2909	OTHER

A Kruskal-Wallis H analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the three groups; nevertheless, the results of the test revealed no significant relationship. Most probably the small number of the sample, especially the third group which was formed of only 4 teachers was considered as the main reason behind these insignificant results. When the three groups are compared in terms of L1 use the ELT department graduates and graduates from other departments are higher than the overall average, while the teachers who are graduates of other departments showed a considerably lower percentage of L1 use (Figure 4). Due to the high number in the first two group of teachers, it is not surprising that the average is affected mostly by the percentages revealed in these two groups. Additionally, the average of the first two groups are closer to the overall average while there is an approx. 16% difference between the teachers who are in the last group. It can clearly be seen in Figure 3 and the tables above, the department of graduation clearly has an effect on teachers' use of L1 in their teaching.

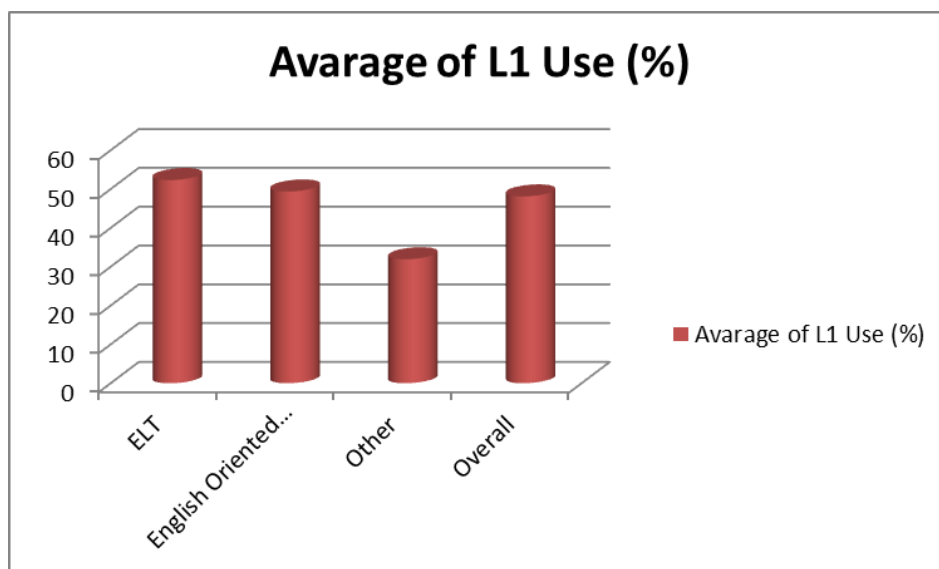


Figure 3. The mean percentage of teachers' L1 use by their educational background

The Effect of Teaching Experience on L1 Use

The results revealed that there is a relationship between the percentage of L1 and the year of experience of teachers. The amount of L1 used by the teachers was found out to be decreasing while the teachers' experience is raised. The results of Kruskal-Wallis H test confirmed this finding that there is a significant relationship between experience and L1 use of teachers producing a $p=0.03$ value. The ratio of L1 decreases as the teachers get more experienced. Among the participants of this study 3 of them had 1 to 4 years of experience; 9 of them had 5 to 9 years of experience; 7 of them had 10 to 14 years of experience; 4 of them had 15-19 years of experience, and finally 2 of them had 20+ years of teaching experience. It is clear in Figure 4 that the highest average of L1 use proportion belonged to the most inexperienced group of teachers. The mean percentage of their L1 use was 77.16% which is interestingly quite high. The mean percentage of L1 used by the teachers who had 5 to 9 years of experience was 52.98 which indicates a sharp decrease when all of the five groups are considered. There is an exception of the steady decrease in the two groups formed of teachers with 10-14 and 15-19 years of teaching experience. The average amount of L1 used by the former group is 41.64% while it is 42.17% in the latter group. The last group composed of two teachers who showed a 17.31% of L1 use in their teaching. Again there is a notable decrease (around 25%) in the percentage of L1 use. The whole picture revealed that the three groups in the middle have closer percentages in terms

of L1 use, while the least experienced group showed the highest percentage and the most experienced one showed the lowest.

