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on theme “USING MOTHER TONGUE IN TEACHING ENGLISH AT
ELEMENTARY LEVEL OF EDUCATION”

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INTRODUCTION

The role of mother tongue in second language acquisition has been the subject of much debate and controversy.

This paper reports on different views and methods in teaching English throughout the history and tries to find out what is the role of mother tongue in foreign language teaching. The practical part deals with a piece of research carried out in teaching environment using the audio and video recordings of teacher trainees and analyses teachers' usage of mother tongue in their own teaching. The paper suggests that a systematic use of target language and a minimal use of mother tongue in English language classroom may provide learners with explicit knowledge of the target language systems.

Actuality of the research is in the fact that in the process of teaching a foreign language, the teacher's use of mother tongue can influence the learner's acquisition of the target language. Throughout the history of English language teaching and second language acquisition, the role of mother tongue has been an important issue. The various views are reflections on the methodological changes in English language teaching, which have in such way brought different perspectives on the role of mother tongue.

Novelty of the research is that we tried to analyze the problem of using mother tongue in teaching foreign languages separating every aspect and identifying specific traits of using mother tongue in every of these aspects.

The aim of the research is to undertake research in the classroom environment and to provide its findings. The research will be described theoretically, introduced in details, and then focused on its phases concerning methods, tools, data collection and other related issues. This research aims to reveal whether the teacher trainees are able to conduct their lessons in English, using the target language as much as possible and thus discover the role of mother tongue in English language classroom.

The following questions (tasks) are directed in order to achieve my aim:

- 1) Do trainee teachers use mother tongue in English language classrooms?
- 2) If so, in what situations do they use the mother tongue instead of English and how frequently is the mother tongue used for this purpose?
- 3) Is the teacher trainees' use of mother tongue effective?
- 4) What is the amount of mother tongue in English language classroom?

Concerning these questions, to support my hypothesis, the teacher trainees should be able to conduct their lessons mostly in English to follow the monolingual approach. Krashen, who was a strong advocate of this approach, pleaded that learning foreign languages has the same characteristics as acquiring a mother tongue¹; therefore the use of mother tongue in foreign language classroom should be none or minimal. However, Medgyes takes this view for “untenable on any grounds, be they psychological, linguistic and pedagogic”². Nowadays, there are some situations when it is possible for teachers to slip into their mother tongue, but the teachers need to very careful to avoid its abundant use. All these situations are provided in chapter 3 and the observation sheet is based on them.

The object of the research is the set of studies on the use of mother tongue in teaching foreign languages.

The subject of the research is a specific phenomenon of using mother tongue while teaching listening, speaking, writing and reading skills.

The main research methods of the qualification work are observation and direct data collection. Within the structured observation sheet, the data will be collected by using so called a tally system, which is a situation when an observer puts down a tally or tick every time a particular event occurs.

Structure. Our research consists of introduction, three chapters, conclusion, list of literature and appendices.

¹ Krashen, S.D. The input hypothesis: An update. In Alatis, E. James (ed.). Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics. – Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 2001. – 188 p.

² Medgyes, P. The non-native teacher. – London: Macmillan, 2004. – 66 p.

In this thesis we will discuss the role of mother tongue in teaching English as a foreign language. I would like to find out to what extent the mother tongue can play its role in the process of teaching a foreign language. On that account, the first part of the paper concentrates on the methods and approaches and their changing views on the use of mother tongue in a foreign language classroom throughout the history. I deal with the difference between acquisition and learning according to Krashen's theory and in the next chapter I focus on the term communicative competence as one of the most important goals of foreign language teaching¹. The theoretical part concludes with the mother tongue in foreign language classroom where I deal with all the teaching skills as the base for successful English learning.

Theoretical and Practical Value. Generally, my own experience of first observing and then teaching English at a primary school proved over-usage of Uzbek or Russian languages in English lessons.

What actually happened influenced the choice of theme for our thesis. Generally, in lessons of English that I had a chance to observe, teachers used the mother tongue for all kinds of situations including giving instructions, doing translation or presenting foreign language structures. This happened mainly because some of the teachers feel that the use of mother tongue has always an active and beneficial role to facilitate foreign language learning. However, contrary is the case as we shall try to present in this paper. Moreover also my own experience during the year practice confirmed my assumption of pupils' exposure to abundant mother tongue use in the classroom. After watching the first audio and video recording of my own teaching I realized that the mother tongue is used very often because of the temptation to facilitate the teachers job but at the expense of pupils. This made me think about other reasons why the mother tongue was used and about ways how to reduce the

¹ Krashen, S.D. The input hypothesis: An update. In Alatis, E. James (ed.). Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics. –Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 2001. – 107 p.

abundant use of it.

After deeper analysis of what happened during the observations and my own teaching I was aware of the fact that the abundant use of mother tongue was in most cases ineffective since it was apparent that pupils did not need to hear mother tongue. In its place, other things to avoid the use of mother tongue should have been used including gestures, facial expressions or visual aids.

Although some amount of mother tongue in monolingual foreign language class is acceptable, in the literature concerning the same issue, a good number of researchers stress the increasing methodological need in foreign language teaching for a more systematic and principled way of using the mother tongue in the classroom.

It is said that the younger the pupils are the better they will absorb any foreign language they are ringed by, and they appear to learn the foreign language more easily than adults do. Therefore, we are sure that a few hours per week of foreign language teaching that are compulsory at Uzbekistan's primary schools should not be filled with plentiful mother tongue use. We remember many lessons observed when we were wondering about the purpose for using the mother tongue. Not once teachers used the mother tongue to solve the off-task behavior or had to put an extreme effort in getting pupils to focus on what they were supposed to do. And thus we ask ourselves to what extent is the teachers' use of mother tongue in foreign language classroom effective and facilitating pupils' learning? What are the current views for foreign language teaching concerning the use of mother tongue? How to implement these views into the teaching environment?

On the basis of the theoretical part we will try to prove my **hypothesis** promoting the target language use as the main language in the foreign language classroom.

The research will be undertaken in the classroom environment in order to find out whether the teacher trainees of English are willing to use mainly the target

language or whether they overuse their mother tongue as I experienced. The research is based on observing and analyzing the audio and video recordings taken during the teacher trainees' year practice to find out whether the mother tongue is used and if so in what particular situations.

CHAPTER I. METHODS AND APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

This chapter deals with the notion of principal methods and approaches of second language teaching and provides a brief diachronic and synchronic historical overview. The concept of teaching “methods and approaches has had a long history in language teaching, as it witnessed by the rise and fall of a variety of methods throughout the recent history of language teaching”¹.

Since the terms such as method, approach and technique are used in this chapter here is one of their definitions. An approach, according to Anthony, was a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching.

Method was defined as an overall plan for systematic presentation of language based on a selected approach. It followed that techniques were specific classroom activities consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well².

Based on Anthony’s model, Richards and Rodgers state:

Approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described³.

It should be mentioned that the terms native and mother tongue are used interchangeably in this thesis.

¹ Richards, J., Willy A. Renandya. *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002. – 135 p.

² Anthony, F. *Selected Approach in Teaching English at Elementary Level*. Volume 3. – Cannes: Soffian Press, 2002. – 189 p.

³ Richards, J., Willy A. Renandya. *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002. – 19 p.

1.1. Literature Review

Change of Attitudes over Time towards the Use of the Mother Tongue

For over 120 years, the prevailing attitude in FL teaching has been anti-MT and discouraging of the use of students' MT in language teaching¹. The main principle of FL teaching was monolingual or intra-lingual, rather than cross-lingual². The prevailing method of instruction was the Direct Method, which did not encourage the use of comparative analysis between the MT and the FL. MT-free lessons were a "badge of honor"³. Translation had pejorative overtones in teaching and was often avoided. Only more recently have researchers concluded that "translation provides an easy avenue to enhance linguistic awareness"⁴. They recognized the importance of comparative analysis between the MT and the FL and that the FL does not aim at substituting for the MT. This paradigm shift to the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis has occurred recently⁵ and indicates a welcoming attitude to teacher usage of students' MT in teaching. However, in practice, the "judicious and principled use"⁶ of MT remains an unresolved issue; teachers often feel guilty for straying from the path of teaching using only the FL and feel the use of the MT is professionally inappropriate⁷ [Swain, p.19].

An example of how attitudes have changed over time can be seen in the English Curriculum for All Grades^{8,9,10}, which refers to the usage of MT as an

¹ Cook, L. Use of the Mother Tongue in Teaching Foreign Languages. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002. – 12 p.

² Cook, L. Use of the Mother Tongue in Teaching Foreign Languages. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002. – 13 p.

³ Caldwell, A. Comparative Analysis between Mother Tongue and Foreign Language. – Aberdeen: QEPH, 2009. – 24 p.

⁴ Cook, L. Use of the Mother Tongue in Teaching Foreign Languages. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002. – 27 p.

⁵ Caldwell, A. Comparative Analysis between Mother Tongue and Foreign Language. – Aberdeen: QEPH, 2009. – 27 p.

⁶ Turnbull, A. Principles of Mother Tongue Usage in ELT. – New York: McMillan Press, 2011. – 536 p.

