

Code Switching as a Grammar Teaching Strategy in Saudi Arabian EFL Classrooms

Amirah Nasser Almansour

School of Humanities and Communication Arts

Western Sydney University

2016

A Thesis Submitted to The School of Humanities and Communication Arts,
Western Sydney University, in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my loving parents, Dr. Nasser Almansour and Lateefah Aljamhan, who are the reason for what I have become today. I am grateful for their continuous support and encouragement, as well as for their prayers, which have been answered.

Father, words cannot describe my deepest love and gratitude. I admire your knowledge and wisdom. I am inspired by you and honoured to be able to follow in your footsteps.

Mother, infinite being of love, light and generosity, I am eternally grateful for all you have done and all you have given. You are truly a magnificent person. Thank you for your constant support and guidance.

A special feeling of gratitude goes to my husband Dr. Khalid Alhomoud. Without his patience, understanding, support, and most of all, love, the completion of this work would not have been possible. I also dedicate my work to my precious children Faisal and Abdulrahman, and to my baby girl Mafaz, who has made my life a bit challenging yet so much more enjoyable. Thank you for tolerating my absence during the last four years.

Finally, many thanks and appreciation to all of my family, especially my sisters and brothers in Saudi Arabia, who believed in my ability to achieve this degree.

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

Acknowledgements

It is hard to overstate my gratitude to my supervisors Associate Professor Mustapha Taibi and Associate Professor Ruying Qi. I am very thankful for the inspirational guidance, encouragement and advice they have provided throughout my candidature.

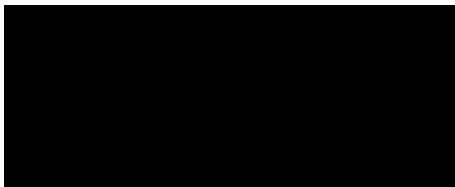
I would like to express my appreciation to Professor Alexander Yeung, who was my associate supervisor during the initial stage of my candidature and who provided me with guidance on statistical methods. Furthermore, I would also like to thank the staff of the School of Humanities and Communication Arts, Western Sydney University, for their help and assistance during the last four years. Thanks to Gillian Warry and Dr. Michelle Hall for proofreading and formatting. Finally, I gratefully acknowledge King Saud University for their scholarship and for offering me the valuable opportunity to undertake this doctoral degree.

Statement of Originality

The work presented in this thesis is to the best of my knowledge and belief, original except as acknowledged in the text. I hereby declare that I have not submitted this material, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other institution.

Amirah Nasser Almansour

Signature:



Date: 01 August 2016

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES	V
LIST OF FIGURES	VI
PUBLICATIONS	VII
ABSTRACT	VIII
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Context of the study	2
1.2 Aim and scope	4
1.3 Research questions	5
1.4 Significance of the study.....	6
1.5 Thesis structure	7
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
2.1 Research domain	9
2.2 Grammar teaching methods.....	9
2.2.1 Brief history.....	10
2.2.2 Structure based methods.....	12
2.2.3 Communicative based methods.....	14
2.2.4 Form focused methods	16
2.3 The EFL classroom.....	19
2.3.1 Differences between EFL and ESL classrooms.....	20
2.3.2 Language of instruction in EFL classrooms.....	22
2.3.3 EFL classrooms around the world.....	25
2.3.4 Translanguaging.....	28
2.3.5 Usage of L1 in the Saudi EFL classroom.....	29

2.4 Code switching and the EFL classroom.....	31
2.4.1 Language contact	31
2.4.2 Types of code switching.....	34
2.4.3 Theoretical frameworks of code switching	35
2.4.4 Code switching in the classroom.....	41
2.5 Research gap	42
2.5.1 Findings relating to CS in the Saudi EFL classroom.....	42
2.5.2 What types of code switching can be used in grammar learning?.....	43
2.5.3 Is there any specific amount of teachers' code switching that is beneficial for students' learning?	43
2.6 Chapter summary	43
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY.....	45
3.1 Research questions	45
3.2 Hypothesis.....	46
3.3 Measurement and sample population selection	47
3.3.1 Sample population.....	47
3.3.2 Grammar class setting	48
3.4 Recruitment process.....	48
3.4.1 Ethics and prearrangements.....	49
3.4.2 Differences in code switching.....	49
3.4.3 Selection of participants	50
3.5 Syllabus and schedule	51
3.6 Instrument design	52
3.6.1 Qualitative instruments	52
3.6.2 Quantitative instruments	52
3.6.3 Recording of teachers' talk	53
3.6.4 Transcription and coding	53
3.6.5 Test question development.....	54
3.6.6 Survey question development.....	57
3.7 Data collection and management.....	60
3.7.1 Data format.....	60
3.7.2 Variable grouping	62

3.8 Chapter summary	63
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS	65
4.1 Units of analysis	66
4.1.1 Transcription of teachers' talk.....	66
4.1.2 Pre- and post-tests	68
4.1.3 Attitude survey	68
4.2 Transcription of teachers' talk.....	68
4.2.1 Overall distribution of CS	69
4.2.2 Sentence grouping from the transcription.....	71
4.3 Pre- and post-test results.....	83
4.3.1 Brief explanation of class syllabus.....	83
4.3.2 Brief explanation of tests.....	84
4.3.3 Overall improvement from pre- to post-test	86
4.3.4 Improvement from pre- to post-test based on topic	88
4.3.5 Attitude comparison survey results	95
4.4 Summary of findings.....	107
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION	110
5.1 Teacher CS and students' grammar learning	111
5.1.1 More code switching by the teacher	111
5.1.2 Less code switching by the teacher.....	118
5.1.3 Code switching as a hindrance to learning	120
5.1.4 An alternative approach.....	122
5.2 Teacher's CS for non-learning related activities	123
5.2.1 Providing encouragement.....	123
5.2.2 Administrative activities.....	125
5.2.3 Building rapport.....	127
5.3 Effect of students' attitude	128
5.4 Comparison of findings with existing research on CS in Saudi Arabia	129
5.5 Chapter summary	129
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION.....	131

6.1 Summary of aims and methodology	131
6.2 Summary of the findings	133
6.3 Contributions of the study	136
6.4 Limitations of the study	137
6.5 Recommendations for the way forward	138
6.5.1 Recommendations for future research.....	138
6.5.2 Recommendations for teaching.....	140
REFERENCES.....	141
APPENDICES	161
Appendix A: Pre- and post-test questions	162
Appendix B: Detailed statistics of survey	165
Appendix C: Detailed statistics of test scores	181
Appendix D: Questionnaire	186
Appendix E: Transcription.....	189

List of Tables

Table 1: List of selected measurement instruments	47
Table 2: Total number of student participants for pre- and post-test and attitude survey from Grammar 3 class.....	51
Table 3: Number of weeks each topic was covered during entire semester	52
Table 4: Coding category for analysing teacher’s talk	54
Table 5: Types of test questions and the topics covered in pre- and post-test questions.....	55
Table 6: Survey topics and how each topic is related to code switching.....	58
Table 7: Legends and measurement used to analyse pre- and post-test results	62
Table 8: Data type of attitude survey questions	63
Table 9: An example of how each sentence from the teacher’s talk was coded in its respective coding group	66
Table 10: An example of how the teacher’s talk was coded according to classroom activity	72
Table 11: An example of the teacher’s explanation of grammatical rules using English and code switching.....	73
Table 12: Topics covered in the pre- and post-tests	85
Table 13: Marks and improvement between pre- and post-test results in both classes	87

List of Figures

Figure 1: Distribution of language or code switching in classroom recordings	70
Figure 2: Distribution of code switching by activity type or function in Class A	74
Figure 3: Distribution of code switching in teaching and learning activities in Class A.....	76
Figure 4: Distribution and classification of code switching in Class B.....	80
Figure 5: Distribution of code switching in teaching and learning activities in Class B.....	81
Figure 6: Distribution of scores in both classes in pre- and post-tests by question	88
Figure 7: Survey results relating to attitude towards effectiveness of CS in learning.....	97
Figure 8: Survey results relating to role of CS in class atmosphere	98
Figure 9: Survey result relating to CS and empathizing (teacher-student relationship).....	99
Figure 10: Survey result of CS and class engagement.....	100
Figure 11: Survey result of explanation of grammar rules with CS	101
Figure 12: Survey results of explanation of difficult vocabulary using CS.....	102
Figure 13: Survey result of using CS to link between concept and meaning	103
Figure 14: Survey result of using CS to cooperate with other classmates.....	104
Figure 15: Survey result of CS as a confidence booster	105
Figure 16: Survey result of CS and speaking.....	106
Figure 17: Survey result of teachers' CS to increase English grammar understanding.....	107

Publications

Almansour, A. (2015) Code Switching as a Grammar Teaching Strategy in Saudi Arabian Female EFL Classrooms, *Australian Linguistic Society Annual Conference*, 9-11 Dec 2015, Sydney, Australia.

Almansour, A. (2013) Code Switching as a Language Learning Strategy Used by Saudi Arabian Female EFL Learners, 2nd Symposium on Bilingualism and Intercultural Communication, 7 August 2014, Sydney, Australia.

Abstract

Research into code switching can be categorized into five study approaches: the grammatical approach, the sociolinguistic approach, the psycholinguistic approach, the conversation approach and the pragmatic approach. Among these approaches, in recent years linguistic researchers have shown a growing interest in investigating the use of code switching from a grammatical angle, especially in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. Subsequently, in many geographic and ethnic contexts, researchers have found code switching (CS) to be a potentially effective way to improve language learning. Some researchers have also found code switching to be a useful metalanguage tool for enhancing students' understanding of the target language in the EFL classroom. However, opinions about using code switching in EFL learning are polarised, and, in some cases, the use of code switching in the language classroom is considered to be a stigmatised practice. Keith Gilyard suggested that it is a form of enforced educational schizophrenia, while Young contends that code switching breeds linguistic confusion. Similarly, some language teachers find switching languages in the same sentence unacceptable and a demonstration of semi-lingualism in the classroom.

This research investigated whether code switching is an effective grammar learning strategy in the EFL classroom. Language learning strategies are difficult to make generalisations about and vary greatly from one ethnic and gender group to another, and Saudi Arabian female EFL learners are underrepresented in the academic literature. Therefore, this research focused on Saudi Arabian female EFL learners to find out whether code switching can help them to more effectively learn grammar. Two university EFL classrooms were selected for the experiment: in one class, the teacher conducted more CS (in more than 60% of teacher talk), and, in another class, the teacher conducted less CS (in around 1% of teacher talk). Based on the results of pre- and post-tests in these two classrooms, it was found that using CS was not an effective grammar learning strategy for Saudi Arabian female EFL learners. Although these results do not support using CS, an attitude survey

conducted among students found that students do prefer their teachers to code switch and they also think that they learn more when the teacher switches code. The findings of this research may be useful in helping teachers in Saudi Arabian EFL classrooms to modify their practices in order to enhance student learning.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) has gained a remarkable amount of global attention in recent years (Barber, Beal, & Shaw, 2012; Hinkel, 2012). There are various social and economic reasons for this interest, including, but not limited to, globalisation (Hsieh, 2010) and the rise of new opportunities through the internet. The search for a “magic pill” for how to learn a new language has prompted research in many countries but the answer has been elusive. Many studies have been undertaken from various angles, some very innovative, such as the usage of games (Meyer, Sørensen, & Andreasen, 2013), Facebook and other social network sites (Yen, Hou, & Chang, 2012), collaborative concept maps (Sudo & Takaesu, 2012), and neurolinguistic tools (Walsh & Diller, 2011), and these have involved students from East to West.

However, a major problem with such a research approach is that its application is often limited to theoretical studies and not what actually happens in a real classroom. Despite the invention in recent years of many novel methods, in reality, most students learn English through formal education in an EFL classroom, where they study English grammar and other aspects of the language. Although the method of learning a language by studying grammar patterns has been in existence for centuries, role of grammar in acquiring foreign and second language has been subject to controversy from the beginning of second language acquisition research. While some researchers (e.g. Robins, 1966; Lightbown & Pienemann, 1993; Richards & Rodgers, 2014) believe that it is extremely important to learn grammar in order to acquire a new language, others believe that learning grammar is not as significant as other methods of language acquisition, such as language input (Krashen, 1985; Smith, 1993). Nevertheless, it remains true that grammar is one of the most common objects of teaching and learning in English Language class.

In addition, even though there have been various innovations in teaching methods, the teacher-led approach is still the most common in the EFL classroom, at

least in many parts of Asia and the Middle East (Babcock, 1993; Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Therefore, research into teachers and teaching styles has been ongoing for many years. However, in recent times, there has been a growing interest in finding out how the languages spoken in the classroom, and especially any switching between languages, affect learning (Wei & Wu, 2009; Viakinnou-Brinson, Herron, Cole & Haight, 2012; Younas, Arshad, Akram, Faisal, Akhtar, Sarfraz & Umar, 2014). While some researchers suggest such switching (code switching) is useful for teaching and learning, many others argue that it is rather harmful.

In Saudi Arabia, similar to the situation in many other EFL classes around the world, students of English receive extensive grammar training for a number of years. Many teachers are bilingual speakers and it is a common practice for teachers to use both Arabic and English while teaching. However, there has been limited research into classroom code switching in Saudi Arabia, especially with female EFL students. Thus, this study investigates whether a bilingual teacher's code switching can influence students' learning of grammar in a female EFL class in Saudi Arabia.

1.1 Context of the study

Code switching refers to the “juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems” (Gumperz, 1982, p.59), or in other words, “the use of two languages within one conversation or text in natural conversation” (Li, 2002, p. 279). Code Switching research can be grouped in five approaches: grammatical, sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, conversation and pragmatic (Edwards, 2004; Li, 2002; Holmes, 2013; Myers-Scotton, 1993). Among them, research on the grammatical aspects of code switching focuses on the universal linguistics or syntactic constraints of the target language structures, focusing in particular on the grammatical constraints of the two languages. The sociolinguistic approach examines associations between social factors and the performance of code switching, while the psycholinguistic examines what is going on in speakers' minds when they switch between languages. The conversation analysis approach is mainly used to analyze speech production,

especially during conversation, and examines the dynamics of code switching through the analysis of a sequence of conversational turns. It has also been used to investigate the characteristics of bilinguals, such as how they process language in their brain and how second language learners use code switching as a compensatory strategy (Margolis, 2001).

In a classroom setting however, code switching can be a highly stigmatised practice and views concerning its place in EFL learning are polarised (Boztepe, 2005). Gilyard (1991) suggested that it is “enforced educational schizophrenia” (cited in Young, 2004, p. 98), while Young (2007) considered that code switching “breeds linguistic confusion” (p. 5). Similarly, some language teachers find switching languages in the same sentence unacceptable, and consider that this is a demonstration of semilingualism (Ramirez & Milk, 1986). On the other hand, other language teachers in different geographic and ethnic contexts find code switching a useful metalanguage tool to enhance students’ understanding of the target language in the classroom (Hobbs, Matsuo, & Payne, 2010). Furthermore, in recent years, several researchers have found code switching to be a potentially effective way to develop learning in the second language classroom (Arnett, 2013; Hobbs, et al., 2010; Viakinnou-Brinson, Herron, Cole, & Haight, 2012).

For example, in 2005, Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain conducted a study of advanced learners of German in a foreign language classroom at the University of Alberta, Canada, to identify the role that a first language can play in the acquisition of a second language. By using Auer’s conversation analysis framework, they found that students used code switching in discourse related activities (to contextualise the interactional meaning of what they were saying) and as a fall-back method when they ran out of words in the second language. According to the researchers, during the experiment students developed their own patterns of bilingual interaction. By making the class similar to a bilingual community, the researchers made the students feel comfortable and encouraged them to experiment using both languages.

However, many other researchers (e.g., Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Allwright & Bailey, 1991) have argued that trying to understand the target language is a rather important part of the learning process and that by using the first language (L1),

students are limiting their options. They argued that code switching should be limited to social settings and should not be used in the classroom. By making the classroom setting appear as close to a real-life environment where everything is in English, students are likely to learn more English than by using code switching.

When it comes to a teacher's code switching, the recommendation to use only the target language becomes even stronger. A study conducted in Canada on teachers' code switching found that the more a teacher uses the target language, the better the students learn (Turnbull, 2001). Researchers such as Carroll (1967) and Wolf (1977) found that usage of the target language in the classroom exposes students to a context that may not be found in grammar books.

Therefore, this polarisation of views towards code switching raises the question of whether code switching is helpful to students, especially when the teacher switches codes and when students are to learn a specific aspect of language, such as grammar. Therefore, in a classroom setting it is yet to be established how a teacher's code switching affects students' grammar learning, especially in the Saudi Arabian context. Thus, this study focuses on teachers' code switching and uses pre- and post-tests to find out whether there is a difference between students' learning in a class where the teacher code switched extensively and one where the teacher did not. In addition, to gauge what the general opinion of teacher code switching in class is, a survey among all students was conducted. The results of the study show that there is a negative relationship between teachers' code switching in the classroom and students' learning.

1.2 Aim and scope

The main aim of this study is to identify whether teachers' code switching in the classroom can help students learn English grammar. The findings of this study can therefore assist policy makers and administrators in considering whether to take teachers' code switching into consideration when making policy and formulating appropriate recommendations. These findings can also be used by teachers to intentionally incorporate or limit code switching in the classroom.

As mentioned above, this study is limited to female EFL classes in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, it focuses only on classes that have taken place in Saudi Arabia. Students whose first language is Arabic, but who are studying in ESL classes in English speaking countries, are beyond the scope of this research due to the differences in motivation between EFL and ESL students. These differences are explained in the literature review chapter.

This study also focuses on teachers' code switching, and thus the role of students' code switching is not considered. Furthermore, the study was limited to grammar classes; therefore, the effects of teacher code switching in classes with the same type of students but in other areas of English language learning, such as speaking, are beyond the scope of this thesis.

1.3 Research questions

This thesis has a central research question that is divided into three sub-questions. The first part of the research focuses on the effects of teacher code switching on students' performance in grammar tests. The second part investigates what kind of code switching, if any, functions as a facilitator to student learning. The third part aims to identify students' attitudes toward teachers' code switching. The findings from the three sub-questions can provide teachers and administrators with valuable feedback regarding code switching.

The primary question of this research is: **What is the role of teachers' code switching in the learning process of grammatical aspects of English among female EFL students in Saudi Arabia?**

As noted, this primary research question comprises multiple sub-topics, which are addressed by the following three secondary questions:

- a) *Does EFL teachers' code switching promote English academic achievement among students?*

This secondary question can help in investigating whether there is a correlation between teachers' code switching and students' performance in grammar tests. Since test scores are important in EFL classes, measurement of students' scholastic achievement is an important factor. By correlating teachers' code switching with students' scores in a post-test, it can be established whether or not teachers' code switching is helpful in learning.

b) What kind of code switching, if any, functions as a facilitator to student learning?

Secondary question A leads logically into this question, where the aim is to identify the kind of code switching functions (if any) that are useful for learning. By investigating what kind of code switching functions have resulted in improved learning (if secondary question A finds that code switching has been useful in learning grammar at all), the implication may be that teachers can intentionally use code switching to enhance that effect.

C) What are the attitudes of learners towards teachers' code switching?

In addition, some teachers assume that it is helpful to switch to their students' first language (L1) when teaching English in the classroom, as they believe that L1 is a useful teaching resource. However, other teachers may be unsure about this. Therefore, finding out the difference in attitudes among students from two classes towards their teachers' code switching might provide valuable information about learners' attitudes towards teachers' use of code switching in the language classroom.

1.4 Significance of the study

The findings of this research suggest that teachers' code switching in the classroom is not helpful for students in learning grammar, especially in Saudi Arabia. This goes against many recent studies conducted in classrooms in Saudi Arabia. The results of this research thus add value to the body of knowledge in code switching and language education, by not only providing empirical findings to challenge the current practice in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia but also by identifying the

reasons why teachers' code switching is unlikely to be useful for students in learning grammar. By combining prior research on input as well as code switching, this thesis suggests a novel reason why code switching is unhelpful in learning grammar, and the results of this research can be used by future researchers and EFL institutions. In addition, it suggests an alternative to code switching for explaining complicated grammatical concepts, such as using short question-answer sequences. Furthermore, this research provides a new coding category for future researchers who wish to analyse teachers' code switching. Given the shortage of applied linguistic research on female Saudi Arabian students, this study also offers important insights as well as challenges that can be used for further research in other Arabic speaking countries.

1.5 Thesis structure

This dissertation consists of six chapters. The first chapter is the Introduction, where the research problem is briefly addressed. The chapter provides an overview of the context of the thesis, its aims and scope, which are followed by the research questions and significance of the study. In Chapter Two, the related literature is reviewed. In the literature review, literature and theories about grammar teaching methods, the EFL classroom, and research into code switching and code switching in the classroom are reviewed.

In Chapter Three, the methodology used in this research is outlined. This research used mixed methods and included pre- and post-tests for EFL students, analysed transcripts of recordings of teachers' talk and an attitude survey to explore students' attitudes towards code switching. The methodology chapter is followed by Chapter Four, where the findings of this research are reported. These include the results of the pre- and post-tests and analysis of the transcripts of teachers' talk.

In Chapter Five, the discussion chapter, the findings from Chapter Four are discussed using various theories introduced in Chapter Two. Evaluating the results through these theoretical lenses makes it possible to see whether code switching helps students learn grammar. This chapter is then followed by the Conclusion (Chapter Six), where the thesis is summarised, in particular in terms of whether or

not this research has achieved its stated aim. Chapter Six concludes with a description of the limitations of this research and suggestions for potential future research.

In addition, it should be noted that several paragraphs of this thesis are available on the Australian Linguistic Society Annual Conference website¹, where the researcher presented the findings of this research.

¹ http://www.als.asn.au/sites/default/files/ALS2015_Abstacts_FINAL.pdf

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The primary research aim of this thesis is to find out whether teachers' code switching in the classroom can influence the grammar learning of students in Saudi Arabia. This chapter therefore reviews the academic literature related to the three main components of this research: grammar teaching and learning, code switching, and English as a foreign language (EFL) in the Saudi Arabian context.

2.1 Research domain

This research falls under the spectrum of Educational Linguistics, which is a sub-field of Applied Linguistics that is closely tied with education (Ellis, 2010; Perry Jr., 2011; Spolsky, 1978; Tannen, 1981). Since this field of linguistics is closely tied with pedagogy, the discussion of the literature in this chapter is conducted around concepts related to pedagogy (teaching and learning) and sociolinguistics (code switching and society). Within pedagogy, grammar teaching and learning is analysed by reviewing various strategies used by teachers to teach grammar: literature that discusses strategies relevant to grammar learning. Within linguistics, theories related to code switching which are relevant to this study, are reviewed. This is followed by literature on how code switching and learning are linked. In addition to reviewing the literature related to pedagogy and linguistics, literature concerning the cultural and social setting in Saudi Arabia is also reviewed, since the target participants are female students from EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia.

2.2 Grammar teaching methods

This section provides an overview of theories and practices in grammar teaching, especially English grammar teaching in EFL classrooms. This thesis focuses on grammar, which is a fundamental concept in a language (Celce-Murcia, 2001), however teaching grammar has been found to be challenging (Ellis, 2006; Willis & Willis, 1996) for teachers around the world, therefore various approaches to

grammar teaching are introduced in this section (Cook, 2013; Johnson, 2008; Kelly, 1969).

Historically, the teaching of language meant the teaching of grammar (Ferris, 1999). This idea of grammar teaching has been brought to English from Latin and Greek (Francis, 1954). This method of using grammar to teach language continued until the 1970s, when new communicative methods of teaching language became popular (Leech & Svartvik, 2013). During this period, the role of grammar changed from being the central point of teaching English to being completely absent in teaching (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). However, in recent years, researchers have identified various problems with teaching only with the communicative method (Schmidt, 1994) and grammar has regained its popularity among educational linguistics, and has therefore returned to the classroom (Thornbury & Pattison, 2005). Still, many researchers have argued that although using a communicative method alone as a language teaching tool is problematic, combining this with grammar teaching ought to be beneficial as both approaches have advantages (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This school of thought has resulted in a new language teaching method, known as the form focused method.

Before addressing methods of grammar teaching, it is necessary to introduce some notable theories and controversies about grammar teaching. An introduction to these theories and controversies will help us understand why there have been so many changes regarding grammar teaching and why different ways of teaching grammar are not only influenced by the evolution of linguistic theories, but also by social changes (Diller, 1978; Stern, 1992). Therefore, in this section a brief review of historical changes and grammar theories and practices are presented.

2.2.1 Brief history

In terms of broad history, grammar-teaching methods can be divided into two significant periods: the direct method and the grammar-translation method. The direct method took place before the eighteenth century, and the grammar-translation method took place from the end of the eighteenth century onwards (Hummel, 2013). This section provides a brief overview of these two periods.

Before the twentieth century and the direct method

Contrary to other subjects, such as chemistry or physics which are influenced by major discoveries, the teaching of English has been heavily influenced by cultural revolutions (Cummins, 2000). Therefore, before the twentieth century, the focus was either on learning how to use a language or gaining the ability to analyse a language through rules, especially grammatical rules. This is mostly because English was used either for trading or for scholarly purposes. Only the elite would have had access to materials to master grammatical rules, as well as fluency in speaking. However, with the introduction of the printing press during the Renaissance, the formal study of grammar became more accessible. Books describing teaching techniques, such as those of Johann Amos Comenius in 15th century, the most famous language scholar of that era (Piaget, 1993), were available at that time and these emphasised that students should follow and repeat their teachers in order to learn a new language. This method, known as the direct method, was popular for centuries until the grammar-translation method was introduced in the eighteenth century.

Focus on the grammar translation method

During this period, there was an over-emphasis on learning grammar, and the teaching of language meant the teaching of grammar (Ferris, 1999). This idea of grammar teaching as the basis of language learning was brought to English from the Latin and Greek (Francis, 1954) and continued until the twentieth century, when new communicative methods of teaching language became popular (Leech & Svartvik, 2013). During this period, the role of grammar was downgraded from being the central point of teaching English to being completely absent (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). However, in recent years, researchers have identified various problems with teaching only with the use of the communicative method (Schmidt, 1994), and grammar has regained its popularity among educational linguists and has therefore returned to the classroom (Thornbury & Pattison, 2005). As mentioned earlier, even though researchers have found that the communicative method alone has shortcomings, they also acknowledge that there are advantages to it as well. As a result, communicative methods were included in grammar teaching

methods, which led to the creation of form-focused methods. In the next section, these methods are discussed in more detail

2.2.2 Structure-based methods

One of the oldest and most predominant methods of teaching grammar is using structure-based methods, which includes the grammar translation method as well as the audiolingual method (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The philosophy behind the emphasis on structure based methods was that researchers in that era thought the main problem in learning a second language was a lack of understanding of the structure of that language (Rutherford & Smith, 1987). Therefore, additional focus was given to learning grammar in order to understand the structure of the foreign language.

Grammar translation method

Among the structure-based methods, the grammar-translation method is one of the oldest methods that are still being practiced around the world. This method was based around eight Greek and Latin grammatical categories - nouns, verbs, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, participles, articles and conjunctions (Hopper & Thompson, 1985; Robins, 1952). Teachers and researchers in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries believed that this was the best method of learning a new language and therefore it became part of formal language education systems around the world (Brown, 1987; Robins, 1966). Therefore, teachers of foreign languages, especially teachers of English as a foreign language, used various techniques such as explanations of parts of speech by translating them from the second language (L2) to the first language (L1), and asking students to memorise the rules of parts of speech. During that time, since the focus was on understanding L2 through reading and writing instead of speaking and listening, this method assisted learners to gain a deeper understanding of their target language (van Ostade, 2008).

Audiolingual method

By the early twentieth century, a new theoretical development known as structural linguistics (De Saussure & Baskin, 2011) had emerged and this resulted in the popularity of the audiolingual method (Harris, 1951). From parts of speech, the focus shifted to other linguistic levels, including phonemes, morphemes, and lexical

categories (Beckman & Edwards, 2000; Newmeyer, 2014). Structural linguistic theory suggested that it is more important to learn these structural patterns because they help in forming habits that can help to learn a new language. Therefore, for the first half of the twentieth century, schools and education systems shifted their focus towards learning phonological components rather than parts of speech (Pennycook, 1989). In this method of teaching, students started with easy structures and followed these with more complex structures. Instead of learning patterns at the word level, patterns at the sentence level were taught (Saville-Troike, 1973). As this period coincided with World War II, the shift in focus towards oral communication was desirable, as the ability to communicate in foreign languages became a priority at this time (Zimmerman, 1997).

However, various researchers in the latter half of the century suggested that Saussure's view of structural linguistics was inaccurate (Marcus, 1984; Chomsky, 1972). Chomsky, furthermore, argued that even though structural linguistics is likely to be sufficient for phonology and morphology, it is insufficient for syntax. This is because although there might be a finite number of phonemes and morphemes in a language (e.g., English has forty-four phonemes), there are infinite numbers of sentence combinations. Thus, the popularity of the audiolingual method declined by the twenty-first century and other grammar-based approaches were introduced.

Other methods

In addition to the grammar translation and audiolingual methods, there have been many other methods in grammar teaching. One notable method, the direct method, combines the idea of using a sound to translate the grammar (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). Besides this, there have been a number of other methods, such as the situational method and the total physical response method (Hauptmann, 2004), neither of which gained widespread adoption. Although each of these methods emphasised different parts of grammar teaching, a common element to all of them was the structural approach, hence the grouping of them under structure based methods.

Limitations of structure based approaches

The most common criticism of structure-based methods is that even though students learn grammatical structures, often they find it difficult to use those

structures in real life, especially in communicative situations. This has resulted in the introduction of various communication-based methods of teaching grammar; an approach that some researchers argue is more realistic.

2.2.3 Communicative based methods

The inadequacy of structure based approaches, especially the approach that relies on manipulation of grammatical forms, has led to the development of communicative methods, which focus more on using grammar and language in a communicative context. One of the most popular theories in communicative methods is “communicative competence”, introduced by Hymes (1972). Instead of focusing on knowledge of the formal rules of grammar (linguistic competence), Hymes focused on the ability to use language. This approach was supported by other prominent linguists including Halliday (1978), Labov (1972) and Gumperz (1972). This section discusses various methods and theories used by researchers and teachers with regards to communicative methods to teach grammar.

Weak and strong communicative approaches

This distinction was popularised by Howatt (cited in Sullivan, 2000), who suggested using two different versions of the communicative method in teaching. In a strong communicative approach, the focus is on meaning. For example, instead of teaching grammar rules related to parts of speech, it suggests teaching task-based rules, such as greetings and requests. In a weak version of this approach, focus is not as strongly tied to practical applications of language as in the strong method. However, regardless of the approach, in this method communication is both the end goal and the means.

Emphasis on input and input flooding

The method of using input flooding uses Krashen’s input theory (Krashen, 1985). According to this theory, “exposure to comprehensible input in the target language is likely to be the most important factor in learning a new language” (Krashen, 1985). Although Krashen argued that input is most important in learning a new language and knowledge of grammar is unnecessary, the method of using input flooding takes the idea of input to teach grammar (Ellis, 1999). For example, in the following

instance, instead of only explaining “on” as a part of speech, input flooding provides multiple examples of the word “on”.

The book is on the table, there is a bird on the roof, this can float on water, you can put this on the chair, please don't put your shoe on the bench, you can place your pencil on my notebook, he put his country on the map, etc. (Smith, 1993, p. 168).

The concept of using input is not only used in input flooding but also in other discourse-based methods. This shift of perspective from viewing grammar at the sentence level to viewing it at the discourse level has benefitted students, who are now able to understand grammar at a conversation level, making it more practical for them (Hopper, 1982). A discourse based pedagogy not only focuses on grammatical form but also the context in which it is situated. This is done in order to help students identify the pragmatic meaning (Richards, 2008; Trappes-Lomax, 2008). Halliday argues that grammar is a series of complex choices that is influenced by many variables, such as social and cultural factors that go far beyond syntax (Halliday, Matthiessen, & Matthiessen, 2014). This notion prompted Halliday, along with other researchers, such as Hasan, Matthiessen, and Webster (2007) and Mann and Matthiessen (1983), to create the theory of systemic functional grammar, which promotes the idea that grammar is a tool that can help students achieve their communication goals based on the context.

Limitations of this approach

Although the communicative approach gained popularity initially and resulted in a shunning of structure based grammar learning in many L2 classrooms, recent research has found that focusing so strongly on meaning and communication does not necessarily improve the knowledge and ability of students. A study of 30 years of language immersion showed that the communicative approach alone is inadequate for learning a new language (Cummins, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Therefore, a combined method known as the form-focused method has gained popularity among researchers in recent years. In the next section this new combined method is discussed.

2.2.4 Form focused methods

Form focused instruction, also known as *focus on form* (FonF) combines structure based grammar teaching with communication based methods by placing grammar teaching in a communicative context (Ellis, 2001). It utilises the advantages of both methods of language teaching described earlier, so that students can learn formal grammar structures while being able to assign meaning to the conversation (Long, 1998). One notable example was from a study conducted by Pica (Pica, 1997) where the researcher found that students who studied grammar using form focused instruction methods were able to use plurals more accurately than students who did not study grammar under formal instruction. This enabled the researcher to argue in favour of grammar teaching because it was found that when the structure of the sentences gets complex, having knowledge of grammar helps the student.

However, different researchers have introduced different types of form-focused instruction. Some preferred focusing on grammar through input based options while others preferred teaching grammar using output based or interaction based options. The following subsection discusses some of the notable methods suggested by researchers.

Input processing and processing instruction

One of the most notable input based options that focus on grammar is processing instruction, which is derived from input processing. The main philosophy of input processing is that it is common for a student to try to find meaning before looking for grammar in a sentence. If the student can be taught to identify the meaning, the student will have a better chance of identifying the grammar and then use that knowledge in future sentence creation (VanPatten, 2004).

VanPatten (2004) therefore introduced processing instruction, where the author suggested that if students in the classroom are also taught how to utilise input to identify the underlying grammar, they can understand and acquire both grammatical knowledge and meaning. Sheen (2007) used “have” as an example, where at first the teacher introduced “have” as a causative verb. Sheen suggested that this explanation of grammar should be followed by different types of input. One of the types of input

might be, “The boss has the employees complete the task”, which utilises exactly the same word that was explained. After that, the teacher should introduce more complex examples such as, “My mother had me cook my lunch”, where with this additional input, the student would be able to gain more exposure to different ways to use the same causative verb.

However, one of the limitations of processing instruction is that it cannot be used with all types of grammatical concepts. For example, input processing is not effective in explaining articles (VanPatten, 2002) as the meaning often changes according to context. Therefore, even though this is a useful form focused method, not every researcher suggests using it to teach grammar.

Textual and input enhancement

As the name suggests, textual enhancement uses enhancement techniques to highlight certain parts of input (Wong, 2003). It can be done by making a word bold, italicised, or underlined. If it is oral input, such as a teacher’s voice, enhancement can be in the form of repetition or emphasis (Simard, 2009). The central idea of this form of enhancement is that making specific items stand out makes them more noticeable to students and therefore more learnable (Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, & Doughty, 1995).

Although this simplistic model has been criticised by researchers (Leow, 1998), many researchers argue that attention is indeed important in learning grammar, even if it is not in the same form (textual enhancement) as this method proposed (Han, Park, & Combs, 2008; Lyddon, 2011). Therefore, input enhancement remains an influential method in acquiring grammar (Smith, 1993). However, one common problem with input enhancement is that different students may require emphasis on different parts of grammar, and in a classroom setting, this is difficult to deliver.

Interactional feedback

Interactional feedback has similarities with input enhancement in the sense that it also focuses students’ attention on form (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Russell & Spada, 2006). The main difference is that this is not an input method, but rather an output method, where the teacher is meant to correct the mistakes made by

the student. In input based methods students are exposed to input, but with output based methods students participate in the conversation and the teacher actively provides them with feedback to correct them.

Interactional feedback is based on two parts - negative evidence and positive evidence (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). When a student utters a wrong sentence or wrong word, this is known as negative evidence, which means the act of the student will not lead to an understandable conversation in the target language and therefore the teacher gives feedback with positive evidence - the right way to say the sentence (Lyster, 2004). Negative evidence can consist of many things, but often includes incorrect grammatical usage, and positive evidence often uses correct grammatical examples.

Similar to other methods of grammar teaching, this method is not accepted by all researchers. Some researchers argue that it is extremely important to have this correction mechanism because students are bound to make mistakes (negative evidence) and correcting mistakes is essential to acquiring correct grammar (Farrar, 1992). Others, however, do not agree that negative evidence is such a crucial form of learning and suggest increasing input rather than less input and more correction (Demetras, Post, & Snow, 1986; Marcus, 1993; Truscott, 1996). However, rather than direct correction, strategies such as recasts (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006), clarification requests (Purver, 2004), repetition, and metalinguistic feedback (Pratt, Tunmer, & Bowey, 1984) are increasingly gaining attention as they allow increased input via positive evidence rather than simply correcting mistakes.

Collaborative output activities

This method assumes that during collaborative activities, students get support from others and therefore gain both grammatical and linguistic knowledge (Fortune & Thorp, 2001). Although this appears counterintuitive at first, researchers have found that when students produce output, they learn what they can and cannot use to produce understandable language (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Empirical evidence suggests that using tasks such as dictogloss, jigsaw puzzles, and other similar activities that ask students to recreate texts produces improved grammar knowledge and understanding (Cowan, 2008; Nabei, 1996). However, one of the

main criticisms is that not all activities are suitable for collaborative tasks, and so this often relies on a limited array of tasks (Sullivan & Caplan, 2003). Therefore, instead of using the teacher's knowledge of grammar, teaching style and charisma become the main factors (Park & Park, 1999).