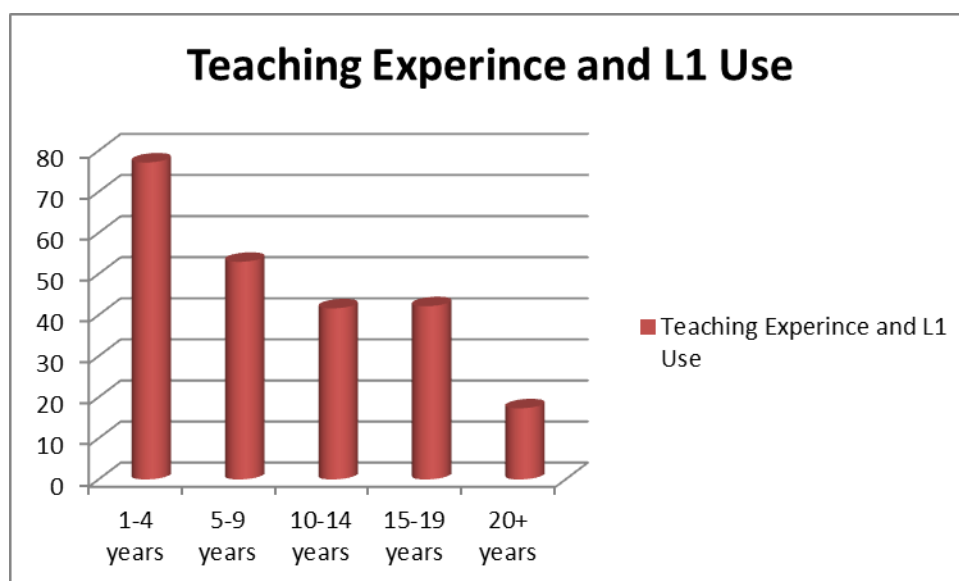


Figure 4. Teaching experince by teachers' percentage of L1 use

The Effect of Age on L1 Use

The relationship between age and use of L1 is also investigated in this study. In Figure 6 the blue line represents age while the red line representing the percentage of L1 use. It is obvious that they do not coincide with each other. However, a correlation analysis showed that there is a $r = -0.55$ correlation between age and the ratio of L1 use. This is a moderate level negative correlation which means that as age increases the use of L1 decreases. However, the since the correlation is under $r = -0.7$ there is not a strong correlation. This may be a result of variation in the teachers starting ages for teaching or university education. There are great variations between the teachers who are in the same age. For example four teachers who are at the age of 31 revealed different ratio of L1 use; T1: 69.91%; T9: 44.56%; T16: 37.39%; T17: 62.62%. In order to have a better understanding; Figure 5 can be examined.

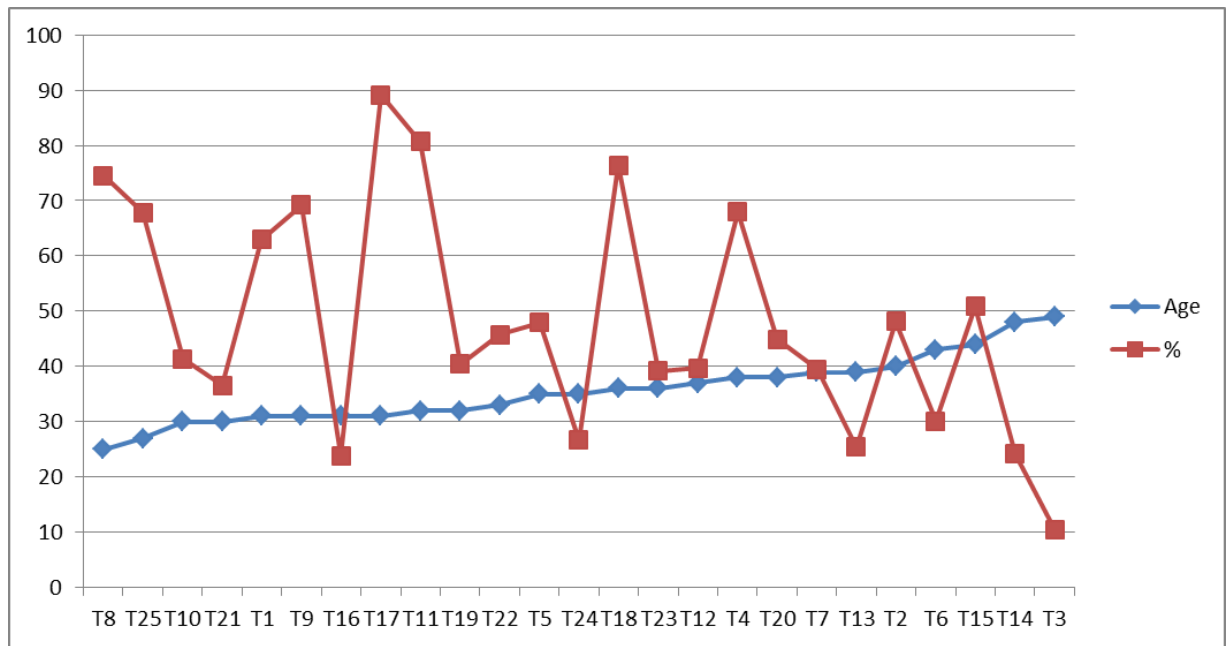


Figure 5. Teachers age by their use of L1

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the findings of the present study are discussed. The findings are discussed in terms of teachers' use of L1 in EFL classes, the relationship between teachers background education and their use of L1; teacher talk and student talk regarding L1 use; the effect of experience and age on the use of L1, and the situations in which teachers use L1.