⁷ Swain, R. History of ELT Methods and Approaches. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010. – 19 p.

⁸ Spolsky, I. Mother Tongue in Teaching Foreign Language. – Warsaw: Sloboda Jeti, 2007. – 23 p.

⁹ Ben Meir, A. MT: Theories and Approaches. – Sofia: Ludgorets, 2008. – 48 p.

¹⁰ Inbar, J. On MT and SLT. – Seattle: Open University Press, 2002. – 104 p.

integral part of English language education. The curriculum consists of four domains of language abilities and knowledge: social interaction, access to information, presentation of information, and appreciation of literature, culture, and language.

Appreciation of language in particular is based on the principle that learning a new language provides an ideal opportunity to become aware of the nature of language, how languages are structured, and the differences between languages. Thus, students can develop awareness into their own MT by the teacher's use of their MT in teaching EFL. Despite changes in attitude, the present curriculum does not provide clear-cut instructions with regard to the acceptable extent of teacher use of students' MT.

Arguments against Teacher Use of Students' MT in FL Classes

Arguments against teachers using students' MT are mainly pedagogically based. Turnbull¹, in his response to Cook², mentions that students do not benefit when teachers over-rely on using their students' MT, particularly when the EFL teacher is the sole linguistic model and main source of FL input. Classroom situations can create various experiences for students such as real-life situations through simulations³; if the teacher uses the MT to a great extent, students may lose the chance to benefit from these situations. In addition, teachers who overuse their students' MT deprive these learners of an important language process in which students try to make sense of what is being said in class⁴. The use of the FL in class influences students' achievements and proficiency in FL because of the experiences they gain in class.

In addition to pedagogical factors, followers of the monolingual principle support the compartmentalized language pedagogy that inhibits the interdependent nature of the MT and the FL. Hence, they perceive the introduction of the MT in

¹ Turnbull, A. *Principles of Mother Tongue Usage in ELT*. – New York: McMillan Press, 2011. – 676 p.

² Cook, L. *Use of the Mother Tongue in Teaching Foreign Languages*. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002. – 304 p.

³ Spolsky, I. *Mother Tongue in Teaching Foreign Language*. – Warsaw: Sloboda Jeti, 2007. – 93 p.

⁴ Hopkins, D. *A Teachers Guide to Classroom Research*. Open University Press, 2002. – 19 p.

FL teaching as an inhibitive factor.

The three assumptions of the monolingual principle in FL teaching as reflected in Howatt's history of teaching EFL are: (a) FL teaching should be done exclusively in the FL; (b) translation between the MT and the FL should be avoided; and (c) in bilingual programs, the two languages should be kept separate [Howatt, p.15].

Arguments in Favor of Teacher Use of Students' MT in FL Classes

The issue of teacher use of students' MT in FL teaching has been explored with a variety of languages and mainly relates to the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis, to universal principles of foreign language acquisition, and multi-linguistic models. Studies on the transfer between the MT and the FL indicate a linguistic interdependence [Kubanov, p.29] with regard to multiple subsystems (phonological, syntactic, semantic, and textual) within the MT and FL systems [Kubanov, p.120]. Moss [Moss, p.47] supported the theory of cross-linguistic transfer with regard to literacy skills. Similarly, Hauptman, Mansur, and Tal used a trilingual model for literacy skills among Bedouins in Israel whose MT is Arabic and found that it created a support system for Arabic, the mother tongue, through English (FL) and Hebrew (MT2). Other researchers stated that the MT catalyzes the intake process of the FL [Nunan, p.14], as well as saves time and enhances understanding [Turnbull, p.21]. Cook argued that a "systematic use" [Cook, p.40] of the MT would minimize the guilty feelings of teachers when using their students' MT. Cook [Cook, p.23] also argued that "given the appropriate environment, two languages are as normal as two lungs."

A number of psycho-linguistic arguments contribute to the stance that advocates teacher use of students' MT:

1. Teacher use of the MT cannot present a threat to FL acquisition because learners already have a language basis from their MT. Because of this basis, learners are more socially developed and have more short-term memory capacity and more maturity when they become acquainted with the FL [Cook, p.32].

Therefore, there is no competition between their MT and FL.

2. The belief in the 20th century was that the MT and the FL make distinct systems in the brain. However, evidence shows that languages are interwoven in the brain in vocabulary, syntax, phonology, and pragmatics. Therefore, FL teaching should match the invisible processes in the brain and should not be separated from the MT, assuming that the ability to transfer between languages (code-switch) is a normal psycho-linguistic process.

3. The process of foreign language acquisition involves cognitive, social, and emotional factors that are inseparable and equally related to the MT and the FL.

It seems then that the sole use of the FL by the teacher is not justified theoretically or practically.

1.2. Diachronic View on the Role of Mother Tongue

Nowadays, having a command of two or more languages is increasingly seen as a necessity. No doubt the ideal would be to produce perfectly bilingual - or even multilingual - people capable of rewarding in-depth exchanges with people of different languages and cultures [European Commission Protocol, p.11].

As Richards and Rodgers explain, foreign language teaching has throughout the history always been an important practical concern. Whereas today English is the world's most widely studied foreign language, 500 years ago it was Latin, that in the sixteenth century, gradually became displaced as a language of spoken and written communication [Richards, Rodgers, 2005, p.3). “[Both] classical languages, first Greek and then Latin, were used as lingua francas.” [Celce-Murcia, p.72]. However, teaching of Latin became the model for foreign language teaching from the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries. “Latin grammar, which was taught through rote learning of

grammar rules, ...translation, and practice in writing sample sentences, sometimes with the use of parallel bilingual texts...” [Howatt, p.94].

In the sixteenth century some alternative approaches appeared with Roger Ascham and Montaigne and with Comenius and John Locke in the seventeenth century, but none of their ideas had yet the power to change the attitude towards teaching foreign languages.

Nonetheless, I would like to mention some of the techniques that Comenius, according to Celce-Murcia, used:

1. Use imitation instead of rules to teach a language.
2. Have your students repeat after you.
3. Use a limited vocabulary initially.
4. Help your students practice reading and speaking.
5. Teach language through pictures to make it meaningful [Celce-Murcia, p.74].

In fact, these characteristics, “perhaps for the first time, made explicit an inductive approach to learning a foreign language, the goal of which was to teach use rather than analysis...” [Celce-Murcia, p.74]. Celce-Murcia further suggests that although Comenius's views held back for a while, the systematic study of Latin reappeared once again throughout the Europe [Celce-Murcia, p.74].

As ‘modern’ languages began to enter the curriculum of European schools in the eighteenth century, they were taught using the same basic procedures that were used for teaching Latin... Students labored over translating sentences. By the nineteenth century, this approach... had become the standard way of studying foreign languages in schools [Richards and Rodgers, p.328].

This approach became known as the Grammar-Translation Method, originated in Germany.

As Larsen-Freeman explains, at one time, the Grammar-Translation Method was called the Classical method since it was first used in the teaching of the classical languages, Latin and Greek. However, it was recognized that

students would never use the target. A lingua franca is any language widely used beyond the population of its native speakers [<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki>].

Curriculum with many different conceptions includes any educational experience [<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki>]

The role of mother tongue in the Grammar-Translation Method is crucial since it is based on translation exercises into and out of the native language. The language used in the classroom is mostly the students' mother tongue. Here are some of Grammar-Translation Method characteristics of the teaching process:

1. Students are taught to translate from one language to another.
2. Grammar is taught deductively.
3. Students memorize native-language equivalents for target-language vocabulary.
4. Major focus is given on reading and writing.
5. Accuracy is emphasized.
6. Instructions are given in students' native language [Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p.74, Richards and Rodgers, p.32].

According to Keith Johnson, the Grammar-Translation Method was dreadful [Johnson, p.165]. "It is a jungle of obscure rules; endless lists of gender classes and gender-class exceptions, ...snippets of philology, and a total loss of genuine feeling for the language." [Johnson, p.166]. However, Richards and Rodgers say that this method continues to be widely used in its modified form in some parts of the world today [Richards and Rodgers, p.34].

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, several factors, including rejection and questioning of the Grammar-Translation Method, contributed to the emergence of reforms in foreign language teaching practice.

It is not accidental that so many reformers should have been engaged in the teaching of English as a foreign language. One reason, paradoxically enough, was the rather lowly status of English in the educational pecking order in Europe, which meant that 'experiments' were not immediately rejected as threatening to the established order [Howatt and Widdowson, p.132].

The reforms that took place around this time resulted in development of various groups of methods. Johnson calls one group of these methods ‘natural’ as the word suggests some aspects of ‘natural’ first language acquisition, which is connected with specialists, such as the Frenchman Francois Gouin. F. Gouin captures his ideas with another group of methods at this time - Direct Method (2001:167). According to Johnson, there is not only one Direct Method, but the best known is bonded with a German who went to America in the 1870s (2001:168). “His name was Maximilian Delphinus Berlitz, and his method is still used in many places today, with many cities of the world still boasting their own ‘Berlitz School’.” [Johnson, p.168]. Deductive teaching is teaching beginning with theories and progressing to applications of those theories [Prince and Felder, p.11].