Overall, from the review of the literature on grammar teaching methods, it can be seen that there are numerous ways grammar can be taught. Although each method has its own advantages and disadvantages, historically, adoption in the classroom has been based on many other circumstances. Methods that focus only on structure are suitable in the EFL classroom, since being grammatically correct is important for EFL students. On the other hand, communicative methods might be more suitable for ESL students, as they often focus on learning how to communicate. Form focused methods, on the other hand, can be appropriate in advanced EFL or ESL classes, as they combine both of these approaches and students can learn not only the structure of grammar, but also how to position this in a communicative context. As this research focuses on the EFL classroom, the next section discusses teaching in EFL classrooms.

2.3 The EFL classroom

In the previous section, a brief history of language learning and methods of grammar teaching was discussed. This section reviews the literature on EFL classrooms in order to link the methods with current teaching practices in these classrooms. Similarly to the diversity in language teaching methods and grammar teaching methods, the reason for this discussion about the EFL classroom is to show the diversity in the ways in which English is taught in classrooms. And this diversity not only includes the types of instruction but also the language of instruction in the classroom. As this research focuses on EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia, this section reviews the literature on EFL classroom instruction types and language as well as the differences between English as a second language (ESL) and EFL.

2.3.1 Differences between EFL and ESL classrooms

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to discuss the difference between English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL). Although both terms have been used interchangeably by researchers due to their similarity, the most significant difference between them is that when English is taught to a non-native speaker in a non-English speaking country, it is considered to be EFL. On the other hand, if English is taught to a non-native speaker in an English speaking country, it is considered to be ESL (Ansary & Babaii, 2002). However, this distinction is not well observed by many researchers, who use the terms interchangeably (Reves & Medgyes, 1994). Although some researchers argue that this distinction does not hinder teaching and learning processes since everyone is learning English, some researchers argue that this distinction is crucial because even though lesson plans are similar, the way students are taught can influence how they learn (Nayar, 1997). Therefore, this section addresses the differences between these two groups.

English as a second language classroom

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, when English is taught to non-English speakers in an English speaking country, it is known as ESL (Auerbach, 1993). A common trait in such a classroom is the mix of students from various nationalities and often ages. Students can be in their early years of life in the new country with their parents due to migration, or can be there to gain sufficient English speaking ability to go to university. Some students, who may be a lot older, might be there to learn English for migration purposes (Kirova, 2007). An advantage of learning English in an ESL setting is there is often no common language among students. Therefore, even when students are discussing topics among themselves, they need to use a language that the other students understand (Ullman, 1997). Since they are in an English class, it is practical for them to use English for the purpose of communication. This not only helps students gain greater levels of English input, but also allows them to practise more English with others and to eventually increase their ability to communicate (Brock, 1986).

English as a foreign language classroom

On the other hand, the English as a foreign language class usually takes place in a non-English speaking country with non-English speaking students. A major difference with an ESL class, then, is that most of the students are from the same country. Therefore, they can already communicate in a shared language (Reid, 1995). This makes communicating in the first language more convenient and natural for the students. In addition, teachers might fall back on the same language when explaining a particular topic and when they see that students do not understand (Guariento & Morley, 2001). In addition, for some students in EFL classrooms, the only objective is to pass the exam and they may not be motivated to learn the language (Rao, 2002). There is also likely to be much less exposure compared to students in an ESL classroom because, externally, students are still in the L1 environment.

Difference in educational needs

One of the main reasons students join ESL classes is the practical need to be able to speak English in their social context, whether it is for basic communication or for the purpose of getting a job (Raimes, 1985). As the main objective is to be able to communicate, the focus of learning is more communicative (Kagan, 1995). However, for EFL learners, the focus is often to be able to pass English tests in addition to gaining communicative competency. Although a focus on being able to communicate brings EFL closer to ESL, the emphasis in the EFL classroom is often on developing a mastery of the grammatical rules (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009).

This is an important factor because, as the focus of EFL students is on learning grammar, teachers might put more emphasis on lesson plans that teach grammar and not focus on language of instruction (Borg, 1998). This is problematic because if grammar is taught using the native language, it may reduce language input. On the other hand, it might be beneficial in increasing the understanding of the language. Since the focus of this research is on Saudi Arabia, where it is common practice to use Arabic in EFL classrooms, the next section discusses the importance of the language of instruction.

2.3.2 Language of instruction in EFL classrooms

As can be seen from the previous section, there is a significant difference between the two types of English classrooms. Therefore, the language used in these two classrooms is indeed an important part of language teaching and learning. For many researchers, the language that is used in a classroom to teach grammar is even more important than the method of teaching that is used (Antón & DiCamilla, 1998; Russell & Spada, 2006; Nicholas & Lightbown, 2008). This is because, in many grammar classes, especially in EFL classes, the main language used to teach English is not always English. Similar to other topics in language learning, researchers often have polarised views on the usage of L1 in the classroom and this section reviews these views.

Advocates of using only English in the EFL classroom suggest that using L1 is not acceptable in this classroom context (Chaudron, 1988; Fillmore, 1981; Setati, Adler, Reed, & Bapoo, 2002). They suggest that it is important to conduct an EFL class in the target language (L2), because adding L1 in the classroom is likely to have negative consequences (Ellis, 2006; Nicholas & Lightbown, 2008; Tikunoff, 1985). Other researchers suggest that usage of L1 has its place in EFL classrooms (Jingxia, 2010; Tikunoff & Vázquez-Faría, 1982; Younas et al., 2014), as it leads to more efficient learning.

Advantages of using L1 in the EFL classroom

Researchers in favour of using L1 in the classroom argue that it has significant benefits. Some of the advantages outlined by Alshammari (2011) are “classroom management, language analysis, presenting grammar rules, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors, and checking for comprehension.” (Alshammari 2011, p.95)

Researchers argue that teachers’ usage of L1 in an EFL classroom increases comprehension among students (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Tang, 1990). This argument for using L1 is supported by many researchers who point out that when a student is in the early stages of learning English, using English to explain a concept is likely to be confusing and even demoralising. Therefore if L1 is used to clarify concepts, it is

likely to support the student in her understanding of a new concept. Researchers also argue that, since at the early stages of learning students essentially translate what is said into L1, it is helpful for students to be given an explanation of the concept in L1, because any meaning that might otherwise be lost in translation will be retained (Cook, 2001)

With regard to students' participation, the use of L1 is also encouraged by many researchers. An example of this is in content-based models of instruction, and one of the common instruction models used in EFL classrooms to maintain interest among students is the theme-based model. In this model, a teacher usually selects a theme and organises classes around it (Parkinson, 2000). This is a popular method in many EFL classrooms because it allows teachers to select a common topic of interest and create a lesson plan around the topic. In addition, as the theme is a common area of interest, students are more likely to be engaged and to be able to participate in the discussion (Adamson, 1993). Researchers in favour of the use of L1 argue that it is beneficial for teachers to use L1 for this type of activity, because English language learners would be unable to express themselves completely if a topic of interest were explained to them in a language of which they had little command (Hinkel, 2006).

In addition to teaching and learning related activities, researchers suggest that for class control, switching between L1 and L2 in the EFL classroom is likely to be beneficial. This is because for many students learning a new language is extremely challenging. In many situations, they are not able to understand what is being said in the class. If the teacher uses the target language in the classroom to explain topics such as examination questions, this can discourage low performing students. Therefore, for administrative purposes, it is likely to be beneficial to use L1 in EFL classrooms.

Disadvantages of using L1 in EFL classrooms

However, not everyone agrees with these viewpoints. Many researchers (e.g. Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Macaro, 2000; Young, 2007) argue that the use of L1 is inappropriate for the classroom. Those who oppose the use of L1 in the classroom argue that it reduces students' target language learning significantly. By using L1, a

teacher is essentially increasing linguistic confusion, and therefore this method should not be used in the classroom.

Researchers argue that the main disadvantage of using L1 in the classroom is tied to the input principle discussed earlier in this chapter. Researchers argue that if L1 is used in EFL classrooms, insufficient input is provided for the students, and therefore, opportunities for much needed exposure to English are reduced (Turnbull, 2001). They argue that historically, this was one of the main reasons that the target language had usually been used in second language classrooms instead of L1. By mimicking a foreign environment as much as possible in an EFL class, the students feel that the class is realistic and that they are not just being taught from a textbook.

In addition, researchers also argue that, even though students may have difficulty understanding everything that is said in the target language (TL), the attempt to figure out what is being said is part of the learning process (Wong-Fillmore, 1985). They argue that when students are used to hearing L1 more than the target language (TL), they tend to ignore the target language when it is used and therefore miss a lot of context (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

When Turnbull reviewed the work of Carroll, Clark, Edwards, and Handrick (1967) and Carroll (1975), he found that the authors went further and concluded that teachers' use of the target language was "one variable that resulted in higher student proficiency in that language", based on research on American university students in 1967 (Turnbull, 2001, p. 534). Wolf (1977) obtained similar findings in American students learning French. The higher the amount of French used in the classroom, the more French the students learned. Burstall (1975) also obtained similar findings with regard to use of the TL in the classroom. Turnbull (2001) suggested that using TL in less than 25% of the classroom talk is likely to be problematic for students in acquiring new knowledge in the TL.

Macaro (2000) found that teachers who code switch tend to think that code switching is "errant and lamentable" (p. 22), even though they feel that it is often out of their control, since as bilinguals they are used to code switching. Moeller and Roberts (2013) argued that a teacher's use of the target language is extremely

important, as it is often the only authentic input students get in an EFL class. This view is echoed by Modupeola (2013), who suggests that although L1 could be used in class in the early stages of learning, its use must be reduced as the student's proficiency increases.

Recent studies on EFL classes have had similar findings regarding the negative aspects of a teacher's code switching. One study conducted on Vietnamese EFL classrooms found that when Vietnamese EFL teachers code switched from English to Vietnamese habitually, this resulted in students' over-dependence on teachers' use of Vietnamese, rather than English (Nguyen, 2013). In addition, the researcher found that teachers had a tendency to over-translate materials from English to Vietnamese, and therefore reduced students' exposure to English. As one teacher in the study mentioned,

If we use too much Vietnamese, we will create a bad habit for our students. They will become passive and lazy. When we say something in English and translate it into Vietnamese, students will not pay attention to our first sentence in English, but just wait for the second one in Vietnamese. Next time they will be waiting [for the Vietnamese translation], yes, that's it because they know for sure that their teachers will definitely do so. (Teacher 10) (Nguyen, 2013, p. 192).

Overall, based on the review of the literature, it can be seen that having more target input is likely to be more beneficial for students as it gives them context as well as maximum possible exposure to TL. Therefore, using L1 in the classroom is likely to be a disadvantage for students. However, as can be seen from the review, not all researchers agreed with this viewpoint. Many researchers argue that it is pointless to force teachers to conduct the class in TL, if only because most teachers are not native speakers of TL themselves. When teachers see that using L1 could help the student understand a concept, they may instinctively be more likely to use L1. To find out if this is the case in EFL classrooms, the next section discusses EFL classroom situations around the world.

2.3.3 EFL classrooms around the world

In order to gauge how L1 and TL are being used in EFL classrooms around the world, this section reviews some of the countries where researchers have conducted

experiments using L1 and TL. Although the L1 for each of the countries is different, the target language was English as they were EFL classrooms.

China and Taiwan

A large amount of research suggests that it is common for the majority of the teacher's talk to be in Chinese in a Chinese EFL classroom (Dong & Zhu, 2007; Li, 2011; Li-ping, 2004; Xiao-xia, 2009). In many classes, the use of Chinese can be so extensive that some argue there is often no learning opportunity for students in such classes (Xiaoyan, 2011). Some suggest that the only way Chinese students can learn English is if the EFL class is taught by a native English speaker, because the classroom is the only place they can experience English (Wang & Hyun, 2009).

Other researchers argue that this is exactly the reason why it is impractical for Chinese teachers to conduct the class entirely in English (Wei & Wu, 2009). This is because, until the last decade, China was completely separated from the rest of the world and Chinese people had limited access to non-Chinese materials. Even at present it is only in the bigger cities that there is more access to English. If a student comes from a rural area and is then exposed to everything in English, she is likely to be completely lost and demotivated (Qian, Tian, & Wang, 2009). Therefore, researchers argue that it is important that L1 is used in the EFL classroom to ensure students understand what is being taught.

However, a recent doctoral study on teachers' code switching in Chinese universities found that EFL teachers themselves believe that their code switching has a negative impact on student learning. Almost all the EFL teachers surveyed for that research suggested that excessive use of the mother tongue (Mandarin, in this case) prevents students from having exposure to realistic communication in English (Lu, 2015).

Korea

Similar to the debate on the appropriateness of Chinese in EFL classrooms in China, researchers in Korea are divided on the use of Korean in EFL classrooms in South Korea (Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004). Some researchers have found that the use of Korean is helpful (Kang, 2008) for similar reasons, such as being easier to

explain concepts and build rapport with students. A notable study by Lee (2010b) found that usage of Korean (L1) is preferred by younger students while older students prefer the teacher to use TL in the classroom. Lee (2010) studied more than 700 participants, among whom 286 were adults and 443 were young students. Based on the findings, Lee suggested that, for younger learners, it might be more appropriate to use more Korean in the class, but for older learners it is better to have as much English as possible.

Yet others have found that it is better if the class is conducted in English, regardless of their age (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). Again, the reason for the emphasis is similar - mimicking an English speaking environment as well as more input. Guilloteaux (2014) found that, in Korean EFL classes, it is fairly common to have a high amount of Korean spoken by the teacher, resulting in reduced exposure to, and opportunities to learn, English. Guilloteaux argued that, due to this, students tend to grow over-reliant on their teachers explaining classroom activities in Korean. An example of this was that if there was a situation where students needed to engage in an activity that required the use of English, they would wait for the teacher to translate the activity into Korean and then mostly use Korean to complete the task.

Malaysia

For many researchers, the EFL classroom in Malaysia is extremely interesting due to the students' multicultural backgrounds. Being a multicultural country where there are three main languages spoken (Malay, Chinese and Tamil), an EFL classroom in Malaysia is more like an ESL than an EFL classroom (Rajadurai, 2004). However, even though the first language may vary, it is still normal to hear the dominant language, Malay, in an EFL classroom (Lee, 2010a).

In addition, as there are three major languages, it is common to have sentences where all of the languages are present. For example, while talking to a student, it is not uncommon to hear “**Apasal la** you do your quiz so **cincai?**” (Why did you do your task in such sloppy manner?). In this example, the first word *apasal* is from Bahasa Malaysia, whereas the last word *cincai* is taken from Cantonese. Some researchers argue that one of the reasons why Malaysian students perform so poorly in English is that they are extremely confused with such a mixture of languages (Abu

Bakar, 2009; Saxena, 2011). Some other researchers argue that this “rojak” (mixture) language is actually a resource and not an impediment (Rubdy, 2007) because it allows the teacher to cross the ethnic divide and get close to the students, regardless of any potential ethnic barriers (Vaish & Roslan, 2011).

However, many other researchers have argued that this “rojak” language is the reason why many Malaysian students are unable to become proficient in English, despite studying English for many years (Nair-Venugopal, 2013). Nair-Venugopal contends this has not only resulted in a poor command of English among students in EFL classes, but also in adverse implications for student employment. Therefore, it was recommended that EFL classes should be conducted in English rather than by switching codes - be it between Malay, English, Tamil or Mandarin.

As can be seen, regardless of the choice a teacher makes in class about the use of L1 vs. English, she can argue in favour of either, as no research from any of the countries provided any definite conclusion about which type of instruction is better. However, when it comes to Saudi Arabia, many recent studies suggest that using L1 in EFL classrooms is a benefit, rather being than a hindrance for the students. The next section discusses current practices and research in Saudi Arabia with regard to instruction in the EFL classroom.

2.3.4 Translanguaging

Before proceeding further, the concept of translanguaging should be mentioned. By definition, translanguaging suggests that bilinguals have a “linguistic repertoire from which they select features strategically to communicate effectively” (Lacorte, 2014, p. 644). In recent years, there has been growing interest in the area of translanguaging in classroom education. Many prominent researchers (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Wei, 2013) argue for the use of translanguaging in bilingual classroom pedagogy.

Although such discussions are important, this research focuses on code switching. Translanguaging is very different from code switching because code switching does not just involve shifting from one language to another, but the

languages are often used without reference to each other (Lacorte, 2014). Due to the difference between translanguaging and code switching, the use of the former was not explored in this research.

2.3.5 Usage of L1 in the Saudi EFL classroom

There has been growing interest in the language of instruction in the Saudi EFL classroom. Although teachers in EFL classrooms are encouraged to use English (Khurma and Hajjaj, 1989), in practice, it is common for many EFL teachers to use Arabic in the classroom for similar reasons as in other countries. The main difference with other countries is that, in recent years, there has been a shift towards researchers who argue in favour of using Arabic in the EFL classroom (Bhooth, Azman, & Ismail, 2014; Hussein, 2013; Machaal, 2012; Traish, 2014). This section reviews some of the notable arguments and findings of researchers on why teachers should be allowed to use Arabic in the classroom.

Inclusivity

As Arabic is the dominant language in Saudi Arabia, it is not easy for a student to gain much exposure to English. Therefore, if the teacher only uses English in class, some students may not understand what is being taught (Alshammari, 2011), and so in order to ensure that all students are able to participate in class discussions, it is necessary to use Arabic in EFL classrooms (Alkatheery, 2014). Although this argument is similar to EFL classes in other countries, such as Korea, it is a more genuine concern in Saudi Arabia because access to materials in English is limited, even on the internet, as internet access is often regulated (Boas, 2006). Thus, inclusivity of all students is a major concern in EFL classrooms.

Time effectiveness

Another prominent argument that supports teachers' use of Arabic is time effectiveness in the classroom. There is only a finite number of hours available for a class in a semester (Elkhafaifi, 2005). If the teacher takes too much time to explain one concept due to an English-only approach, she may not be able to address other topics in the classroom, some of which may not be covered in future classes, as the expectation in more advanced classes would be that these had already been covered

(Jadallah & Hassan, 2010). Therefore, in order to make use of limited classroom time, it is appropriate to use Arabic instead of English.

Responding to immediate teaching and learning needs

For some researchers, time effectiveness goes hand in hand with responding to the immediate teaching and learning needs of students. As many of the concepts taught in the class are new for students, in the first instance, it is impossible for students to gain a complete understanding. However, if the teacher does not respond to learning needs quickly, it is possible that the student will forget what was taught (Khresheh, 2012). And researchers argue that, in those cases, it is better to use Arabic rather than English to explain topics because it will be easier for the student to understand the topic (Hasan, 2006).

Interpersonal development

The use of Arabic has been argued as being essential in developing collaboration and teamwork in EFL classrooms (Storch & Aldosari, 2010). According to researchers, since students are not familiar with English, asking them to collaborate with other students using English burdens them at an early stage of learning (Shehadeh, 2011). This has prompted researchers to suggest that it is necessary to use Arabic in EFL classrooms to ensure that students develop interpersonal relationships, which are often necessary in long-term learning in EFL classroom contexts (Mahmoud, 2000).

As can be seen, compared to other countries where there has been research into both sides of the debate, and a significant body of research supports the use of L1 as well as that of English, recent research in Saudi Arabia promotes the use of Arabic in the EFL classroom. However, when arguments as to why Arabic is necessary are examined, it can be seen that most of these focus on non-learning activities such as classroom control or building rapport with students. It remains to be seen however, whether teachers' usage of Arabic (L1) can improve grammar learning among students, and if so, what the possible ways are in which L1 can be used so that it is more appropriate for pedagogic activity. Therefore, the next section reviews the literature on how L1 is being used, and related theories.

2.4 Code switching and the EFL classroom

In the first section of this chapter, grammar teaching methods were reviewed. Based on the literature review above, it can be seen that there are many different ways grammar can be taught in the classroom. In addition, historically, there has been continuous change in the ways in which grammar has been taught. However, at the end of that section, it was also identified that in addition to methods of teaching, the language used by teachers is also very important. Similar to debates on grammar teaching methods, researchers are polarised in their views on using L1 in EFL classrooms.

However, regardless of the advantages or disadvantages of L1 in EFL classrooms, research also shows that in many countries, there is a significant amount of L1 used in the classroom (Kite, 2001; Margolis, 2001; Lu, 2015). Researchers (e.g. Dong & Zhu, 2007; Jadallah & Hassan, 2010; Turnbull, 2001) argue that, regardless of how little L1 is meant to be used, if there is a chance to use L1, students are likely to take it because of their familiarity with L1 and lack of familiarity with English. At the same time, in many countries, EFL teachers are not native English speakers. Therefore, as bilinguals, sometimes they might switch to L1 if they see that students do not understand what it is that they are explaining. In addition, sometimes teachers might also intentionally use L1 in the class to ensure that complex topics are addressed properly. At the end of the section, it could be seen that there are indeed various benefits of using L1, especially in non-pedagogic activities.

Therefore, among educational linguists, there is increasing interest in the use of code switching in teaching and learning. This brings the discussion to why the focus is on code switching and not on other similar linguistic concepts of language contact. Thus, the next section looks at language contact, before engaging in discussion of code switching.

2.4.1 Language contact

By definition, language contact is interaction among multiple languages (Tucker, 1999). It can occur between bordering languages or because of migration, the

necessity of learning new languages, or invasion by a dominant language (Hadzibeganovic, Stauffer, & Schulze, 2008). This results in a range of situations, such as language convergence, borrowing, pidgin, creole, code switching and mixed languages (Odlin, 1989).

One of the key ways to distinguish among these phenomena is based on the linguistic results they produce (Thomason, 2001). A less transferred or shift induced interference, such as code switching, does not prompt the same linguistic change as a vocabulary transfer mechanism, such as borrowing. To understand why this distinction is necessary for this research, these two broad categories and sub-categories are explained below, followed by a discussion of various mechanisms of contact induced language change.

Borrowing

While speaking one language, people often use words that are derived from another. Some words are adapted without any change while others are borrowed with slight modification. For example, “coffee” was borrowed from the Arabic word “qahwe” (Sabar, 1984) with a slight modification, but “banana” was borrowed from Spanish without any modification. To use a borrowed word, the speaker may or may not be monolingual, as the words are often established and accepted as part of the language. Therefore, borrowing happens at a deeper lexical level which does not require the speaker to be knowledgeable about other languages.

Interference

Interference is usually related to second language acquisition and language shift (Hickey, 2012). Various mechanisms involve interference. The following four mechanisms are identified by Thomason (2001): code switching, code alternation, passive familiarity and negotiation.

1) Code switching

The central idea of code switching is the ability to switch languages. Although it is a common occurrence among bilinguals, it is often studied in conversational contexts rather than in classrooms. In code switching, “code” refers to “any kind of system that two or more people employ for communication” (Wardhaugh & Fuller,

2014, p.84). Code switching is “going from one language to the other in mid-speech when both speakers know the same languages” (Cook, 2001, p.83).

When a single speaker uses elements from more than one language during the same conversation, it is considered code switching. By specifying that this takes place in the same conversation, it is assumed that the participants in that conversation are able to speak or at least understand both (or all) languages involved. A typical example of code switching is the following (English-Spanish):

“Lolita: Oh, I could stay with Ana?
Marta: — but you could ask papi and mami to see if you could come down.
Lolita: OK”. (Zentella, 1997, p.37)

2) Passive familiarity

Passive familiarity occurs when a speaker obtains an attribute from a language he does not speak well but possesses a certain understanding of it. A speaker who borrows a feature from another language, even though the speaker is barely familiar with the source language, sometimes introduces this particular type of interference (Thomason, 2003).

3) Negotiation

The term "negotiation" refers to the almost accidental creation of a new language or dialect by a fluent user (Grosjean, 1996, p. 23). For example, a fluent speaker might not have a deep understanding of the structure of language A, but he or she may still wish to learn language B. While learning language B, the speaker may assume that certain structures in language B are similar to language A and he or she may incorporate them in learning language B. However, in reality, language B (or even A) might not have that structure at all and the resulting language learned may be language B1, which is a deviation from language B (Thomason, 2001).

For example, a similar linguistic assumption made by a Hungarian learning Serbo-Croatian could result in the creation of a dialect, thus: a Serbo-Croatian learning Hungarian finds that just like their own language, stress is not placed on the first syllable of Serbo-Croatian, which is very similar to Hungarian. Therefore, they assume that Serbo-Croatian will have a fixed stress position similar to Hungarian. However, that is not the case in Serbo-Croatian. Therefore, this assumption could

result in a new dialect, which is similar to Serbo-Croatian but has a fixed penultimate stress (Liebscher & Dailey–O'Cain, 2005).

As the above examples show, some language contact situations create permanent change (borrowing) while others cause temporary change (interference). Since the objective of this research lies in facilitating and enhancing learning English grammar, code switching is the most appropriate among the four language contact forms described above. Hence, in the next section, an in depth discussion of code switching is provided.

2.4.2 Types of code switching

Blom and Gumperz (1972) are credited for creating interest in code switching (CS) in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Several researchers (e.g., Mahootian, 1996; Schendl, 1997) dismissed code switching as a natural process that just happens rather than something that follows a systematic approach. In contrast, other researchers (e.g., Heredia & Altarriba, 2001; MacSwan, 2012; Li, 2000) suggested that code switching is governed by rules and is not a haphazard process. Based on evidence gathered over several decades of research on bilingual interaction, it can be suggested that code switching does not happen randomly due to lack of proficiency of the speaker. Instead, it is a characteristic feature of bilingual speakers that involves the systematic alternative usage of two languages in a single conversation (Li, 2000). Various other researchers (Hobbs, Matsuo, & Payne, 2010; Moodley, 2007; Unamuno, 2008) also suggest that code switching is a useful method of teaching and learning in the EFL classroom.

Although there is a lack of agreement among linguistics researchers about what constitutes code switching (Al-Mansour, 1998; Poplack, 1980), it can be divided into multiple categories based on how it is used in a conversation. However, not all types of code switching are useful in terms of pedagogy. Among the various types of code switching, the following three are relevant to this current study:

- 1) Tag switching
- 2) Intersentential code switching
- 3) Intra-sentential code switching

1) Tag switching

Tag switching happens when a person moves an elliptical statement from one language to another (Arthur, 1996). An example is taking the English phrase “you know” and inserting it into a Spanish sentence, “Es difícil encontrar trabajo estos días, you know?” (“It’s hard to find work these days, you know”) (Pfaff, 1979, p.122).

2) Intersentential CS

Intersentential code switching (CS) often occurs in a sentence after the speaker has completed an initial sentence (MacSwan, 1999), hence the adjective “intersentential”. However, the exact point where the switch occurs can differ from situation to situation and it can occur at the phrasal level or at discourse boundaries.

3) Intra-sentential CS

Intra-sentential code switching, on the other hand, occurs within the boundaries of a sentence. This CS is conducted without any gap, interruption or hesitation. Intra-sentential CS can be useful for early language listeners to gain a better understanding of what is being said by using familiar words while keeping the structure of the sentence. Many linguists believe that studying intra-sentential CS will “yield the greatest fruits in the way of characterizing the linguistic organization of the bilingual cognitive apparatus” (Lipski, 1985, p.3).

From a teaching and learning point of view, both intersentential and intra-sentential CS appear to be the most relevant as they can help to explain certain keywords that might not be familiar to students. For example, if a word is part of subject specific jargon, it might be beneficial to break the sentence into smaller chunks using lexical and intra-sentential code switching to explain it to students.

2.4.3 Theoretical frameworks of code switching

Overall, the study of code switching (CS) can be grouped into two different but related approaches: structural and sociolinguistic. The structural approach focuses on grammatical aspects. Its emphasis is to detect syntactic and morphosyntactic constraints in code switching. The sociolinguistic approach, however, sees CS

mainly as a discourse phenomenon where the aim is to understand how social meaning is created in CS as well as the specific discourse functions it serves. Although they appear contradictory, it should be mentioned that they indeed complement each other instead of contradicting. Since the scope of this study is limited to the use of CS in teaching and learning, the sociolinguistic approach is not considered in this thesis. In this thesis, the following two models that are related to the structural approach will be reviewed:

- 1) Gumperz's interactional model.
- 2) Myers-Scotton's markedness model.

Gumperz's interactional model

Gumperz's interactional model refers to how language users create meaning via social interaction (Gumperz, 1982). The focus of analysis in this model is not only the words used in the language but also the subtle cues and contextual gestures that are often specific to a culture (Tannen, 2005). According to Gumperz, people communicate when they understand the meaning of what is said in a particular context. Since contexts are always changing, the way this communication occurs varies as well. From the various aspects identified in the model, this researcher chose the following for their relevance to pedagogy:

- 1) Linguistic choice.
- 2) Contextualisation cues.

1) Linguistic choice

According to Gumperz (1972), the interpretation of a conversation depends on the ongoing process of the conversation. The same sentence might mean different things in different contexts, whereas different sentences in the same context may point to the same meaning and result in a similar response. Thus, according to the author, linguistic choice not only depends on grammatical knowledge but also on social interaction and settings.

For example, if we consider the following example observed by Susan Gal in Austria in 1978, we see that the grandfather uses a higher prestige language, German, to command his grandchildren to come to him (kum her!) because they did not listen to him when he spoke Hungarian.

“Grandfather: Szo! Ide dzsiini! jetzt jeramunyi

(Well, come here! Out all this way)
 mind e kettuotok, no hat akkor!
 (both of you, well now)
 kum her! (pause) Nem koapsz vacsorat
 (Come here! You don't get supper.)” (Auer & Wei, 2007, p.20)

According to the author, since German was the more formal language at the time of the observation, the grandfather used it to emphasise his command. While evaluating various examples of code switching, Woolard (2004) described this example as a “classic example” of metaphorical CS. The concept of switching to a major language to win an argument or achieve an intended objective can be further understood if we explore the original definition provided by Blom and Gumperz (1972):

“The semantic effect of metaphorical code switching depends on the existence of a regular relationship between variables and social situations. The context in which one of a set of alternates is regularly used becomes part of its meaning so that when this form is then employed in a context where it is not normal, it brings in some of the flavour of this original setting” (Blom & Gumperz, 1972 p.425).

This concept is useful in the present research. By using certain terms in Arabic instead of English, the teacher can potentially make the class friendlier or more engaging for students, thus making them more responsive.

2) *Contextualisation cues*

Contextualisation cues relate to conversational code switching. Boztepe (2005) mentions that in 1992, Gumperz observed that “he sees the code, the dialect, and even style switching processes, as well as prosodic features of speech and formulaic expressions, as implicit ways of conveying meaning as part of the interaction between speakers” (p, 423). This means that any sign - verbal or non-verbal - with which the speaker changes the context of the language can be considered a contextualisation cue (Dimitrijević, 2004).

Contextual cues and the choice of relevant codes help the speaker to establish a meaningful conversation, to which the listener can understand and respond. Gumperz’s interactional model is relevant for this study because the teachers and students are bilingual, and CS can serve an expressive function in order to enhance

teachers' ability to express complex terms in Arabic while creating a better learning experience for the students.

Myers-Scotton's markedness model

Myers-Scotton's markedness model of analysing conversation originates from her "negotiation principle", which consists of the following:

"Choose the form of your conversation contribution such that it indexes the set of rights and obligations which you wish to be in force between speaker and addressee for the current exchange" (Myers-Scotton, 1992, p.113).

Myers-Scotton's markedness model explains the social motivation of CS (Myers-Scotton, 1992). The aim of the model is to account for the socio-psychological motivations of speakers when they engage in CS. Although her own studies have focused on CS in the African context, Myers-Scotton's model has universal, predictive validity for all bilingual and multilingual communities (Meeuwis & Blommaert, 2005). According to the theory, the markedness model can be categorised into three main groups:

- 1) CS as unmarked choice
- 2) CS as marked choice
- 3) CS as an exploratory choice.

1) CS as unmarked choice

The unmarked choice maxim suggests that the speaker does not choose any sudden or surprising switch of code in the conversation but code switches based on the requirements of the conversational context (Smith, 2008). An example of this is the following dialogue:

“DS: (directed to AP) This is (JM's name).
 JM: Hey. Nice to meet you.
 AP: Nice to meet you.
 DS: He graduated from high school last year. He works at Mount Vernon Mills. Is your mother here?
 AP: No. (*E)
 DS: Oh, here she is, (AP's name). Ok. Entonces, uh, let's see. Bueno, es lo que sé yo. Ok, you want me to talk to you in English or in Spanish?
 JM: Um? Es
 DS: Los dos.
 JM: Los dos. Lo que sea.
 DS: Ok. Like they got, uuh, el, uuh, like you have an introduction?
 JM: Um, Um.

DS: Do you know? You have a paragraph introduction, then you have like the para una composición de, de, de, de, cuatro párrafos?

JM: Eh, no, es diferente.

DS: No, de cinco párrafos.

JM: Es diferente. Ellos tienen como un tema, sin, sin, ¿cómo se llaman para uh los paragraph, cómo, paragrafos, parafos?

DS: paragraphs

JM: Uh, (*S) no tienen la párrafos, sino que es todo junto. Entonces, tienen una como decir, ¿no tiene un libro usted?

DS: ¿De qué?" (Smith, 2009. p, 202)

In this particular example, the first part is in English and the second part is in Spanish. This is because in this scenario, AP only knows English, and DS is also proficient in Spanish. Therefore, when JM speaks to them he speaks English continuously as long as AP is present and then switches to Spanish when DS is the only conversation partner. Therefore, in this example, both halves are unmarked choices with code switching in between.

Unmarked choice has been used to teach scientific terminology that does not have an equivalent translation (Kite, 2001). While the teacher is explaining the concept, instead of using the target language, they use CS to explain the technical term and increase the possibility of learning by making it more understandable for the student.

2) CS as marked choice

Marked choice, on the other hand, is when the speaker makes an unexpected choice consciously or unconsciously (Jagero & Odongo, 2011). In the following example, the speaker does not need code switching to say words such as insurance, or to say he does not know. However, the speaker does make a sudden code switch, giving rise to a marked choice.

“ER: Ah, dice Miguel Trujillo. (*) record. Ah, consumidor, seguro, gente, estricto (*S) (*)

MT: You don't know?

ER: (*,*S) consumidor (*,*S) insurance, seguro de la casa, (*S) mil ciento cuarenta dólares el contrato del, um, se dio bajo el día de agosto diez y ocho de este año. Um, dice que esto si está bien para, para (*)

(*)

MT or PT: (*) carta!

(*)

ER: Que es para que tú pases (*S) la agencia de seguro (*) del banco, del banco, no, éste es del banco, que te está diciendo que si está asegurado, la

casa por esta cantidad de dólares, está bien o no, tú chequéalo, y el contrato dado es del día diez y ocho.” (Smith, 2009. p, 196)

Motivations for marked choices can vary tremendously. Although Myers-Scotton (1993) initially suggested that code switching as a marked choice is used to renegotiate social distance, other researchers have found that, in many different settings, people can have other intrinsic or extrinsic motivations for marked choices such as semantic motivation or demonstration of symbolic power (Li, 1999; Palmer, 2009, Sohail & Malik, 2014)

3) *CS as an exploratory choice*

A speaker chooses to use code switching as an exploratory choice when there is no unmarked choice, and the speaker may not be sure if the marked choice is appropriate in the social context in which they are interacting. For example:

AR: You're gonna waste your time.
 DS: Hum?
 AR: You're gonna waste your time.
 DS: Bueno, yo te ayudo y tú me ayudas.
 AR: um, hum
 DS: a la vez
 AR: Yeah, that's the reason. Bueno, en ser (clears throat).
 DS: (laughing) Está bien.
 AR: (laughing) Do, do you have other idea for this?
 DS: Uhh, let's see.” (Smith, 2009. p, 207)

In this particular example, the first speaker started in English but the second speaker continues in Spanish. After a while, the first speaker understands that, in order to continue the conversation, it is better to speak Spanish and therefore the first speaker switches to Spanish. In this example, although DS knows both English and Spanish, DS is more proficient in Spanish, so AR decides to switch to Spanish rather than continuing to speak in English. Such code switching can be useful in class when explaining complex terms. This is because the teacher can start the sentence in the language of instruction but if students have difficulty understanding a term in this language, the teacher can switch to the students' L1 to explain the concept or to check understanding.

In summary, the markedness model can suggest an increase or decrease in social distance between the participants in code switching. This model can be used in the

class to create deliberate engagement or negotiation to achieve certain goals. It can be used to emphasise ideas, explain concepts and vocabulary, and to obtain agreement.

2.4.4 Code switching in the classroom

From the earlier discussion on the EFL classroom, it can be seen that there can be a number of ways a teacher uses code switching in the classroom. Among these, widely cited research (Hancock, 1997; Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2005; Sert, 2005; Wheeler & Swords, 2010) discusses functional uses: how a teacher can use code switching as a part of discussion, for class control, building rapport with students, or explaining new concepts. However, there has been increasing interest in when and where this change of language occurs as well; does it occur at the start of discussions, in the middle, or some other place, and why does the teacher switch from English to L1 in such cases? For example, in the following example in a Hong Kong school, it can be seen that the teacher was using L1 to control the class (Johnson, 1983):

“T: Close all your textbooks and class workbooks.

T: Yao keu ka thong hok jong fan lei. Fai tit la. (There are some classmates not back yet. Be quick!)

T: Now, any problem about the class work?” (Johnson, 1983, p.47).

It can be argued that, in such a situation, the teacher did not necessarily need to use L1. He could have used hand clapping or other gestures to indicate that he is unhappy with the latecomers. However, researchers such as Lin (2013) argue that such a change of language is not used to change the context but to send a strong implicit message to students, such as:

“Now I’m so annoyed by these late-comers that I have to put aside all kinds of teaching, including that of English teaching, and concentrate on one single task: that of getting you to settle down quickly! And you’d better take my command seriously as I’m focused on enforcing it!” (Lin, 2013, p.201).

Lin (2013) also argues that, using any other method, it would have been difficult to demonstrate the same level of frustration. Therefore, by observing when such change of language occurs, it is possible to identify the reason behind the switch and provide a more useful indication of why L1 was used. This identification of why L1

was used can be used to find out if the class teacher has used code switching to assist the students to go from “known to unknown” or to compensate his or her own deficiency in expressing the idea in English (Modupela, 2013, p. 93).