Teachers' Use of L1 in EFL Classrooms

The negative connotations of GTM resulted in a complete avoidance of L1 immediately after the emergence of Direct Method (Atkinson, 1987a; Widdowson, 2003, p. 160). This effect of Direct Method maintained in language classes until recently, considering L2 as the only medium of instruction. However, it has been revealed through research conducted on this issue (e.g. Macaro, 2009, pp. 35-49) that L1 should be reconsidered in the planning of the curriculum. Yet, almost all of the researchers in this field warned against the overuse of L1 in the classrooms which would harm the learning of L2 (e.g. Cook, 2001a; Macaro, 2001, 2005, 2009; Turnbull, 2001). The results revealed in this study provided an overview of what is happening in Turkish EFL classrooms. It has been revealed that there was an average of 48.12% use of L1 by teachers in the 25 classrooms investigated. This is quite a high amount and implies an overreliance on L1. The situation described in this study has turned out to be worse than most of the previous literature on the quantity of L1 used by teachers. To mention a few of them, in the study conducted by Duff and Polio (1990), the

teachers revealed to be using a 67.9% of L2 in average which corresponds to a 32.1% of L1 use. Although it is a high ratio, there is an almost 16% difference in the mean score of 25 Turkish EFL teachers. Other studies revealed similar results with Duff and Polio's (1990) study, which was conducted in the USA, in terms of the ratio of L1 use by teachers. Liu et al. (2004) revealed a 57% of L2 use that corresponds to a 43% of L1 use by Korean EFL teachers. Peng and Zhang's (2009, pp. 212-228) study revealed that all of the participating teachers' in China used less than 60% of L2 which means that the L1 used by the teachers exceeded 40%. Nagy and Robertson (2009, p. 72) stated that the mean score of L2 used in Hungarian elementary classes was 81.4% while it was 55.6% in intermediate classes. In other words, the teachers in elementary classes used 18.6% of L1 while the teachers in intermediate classes used 44.4% of L1 in average. Swain and Lapkin's (2000) study revealed 29% of L1 use in one group and 21% in the other in the Canadian immersion classrooms. The study by Kim and Elder (2005) conducted in New Zealand revealed that the L2 used in the classrooms ranged between 23% and 88%. Turnbull's (1999) study revealed a variation between 9% and 89% in terms of L2 use of French teachers in Canada. Looking at the above-mentioned studies, the situation in Turkish EFL classrooms still needs to be uncovered.

Some other studies revealed quite a low percentage of L1. A study conducted by Macaro (2001) in Canada revealed 4.8% of L1 use. This score is fairly low compared to the findings of the present study. The study by Macaro (2001) was conducted with pre-service teachers. Therefore, the difference can be understood. Nevertheless, it does not clean the shades over the Turkish EFL classrooms in terms of the ratio of L1 used by teachers. Another study by Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) revealed an 8.8% of L1 used by the teachers as the mean score of L1 used by 4 language teachers in Canada.

The fact that all of the teachers in the present study revealed more than 20% of L1 use except for one (T3) presents the problematic situation from a wider perspective. The target language exposure of students seems to be quite limited. The investigated classrooms present a view of L1-medium teaching rather than L1-aided. Though this issue needs further investigation to be clarified, the language teaching courses may be taught the same as teaching any other course such as math's or science during the design of the curriculum. In accordance with the results of this study, Canagarajah (1995) stated that teachers used and permitted L1 in classroom though they considered it as inappropriate, they were

unaware that they are using or permitting L1. As Turnbull (2001) indicated this situation occurs even though L1 is completely banned by almost all of the current methodologies and curricula of language teaching. The teachers used L1 although they were trained for an L2-only classroom during their university education. A contrary view may be as stated by Atkinson (1987a) and Widdowson (2003, p. 152-153); the appeal to overuse of L1 may also be a result of the strong prohibition of L1 by the current methodologies. However, there is a third possibility that the teachers simply find it easier to conduct a course in their L1, which is also the common language of all of their students.

As stated by the researchers who are proponents of L1 use (e.g. Atkinson, 1987a, 1987b, 1993; Cook, 2001a; Hall and Cook, 2012) an unstructured use of L1 is not preferred, on the contrary, L1 should be used following a certain strategy, for instance, explaining complex grammatical concepts or managing issues in classroom. The quantity of L1 does not guarantee the quality; they may be completely diverse. That is why it is hard to mention a proper percentage of L1 to measure the quality of instruction. However, some of the researchers including Macaro (2005), Turnbull (2001) and Atkinson (1987a), agreeing that it may not be possible to describe to what extent L1 should be used in exact percentages, they mention some ratio of L1 to help the understanding of the situation. Though the amounts uttered by these researchers may not be taken as precise measures, the results of this study can be compared with the ideas of these researchers to provide a clearer picture. Macaro (2005) stated that the amount of L1 should be about 10-15% to be considered as beneficial. While Atkinson (1987a), along with Calman and Daniel (cited in Turnbull, 2001) state that 5% of L1 can be used in classroom. Turnbull (2001) does not give an exact amount of L1; nevertheless, he puts forward that in a classroom where there is only 25% of L2, there is something wrong. Similarly, Shapson, Kaufman and Durward (cited in Turnbull, 2001) state that a use 75% L1 can be considered as acceptable. These amounts are debatable and should be handled with extreme caution. The L1 and L2 spoken inside the classroom may vary based on many factors that are out of the teachers hands. Even the teacher himself most of the time may not have a full control over his/her speech. For this reason, the optimal amount issue is prone to debate and most probably will be discussed for a long time. It is important to add that further research on this issue will provide a deeper understanding of the optimal use of L1 in the language teaching classrooms.