While the Grammar-Translation Method was not focused on the use of target language and the role of mother tongue was crucial here, the Direct Method was its complete opposite since the mother tongue is avoided altogether. It has one very simple rule, which is prohibition of translation. In fact, the Direct Method got its name from the fact “that meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids, with no recourse to the students’ native language.” [Larsen-Freeman, p.23]. This approach had the following principles:

1. Instructions were conducted in the target language.
2. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges within a small group of teacher and students.
3. Grammar was taught inductively.
4. Vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures or by association of ideas.
5. Correct pronunciation was emphasized.
6. Teachers could be native speakers or had nativelike fluency in the target

language [Richards and Rodgers, p.12].

According to Richards and Rodgers, the Direct Method was quite successful in private language schools, but later declined in European noncommercial schools. It was criticized that strict adherence to Direct Method principles was counterproductive, since teachers had to use long explanations to avoid using the mother tongue, when sometimes a simple translation would have been more efficient way to comprehension [Richards and Rodgers, p.13).

Howatt and Widdowson add: “‘banning’ the native language altogether was ...rejected by teachers who saw much less harm in translating the odd word or phrase than in leaving pupils to flounder around...” [Howatt and Widdowson, p.225].

The fact is that the Direct Method was the first language teaching method that caught the attention of how the foreign language should be taught. As was said, the Inductive teaching instead of beginning with general principles and eventually getting to applications, the instructions begin with specifics. As the students attempt to analyze the data or solve the problem, they generate a need for facts, rules etc. at which point they are either presented with the needed information or helped to discover it for themselves [Prince and Felder, p.31].

Grammar-Translation Method did not prepare pupils to use the target language, whereas the goal of the Direct Method was communication in the target language.

While the Direct Method saw no place whatsoever for the first language in the classroom, the grammar translation method used the mother tongue so extensively and at the expense of target language practice that, even today, translation is in many instances regarded as an illegitimate practice because of its associations with this method [<http://www.teachenglishworldwide.com/Articles>].

1.3. Major Language Teaching Trends. Alternative Approaches

One of the examples of language teaching trends in the twentieth century is according to Mora, the Reading Method, where the translation reappears as a respectable classroom procedure related to comprehension of the written text [<http://coe.sdsu.edu/people/jmora/ALMMMethods>].

“Several techniques were adopted from native language reading instruction.” [Stern, p.461].

Period from the 1930s to 1960s refers to the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching terms, which is an approach to language teaching developed by British applied linguists. Both took from the Direct Method although an oral approach should not be confused with the obsolete Direct Method, which meant only that the learner was bewildered by a flow of ungraded speech, suffering all the difficulties he would have encountered in picking up the language in its normal environment and losing most of the compensating benefits of better contextualization in those circumstances [Pattison, p.38].

The main characteristics of the Situational Language Teaching, at least those connected to the theme were as follows:

1. The target language is the language of the classroom.
2. A great emphasis on accuracy to avoid acquisition of errors.
3. Language teaching begins with the spoken language.
4. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally [Pattison, p.39].

According to Pattinson, the fact that the new language points are introduced and practiced situationally became a key feature of the approach in 1960s, and since then the term situational was used in referring to the Oral Approach. The terms Structural-Situational Approach and Situational Language Teaching came into common use [Pattison, p.39].

Concerning Situational Language Teaching, it is still true that “this method is widely used at the time of writing and a very large number of textbooks are based on it.” [Hubbard, p.236].

In the United States, toward the end of the 1950s, the need for a radical change and rethinking of foreign language teaching methodology resulted in the emergence of the Audio-lingual Method with strong ties to linguistics and behavioral psychology. The Audio-lingual Method, like the Direct Method that was already discussed, had a goal very different from that of the Grammar-Translation Method. Larsen-Freeman specifies:

“Teachers want their students to be able to use the target language communicatively..., to overlearn the target language, to learn to use it automatically without stopping to think.” (1986:43). Here is a number of Audiolingual Method key features:

1. The meaning that the words have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic or cultural context and not in isolation.
2. Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.
3. A great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.
4. Items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form.
5. Focus on accuracy through drill and practice in the basic structures and sentence patterns of the target language [Larsen-Freeman, p. 57].

Additionally, Larsen-Freeman comments on the role of the students' mother tongue: “The habits of the students' native language are thought to interfere with the students' attempts to master the target language. Therefore, the target language is used...” [Larsen-Freeman, p. 59]. This method had a major influence on language teaching methods that were to follow since the overall goal of the Audiolingual Method was to create communicative competence in learners [Richards, Rodgers, p.20]. “However, the conceptions of the monolingual principle were always aware of the role L1 played in foreign language

learning.” [Medgyes, p.66]. The fact is that this monolingual principle, led by scholars as Sweet, Jespersen or Palmer, has not always been enforced.

Towards the late 60s, it became clear that the monolingual orthodoxy was untenable on any grounds, be they psychological, linguistic or pedagogical. To refer only to pedagogical qualms, how can teachers and students be expected to use English exclusively, when both of them are non-native speakers of English and share the same mother tongue? [Medgyes, p.67].

“As an alternative to the audio-lingual method the cognitive theory developed from the mid-sixties in response to the criticisms leveled against the audio-lingual method.” [Stern, p.469]. As its name suggests, the Cognitive Approach was influenced by cognitive psychology and Chomskyan linguistics [Chomsky, p.7]. Here are some of the Cognitive Approach characteristics, at least these related to my thesis:

1. Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation.
2. can be taught deductively or inductively.
3. The teacher should have good proficiency in the target language [Celce-Murcia, p.27].

Many teaching approaches and methods developed with different characteristics and assumptions about how a foreign language should be taught and further many teaching techniques were changed to improve the teaching methodology in the last century. There has always been a concern for method, but “[...] the current attraction to ‘method’ stems from the late 1950s, when foreign language teachers were falsely led to believe that there was a method to remedy the ‘language teaching and learning problems’.” [Lange, p.253].

The period from 1950s to 1980s was the most active epoch in the history of approaches and methods, including the emerge of the Audiolingual Method and the Situational Method. During the same period also smaller methods appeared and developed in general education or have been

extended to second language settings [Richards and Rodgers, p.15]. “However, the lack of flexibility in such methods led some applied linguists... to seriously question their usefulness and aroused a healthy skepticism among language educators...” [Celce-Murcia, p.26]. “By the 1990s applied linguists and language teachers moved away from a belief that newer and better approaches and methods are the solutions to problems in language teaching.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.16]. Richards and Willy contribute toward what has been called the ‘post-methods era’ as shifting attention to teaching and learning processes and the contributions of the individual teacher to language teaching pedagogy.

The period from 1950s to 1980s has often been referred to as ‘The age of Methods’, during which a number of detailed prescriptions for language teaching proposed.

Situational Language Teaching evolved in the United Kingdom while parallel method, Audio-Lingualism, emerged in the United States. In the middle-period, a variety of methods were proclaimed as successors to then prevailing Situational Language Teaching and Audio-Lingual methods. These alternatives were promoted under such titles as Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, and Total Physical Response. Each of these alternatives will be now briefly described only regarding the theme of this thesis, which is the role of the mother tongue in ELT. Concerning Silent Way, Larsen-Freeman explains that the meaning is made clear by working on the students’ perception, not by translation. However, teachers can use the students’ mother tongue to give instruction when necessary, to help a student to improve pronunciation or when feedback is needed [Larsen-Freeman, p. 65]. “More important, knowledge students already possess of their native language can be exploited by the teacher of the target language.” [Larsen-Freeman, p. 65]. Also the other method, which is called Suggestopedia allows the usage of the native language, for example for translation to make

the meaning clear or when the teacher thinks it is necessary. However, “as the course proceeds, the teacher uses the native language less and less.” [Larsen-Freeman, p. 83]. In *Community Language Learning*, where possible, native language equivalents are given to the words of the target language to make the meanings clear and to combine words in several ways to create sentences. Moreover, conversations in the target language can be replaced by the mother tongue conversation [Larsen-Freeman, p. 103]. The last of these alternatives, Total Physical Response, uses the mother tongue during the introduction. Larsen-Freeman resumes: “After the introduction, rarely would the mother tongue be used. Meaning is made clear through body movement.” [Larsen-Freeman, p. 118]. “These methods are developed around particular theories of learners and learning..., they are consequently relatively underdeveloped in the domain of language theory...” [Richards and Rodgers, p.71].

1.4. Synchronic View on the Role of Mother Tongue

Synchronic view in English language teaching can be closely connected to the second half of the twentieth century when so called communicative approach just began to prevail. This approach naturally follows the goal of foreign language teaching which is the ability to use the language for communication and thus develop communicative competence. This approach, I will deal with in this part, also suggests that foreign language teaching recognizes a social, interpersonal and cultural dimension as well as grammatical and phonological patterns.

Since the early 1970s, communicative movement has had an influential role in foreign language teaching. There is nothing new about the idea that communicative ability is the goal of foreign language teaching since it underlies such approaches as Situational Language Teaching or The Audio-Lingual

Method [Littlewood, p.16]. According to Richards and Rodgers, the communicative movement aimed to move away from grammar to focus on language as communication [Richards and Rodgers, p.71]. In the 1980s, the alternative approaches and methods came to be overshadowed by more interactive views of language teaching, which collectively came to be known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and which refer to a set of principles that reflect communicative view of language. “CLT has spawned a number of off-shoots that share the same basic set of principles, but which spell out... envision instructional practices in somewhat diverse ways.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.74]. These Communicative Language Teaching approaches include The Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Teaching.