2.5 Research gap

As can be seen from the above research, code switching is practised in almost every country around the world. However, based on the review of literature, it can be noted that there are various gaps in the knowledge on using code switching in the EFL classroom in Saudi Arabia. This section summarises these gaps in the research.

2.5.1 Findings relating to CS in the Saudi EFL classroom

According to the literature, code switching in EFL classrooms across the world has led to polarised findings. In some research, CS is found to lead to positive learning experiences (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Cook, 2001; Tang, 1990; Parkinson, 2000), while in some other cases researchers have found negative results (Carroll, 1967; Nguyen, 2013; Macaro, 2000; Turnbull, 2001; Wong-Fillmore, 1985). In the case of Saudi Arabia, recent research suggests that usage of Arabic has been mostly positive. However, a closer look at the research (Mahmoud, 2000; Shehadeh, 2011; Storch & Aldosari, 2010) suggests that it mostly focused on the non-pedagogic aspects of teaching and learning.

Although there has been mention of teachers’ code switching in some research (Bhooth, Azman, & Ismail, 2014; Hussein, 2013; Machaal, 2012; Traish, 2014), when researchers describe current trends of using CS in English classes, there has been limited focus on how teachers’ CS can affect students’ grammar learning. Therefore, one of the aims of this research is to find out how teachers’ code switching can affect students’ grammar learning in EFL classrooms, to test if such findings match the theories reviewed.

2.5.2 What types of code switching can be used in grammar learning?

There has been extensive research on code switching in general. However, there has been limited research on which types of code switching have resulted in increased performance for students and which types have resulted in decreased performance. The present research investigates whether or not a certain type of switch is more useful for pedagogy than others.

2.5.3 Is there any specific amount of teachers' code switching that is beneficial for students' learning?

Although there have been studies on the level of code switching that is beneficial for students in French and English classes in North America, there has been limited research on whether there is a relation between the amount of teachers' code switching and its benefits in an Arabic EFL classroom. This study investigates such an area.

2.6 Chapter summary

From the literature reviewed in this chapter, it can be seen that grammar teaching has been in existence for centuries. Although the manner in which grammar is taught has changed significantly over the years, grammar has maintained its importance in classroom teaching (Ellis, 2006; Folse, Mitchell, Smith-Palinkas, Tortorella, & Arbor, 2005; Leech & Svartvik, 2013; Lightbown & Pienemann, 1993; Rutherford & Smith, 1987). During the period when a focus on grammar was frowned upon, the emphasis on communication increased. When grammar teaching returned to the classroom after it was found that communicative methods alone were insufficient, several techniques were adopted into grammar teaching methods from communicative methods.

With increased understanding about communicative methods, scholars started to research how these methods were taught. During the last thirty years, it was found that across the world it was common for teachers in EFL classrooms to use L1 to teach English (Liebscher, 2003; Xiaoyan, 2011). Although there are many ways L1

and L2 can be used in a conversation, the focus on teachers' code switching in classrooms has gained increased attention (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Alkatheery, 2014; Arthur, 1996; Hancock, 1997; Jingxia, 2010; Khresheh, 2012; Kumaravadivelu, 1999; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005; Lin, 2013; Moodley, 2007; Valdés-Fallis, 1978). However, the research often presents conflicting findings. Some research has found that code switching is beneficial for students while other studies have found that it is rather harmful. Although a large body of research has focused on non-pedagogical events, such as negotiation between formal and informal frames and relationship building, there has been limited research into code switching for teaching purposes.

Even among the studies that have focused on pedagogical function, there have been opposing views among researchers in most parts of the world. One of the exceptions is Saudi Arabia, where recent research suggests that using Arabic is beneficial for students and, therefore, the institutional policy of using English only in EFL classes should be modified. Since there are differing views in other countries, this research aims to fill the gap by testing the theory that using code switching helps Saudi EFL students learn grammar more effectively. In the next chapter, the methodological aspects - the experiments used in this project to test these theories - are discussed in detail.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This study uses a mixed method approach that combines both qualitative and quantitative research methods to answer the research questions. This chapter outlines the methods used in this research.

3.1 Research questions

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to revisit the research questions. This research aims to identify whether code switching can be used to enhance the English learning process of Saudi students, in particular, the learning of grammar. Therefore, the primary research question is: **What is the role of teachers' code switching in the grammatical aspect of the English learning process among female Saudi EFL students in Saudi Arabia?**

As this is a multi-part primary question, it is followed by three secondary research questions. They are the following:

A) Does teachers' code switching promote English academic achievement among students?

This question focuses on the role of teachers' code switching in students' performance in English grammar tests.

B) What kind of code switching, if any, functions as a facilitator of students' learning?

If code switching is found to be useful, this question aims to identify which particular functions of code switching are beneficial.

C) What are the attitudes of learners towards teachers' code switching?

As has been identified in the literature, teachers might use code switching because they think that students prefer it. This question is expected to provide insights into the overall attitudes of students towards code switching.

3.2 Hypothesis

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to introduce the hypothesis and the null hypothesis that are tested in this project. In a project that uses statistics, it is standard practice to carry out hypothesis testing, where a null hypothesis, a claim that the initial hypothesis is false, is formulated and tested. The contention of the null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between cases measured or difference between results from different groups (Norman, 2010).

Based on the primary research question, which asks whether code switching enhances the learning of English grammar among EFL learners, the hypothesis of this research is that code switching helps Saudi EFL learners to improve their English. Therefore, the null hypothesis states that code switching does not help. These can be formulated as:

H₀ : Teachers' code switching does not help EFL learners to improve their English (null hypothesis).

H₁: Teachers' code switching helps Saudi EFL learners to improve their English. (hypothesis).

In order to test this hypothesis, both groups of students chosen for the sample were selected. These groups experienced different levels of code switching by their teachers, where one teacher used minimal code switching (Class A), and in the other class (Class B), the teacher frequently used code switching.

Therefore, for the null hypothesis to be true, improvement in the performance of Class A in the post-test compared to the pre-test needs to be better than the improvement in the performance of Class B.

For H₀ to be true: $\mu_1 > \mu_2$

μ_1 : Average score of Class A students where the teacher did not deliberately switch codes.

μ_2 : Average score of Class B students where the teacher regularly switched codes.

Similarly, if the null hypothesis is false, or there is a positive relationship between a teacher's code-switching and the students' improvement in English, $\mu_1 < \mu_2$.

For H_1 to be true: $\mu_2 > \mu_1$

μ_1 : Average score of Class A students where the teacher did not deliberately switch codes.

μ_2 : Average score of Class B students where the teacher regularly switched codes.

3.3 Measurement and sample population selection

As the objective is to identify how effective code switching is as a grammar learning strategy among Saudi students, the following measurements (Table 1) were used in both classrooms. Each measurement unit was based on traditionally used academic practices. The reasons for the selection of these instruments are explained later in this chapter.

Instrument	Brief summary	Method
Recording of teachers' talk	Four recordings of teachers conducting their classes were taken at four different times (2 teachers; total of 8 recordings). These were later transcribed and analysed.	Qualitative
Pre- and post-tests	28 grammar questions were used for pre- and post-tests administered to students	Quantitative
Attitude survey	60 questions were used to survey students' attitudes towards code switching	Quantitative

Table 1: List of selected measurement instruments

3.3.1 Sample population

Students

As this research is focused on Saudi students, the sample for this study was selected from the Saudi Arabian population. In addition, as mentioned earlier, female Saudi students are an underrepresented group in the literature. The main reasons for this under-representation are that, historically, women had less access to education in Saudi Arabia, and that schools and universities in the country separate the two genders due to religious and cultural reasons. Therefore, it is culturally not possible

for male teachers to conduct research on female students or for female teachers to conduct research on male students. With a limited number of female linguistic researchers in Saudi Arabia, there has not been much research on female students. Therefore, the sample of this study was drawn from third-year female EFL students, also known as Grammar 3 class students at the King Saud University College of Languages and Translation, Saudi Arabia. These students were all Saudis but from different regions, aged between 19 and 24 years old. All of them had exposure to English when they were in high school as part of a mandatory English subject they had to take. They were selected for the classroom observation, for pre- and post-testing, as well as for participation in a questionnaire on attitudes towards code switching.

Teachers

Both Class A and Class B teachers had the same qualifications. Both of them obtained their masters in Applied Linguistics and had been teaching English in the Department for many years. The Class A teacher received her masters from Saudi Arabia and the Class B teacher received a masters degree from an Australian university.

3.3.2 Grammar class setting

Each section in the grammar classes at the college has a capacity of 25 students. All the sections of a particular class (subject) followed exactly the same teaching syllabus, resources and assessments (in-class tests and midterm examinations). All students sit for midterm examinations or tests at the same time, regardless of the section they are in. Teachers who teach these classes have the same education level (qualifications) and come from the same department. Therefore, the setting of the grammar class was free from additional variables such as differences in education materials or students being grouped based on their past performance.

3.4 Recruitment process

This section outlines the process of recruiting the participants for this project, that is, teachers and students of King Saud University.

3.4.1 Ethics and prearrangements

In order to conduct this experiment, contact was made with the university administration after the ethics application for this project was approved by Western Sydney University's Human Research Ethics Committee. Based on the correspondence, specific fieldwork dates were set to match the semester timetable of King Saud University.

Two weeks before starting the fieldwork, meetings were conducted with the classroom teachers in order to gain an understanding of the teaching methods, and to explain the project to the teachers. Following discussions with the teachers, two class sections were selected. In one of the sections (marked as Class B) the teacher would conduct heavy code switching (explained later), and in another class (marked as Class A) the teacher would conduct minimal code switching. Apart from this difference in the undertaking of code switching, everything else about their regular teaching remained unchanged.

3.4.2 Differences in code switching

In the previous section, it was mentioned that one of the teachers agreed to conduct heavy code switching while the other agreed to carry out minimal code switching. This section discusses the difference between heavy and minimal code switching.

Minimal code switching is understood to mean that CS would be used purely for conversational purposes or for controlling a situation. In a classroom setting, this could be calling the student's name or to assert control of the class. In minimal code switching mode, the teacher would not explain any concepts by switching codes, but, rather, would explain these in the target language, which, for this class, was English.

In heavy code switching, the teacher would use code switching for various situations. This can range from general conversation, explaining concepts, classroom

discussion and encouraging students, to discussing everything within the classroom context.

This code switching was only related to teachers, and, as it is difficult to ask teachers to change their habits, the teachers for this study were chosen based on their usual teaching methods. One teacher preferred to use more code switching in class and the other teacher preferred to use English only, with sporadic code switching. Therefore, for this project, the chosen teachers were not required to change their usual behaviour or teaching methods.

3.4.3 Selection of participants

The student participants belonged to the two sections that were selected. No separate recruitment processes were used to select the students. Instead all the students enrolled in those two sections were invited to participate in this project, and were asked to sign a consent form if they were willing to participate in the study. If a student did not want to participate in the classroom observation, they were able to notify the teacher and could change to another class for that day.

Similarly, if a student did not want to take the test or fill out the survey forms, she could choose not to, and could return a blank sheet. As a result, there were differences in the number of participants in various parts of this project (Table 2). As the attitude survey was conducted earlier, almost all students participated. However, some students did not attend the post-test session even though they took the pre-test. These students were excluded from the analysis of the dataset. Table 2 shows the number of students who completed both the pre- and post-tests and who participated in the attitude survey. Out of 46 students (23 students from each class) who completed the attitude survey, 28 students (14 from each class) were included for analysis, as they also participated in the pre- and post-tests. It ought to be noted that participation of an equal number of students in both classes was a coincidence and was not intentionally arranged. Since participation was voluntary, at the beginning of the semester 20 students from Class A and 18 students from Class B took part in the pre-test. However, 6 of those students from Class A and 4 from Class B decided not to take part in the post-test. Therefore, only 14 students from each class attended both tests.

Class section	Pre and post test	Attitude survey
Class A (minimal CS)	14	23
Class B (heavy CS)	14	23

Table 2: Total number of student participants for pre- and post-test and attitude survey from Grammar 3 class

In addition to the two groups above, all other students who were enrolled in English classes at King Saud University were invited to participate in the attitude survey. The selection was not restricted to the Grammar 3 class in order to identify students' general attitudes towards code switching. A total of 350 students participated in this survey.

3.5 Syllabus and schedule

Before proceeding, it is important to take a look at the topics covered in the classes and the duration of each class to provide a general background to the test questions. Although the semester was 16 weeks long, it included a registration week, two exam weeks and one mid-term break. Therefore, 12 weeks of classes were conducted which covered the items listed in Table 3. Complete details of the syllabus are attached in the Appendix; in this section the topics and the questions are discussed.

The class started with focusing on conjunctions and types of sentences. For the following 10 weeks, the class then proceeded to work on different types of clauses. In each week the clauses were explained in detail, and included topics such as reported speech, embedded questions, clauses with multiple meanings and so on. Therefore, the questions asked in these pre- and post-test periods were based on the topics covered during the semester to ensure that students were tested only on the contents of these classes.

Topics covered	Duration
Conjunction	Half week
Types of sentences (simple, compound, complex)	1 and a half weeks
Noun clauses	3 weeks
Adjective clauses	4 weeks
Adverb clauses	3 weeks

Table 3: Number of weeks each topic was covered during entire semester

3.6 Instrument design

This section describes the design of the instruments that were used in this project. As noted, this project employed a mixed methods design. The qualitative component, which consisted of classroom observation, compared the amount of code switching in the two classes and looked at the reasons why teachers performed code switching. The quantitative methods employed, on the other hand, addressed students' improvement (main RQ), and used traditional educational measurement tools, such as class tests and the survey, which investigated the attitudes of learners towards code switching (sub RQ 2).

3.6.1 Qualitative instruments

Observation is a qualitative research method which is used to observe the flow of behaviour in its own setting and has great ecological validity. Classroom observation is one of the most popular methods used in exploratory and ethnographic studies (Tang, 2002). This method has been used to study students (Liu, 2006) as well as teachers (Kang, 2008) in many EFL classrooms around the world. In order to identify how often and for what purposes the teachers used code switching while delivering their lectures, and the ways in which students reacted, the classroom observation method was used.

3.6.2 Quantitative instruments

It is common to assign numerals to identify traits such as achievement, interest, attitudes, aptitude, intelligence and performance in quantitative methods. In lieu of

that, the class test is a traditional educational measurement tool and it was used in this research, because data, such as scores obtained from educational assessments, have been used for many years to infer the abilities and proficiencies of students.

3.6.3 Recording of teachers' talk

As mentioned earlier, classroom recording was used for the qualitative part of the study. The objective of classroom recording was to identify how often and why the teacher performed code switching. In order to conduct the classroom observations, the researcher was present at each of the recording sessions. As the objective was to record in a setting as natural as possible, the researcher did not participate in any part of the classes.

For the purpose of this project, a Sony sound recording system was used. As the objective was to record the teacher's code switching, the recorder was placed at the front of the class where the researcher sat during the time of recording. Since two classes were recorded, and each recording was done in the presence of the researcher, the classes were recorded in alternate weeks. A total of four recordings per class were conducted and these recordings covered scheduled lessons that focused on sentence types, noun clauses, adjectival clauses and adverbial clauses in each class. Each recording was 45 minutes long, which is the entire duration of each class. A total of eight recordings were conducted from February to May 2013.

The presence of the researcher was not a distraction for the class. During the first class, the researcher introduced herself, and in the following classes the researcher took notes to mark when the teacher performed code switching in order to use this information during the transcription process.

3.6.4 Transcription and coding

Creating coding categories is one of the most important tasks in analysing qualitative data (Saldaña, 2012). Once classroom conversation data are assigned to their respective categories, these categories can be analysed to identify patterns. For the purpose of this research, two coding categories by Shizuka (2006) and Sert

(2005) have been synthesised to create a single coding category (Table 4). These were used to identify the reason behind the code switching that occurred in the class.

Coding Category	Performed by	Description
Topic switch (TS)	Teacher	“The teacher alters his/her language according to the topic that is under discussion” (Sert, 2005, p.2).
Affective functions (AF)	Teacher	“Code switching is used by the teacher in order to build solidarity and a close relationship with the students” (Sert, 2005, p.3).
Repetitive functions (RF)	Teacher	“The teacher uses code switching in order to transfer necessary knowledge to the students for clarity” (Sert, 2005, p.3).
Emphasis (ES)	Teacher	The teacher uses CS to emphasise a specific word or part of a sentence (Sert, 2005).
CS Upon request (UR)	Student	A student code switches because the teacher initiated CS and the student follows the trend (Shizuka, 2006). In our case, this would apply when a teacher’s code switching is prompted by a student’s code switching.
Lexical gap (LG)	Student	A student does not know the English word and may use her native word. A teacher might do the same if she forgets the English word at that moment and uses a native word to continue the conversation (Shizuka, 2006).
Repair (RR)	Student / teacher	A student or the teacher uses a different language to fix a mistake made (Sert, 2005; Shizuka, 2006).
Private speech (PS)	Student	Teacher or student uses CS to discuss private conversation with another student (Shizuka, 2006).
Other categories (OT)	Student / teacher	Any other code switching that does not fall into the above coding categories.

Table 4: Coding category for analysing teacher’s talk

3.6.5 Test question development

In order to gauge the performance of learners, it is a common practice to conduct tests (Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Ferman, 1996). 28 questions were asked in the pre- and post-tests to identify the role of teachers’ code switching in the students’ learning of grammar. The questions for the test utilised the regular test methods and used exactly the same questions in the pre- and post-tests, however in a changed

order to see whether the students' knowledge of grammar had improved. Such grammar tests have been used by other researchers when investigating code switching to test improvement (Sankoff & Poplack, 1981; Wheeler & Swords, 2010). This section describes the format and procedure of the pre- and post-test questions.

Question format

Recognition and production are generally the aspects most commonly focused on when testing grammar (Ervin, 1964). To test recognition ability, various methods such as multiple choice questions (Liu & Reed, 1995), error recognition, true or false detection, pair matching and cloze methods (John Jr, 1972) are used. On the other hand, common methods are used to test the student's ability to reproduce English grammar, item completion, transformation, paraphrasing, rearranging, blank filling, editing sentences and word substitution. Since the objective of this study is to understand any improvement in students' grammar, including recognition as well as production, a combination of multiple choice and fill-in-the-blank questions was used.

Topics covered	Question
Conjunction	Fill in the blank with the suitable conjunction
Types of sentences (simple, compound, complex)	Specify the type of each sentence
	Choose the correct indirect statement that reports the following sentences
Clauses	Underline the dependent clause in the following sentences and circle its type
	Choose the type of the following dependent clauses
Combination of all topics	Circle the best completion for the following

Table 5: Types of test questions and the topics covered in pre- and post-test questions

Exam procedures

The pre-test took place in week one of the semester before class started, and the post-test was conducted in week 16 after the class finished. In both tests, the students were given half an hour to answer 28 questions. As the questions did not require

them to write in narrative form, they were given only half an hour to complete the test.

Questions

The following are the questions asked in the pre- and post-tests, which examined the topics outlined in Table 5. The idea was that the students undertaking the pre-test would not be able to correctly identify what the clauses in the test were. However, in the post-test, the possibility that students would be able to do so was much higher, since they had studied this in class by then. However, not all the students were expected to answer everything correctly and the test would determine, on average, which class's students did better.

1) Underline the dependent clause in the following sentences and circle its type.

In this question, the students were given four sentences, were asked to underline the dependent clause in each sentence and then circle whether that clause was an adverbial clause, a noun clause, or an adjectival clause.

2) Specifying the type of sentence.

In this question, students were asked to state whether the sentence was a simple, compound, complex or compound complex sentence. Identification of such types of sentences is generally much easier than identification of other types of grammar, due to their obvious syntactic variation (Snyder, 2001). Therefore, the expectation was that students might be able to identify these correctly even in the pre-test, and this question may thus provide an indication of the level of students' existing grammar knowledge.

3) Choose the type of the following dependent clauses.

In this question, correct identification of the clause becomes more complex. Here, students were asked to identify the subjunctive clause, the time clause, and the restrictive clause. An understanding of dependent clauses allows students to create complete sentences rather than sentences that are left "hanging" (Folse, Mitchell, Smith-Palinkas, Tortorella, & Arbor, 2005). These were covered in detail in class

and therefore students were expected to know the answers in the post-test more often than in the pre-test.

4) Circle the best completion for the following.

There were six fill-in-the-blank questions in this section and each question had a different type of answer. Someone who has a good command of English may be able to answer this well, even if they have not studied advanced grammar. However, similar to the previous question, students were expected to do better in the post-test.

5) Choose the correct indirect statements that clarify the following sentences.

Students were given two sentences that used indirect statements, but only one of them was correct. Therefore, the task was to identify which statement was incorrect. This question was designed to test their understanding of the usage of indirect statements.

6) Fill in the blank with the suitable conjunction.

In this question, students were to choose a conjunction that would fit the sentence containing a blank line. Similar to the sentence completion task, it was possible for students with a good command of English to answer correctly in the pre-test.

3.6.6 Survey question development

The objective of using survey questions was to gain an understanding of the students' attitudes towards the teachers' code switching in the classroom. A total of 60 questions were distributed to 350 students in the university. The complete questionnaire is attached in Appendix B. This section provides the reasons for asking the particular questions and the way in which the questions were grouped.

The 60 questions were based on the groups in Table 6. For each group there were four questions, where answers to three questions supported the generated description and the motivation for that particular group, while answers to one question suggested the complete opposite. This was to test whether the students were

randomly filling in the answers to the questions or whether they actually understood the questions.

Survey topic	Description of how code switching (CS) helps or does not help
Replacing	Usage of CS to replace the word that the student is not familiar with
More understanding	Increased understanding if teacher and student conduct CS
Mental linkage	Creating a link between Arabic and English
Emphasising	Focusing on a specific word or sentence
Understanding English grammar	Role of teachers' CS helps students to gain a better understanding of English grammar
Speaking	Switching between languages creates better English speakers
Confidence	The students feel confident to speak
Cooperation	Increased cooperation between students
Link between concept and meaning	Explanation of difficult concepts
Explanation of difficult vocabulary	Explanation of difficult vocabulary
Explanation of grammatical rules	Explaining complex grammatical rules
Class engagement	Increasing engagement between students and teachers in the class
Empathising (teacher-student relationship)	Building better relationships between teachers and students
Class atmosphere	Building a better atmosphere in the class
Effectiveness	As an effective strategy to learn English

Table 6: Survey topics and how each topic is related to code switching

Question format

The first page of the survey contained information about the research and the name and contact details of the researcher. It also asked respondents to state what they thought their English level was and which class they were in. Since code switching is not a familiar term, a brief description of code switching was also included. The questionnaire is included in Appendix B.

Questions started on the second page of the survey and each statement was associated with a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from completely disagree (1) to completely agree (5). At the top of the second page, a table was included to describe

the Likert scale. Participants were asked to read all of the statements carefully and indicate their level of agreement with each statement. In order to ensure that the number of questions did not overwhelm the students, the survey was printed double sided, with 2 pages per sheet, so that all questions, including the introduction, fitted on 3 sheets of paper.

Translation of the questionnaire

Since the survey was meant for a large number of students who may or may not have sufficient proficiency to understand the questions in English, each sentence was also translated into Arabic. This was done to ensure that students filled in their answers appropriately, and not randomly because they did not understand the questions. As a native Arabic speaker and a competent English speaker, the researcher translated the questions into Arabic. To ensure the contents of the translation were accurate, a “back translation for a questionnaire” process was used which checked that, when the Arabic sentences were translated back into English, they retained the same meaning (Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998). The translation was checked and confirmed with university staff from the King Saud University to ensure that there were no inconsistencies.

Survey distribution and collection

The survey was conducted in two different batches. In one batch were the students from each class who took part in the experiment, and in the other batch were the other students from the university-wide group. The survey was conducted at the end of first semester in 2014, as this gives an indication of whether there is any difference between a student’s attitudes when she has been exposed to mostly English during the entire semester and when there has been the usual exposure to code switching in the classroom. Conducting the survey at the end of the semester allowed for maximum student participation, although it made no difference whether the survey was done at the beginning or end of the semester to the university-wide students, since they were not part of the experimental groups.

In-class survey response

For the in-class surveys, the students in both sections were given the survey at the beginning of the class and were asked to return the survey before they left the

class. They could choose not to fill the survey in, or they could submit a blank survey. This was discussed with the class teacher prior to undertaking the fieldwork to ensure that the students were allocated 30 minutes as part of their class time to answer the questionnaire.

University wide survey response

The university-wide survey was distributed to all teachers in the College of Language and Translation at King Saud University to hand out to their students. Similar to the Grammar 3 class, students were allowed to return the survey at the end of the class. The students did not have to participate if they did not want to. After the class, the teachers returned the survey to the researcher. Similarly to the in-class survey, the teachers were informed prior to the class so that they could allocate sufficient time for students to complete the questionnaire.

3.7 Data collection and management

This section describes the data collection process and the management of all the three parts of this project: classroom observation and transcription as well as survey and pre- and post-test data collection.

3.7.1 Data format

As this research uses mixed methods, data were generated from both qualitative and quantitative components of the project. This section discusses the type of data generated and how they were stored and used.

Qualitative data

Classroom observation was the only qualitative method used in this project and the data resulting from this were recorded and transcribed.

Classroom observation data: As mentioned earlier, classroom observations were recorded with a digital audio recorder. The recordings were transferred to a computer using Sony transfer software. The recording device was connected to the computer

via a USB cable. This resulted in an m4a format, which is playable with any media player on the computer. Each classroom recording was stored separately using the naming convention “class name” + “recording sequence” + “date of recording”, so that it could be easily identified at a later stage. An example of such a format is: Class A (1) 19/2.m4a or Class B (3). 3/4.

Transcription: For the transcription of the classroom interactions, the recording was played and transcribed manually. Although several attempts were made to use automated software, such as Google Voice, Apple Siri and Dragon Dictate to convert the transcription, the result was not satisfactory and therefore the transcription was done manually. Since the transcripts contained both Arabic and English, Arabic was recorded as transliterated Arabic and English as English text. The phonetic transcription was based on “Arabic through the Quran” by Alan Jones of the Islamic Texts Society (Dukes, 2011). Once the transcription was complete, another native Arabic-speaking PhD candidate was employed to identify whether there were any inconsistencies in the transcription.

Quantitative data

Two types of quantitative data were generated by this project - one from the results of the survey and the other from the answers to the questions in the pre- and post-tests.

Survey forms: As the survey was given out as a printed copy, it was digitised for later analysis. The first step of digitisation involved scanning all the survey forms and storing them on a computer. This is in line with Western Sydney University’s data management strategy, which encourages researchers to store all data in digital format to ensure longevity. Once the survey forms were digitised, all of the output was converted into a single spreadsheet in order to analyse this using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Pre- and post-tests: Similar to the survey forms, the pre- and post-tests were also given to students as printed copies. Therefore, the next step was to scan and store them and then transfer the data onto respective spreadsheets. The results were stored according to question as well as according to student, so that, in the latter case, the progress made by each student could be clearly identified.

3.7.2 Variable grouping

For the analysis of data, SPSS was used. This section outlines the process that was used to import data.

Pre- and post-tests

The test scores were entered into SPSS as shown in Table 7. Data that were used for calculation purposes were stored as ordinal data, while other data were stored as nominal data, following the traditional measurement scale used for classroom tests (Norman, 2010).

Variable type	Class	Student ID	Student name	Marks for the question	Total marks in that question	Total marks in the pre-test	Total marks in the post-test
Variable	Class A or B	ID number of the student	Name of the student	Either 0, 0.5 or 1	Total scores for that question	Total marks for that student for all questions. Max. score 28	Total marks for that student for all questions. Max. score 28
Level of measurement	Nominal	Nominal	Nominal	Ordinal	Ordinal	Ordinal	Ordinal

Table 7: Legends and measurement used to analyse pre- and post-test results

Survey data format

Each student's survey was recorded in its own row, where each column represented the survey questions. The variables were entered as shown in Table 8. Since only the values were measurable, they were stored as ordinal data, while others were stored as nominal data, in accordance with the statistical norms for the Likert scale (Norman, 2010).

Variable type	Group	Question no	Label	Values
Variable	Class A or B or other students	Q1 to Q60	Details of the question	5= completely agree 4= agree 3 = neutral 2= disagree 1 = completely disagree
Level of measurement	Nominal	Nominal	Nominal	Ordinal

Table 8: Data type of attitude survey questions

3.8 Chapter summary

Various items related to the experiments were discussed in the methodology section. As well as discussing participant selection and instrument selection, the reasons for such selection were discussed. This section summarises the methodology and methods used.

Methods used

Three different methods were used in this dissertation. Pre- and post-tests were used to test grammar knowledge. Classroom observation was used to identify the reasons for the teachers' code switching. An attitude survey was used to reveal the general opinion regarding code switching among students.

Participants / sample selection

All participants were selected from King Saud University students. There were two groups of participants. One group, comprising students from two sections of Grammar 3 class students, participated in pre- and post-tests as well as in the attitude survey. Classroom observation was also conducted on these two sections. Based on attendance at the three events (tests, class observation and survey), the results of 14 students out of 25 students from each class were selected for analysis. In addition, survey answers were collected from 350 other students from King Saud University.

Test questions

28 different written questions on grammar, which matched the class syllabus, were included in the pre- and post-tests. These were also the topics that were looked for while analysing classroom observation to determine the relationship between test scores and code switching. The questions included various types - fill in the blanks, multiple choice as well as polar questions (yes/ no questions) - to ensure that the student's competence rather than her test taking ability was measured.

Classroom observation

A modified version of the COLT (continuous on-line tuning) framework for classroom observation was used. Instead of a ranking system that is often used in the COLT model, a coding system was developed and used for classroom observation and analysis. By using a well-established framework for observation, the observation was more systematic and reproducible.

Attitude survey

Survey questions were based on the literature that discussed why people code switch. By focusing on the reasons for code switching, the aim is to identify how often the reasons are related to learning and how often they are related to purely conversation or social occasions.

These methods were implemented during the fieldwork at King Saud University. The findings are analysed in the next chapter, followed by a discussion of the findings in the following chapter.

Chapter 4: Findings

In Chapter Two, the relevant literature was reviewed to identify research gaps. This was followed by the methodology section, which described how the fieldwork for this project was conducted. This chapter describes the findings from the analysis of the data gathered from classroom observation and the results of the pre- and post-test scores and from the attitude survey.

The primary research question of this dissertation is whether code switching can be helpful in learning English grammar. In order to answer this question, a significant part of the fieldwork involved recording classroom activities and transcribing the recordings, as well as conducting pre- and post-tests to investigate whether there was a correlation between the amount of code switching and grammar learnt among students.

In order to investigate the correlation between code switching and grammar learning, the findings were divided into three parts:

- 1) The transcripts of the teachers' talk were used to determine which class teacher had performed more code switching. In addition, a qualitative analysis was conducted to identify what prompted the teacher to code switch.
- 2) The pre- and post-test results were used to identify the class in which the students learned more grammar and to verify whether there was a correlation between these results and the frequency/amount of code switching in each class.
- 3) The findings from the attitude survey were used to determine the students' general attitudes towards code switching and whether their views influenced classroom behaviour in any way.

4.1 Units of analysis

The following were the units of analysis used in this thesis.

4.1.1 Transcription of teachers' talk

As mentioned earlier, teachers were the focus of the classroom recordings in order to identify which teacher did more code switching. As Class A and Class B were taught by separate teachers, all the transcripts of Class A recordings related to one specific teacher and those of Class B reflected the language choices of the other teacher.

To find out how often each teacher code switched, each sentence was marked as “CS to English”, “CS to Arabic”, “English” or “Arabic” in the transcription. For example in the following instance, the teacher started with Arabic, followed this with English, and switched to Arabic again before continuing with English. Therefore, the first and third sentences were marked as CS to Arabic as the previous sentence in each case was in English, while the second and fourth were marked as CS to English, and the fifth was marked as English, since the previous sentence was in English and there was no switching of codes in that sentence.

Sentence	Code switching	Class
T: <i>tmām</i> [ok], <i>Khalynā nrūḥ llghyab</i> [Let's check attendance].	CS to Arabic	B01
T: Then we can come back in completing what is left.	CS to English	B01
T: <i>a'l ma nsawy alḥdūr wa alghyab</i> [Till we check the attendance].	CS to Arabic	B01
T: I need you to work on practice number two on page 300 please.	CS to English	B01
T: what you will be doing is starting every sentence with the word.	English	B01

Table 9: An example of how each sentence from the teacher's talk was coded in its respective coding group

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to address again the reason for using sentences as the unit of evaluation. In Chapter Two, it was identified that there are two types of code switching identified by Poplack (1980) and popularised by Myers-Scotton. The first is intra-sentential code switching, which occurs between sentence boundaries. The second is inter-sentential code switching, which occurs at the sentence boundary. Some researchers argue that intra-sentential code switching is more suitable to helping early language listeners to gain a better understanding of what is being said (Lipski, 1985), while others argue that inter-sentential switching is more useful for learning (Arthur, 1996). Other researchers have suggested that both types of code switching are helpful for students in learning, as both types have their strengths. Since the purpose of this study was to identify whether teachers' code switching could help students from Saudi Arabia to learn English, both intra- and inter-sentential code switching were considered. In order to do so, as soon as there was a switch of codes, this was recorded as a new "sentence" to identify whether the switch was to English or to Arabic. The following is an example of how the transcripts were broken into relevant analysis units. In the following example it can be seen that, although the segment from lines 1 to 4 actually belongs to a single sentence boundary, it is broken into 4 units for the purpose of this analysis because code switching occurred more than once in the same sentence. In lines 5 to 7, there was a switch only once in the same sentence. Therefore, lines 5, 6 and 7 were counted as a single unit of analysis but lines 1, 2, 3 and 4 were counted as different units of analysis.

- 1 T: *Idhan wish 'indina? 'indinā wāḥid yarubṭ bīn wiḥdatīn mutasāwiyatīn* 'grammatically' [so. what do we have? we have two equal units grammatically].
- 2 T: *ellī huwwā* [which is] coordinative conjunction.
- 3 T: *wāḥid yījī fī bidāyait al* "dependent clause" [one comes at the beginning of a dependent clause].
- 4 T: *elli howwa mīn?* [which is] subordinate conjunction.
- 5 T: *Wa wāḥid yījī fī muntaṣaf 'aw nihāyit* an independent clause, or a strong clause [one can come in the middle or the end of an independent clause, or a strong clause].
- 6 T: *'ish 'ismū? Ashwak?* [what is it called Ashwak?]
- 7 S: *'ismū* adverbial conjunction or conjunctive adverb. [Its called conjunction or conjunctive adverb].

4.1.2 Pre- and post-tests

Pre- and post-tests focused on students' results. The classes were the same as those in the classroom recordings. Although each class consisted of 23 students, only 14 students from each class were present for both tests. Therefore, the score of each student was the unit of analysis.

4.1.3 Attitude survey

An attitude survey towards code switching was conducted with the same groups of students from Class A and Class B, in addition to a larger university-wide group. The result for each student survey was used as the unit of analysis.

4.2 Transcription of teachers' talk

The reason why the teachers' talk was recorded and transcribed is that before it can be suggested that more (or less) code switching helps in the learning of grammar, the matter of whether one class actually had more (or less) code switching than the other needs to be verified. Recording both classes an equal number of times and analysing the transcripts of these recordings can help identify whether one class tends to have more code switching than the other.

As mentioned in the Methodology chapter, various methods are used by researchers to analyse transcripts qualitatively and quantitatively. If the objective of the analysis was to identify how many times code switching occurred in the classroom, a simple count of code switching would suffice. However, as the goal of the analysis is not only to count how many times teachers code switched but also to identify why the teacher code switched from English to Arabic or from Arabic to English, a method known as "coding" was adopted. This is a well-established qualitative method used by social science researchers, which often uses "a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, essence-capturing attribute for a portion of language-based data" (Saldaña, 2012, p. 3). For the purpose of this research, transcriptions were grouped into categories, such as administrative activity, explanation of grammatical rules, question answer sequence, emphasis, or repetitive

function. Since the goal was to identify if and when the teacher code switched in order to explain grammatical concepts or for any other reason, this was the method used to group each sentence into its respective category. By using this approach, if the pre- and post-test results showed that in the class the teacher code switched less the performance was better, it can be suggested that a high level of code switching is not useful for grammar learning. On the other hand, if in the class where the teacher used more Arabic than English the students had a better result than the other class, it can be suggested that code switching can improve grammar learning. The findings in this section report the amount in each group.

4.2.1 Overall distribution of CS

After marking each sentence in all eight transcripts (four from Class A and four from Class B) using the criteria outlined in Section 4.1 (Units of analysis), the frequency of the teachers' use of code switching or use of English and Arabic were calculated. Based on the distribution of language usage, there was significantly more code switching in Class B than in Class A. In all four recordings of the teacher's talk in Class A, English was used more than 95% of the time and the remaining 5% consisted of code switching to Arabic and back to English. On the other hand, in Class B recordings of the teacher's talk, code switching to Arabic and Arabic was used more than 60% of the time.