The above-mentioned amounts, when considered, can only give an idea about the situation. And the best way for doing this is to take the highest mentioned amount to compare the L1 used by the teachers in this study. When 25% of L1 is considered as acceptable in this study, it has been revealed that there are only 3 teachers under this percentage who are T3, T14, T16. The rest of the 25 teachers used L1 more than 25% in their classes. This shows how serious the problem is in terms of the participants of this study.

The findings of this study revealed that there is a common overreliance on L1 among these teachers. This means that teachers are not successful at providing L2 input for their students. This is a highly problematic issue in an EFL context as stated by Littlewood and Yu (2011), Liu et al. (2004), and Turnbull (2001) among many others. Students can be exposed to the target language only inside the classroom since the language is not spoken in any other place. Exposure is a necessity to learn a language, and the only chance of students' to get input in the target language, therefore, this opportunity should not be wasted. Language teachers are different from other subject teachers since they need to teach the learners to speak (Franklin, 1990). Therefore, the teachers of English themselves perform what they want to teach, unlike other teachers. The results of this study revealed the problematic situation in which the learners are expected to speak without hearing English.

The number of studies to determine the L1 used in Turkish EFL classrooms are scarce. Among which there are Taşkın (2011) who found that L1 is used between 1% to 31%; and Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) who found an average of 8-14 minutes of L1 is uttered in a 90-minute observation. Both of the studies' findings can be considered as too optimistic for the Turkish EFL context when compared to the findings of this study. The studies may seem to be conducted in the same context with the present study; however, there are important differences between the three studies. The most observable difference is the sample they studied. For example; Taşkın (2011) conducted her study with instructors at the university and Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) studied the use of L1 at a private primary school. It is undebatable that the context of a private school and university is quite different than ordinary state schools. Another difference is the number of participants; Taşkın (2011) studied with 6 instructors while Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) audio-recorded 3 young learner EFL teachers. On the other hand in the present study, 25 teachers participated which indicates that this study provides more precise results. In conclusion,

both the number of the participants and the context of the study are distinctive. The sample of this study is composed of state schools which constitute the majority of the schools in Turkish education system. These schools do not require any fee to attend, and most of the students attend to these schools in Turkey. The amount of L1 used by the teachers in this study can be seen as an indicator of the situation that the majority young learners of English experience in Turkey. However, it should not be forgotten that the results of this study cannot be generalized because of the relatively limited number of the sample.

Previous studies on young learners showed varying degrees of L1 use. The teachers in Nagy and Robertson's (2009) study revealed to be using 81.4% target language in elementary classes and 55.6% in intermediate classes. On the other hand, in Macaro's (2001) study there were only 4.8% of L1 use. Inbar-Lourie (2010) stated that teachers use of L1 ranged between 6.8% and 75.6%. Finally, Demirci and Tekiner-Tolu (2015) studied in the Turkish setting and stated 8 to 14 minutes of L1 use in a 90-minute course. In the present study, it was revealed that the teachers used 48.12% L1. Since the number of participants in the previous studies on young learners is limited, the results of these studies cannot be considered as generalizable. On the other hand, the present study conducted with 25 teachers which is a higher proportion of teachers when compared to other studies. The results of this study cannot be generalized as well; nevertheless, this study better describes the general practice. Being the first attempt to determine the language preference of teachers in Turkish schools the results of this study provided evidence for the L1 medium instruction in the young learner EFL classrooms.

Based on the findings of Solhi and Büyükyazı (2011) whose study revealed that teachers had a tendency to incorporate Turkish (L1) in their classrooms thinking that it would facilitate learning, the results of this study gains importance. The study conducted by Solhi and Büyükyazı (2011) was a survey study and revealed the teachers attitudes and perceptions towards the use of L1. Their study showed that 79% of the participating teachers believed that the use of L1 would facilitate students' learning. Therefore, it may be understood that in this study the reason behind the teachers' L1 use may be their positive attitudes towards the use of L1.

Teacher's Background Education and L1 Use

The EFL teachers in Turkey may differ to a large extent. ELT graduates, English Language and Literature graduates, and even graduates of any other departments that have almost nothing in common with language teaching or the field of teaching in general, such as Business Administration, Sociology, and Engineering can be working as language teachers in Turkish EFL classes. This fact led to question if this divergence had an effect on the use of L1 or not. The teachers in this study were put into three categories according to their background education. The groups were composed of ELT graduates, Graduates of Language Oriented Departments, and Graduates of Other departments such as Sociology, and Chemistry. However, before interpreting the findings in relation to these three groups, it should be noted that the participants of this study were not equally distributed. There are 13 teachers under ELT graduates category, 8 teachers under Graduates of English Oriented Departments category, and finally, 4 teachers are placed under the Other category.