In recent years, there have been some dramatic shifts in attitude towards both language and foreign language teaching. “Language is more than simply a system of rules. We need to distinguish between grammatical rules and being able to use the rules effectively and appropriately when communicating.” [Nunan, p.12]. His view has upheld communicative language teaching.

Historically, it can be seen as a response to the Audio-Lingual Method and as an extension or development of the Notional-Functional Syllabus. It places great emphasis on helping students use the target language in a variety of context and also great emphasis on learning language functions [<http://communicative-language-teaching.area51.ipupdater.com>]. Nunan defines five general principles of Communicative Language Teaching:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.
3. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.

4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom meaning.
5. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself. [Nunan, p.283].

Moreover, Howatt divides Communicative Language Teaching into strong and weak version: There is, in a sense, a 'strong' version of the communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities in a wider program of language teaching.... The 'strong' version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it' [Howatt, p.279].

Larsen-Freeman comments on the role of students' mother tongue in Communicative Language Teaching: Judicious use of the students' native language is permitted in CLT. However, whenever possible, the target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for explaining the activities to students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management, exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, not just an object to be studied [Larsen-Freeman, p. 132].

Notional-Functional Syllabus is more a way of organizing a language learning curriculum than a method or an approach to teaching. Instruction is organized not in terms of grammatical structures, but in terms of 'notions' and 'functions'. A 'notion' is a particular context in which people communicate, and a 'function' is a specific purpose for a speaker in a given

context. For example, the notion party would require several functions like introductions and greetings and discussing interests and hobbies [<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki>].

Communicative Language Teaching still continues as is seen in many course books and teaching resources based on its principles. It has also influenced other language teaching approaches and methods that apply a similar philosophy of language teaching [Richards and Rodgers, p.174].

In the early eighties, Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell developed the Natural Approach, based on Krashen's theories about second language acquisition, which combined a comprehensive second language acquisition theory with a curriculum for language classrooms. Krashen's theory of second language acquisition will be described in more detail in the next part of our research. Krashen and Terrell identify the Natural Approach as 'traditional', which means that it is based on the use of language on communicative situations without recourse to the native language [Krashen, p.178].

As part of the Natural Approach, students listen to the teacher using the target language communicatively from the very beginning. It has certain similarities with the much earlier Direct Method, with the important exception that students are allowed to use their native language alongside the target language as part of the language learning process [http://www.englishraven.com/method_natural].

There needs to be a considerable amount of comprehensible input from the teacher since language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. According to Richards and Rodgers, it is the comprehension, meaningful communication and comprehensible input that allow conditions for successful second language acquisition [Richards and Rodgers, p.190]. In addition, Krashen and Terrell add: "acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language". [Richards and

Rodgers, p.180].

Krashen and Terrell further specify the goal of the Natural Approach: “We determine the situations in which they [pupils] use the target language. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus.” [Krashen, p.71]. Richards and Rodgers sum up that the Natural Approach rejects the formal (grammatical) organization of language as a prerequisite to teaching and it is based on observation and interpretation of acquiring both first and second languages in nonformal situations [Richards and Rodgers, p.190].

Although Krashen’s theories and the Natural Approach have received plenty of criticism, still, this was the first attempt at creating an expansive and overall ‘approach’ rather than a specific ‘method’, and the Natural Approach headed naturally into the generally accepted effective language teaching norm: Communicative Language Teaching [http://www.englishraven.com/method_natural].

Beside Natural Approach, other approaches that make communication central are Content-Based Teaching, Task-Based Teaching, Participatory Approach and Cooperative Language Learning. The difference between these approaches, and the Natural Approach, is an act of their focus. “In these approaches rather than ‘learning to use English,’ students ‘use English to learn it’.” [Howatt, p.137]. Larsen-Freeman explains: “[These approaches] have in common teaching through communication rather than for it.” Involving Cooperative Language Learning, also known as Collaborative Learning, according to Richards and Rodgers, has been implied as a way of promoting communicative interaction in the classroom and is seen as an extension of the principles of Communicative Language Teaching [Larsen-Freeman, p.193]. Richards and Rodgers also suggest the goals of Cooperative Language Learning (CLL), which are the following:

1. Providing opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through

interactive pair and group work.

2. Paying attention to particular lexical items, language structures, and communicative functions through the interactive tasks.
3. Providing pupils to develop successful communication strategies.
4. Creating positive classroom climate. [Richards and Rodgers, p.193].

“CLL is thus an approach that crosses both mainstream education and second and foreign language teaching.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.193]. So, we may predict that Content-Based Instruction (CBI) refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the content that students will acquire.

It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught. This approach should according to Richards and Rodgers, activate and develop existing skills in English, acquire learning skills and strategies, and broaden pupils' understanding of people speaking English. Since these principles can be used in many different ways, it is highly probable to see CBI as one of the leading curricular language teaching approaches.

As the name suggests “Task-Based Teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.223]. It is somehow connected to the Communicative Language Teaching since:

1. Real communication activities are essential for language learning.
2. Activities carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning.
3. Learning process is supported by meaningful language to the learner. [Richards and Rodgers, p.223].

Richards and Rodgers further specify that employing tasks as a tool for promoting communication and authentic use of foreign language are the key principles of Task-Based Teaching. It should provide a more effective teaching and remain in the domain of ideology rather than fact [Richards and Rodgers,

p.223].

It is true that many of these methods are still being practiced nowadays and some of them have had a great influence on foreign language teaching. In general, the goal of many of the current methods and approaches is to teach students to communicate in the target language. According to Brown, current approaches to foreign language teaching are 'principled', since there is a finite number of principles for classroom practice, however, because of the topic of my thesis, I will focus only on one of them, which is the native language effect: The native language of learners will be a highly significant system on which learners will rely to predict the target-language system. Although that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering (positive and negative) effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient [Richards and Rodgers, p.13].

The fact is that the question whether to use or not to use the mother tongue in foreign language classroom has been one of the biggest dilemmas in the last century.

Beginning with the Grammar-Translation Method, the mother tongue played a crucial role here since the use of native language made an integral part of the teaching and learning process. It was around the early twentieth century, when several reform movements concerning the role of mother tongue appeared. Their main message was that the target language is a tool for communication and that the maximum use of target language would raise the effectiveness of teaching and learning. However, as Medgyes suggests: It is quite probable that the Reform Movement and its pedagogical off-springs, the Direct Method and subsequently the Audio-Lingual Method, would never have made such a strong impact on ELT if they had not been supported and, in fact, coerced by the profound and growing influence of English-speaking countries [Medgyes, p.66].

1.5. A View on the Foreign Language Teaching in Uzbekistan

Before following up on description of Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition I will briefly define the school educational programme in Uzbekistan to provide its basic vision of foreign language education. The description will be derived from so called Frame Educational Program for the primary education which describe what pupils should know, understand, and what they should be able to do as a result of the education provided to them. Since 1991, there is a strong emphasis on modern language teaching in all kinds of schools. More attention to the foreign languages learning is paid during the last 3 years. Moreover, in 2012 the President of our country worked out a special decision "About the Complication of Measures for Developing the System of Foreign Languages Learning" [About the Complication, p.1-2]. It provides the development of the system of foreign language learning in Uzbekistan and suggests practical ways to obtain this purpose.

Beside elementary education, pupils have options to attend pre-school nursery schools introducing modern languages in form of games and songs, secondary schools, lyceums, universities and colleges. All pupils should become proficient in at least one language in addition to Uzbek language. Pupils of modern languages should be able to speak, read, write and understand the foreign language they study. Since language acquisition is a lifelong process, foreign language teaching begin in a primary school in year three and it is a compulsory subject for all the pupils. From the beginning, pupils need opportunities to speak, listen, read, and write in order to develop communicative competence, understanding of how the language is constructed, and understanding of culturally-appropriate interactions. Beside the communicative competence, there are also learning, problem solving, social and personnel, civil and working competences. Effective foreign language

teaching integrate the study of a target language with the study of culture, its daily life, history, and literature which means that foreign language teaching provide natural links to all other subjects and disciplines. One of the most important goals of modern language study not only in Uzbekistan is the development of communicative competence in foreign languages, which will be described in more detail in the next chapter. In addition, it should be mentioned that English language in Uzbekistan has been taught as a foreign language not as a second language since there is a difference between these two terms. In English as a Second Language (ESL) situation, the learner is learning English within an English environment and needs to understand and speak English outside the classroom too which is a great advantage in comparison to EFL programme. In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) situation, there is basically a homogenous group of learners of the same linguistic and cultural background [<http://www.linguistic-funland.com/mele.faq>].

Pupils learn English inside of a classroom, but continue to speak their native language outside the classroom. They do not have adequate access to the target language outside of the classroom and practice what they have learned during the lessons. Since pupils have no or a little chance to use a foreign language elsewhere the teachers should provide them abundant exposure to the target language with little or no use of the mother tongue in accordance to the current communicative approach.