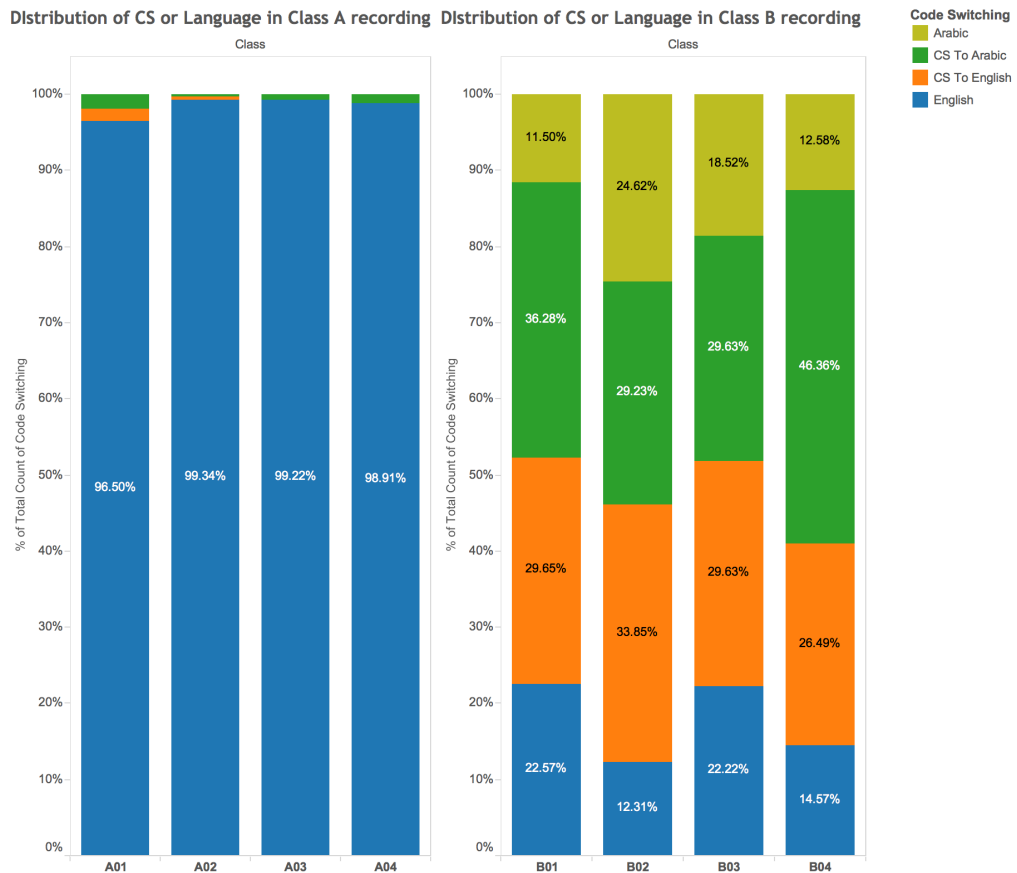


Figure 1: Distribution of language or code switching in classroom recordings

Although the percentage of Arabic, English, and code switching to Arabic and English varied from one class recording to the other, in general, the patterns of language usage by each teacher were consistent in their four respective classes (A01 to A04 or B01 to B04). As can be seen in Figure 1, in Class A, the teacher switched to Arabic and then to English only a few times in the entire transcript. The rest of the class was conducted in English. In comparison, in Class B, the teacher either used Arabic or code switched to Arabic significantly more than switching to English or using English in all of the four classes.

However, understanding at what point the teacher switched code and what might have prompted her to switch codes is more important than counting how many times code switching occurred. The general description mentioned earlier does not show the breakdown of what code switching was used for; it could have been used for teaching and learning, class control or administrative activities. Having a breakdown of the reasons for switching is, therefore, more important. Consequently, for each

sentence or part of a sentence, if there was an intra-sentential code switch, this was also marked with a coding category. The following section describes this process in detail.

4.2.2 Sentence grouping from the transcription

To identify the reason for code switching by the teacher, each sentence where CS occurred from the teacher's talk was assigned a "code", or "a summative, essence-capturing attribute" (Saldaña, 2012, p. 3). As mentioned in the methodology section, this is a widely used practice among social science researchers, and it is adopted in this research project. Based on the literature, the following categories are commonly used in coding classroom transcription:

- 1) Teaching and learning
- 2) Question-answer sequence
- 3) Administrative activity

However, as this research aims to identify whether code switching can help students learn grammar, these categories were divided into further subcategories in order to identify more detailed reasons for the teacher's code switching behaviour. Based on previous research (Valdés-Fallis, 1978; Canagarajah, 1995; Sert, 2005; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009) on code switching using classroom transcription as well as analysing the teachers' talk in the classroom, the following fourteen subcategories were used in this research:

- 1) LG - Explanation of grammatical rules
- 2) LE- Emphasis OR repetitive functions
- 3) LV - Explanation of difficult vocabulary
- 4) LQ - Question-answer sequences regarding grammar
- 5) LE - Encouragement
- 6) CT - Topic switch
- 7) CA - Building solidarity
- 8) CR - CS Upon request
- 9) CF - Feedback or question
- 10) AA - Administrative activity
- 11) AE – Assignment and exam related

- 12) AR - Repair
- 13) PS - Private speech
- 14) OT - Other categories

Once coding categories were established, classroom transcripts were coded by the researcher and another PhD candidate. This was done to ensure inter-coder reliability (Saldaña, 2012). According to Saldaña (2012), for there to be sufficient inter-coder reliability, if two separate coders are using the same manual, they should agree at least 60% of the time. The following is an example of how each sentence was coded.

Sentence	Code Switching	Code	Class
T: <i>tmām, Khalynā nrūḥ llghyab</i> [OK, Let's check the attendance].	CS to Arabic	AA	B01
T: Then we can come back in completing what is left.	CS To English	AA	B01
T: <i>a'l ma nsawy alḥdūr wa alghyab</i> [Till we check the attendance].	CS to Arabic	AA	B01

Table 10: An example of how the teacher's talk was coded according to classroom activity

Based on the example, it can be seen that checking attendance, in this case, was grouped under administrative activity because it falls under a generic class control activity. Besides the activity, whether there was an instance of code switching was checked, and if so, whether it was to English or Arabic, was recorded.

By examining another example from this grouping or coding, it can be seen that when the teacher explained a grammatical rule, it is grouped under LG - explanation of grammatical rules. In terms of code switching, it was recorded as English or code switching to Arabic or English.

Sentence	Code switching	Code	Class
T: Directional and times related verbs may also change according to when and where the reported speech occurred.	English	LG	B01
T: <i>fyh 'ndy f'lyn</i> bring <i>tsyr</i> take, come <i>tsyr</i> go. [We have two verbs: bring becomes take, come becomes go.]	CS to Arabic	LG	B01

Table 11: An example of the teacher's explanation of grammatical rules using English and code switching

Similar to the two examples provided, each time there was a switch in conversation or a new sentence (or part of sentence, when there was a switch) was uttered, this was grouped into one of the coding categories. By using this coding system and by counting the frequency of codes, how often each teacher code switched while teaching compared to conducting other activities can be further investigated. After ensuring inter-coder agreement was at least 60%, the results were finalised. In the following subsection, the results of the coding are reported.

Class A

In order to gain an understanding of the reasons for code switching, this section analyses the transcripts of teachers' talk and categorises them based on the coding categories mentioned earlier. In section 4.1, Units of analysis, it was mentioned that there were two ways each code switch was counted. If there was only one switch in a sentence, it was recorded as one sentence but if there were more than one switch of codes in the same sentence, it was broken into a new sentence at the switch boundary. After that, each "sentence" (segment) was marked as English, CS to English, Arabic or CS to Arabic depending on whether there was a switch or continuation from the previous segment. In addition, each of these sentences was coded based on its coding category. This was done to find out not only how often the teacher switched codes but also the reason behind each switch.

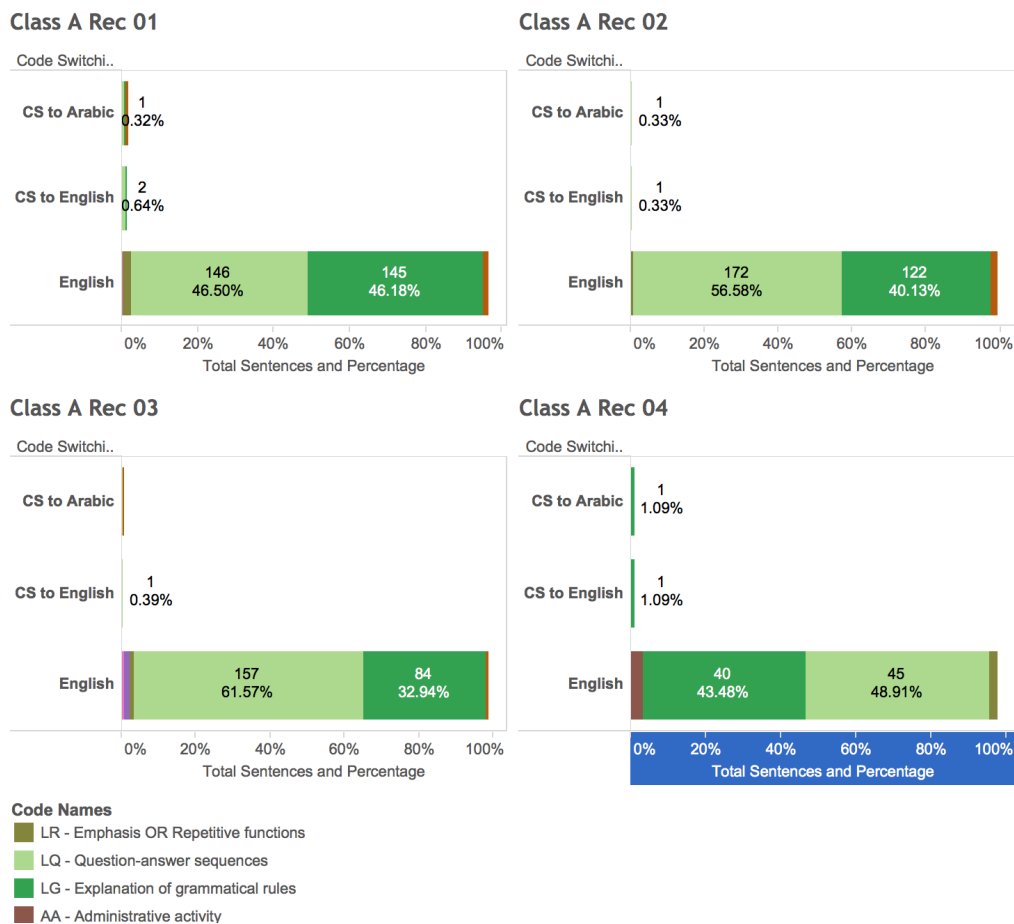


Figure 2: Distribution of code switching by activity type or function in Class A

The result of this method can be seen in Figure 2 in Class A, where the largest groups in the teacher's talk were related to "explanation of grammatical rules" and "question-answer sequence" which were mostly done in English. This means that in terms of language, there were minimal switches of codes in the entire transcription. In terms of topics, the majority of the topics were in the area of teaching and learning. Among these, in "question-answer sequence", the lecturer spent a large chunk of time posing questions to the students and then explaining concepts, while checking that students answered correctly.

In addition, another important observation that can be made in looking at Figure 2 is that none of the sentences were marked as "Arabic". This is because in each class, the teacher switched to Arabic only once and since that switch was made from English, it was marked as CS to Arabic instead of Arabic. If she were to continue using Arabic after completing that sentence, the next sentence would be marked as

“Arabic”. However, on all occasions she switched back to English, and therefore it was marked as “CS to English”.

Besides identifying switching of codes, another grouping was done based on the reason for the switch. From Figure 2 it can be seen there were only 9 switches from English to Arabic or Arabic to English, and out of 9 switches, 5 were related to administrative activity. The following is an example where the teacher switched codes.

- 1 T: Ready?
- 2 T: Ok, yalla Nourah (go on Nourah).
- 3 S: On the night when East German soldiers begun building the Berlin wall the lives of Germans suddenly changed.

When it came to teaching and learning, the teacher only used code switching 4 times and during the rest of the class, she used English. This was very different from Class B, which is reported in detail in a later section.

Analysis of learning activities

Although there were more coding categories, from Figure 2 it can be seen that the Class A teacher used most of the class time for teaching and learning related discussion. This section therefore examines distribution of coding categories related to teaching and learning in the teacher’s talk in Class A.

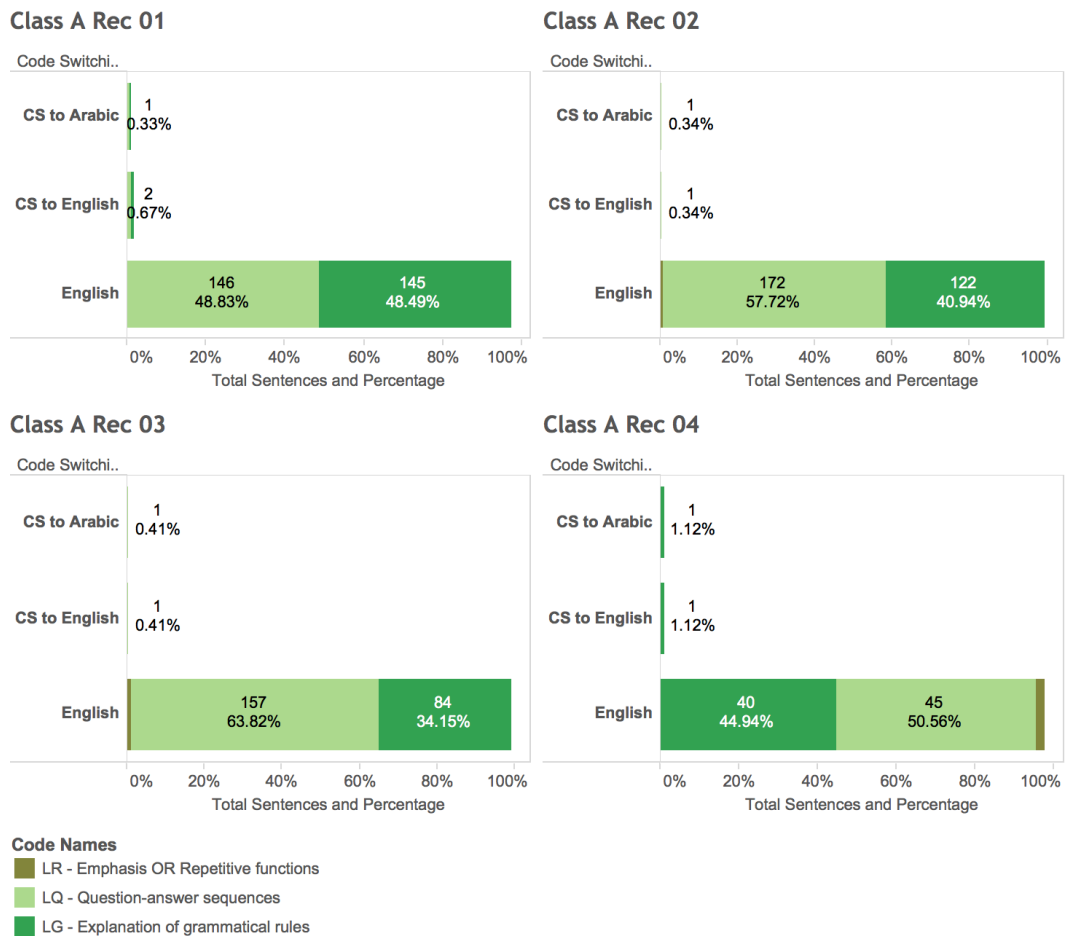


Figure 3: Distribution of code switching in teaching and learning activities in Class A

At a first glance it appears that there is no difference between Figure 2 and Figure 3. This is because there was only one additional coding category in Figure 2 - administrative activity. Furthermore, this activity only occurred 4 times, and therefore was very difficult to notice. Since this section focuses on distribution of coding categories (both language and purpose), it omits administrative activity.

By evaluating a section of a question-answer sequence, it can be clearly seen that students are better helped to learn by using various language acquisition techniques, such as repetition. See, for example, the following sequence from the 2nd recording of Class A (T stands for teacher and S for student):

- 1 T: Whether, very good 'if and whether' and the last type we talked about last time was what?
- 2 S: Statement.

- 3 T: Statements of urgency, remember, if you have a statement of urgency, so if we have an adjective or a verb of urgency, the verb will be in what mood?
- 4 S: As a subject.
- 5 T: Very good, that they start verb which is subjective mood verb very good.

It can be seen that the teacher is using a question-answer sequence to remind students about something that has been learnt in a previous class. Although the teacher could have used code switching at this point, keeping the whole sequence in English increases the English language input for the students. Even though only one student was answering this, others are helped as well, as they can use this probing method to recall what has been taught.

This technique was often followed by an explanation of grammar rules. For example, from the same class recording, after the above example, the teacher explained:

So this is generally what we talked about. Now we all know the noun clause starts with a subordinator, has a subject, has a verb and its function as a noun in the sentence and now we are going to see how to reduce that, so we are not going to look at clauses here, we are going to look at reducing the noun clause to an infinitive.

The trend was consistent in all four recordings of Class A. The teacher reminded the students about material previously studied, which was followed by an introduction of a new grammatical rule and an explanation of that rule. Consequently, in Figure 2, in recordings 1, 2 and 4, the proportion of question-answer sequences was almost equal to that of grammatical rule explanations. Although it could be suggested that this is related to style of teaching, having such a sequence along with an explanation of grammar, for most of the class increased exposure and input among students. Although in recording 3, question-answer sequences occupied even more time, the overall proportion of learning components remained consistent in other recordings.

Overall, from the Class A recordings, it can be seen that, in addition to having a very high proportion of total time spent on language learning related activities, there was minimal code switching. Even during question-answer sequences, there was

little to no code switching for most of the sessions. Only in the 4th recoding was there an instance of conversational code switching: “This is it when you omit the verb ‘to be’ you don’t have a verb, so you don’t have the participle tense so it can’t be called the participle phrase, *ṣah?* [Right?]”.

Based on the transcription of Class A recordings, it can be seen that code switching was kept to a bare minimum. In addition, in the instances where code switching occurred, these were not related to learning but to other classroom activities.

Class B

From the overall coding category classification (Figure 1), it was already shown that Class B had much more code switching than Class A. As Figure 4 below shows, each of the Class B sessions was also much more fragmented than those of Class A. For example, the majority of Class A activities was related to either teaching or question-answer sequences. However, as can be seen in Figure 4, a large chunk of activities in Class B was administration related, such as discussing examinations and assignments. It should be noted that this raises a question about whether such a percentage of class time being used for non-teaching and learning activities can affect the results of the students, and this is addressed in the discussion chapter. In this chapter, the results are simply reported. Below is an example of a conversation sequence commonly found in the transcripts of Class B.

- 1 T: Compound means it has two parts *ṭayb* [ok] the first part, you have a question or a sentence or a statement you have to change it into a noun clause. *ṭayyib* [ok]?
- 2 S: *uhm nāfs eli swenāh?* [just like what we have done?].
- 3 3 T: *āywah* [yes]. *jumlih aw suāāl wā* "you change it"... [a sentence and a question and "you change it"]. *shuftū mithāl mithāl...323...* [You see example.... example 323 ...].
- 4 T: *lā mū ṣahyhah..... āy jumlih ' ādyah.....mathalan* [No, it's not correct... any normal sentence....for example.]
- 5 T: *khalynā nshūf ṣafhat375.*[Let's see page.. 375 ..]
- 6 T: *āily bijyky āily hū fy ānnaṣ...*[what comes in the exam will be what is in the text]. *wa āysh ḥatkūn ālmuhimah ḥaqitik* "you change it into a noun clause", [and what will your role be? It will be " you change it into a noun clause."]

In this example, in line 1 the teacher started to explain about compound sentences, and one might assume that this would be followed by an explanation of real life usage. However, from lines 2 to 5, her examples focused on answering questions regarding compound sentences in the class test. And in line 6, she mentioned how the students could change part of the sentence to get the correct answer. Similar examples can be seen across all class B teacher's talk. The teacher used code switching for teaching and learning as well as for discussing how exam questions could be answered.

In some recordings, especially in the second class recording (Rec 02 in Figure 4), the teacher used almost half of the class time to discuss exam and assignment related questions. Although other classes had a lower percentage of exam related sections, there was a lot of feedback and questions that were examination related. In addition, a significant amount of time was also spent on building solidarity. However, as the scope of this thesis is limited to grammar teaching and learning, this is not analysed further in the next section.

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to explain the reason CS to Arabic and CS to English took place more than Arabic and English in Figure 4. In an earlier section (4.1. Units of analysis) it was mentioned that the way each sentence unit counted was that when there was more than one code switch in the same sentence, it was counted as a new sentence. In addition, if the switch was from English to Arabic, it was marked as CS to Arabic, and if Arabic to English, it was marked as CS to Arabic. The way the next sentence was marked as English or Arabic depended on the previous sentence. If the previous sentence was CS to Arabic and the teacher continued speaking Arabic in the following sentence, the next sentence was marked as Arabic. However, if she switched back to English, it was then marked as CS to English. Throughout the conversation it was very common to see Class B's teacher switching from Arabic to English and then Arabic, more than conducting a switch and staying in that language. Therefore, in both Figures 4 and 5, CS to Arabic and English was more than Arabic or English.



Figure 4: Distribution and classification of code switching in Class B

Analysis of learning activities

However, as the focus of this thesis is on the use of code switching for grammar learning, a new chart that filters only teaching and learning activity is added in Figure 5. As was done for Class A in Figure 3, Figure 5 eliminates other coding categories from Figure 4 to limit categories to “explanation of grammar” and “question-answer sequence”. In this way Figure 3 (Class A) and Figure 5 (Class B) can be compared to gain more understanding about the teachers’ code switching in teaching and learning related matters in both classes.

By focusing only on these two categories, some differences can be observed. The biggest difference was in recording 2, where in Figure 4 it had more Arabic than English but in Figure 5, more English than Arabic. This is because class teachers

used a large number of Arabic sentences for administrative activities. Therefore, when the focus was placed on the teaching and learning categories, there was more English than Arabic. In addition, other differences can be observed in Figure 5. Compared to Figure 4, the difference between CS to English and CS to Arabic is reduced in Figure 5, whereas CS to English and CS to Arabic were used almost equally in learning related activities.

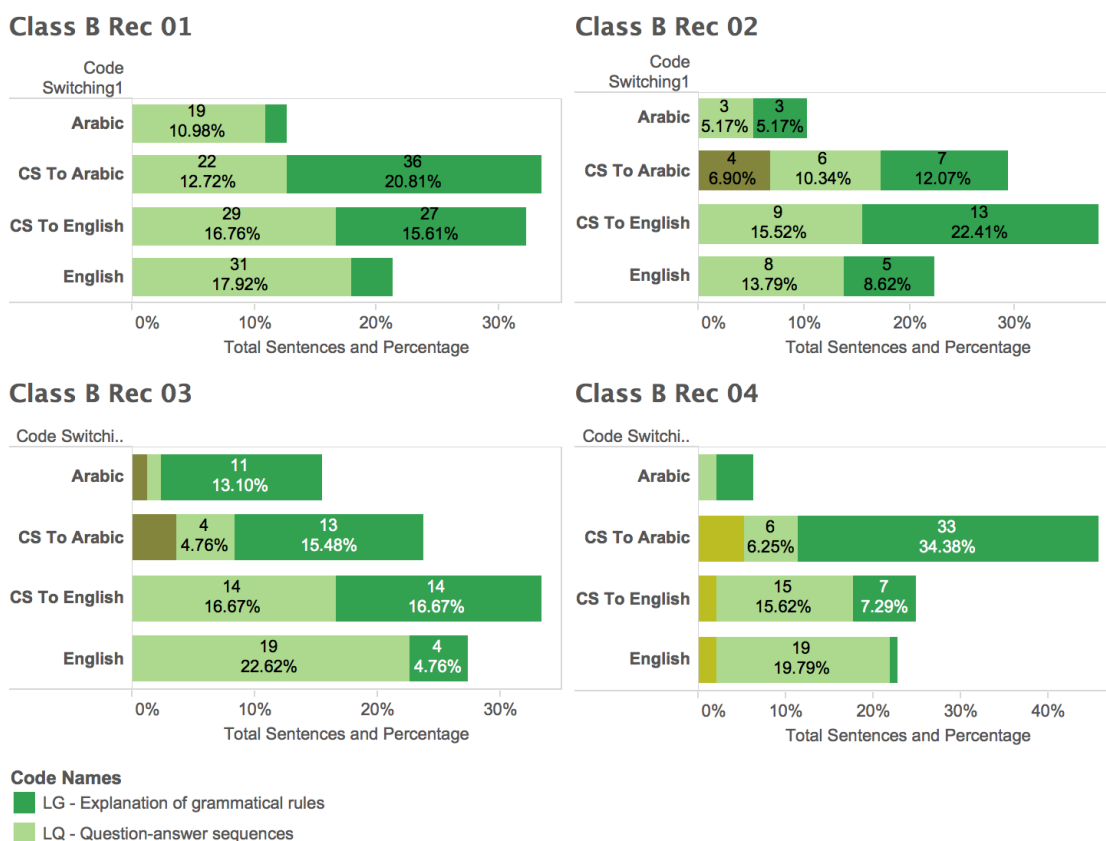


Figure 5: Distribution of code switching in teaching and learning activities in Class B

In general, it was often found in Class B recordings that, when the class teacher explained grammatical concepts, she tended to use code switching; however, when she was using question-answer sequences, she preferred to use more English. For example, in recording 1, 53% of sentences in the explanation of grammar rules were done using Arabic or CS to Arabic. Compared to that, in the question-answer sequence, 39% of all sentences that were marked as question-answer were in Arabic. This went higher in recording 4 where 81% of the explanation of grammar rules was

done in Arabic or in CS to Arabic. Compared to that, 80% of sentences that were marked as question-answer were conducted in English or CS to English. However, one important point to note is that, in most cases, CS to Arabic was used immediately after an English question-answer sequence. For example, i) was immediately followed by ii) in the excerpt below.

i)

- 1 T: So when we use it, when we modify time, how about where?
- 2 S: Place
- 3 T: Place, to modify place

ii)

- 1 T: So how about we know which words to use when zy al'ada , klmata " that" [as usual , the word "that"]
- 2 S: With the restrictive form of the clause.

This pattern of using a long discussion in Arabic or code switching to Arabic immediately after using English was observed in all the recordings of Class B. For example:

- 1 T: With the restrictive also we can omit all the relative pronouns *tb'n hadhy* [of course this] when and where *esmhā* [called] relative pronouns *zy* [such as] which, *wā* [and] who, whom *wā* [and] that when *wā* [and] where.
- 2 T: With restrictive form in the time sentence we can use 'when'.
- 3 T: *shofe ehna feen hna awl wħda* table 4.11 [look where we are, we are in the first one in table 4.11] *sfħat 297 yā Monna wā Sar* , [page 297 , Mona and Sara] *ṭayyib* [okay].

This is why across all the Class B recordings (See Figure 5 above), CS occupied a larger proportion of the grammatical explanation category. Even though the duration differs, the trend in all four recordings was similar. It would start with an introduction of a concept in English, followed by an explanation of the concept with CS into Arabic. The difference in Class A was that both the introduction of a new grammar concept and the explanation were conducted in English.

Overall, it can be seen from the transcripts that Class B had less input in English than Class A. Furthermore, when the transcripts of the teachers' talk were broken down to specific segments, such as teaching and learning, it can be seen that, in the question-answer section, teachers in both Classes A and B used an almost equal amount of English. In the explanation of grammar concepts, however, Class A's

teacher used English for all explanations but Class B's teacher explained the concepts mostly using CS.

The following section evaluates the results of pre- and post-tests and whether the results indicate that Class B students demonstrated a better performance. If that is the case, it will be possible to suggest that code switching helped the students to learn grammar, but if the scores of Class A students are better, we will be able to suggest that using CS may not be a useful grammar learning method.

4.3 Pre- and post-test results

This section reports the findings from pre- and post-tests in order to establish any connection with the findings from the classroom transcripts. From the results of the previous section, it can be seen that Class B's teacher code switched more than Class A's teacher in teaching and learning activities, especially in the explanation of grammar category. This section aims to establish whether any correlation exists between that code switching and the results from the pre- and post-tests.

In order to compare the scores of both classes, the scores of all the students who took part in both pre- and post-tests were included in this section. As the number of students was low, instead of comparing the average results of Class A and Class B, marks for all students are analysed to investigate how each student might have learned differently.

4.3.1 Brief explanation of class syllabus

Before describing the tests and the results, it is important to describe the syllabus that was used in the class. The Grammar 3 class had a total of sixteen teaching weeks, covering conjunctions, sentence type, and clauses. In the second and third weeks, students learned conjunctions as well as types of sentences, that is, simple, compound, and complex sentences. For the following three weeks (from week four to week six), they learned about noun clauses. In weeks eight to twelve, they were

introduced to adjectival clauses. For the rest of the semester, the students learned adverbial clauses.

By looking closely at the syllabus, it can be seen that it was designed for students who already had an intermediate level of English knowledge. For example, conjunctions are learned long after a student has learned nouns, pronouns, or other similar grammar forms. Types of sentences such as simple, compound and complex sentences are generally introduced to intermediate students of EFL. Clauses, on the other hand, are often taught to advanced students of EFL. Therefore, the test used for this study included questions covering these topics. This is further explained in the next section.

4.3.2 Brief explanation of tests

Participants for the pre- and post-tests were taken from both Classes A and B. Although each class had 23 students, not everyone participated in these tests as they were not compulsory. In addition, in Class A, a total of 6 students who participated in the pre-test did not take the post-test. 18 students from Class B participated in pre-test but 4 of them did not take part in the post-test. Similarly, a few students who attempted the post-test did not take part in the pre-test. The tests of these participants were excluded from the analysis. In addition, students who had incomplete pre- and post-test data were not included in the analysis. Overall, out of 46 students in both classes, a total of 28 students (14 students from Class A and 14 students from Class B) participated and completed both pre- and post-tests.

In terms of the number of questions, there were a total of 28 multiple-choice questions grouped into six topics (Table 12). The topics were directly related to the syllabus (Table 9). As the pre-test was done in the second week, the expectation was that students would not score highly. However, the questions were designed in such a way that the students would be able to answer some of them, but not all. This was because, as the test was not compulsory, if they found the pre-test questions to be very difficult, they may not have wanted to participate in the post-test. Therefore, some questions were easier and it was expected that students would be able to answer them correctly. Accordingly, there were questions in tasks such as “circle the

best sentence completion”, as students who are already familiar with some level of English might be able to answer these correctly. It was expected that students might also be able to answer some of the questions from “specifying sentence types” correctly, as some of the students might already have had exposure to sentence types from previous grammar classes. However, they were not expected to answer questions related to clauses correctly.

Question	Number of sub questions	Pre-test	Post-test
Specify the sentence type: simple, complex, compound	4	Q1	Q2
Underline the dependent clause & circle the type	4	Q2	Q1
Choose the type of dependent clause	6	Q3	Q3
Choose the correct indirect statement	4	Q4	Q5
Circle the best sentence completion	6	Q5	Q4
Fill in the blank with a suitable conjunction	4	Q6	Q6

Table 12: Topics covered in the pre- and post-tests

The same questions were given to the students in the post-test in order to identify the extent to which students had improved their grammar knowledge. The only difference was that the order of questions was altered. For example, in the pre-test, the first question asked the students to choose whether a given sentence was simple, complex, compound or complex-compound. In the post-test, the same question was asked later on. As can be seen from Table 9, the first question in the pre-test was the second question in the post-test. Similarly, the fourth and fifth questions were reversed. However, regardless of the sequence of the questions, all questions were the same in the pre- and post-tests.

In addition, it should be noted that the number of questions and the format of the questions were aligned with the regular exam question format for the classes the students were attending. This was done to ensure that an unfamiliar format would not lead the students to provide different answers.

4.3.3 Overall improvement from pre- to post-test

After the test was completed, students' assignments were marked by their class teacher. Once marking was complete, scores were tabulated by the researcher to investigate how the students from each class performed. In this section, findings from the pre- and post-tests are reported in two ways: findings based on how much students in each class improved overall and how much they improved in each question.

As can be seen from Table 13, among the 14 students from each class, students from Class A (low CS) had a greater improvement in the post-test compared to Class B students (high CS). By comparing improvement levels, a few patterns can be observed. The student that had the greatest improvement in Class A scored 7.5 marks more in the post-test than in the pre-test. The greatest improvement in Class B was 4 marks. In addition, 5 out of 14 students in Class A scored 4 or more points more in the post-test compared to the pre-test, while only 1 student in Class B scored higher points. Furthermore, 4 out of 14 students in Class B did not improve at all in their post-test compared to the pre-test. Although this trend of not improving in the post-test was seen in Class A as well, in the latter it happened only with 2 students.

In addition, in both classes, several students' scores dropped from the pre-test to the post-test. As identifying motivation was not within the scope of the study, and a motivation questionnaire was not included in the ethical clearance for the project, students were not asked why their performance worsened. There were a few cases of students dropping out of the study. Since participation was voluntary, those who dropped out were not followed up.

Class	Student	Pre-test	Post-test	Improvement
A	Student 1	15.5	23	7.5
A	Student 2	14.5	20.5	6
A	Student 3	12	18	6
A	Student 4	19	24.5	5.5
A	Student 5	14	18	4
A	Student 6	20	23	3
A	Student 7	19	21.5	2.5
A	Student 8	17.5	19.5	2
A	Student 9	16.5	18	1.5
A	Student 10	20	21.5	1.5
A	Student 11	20	21	1
A	Student 12	20	20	0
A	Student 13	20	20	0
A	Student 14	16.5	15.5	-1
B	Student 1	16.5	20.5	4
B	Student 2	15	18	3
B	Student 3	15	17.5	2.5
B	Student 4	13	15.5	2.5
B	Student 5	19	21.5	2.5
B	Student 6	19.5	22	2.5
B	Student 7	21	22.5	1.5
B	Student 8	19	20.5	1.5
B	Student 9	17	15	0
B	Student 10	15	15	0
B	Student 11	17.5	17.5	0
B	Student 12	17	17	0
B	Student 13	15	14	-1
B	Student 14	18.5	17	-1.5

Table 13: Marks and improvement between pre- and post-test results in both classes

4.3.4 Improvement from pre- to post-test based on topic

When the results of each question were compared, it could be seen that Class A students scored higher than Class B students in most of the questions in all topics (Figure 6). Only in one question did Class B students score higher than Class A students in the post-test. This overall finding for each question aligns with the improvements by each student outlined in Table 13. As can be seen in Figure 6, in 4 out of 6 of the post-test questions, Class A students did better than Class B students. In the remaining 2 questions, in only one did Class B students score higher than Class A students, and in the other (circle best sentence completion), students from both classes had almost equal results. In order to explain what might have contributed to this, in this section, each question and the respective scores are analysed based on the teachers' transcriptions.

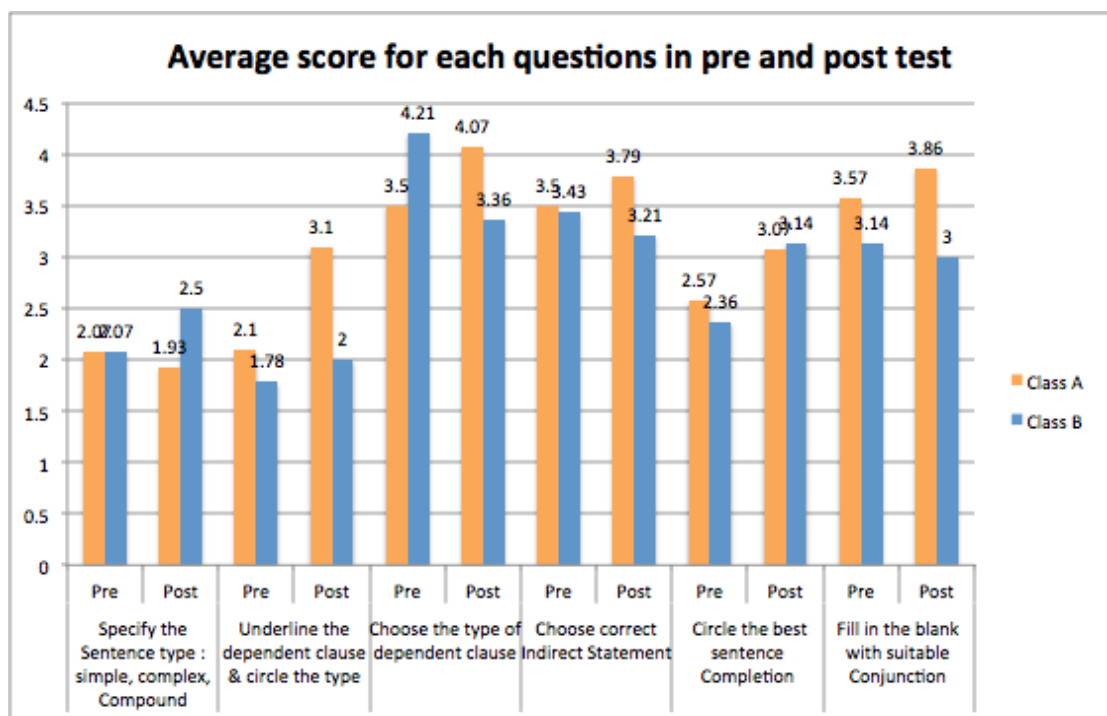


Figure 6: Distribution of scores in both classes in pre- and post-tests by question

Clauses

For more than seven weeks, students were taught about clauses in class. The types of clauses taught ranged from noun and adverbial clauses to dependent clauses. As this was the largest topic covered, two of the six question sets were based on it.

By looking at the scores, it can be seen that students in Class A did better than students in Class B in both of these questions. Although the pre-test the scores of the two classes were similar, in the post-test, all Class A students scored at least 1 point higher than the Class B students.

To find out how students from both classes were exposed to this topic, an excerpt of the classroom transcripts related to clauses is presented below. In Class A, the teacher introduced “noun clauses” as the topic for the day, followed by asking students to read out the definition. The teacher then explained in detail about noun clauses. During this explanation, the teacher linked it to their previous discussion about dependent and independent clauses.

The Class B transcripts demonstrate a similar teaching method. The teacher discussed dependent clauses, told them how to identify them, and told them how to use one. The difference, as can be seen, is that the teacher of Class A only used English to explain the concept, while the teacher of Class B used both English and Arabic.