The findings revealed that there is an observable difference between the three groups. It is quite interesting to find out that the highest rate of L1 use was observed in the ELT graduates category with 52.33%. This ratio is surprising because similar to the practices of teacher trainers in any other country, in Turkish undergraduate ELT teachers training instruction the pre-service teachers are insistently warned against the use of L1. Almost all of the currently accepted methodologies for language instruction advice putting L1 out of the classroom which is thought as key for success. However, the teachers who are graduates of ELT departments somehow turn to an L1-medium instruction. This finding may be explained through the gap between theory and practice in ELT departments. Though the teacher trainers advise creating an L2-only classroom, the ELT departments themselves cannot be considered as successful in establishing L2-only philosophy. The pedagogy courses compulsory in ELT departments are conducted completely in L1 except for a few English-medium universities. Additionally, though it needs to be verified through research, it can be claimed that switching from L2 to L1 is quite a common practice in ELT department compared to other mentioned departments.

The graduates of English Language and Literature, American Culture and Literature, and Linguistics departments has turned out to be the second most L1 users. These teachers were found to be using 49.38% of L1 in average which is close to the mean score of ELT graduates. These two groups' ratio of L1 use is close to the overall mean score of L1 use.

While the third group which is named as Other revealed a 31.94% of L1 use which is the lowest of all three categories. Since there is only 4 teachers in this third group, which constitutes 16% of all participating teachers, the overall mean score seems to be not very much affected by this last group. In other words, the effect of this group on the overall average of teachers' L1 use was lower because of their limited number.

It is surprising that the third group found to be using quite a small amount of L1 when compared to the other two groups. As mentioned previously, the main focus of this last group's university education was not language. They were trained in different departments, and the graduates of these departments were qualified as teachers upon proving their language proficiency. The main reason behind this highly surprising finding may be understood when the nature of their background education is analyzed. These teachers were trained through English Medium Instruction (EMI), which means that they actively and extensively used L2 for real life purposes. As a result of this, they are teaching language in a way that they have learned it. Further research on this issue will provide a deeper insight on this issue.

Teacher Talk to Student Talk

The results of this study are not promising in terms of the overuse of L1 among teachers and students; the students mean score for L1 use is revealed as 56.31% as mentioned previously. This revealed that the students use L1 much more than they should. When the overall ratio of teacher talk and student talk is considered the problem becomes more apparent. The mean score for the ratio of total student talk was 39.83% which can be considered as quite a low ratio for a language class. It can be concluded that the teachers produce almost 60% of the total speech in classroom. The picture gets worse when the average ratio of teachers' L1 use is considered. As mentioned previously the average ratio of the 25 teachers' L1 use was revealed as 48.12%. In other words, teachers are talking too much, and they are talking in L1 rather than providing rich L2 input for the learners. The most important problem here is the input that students get, and the ratio of overall speak also constitutes a disadvantage for the students' learning. As stated by Ellis et al. (1994), and Turnbull (2001) among many others; input is a crucial component of language learning. The overall teacher to student speak ratio when considered in relation to teachers

L1 use, indicates that the students cannot get enough L2 input which may be the main reason behind the students' high percentage of L1 use.

The Effect of Experience on the Use of L1

The results of this study revealed that teachers' use of L1 decreased while their experience is increased. The least experienced teachers are the ones using the most L1 in their teaching. This is surprising in that these teachers' are relatively newly graduates compared to other groups and their proficiency and knowledge of the most recent language teaching approaches, methods and techniques is relatively fresher. It was observed that the most experienced teachers used the lowest rate of L1.

It is worth to remind that none of the teachers trained abroad or lived in any other country. Then why is the difference? In order to find out the reason behind this, further studies need to be administered; however, based on the findings of this study the teachers increased confidence in terms of both language use, and classroom management may be one of the reasons. Of course, there may be other factors that influence the teachers language choice such as being tired as mentioned in (Edstrom, 2006; Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Turnbull, 2001) or other teacher related or student-related factors, the findings of this study does not provide information in this regard.

The Effect of Age on the Use of L1

The results of age effect may have expected to be in close relationship with the results of experience effect. In Turkish education system, the teachers are selected through two centralized exams KPSS-ÖABT (Kamu Personeli Seçme Sınavı – Öğretmenlik Alan Bilgisi Testi). The candidate teachers are supposed to take these exams, after these exams they are ranked based on their scores and a certain number of the teacher candidates gain the right to work as a teacher. By the age of 35, all of the graduates of education faculty and other faculties who received a pedagogy certificate can start working as a teacher provided that they are successful in the exams. Additionally, the university entrance ages of teachers may also vary because, in Turkey, the students selected through central examinations to study at a university. Since the capacity of universities is lower compared to the candidate students, it may take a few years for a high school graduate to start

university education. Therefore, the age of start for teaching may vary to a wide extent. For this reason, the teachers who are in the same experience group may be at different ages. In this study, for example, the T10 and T18 are in the same experience group while there is a 6 years difference between their ages. On the contrary, two teachers at the same age may fall into different experience groups such as T16 and T17. That's why investigating the effect of age in its own right was preferred.