1.6. Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition

This part deals with a brief description of the Krashen's widely known and well accepted theory of second language acquisition, which has had a large impact in all areas of foreign language research and teaching since the 1980s. There has been a little research dealing with the ways in which someone acquires a second or foreign language. In 1983, Krashen published the

results of his research and paved the way for a revolution in this field. His theory consists of five main hypotheses:

1. The Acquisition-Learning hypothesis
2. The Monitor hypothesis
3. The Natural Order hypothesis
4. The Input hypothesis
5. The Affective Filter hypothesis [Richards and Rodgers, p.181-183].

This five-point hypothesis focused on the difference between the acquisition and the learning of a second language. According to Krashen, "Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding." [Krashen, p.18].

The Acquisition-Learning distinction is the basic one of all the hypothesis in Krashen's theory and the most widely known among linguists and language practitioners. It makes a distinction between 'acquisition', which Krashen defines as developing competence by using language for 'real communication' and 'learning', which he defines as 'knowing about' or 'formal knowledge' of a language [Krashen, p.26]. According to Krashen, there are two independent systems of second language performance: 'the acquired system' and 'the learned system'. The 'acquired' system or 'acquisition' is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers are concentrated not in the form of their utterances, but in the communicative act [Krashen, p.29].

The 'learned' system or learning is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge about the language, for example knowledge of grammar rules. "Formal teaching is necessary for 'learning' to occur, and correction of errors helps

with the development of learned rules. Learning, according to this theory, cannot lead to acquisition.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.181].

The Monitor hypothesis account for association with acquisition and learning. The monitoring function, according to Schutz, is the practical result of the grammar which is learned [Schutz, p.12]. Krashen further establishes that the acquisition is the utterance initiator, while the learning part is a monitor or an editor [Schutz, p.12]. The successful use of the monitor limits three conditions which are sufficient time for a learner, focus on form and knowledge of rules [Richards and Rodgers, p.182]. The role of conscious learning is somehow limited in second language performance. According to Krashen, the role of the monitor should be minor. He also suggests that there is an individual variation among language learners regarding the use of the monitor. He distinguishes three types of learners on the basis of the time spent on using the monitor:

-over-users use the monitor all the time

-under-users have not learned or prefer not to use their conscious knowledge

-optimal users use the monitor appropriately [Schutz, p.19].

An evaluation of the persons psychological profile may be in linkage to the level of monitor usage. The third hypothesis is called The Natural Order hypothesis. “The acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.182].

Some grammatical rules tend to be acquired early while the others late in the first language acquisition of English, and a similar natural order is found in second language acquisition [Schutz, p.52]. “However, Krashen points out that the implication of the natural order hypothesis should not be applied to language teaching. In fact, he rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition.” [Krashen, p.26]. The Input hypothesis explains how the learner acquires a second language. “Acquisition requires exposure to the target-language production (input) at an adequate level of difficulty

that is comprehensible via linguistic and extralinguistic context.” [European Commission, p.40]. According to Krashen, the learner improves and progresses along the ‘natural order’ when he/she receives second language ‘input’ that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. [Schutz, p.78]. “An acquirer can ‘move’ from a stage I to a stage I + 1 by understanding language containing I + 1.” [Krashen, p.26]. Since not all of the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that natural communicative input is the key to designing a syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence [Schutz, p.182].

Finally, the Affective Filter hypothesis includes a view that a number of ‘affective variables’ play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition [Schutz, p.56]. These variables related to second language acquisition are:

1. Motivation. Learners with high motivation generally do better.
2. Self-confidence. Learners with self-confidence tend to be more successful.
3. Anxiety. Low personal and classroom anxiety are more conducive to second language acquisition. [Richards and Rodgers, p.183].

It means that positive affect is necessary, but not sufficient on its own, for acquisition to take place.

Truly, Krashen had made the incredible contribution to the second language education. He argued that people learning foreign languages follow basically the same way as they acquire their mother tongue and thus the use of native language should be minimized in the learning process. Krashen himself tells about what he was trying to achieve: “It is possible that ‘no pain, no gain’ does not apply to language acquisition” [Krashen, p.423]. Definitely this may be true for recent communicative methods when compared to older methods. Foreign language

learning is a very complex process, with many factors involved and thus there is simply not only one comprehensive theory to guide teachers at their profession. According to Russell, “the pending change in second-language teaching is often called an ‘incomplete revolution’ because the educational establishment refuses to implement the system” although it has got acknowledged merits, choosing instead to weaken in the mediocrity we face today [<http://www.tcnj.edu/~russell2/Krashen>]. This chapter focused on the changing role of mother tongue throughout the history. The fact is that the mother tongue use in the foreign language classroom has been always controversial among linguists and teachers, of course. Nowadays it can be said that the communicative approach has received wide support. I agree that the target language should be used as the main language and as a medium of communication however; I believe that the mother tongue has also got its role in foreign language classroom. Its role is minimal but facilitating pupils’ learning and language acquisition when needed.

CHAPTER II. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

In this chapter we will look at the term communicative competence since it is closely related to the second and foreign language teaching. I will consider some of the definitions of communicative competence in language and the ways in which this term has been interpreted. Nowadays, one of the most important goals of foreign language teaching, as the preceding chapter confirmed, is the development of communicative competence within the current communicative approaches. Communicative competence is the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish goals of communication. The learning process acquires the ability to communicate competently, not the ability to use the language exactly as a native speaker does. It means that pupils who have developed communicative competence in a foreign language are able to successfully convey and receive messages. These pupils are then able to use a

foreign language in everyday life and situations. However, development of communicative competence in language teaching has gone through a long path.

2.1. Definition of Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is a linguistic term which refers to a learner's ability not only to apply and use grammatical rules, but also form correct utterances, and know how to use these utterances appropriately (Internet 8). According to Savignon, "the development of the concept of communicative competence as it relates to language teaching can be traced to two sources, one theoretical, the other practical." [Savignon, p.10]. The first one is connected to psychology, linguistics, and communication theory, the other one comes from pedagogical needs and concerns. The notion of communicative competence "looks at language not as individual behaviour but as one of many symbolic systems that members of a society use for communication among themselves." [Savignon, p.12]. People and the languages are viewed in their social context.

The term communicative competence has received several different interpretations. It was introduced by Dell Hymes in 1966, reacting against the perceived inadequacy of Noam Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. This means that Chomsky coined another term, communicative performance. "Once communicative competence appeared [it] became synonymous with progressive, innovative teaching" [Savignon, p.1], it has been expanded considerably, and various types of competences have been proposed. However, the basic idea of communicative competence remains the ability to use language appropriately, both receptively and productively, in real situations. Savignon considers five characteristics of communicative competence:

1. Communicative competence is a dynamic rather than a static concept.

2. Communicative competence applies to both written and spoken language, as well as to many other symbolic systems.
 3. Communicative competence is context specific.
 4. There is a difference between competence and performance.
 5. Communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the involved participants.
- [Savignon, p.8-9].

To simplify these characteristics, number one suggests that communicative competence is an interpersonal rather than intrapersonal attribute since it depends on the negotiation of meaning between people who share the same symbolic system; number three assigns that communication takes place in different situations, and success depends on the context understanding; number four suggests that competence is what one knows, whereas performance is what one does [Savignon, p.8-9].

In the mid-twentieth century, linguist Noam Chomsky moved linguistic studies away from structuralist concerns with procedures for isolating phonemes and morphemes in linguistic description. Unlike the structural linguists like Bloomfield focused on surface features of phonology and morphology, Chomsky concerned himself with 'deep' semantic structures, or the way in which sentences are understood. Transformational-generative grammar focused on the underlying grammatical competence assumed to be common to all native speakers. The distinction made by Chomsky between this underlying grammatical competence and its over manifestation in language performance is important to an understanding of Chomskyan linguistics and the reactions it provoked [Savignon, p.11].

While those structural linguists interested in surface forms of language relied on native speakers' speech and writing, Chomsky considered such samples inadequate since: Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-hearer, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows

its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, directions, shifts of attention and interest, errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance [Chomsky, p.3].

“For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.159]. However, such a statement of linguistic theory criticizes Hymes as irrelevant as far as the language problems of disadvantaged children are concerned [Acar, p.37]. It is very improbable that such an ideal speaker-hearer exists. “We seek to understand and help such a statement may seem almost a declaration of irrelevance. All the difficulties that confront the children and ourselves seem swept from view.” [Acar, p. 39]. Further, “Hymes looks at the real speaker-listener in that feature of language of which Chomsky gives no account: social interaction.” [Savignon, p.11]. Hymes’s theory is a more general theory involving communication and culture and suggests four parameters to the systems of rules that underlie communicative behavior [Savignon, p.12]:

1. Whether (and to what extent) something is formally possible.
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available.
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated.
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails. [Savignon, p.12].