Class A

- 1 T: Let's have a look at noun clauses today. It's a dependent clause, lets look at the definition here.
- 2 T: Who would like to read the definition for me please?
- 3 S: A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions as a noun in a sentence.
- 4 T: It is used as a subject, an object of a verb, an object of a preposition or complement.
- 5 T: Never separate a noun clause from the main clause with comments or other punctuation marks since noun clauses are part of main clauses.
- 6 T: So you do have a main clause and part of that main clause is your dependent clause and it can function as a subject, as an object and verb, object and preposition in the complement.
- 7 T: Noun clauses come at the beginning of a sentence or after certain nouns, adjectives and verbs such as if you see any of these nouns, adjectives or verbs usually do have a noun clause after them or these are the verbs that usually start with them.

Class B

- 1 T: A subordinating conjunction starts as a dependent clause, *tayb*. [Ok.]

- 2 T: *fyn nḥuṭuh?* [Where should we put it?] Beginning ...end ...doesn't matter.
- 3 T: *ālmuhim yṣyr lahā ma'nā.*, [what's important, it must have a meaning.]
- 4 T: *āysh ālfikrah áily áihnā nbghāhā ?* [What is the idea that we want?]
- 5 T: We want to know how do you act. You know how to change things.
- 6 T: *fy kul ālāḥwḥl ānty rāḥ āithuṭy qā'idātayn.* [In all circumstances, you will apply only two rules.] *ālāulā hy taḥwyl jumlah aw suāāl āilā* "noun clause" [The first one is to change a sentence or a question into a "noun clause"]
- 7 T: *āysh ḥatsaūy.. b'dyn trūḥy 'lyhā kulhā āthuṭylhā* "dependent clause" [after that you go through all sentences again and you add to them a "dependent clause"]
- 8 T: *biḥayth tṣyr* "independent", [Then it will become "independent"]
- 9 T: *ṭab'an. wā āy jumlah āinty ḥatkhailyhā ḥatkūn* "independent" *wā āthuṭylhā* "dependent part" *wā āthuṭylhā.* [Of course. And any sentence you want to change is "independent" and you add a "dependent part" and change it.]

By looking at the test questions, it can be seen that they were indeed discussed in the class. For example, one of the questions was, “She is not sure whether she fed the cat or not”, where students were asked to circle whether this was an adverbial clause, noun clause, or an adjectival clause. As can be seen from the class transcript above, noun clauses were discussed in both classes, but Class B students often failed to identify the noun clause. Class A students, however, almost always correctly identified it. This finding suggests that there is a likely correlation between students’ performance and the teacher explaining grammar topics only in English or explaining them in Arabic and English. Whether or not this can be seen in other topics is examined next.

Direct and indirect statements

Under the topic of direct and indirect statements, the students were asked to “Choose the correct indirect statements that report the following sentences.” For example, one of the questions was, “He replied, I am on my way to work”. The options were the following:

- a. He said that he was on my way to work.
- b. He said that he was on his way to work.

Overall, the results suggest a similar pattern to that which was discussed earlier. On average, Class A students scored 1 mark, or 25% higher than Class B students in the post-test in this topic as well. In comparison, in the pre-test, Class A and B scores were almost equal. Although Class A students scored higher than Class B students in the pre-test, on average the scores were only 0.07, or 1.75%, higher.

Looking at the transcription, it can be seen that discussion about direct and indirect statements in Class A used English, and the discussion in Class B was in both Arabic and English. Even though the teachers in both classes used “reported speech” to discuss indirect statements throughout the class, Class A students were able to answer questions about indirect and direct statements in the post-test more accurately than Class B students. However, a more interesting observation from the class transcription was that, even though Class B students were introduced to indirect speech in a more thorough manner than Class A students, they scored lower than Class A students. For instance, in the example below, it can be seen that the Class B teacher not only introduced how they can change a direct statement to an indirect statement, she even conducted multiple practice exercises to make the students familiar with the concept. The Class A teacher, on the other hand, explained only the bigger picture and provided just one example.

Based on the extract below, it could be expected that Class B students would score higher than Class A students because they were exposed to the concept and were given a more detailed explanation. However, post-test scores show that, even though students from Class B had more explanation, they did not necessarily learn the concept well.

Class A

- 1 T: Now the idea of the present perfect just emphasises that the action had been completed at a certain time, that the action is complete or it finished especially with the past perfect.
- 2 T: When you have two actions happening both of them in the past, the first action that was completed first you'll have it in the past perfect but here with the reported speech you're going to have to do this.
- 3 T: “I have watched TV,” he said that he had watched TV. “I went home”, she told me that she had gone home. All right let’s move on.

Class B

- 1 T: *liānuh mmkn āfham* "stop it" *'alā āinhā* "strong command" [it is possible that I understand "stop it" as "a strong command"] *ānā āithā ḥaūaltahā* "reported speech"; *ḥaqūl* [so when I want to change it into "reported speech", I will say, she said that you must stop it].
- 2 T: *tamām, khalṣnā* [Ok, we've finished.] *lisā bāqynā waqt, mnkamil* "practice" *wa* "quiz" *kamān* [we still have time, so we will do both the "practice" and "the quiz."].
- 3 T: Change the commands to reported speech "be at your desk by nine"
- 4 T: Practice number three, how would you report, "be at your desk?"
Rana? S: I must be at my desk by nine.
- 5 T: I must be. I should be *hiya t'tamid 'ala* [it depends on] *iḥsasik* [what you feel].
- 6 T: *mumtāz ḥlū āttaghyr* [Excellent! The change is good.]

Sentence type

There was one topic where Class B students scored higher than Class A students in the post-test. In the pre-test, both groups had the same average - on average, both classes scored 2.07 out of 4, but, in the post-test, Class B students scored much higher than Class A students. On average, their scores were 14.25% higher than Class A students.

The question was about identifying sentence type. Students were asked to specify the type of sentence: whether it was simple, complex, compound or complex-compound. Contrary to the overall improvement in scores for other questions, students from Class B scored higher than Class A students on average in the post-test for this topic.

Scores for the post-test were not the only anomaly in this situation. From the overview of class transcripts, it can be seen that, for this class, this was the only topic where teaching and learning in Class B was conducted in English at least 50% of the time. This can be seen from the following example. The only part where the teacher used Arabic was to congratulate or encourage a student. The rest of the explanation was conducted in English. Class A, on the other hand, was conducted completely in English.

Class A

- 1 T: So simple, compound, complex and compound complex. We talked about the simple sentence, what kind of clause is it?

- 2 S: Independent.
- 3 T: It's one independent clause.
- 4 T: How can you determine if it's a clause or not? What do you have to the clause?
- 5 S: Subject and verb.
- 6 T: How would you know it's an independent clause?
- 7 S: The meaning is complete.
- 8 T: So it can stand alone, it doesn't start with a subordinator.
- 9 T: We have already completed the first part. And now how I can change it into a "complex sentence".
- 10 T: Imagine that the sentence I will bring in the exam is a question and I ask you to "change it into a noun clause then to add an independent clause to the complex sentence." ok.
- 11 T: What does "complex" mean? It means "dependent" plus "independent" and this is what you will say in the exam.

Class B

- 1) T: "She wanted to know when I will start my new job" Is this a dependent or independent part?
- 2) S: Independent.
- 3) T: Independent clause. How would I change it to the complex sentences?
- 4) S: Add dependent.
- 5) T: *yā sālām 'liki* [well done].

This raises the question: if the Class B teacher had conducted the class in English instead of switching to Arabic so much, would the students have been able to score higher? This is because in the two previous topics discussed, although Class B students were given more detailed explanation of the topic in class, their performance was worse than Class A students. However, when the teacher only used English to explain concepts, students' scores improved when everything else, including teaching style, remained the same.

Conjunctions

In the topic about conjunctions, again Class A students scored higher than Class B students in the post-test. The transcripts of teachers' talk show that grammatical concepts were introduced using Arabic or a mixture of Arabic and English in Class B. Even though it was discussed in detail, Class B students scored fewer marks than Class A students.

Class A

- 1 T: Now for adverbial conjunction, you can join two main clauses. In this situation, the conjunctive adverb behaves like a coordinating conjunction, connecting two complete ideas. Notice,

however, that you need a semicolon, not a comma, to connect the two clauses.

Class B

- 1 T: *ya'ni* whether it is a coordinator "conjunctive clause" *aw* "adverbial conjunction" *kuluha sahyhah*. [I mean whether it is "conjunctive clause" and "adverbial conjunction" both of them are correct.]
- 2 T: *inqūl* [We say] conjunctive adverb can appear, *tamām, āidhan* [Ok, so we have] *ndanā wāhid yarbuṭ wiḥdatyn mutasawiatyn* [We have one that connects two equal units] "grammatically".
- 3 T: *āily hū* [which is] "coordinating conjunction" *wāhid yyjy fy bidāyat āl* [one comes at the beginning of the] "independent clause".
- 4 T: *wa wāhid yyjy fy bidāyat aw muntaṣaf aw nihāyat āl* [and one comes, at the middle, or at the end of the] "subordinating clause" *aw* "strong clause" *wa āismuh* [and its name is] "adverbial conjunction" *aw* "conjunctive adverb".
- 5 T: *fa āinty āysh hatsaūy* [So you what will you do] when you have such sentences?
- 6 T: *ḥaṭāl'y wa tshūfy hū marbūṭ bi āysh wa hū jāy fy bidāyat , fy nihāyat, fy muntaṣaf āysh bḍdabṭ, ṭayyib*. [You will look and see with what it is connected and whether it comes at the beginning, at the middle, or at the end of what exactly, ok.]

As was seen in previous sections, the Class B teacher often explained topics in more detail compared to the Class A teacher. She not only introduced the concept but also explained it by providing various examples that the students could use. She suggested how students could extend their knowledge to other scenarios by asking them to look for patterns in the sentences. When the Class A teacher discussed prepositions, however, she explained them only in brief.

Even though the Class B teacher conducted a thorough introduction and explanation of grammatical concepts, Class B students were unable to answer the questions correctly. Since everything else was the same for both classes, this could suggest that explaining grammatical concepts using Arabic may not have been as effective as doing so in English.

Sentence completion

Out of the six topics covered in the tests, sentence completion was the only one that was not covered in the syllabus, but this topic was asked to gauge students' existing grammatical knowledge in the pre-test and to follow up in the post-test. In addition, four of the questions asked were considered easy to answer by students in

the Grammar 3 class, as they were already familiar with some English grammar from earlier classes. Based on the results, it can be seen that there was a minimal difference between the two classes in the results of their pre-tests and post-tests. As this was not part of the syllabus, there was no transcription for this topic.

4.3.5 Attitude comparison survey results

In the literature (Valdés-Fallis, 1978; Hosoda, 2000; Jingxia, 2010; Nguyen, 2013), it was found that teachers may code switch because they think that students are more likely to be comfortable if concepts are explained in their mother tongue. In addition, teachers believe that students will be able to understand more if concepts are explained in their mother tongue and therefore are likely to prefer code switching to an all-English class. However, other researchers have argued that this may not be the case.

Therefore, in order to investigate whether students prefer their teacher to code switch or to use English in the classroom, and whether students who were taught using mostly English have different attitudes towards this style of teaching, a total of 60 survey questions was presented to students from Class B. These 60 sentences followed a 3-positive and 1-negative question pattern, where students were asked if they preferred a certain method in 3 sentences and then were presented with 1 sentence that negated that method. For example, to elicit attitudes towards the effectiveness of CS in learning, students were presented with these 4 statements and were asked to rate them from 1 to 5, where 5 is “fully agree” and 1 is “do not agree at all”:

- 1) I believe using Arabic and English in my English class helps improve my results
- 2) I find using both Arabic and English is a useful strategy to learn English
- 3) I think code switching is an effective strategy to learn English
- 4) I do NOT believe that using both Arabic and English in my English classes helps improve my results.

From the overall analysis of the attitude survey, the most notable pattern was that Class A students felt that switching codes was not beneficial in learning English and that they learned more when the class is taught in English rather than a mixture of English and Arabic. Class B students, on the other hand, favoured having code switching in their class. In this section, the findings are reported according to the 15 topics the questions were grouped into to find out whether students had a difference of opinion by topic. A detailed report of the survey appears in Appendix: Survey report.

Beliefs about effectiveness of CS in learning

As the example provided earlier demonstrates, this question asked students if they believe that using CS is an effective way to learn English. From the analysis of the questionnaire in Figure 7, it can be seen that students in Class A overwhelmingly agree that using CS does not help in improving the learning of English.

As it can be seen from Figure 7, the average score for the statement “I do NOT believe that using both Arabic and English in my English classes helps improve my results” for Class A students was 3.5 out of 5, but it was only 2 out of 5 for Class B students. In the other 3 statements where students were asked if CS helps, Class B students tended to agree that it is actually helpful. Although Class A students did not agree as much as Class B students, they were often unsure about the effectiveness. That is perhaps the reason behind having such close scores as 3.43 (B) and 2.44 (A) for the statement “I think code switching is an effective strategy to learn English”.

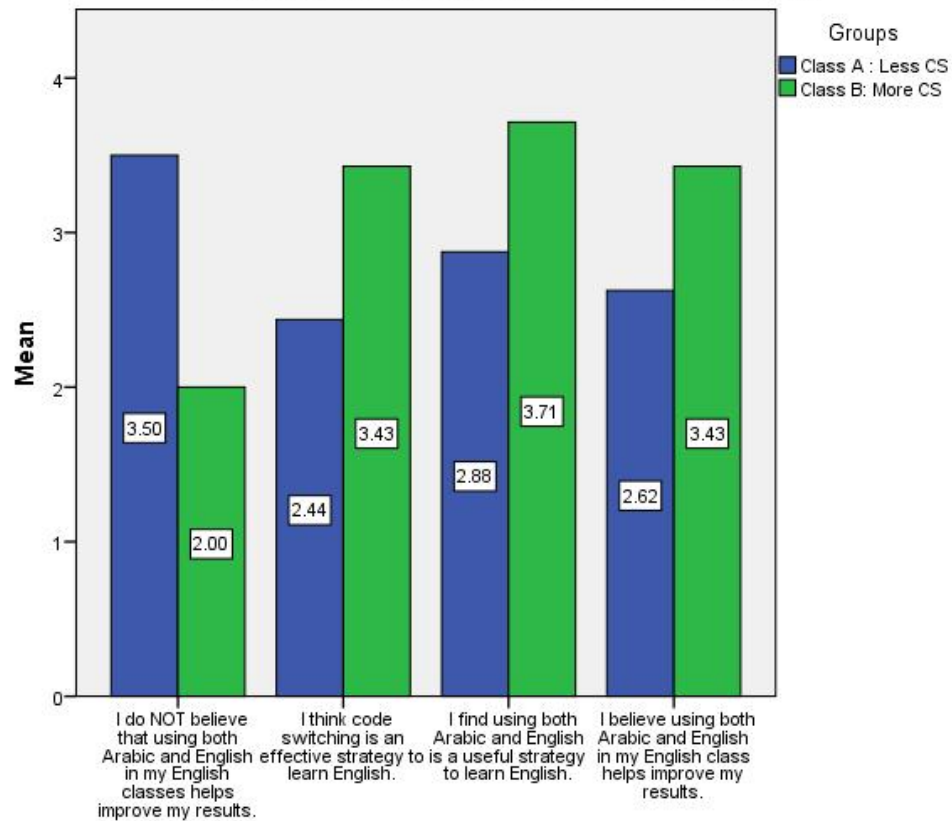


Figure 7: Survey results relating to attitude towards effectiveness of CS in learning

Role of CS in class atmosphere

Even in terms of classroom atmosphere, while Class A students' average response was close to neutral (between 2 to 2.5 out of 5), Class B students thought CS was more enjoyable (Figure 8). However, it was most notable that when asked if using both languages in the classroom creates confusion, Class B students clearly felt that it did not (2.0 out of 5), whereas Class A students thought that it did (3.25 out of 5).

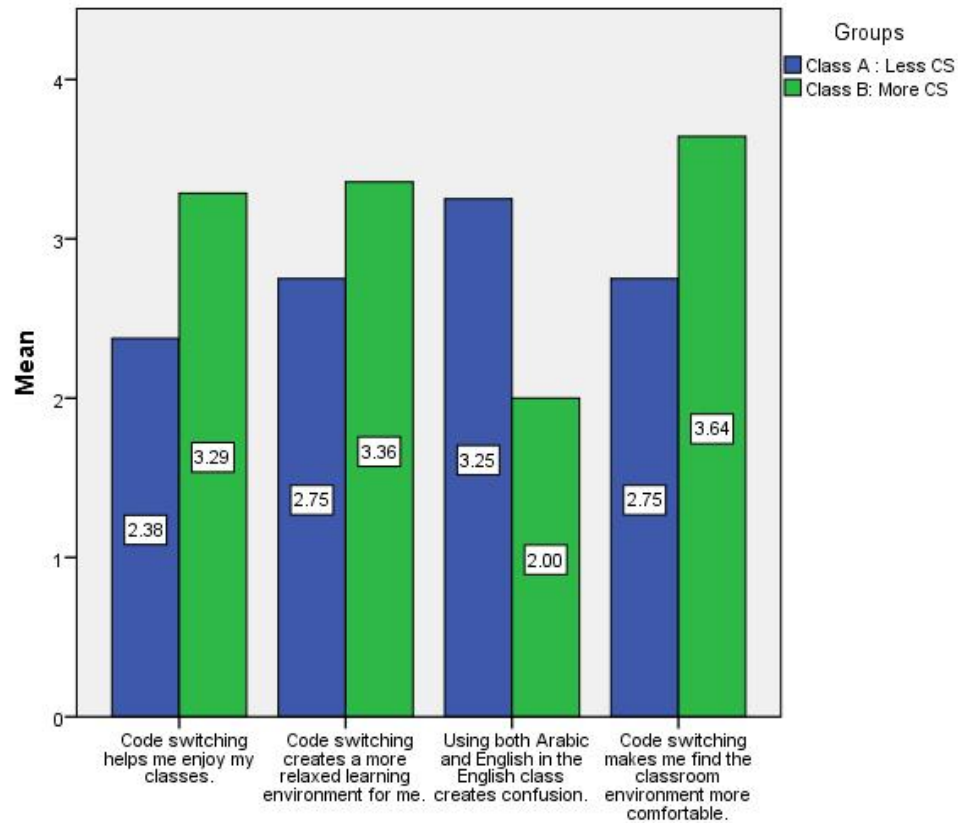


Figure 8: Survey results relating to role of CS in class atmosphere

This is interesting, because Class B students clearly felt that by learning the concepts via a mixture of Arabic and English, they were learning and enjoying their class more. Although their post-test results did not translate this enjoyment into an improved score, students clearly felt good about it.

CS and empathising (teacher-student relationship)

The difference between students in Classes A and B was least when it came to the question of using CS and the teacher-student relationship. Both classes had much closer responses when given the statement “Code Switching does NOT have any positive effect on teacher-student relationship” (Figure 9).

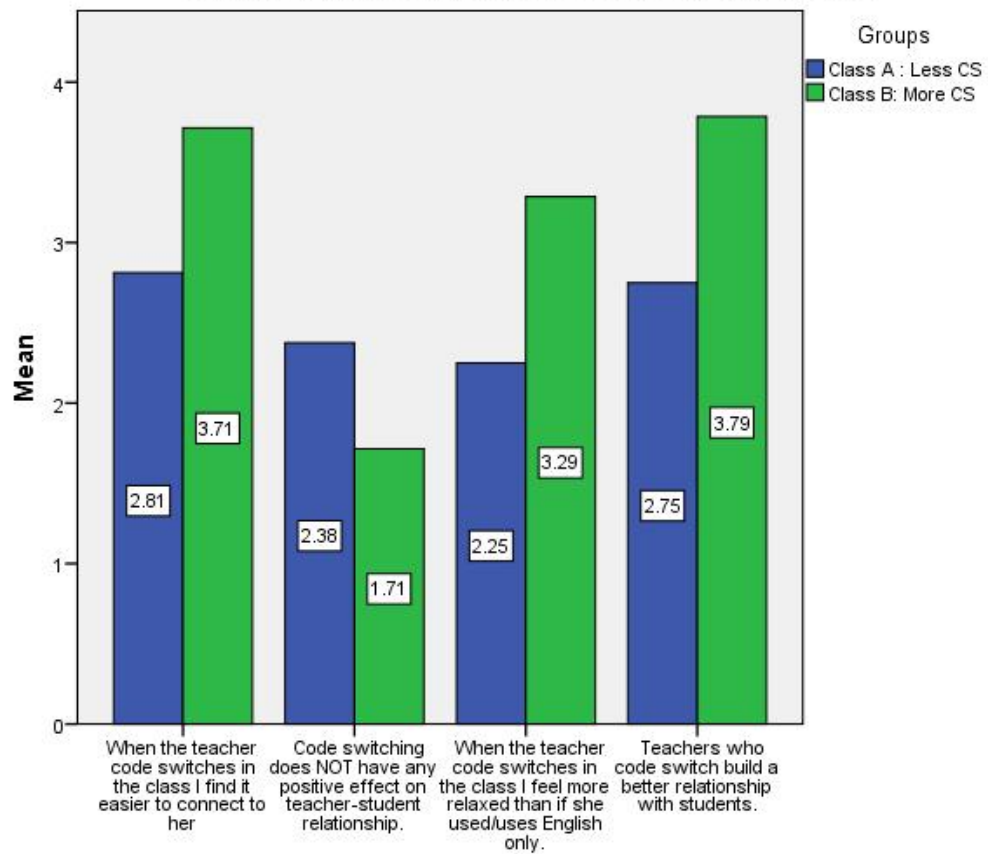


Figure 9: Survey result relating to CS and empathizing (teacher-student relationship)

From their answers, it can be seen that for the purpose of class control and creating empathy, it is perhaps a good idea to use code switching, since students feel that it improves their relationship.

CS and class engagement

In terms of class engagement, Class A students continued in their reluctance towards code switching. However, it is worth mentioning that the gap between Class A and Class B was less when statements such as “Code switching enables better response from students”, or “Classroom becomes more active” were given.

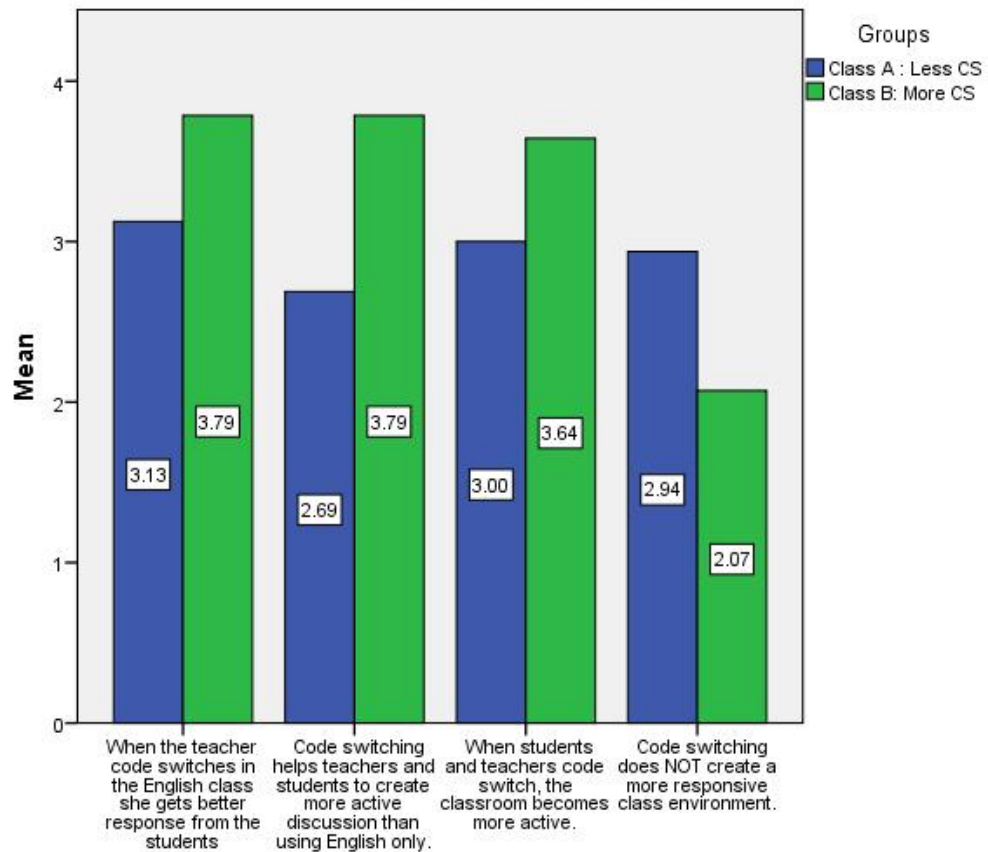


Figure 10: Survey result of CS and class engagement

This is quite interesting because even though Class A students do not favour code switching in class, they understood that having it increases the chance of getting feedback from other students or fostering greater class engagement (Figure 10).

Explanation of grammatical rules

Perhaps one of the most interesting points was that while Class A as usual agreed more with the question about whether grammatical rules should not be explained in Arabic, Class B students were not too certain about this.

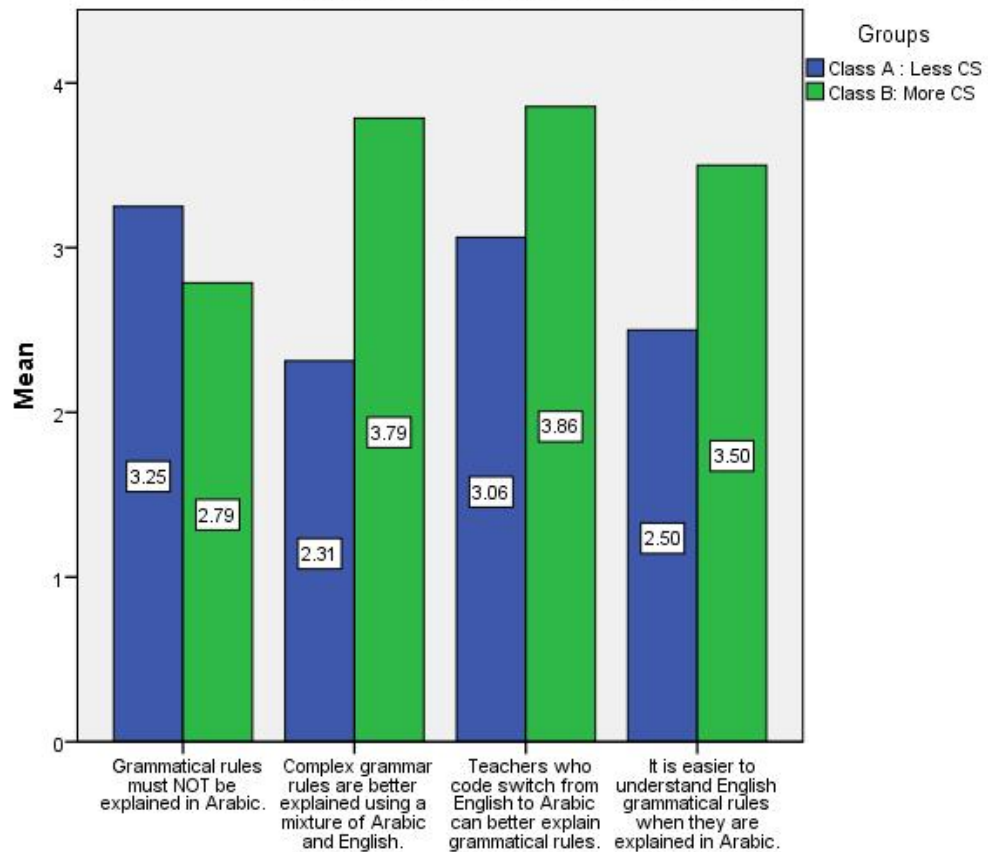


Figure 11: Survey result of explanation of grammar rules with CS

From Figure 11, it can be seen that the responses of Class B students to the statement “Grammatical rules must NOT be explained in Arabic” were more in agreement than they were to other negatively worded statements in the survey. On average, in Class B agreement that grammatical rules should not be explained in Arabic was 2.79 out of 4, while other statements such as “Code switching does not create a more responsive class” had a score nearer to 2. However, when asked the same question in a different format - whether it is easier to understand when explained in Arabic - Class B students seemed more in agreement.

This can suggest that although Class B students thought that they might have learned more if grammatical concepts were explained in English, as they had experienced a whole semester of having concepts explained to them in Arabic, they felt that they understood better if those concepts were explained in Arabic. As mentioned earlier, even though they thought they understood more through CS, they did not score well in their post-test.

Explanation of difficult vocabulary using CS

Similarly, Class B students preferred their teacher to explain difficult vocabulary in English, but Class A students were less enthusiastic about this (Figure 12).

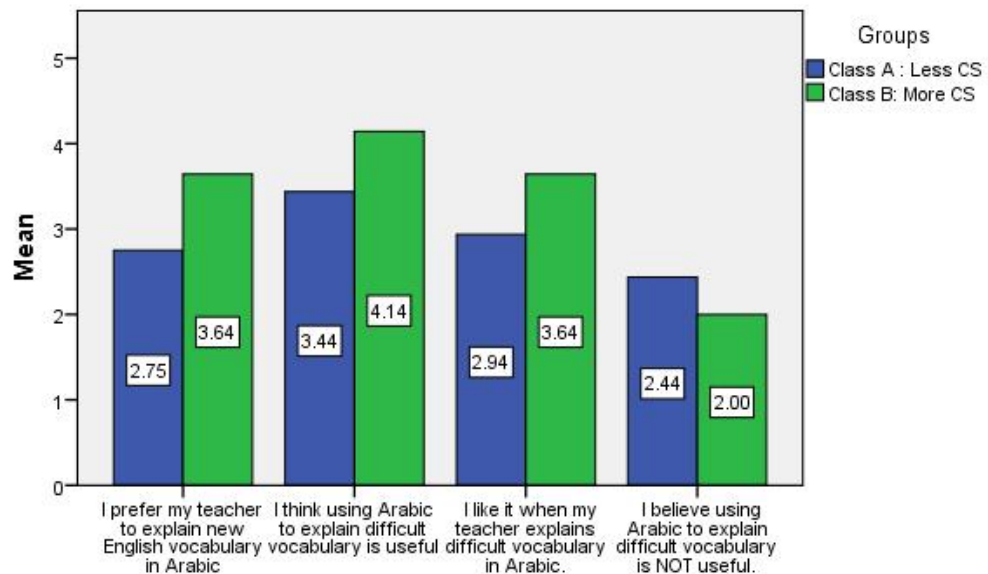


Figure 12: Survey results of explanation of difficult vocabulary using CS

However, not all Class A students were in agreement when it came to the question of explaining complex English vocabulary in Arabic. On average, 2.44 was the score when the statement “I believe using Arabic to explain vocabulary is NOT useful” was given.

Using CS to link concept and meaning

When it came to linking CS and learning new concepts, students from Class B were much more supportive of CS than Class A students. Just as in the other survey answers, Class A students felt that code switching stopped them from learning new English concepts, as they were limited to understanding the explanation in Arabic. However, they were more in agreement with the statement that CS may sometimes help them to understand difficult English concepts (Figure 13).

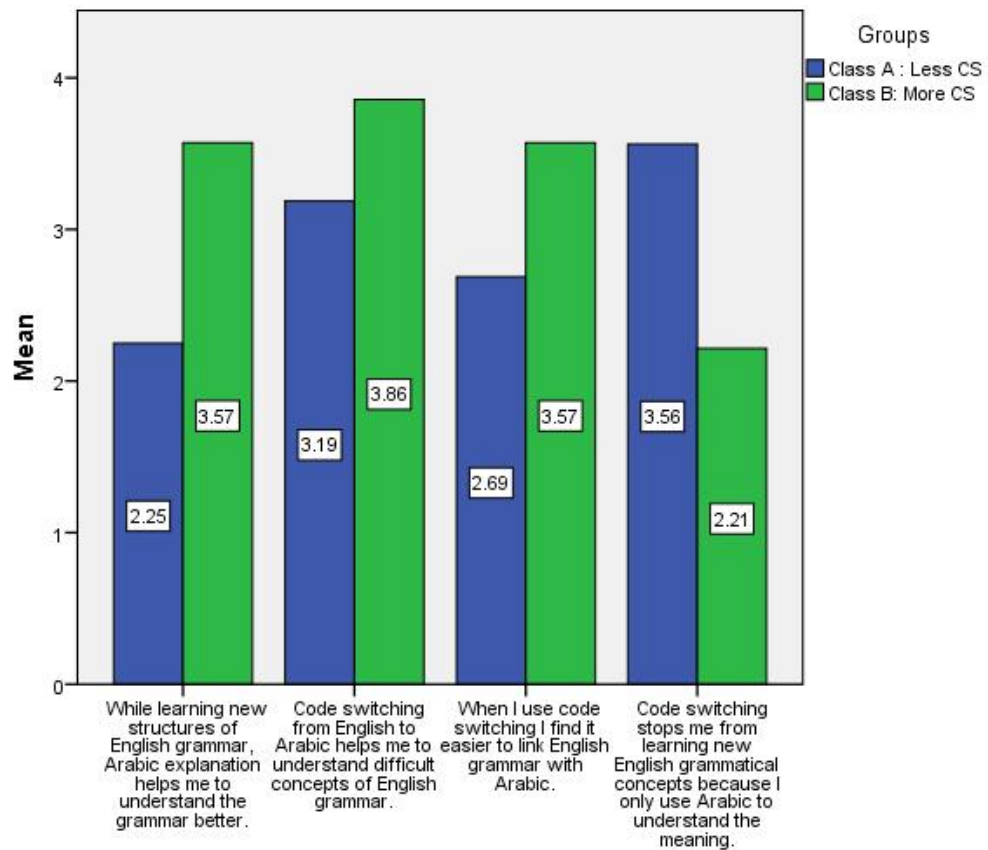


Figure 13: Survey result of using CS to link between concept and meaning

Using CS to cooperate with other classmates

When it comes to cooperation with other students, there seems to be a minimal gap between the classes, regardless of the positive or negative wording of the statement. Specifically, when asked whether using CS in a group activity makes it easier to cooperate, both classes seemed to agree. As can be seen from Figure 14, they also agreed that their classmates do use Arabic to explain difficult concepts and that they do not understand only in English.

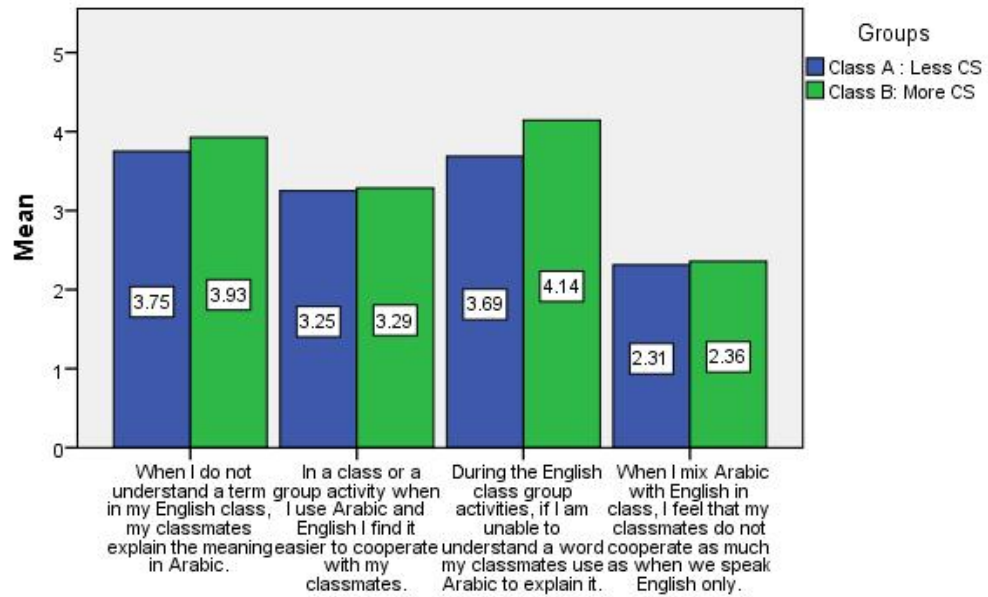


Figure 14: Survey result of using CS to cooperate with other classmates

From this finding, it appears that in a social context, students from both classes agreed that the use of code switching is beneficial. As student interaction was beyond the scope of this research, this was not investigated further.

CS as a confidence booster

When it comes to boosting confidence, both groups of students felt comfortable knowing that they could participate in discussions in both Arabic and English (Figure 15). At the same time, both classes tended to disagree that CS makes them less confident. Both classes leaned more towards a neutral position when asked if CS gave them the confidence to switch languages if they were stuck in a discussion.