The results confirmed that the findings related to age differ from the experience in terms of its effect on the use of L1. As mentioned above, experience has turned out to be affecting the use of L1, while the effect of age is weaker on the use of L1. The reasons mentioned in the previous paragraph on the starting age of the teachers may be considered as effective on this finding. In other words, the effect of experience is a stronger predictive than the effect of age on the use of L1.

The Pattern of L1 Use

The audio-recorded courses were analyzed in order to find out in which situations the teachers used L1 more. The whole course is selected as the unit of analysis for this purpose. However, surprisingly in the audio-recorded examples, the courses were found out to be formed only of the activity stage. In other words, the course was not designed to include stages as; warm-up, pre-activity, activity, post activity. The beginning and ending of the course were not observable. In most cases, the activity stage began immediately after greeting; and the course interrupted with the bell.

This finding is quite interesting and should be further investigated in detail to find out both reasons for this and effects on students' learning. Some of the possible reasons behind this may be the teachers were not planning the course beforehand. Preparing lesson plan is an integral part of teacher training curriculum in Turkey, and in ELT departments, this issue is given high importance. The teachers learn how to prepare a lesson plan, but they seem to be either neglecting to prepare or not complying with their lesson plans. In either case, it is not a desired situation, and it may be considered among the factors of students' low performance in language courses since especially young learners have shorter attention span and need a smooth transition to the course and to be refreshed during the course. Therefore, they may lose their interest towards the course in a short time. Another reason may be the teachers do not believe in the usefulness or benefits of planning the course to

include stages that help students to focus on the course content better. Other reasons for this issue needs to be investigated further because of the importance of this issue.



CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This study is an effort to find out the use of L1 in Turkish EFL classrooms. It is strongly suggested by the researchers and supported by the literature that L1 should be purposefully and judiciously included in the process of language teaching. It may be concluded that the long lasting tradition of L2-only instruction has come to an end, while L1 has started to become an integral part of language teaching. However, there is a danger of overreliance on L1 in the classrooms especially in classes where the teacher and the students share the same native language. Although finding the proportion of L1 and L2 does not provide evidence on all aspects of the classroom language, it can be concluded from the results of this study that in Turkish EFL classes both teachers and students overly use L1.

25 young learner EFL teachers' use of L1 in Turkish state schools was investigated in this study. Along with this, the students' and the teachers' L1 use in different stages of English course were also investigated. The data for this study was collected through audio-recording the EFL courses of the 25 teachers. The results of the study revealed that the teachers used an average of 48.12% of L1 in their teaching, which is a considerably high amount when compared to the views of the researchers about the optimal use of L1 in L2 teaching. It is obvious that the prohibition of L1 in Turkish EFL classrooms does not work. The teachers' practices showed that they conduct an L1-medium instruction contrary to what is advised during their education. One advantage of this might be that it would be easier to make them aware of the ways to use L1 strategically. However, the importance of L2 input should also be emphasized.

The students' use of L1 was found as 56,31% which shows that in Turkish young learner EFL classrooms the students does not have a chance to develop their speaking skills. When this situation is considered together with the teachers' use of L1 (48,12%), it will be

revealed that the students cannot get enough L2 input. The reasons and effects of this quite high use of L1 should be investigated in detail; however, based on the findings it can be concluded that the teachers may have a lack of confidence to speak in L2 in the classrooms. The findings of this study revealed the necessity that the teacher trainers should be more careful in setting a balanced use of L1 and making the teachers aware of the problems stemming from overreliance on L1.

Another finding revealed in this study is that in Turkish EFL classrooms, the teacher does not plan their course to include pre, while, post stages. This may be one of the reasons of learners' lower participation in the course. Moreover, the teachers' and students' overuse of L1 can also be explained by this finding, since if the teachers do not prepare detailed lesson plans beforehand, it may be quite difficult to conduct the lesson, especially in L2. This finding is quite interesting and should be further investigated in detail to find out both reasons of this situation and its effects on students' learning.

The use of native language in proper amounts should be permitted in classrooms. It is revealed at the end of the current study that teachers use L1 even if they are advised not to include L1 at all in the classroom activities. The curriculum for English Language Teacher Training programs should be reconsidered in the light of this study. The traditional L2-only point of view should be replaced with a more practical approach for teaching a foreign language which is making the highest benefit of the learners own language. However, the teachers should be trained in order to use L1 purposefully, and judiciously. The balance between L1 and L2 inside the classroom should be well-established and maintained. As revealed in the results of this study the overuse of L1 is always a problem in an EFL context where learners and teachers share the same language. Therefore, the teachers should be careful while using L1 and should only use it when it is really necessary. Otherwise, they may waste the chance to provide L2 input for their students. It is worth to remind once again that providing rich L2 input is important especially in EFL contexts where the only source of L2 is the teacher.

The results of this study revealed that the L1 use issue deserves further investigation in Turkish young learner EFL classrooms. Even though this study provided a detailed profile of the teachers and students in young learner EFL classrooms in Turkey, there is a need to design a large-scale study to better represent the practice of young learner EFL teachers.