With respect to each of the parameters listed above, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both ability and knowledge for language use [Richards and Rodgers, p.159]. Moreover, the ability for use includes non-cognitive factors such as motivation, attitude,

and general interactional competence, that is, composure, courage, and sportsmanship, which mean that people vary not only in their knowledge, but also in their ability to use that knowledge, and hence the way a speaker's communicative competence develops is unpredictable [Savignon, p.12]. Concerning this suggestion, the learner must not only be linguistically competent but also communicatively competent, having "the knowledge of linguistic and related communicative conventions that speakers must have to create and sustain conversational cooperation" [Gumperz, p.209]. The distinction between the norms of behavior is connected to speech acts.

In a speech act the relationship between grammatical form and communicative function is accounted for by saying that each utterance is associated with a certain illocutionary force indicating device or illocutionary act potential, as it is mentioned by S. David [<http://www.2.aasa.ac.jp/~dcdycus/LAC99/MAR99/david399>]. Since the speech acts are not cross-culturally comparable, learners of English must be made consciously aware of the differences in certain speech acts when used by a native speaker of English and by a second language learner of the language because the values and cultural norms underlying the English language which a non-native speaker uses are not necessarily the same as those of a native speaker .

This means that learners of the second language should be aware of these cultural differences to improve their communicative competence. Savignon adds: "we need to look at what people say in context rather than at the possible linguistic production of an 'ideal' speaker who knows all the formal rules." [Savignon, p.15].

"Another linguistic theory of communication is Halliday's functional account of language use." [Richards and Rodgers, p.159].

Linguistics is concerned with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus [Richards and Rodgers,

p.159].

Savignon supports both Halliday and Hymes and sums up: “A language function has to do with what is said as opposed to how something is said.” [Savignon, p.35]. Learning a second language was similarly viewed by proponents of Communicative Language Teaching as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions.

Another theorist who concerned the views on the communicative competence of language was Henry Widdowson. According to Richards and Rodgers, Widdowson focused on the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes and presented a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse [Richards and Rodgers, p.160].

Speech acts are in general acts of communication. To communicate is to express a certain attitude, and the type of speech act being performed corresponds to the type of attitude being expressed. For example, a statement expresses a belief, a request expresses a desire, and an apology expresses regret. As an act of communication, a speech act succeeds if the audience identifies, in accordance with the speaker’s intention, the attitude being expressed [<http://online.sfsu.edu/~kbach/spchacts>].

2.2. Components of Communicative Competence

According to Canale and Swain, communicative competence consists of four components which are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Together these four components suggest a model of communicative competence as a basis for curriculum design and classroom practice [Canale and Swain, p.35].

Grammatical competence, according to Richards and Rodgers, “refers to what Chomsky calls linguistic competence. It is domain of grammatical and lexical

capacity.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.160]. Sociolinguistic competence “refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.160].

Discourse competence is concerned with the connection of utterances to form a meaningful whole. And, finally, Strategic competence “refers to the coping strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.160].

Canale and Swain’s extension of the Hymesian model of communicative competence was in turn elaborated in some complexity by Bachman. The Bachman model has been, in turn, extended by Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell.

There is also another distinction of communicative language components, which is provided by Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. It suggests a comprising of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence [Common European, p.46]. According to this framework, linguistic competences are concerned with the lexical, phonological, syntactical knowledge and skills and other dimensions of language as a system. It relates not only to a quality of knowledge but also to cognitive organization, to the way how the knowledge is stored and to its accessibility. Sociolinguistic competences refer to the sociocultural conditions of language use, which are for example the rules of politeness, norms between sexes and classes, linguistic codification. Pragmatic components are related to the functional use of production of language functions and speech acts, discourse, cohesion and coherence, the identification of text types and forms and the impact of interaction [Common European, p.13].

2.3. Teaching for Communicative Competence

The atmosphere is alive with sounds and laughter. The buzz of conversation

fills the air. Voices are raised to be a part of the action. Communication is taking place. This is a gathering of conversation partners - English language learners practicing their English... [Olson, p.7].

Over the years, views how best to teach English shifted from grammar translation, memorizing and drills to using language in real-life context. Nowadays, probably the most accepted way is communicative language teaching with a goal of increasing communicative competence, which means the ability “to understand and interpret messages, understand the social contexts, apply the rules of grammar, and employ strategies to keep communication from breaking down [Moss, p.53]. According to Moss, “The primary principle underlying CLT is that language learners need opportunities to use the language in authentic conversations.” [Moss, p.54]. In other words, in developing communicative competence being understood is more important than using correct vocabulary or grammar. Also the interaction in target language plays a crucial role in second language teaching and learning. “Understanding the concept of interlanguage, which is language spoken by nonnative speakers is key to understanding interaction.” [Moss, p.54]. Moss further specifies that although the communication during the interaction may collapse, the listener can ask for clarification or confirmation [Moss, p.5]. In the process of language teaching, interactive language involves both the teacher and learner in situations leading to language development and therefore to development of communicative competence.

The teacher is responsible for providing opportunities for interaction in which learners control the topics and discourse. Therefore Moss suggests eight strategies for effective interaction:

1. Logically sequenced lesson plan.
2. Releasing control over learners.
3. Facilitating learner-to-learner interactions by monitoring.

4. Initiating interaction by using a variety of questions.
5. Understanding that interaction does not necessarily mean only verbal participation.
6. Pair and group work promote interaction.
7. Effectively implementing group work.
8. Teaching learners strategies to negotiate meaning [Moss, p.6].

According to Olson, there are several goals in these strategies for example that the learner understands his role in communication, conversation can be maintained by using these strategies or that learner is responsible for selecting strategies. These communicative strategies along with other things help learners in developing communicative competence in conversation [Olson, p.7].

Brown sums up: Given that communicative competence is the goal of a language classroom, instruction needs to point toward all of its components: organizational, pragmatic, strategic, and psychomotoric. Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students' eventual need to apply classroom learning to heretofore unrehearsed contexts in the real world [Brown, p.13].

According to Leloup and Ponterio, the fact is that pupils do not acquire communicative competence by learning the elements of the language system first since pupils do not learn foreign language by memorizing vocabulary items in isolation and by producing limited simple sentences. Not always those pupils who know grammar well may be able to understand a foreign language outside the classroom. The study of the language system itself does not always result in the development of the ability to produce language in real-life situations and to respond meaningfully in appropriate ways [Leloup, Ponterio, p.44].

The fact is that pupils learn a foreign language well when

they are provided opportunities to use the target language to communicate in a variety of activities. The more learners use the target language in meaningful situations, the more rapidly they achieve competence.

CHAPTER III. THE MOTHER TONGUE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

3.1. Introducing General Problems in the Field

The question whether to use the pupils' mother tongue has been one of the biggest dilemmas throughout the history of foreign language teaching. The current monolingual approach suggests that the target language should be used as the base for communication to maximize the effectiveness of learning the target language. Therefore, my research aims to investigate the teacher's use of mother tongue in English language classroom. It is closely connected with the theoretical part, since the research should find out whether the teacher trainees of English are able to conduct their lessons mostly in English according to the current communicative movement described in the second chapter. To achieve this goal, it will be observed in what situations, phases of the lesson and how effectively the teacher trainees use their mother tongue instead of the target language. For this purpose, a set of thirty video recordings of the teacher trainees was chosen. The video recordings were taken during the year project, which will be now briefly described.

A previous chapter focused on the synchronic view on the role of mother tongue proved that so called communicative approach began to prevail. This naturally follows the goal of foreign language teaching to use the language for communication and thus develop communicative competence. However, communicative competence cannot be developed without using English in the foreign language classroom as often as possible and without establishing English

as the main language for communication. This does not mean that the mother tongue should be banned altogether, since recent studies indicate that appropriate and judicious use of mother tongue can play a significant role in foreign language teaching and successful target language acquisition. As mentioned earlier, the question whether or not to use the mother tongue in foreign language classroom accompanies this thesis from the very beginning. As Krashen presents, exposure to comprehensible input is crucial for successful language acquisition. To make input comprehensible, the use of mother tongue is generally necessary [Krashen, p.51]. Also Willis suggests: Banning mother-tongue use altogether may not be advisable. A study carried out recently in Azerbaijan secondary school classes with 12-year-olds revealed that in circumstances when the mother tongue was totally banned in group talk, the resulting interaction tended to be shorter, more stilted and less natural. Many weaker students gave up after a very short time. If learners realize they are using the target language to communicate, they will still use their mother tongue on occasions, but they will use it in a way which is systematic, supportive and relevant to the task goal [Krashen, p.46].

In connection to Willis's suggestion, I will bring back Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis, arguing that when a learner is tense, anxious, bored or angry, the affective filter as a kind of imaginary barrier, blocks out the available input. I would stress that a minimal use of mother tongue can be a facilitating teaching tool however, things that can be done in the target language should be done so. Willis in the introductory unit to her book *Teaching English through English* provides some of the situations for convenient target language use: Gestures and tone of voice are at first more important than the actual words or phrases used to tell students what to do and how to do it. But if beginners yet get used to hearing nothing but English spoken during their English lesson, they will very soon understand and later learn to say words like 'good', 'altogether' etc. So as well as learning the specific

language items that are actually being taught in the lesson, they will also be practicing unconsciously a number of language skills, and beginning to think in English for themselves, thereby reducing the amount of interference from L1, their mother tongue.