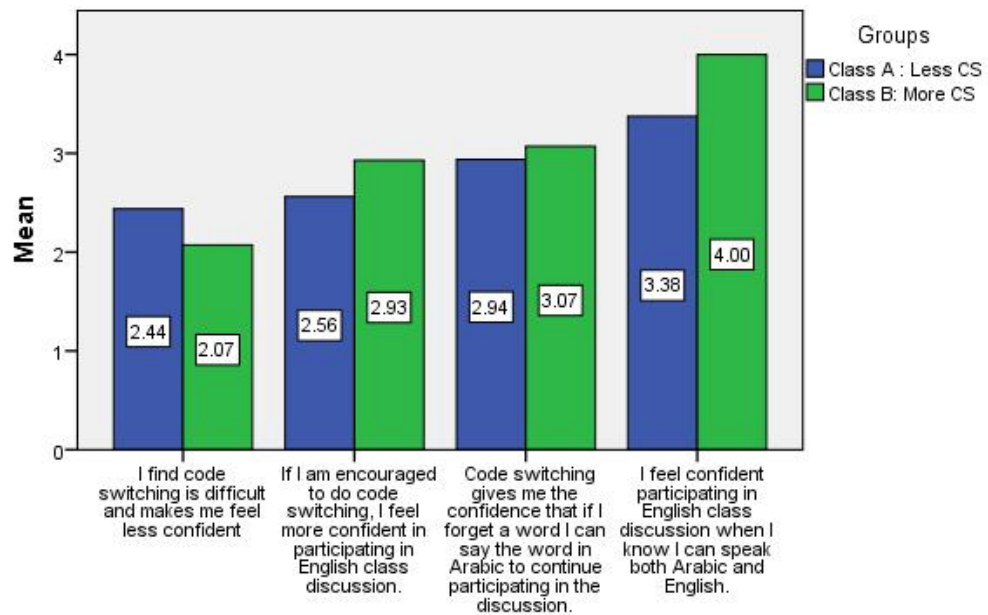


Figure 15: Survey result of CS as a confidence booster

CS and speaking

In terms of speaking, students from Class A were against using CS because they felt that it confused them. Both classes, however, found that switching between Arabic and English was better than just trying to speak English if they were stuck in a conversation (Figure 16). Once again, as this issue was not particular to grammar, it was not investigated further.

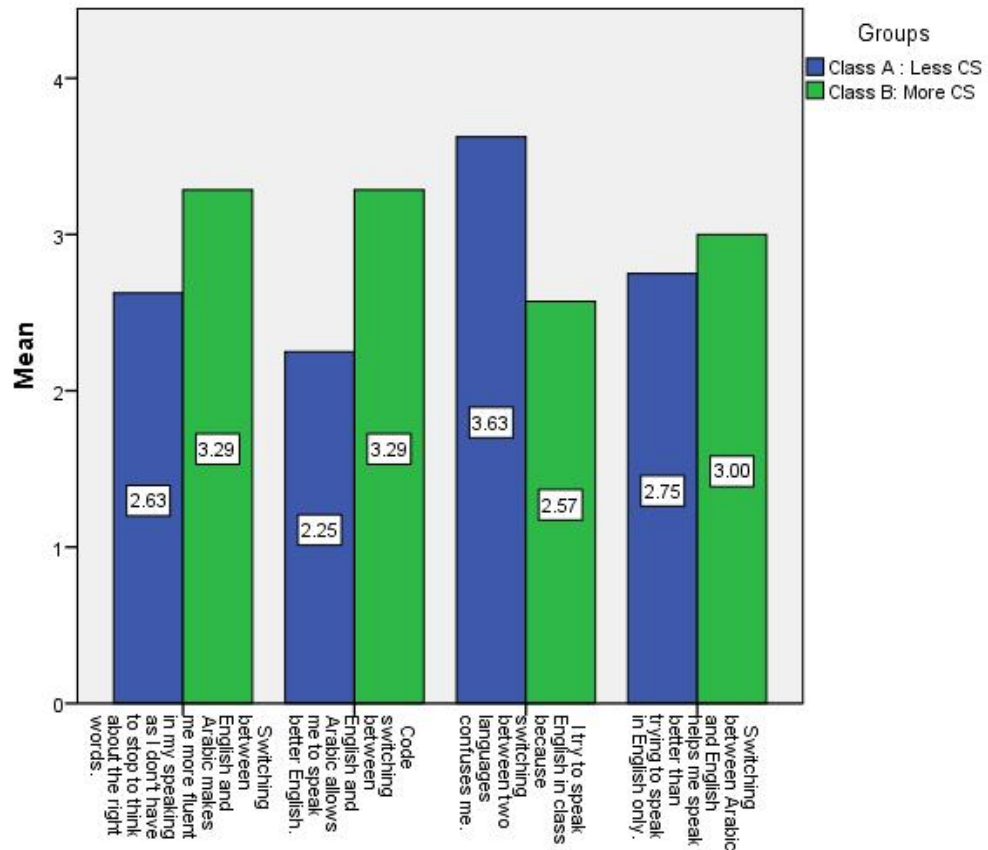


Figure 16: Survey result of CS and speaking

Teachers' CS to increase English grammar understanding

One of the statements in this group was, “When the teacher switches between English and Arabic I find it more confusing than helpful”; Class A students agreed that it was indeed more confusing. Class B students, who did more CS in the class, disagreed with the statement. As can be seen from Figure 17, this was echoed in other sentences in this same topic - Class A students felt the teacher should not code switch at all and Class B students felt the teacher should switch codes to increase grammatical understanding.

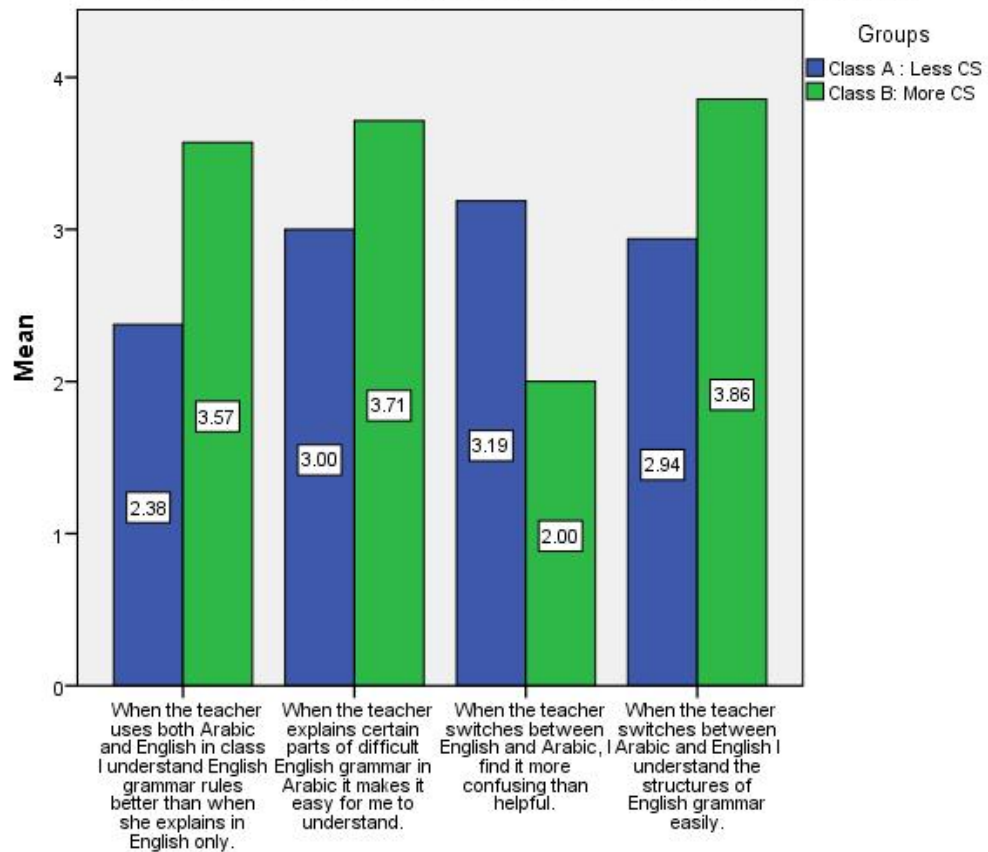


Figure 17: Survey result of teachers' CS to increase English grammar understanding

This pattern continues for other topics as well, including using CS for emphasis, creating mental linkage with CS, using CS to create more understanding, and using CS to replace words. In all of these cases, it could be seen that Class A students usually preferred not to be taught using a mixture of languages, whereas Class B students felt they understood more when explanations were made in a combination of Arabic and English.

4.4 Summary of findings

Based on pre- and post-test results, it can be seen that Class B students consistently scored lower than Class A students. In order to identify whether there was any specific relationship between a teacher's teaching method and students' performance, an analysis was carried out of the transcriptions of the two teachers'

talk. It was found that even though the Class B teacher often provided more examples than the Class A teacher, Class B students performed worse than Class A students. Not only were there more examples in Class B, but the teacher's explanations were also more detailed and included clarification of grammar concepts with multiple examples, various case studies, as well as asking students to do exercises. Yet this did not translate into better comprehension or performance.

Overall, in terms of the overall score, Class B students had less improvement than Class A students and scored lower in 5 out of the 6 topics. There was only one question where Class B students scored higher than Class A students in the post-test. Further examination found that, for that particular topic, Class B teacher used mostly English, compared to other topics where she used a combination of English and Arabic.

A common pattern that was seen in the transcription of teachers' talk was that even though Class B students were exposed to more grammatical examples, these were introduced to them via code switching. On the other hand, introduction to, and explanation of, grammar concepts in Class A were all conducted in English. As can be seen in this chapter, more than 40% of the teaching and learning activity in Class B was conducted using CS, while more than 95% of same activity in Class A was in English. These findings indicate that code switching is likely to be the reason behind the poorer performance among students in the post-test. This correlation is discussed in detail in the discussion chapter below.

In addition to the findings from the test scores and the transcription of teachers' code switching, the attitude survey also found that students who were taught using code switching felt that they learned more using this method and that they preferred this method. However, as can be seen from the pre- and post-test results, even though Class B students preferred to be taught using code switching, and agreed that they learned more, they may not actually learn more. Based on the results, it can be argued that instead of using code switching, it is better to be taught using English alone. However, the findings alone may not be sufficient to draw conclusions about whether a teacher's code switching is helpful or harmful for students in learning English. Therefore, in the next chapter, the findings are discussed to further

investigate whether or not there is a link between students' performance and teachers' code switching.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Earlier in this thesis, the relevant literature was reviewed to identify gaps in the research. This was followed by the methodology section, which described how the fieldwork for this project was conducted, followed by the findings from the pre- and post-tests, analysis of the teachers' talk in the classroom, and the results of the students' surveys. This chapter discusses the findings to explore how this study answers the research questions and contributes to the body of knowledge.

This chapter is organised around the research questions, which include a primary and three secondary research questions. The primary research question is "What is the role of teachers' code switching in the grammatical aspect of the English learning process among female Saudi EFL students in Saudi Arabia?"

Since the primary research question is multifaceted, the various other issues it entails are addressed by evaluating three secondary questions. These are the following:

- A) Does EFL teachers' code switching promote English academic achievement among students?*
- B) What kind of code switching, if any, functions as a facilitator to students' learning?*
- C) What are the attitudes of learners towards teachers' code switching?*

Therefore, this chapter is organised around identifying how this thesis answers these questions, based on the literature reviewed and the findings of the present research. To address the first research sub-question, the relationship between code switching, as elicited from the transcription of teachers' talk, and the results of the pre- and post-tests is analysed. This is followed by analysis of the second research sub-question, which looked at which code switching functions can help students learn. Various examples of non-pedagogical code switching by the teacher are assessed in this section to examine whether non-pedagogical code switching can help

students to learn grammar. This is followed by a discussion of students' attitudes towards code switching.

5.1 Teacher CS and students' grammar learning

In order to address the question "Does a teacher's code switching promote scholastic achievement among students and how can it be measured and tested?" pre- and a post-tests were conducted. Although testing knowledge is a debatable topic, such testing is a standard way to identify achievement in a classroom setting (Attali & Bar-Hillel, 2003; John Jr, 1972; Roediger & Marsh, 2005; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Ferman, 1996).

In the results chapter, it was found that teachers' code switching was not beneficial for learning because students from the class where the teacher did more code switching (Class B) performed worse than those from the class where the teacher did minimal code switching (Class A). This section aims to analyse the results in order to demonstrate that code switching was the principal variable in bringing about this result. In order to do so, initially discussion is around the topics where Class A students (where the teacher did less CS) performed better, followed by discussion of the topics in which Class B students (where the teacher did more CS) performed better.

5.1.1 More code switching by the teacher

Of the six questions, Class A students scored higher on four. Among the six questions, two were related to clauses. In the Findings chapter, it was mentioned that topics related to clauses were covered for more than seven weeks, which was almost half of the semester, and therefore, out of the six questions in the pre- and post-tests, two of the questions were related to clauses. Thus, the first item for discussion is the students' performance on the questions related to clauses.

Analysis of pre- and post-test results in Class A and Class B on questions related to clauses

From the results for these two questions regarding clauses (“Underline the dependent clause in the following sentences and circle its type” and “Choose the type of the following dependent classes”), it can be seen that students from Class B, where the teacher did more code switching, scored lower than Class A students, who received less code switching. In the Findings section, an example was provided to demonstrate that when explaining concepts related to clauses, the Class B teacher used mostly Arabic to explain the concept, whereas the Class A teacher explained the concept in English. At the end, students from Class A answered more questions about clauses correctly than students from Class B.

Transcription of teachers’ talk in Class B

However, the question is why language of instruction would create a difference in students’ performance. To answer this, it is necessary to analyse the transcription of teachers’ talk through the lens of code switching theories. Therefore, examples of teachers’ talk from Class B provided in the Findings chapter are now given in complete segments:

- 1 T: “She wanted to know when I will start my new job” Is this a dependent or independent part?
- 2 S: Independent.
- 3 T: Independent clause. How would I change it to the complex sentences?
- 4 S: Add dependent.
- 5 T: *yā sālām ‘liki* [well done.]
- 6 T: "Independent clauses" *āysh bidāyithā tkūn ...*[What is its beginning].... *āysh nū’?* [What is it?]
- 7 S: A subordinating (all students shout together)
- 8 T: A subordinating!! *āhsantī* [well done.]
- 9 T: A subordinating conjunction starts with a dependent clause", *ṭayyib. fyn nḥuṭuh ?*" [Ok. Where should we put it] beginningend ...doesn't matter".
- 10 T: *almuhim ysyr lahā ma’nā*, [but most importantly, it must have meaning].
- 11 T: *āysh ālfikrah āily āihnā nbghāhā?* [What do we want to know?] We want to know how do you act. You know how to change things.
- 12 T: *fy kul ālāḥwhl ānty rāḥ āithuṭy qā’idātayn*. [In all circumstances, you will apply only two rules.]
- 13 T: *ālāūlā hy taḥwyl jumlah aw suāāl āilā* [The first one is, to change a sentence or a question into a] "noun clause".
- 14 T: *āysh ḥatsaūy b’dyn?* [what will you do after that?]

- 15 T: *trūhy 'lyhā kulhā āthūtylhā* [you go through all sentences again and you add to them a] "dependent clause" *biḥayth tṣyr* [then it will become] "independent".
- 16 T: *ṭab'an. wa āy jumlah āinty ḥaṭḥaūilyhā ḥatkūn* [Of course. And any sentence you want to change will be] "independent" *wa āthūtylhā* [then you will add] "dependent part" and change it.
- 17 T: *wiḍḥat ālfikrah hādhy. ṭayyib nrūḥ laly ba'dha.* [Is this idea clear? Ok, Let's go to the next one?]

Code switching to compliment students

In the transcription segment from Class B given above, the first instance of code switching occurred at line 5, where the teacher intentionally used code switching to encourage the student. According to Myers-Scotton's (1992) markedness model, this was a marked choice. In general, researchers agree that code switching to praise students has various benefits, including boosting students' confidence and enhancement of the student-teacher relationship. Some researchers (e.g., Hosoda, 2000) argue that in an EFL classroom, it is better to use L1 to praise students when they complete a difficult task. From that perspective, praising students in L1 for identifying a clause correctly appears appropriate.

This scenario was repeated at line 8, where the teacher praised the student again. Since such praise can increase the student's self-confidence, it can be suggested that building rapport with students and encouraging them were the prime sources of the teacher's motivation for this switch.

Continuation in Arabic to explain grammar

However, the teacher continued using Arabic to explain the grammatical concept further, at lines 6, 10, 11 and 12. Applying the markedness model again, line 6 appears to be an unmarked choice, as the teacher continued on using Arabic from the previous sentence to explain the topic. This was seen again at lines 10 to 12. Since most disagreement between researchers is around usage of L1 in relation to teaching in the classroom, this requires further examination.

A common question that is asked at this stage is why the teacher used code switching to explain this concept in Arabic when the interaction started in English. With a marked choice, such as the encouragement of the student at lines 5 and 8, the

motivation is easily explained, because it can be seen that the teacher intentionally switched to encourage students. If this was also a marked switch, it would likely be for emphasis or to explain a difficult concept. However, when it comes to an unmarked choice, such as the example at line 6, this appears to have occurred out of habit. According to Smith (2008), however, this may actually be due to the speaker's prior knowledge of the context. Since the teacher is aware that these are EFL students and they do not have the necessary grasp of English, the teacher might have thought that explaining the concept in Arabic would be more meaningful to students, as they would be likely to be better able to understand the concept.

The benefit of using Arabic to explain a concept to increase understanding can be seen at line 7. Even though the teacher used Arabic to ask the question at hand, as the students had a good grasp of the concept, they could easily provide the correct answer, which was that at the beginning of an independent clause, there should be a subordinating conjunction. This response is likely to enhance the belief of the teacher that using Arabic is a good way to increase understanding among students and, therefore, she continued using Arabic to explain independent clauses.

However, this raises the question, if they had a good understanding of the concept, why did they score poorly in answering questions about clauses in the testing? On average, Class B students scored 1 out of 4 marks, or 25% less than Class A students, in questions about clauses in both tests. Researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1999, Smith, 1993; Wong-Fillmore, 1985) have argued that this can occur because, even though students have a good understanding of a concept, to be able to apply it in the target language (English), they also need sufficient input. Being an EFL class, students are not exposed to sufficient English outside their classroom, and by explaining the concept in Arabic, the teacher is reducing the potential amount of input these students can receive.

Class A

In contrast, Class A had low code switching and, when the same topic of clauses was taught, there was almost no code switching involved. The following excerpt is the full segment of example 1 from the Findings chapter.

- 1 T: Good, a clause has a subject and a verb. How many type of clauses did we talk about, what are they?
- 2 S: Two, dependent and independent.
- 3 T: What about an independent? It's a complete sentence, has a subject and verb, the meaning is complete, it can stand alone. While a dependent clause starts with what?
- 4 S: A subordinator.
- 5 T: The meaning is not complete, it cannot stand alone; it has also a subject and verb because it's a clause.
- 6 T: One of the dependent clause in this we're going to talk about noun clauses, adjective clauses and adverb clauses and they all are dependent clauses.
- 7 T: Let's have a look at noun clauses today. It's a dependent clause; let's look at the definition here.
- 8 T: Who would like to read the definition for me please?
- 9 S: A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions as a noun in sentence.
- 10 S: It is used as a subject, an object of a verb, an object of a preposition or complement.
- 11 S: Never separate a noun clause from the main clause with comments or other punctuation marks since noun clauses are part of main clauses.
- 12 T: So you do have a main clause and part of that main clause is your dependent clause and it can function as a subject, as an object and verb, object and preposition in the complement.
- 13 T: Everybody will see that in detail while we move on.

As can be seen in this example, there was nothing unusual about the way in which the Class A teacher delivered the message. In both classes, the teachers gave feedback to students following the interactional feedback method discussed in Chapter Two. Both classes received adequate explanation of the concepts. The overall teaching style of Class A was similar to that of Class B, with the difference being that the language of instruction in Class A was entirely English while in Class B a significant amount of teaching was conducted in Arabic, with code switching back to English from time to time. In addition to using English for explanations, by also asking students to read definitions in English, the Class A teacher increased the amount of English input.

Based on the literature review section about form-focused methods, it can be argued that this combination of grammar teaching with communication-based methods (input) enhanced the grammar knowledge of Class A students more than that of Class B students. This follows a study conducted by Pica (1997), who found

that students who were exposed to a combination of grammar teaching with communicative methods tended to produce the target language more accurately. Since Class A students had greater exposure to English than Class B students, even though they were taught the same grammar principles, Class A students were able to remember more grammar and therefore produce more accurate results in the post-test.

Comparison between classes in an example related to clauses

The influence of code switching becomes more evident when examples given by the teacher are analysed. Below is a segment where the Class A teacher provided students with some examples of clauses.

- 1 T: Have a look here, "That Ahmed can fly is unbelievable" and you have, "the story is unbelievable." Let's take each one, the story is unbelievable, where is the subject?
- 2 S: Story.
- 3 T: Where is the verb?
- 4 S: Is.
- 5 T: What kind of clause is it?
- 6 S: Independent.
- 7 T: What type of sentence is it?
- 8 S: Simple.
- 9 T: It's a simple sentence.
- 10 T: Have a look at the story, the story is the subject.
- 11 T: Now look at this example. "That Ahmed can fly is unbelievable."
- 12 T: Now the whole noun clause here served as the subject exactly like how the story served as a subject.
- 13 T: That Ahmed can fly is the subject, is, is the verb.
- 14 T: That Ahmed can fly is a noun clause and why is that?
- 15 S: It starts with a subordinator, that.
- 16 T: Yes, what else?
- 17 S: It has a subject.
- 18 T: Okay it has a subject, Ahmed, and where is the verb?
- 19 S: Fly.
- 20 T: Good. That Ahmed can fly and the whole plane is a subject. Let's look at the object of the verb. "They believed the story." They is your subject, where is the verb?
- 21 S: Believed.
- 22 T: Where is the object?
- 23 S: The story.

In this excerpt, the Class A teacher explained each part of the sentence in English while giving an example of a clause. In addition, by breaking the explanation into smaller sections, the teacher minimised the possibility of a lack of understanding

and, therefore, also the potential need for an explanation in Arabic. To understand why this is different from Class B, a transcription segment from Class B where the teacher discusses a similar example is provided next.

- 1 T: "My parents said they are travelling tomorrow" *Kul jumlah fyhā* [every sentence has] "two errors".
- 2 T: "because of said" *šārat* [became] "they were" *tmam?* [okay?] "are and tomorrow" ..
- 3 S: *Sārāh bitqūl lysh* [Sarah says why did we use] "tomorrow"?
- 4 T: *tawny kunt baqūlhā* [I was just going to mention]...
- 5 T: *'indnā thalāth áshyāá binnisbah lizaman....*[we have three rules regarding the time tense].
- 6 T: *lamā ykūn 'ndanā fy ājjumlah ālāsāsyah* "yesterday" [when we have 'yesterday' in the main sentence] *nhawilhā wa bitšyr* [we change it into] "the day before; the previous day".
- 7 T: *lamā ykūn* [when we have] "tomorrow" *bitšyr* [it becomes] "the day after; the following day".
- 8 T: *lamā ykūn* [when we have] "now" *bitšyr* [it becomes]" "then", *fy dhālika ālhyn.* [at that time].
- 9 T: *ṭayb shūfū hajjumlah* [look at this sentence] "It is known that a student brings a new book to school." This is an anticipatory sentence" it becomes "It is known that a student brings a new book to school."
- 10 S: "*lysh* [why] "brings" *wā lysh mā istakhdamnā* [why didn't we use] "subjective form of a verb"..
- 11 T: *liánuh mā fyhā*[because there is no.....]
- 12 S: (voice not clear)
- 13 T: *āhsanty!* [Well done!] *Wā hunā ānty mumkin tghayry biṭaryqatyn* [and here you can change in two ways] "you can change the verb brings"
- 14 T: *tqūm tšyr munāsibah libidāyat aljumlah* [and in this way it becomes suitable to the beginning of the sentence] and because this is "this is a subjunctive form of the verb. You can change this sentence as "it is crucial".
- 15 T: *fhimtū 'alay ?.... ṭayyib ... bas wiḍḥat ālfikrah ...*[Did you understand? Ok ... the idea is clear now].

Similarly to Class A, in this case, the teacher is using an example to help students to understand the concept. Also similarly to the Class A teacher, the Class B teacher used a sequence of questions and answers to explain the concept to the students. However, as can be seen from the transcriptions, the main difference is that the Class B teacher explained grammatical concepts in Arabic and the Class A teacher explained these in English.

An important observation needs to be made about this. It can be seen that the Class B teacher spent a lot more time explaining the particular concept than the Class A teacher. She not only explained the concept in detail but also provided more examples than the Class A teacher. According to the concept of “input flooding” mentioned in the literature, students are likely to perform very well on this topic since they were exposed to a large number of examples. However, when it came to answering questions on it in the post-test, they did not score as highly as the students from Class A.

Differences in prior knowledge among students from Class A and Class B

At this point, it is important to examine whether Class A students in fact already had a better knowledge of English grammar. In order to investigate this, a question was asked in the pre-test, “Circle the best completion for the following.” which was not part of the syllabus. In that question, students were asked to circle the best option for sentence completion. From the results, it can be seen that there is no significant difference between the English ability of these two groups of students. In addition, as mentioned in the methodology section, there are no other major differences between the students in the two classes. Both classes have students enrolled at their will and both share the same lecture notes and material. The only apparent difference between these two classes was the amount of code switching used by the teacher. Therefore, it can be argued that code switching is the factor that differentiated these two groups of students and was the reason for Class B students scoring lower than Class A students in the questions related to clauses. The importance of the teachers’ level of code switching is investigated further in the next section, which more closely examines the questions on which Class B students scored higher than Class A students in the post-test.

5.1.2 Less code switching by the teacher

Class B students scored higher on one question based on the topics taught in class, “Specifying the type of the sentence: simple, complex or compound”. In this question, students were asked to specify whether a sentence was simple, complex or compound. Similar to the previous section, an analysis of the teachers’ talk reveals an interesting pattern. The following is a segment from Class B.

- 1 T: The sentence says, “The man was named Stevens, he found those.”
- 2 T: *h̄te kh̄t̄ t̄ht̄ klmt̄* ‘he’, *althanyā* [underline the word ‘he’, the second].
- 3 T: We replace ‘he’ is subject pronoun, we replace it with the word what ‘who’ or ‘that’.
- 4 T: In this case when we were changing, when we were substituting an adjectival clause to replace the subject we can use either for person, we can use either ‘who or that’,
- 5 T: From the simple sentence, to change these sentences into complex sentences, look at these, simple sentences or complex sentences so, when you merge two sentences into one they become a complex sentence.
- 6 T: The man was named Stevens and in between you will insert the adjective clause. T: *b̄deen* [then], Not restrictive we can use ‘who or which’ only,
- 7 T: So I read about Stevens, he was a very interesting character. In this case we will use the *esh?* [What?] ‘Comma’ to show that this piece of information is an additional one
- 8 T: I read about Stevens, comma, who was a very interesting character, *sh̄ya n̄ood?* [Is it right Anood?]
- 9 S: Yes “I read about Stevens, who was a very interesting character”

In this example, it can be seen that, differently to other segments of teacher talk in Class B, the teacher did not use much Arabic to explain the concept. The process of explanation was very similar to that of the Class A teacher - use of short English sentences rather than long explanations of the concept using both Arabic and English. A similar example can be seen from the Class A teacher’s talk, as follows:

- 1 T: Let’s take a brief summary. We talked about four types of sentences, what are they?
- 2 S: Simple, complex, compound and compound complex.
- 3 T: So simple, compound, complex and compound complex. We talked about the simple sentence, what kind of clause is it?
- 4 S: Independent.
- 5 T: It’s one independent clause. How can you determine if it’s a clause or not? What do you have to the clause?
- 6 S: Subject and verb.
- 7 T: How would you know it’s an independent clause?
- 8 S: The meaning is complete.
- 9 T: So it can stand alone, it doesn’t start with a subordinator. On the other hand, we have the dependant clause, it has what?
- 10 S: A subject and a verb.
- 11 T: What does it start with?
- 12 S: Subordinator.
- 13 T: Very good, so the meaning is what?
- 14 S: Incomplete.
- 15 T: Very good.

Once again, the Class A teacher used a similar strategy - short sentences and short explanations, and all in English. However, there is one factor that was missing on this occasion: examples. In this case, the Class A teacher did not provide any examples, only an explanation of the concept. Although the conversation was in English, it can be argued that it still lacked sufficient input in the form of examples.

Comparing the transcription segments from Classes A and B, it can be seen that, in this case, the Class B teacher provided the most input. There was a sufficient number of examples given and the conversation was conducted in English. Conversely in Class A, the teacher only explained the concept in English and did not provide examples to complement students' understanding.

To comprehend the importance of giving examples in providing sufficient input, it is useful to recall VanPatten's (2004) and Sheen's (2007) notion of input processing instruction. Input processing was discussed in Chapter Two, where it was argued that it is a useful method to teach many parts of grammar. According to the theory of input processing instruction, when students are taught to use input to identify grammatical structures, they can acquire both knowledge and meaning. As can be seen in the example from the Class B transcription, the teacher also provided examples that the students could use to understand meaning as well as grammatical structure. By providing not only an explanation of the grammatical concept, but also an example - "The man was named Stevens, he found those" and "I read about Stevens who was a very interesting character", the teacher was able to increase understanding among the students.

5.1.3 Code switching as a hindrance to learning

As mentioned in the literature review, the results of previous studies evaluating whether code switching in the EFL classroom can help students to learn grammar have been inconsistent. As discussed in the previous section, it can be seen that when the teacher of one class used more code switching, students in that class scored less than those in the other class. And, when the teacher used less code switching, the same students performed better. In addition, based on the question that was not covered in the class syllabus, it was also seen there was no significant difference

between the prior knowledge of English among the students in these two classes. Therefore, it can be argued that code switching is unlikely to be helpful for students in learning grammar.

However, across many disciplines, it is commonly observed that correlation is not causation (Money, 1991; Verhulst, Eaves, & Hatemi, 2012), hence, it could also be argued that student performance has no direct relationship to code switching. Therefore, the aim of this section is to examine this correlation further to argue that it is, in fact, not a mere correlation, but indeed the causative factor in this low performance indicator.

Reduced input through code switching

Some researchers suggest that code switching is useful in explaining difficult concepts, and findings from fieldwork in the area support this (Hancock, 1997; Kim & Elder, 2005). From the examples of code switching in the classroom given above, it can be seen that the teacher used code switching to explain more difficult concepts. This can result in increased understanding among the students.

However, as was pointed in Chapter Two, a combination of input in the target language and grammatical structure is key to grammar learning (Pica, 1997). As evident in the findings, more than half of the talk of the Class B teacher in the teaching and learning category was in Arabic. This suggests that students had less exposure to English overall, which is likely to influence their ability to produce accurate grammar when required to in the post-test.

Reduced input processing instruction

However, it can also be suggested that lack of input processing instruction is more likely to be a principal reason why Class B students were unable to produce grammar correctly to the same extent as Class A students. This is because a speaker performs a marked choice, most of the time, when code switching to explain grammar. Usually, when the teacher is explaining a concept in English and sees that students do not understand, she switches to Arabic. As described in the literature, in a conversation with a bilingual person who is fluent in both languages, changing code does not cause any problems in understanding, because both speaker and

listener are familiar with both languages. However, when this occurs with someone who is at the beginning stages of learning a new language, he or she is likely to miss out on part of the conversation, due to lack of knowledge in one of the languages (Young, 2007).

Even though the teacher might provide examples immediately afterwards, such a marked switch can disturb the flow of thought among students (Lee, 2010; Rispoli, 1995), therefore, it can be difficult for students to use these examples as input. By the time they have adjusted to listening to English, they have already missed important input provided by the teacher. Hence, even though a teacher has provided input, it may not greatly assist students in their learning. Once again, this hinders their ability to gain valuable grammar knowledge.

Contextualisation cues to continue speaking Arabic

In addition, it has been found that it is common for a bilingual person to continue using the code that has already been used in the conversation up to that point (Dimitrijević, 2004). In the case of the classroom, once the teacher uses Arabic, students may not see any reason to switch back to English, since they are likely to be more comfortable using Arabic than English. In addition, due to the authority of the teacher, students may be unlikely to change the language unless the teacher specifically asks them to answer a question in English. Due to the way in which contextualisation cues work, students are likely to continue using Arabic so that they can answer their teacher appropriately. Although this might satisfy the teacher and lead her or him to think that the student understands the concept, in reality the student may not be able to apply this concept when asked in a test, since it would be asked in English.

5.1.4 An alternative approach

This brings us to the questions of whether or not code switching should be used in language teaching and what a teacher can do to explain a concept when students do not understand it. By examining the teachers' talk in this study, it can be found that most of the time, the Class A teacher used short sentences and sequences of questions and answers to explain concepts, instead of relying on Arabic. Although

the Class B teacher often used many more examples and used more class time to explain the concepts, overall Class B students had less English input than those in Class A.

5.2 Teacher's CS for non-learning related activities

Usage of code switching in both classes was not limited to grammar explanations. Rather, a large portion of the code switching was also in other areas, such as class administration, explanation of course materials, discussion of examination questions, building rapport, and other activities. This section discusses what the likely effect of this is on students.

5.2.1 Providing encouragement

A large proportion of Class B teacher talk involved encouraging students. It was very common to see Class B teacher talk that is similar to the following example.

- 1 T: *'la alsree', ha ya frh* [Let's do it quickly, so go on Farah] Number one what did you choose? 'Was' *wla* [or] 'were'?
- 2 S: Were
- 3 T: *Ahsnte* [excellent] Number 2?
- 4 S: Was
- 5 T: *Ahsnte ya Majda* [excellent Majda] "He was the only one."
- 6 T: Afnan, Number 3
- 7 S: Was
- 8 T: "the only scientist who was."
- 9 T: Number 4 *ya 'nood* [Ahood number 4].
- 10 S: Have.
- 11 T: Good Abrar, Ashwag.

In this example, the teacher used Arabic to praise a student for giving correct answers. As this is not strictly about grammar teaching and learning, researchers usually do not disagree strongly on this topic, and it is generally argued that it is acceptable for teachers to provide feedback in L1, because it allows students to accept the compliment more fully (Hosoda, 2000). Many other researchers have also suggested the use of L1 as a psychological tool (Antón & DiCamilla, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). They propose the use of L1 in the classroom to help create a collaborative space among learners. Since neither analysis of students' conversations nor interviews with students was within the scope of this research, the question about

increased collaboration cannot be answered. However, it can be argued that even if the teacher uses English to encourage students, it serves the same rapport building function. For example, the following is a transcription segment from the Class A teacher's talk:

- 1 T: Where is the subject? "That he gets from the log cabin in the mountains," where's the subject here?
- 2 S: He.
- 3 T: Very good. Verb?
- 4 S: Gets.
- 5 T: Good, what did it start with?
- 6 S: That.
- 7 T: That is your subordinator. What type of clause is it?
- 8 S: Dependent.
- 9 T: Good, continue.
- 10 S: Here is the subject, enjoy is the verb, compound complex.

As can be seen from this example, the teacher used English to praise students. Instead of using *Ahsnte* [excellent], she used feedback terms such as *good* or *very good*. And there is no evidence that this slowed students down or lowered their motivation. Rather, it can be argued that, by using praise words in English, students were likely to be more encouraged, because this not only provides positive feedback, it also reinforces their ability to understand the target language.

Based on this, it can be argued that it is not necessary to use L1 to provide compliments, because these are often simple, common words that students in EFL classrooms are already familiar with. Moreover, the present analysis of teachers' talk supports the findings of Babcock (1993) in her research on the Taiwanese EFL classroom. Babcock found that using English to compliment students works better than using Chinese, as it makes students feel more special. Of course this goes against the contentions of prominent code switching scholars such as Adendorff (1993), Arthur (1996), and Canagarajah (1995), but it can be argued that it is likely that there are differences between the EFL classrooms of Saudi Arabia, Botswana and India. As this research only focuses on Saudi Arabia, differences between countries were not investigated further.

5.2.2 Administrative activities

Almost one third of code switching recorded in the Class B teacher's talk was related to administrative activities. These activities ranged from welcoming students, by saying "*Tafazaly Afnan*" [welcome Afnan], for example, to discussing examination questions, such as in the following excerpt:

- 1 T: "next question" *fyha ārbā't jwmal* [contains/has four sentences.] types of clause. The next question is worth two points *fyha ārb't jwmal* [contains four sentences].
- 2 T: You will have a complete sentence with an underlined part; you will have to decide whether it is an independent or a dependent clause. *Tmam?* [understood]?
- 3 T: What would you do? You will take this part ...
- 4 S: and replace it with
- 5 T: *lā* [no] you don't replace it with anything. *āihnā āily bnḥadid* [we decide] "whether it is a weak or strong clause."
- 6 T: Then you take it and put it alone, if it expresses a complete idea or not. *liānuh iḥnā itafaqnā inw* [Because we have agreed that] "a clause has two things".
- 7 T: *āily humā* [which are] a "verb and a subject".
- 8 S: The underlined part?
- 9 T: Yes, the underlined part. *mw kul āljumlah* [Not the whole sentence] only the underlined part.
- 10 T: Then you will have four different sentences, you will have to choose the best type whether it will be a simple, compound a complex or a compound complex. Four sentences two points.

When it comes to usage of L1 in administrative activities, there is insufficient literature on when code switching is appropriate and when it is not. However, based on the given examples of teachers' talk, it appears that using L1 for administrative activities, especially discussing exam related matters, is a missed opportunity for students to practise more English. For instance, in the above example, the teacher said, "*āihnā āily bnḥadid* "whether it is a weak or strong clause" [Now, we determine "whether it is a weak or strong clause"]. In this example, it would have been beneficial for students if the teacher had used English instead of Arabic, because, in the exam, they would be asked to "determine" if a sentence has this clause. By using the word "determine" in English, the teacher would have increased the chances for students to gain exposure to, and be able to learn, the new word.

Reduced time to explain additional concepts

Although spending a lot of time to explain tasks may appear beneficial for students as it results in greater understanding, it also needs to be borne in mind that there is only a finite amount of time available in each class. As can be seen in the following segment, the Class B teacher often had to repeat herself in both English and Arabic to explain the same examination task. This time could have been used to explain other concepts or other issues related to the exam.