This study explored the ratio of L1 and L2 in Turkish young learner EFL classrooms. The results revealed an overuse of L1 by both teachers and students. Though these results describe the problem in order to gain detailed information about the nature of L1 and L2 use in the EFL classrooms, future research can be designed to analyze the patterns of code-switching between L1 and L2.

The functions that are carried out by the L1 used inside the classrooms should also be investigated. A study on the functions of teacher/student code-switching will answer the “How?” question on the use of L1 through describing the current practice. As well as it will provide an opportunity for the development of strategies for using L1 in language teaching. Nonetheless, a study conducted to analyze the functions of L1 and develop strategies of L1 use in language teaching should also be supported through interviews with students and teachers in order to identify their attitudes.

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APPENDICES



APPENDIX 1: Background Questionnaire

Değerli Katılımcı;

Öncelikle bu çalışmaya sağladığınız katkı için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.
İngilizce Öğretmenleri'nin ders anlatırkenki dil tercihlerini belirlemeye yönelik yapılacak bu çalışmaya katılım gönüllüdür.
Kimliğiniz ve kimliğinizi teşhir edebilecek herhangi bir bilgi üçüncü şahıslarla paylaşılmayacaktır.
Gösterdiğiniz ilgi için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. Serhat İNAN
İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü
Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi
Gazi Üniversitesi

Yaş.....

Cinsiyet.....

Öğretmenlik Tecrübesi (Yıl):

Mezun Olduğunuz Fakülte ve Bölüm:.....

Sınıf Düzeyi:..... Sınıf Mevcudu:

APPENDIX 2: Transcripts of Classroom Talk

T16

Ss: Yes.

T: Yes, I am.

S: Hungry.

S: Evet, ondan.

T: Yes, I am hungry de diyebilirim.

S: Aç-evet açım.

S: Sen...

T: And I will say what I want. OK? İstediğim şeyi söyleyeceğim.

S: Canım bir...

S: I want a sandwich.

T: I want...? a...?

S: Sandwich.

T: Sandwich.

S: Bir tane sandiviç...

S:---

T: You will answer it to the Picture. Resme göre cevap vereceğiz. OK?

S: Ok.

Ss: Ok.

T: Are you thirsty- are you thirsty?

S: Sen susadın...

S: Susadın mı? Evet.

S: Limonata mı içersin... Limonata mı içersin...

S: Kola.

S: Su.

S: Yes, I am hungry.

S:No!

T: Hayır susamadım diyelim.

Ss: No, I am not.

S: Susamadım.

Ss: No, I am not.

T: No, I am not.

T4

T: En basitinden en-en bir çok bildiğimiz çoğul olan s bu sefer. Buradaki bak dikkat edin bu cat isim bu. Bu give-vermek, fiil. Fiile geliyorsa geniş zamanla alakalı olması lazım. Onu anlarsınız he she it'te. İsme geliyorsa çoğul kediler, s 'nin kedileri var tamam. Kesme s ise işte birkaç anlamı var. Gösterdik onları da. When is Sally's birthday. Sally's birthday is in April ya da kısaca ne diyebilirsiniz?

Ss: Her birthday.

T: Her birthday is in April olur da Sally's birthday is in April ya da her birthday is in April ya da daha da kısalt. Nasıl olur?

S: Her birthday is in.

T: Bu cümlelerin yerine ne diyebiliriz. Bakın ben size şöyle bir şey söyleyeyim. I, you, we, they, he, she diyemediğimiz durumda bilin ki o çok kötü ihtimalle it'tir. I, you, we, they, he, she diyemezsin buna. I denir mi buna, her birthday? She denir mi?

Ss: Hayır.

T: Kesinlikle denemez. Ne demek her birthday?

Ss: Onun doğum günü.

T: Onun doğum günü.

S: Cansız varlık.

T: Yani. Eğer bir şeye I, you, we, they, he, she diyemiyorsa bilin ki o çok büyük ihtimalle it'tir, Yani genelde her zaman. Şöyle diyemez miyiz? It is in April. Tamam? Diğerine bakalım. Hamdi.

S: When is Ben's birthday? Hocam bu Ben's,Ben's diye mi okunuyor?

T: Aynen.

S: His birthday is in.

S: June.

T: June. His birthday is in June. Bakın bu sefer his dedi her yerine. his dedi. Çünkü Ben

S: Erkek.

T: Erkek, aynen, aynen. Okay, the other one. Oku Nisa.

S: When is Betty's birthday? Betty's birthday is in October.

T: Is in October, okay. The other one.

S: Hocam.

T17

T: Çok güzel. Kahverengi pantolonu vardı. Light Brown coats. Light Brown coats.

S: Hocam? Ceketini de kahverengiydi.

T: Ama nasıl? Light.

S: Açık kahverengiydi.

T: Çok güzel! Çok güzel. And a red hat.

S: Kırmızı şapkalı.

T: Çok güzel! Ne- toparlıyalım. Kahverengi pantolonu vardı.