This means that when teachers teach English merely in the target language, pupils will not only become familiar with their foreign language but they will be later able to produce new structures themselves since “language is much better learnt through real use than through pattern drills and exercises.” [Willis, p.2]. Willis further specifies that also the very first lessons of English are possible to teach in English only, but it is very important to persuade pupils of the advantages of classroom English, which can be accompanied by a demonstration [Willis, p.2]. “Whenever a new classroom item is introduced, it should be accompanied by gesture or demonstration to make the meaning clear as possible.” [Willis, p.2]. Every time pupils say something relevant in their mother tongue, the teacher should say the same thing in English and make pupils to repeat it, after some time pupils will respond in English naturally [Willis, p.3]. Sometimes it may be easier to introduce the target language in the classroom slowly, in classes that have learnt English for some time before, it is good at first to keep mainly to the vocabulary and structures that they have come across before. Later, other useful phrases can be introduced [Willis, p.5]. However, Willis confirms my opinion that unless teachers teach multi-lingual classes, they may not speak English all the time, and sometimes it might be more economical to use mother tongue instead of English. This can be done for example when:

1. Explaining the meaning or use of new words would be time-consuming.
2. Introducing the aims of the lesson or the next activity to make sure pupils know what they are learning.
3. When checking of pupils' understanding after the presentation stage.
4. Discussing the main ideas of a reading passage, but only when the aim is to

improve the reading skills.

5. Pupils got teachers permission to use their mother tongue, but it is important to make clear when pupils must stop using the mother tongue and return to English. [Willis, p.2].

We may add some other possibilities:

- Classroom management.
- Language analysis.
- Presenting grammar rules.
- Discussing cross-cultural issues.
- Giving instructions and prompts.
- Explaining errors.
- Checking comprehension.

As stated above, the reasonable use of mother tongue can play its role in some cases, but the target language should remain the main language. It may sometimes happen that pupils keep using their mother tongue rather than a target language in the foreign language classroom. In that case Willis proposes reassuring whether pupils are not eventually bored or whether they are unsure about something [Willis, p.19], which is once again related to Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis. It might indicate that something is wrong with the lesson, and a change of activity would be needed. Harmer suggests that this may happen because pupils want to say something important, and the easier way how to do it is to use their native language [Willis, p.129]. Nonetheless, Harmer also proposes a number of things that teacher can do when these situations occur:

1. Talking to pupils about the issue: teachers can discuss with pupils how they feel about using English and their mother tongue in the classroom.
2. Encouraging pupils to use English appropriately.
3. Responding only to English use: teachers can ignore what pupils say in their

mother tongue.

4. Creating an English environment: teachers themselves should use the target language for the majority of time, so that pupils are constantly exposed to English.
5. Keeping reminding pupils: teachers should go on in encouraging pupils to use English [Harmer, p.129-130]

These Harmer's suggestions how to deal with over-sing the mother tongue can be labeled as strategies for encouraging more target language use in the classroom. Concerning his point about creating an English environment, I would add that teachers should also establish rules of conduct in the classroom, so that pupils know about the expectation to use the target language. In addition, pupils must believe that the target language is important throughout their lives.

Since there are several factors influencing teachers choice of mother tongue or target language, teacher should be able to find the best way how to involve mother tongue, if necessary, but with respect to current communicative approach and its demand for increasing amount of target language in the foreign language classroom.

3.2. Teaching Skills

As well as the methods and approaches in English language teaching have changed throughout the history the same happened to the status of the four skills. Target language use in the foreign language classroom must be used as much as possible. It is not the level of the pupils which is important, but there are four basic things that students need to do with their foreign language. They need to be exposed to their foreign language, understand its meaning, understand its form and of course, practise it. This part deals with these issues that are incorporated into the nature of each four

skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in some detail relevant to the topic of my thesis. According to Nation, there are roughly four equal opportunities for learning through these skills:

1. Meaning focused input – learning through listening and reading.
2. Meaning focused output – learning through speaking and writing.
3. Language focused learning – learning through deliberate attention to language features.
4. Fluency development – learning through working with known material across the four skills at a higher level than usual level of performance. [Nation, p.75].

3.3. The Nature of Listening

From the period when listening was a kind of a neglected skill, nowadays listening plays a more central role in foreign language teaching. “We cannot expect our learners to speak English without first hearing of English.” [Sanchez, p.78].

This cannot be done without using the target language as the main language. According to Anderson and Lynch, “Krashen has claimed that comprehension plays a central - and possibly predominant part - in the whole process of language learning.” [Anderson and Lynch, p.33]. “The changed status of listening in recent years was partly prompted by Krashen’s emphasis on the role of comprehension and comprehensible input.” [Richards and Rodgers, p.53]. Listeners were finally seen as actively involved in constructing meaning, based on expectations, and selective processing of input. Listening became an interpretive process and authenticity in materials an important part in foreign language teaching [Richards and Rodgers, p.54]. Current views on teaching listening argue upon the following assumptions:

1. Listening serves the goal of extracting meaning from messages.
2. In order to do this, learners have to be taught how to use both bottom-up and top-down processes⁸ in arriving at an understanding of messages.

3. The languages of utterances, that is, the precise word, syntax, expressions used by speakers are temporary carriers of meaning. Once meaning has been identified there is no further need to attend to the form of messages. [Richards and Rodgers, p.86].

Richards continues and lists a variety of teaching strategies and techniques to practice listening:

1. Predicting the meaning of messages.
2. Identifying key words and ignoring others while listening.
3. Using background knowledge to facilitate selective listening.
4. Keeping the broad meaning of a text in mind while listening [Richards and Rodgers, p.86].

The current position involves three-part lesson sequence, which consists of pre-listening, listening and post-listening. The pre-listening part should motivate pupils and prepare them for practice in listening part through activities involving making suggestions, predictions and reviewing key vocabulary. The listening part focuses on comprehension through exercises, which require for example selective listening or sequencing, and the post-listening part usually involves a response to comprehension and may require pupils to give opinions about the topic [Richards, p.87].

In the case of listening, communicative language teaching means producing pupils who are able to use their listening strategies to maximize their comprehension of input, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension. It is essential for the teachers to help pupils become effective listeners.

In the bottom-up design, first the individual parts of the system are specified in great detail. The parts are then linked together to form larger components, which are in turn linked until a complete system is formed.

This strategy often resembles a 'seed' model, whereby the

beginnings are small, but eventually grow in complexity and completeness.

In the top-down model an overview of the system is formulated, without going into detail for any part of it.

Each part of the system is then refined by designing it in more detail. Each new part may then be refined again, defining it in yet more detail until the entire specification is detailed enough to validate the model.

In the communicative approach, this means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations, which are pupils likely to use outside the classroom. Willis on the classroom language suggests that teacher should use all the time the same phrases and structures to refer to specific listening materials. For example:

1. Introducing the topic: We'll be listening to a part of... and then complete a worksheet.
2. Stating your aim: This is to give you practice in listening for the general idea.
3. Making prediction: Who knows something about this topic?
4. Revision of listening skills: Remember last lesson we learnt about...
5. Prepare to listen: So, are you ready to listen and answer these questions?
6. After listening: Well, that's it. We'll hear it again, but first finish...
7. Going over the activity: Alright. Let's go over that... [Willis, p.138].

L2 listening competence is a complex skill that needs to be developed consciously. It can best be developed with practice when students reflect on the process of listening without the threat of evaluation. Using listening activities to only test comprehension leads to anxiety which debilitates the development of metacognitive strategies. Strategy use positively impacts self-concept, attitudes, about learning and attributional beliefs about personal control [Borkowski, p.90]. Guiding students through the process of listening not only provides them with the knowledge by which they can

successfully complete a listening task; it also motivates them and puts them in control of their learning.

3.4. The Nature of Reading

Like listening, reading is a receptive skill, which is according to most of foreign language specialists also interactive, since a reader interacts with the text to create meaning as the readers mental process work together to at different levels [Barnett, p.152]. Barnett suggests effective reading strategies that support the target language use including the following:

1. Using titles and pictures to understand a passage.
2. Skimming.
3. Scanning.

Receptive in terms of the ability to comprehend information, it may include understanding of the vocabulary and concepts presented short-term memory and sequencing information.

1. Summarizing.
2. Guessing word meanings.
3. Become aware of the reading process.

The reading itself is divided into three stages which are pre-reading, reading and post-reading stages. Willis proposes when introducing a reading passage, pictures and titles which help us predict the subject matter, and also motivation to read with purpose and satisfaction [Willis, p.150]. Barnett explains that pre-reading activities should introduce pupils to a text; it may include for example discussing author, brainstorming, considering titles, skimming and scanning. Reading stage helps pupils develop reading strategies and improve their control of the foreign language. The teacher should provide concrete exercises such as guessing word meanings, word formation clues, predicting text context or reading for specific piece of information.

Post-reading should check pupils' comprehension and lead them to a deeper analysis of the text [Barnett, p158]. Moreover, none of these strategies requires the use of mother tongue since not every word must be understood.

It may happen that the text is too difficult for pupils. In that case, we suggest what teachers should do to avoid native language:

1. More background information!
2. Pre-teach key words the day before!
3. Divide text into short chunks!
4. Sign-post questions for main points!
5. Add discourse markers where helpful!
6. Ask easy questions!
7. Paraphrase difficult ideas!
8. Set easy tasks like matching questions and answers!
9. Praise and encouragement!