S: Açık kahverengi ceketini vardı.

T: Ve?

S: Kırmızı şapkası vardı.

T: Çok güzel! And he had- and he had...

Ss:---

S: Hocam ---?

T: Daha sonra göreceğiz biz. And he had scary brown eyes. Scary brown eyes?

S: Korkunç kahverengi gözleri vardı.

T: Harikasin! Korkutucu, korkunç kahverengi gözleri vardı. The tall man- the tall man ...

S: Uzun.

T: ...put the Money ... put the Money in a black briefcase. Put the Money in a black...

S: ---

T: Put. Put.

S: Koydu.

T: Çok güzel!

S: Paraları kas-

T: Nereye koydu?

S: Çantaya koydu.

S: Çantaya koydu.

T: Çok güzel! And the other man- the other man...

S: Öteki- şey, yanındaki...

T: Waited at the door.

S: Odaya girdi.

S: Kapıyı ...

T: The other man ...waited -waited at the door.

T9

T: Geçmiş zaman diye bir şey öğrendik mi?

S: Geniş zaman.

S: Öğreneceğiz daha.

T: Geniş zaman. Does ile sormuş soruyu. Siz de geniş zamanda cevap veriyorsunuz. Şimdiki zamanda değil.

S: Öğretmenim?

T: mesela, ne demiş: what does a cat/dog? Kedi ne yapar? Kediler ne yapar genel olarak? Buradaki- bu resimde ne yapıyor mesela?

S: Hocam...---

T: Ağaca tırmanıyor, diyeceksiniz. Geniş zaman. Şimdiki zaman kurallarını uygulamıyorsunuz yani. Geniş zaman kurallarını uyguluyorsunuz.

S: Hocam---?

T: Geniş zaman kuralıyla kim yapacak bir tane oradan?

S: Teacher, teacher!

T: geniş zaman kuralı.

Ss: Teacher, teacher!

T: Yani, o yaptığımız -ing falan yoktu. Hatırlayın. İkinci dönemde hep öğrendik, yaptık ya.

Ss: Teacher, Öğretmenim!...

S: Teacher, teacher, teacher!

T: Herkes saldı. Başa dönüyoruz. Bekle.

S: Hocam...

S: A dog running.

T: İng. -ing yok. Geniş zamanda -ing var mı?

S: Öğretmenim...

S: Yok.

T: Yok. -ing'siz söylüyorsun.

S: Hocam, dog running.

T: -ing'i kaldır.

s: Öğretmenim!

S: A dog run.

T12

S: Watching TV.

T: Watching TV. Peki şimdiki zamanda kullandığımız zaman zarfları neler?

S: At the present.

T: At the present, başka?

S: At the moment.

S: At the moment.

T: At the moment.

S: Right now.

T: Now yada right now. Başka var mı bildiğiniz? Yeterli zaten demi, şimdilik. Peki olumsuz cümle yapabilmek için yapıyoruz? Olumsuz cümle.

S: Not getirmiyor muyuz?

T: Not, evet. Bütün zamanlarda zaten olumsuz cümle yapmak için 'not' kullanıyoruz ama not'ı tek başına kullanamıyoruz demi? Napacağız?

S: Mesela doing derken does'ı napacağız?

T: Doesn't.

S: Şey fiilleri getirmeyecek miyiz?

T: Hayır. Does'da fiilleri getirmiyoruz.

S: I am not doing.

T: I am not doing.

S: She isn't cleaning.

T: She isn't cleaning.

S: We aren't.

T: We aren't. O zaman yapıyormuşuz, neye getiriyormuşuz not'ı ? Fiile değilde neye?

S: Fiilden önce, şey yardımcı fiilden sonra.

T: Yardımcı fiillere. Yani.

S: Am, is, are.

T: Am not, is not ya da are not. Yine fiil -ing takısıyla birlikte. Kısaltmalarını nasıl yapıyoruz bunların? Kısaltmalarını.

S: Not'ı -ing.

T: Kısaltamıyoruz demi, eğer not'ı kısaltamıyoruz burada yapabileceğimiz tek kısaltma şu:
I amn't. Diğerleri isn't.



APPENDIX 3: Approval of Directorate of National Education

T.C.

ANKARA VALİLİĞİ

Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 14588481/605.99/6171539

08/12/2014

Konu : Araştırma İzni

(Serhat İNAN)

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİNE

(Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı)

İlgi : a) MEB Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 2012/13 nolu genelgesi

b) 17/11/2014 tarihli ve 34583 sayılı yazınız.

Fakülteniz araştırma görevlisi Serhat İNAN'ın "İngilizce Öğretiminde Türkçe'nin Kullanımı" konulu araştırması kapsamında uygulama yapma isteği Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüş ve araştırmanın yapılacağı İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne bilgi verilmiştir.

Anketlerin uygulama yapılacak sayıda çoğaltılması ve çalışmanın bitiminde iki örneğinin (CD ortamında) Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme-1 Şube Müdürlüğüne gönderilmesini arz ederim.

Ali GÜNGÖR
Müdür a.
Şube Müdürü