Willis further suggests classroom language that should be used for training in reading skills, understanding texts etc.:

-Introducing the text: What about the title? What do you know...?

-Beginning to read: Before you begin reading you'll need to understand...

-Talking about the text in detail: The tenth line from the top, what can he mean by...? Let's recap quickly. [Willis, p.148-149].

3.5. The Nature of Speaking

All of the skills are important, but Ur highlights speaking as the most important since "people who know the language are referred to as 'speakers' to that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing in learning to speak [Ur, p.120]. If this is true, classroom activities that teachers use to develop pupils' ability to express themselves is crucial. Ur further provides the characteristics of a successful speaking activity:

- Learners talk a lot.
- Participation is even.
- Motivation is high.
- Language is of an acceptable level. [Ur, p.120].

To reach all of these characteristics, teachers should:

- Use group work.
- Base the activity on easy language.
- Make a careful choice of topic and task to stimulate interest.
- Give some instruction or training in discussion skills.
- Keep students speaking the target language.

Moreover, we suggest examples of language teachers might use to leave the mother tongue out:

- Role play: Let's go back to the dialogue we practised about...
- Setting the scene with a picture or a social situation: We're going to do some role play now. Imagine...
- Promoting discussion: What could have happen earlier?; Come on, you could say...
- Explanation and description: In pair I want you to give someone else direction from your school to...
- Guessing games: Someone has to think of a famous person, someone we all know.
- Problem solving: When you have found out write down the differences, and call me.

However, when teachers try their best, but pupils keep using the native language: Probably the best way to keep pupils speaking the target language is simply to be there yourself as much as possible, reminding them and modeling the language use yourself: there is no substitute for nagging.

3.6. The Nature of Writing

Writing as the last but not least of the four skills has according to Harmer, “always formed part of the syllabus in the teaching of English.” [Harmer, p.31]. It has got of course many possibilities how to use it, ranging from writing for grammar purpose to the mastering ability to effective writing, but because of the topic of my thesis it will be described very briefly.

There are some reasons why write in class provided by Willis:

- To learn the motor skills of handwriting; to develop neatness, clarity and respect.
- To learn spelling and punctuation.
- To reinforce vocabulary and structures already mastered orally.
- To keep a written record of what has been learnt and achieved.
- To practise for end-of term achievement tests. [Willis, p.156].

The fact is that before pupils write, teachers should make sure that they:

- Can say it.
- Can read it.
- Can understand it.
- Know what you want them to do.
- Know how you want them to do it.
- Know why they are doing it.

All of these tasks stated above teachers have to perform when teaching writing to pupils, which is again interrelated to teaching listening, speaking and reading. Teachers have to provide examples and perform the tasks before, during, and after pupils writing. Among others, these tasks include demonstrating, motivating and provoking, supporting, responding and evaluating [Harmer, p.41-42].

As for the other skills, Willis provides a list of classroom language, referring to suitable writing exercises. For example:

1. Preparing to write: Before you begin to write lets see if you can tell me what you're going to write.
2. Giving instruction: So, you match these sentences, then write them carefully.

3. Details: Don't forget to write neatly.
4. Helping students to spot their mistakes: Check your spelling of...
5. Setting simple homework: For homework not now, could you finish writing this?
6. Student queries: Excuse me, Miss...I didn't hear [Willis, p.159-160].

All of these skills are important and all of them are closely linked. The fact is that teachers have to realize the effectiveness of the target language exposure to understand its meaning, understand its form and of course, practise it. As it is the meaning, form and practice that are hidden in each of the skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing.

3.7. Teaching English in the Classroom

This part is based on Halliwell's perception of teaching English to pupils. Halliwell suggests that foreign language speakers have been taking risk in using the foreign language while operating on partial information. It is not important that we do not understand everything what has been said to us, but that we are able to guess the bids as if we do understand everything. However, in the foreign language classroom teachers tend to check every word of English, they also say one sentence in English and then translate it into the mother tongue. Although this happens from the teacher's best motives, the constant checking implies that teachers expect the pupils to understand every word. The fact is that pupils are unlikely to be able to understand everything. Even in our mother tongue we do not understand everything, since we deal with the whole message. The real communication demands risk taking, without risks and mistakes we would not learn anything and thus teachers can teach foreign language through the medium of the target language itself. All of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing must be involved in the foreign language classroom, but the biggest contribution is in the spoken interaction among pupils.

Halliwell further proposes that teachers can leave pupils talking in pairs or groups doing so called information gap activities without fear that pupils will totally slip into their mother tongue. This example of the second form of real language use in the classroom contribute to the learning process by:

1. Encouraging pupils to predict meaning.
2. Providing element of indirect meaning.
3. Confirming that language is used for real situations.
4. Increasing the amount of exposure pupils get to the language.

This is because classroom talk is very limited so teachers can conduct the whole lesson almost entirely in English on a basis of a small number of phrases and structures [Halliwell, p.12-16]. The language used by the teacher should be very simple, since pupils respond very well to context and facial expression. There are several ways to help pupils understand such as:

- Using gesture while giving instructions and explaining.
- Demonstrating, miming, acting.
- Speaking simply, but with natural stress and intonation.
- Repeating and paraphrasing, giving pupils time to think it out for themselves sometimes.
- Giving lots of examples and using visual aids where possible.
- Establishing routines in class for various activities [Willis, p.84].

In this chapter we focused on the mother tongue in English language classroom. I tried to show that judicious use of mother tongue can be occasionally beneficial for pupils, but I am definitely not saying that teachers should abusing it by overusing. In addition, most of the suggestions follow current communicative approach and thus replace the use of mother tongue with other techniques if possible. Description of each four skills also provides a sample classroom language which teachers might use instead of native language. Since if teachers use the same language all the time, they will develop language routines that contribute to pupilsr understanding. As I said, there are some cases

when mother tongue might be occasionally used, but teachers must keep in mind that exposure and practice of the target language is the main thing if they want to reach their teaching goals. Concerning pupils, they should use their mother tongue only when it is permitted by the teacher and it is again the teacher, who has to stop pupils using it and ask to return to the target language.

Teachers should lead pupils on to perceiving target language as the means of communication and to using it for real-life situations. To recap, when pupils are accustomed to use the target language, they do not tend to need understand each word and they are able to successfully convey and perceive message, which is the goal of current foreign language teaching.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this thesis was to find out to what extent the mother tongue plays its role in foreign language teaching. In order to do this first we had to deal with issues like teaching methods and approaches throughout the history. Although we tried to be as objective as possible we cannot say that there is only one answer to the question and thus we understand that not everybody would agree with our ideas presented in this paper. Beginning with early teaching approaches, displayed in the first part, the focus on form later changed into developing pupils' communicative ability, which have shifted to adopting current communicative approaches such as The Natural Approach and Communicative Language Teaching. These approaches emphasize pupils' communicative competence, which is described in the third chapter. It suggests that without sufficient exposure needed for pupils to acquire the foreign language and to start to use a new knowledge, communicative competence is not likely to be upheld.

It is apparent from this paper that we support the idea that the target

language should remain the main language to be used in foreign language classroom however, with the appropriate and judicious use of mother tongue in some cases. We also encourage communicative approach arguing that pupils should be exposed to as much as possible to the target language use to allow its acquisition development considering that their foreign language class is the only opportunity when they get in contact with the foreign language.

Unlike the second language learners who have to use their second language in everyday life, the foreign language learners have not the same chance to the target language use outside the classroom so they cannot practice what they have learnt in the classroom.

Caused by the results, this research suggests two possible conclusions. First, it appears that teacher trainees use too much of the mother tongue in the foreign language classroom, which is not beneficial for pupils and their learning. Our assumptions about the frequency and amount of mother tongue were based on the fact that teachers should not overuse mother tongue in the classroom. Using the target language as much as possible should remain the main goal and therefore teachers should be aware of the redundant use of the mother tongue only to facilitate their job. Second, it appears that it is so easy for teacher trainees to use the mother tongue not as a useful technique to solve difficult concept or situation, but as the main teaching approach. There are several situations when the mother tongue should not be used, however most of them combined with mother tongue was used just by teacher trainees.

In the third chapter, the possibility when to use the mother tongue in foreign language classroom is presented based on the fact that a judicious use of the mother tongue can sometimes have both pedagogical and effective role in the communicative language classroom. However, we want to stress out that teachers must keep in mind that the target language should remain the main language.

In the practical part of my thesis we tried to investigate to what extent and in

what situations the teacher trainees use their mother tongue. The research based on observing thirty audio and video recordings examined the amount of mother tongue the teacher trainees used during their own teaching. Although we believed that our research would prove the theoretical part foundations and strengthen our beliefs, the results showed a complete flip side. Based on the results, we tried to find the cause of such a failure, which may lie mainly in teacher trainees' teaching experience or their problems to provide a comprehensible input to pupils.

Although we find our results useful the major limitation of our findings might be a relatively small sample of participants so in case of further research we would suggest to have a larger sample of teacher trainees.