- 1 T: Ok the next question *'milnā 'liha* practice *kathyr* [we have done lots of practice on it] *eh kan ya Sara?* [what was it Sara?]
- 2 T: We underline the noun clause in the sentences. You ONLY underline the noun clause *yā shabab* [guys] please!
- 3 T: *lā trwḥw ila ākhir al āljumlah* [don't underline till the end of the sentences.]
- 4 T: *ḥataṭer kul al'alamah* [the whole mark will go away.] T: "Question 5 is a compound question." *āysh ya'ny* "compound questions"? [What does "compound questions" mean?]
- 5 T: *wa kyf ḥanākhudh* "practice" *'alyh*. [And how can we "practice" them?]
- 6 T: Compound means it has two parts *ṭayyib* [ok] the first part, you have a question or a sentence or a statement you have to change it into a noun clause.
- 7 T: *ṭayyib* [ok]?
- 8 S: *uhm nafs eli swenah?* [Just like what we have done?]
- 9 T: *āywah* [yes]. *jumlih wa suāāl* [a sentence and a question] and you change it.
- 10 T: *shuftū mithāl mithāl...323...* [Do you see example... example 323]
- 11 T: *lā mū sahyhah.....*[No, not correct...] *āy jumlih ' ādyah....*[any normal sentence....] *mathalan..* [for example..].

The effect of this lack of time can be seen in the post-test questions. Instead of asking students to underline the noun clause, the questions in the pre- and post-tests asked them to underline the dependent clause and circle the type. If the Class B teacher had explained this only in English, she would have had more time to explain that there were other possible ways this question could be asked.

In addition, if the issues related to the examination had been explained in English, it would have created an opportunity for further explanation of the concepts. For example, from the teacher's talk in Class A, it can be seen that although the teacher explained that the exam will be on sentences, she had time to explain relevant concepts, too.

- 1 T: If you have just a regular verb, you have a relative pronoun and any tense of the verb.
- 2 T: If the sentence is active you're going to change it to present participle which is -ing.
- 3 T: If you have passive voice you're going to change it to the past participle and not present participle.
- 4 T: This is generally what we're going to do, you're going to have exams on sentences where you have to reduce them either to participle phrase or to appositives.
- 5 T: That's all for today.
- 6 T: Please bring your books and do a lot of activities and on Wednesday I'll ask you questions before the exam.

Higher inclination among students to speak L1

Another observation that can be made about this example is related to students' tendency to use Arabic instead of English. At line 4, a student asked a question in Arabic. Using Gumperz's (1972) theory on contextualisation cues, it can be argued that the reason the student used Arabic to ask the question was to continue the teacher's use of Arabic from the previous sentence. Had it not been for the cue, it is possible that the student would not have used Arabic, but rather English, to ask the question. In addition, the teacher had the opportunity to switch the conversation back to English by making a marked choice and answering the question in English.

Based on these analyses, it can be argued that, for administrative related tasks, especially those related to examinations, it is better to use English, as this allows for more opportunity to teach new concepts and increase input.

5.2.3 Building rapport

When it comes to building rapport with students, researchers generally agree that it is quite beneficial to use code switching. For example, in the following transcription excerpt from the Class B teacher's talk, when the student asked, "*Al akhtbar yom 23?*" (Is the exam on the 23rd?), it appears to be an excellent opportunity for the teacher to conduct a marked switch to English and let the student know that the exam will indeed be on the 23rd. Although the teacher does not have to say "please use English" and correct the student, by conducting a marked choice and responding in English, the teacher can potentially help the student to gain more practice in the target language. However, as this is an important piece of information,

by using Arabic, the teacher is likely to be able to build rapport with the student and help ensure that they will not attend the exam on a wrong day.

- 1 T: Verbs, yes. They will be extremely similar to what we already covered.
- 2 T: *Lw laḥzto, lw khlsna* [if you noticed, if we finish] noun clauses
- 3 T: *ṣart alka 'dat ile b 'dha klha shla* [the next rules, will all be easier].
- 4 S: *Al akhtbar ywm 23?* [the exam will be on the 23rd?]
- 5 T: yes! *Alakhtbar ywm 23 ywm alarb'* [the exam will be on Wednesday, the 23rd]
- 6 T: *alsa 'a waḥda ento way alsho 'ba althanya* [at 1pm, you will be with the other class]
- 7 T: *El ekhtbar mrra shl* [the exam will be very easy.]

In addition, there are many other cases where the teacher from Class B used Arabic to build rapport with her students, for example, when she said, “*aḥsntom, yaslam 'lekom, tmam, tb 'n eḥna esh hnswy alyom, rḥ ngry 'la alka 'dat w ng 'd sa 'a kda nswy practices*”. [Excellent! You are so good, so, what are we going to do today we will be discussing the rules and then do some practice]. In such rapport building cases, code switching is likely to be beneficial. This can not only help the teacher build a good relationship with the students, but also helps students feel more at ease and, therefore, more interested in the class.

5.3 Effect of students' attitude

There remains one more important aspect in this discussion - the general attitude towards code switching among students. As reported in the Findings section, Class A students felt that switching codes was not beneficial for them in learning English, and that they learned more if the class was taught in English, rather than in a mixture of English and Arabic. Class B students, on the other hand, favoured having code switching in their class.

This is an interesting finding. Since the students are more proficient in Arabic, it is understandable that they are likely to prefer to use Arabic in the classroom. In addition, they also thought that using Arabic would be likely to help in their learning, since they could, in this way, learn the concepts well. However, as can be seen from the survey results for Class A students, if students are taught almost entirely in

English, they find that use of English is more beneficial for pedagogy than the use of Arabic via code switching.

There was one exception to this general pattern of responses in the Class A students in relation to pedagogy. The students thought that it might be acceptable to explain complex words in Arabic so that they could be familiar with the meaning of the word.

Regarding the relationship between students and teachers, both Class A and B students thought that the use of Arabic helped create a better classroom atmosphere. This is similar to the suggestions made by the various researchers mentioned earlier. By using Arabic (L1) in the classroom, the teacher was letting herself get closer to her students, which therefore resulted in a more enjoyable classroom environment. In general, the students found that this allowed them to bond with other students more easily as well.

5.4 Comparison of findings with existing research on CS in Saudi Arabia

Based on these findings, it can be argued that it is normal for a teacher to use more Arabic in the classroom, as most of the students would like the instructor to use their L1. This could be one of the reasons why in many other studies (Alshammari, 2011; Khresheh, 2012; Alkatheery, 2014) conducted by researchers in Saudi Arabia, students preferred the use of Arabic in the classroom. Many of those studies were conducted by way of surveys. As can be seen from this study, overall, students prefer code switching and they believe that by using code switching they tend to learn more. However, when classroom tests are taken into consideration, it is evident that even though students prefer their teacher to code switch, it is better if she or he uses as much English as possible.

5.5 Chapter summary

In this chapter, three research sub-questions have been addressed, using the existing literature and the findings of this study. Contrary to much of the earlier

research, this study demonstrates that a teacher's use of code switching in the classroom does not help students improve their knowledge of grammar. Even though students may argue that they learn more when a teacher explains the concept in Arabic, in reality they do not learn in a way that allows them to complete English grammar tasks correctly.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This study set out to determine whether code switching is a good grammar teaching strategy for teachers in Saudi Arabian EFL classrooms. This chapter concludes this thesis by summarising the findings of the research project and discussing how this study has shown that code switching is not a good grammar teaching strategy, especially in the Saudi Arabian context.

In order to do this, the first part of this chapter reviews the aims and methodology of this study, and this is followed by a review of the major findings. The second part of this chapter summarises the contributions made by this research to the body of knowledge, and this is followed by a discussion of the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.

6.1 Summary of aims and methodology

The study was based on the researcher's own experience in using code switching while teaching English grammar in Saudi Arabia. Although the researcher's educational institution recommended the use of English only in the EFL classroom, many teachers felt comfortable using code switching. The recent literature on code switching in the Saudi Arabian classroom also suggests that code switching is beneficial for students in learning English. However, even a cursory review of the literature reveals that findings related to the use of code switching in the learning of English are polarised in most countries. A further review of the literature suggests that code switching may not be beneficial.

Therefore, a research question was formulated to investigate whether teachers' code switching can assist students to learn grammar in the Saudi Arabian classroom. Identifying how much influence a single variable (such as an activity) has on students' performance is a complex task. Therefore, a mixed method study (qualitative and quantitative) was designed. This study included pre- and post-tests,

analysis of the transcription of teachers' talk, and an attitude survey of the students in the two level 3 grammar classes, as well as an attitude survey across the university to survey the opinion of students in general about code switching.

The use of pre- and post-tests in classroom studies is common in research. Therefore, pre- and post-tests were conducted to investigate whether there was any difference in the level of English grammar ability between the students in Class A (minimal code switching by the teacher) and those in Class B (frequent code switching by the teacher). Questions using the cloze test method were used to assess students' grammar knowledge. There were two reasons for using the cloze method for the pre- and post-tests. Firstly, cloze testing methods are effective in measuring EFL proficiency among students, and secondly, in Saudi Arabia, students' grammar is often tested in this way. Therefore, using a different testing method would have introduced a new variable.

However, the results of pre- and post-tests alone can be insufficient if they are not interpreted in context. For the purpose of this study the context was teachers' code switching, therefore it was necessary to see whether there was a correlation between students' scores and code switching by the teacher. In order to do so, teachers' talk was recorded and later transcribed for analysis. In one of the two classes selected for this study, the teacher (in the class designated as Class B in this project) agreed to conduct more code switching and, in the other class (designated as Class A in this project), the teacher agreed to conduct less code switching.

By analysing the transcription, it was possible not only to identify how often the teacher in each class conducted code switching, but also why they might have done so. The next section provides a summary of the findings of this analysis.

In addition, an attitude survey was conducted to find out what students in general thought about code switching. Instead of conducting the survey at the beginning of the semester, it was conducted at the end to see if there was any difference between the attitudes of Class A and Class B students as well as those of students in other grammar classes who were not part of this experiment. The next section summarises and provides a discussion of the findings of the survey.

6.2 Summary of the findings

The findings of this research go against the current trend in the research on code switching in Saudi Arabian classrooms. According to the existing literature (Lee, 2010a; Khresheh, 2012; Machaal, 2012; Traish, 2014), code switching is helpful in teaching and learning, and there has been an increasing amount of research that recommends the use of code switching in the Saudi Arabian classroom (Khresheh, 2012; Machaal, 2012; Traish, 2014). However, the findings of the present research suggest that before encouraging code switching, further research is needed, because according to this research, a teacher's code switching does not help students learn grammar. This section summarises the findings and briefly discusses how they can be used to answer the research question.

As the aim of this research was to investigate whether a teacher's code switching can help students to better learn English grammar, the first step was to distinguish how often the teachers conducted code switching in each class and the reason for this. In order to identify the frequency of switching, each time the teacher switched from Arabic to English or English to Arabic, this was recorded. Once the recordings of teachers' talk were transcribed and coded, it was found that the Class B teacher code switched more than 60 per cent of the class time. In comparison, the Class A teacher only code switched about 1 per cent of the class time and this was only for the purpose of controlling the class, whereas the Class B teacher switched codes for various reasons, including classroom control, teaching and learning, asking questions and other administrative activities, such as discussion of exam questions.

This raises the question of which class performed better in the pre- and post-tests. From the descriptive statistics, it was clear that the Class B teacher carried out more code switching than the Class A teacher. Therefore, if students in Class B showed more improvement than those in Class A in their post-test, it can be suggested that code switching is helpful. If, however, it was found that Class A students scored higher in their post-test than Class B students, it can be argued that code switching is not helpful in learning grammar. While it can of course be unwise to use a probabilistic tool to measure a deterministic outcome, it can at least be argued that if

the situations were repeated, the results would be the same, everything else being equal.

Once the results were tabulated, it was found that the Class A students scored higher than the Class B students in the majority of the post-test questions. Although there were only 6 questions the students had to answer, 5 of these were based on the class syllabus and one question was designed to test general English knowledge. In 4 of the 5 syllabus-related questions, Class A students scored higher in the post-test. In the question that was about general English knowledge (asking students to identify what type of sentence it was), the two groups scored almost the same.

In addition, although the difference in points scored was not large as there were only six questions, by calculating the improvement from pre- to post-test, the difference between the two classes became evident. Out of the 14 students in Class A, only 3 showed no improvement in their post-test compared to their pre-test. In Class B, however, this number was double - 6 of the 14 students showed no improvement in their post-test score. In terms of percentage, the improvement in Class A was 48.3%, whereas in Class B it was 21.2%.

Since there were no predetermined differences among the students in the two classes, for example there being higher scoring students in, or giving additional hours to, one class, based on these findings, it can be suggested that there must have been a variable that influenced the students' test scores. The classes shared the same syllabus, class structure, tests and lecture material, but in one class the teacher conducted a large amount of code switching whereas in the other class the teacher only used English. Therefore, it can be argued that usage of code switching by the teacher was the variable that led to the difference between the two classes.

However, it can be suggested that although the difference in code switching together with the test results indicates that code switching is likely to be unhelpful in learning grammar, it would be better if the reasons why the teacher conducted the code switching and whether the switch was intentional (marked) or unintentional (unmarked) were also identified. Therefore, in addition to finding how frequently or infrequently the teacher code switched, each time code switching occurred the reason was also recorded. That is, based on existing code switching theories, the

markedness of the switch was also recorded. This was then combined with the results of each question to investigate whether there was any difference between student performance in tests where the teacher had conducted marked code switching to explain the related grammar concept and where the teacher conducted unmarked switches. By evaluating the results, it can be seen that Class B students scored higher in two questions: one was the general question that was not part of the syllabus and the other was the topic where the Class B teacher had mostly used English. At all other times when the Class B teacher carried out a marked switch to Arabic from English, the students in that class scored lower.

This led to the conclusion that a teacher's code switching in the classroom, especially in Saudi Arabia, is likely to be unhelpful for students in learning grammar. Although it is possible that code switching might be useful for students to learn other components of English, such as speaking, it was found in this research that it is not helpful in learning grammar. This is because in code switching, the teacher is depriving students of valuable English input and this lack of input processing is one of the main reasons students from Class B were unable to produce correct grammatical output. Therefore, even though it is possible that students might have a better understanding of English grammar, they are unable to answer correctly in class due to their lack of input in English. Since in EFL classes tests are extremely important, it is recommended that the teacher use as much English as possible. In addition, as she is often required to explain the same concept twice (once in English and once in Arabic), the teacher has less time to provide examples to students. The fact that she switches to Arabic also often works as a contextualisation cue for students to communicate in Arabic in class and, therefore, reduces their attempts to use English.

At this point it should be noted that there are still likely to be other benefits of using code switching in class. Based on the attitude survey of the students from Class B, it can be seen that there was a good relationship between the teacher and the students, and her attempt at using code switching to build solidarity clearly worked. The results of the attitude survey from other students at the university also suggest that students in general prefer their teacher to switch codes. However, the results of the attitude survey of Class A students suggest that even if the teacher does not code

switch, this does not mean that the teacher-student relationship is bad. Rather, students who were exposed mostly to English thought that it was positive that the teacher did not code switch and that they had learned a lot more, precisely because their teacher did not engage in code switching. Thus, if a teacher wants to code switch because the general consensus is that code switching will help build solidarity with students, she should not feel the need to engage in code switching: once students are exposed to high levels of English input in class, it is likely that they would prefer that the teacher use English and not Arabic.

6.3 Contributions of the study

This study makes the following contributions to the body of knowledge related to code switching and language learning.

The first contribution is that it challenges the current findings in the literature that code switching is beneficial for students learning grammar in Saudi EFL classes. As can be seen from this study, a teacher's code switching may not be an effective way of teaching grammar. The findings of this research suggest that caution should be exercised in encouraging code switching in the classroom.

Although code switching might be useful in other forms of teaching and learning, and it is possible that a student's code switching can be helpful, the implications of this research are that teachers should minimise code switching in grammar classrooms and should communicate and explain materials only in English in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia.

The second contribution is that a new coding method to analyse teacher talk was developed. Although there have been many coding categories created by researchers, there are no existing categories for analysing teachers' talk to identify when code switching has occurred and to distinguish types of code switch for further analysis, based on existing theories. The methods used in this research can be used by other researchers, since code switching is an active area of research in many countries.

Researchers who intend to study the effects of teachers' code switching in other countries can use these coding categories to further advance their research.

6.4 Limitations of the study

Results cannot just be attributed to a single factor in any research project. Therefore, a future researcher attempting to replicate this research might produce slightly different results if it were conducted in a different environment. This section, therefore, discusses the limitations of this research and how these might have influenced the study.

The main weakness of this study was that Class A and Class B had different teachers who had different teaching styles. By examining the transcripts of teachers' talk, it can be seen that the Class B teacher was not particularly engaging. The Class A teacher used short question-answer sequences to explain concepts, whereas the Class B teacher used long explanations. The Class A teacher's use of vocabulary was also very vivid. The Class B teacher, on the other hand, used simpler English words.

It can be argued that the reason the Class B teacher used simpler English is that she was code switching most of the time. If she had not been code switching, she would probably have used words that were similar to those of the Class A teacher. In addition, from the findings, it could be seen that the Class B students scored higher in the question where the teacher had used more English than Arabic to explain the related concept. Having said that, teaching style is a known influence in student performance, and it would have been better if both classes were taught by the same teacher and in one class the teacher did more code switching, and in the other, less.

Another limitation of the study was the size of the classes. Although the number of participants was supposed to be 25 in each class, only 14 students from each class took part in both the pre-test and the post-test. A sample size of only 28 students in total makes generalising of the results difficult.

The prior knowledge of the students might have also been a limitation of this research. Being a student of grammar level 3 means that they already had a certain level of knowledge of English grammar. Although students at lower levels do not learn clauses or the other topics that were assessed in this research, conducting a similar experiment in a grammar level 1, or a beginner class, might produce a different result.

The number of questions asked in the pre- and post-tests was a further limitation, since only six questions may be too few. More questions would have generated more data, which would have allowed more accurate statistical representations of the differences between the classes. Furthermore, the use of the cloze test method, and in particular, multiple-choice questions, makes it possible for students to guess the correct answers. Therefore, it is possible that in some cases, students might have chosen the correct response even though they may not actually have known the answer.

In addition to the limitations mentioned, there could have been other factors that influenced the results. Any future research should take other potential factors into consideration when designing a study.

6.5 Recommendations for the way forward

Based on the findings of this research, various recommendations for future research and classroom teaching can be made. As the recommendations for research are different to the recommendations for teaching, this section is divided in two parts. The first part identifies potential research opportunities, suggesting areas where further study of the role of code switching in the classroom would be worthwhile. This is followed by recommendations related to teaching.

6.5.1 Recommendations for future research

This research studied code switching in Saudi Arabia only. What is now needed is a cross-national study involving other countries where teachers conduct code

switching in the classroom. This is because, based on the literature review, it can be seen that the findings related to code switching are generally quite polarised. The findings either suggest that it should be banned, since it breeds linguistic confusion (Young, 2007), or it should be done more because it increases comprehension among students (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Tang, 1990). Therefore, it seems that a further study involving various EFL classes around the world would be able to come to a more comprehensive conclusion. Since the textbook, *Mosaic* (Werner & Nelson, 2007) which was used in the classrooms in this study is also used in many other countries, it would be relatively easy to identify other schools which might potentially collaborate in future studies.

Fortunately, there has been growing interest among researchers in code switching in the classroom, especially because of García and Wei's (2013) recent discussion about translanguaging. It would be beneficial for many countries around the world to be part of such a research program. Although research in translanguaging is different to research in code switching, such as comprises this study, growing interest in translanguaging is likely to promote further research interest in code switching, and this could help foster cross-national collaborative research into code switching.

There would also be the opportunity to conduct a further study using different test methods, such as asking students to fill in the blanks or do reading comprehension, to see if the results are similar to those found in this study. More research using other experimental methods is likely to be useful in gaining an understanding of the role of code switching in EFL classrooms, going beyond what has been revealed here.

A comparative study between students of various levels (grammar levels 1 to 4) is also likely to be beneficial in gaining further understanding of the role of code switching in the classroom. A similar comparative study could be conducted among male and female students to see if gender plays any role in learning while code switching.

6.5.2 Recommendations for teaching

Teachers can use the findings from this research to justify not using code switching and fearing that students will not understand them if they use only English in the classroom. Instead of code switching, they can use short question-answer sequences in English. For a grammar class at an intermediate or higher level, the use of English alone would be sufficient.

As was found in this research, even though students might prefer code switching in the classroom and teachers might be willing to code switch to build solidarity, if students are taught in English only, this can then become their preferred method of language instruction.

However, if a class teacher wants to code switch, it is recommended that she switch code only for activities that are not related to teaching and learning. She can use code switching for controlling the classroom or explaining an administrative task, but it would be most beneficial for students if she used English for all her teaching and learning activities.

References

- Abu Bakar, H. (2009). Code-switching in Kuala Lumpur Malay: The “Rojak” phenomenon. *Journal of Southeast Studies, University of California*, 9, 99-107. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10125/10712>
- Adamson, H. D. (1993). *Academic competence: Theory and classroom practice: preparing ESL students for content courses*. Harlow, UK: Longman Publishing Group.
- Adendorff, R. D. (1993). Teacher education: Code-switching amongst Zulu-speaking pupils and their teachers. *South African journal of applied language studies*, 2(1), 13-26. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09500789309541356>
- Ahmad, B. H., & Jusoff, K. (2009). Teachers’ code-switching in classroom instructions for low English proficient learners. *English language teaching*, 2(2), 49-55. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v2n2p49>
- Al-Mansour, N. S. (1998). *Linguistic constraints on code-switching: A case study of Saudi-spoken Arabic-English code switching*. Gainesville, FL: University of Florida Press.
- Alkatheery, E. (2014). Functions of teacher code-switching in a Saudi EFL classroom: A case study. *Perspectives (TESOL Arabia)*, 22(3).
- Allwright, D., & Bailey, K. M. (1991). *Focus on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Alshammari, M. M. (2011). The use of the mother tongue in Saudi EFL classrooms. *Journal of international education research (JIER)*, 7(4), 95-102. doi:10.19030/jier.v7i4.6055
- Ansary, H., & Babaii, E. (2002). Universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks: A step towards systematic textbook evaluation. *The internet TESL journal*, 8(2), 1-9.
- Antón, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *Canadian modern language review*, 54(3), 314-342.
- Arnett, K. (2013). Using the first language and code switching in second language classrooms. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Arthur, J. (1996). Code switching and collusion: Classroom interaction in Botswana primary schools. *Linguistics and education*, 8(1), 17-33. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0898-5898\(96\)90004-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0898-5898(96)90004-2)
- Attali, Y., & Bar-Hillel, M. (2003). Guess where: The position of correct answers in multiple-choice test items as a psychometric variable. *Journal of educational measurement*, 40(2), 109-128. doi:10.1111/j.1745-3984.2003.tb01099.x
- Auer, P. (1990). A discussion paper on code alternation. In *Papers for the workshop on concepts, methodology and data, Basel, Switzerland, January 1990. (European science foundation network on codeswitching and language contact)*, pp. 69-87.
- Auer, P., & Wei, L. (Eds.). (2007). *Handbook of multilingualism and multilingual communication* (Vol. 5). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Auerbach, E. R. (1993). Reexamining English only in the ESL classroom. *Tesol quarterly*, 27(1), 9-32. doi:10.2307/3586949
- Babcock, S. P. (1993). The significance of cultural influences within the ESL/EFL classroom: A Taiwan experience. Paper presented at the international conference on teacher education in second language teaching, Hong Kong. (ERIC document reproduction service No. ED375681).
- Barber, C., Beal, J., & Shaw, P. (2012). *The English language*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Beckman, M. E., & Edwards, J. (2000). The ontogeny of phonological categories and the primacy of lexical learning in linguistic development. *Child development*, 71(1), 240-249. doi:10.1111/1467-8624.00139
- Bhooth, A., Azman, H., & Ismail, K. (2014). The role of the L1 as a scaffolding tool in the EFL reading classroom. *Procedia-social and behavioral sciences*, 118, 76-84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.02.011>
- Blom, J. P., & Gumperz, J. J. (1972). Social meaning in linguistic structure: Code-switching in Norway. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in social linguistics: The ethnography of communication* (pp. 424-426). New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Boas, T. C. (2006). Weaving the authoritarian web: The control of internet use in nondemocratic regimes. In J. Zysman & A. Newman (Eds.), *How revolutionary was the digital revolution* (pp.373-390) Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *Tesol quarterly*, 32(1), 9-38. doi:10.2307/3587900

- Boztepe, E. (2005). Issues in code-switching: Competing theories and models. *teachers college, Columbia University working papers in TESOL & applied linguistics*, 3(2).
- Brock, C. A. (1986). The effects of referential questions on ESL classroom discourse. *TESOL quarterly*, 20(1), 47-59. doi:10.2307/3586388
- Brown, H. D. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Brown, H. D., & Abeywickrama, P. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices*. New York: Longman.
- Burstall, C. (1975). Primary French in the balance. *Educational research*, 17(3), 193-198. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0013188750170304>
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1995). Functions of codeswitching in ESL classrooms: socialising bilingualism in Jaffna. *Journal of multilingual & multicultural development*, 16(3), 173-195. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01434632.1995.9994599>
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied linguistics review*, 2(1), 1-28. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110239331.1>
- Carroll, J. B. (1967). *The foreign language attainments of language majors in the senior year-A survey conducted in US colleges and universities*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). Language teaching approaches: An overview. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, 2, 3-10.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Chung, H. H. (2006). Code switching as a communicative strategy: A case study of Korean-English bilinguals. *Bilingual research journal*, 30(2), 293-307. doi:10.1080/15235882.2006.10162878
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian modern language review*, 57(3), 402-423. doi:10.3138/cmlr.57.3.402
- Cook, V. (2013). *Second language learning and language teaching*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Cowan, R. (2008). *The teacher's grammar of English with answers: A course book and reference guide*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The modern language journal*, 94(1), 103-115. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x
- Cummins, J. (2000). Immersion education for the millennium: What we have learned from 30 years of research on second language immersion. Retrieved from <http://carla.umn.edu/cobaltt/modules/strategies/CUMMINS/CUMMINS.PDF>
- De Saussure, F., & Baskin, W. (2011). *Course in general linguistics*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Demetras, M. J., Post, K. N., & Snow, C. E. (1986). Feedback to first language learners: The role of repetitions and clarification questions. *Journal of child language*, 13(2), 275-292. doi:10.1017/S0305000900008059
- Diller, K. C. (1978). *The language teaching controversy*. New York, NY: Newbury House Publishers.
- Dimitrijević, J. (2004). Code-switching: structure and meaning. *FACTA UNIVERSITATIS-linguistics and Literature*, 3(1), 37-46.
- Dong, L.-z., & Zhu, Q.-l. (2007). An investigation on L1 use in advanced English teaching of English majors. *Shandong foreign language teaching journal*, 6, 12.
- Dukes, K. (2011). Phonetic transcription: Quranic Arabic corpus. Retrieved from <http://corpus.quran.com/documentation/phonetic.jsp>
- Elkhafaifi, H. (2005). Listening comprehension and anxiety in the Arabic language classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, 89(2), 206-220. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2005.00275.x
- Ellis, R. (1999). Input-based approaches to teaching grammar: A review of classroom-oriented research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 19, 64-80. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190599190044>
- Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning*, 51(s1), 1-46. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.2001.tb00013.x
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar: An SLA perspective. *Tesol quarterly*, 40(1), 83-107. doi:10.2307/40264512
- Ellis, R. (2010). Second language acquisition, teacher education and language pedagogy. *Language teaching*, 43(2), 182-201. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990139>
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 28(2), 339-368. doi:10.1017/S0272263106060141

- Ervin, S. M. (1964). Imitation and structural change in children's language. In E. Lenneberg (Ed.), *New directions in the study of language* (pp. 163-189). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Farrar, M. J. (1992). Negative evidence and grammatical morpheme acquisition. *developmental psychology*, 28(1), 90-98. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.28.1.90>
- Ferris, D. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of second language writing*, 8(1), 1-11.
- Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. (2013). *Teaching ESL composition: purpose, process, and practice*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Fillmore, L. W. (1981). Cultural perspectives on second language learning. *TESL reporter*, 14(2), 23-31.
- Folse, K. S., Mitchell, D., Smith-Palinkas, B., Tortorella, D. M., & Arbor, A. (2005). *Clear grammar: Activities for spoken and written communication*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Fortune, A., & Thorp, D. (2001). Knotted and entangled: New light on the identification, classification and value of language related episodes in collaborative output tasks. *Language Awareness*, 10(2-3), 143-160. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09658410108667031>
- Francis, W. N. (1954). Revolution in grammar. *Quarterly journal of speech*, 40(3), 299-312. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00335635409381991>
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2013). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gardner-Chloros, P., & Edwards, M. (2004). Assumptions behind grammatical approaches to code-switching: When the blueprint is a red herring. *Transactions of the Philological society*, 102(1), 103-129. doi:10.1111/j.0079-1636.2004.00131.x
- Griffiths, C., & Parr, J. M. (2001). Language-learning strategies: Theory and perception. *ELT journal*, 55(3), 247-254. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.3.247>
- Grosjean, F. (1996). Living with two languages and two cultures. In I. Parasnis (Ed.), *Cultural and language diversity and the deaf experience* (pp. 20-37). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press
- Guariento, W., & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT journal*, 55(4), 347-353.
- Guilloteaux, M. J. (2014). Exploring teaching in traditional EFL high school classrooms. *Journal of secondary English education* 7(2), 3-28. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.4.347>

- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1972). The communicative competence of bilinguals: Some hypotheses and suggestions for research. *Language in Society*, 1(01), 143-154. doi:10.1017/S0047404500006606
- Hadzibeganovic, T., Stauffer, D., & Schulze, C. (2008). Boundary effects in a three-state modified voter model for languages. *Physica A: Statistical mechanics and its applications*, 387(13), 3242-3252.
- Halliday, M., Matthiessen, C. M., & Matthiessen, C. (2014). *An introduction to functional grammar*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic*. London: Arnold.
- Han, Z., Park, E. S., & Combs, C. (2008). Textual enhancement of input: Issues and possibilities. *Applied linguistics*, 29(4), 597-618. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amn010>
- Hancock, M. (1997). Behind classroom code switching: Layering and language choice in L2 learner interaction. *TESOL quarterly*, 31(2), 217-235. doi:10.2307/3588045
- Harkness, J. A., & Schoua-Glusberg, A. (1998). Questionnaires in translation. *ZUMA-Nachrichten Spezial*, 3(1), 87-127.
- Harris, Z. S. (1951). *Methods in structural linguistics*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Hasan, A. S. (2006). Analysing bilingual classroom discourse. *International journal of bilingual education and bilingualism*, 9(1), 7-18. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050608668627>
- Hasan, R., Matthiessen, C., & Webster, J. J. (2007). *Continuing discourse on language: A functional perspective*. London: Equinox.
- Hauptmann, J. (2004). *The effect of the integrated keyword method on vocabulary retention and motivation*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://www.keyword-method.de/own_docs/pdf/thesis.pdf
- Heredia, R. R., & Altarriba, J. (2001). Bilingual language mixing: Why do bilinguals code-switch? *Current directions in psychological science*, 10(5), 164-168.
- Hickey, R. (2012). *The handbook of language contact*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Hinkel, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *Tesol quarterly*, 40(1), 109-131. doi:10.2307/40264513

- Hinkel, E. (2012). Language learning and language culture in a changing world. *Applied research in English*, 1(2), 45-56. Retrieved from http://www.sid.ir/en/VEWSSID/J_pdf/5064020120205.pdf
- Hobbs, V., Matsuo, A., & Payne, M. (2010). Code-switching in Japanese language classrooms: An exploratory investigation of native vs. non-native speaker teacher practice. *Linguistics and education*, 21(1), 44-59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2009.12.004>
- Holmes, J. (2013). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Hopper, P. J. (1982). Aspect between discourse and grammar: An introductory essay for the volume. In P. J. Hopper (Ed.), *Tense-aspect: Between semantics & pragmatics* (pp. 3-18). doi:10.1075/tsl.1.04hop
- Hopper, P. J., & Thompson, S. A. (1985). The iconicity of the universal categories 'noun' and 'verb'. In J. Haiman (Ed.), *Iconicity in Syntax* (pp 151-183). Amsterdam: John Benjamins publishing.
- Hosoda, Y. (2000). Teacher codeswitching in the EFL classroom. *JALT journal*, 22(1), 69-93. Retrieved from <http://jalt-publications.org/jj/articles/2574-teacher-codeswitching-efl-classroom>
- Hsieh, P.-t. J. (2010). The impact of globalization on foreign language education policy in Taiwan—policy initiatives and industrial demand. *The international journal of educational and psychological assessment*, 5(2), 237-254.
- Hussein, B. A.-S. (2013). Teaching and learning English-as-a-second/foreign language through mother tongue: A field study. *Asian social science*, 9(10), 175-180. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v9n10p175>
- Hymes, D.H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: selected readings* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.
- Jadallah, M., & Hassan, F. (2010). A review of some new trends in using L1 in the EFL classroom. In *National conference on improving TEFL methods & practices at Palestinian universities*.
- Jagero, N., & Odongo, E. K. (2011). Patterns and motivations of code switching among male and female in different ranks and age groups in Nairobi Kenya. *international journal of linguistics*, 3(1), 1-13. doi:10.5296/ijl.v3i1.1164
- Jingxia, L. (2010). Teachers' code-switching to the L1 in EFL classroom. *The open applied linguistics journal*, 3(10), 10-23. doi:10.2174/1874913501003010010
- John Jr, W. O. (1972). Scoring methods and difficulty levels for cloze tests of proficiency in English as a second language. *The Modern Language Journal*, 56(3), 151-158. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1972.tb05035.x

- Johnson, K. (2008). *An introduction to foreign language learning and teaching*. London: Pearson Education.
- Johnson, R. K. (1983). *Report of the ELTU study of the oral medium of instruction in Anglo-Chinese secondary school classrooms*: Publisher not identified.
- Jourdenais, R., Ota, M., Stauffer, S., Boyson, B., & Doughty, C. (1995). Does textual enhancement promote noticing? A think-aloud protocol analysis. *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning*, (Tech. Rep. No. 9, pp. 183-216). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press..
- Kagan, S. (1995). We can talk: Cooperative learning in the elementary ESL classroom. ERIC Digest. Retrieved from <https://www.ericdigests.org/1996-1/talk.htm>
- Kang, D.-M. (2008). The classroom language use of a Korean elementary school EFL teacher: Another look at TETE. *System*, 36(2), 214-226. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2007.10.005>
- Kelly, L. G. (1969). *25 centuries of language teaching: An inquiry into the science, art, and development of language teaching methodology, 500 BC-1969*. New York, NY: Newbury House Publishers.
- Kharmā, N. N., & Hajjaj, A. H. (1989). Use of the mother tongue in the ESL classroom. *International review of applied linguistics*, 27(3), 223-235. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1989.27.3.223>
- Khresheh, A. (2012). Exploring when and why to use Arabic in the Saudi Arabian EFL classroom: Viewing L1 use as eclectic technique. *English language teaching*, 5(6), 78-88. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n6p78>
- Kim, S. H. O., & Elder, C. (2005). Language choices and pedagogic functions in the foreign language classroom: A cross-linguistic functional analysis of teacher talk. *Language teaching research*, 9(4), 355-380.
- Kirova, A. (2007). *Global migration and education: School, children, and families*. Hove, UK: Psychology Press.
- Kite, Y. (2001). English/Japanese codeswitching among students in an international high school. In *Bilingual education and Bilingualism* (pp. 312-328).
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Harlow, UK: Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd.
- Küçük, F., & Walters, J. (2009). How good is your test? *ELT journal*, 63(4), 332-341. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccp001>
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1999). Critical classroom discourse analysis. *TESOL quarterly*, 33(3), 453-484. doi:10.2307/3587674

- Labov, W. (1972). Negative attraction and negative concord in English grammar. *Language*, 48(4), 773-818. doi:10.2307/411989
- Lacorte, M. (2014). *The Routledge handbook of Hispanic applied linguistics*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Lee, H. L. J. (2010a). Code switching in the teaching of English as a second language to secondary school students. *Malaysian journal of ELT research*, 6, 1-45.
- Lee, J. H. (2010b). *The differential effects of teacher code-switching on the vocabulary acquisition of adult and young EFL learners: A study in the Korean context*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (2013). *A communicative grammar of English*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Leow, R. P. (1998). Toward operationalizing the process of attention in SLA: evidence for Tomlin and Villa's (1994) fine-grained analysis of attention. *Applied psycholinguistics*, 19, 133-160. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716400010626>
- Li, D. C. (1999). Semantically motivated code-alternation. *Hong Kong journals online*, 1-52. Retrieved from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.122.3403&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Li, Z. (2011). English teachers' code switching in public English classes. *Journal of Xi'an Aerotechnical college*, 2, 24.
- Li, Wei. (1994). Three generations two languages, one family. Language choice and language shift in a Chinese community in Britain. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Li, Wei. (2002). What do you want me to say? On the conversation analysis approach to bilingual interaction. *Language in society*, 31(2), 159-180. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404502020146>
- Li-ping, C. (2004). An investigation of teacher code-switching in the English teaching classroom. *Journal of PLA University of foreign languages*, 5, 009.
- Liebscher, G., & Dailey-O'Cain, J. (2005). Learner code-switching in the content-based foreign language classroom. *The modern language journal*, 89(2), 234-247. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2005.00277.x
- Lightbown, P. M., & Pienemann, M. (1993). Comments on Stephen D. Krashen's "Teaching issues: Formal grammar instruction": Two readers react.... *TESOL quarterly*, 27(4), 717-722. doi:10.2307/3587404

- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 12(4), 429-448. doi:10.1017/S0272263100009517
- Lin, A. (2013). Classroom code-switching: Three decades of research. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 4(1), 195-218. https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2013-0009
- Lipski, J. M. (1985). *Linguistic aspects of Spanish-English language switching*. Tempe, AZ: Center for Latin American Studies, Arizona State University.
- Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language teaching*, 44(1), 64-77. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990310
- Liu, D., Ahn, G. S., Baek, K. S., & Han, N. O (2004). South Korean high school English teachers' code switching: Questions and challenges in the drive for maximal use of English in teaching. *TESOL quarterly*, 38(4), 605-638. doi:10.2307/3588282
- Liu, M. (2006). Anxiety in Chinese EFL students at different proficiency levels. *System*, 34(3), 301-316. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.04.004
- Liu, M., & Reed, W. M. (1995). The effect of hypermedia assisted instruction on second language learning. *Journal of educational computing research*, 12(2), 159-175.
- Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*, 15 (pp. 15-41). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Lu, Y. (2015). *Teachers' mandarin usage in EFL classrooms in two universities* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). RMIT university, Melbourne, Australia.
- Lyddon, P. A. (2011). The efficacy of corrective feedback and textual enhancement in promoting the acquisition of grammatical redundancies. *The modern language journal*, 95(s1), 104-129. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01272.x
- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 26(3), 399-432.
- Macaro, E. (2000). Issues in target language teaching. In K. Field (Ed.), *Issues in modern foreign language teaching* (pp. 171-189). Abingdon, UK: Routledge
- Machaal, B. (2012). The use of Arabic in English classes: A teaching support or a learning hindrance. *Arab world English journal*, 3(2), 194-232.

- Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in second language acquisition*, 22(4), 471-497.
- MacSwan, J. (1999). *A minimalist approach to intrasentential code switching*. New York: Garland publishing.
- MacSwan, J. (2012). 13 code-switching and grammatical theory. In T. K. Bhatia & W. C. Ritchie (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingualism and multilingualism* (pp.323-350). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons,
- Mahmoud, A. (2000). Modern standard Arabic vs. non-standard Arabic: Where do Arab students of EFL transfer from? *Language culture and curriculum*, 13(2), 126-136. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07908310008666594>
- Mahootian, S. (1996). Code-switching and universal constraints: Evidence from Farsi/English. *World Englishes*, 15(3), 377-384. doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.1996.tb00124.x
- Mann, W. C., & Matthiessen, C. M. (1983). *Nigel: A systemic grammar for Text generation*. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/238691543_NIGEL_a_systemic_grammar_for_text_generation
- Marcus, G. F. (1993). Negative evidence in language acquisition. *Cognition*, 46(1), 53-85.
- Margolis, D. P. (2001). Compensation strategies by Korean students. *The PAC journal*, 1(1), 163-174.
- Meeuwis, M., & Blommaert, J. (2005). A monolectal view of code-switching: Layered code-switching among Zairians in Belgium. In P. Auer (Ed.), *Code-switching in conversation: Language, interaction and identity* (pp. 76-98). London: Routledge.
- Mehan, H. (1979). 'What time is it, Denise?': Asking known information questions in classroom discourse. *Theory into Practice*, 18(4), 285-294. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00405847909542846>
- Meyer, B., Sørensen, B. H., & Andreasen, L. B. (2013). Serious games and English foreign language in primary school: A policy perspective. In D. G. Sampson, P. Isaias, D. Ifenthaler, & M. Spector (Eds.), *Ubiquitous and mobile learning in the digital age* (pp. 227-237). New York, NY: Springer.
- Modupeola, O. R. (2013). Code-switching as a teaching strategy: Implication for English language teaching and learning in a multilingual society. *OSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 14(3), 92-94. doi:10.9790/1959-1439294

- Moeller, A. J., & Roberts, A. (2013). Keeping it in the target language. In S. Dhonau (Ed.), *Multitasks, multiskills, multiconnections: Selected papers from the 2013 central states conference on the teaching of foreign language* (pp. 21-38). Milwaukee, WI: CSTFL.
- Money, J. (1991). Correlation is not causation. *Behavioral and brain sciences*, 14(2), 275-275. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X00066632>
- Moodley, V. (2007). Codeswitching in the multilingual English first language classroom. *International journal of bilingual education and bilingualism*, 10(6), 707-722. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2167/beb403.0>
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1992). Codeswitching in Africa: A model of the social functions of code selection. In R. K. Herbert (Ed.), *Language and society in Africa: The theory and practice of sociolinguistics*, (pp. 165-180). Johannesburg, South Africa: Witwatersrand University Press.
- Nabei, T. (1996). Dictogloss: Is it an effective language learning task? *Working papers in educational linguistics*, 12(1), 59-74. Retrieved from <http://repository.upenn.edu/wpel/vol12/iss1/4>
- Nair-Venugopal, S. (2013). Linguistic ideology and practice: Language, literacy and communication in a localized workplace context in relation to the globalized. *Linguistics and Education*, 24(4), 454-465. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2013.05.001>
- Nassaji, H., & Fotos, S. S. (2011). *Teaching grammar in second language classrooms: Integrating form-focused instruction in communicative context*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Nayar, P. B. (1997). ESL/EFL dichotomy today: Language politics or pragmatics? *TESOL quarterly*, 31(1), 9-37. doi:10.2307/3587973
- Newmeyer, F. J. (2014). *Linguistic theory in America*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Nguyen, T. H. (2013). *Vietnamese University EFL teachers' code-switching in classroom instruction* (unpublished doctoral dissertation). Auckland University of Technology, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Nicholas, H., & Lightbown, P. M. (2008). Defining child second language acquisition, defining roles for L2 instruction. In J. Philp, R. Oliver, & R. Mackey (Eds.), *Second language acquisition and the younger learner: Child's play* (pp. 27-51). Amsterdam: John Benjamins publishing.
- Norman, G. (2010). Likert scales, levels of measurement and the "laws" of statistics. *Advances in health sciences education*, 15(5), 625-632. doi:10.1007/s10459-010-9222-y
- Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Palmer, D. K. (2009). Code-switching and symbolic power in a second-grade two-way classroom: A teacher's motivation system gone awry. *Bilingual research journal*, 32(1), 42-59. doi:10.1080/15235880902965854
- Park, M., & Park, M. (1999). Task-based interaction in Korean EFL classrooms. *English language teaching*, 10(2), 79-101.
- Parkinson, J. (2000). Acquiring scientific literacy through content and genre: A theme-based language course for science students. *English for specific Purposes*, 19(4), 369-387. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906\(99\)00012-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00012-5)
- Pennycook, A. (1989). The concept of method, interested knowledge, and the politics of language teaching. *TESOL quarterly*, 589-618. doi:10.2307/3587534
- Perry Jr, F. L. (2011). *Research in applied linguistics: Becoming a discerning consumer*. Abingdon, UK: Taylor & Francis.
- Pfaff, C. W. (1979). Constraints on language mixing: Intrasentential code-switching and borrowing in Spanish/English. *language*, 55(2), 291-318. doi:10.2307/412586
- Piaget, J. (1993). Jan Amos Comenius. *Prospects*, 23(1-2), 173-196. Retrieved from <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/sites/default/files/comeniuse.PDF>
- Pica, T. (1997). Second language teaching and research relationships: A North American view. *Language teaching research*, 1(1), 48-72.
- Poplack, S. (1980). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en Español: Toward a typology of code-switching. *Linguistics*, 18(7-8), 581-618. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10315/2506>
- Pratt, C., Tunmer, W. E., & Bowey, J. A. (1984). Children's capacity to correct grammatical violations in sentences. *Journal of child language*, 11(1), 129-141. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000900005626>
- Purver, M. R. J. (2004). *The theory and use of clarification requests in dialogue*. London, UK: University of London.
- Qian, X., Tian, G., & Wang, Q. (2009). Codeswitching in the primary EFL classroom in China—two case studies. *System*, 37(4), 719-730. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.09.015>
- Raimes, A. (1985). What unskilled ESL students do as they write: A classroom study of composing. *TESOL quarterly*, 19(2), 229-258. doi:10.2307/3586828
- Rajadurai, J. (2004). The faces and facets of English in Malaysia. *English today*, 20(4), 54-58. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078404004109>

- Ramirez, A. G., & Milk, R. D. (1986). Notions of grammaticality among teachers of bilingual pupils. *TESOL quarterly*, 20(3), 495-513. doi:10.2307/3586296
- Rao, Z. (2002). Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classroom. *System*, 30(1), 85-105. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X\(01\)00050-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(01)00050-1)
- Reid, J. M. (1995). *Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom*. Independence, KY: Heinle & Heinle publisher.
- Reves, T., & Medgyes, P. (1994). The non-native English speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image: An international survey. *System*, 22(3), 353-367. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(94\)90021-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(94)90021-3)
- Richards, J. C. (2008). Second language teacher education today. *RELC journal*, 39(2), 158-177. doi:10.1177/0033688208092182
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Rispoli, M. (1995). Missing arguments and the acquisition of predicate meanings. In M. Tomasello & W. Merriman (Eds.), *Beyond names for things: Young children's acquisition of verbs* (pp. 331-352). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Robins, R. H. (1952). Noun and verb in universal grammar. *Language* 28(3), (pp. 289-298). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/410101>
- Robins, R. H. (1966). The development of the word class system of the European grammatical tradition. *Foundations of language*, 2(1), 3-19. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25000198>
- Roediger, H. L. III, & Marsh, E. J. (2005). The positive and negative consequences of multiple-choice testing. *Journal of experimental psychology: Learning, memory, and cognition*, 31(5), 1155-1159. doi:10.1037/0278-7393.31.5.1155
- Rubdy, R. (2007). Singlish in the school: An impediment or a resource? *Journal of multilingual and multicultural development*, 28(4), 308-324. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2167/jmmd459.0>
- Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar. In J. M. Norris & L. Ortega (Eds.), *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp.133-164). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Rutherford, W. E., & Smith, M. S. (1987). *Grammar and second language teaching: A book of readings*. New York: Newbury House.
- Sabar, Y. (1984). The Arabic elements in the Jewish neo-Aramaic texts of Nerwa and 'Amādiya, Iraqi Kurdistan. *Journal of the American oriental society*, 104(1), 201-211. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/602651>

- Sadeghi, S., Ketabi, S., Tavakoli, M., & Sadeghi, M. (2012). Application of critical classroom discourse analysis (CCDA) in analyzing classroom interaction. *English language teaching*, 5(1), p166. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n1p166>
- Sakai, H., & Kikuchi, K. (2009). An analysis of demotivators in the EFL classroom. *System*, 37(1), 57-69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.09.005>
- Saldaña, J. (2012). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Sankoff, D., & Poplack, S. (1981). A formal grammar for code-switching 1. *Paper in linguistics*, 14(1), 3-45.. doi:10.1080/08351818109370523
- Saville-Troike, M. (1973). Reading and the audio-lingual method. *TESOL quarterly*, 395-405. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3585870>
- Saxena, M. (2011). Reified languages and scripts versus real literacy values and practices: Insights from research with young bilinguals in an Islamic state. *Compare*, 41(2), 277-292. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2011.547290>
- Schendl, H. (1997). To London from Kent/Sunt preidia depopulantes': Code-switching and medieval English macaronic poems. *Vienna English working papers*, Vol 6, No. 1, June 1997, 52.
- Schmidt, R. (1994). Implicit learning and the cognitive unconscious: of artificial grammars and SLA. In N. C. Ellis (Ed.), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 165-209). London: Academic Press.
- Serra, C. O. (2005). Discourse connectives in bilingual conversation: The case of an emerging Italian-French mixed code. In P. Auer (Ed.), *Code-switching in conversation: Language, interaction and identity* (pp. 101-122). London: Routledge.
- Sert, O. (2005). The functions of code switching in ELT classrooms. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 11(8), 1-5.
- Setati, M., Adler, J., Reed, Y., & Bapoo, A. (2002). Incomplete journeys: Code-switching and other language practices in mathematics, science and English language classrooms in South Africa. *Language and education*, 16(2), 128-149. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09500780208666824>
- Sheen, R. (2007). Processing instruction. *ELT journal*, 61(2), 161-163. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccm009>
- Shehadeh, A. (2011). Effects and student perceptions of collaborative writing in L2. *Journal of second language writing*, 20(4), 286-305.

- Shizuka, I. (2006). The development of pragmatic functions of codeswitching: A case study of two-year-old and four-year-old Japanese-English bilingual children. *Japan journal of multilingualism and multiculturalism*, 12(1), 54-67.
- Shohamy, E., Donitsa-Schmidt, S., & Ferman, I. (1996). Test impact revisited: Washback effect over time. *Language testing*, 13(3), 298-317. doi:10.1177/026553229601300305
- Simard, D. (2009). Differential effects of textual enhancement formats on intake. *System*, 37(1), 124-135. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.06.005>
- Smith, D. J. (2009). Asymmetrical mixing patterns of Spanish and English in a new immigrant community. *Bilingual research journal*, 32(2), 188-206. doi:10.1080/15235880903170025
- Smith, M. S. (1993). Input enhancement in instructed SLA. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 15(2), 165-179. doi:10.1017/S0272263100011943
- Sohail, R., & Malik, N. A. (2014). Co-relational study of the extent of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation to code switching on Facebook. *European scientific journal*, 10(29), 231-265.
- Snyder, W. (2001). On the nature of syntactic variation: Evidence from complex predicates and complex word-formation. *Language*, 77(2), 324-342.
- Spada, N., & Fröhlich, M. (1995). *COLT--communicative orientation of language teaching observation scheme: Coding conventions and applications*. Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English language teaching and research.
- Spolsky, B. (1978). *Educational linguistics: An introduction*. New York: Newbury House Publishers.
- Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2010). Learners' use of first language (Arabic) in pair work in an EFL class. *Language teaching research*, 14(4), 355-375. doi:10.1177/1362168810375362
- Sudo, M., & Takaesu, A. (2012). Using collaborative concept maps to promote deeper comprehension of academic texts in an english as a foreign language context. *EDULEARN12 Proceedings*, 6767.
- Sullivan, J., & Caplan, N. (2003). Beyond the dictogloss: Learner-generated attention to form in a collaborative, communicative classroom activity. *Working papers in educational linguistics*, 19(1), 65-89. Retrieved from <http://repository.upenn.edu/wpel/vol19/iss1/4>

- Sullivan, P. (2000). Playfulness as mediation in communicative language teaching in a Vietnamese classroom. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 115-131). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied linguistics*, 16(3), 371-391. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/16.3.371>
- Tang, C.-C. J. (1990). A note on the DP analysis of the Chinese noun phrase. *linguistics*, 28(2), 337-354. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ling.1990.28.2.337>
- Tang, J. (2002). Using L1 in the English classroom. *English teaching forum*, 40(1), 36-43. Retrieved from https://americanenglish.state.gov/files/ae/resource_files/02-40-1-h.pdf
- Tannen, D. (1981). *Analyzing discourse: Text and talk*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Tannen, D. (2005). *Conversational style: Analyzing talk among friends*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Thomason, S. G. (2001). *Language contact*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Thomason, S. G. (2003). Contact as a source of language change. In R. D. Janda & B. Joseph (Eds.), *The handbook of historical linguistics* (pp. 687). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Thornbury, S., & Pattison, D. (2005). *Uncovering grammar*. London: Macmillan.
- Tikunoff, W. J. (1985). Applying significant bilingual instructional features in the classroom. *Part C bilingual education research series: National clearinghouse for bilingual education*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncela.ed.gov/files/rcd/BE015753/ApplyingBilingualFeatures.pdf>
- Tikunoff, W. J., & Vázquez-Faría, J. A. (1982). Successful instruction for bilingual schooling. *Peabody journal of education*, 59(4), 234-271. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01619568209538378>
- Traish, A. (2014). *A comparative analysis of proficiency scores of university students in the United Arab Emirates: The effectiveness of using a first language when teaching a second language in a reading class*. Dubai: The British University in Dubai.
- Trappes-Lomax, H. (2008). Discourse analysis. In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.), *The handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 133-164). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language learning*, 46(2), 327-369. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01238.x
- Tucker, G. R. (1999). *A global perspective on bilingualism and bilingual education*: ERIC clearinghouse on languages and linguistics. Pittsburgh, PA: Carnegie Mellon university.
- Turnbull, M. (2001). There is a role for the L1 in second and foreign language teaching, but.... *Canadian modern language review*, 57(4), 531-540. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.4.531>
- Ullman, C. (1997). Social identity and the adult ESL classroom. *ERIC Digest*. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED413795>
- Unamuno, V. (2008). Multilingual switch in peer classroom interactions. *Linguistics and education*, 19, 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2008.01.002>
- Vaish, V., & Roslan, M. (2011). 'Crossing' in Singapore. *World Englishes*, 30(3), 317-331. doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.2011.01700.x
- Valdés-Fallis, G. (1978). Code switching and the classroom teacher. *Language in education: Theory and practice*, No. 4. ERIC Digest. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED153506>
- van Ostade, I. T.-B. (2008). *Grammars, grammarians and grammar-writing in eighteenth-century England*. Topics in English linguistics, 59. Berlin, Germany: Walter de Gruyter.
- VanPatten, B. (2002). Processing instruction: An update. *Language learning*, 52(4), 755-803. doi:10.1111/1467-9922.00203
- VanPatten, B. (2004). *Processing instruction: Theory, research, and commentary*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Verhulst, B., Eaves, L. J., & Hatemi, P. K. (2012). Correlation not causation: The relationship between personality traits and political ideologies. *American journal of political science*, 56(1), 34-51. doi:10.1111/j.1540-5907.2011.00568.x
- Viakinnou-Brinson, L., Herron, C., Cole, S. P., & Haight, C. (2012). The effect of target language and code-switching on the grammatical performance and perceptions of elementary-level college French students. *Foreign language annals*, 45(1), 72-91. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2012.01170.x
- Walsh, T. M., & Diller, K. C. (2011). Neurolinguistic considerations on the optimum age for second language learning. In *proceedings of the annual meeting of the Berkeley linguistics society* (Vol. 5).

- Wang, L.-C., & Hyun, E. (2009). A study of sociolinguistic characteristics of Taiwan children's peer-talk in a Mandarin—English-speaking preschool. *Journal of early childhood research*, 7(1), 3-26.
- Wardhaugh, R., & Fuller, J. M. (2014). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Wei, L. (2000). Dimensions of bilingualism. In L. Wei (Ed.), *The bilingualism reader* (pp. 3-25). New York: Routledge.
- Wei, L., & Wu, C.-J. (2009). Polite Chinese children revisited: Creativity and the use of codeswitching in the Chinese complementary school classroom. *International journal of bilingual education and bilingualism*, 12(2), 193-211. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050802153210>
- Werner, P., & Nelson, J. (2007). *Mosaic 2 grammar student book: Silver edition*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Wheeler, R. S., & Swords, R. (2010). *Code-switching lessons: Grammar strategies for linguistically diverse writers: Grades 3-6*. Portsmouth, NH: Firsthand Heinemann.
- Willis, J., & Willis, D. (1996). *Challenge and change in language teaching*. Victoria Park WA, Australia: Macmillan education Australia.
- Wolf, R. M. (1977). *Achievement in America: National report of the United States for the international educational achievement project*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Wong, W. (2003). Textual enhancement and simplified input: Effects on L2 comprehension and acquisition of non-meaningful grammatical form. *Applied language learning*, 14, 109–32.
- Wong-Fillmore, L. (1985). When does teacher talk work as input? In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp.17-50). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.
- Woolard, K. A. (2004). Codeswitching. In A. Duranti (Ed.), *A companion to linguistic anthropology* (pp. 73-94). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Xiao-Xia, J. (2009). EFL teachers' Chinese-English codeswitching and the theory of linguistic adaptation. *Journal of Jinling institute of technology (social science)*, 1, 16.
- Xiaoyan, X. (2011). The amount, purposes and reasons for using L1 in university English-major classrooms. *Modern foreign languages*, 3, 7.
- Yen, Y., Hou, H., & Chang, K. (2012). Applying facebook and role-playing instructional strategy to enhance learners' writing skills in an English as a foreign language course. *EDULEARN12 proceedings*, 4920-4927.

- Younas, M., Arshad, S., Akram, K., Faisal, M., Akhtar, M., Sarfraz, K., & Umar, A. (2014). Code-switching and code-mixing a case of EFL teachers affecting L2 learners' learning. *Language in India, 14*(6), 516-530.
- Young, V. A. (2007). *Your average nigga: Performing race, literacy, and masculinity*. Detroit, MI: Wayne State University Press.
- Zentella, A. C. (1997). *Growing up bilingual: Puerto Rican children in New York*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 5-19). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Appendices

6. The university required that each student attend 75% of each course.
Subjunctive clause *Embedded question*

IV. Circle the best completion for the following:

1. Today, the Egyptian pyramids are endangered by pollution,may destroy them completely.
 - a. the effect of whose
 - b. whose its effect
 - c. whose effect
 - d. the effect of which

2. Mrs. Sarah promised that she arrive yesterday.
 - a. will
 - b. would
 - c. can
 - d. had

3. It is important that a person ways to reduce stress on the job.
 - a. finds
 - b. is finding
 - c. find
 - d. will find

4. Mrs. Jones asked fulfillment from a hard day's work.
 - a. do you gain
 - b. whether I gained or not
 - c. did I gain
 - d. whether or not I gained

5. The interviewer was interested in howprocess the new information.
 - a. rapid I could
 - b. rapidly I could
 - c. rapidly could I
 - d. could I

6. Dr. Tom, at the party, will teach History 225 next semester.
 - a. who we met him
 - b. whom we met
 - c. whom we met him
 - d. we met

V. Choose the correct indirect statements that report the following sentences.

1. He replied, "I am on my way to work."
 - a. He said that he was on my way to work.
 - b. He said that he was on his way to work.

2. He asked, "Is there anything else I can get you?"
 - a. He asked whether there was anything else I could get him.
 - b. He asked whether there was anything else he could get me.

3. I answered, "Can you bring me some milk?"
 - a. I asked if she could bring me some milk.
 - b. I asked if she brought me some milk.

4. Joseph said, "I played for the school's basketball team"
 - a. Joseph said that he played for the school's basketball team.
 - b. Joseph said that he had played for the school's basketball team.

VI. Fill in the blank with the suitable conjunction.

1. He wants to know _____ he needs to book a table or not.

- a. whether b. when c. that
2. Ahmad left home early; _____, he was still late for class.
a. but b. in addition c. however
3. _____ learning how to read, the children were excited to buy books.
a. Consequently b. because c. After
4. _____ Sara left home, she locked the door.
a. Consequently b. As a result of c. Before

Thank you and good luck

Appendix B: Detailed statistics of survey

Group Statistics					
	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I prefer my teacher to explain new English vocabulary in Arabic.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.75	1.528	.382
	Class B: More CS	14	3.64	1.447	.387
When the teacher code switches in the class I find it easier to connect with her.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.81	1.276	.319
	Class B: More CS	14	3.71	1.326	.354
I think using Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary is useful.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.44	1.209	.302
	Class B: More CS	14	4.14	.949	.254
When the teacher code switches in the English class she gets better responses from the students.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.13	1.258	.315
	Class B: More CS	14	3.79	1.051	.281
When teachers and students use code switching in English class, I can understand the teacher/classmates better.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.00	1.366	.342
	Class B: More CS	14	3.71	1.204	.322
I find code switching is difficult and makes me feel less confident.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.44	1.209	.302
	Class B: More CS	14	2.07	1.207	.322
Code switching helps me enjoy my classes.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.38	1.147	.287
	Class B: More CS	14	3.29	1.437	.384
Code switching does NOT have any positive effect on teacher-student relationship.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.38	1.310	.328
	Class B: More CS	14	1.71	1.490	.398
Grammatical rules must NOT be explained in Arabic.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.25	1.693	.423
	Class B: More CS	14	2.79	1.578	.422
When I think a particular word needs emphasis I use Arabic for extra attention.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.19	1.515	.379
	Class B: More CS	14	3.43	1.453	.388
When teachers and students switch from one language to another, it is possible to understand what is being said.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.06	1.181	.295
	Class B: More CS	14	3.86	1.099	.294
Switching between English and Arabic makes me more fluent in my speaking as I	Class A : Less CS	16	2.63	1.204	.301

Group Statistics					
	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
don't have to stop to think about the right words.	Class B: More CS	14	3.29	1.069	.286
Using code switching makes it easier for students to understand and continue the conversation with teachers and students.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.81	1.047	.262
	Class B: More CS	14	3.57	1.089	.291
While learning new structures of English grammar, an Arabic explanation helps me to understand the grammar better.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.25	1.183	.296
	Class B: More CS	14	3.57	1.222	.327
Code switching helps teachers and students to create more active discussion than using English only.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.69	1.078	.270
	Class B: More CS	14	3.79	.975	.261
Code switching from English to Arabic helps me to understand difficult concepts of English grammar.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.19	.911	.228
	Class B: More CS	14	3.86	1.099	.294
When the teacher uses both Arabic and English in class I understand English grammar rules better than when she explains in English only.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.38	1.204	.301
	Class B: More CS	14	3.57	1.222	.327
When the teacher code switches in the class I feel more relaxed than when she used/uses English only.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.25	.931	.233
	Class B: More CS	14	3.29	1.069	.286
Code switching between English and Arabic allows me to speak better English.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.25	.856	.214
	Class B: More CS	14	3.29	1.267	.339
When I do not understand a word in English, I translate the sentence in Arabic so that I can try to identify what that word might be in English.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.81	.981	.245
	Class B: More CS	14	4.14	1.027	.275
When I am not sure about an English word, I try to guess what its Arabic equivalent might be.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.94	.680	.170
	Class B: More CS	14	4.14	1.167	.312
I do NOT use code switching when I want to emphasize a word.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.81	1.223	.306
	Class B: More CS	14	2.57	1.158	.309
Code switching creates a more relaxed learning environment for me.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.75	1.125	.281
	Class B: More CS	14	3.36	1.216	.325
Complex grammar rules are better explained using a mixture of Arabic and English.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.31	.873	.218
	Class B: More CS	14	3.79	1.188	.318
I do NOT believe that using both Arabic and English in my English classes helps improve my results.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.50	1.414	.354
	Class B: More CS	14	2.00	1.177	.314

Group Statistics					
	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
When the teacher explains certain parts of difficult English grammar in Arabic it makes it easy for me to understand.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.00	1.033	.258
	Class B: More CS	14	3.71	1.383	.370
When students and teachers code switch, the classroom becomes more active.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.00	.894	.224
	Class B: More CS	14	3.64	.842	.225
I like it when my teacher explains difficult vocabulary in Arabic.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.94	1.340	.335
	Class B: More CS	14	3.64	1.336	.357
When the teacher switches between English and Arabic, I find it more confusing than helpful.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.19	1.377	.344
	Class B: More CS	14	2.00	1.109	.296
If I am encouraged to do code switching, I feel more confident in participating in English class discussions.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.56	1.153	.288
	Class B: More CS	14	2.93	1.492	.399
When I use code switching I find it easier to link English grammar with Arabic.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.69	1.302	.326
	Class B: More CS	14	3.57	1.453	.388
When my classmates do NOT use code switching I feel lost and can't understand the conversation well.	Class A : Less CS	16	1.69	.946	.237
	Class B: More CS	14	1.86	.949	.254
I believe using Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary is NOT useful.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.44	1.413	.353
	Class B: More CS	14	2.00	.877	.234
Teachers who code switch build a better relationship with students.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.75	.577	.144
	Class B: More CS	14	3.79	1.251	.334
I think code switching is an effective strategy to learn English.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.44	.964	.241
	Class B: More CS	14	3.43	1.284	.343
Using both Arabic and English in the English class creates confusion.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.25	1.238	.310
	Class B: More CS	14	2.00	.784	.210
When I do not understand a term in my English class, my classmates explain the meaning in Arabic.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.75	.683	.171
	Class B: More CS	14	3.93	1.141	.305
I like to mix between Arabic and English because I can make a connection between my current knowledge of Arabic and new knowledge in English.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.25	1.125	.281
	Class B: More CS	14	3.64	1.082	.289
I try to speak English in class because switching between two languages confuses me.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.63	1.258	.315

Group Statistics					
	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Class B: More CS	14	2.57	1.222	.327
Code switching gives me the confidence that if I forget a word I can say the word in Arabic to continue participating in the discussion.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.94	.998	.249
	Class B: More CS	14	3.07	1.269	.339
Code switching does NOT create a more responsive class environment.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.94	1.237	.309
	Class B: More CS	14	2.07	1.072	.286
I code switch when I want to put emphasis on a word or sentence.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.63	.806	.202
	Class B: More CS	14	3.36	1.277	.341
Switching between Arabic and English helps me speak better than trying to speak in English only.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.75	1.183	.296
	Class B: More CS	14	3.00	1.359	.363
In a class or a group activity, when I use Arabic and English I find it easier to cooperate with my classmates.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.25	1.065	.266
	Class B: More CS	14	3.29	1.383	.370
Teachers who code switch from English to Arabic can better explain grammatical rules.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.06	1.063	.266
	Class B: More CS	14	3.86	1.099	.294
When I do NOT use both languages (Arabic and English) through code switching, I cannot connect between current and future learning.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.63	.806	.202
	Class B: More CS	14	3.07	1.439	.385
When I do not know a word in English, I express myself by using an Arabic word/expression with the same meaning.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.31	1.014	.254
	Class B: More CS	14	3.86	1.027	.275
I feel confident participating in English class discussion when I know I can speak both Arabic and English.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.38	1.147	.287
	Class B: More CS	14	4.00	1.359	.363
Code switching stops me from learning new English grammatical concepts because I only use Arabic to understand the meaning.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.56	1.365	.341
	Class B: More CS	14	2.21	.975	.261
It is easier to understand English grammatical rules when they are explained in Arabic.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.50	1.033	.258
	Class B: More CS	14	3.50	1.092	.292
Code switching makes the classroom environment more comfortable for me.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.75	.856	.214
	Class B: More CS	14	3.64	1.008	.269
I switch from one language to another when I want to put extra emphasis on a particular word or sentence.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.25	1.000	.250
	Class B: More CS	14	3.43	1.158	.309

Group Statistics					
	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
During the English class group activities, if I am unable to understand a word, my classmates use Arabic to explain it.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.69	.873	.218
	Class B: More CS	14	4.14	.864	.231
I believe code switching can help to connect what I already know and what I am learning.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.19	1.047	.262
	Class B: More CS	14	3.29	1.590	.425
When the teacher switches between Arabic and English I understand the structures of English grammar easily.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.94	.929	.232
	Class B: More CS	14	3.86	1.099	.294
When I mix Arabic with English in class, I feel that my classmates do not cooperate as much as when we speak English only.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.31	.704	.176
	Class B: More CS	14	2.36	1.550	.414
When I do not know a word in English, I do not use a replacement word in Arabic.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.63	1.258	.315
	Class B: More CS	14	2.64	1.216	.325
I find using both Arabic and English is a useful strategy to learn English.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.88	1.204	.301
	Class B: More CS	14	3.71	1.069	.286
I believe using both Arabic and English in my English class helps improve my results.	Class A : Less CS	16	2.63	1.204	.301
	Class B: More CS	14	3.43	1.342	.359
I code switch in my English class because I can create a link between what I already know in Arabic and what I am learning in English.	Class A : Less CS	16	3.00	1.211	.303
	Class B: More CS	14	3.79	1.051	.281

Independent Samples Test											
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
										Lower	Upper
I prefer my teacher to explain new English vocabulary in Arabic	Equal variances assumed	.146	.706	-1.637	28	.113	-.893	.546	-2.010	.225	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.643	27.803	.112	-.893	.543	-2.006	.221	
When the teacher code switches in the class I find it easier to connect with her	Equal variances assumed	.389	.538	-1.896	28	.068	-.902	.476	-1.876	.072	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.891	27.155	.069	-.902	.477	-1.880	.076	
I think using Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary is useful	Equal variances assumed	.337	.566	-1.758	28	.090	-.705	.401	-1.527	.116	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.787	27.709	.085	-.705	.395	-1.514	.103	
When the teacher code switches in the English class she gets better responses from the students	Equal variances assumed	1.011	.323	-1.548	28	.133	-.661	.427	-1.535	.214	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.567	27.952	.128	-.661	.422	-1.525	.203	
When teachers and students use code switching in English class, I can understand the teacher/classmates better.	Equal variances assumed	.508	.482	-1.509	28	.143	-.714	.473	-1.684	.255	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.522	27.996	.139	-.714	.469	-1.676	.247	

Independent Samples Test											
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
										Lower	Upper
I find code switching is difficult and makes me feel less confident	Equal variances assumed	.456	.505	.828	28	.415	.366	.442	-.540	1.272	
	Equal variances not assumed			.828	27.490	.415	.366	.442	-.540	1.272	
Code switching helps me enjoy my classes.	Equal variances assumed	1.351	.255	-1.929	28	.064	-.911	.472	-1.878	.056	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.900	24.846	.069	-.911	.479	-1.898	.077	
Code switching does NOT have any positive effect on teacher-student relationships.	Equal variances assumed	.297	.590	1.293	28	.207	.661	.511	-.386	1.708	
	Equal variances not assumed			1.281	26.164	.211	.661	.516	-.399	1.720	
Grammatical rules must NOT be explained in Arabic.	Equal variances assumed	.082	.777	.773	28	.446	.464	.600	-.766	1.694	
	Equal variances not assumed			.777	27.872	.444	.464	.597	-.760	1.688	
When I think a particular word needs emphasis I use Arabic for extra attention.	Equal variances assumed	.000	.998	-.443	28	.661	-.241	.544	-1.355	.873	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.444	27.743	.660	-.241	.542	-1.353	.870	
When teachers and students switch from one language to another, it is	Equal variances assumed	.024	.878	-1.898	28	.068	-.795	.419	-1.652	.063	

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
possible to understand what is being said.	Equal variances not assumed			-1.907	27.877	.067	-.795	.417	-1.648	.059
	Equal variances assumed	.413	.525	-1.579	28	.126	-.661	.418	-1.518	.196
Switching between English and Arabic makes me more fluent in my speaking as I don't have to stop to think about the right words.	Equal variances not assumed			-1.592	27.990	.123	-.661	.415	-1.511	.189
	Equal variances assumed	.101	.753	-1.944	28	.062	-.759	.390	-1.559	.041
Using code switching makes it easier for students to understand and continue the conversation with teachers and students.	Equal variances not assumed			-1.939	27.139	.063	-.759	.391	-1.562	.044
	Equal variances assumed	.247	.623	-3.005	28	.006	-1.321	.440	-2.222	-.421
While learning new structures of English grammar, an Arabic explanation helps me to understand the grammar better.	Equal variances not assumed			-2.998	27.205	.006	-1.321	.441	-2.225	-.417
	Equal variances assumed	2.013	.167	-2.909	28	.007	-1.098	.378	-1.872	-.325
Code switching helps teachers and students to create more active discussion than using English only.	Equal variances not assumed			-2.929	27.960	.007	-1.098	.375	-1.866	-.330
	Equal variances assumed	.242	.626	-1.825	28	.079	-.670	.367	-1.421	.082
Code switching from English to Arabic helps me to understand difficult concepts of English grammar.	Equal variances not assumed			-1.802	25.368	.084	-.670	.372	-1.435	.095
	Equal variances assumed									

Independent Samples Test											
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
										Lower	Upper
When the teacher uses both Arabic and English in class I understand English grammar rules better than when she explains in English only.	Equal variances assumed	.002	.965	-2.696	28	.012	-1.196	.444	-2.106	-.287	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.693	27.355	.012	-1.196	.444	-2.107	-.285	
When the teacher code switches in the class I feel more relaxed than when she used/uses English only.	Equal variances assumed	.430	.517	-2.837	28	.008	-1.036	.365	-1.783	-.288	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.811	26.040	.009	-1.036	.369	-1.793	-.278	
Code switching between English and Arabic allows me to speak better English.	Equal variances assumed	1.983	.170	-2.653	28	.013	-1.036	.390	-1.835	-.236	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.586	22.376	.017	-1.036	.401	-1.866	-.206	
When I do not understand a word in English, I translate the sentence in Arabic so that I can try to identify what that word might be in English.	Equal variances assumed	.010	.922	-.900	28	.376	-.330	.367	-1.082	.421	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.897	27.083	.377	-.330	.368	-1.086	.425	
When I am not sure about an English word, I try to guess what its Arabic equivalent might be.	Equal variances assumed	2.907	.099	-.598	28	.555	-.205	.343	-.909	.498	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.578	20.315	.570	-.205	.355	-.946	.535	
I do NOT use code switching when I want to emphasize a word.	Equal variances assumed	.008	.929	.552	28	.585	.241	.437	-.653	1.136	

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
	Equal variances not assumed			.554	27.805	.584	.241	.435	-.650	1.132
Code switching creates a more relaxed learning environment for me.	Equal variances assumed	.097	.758	-1.420	28	.167	-.607	.428	-1.483	.269
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.413	26.764	.169	-.607	.430	-1.489	.275
Complex grammar rules are better explained using a mixture of Arabic and English.	Equal variances assumed	1.715	.201	-3.902	28	.001	-1.473	.378	-2.247	-.700
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.823	23.617	.001	-1.473	.385	-2.269	-.677
I do NOT believe that using both Arabic and English in my English classes helps improve my results.	Equal variances assumed	1.506	.230	3.130	28	.004	1.500	.479	.518	2.482
	Equal variances not assumed			3.170	27.943	.004	1.500	.473	.531	2.469
When the teacher explains certain parts of difficult English grammar in Arabic it makes it easy for me to understand.	Equal variances assumed	.315	.579	-1.616	28	.117	-.714	.442	-1.620	.191
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.584	23.861	.126	-.714	.451	-1.645	.216
When students and teachers code switch, the classroom becomes more active.	Equal variances assumed	.121	.731	-2.018	28	.053	-.643	.319	-1.295	.010
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.027	27.831	.052	-.643	.317	-1.293	.007

Independent Samples Test											
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
										Lower	Upper
I like it when my teacher explains difficult vocabulary in Arabic.	Equal variances assumed	.049	.826	-1.440	28	.161	-.705	.490	-1.709	.298	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.440	27.494	.161	-.705	.490	-1.709	.299	
When the teacher switches between English and Arabic, I find it more confusing than helpful.	Equal variances assumed	1.854	.184	2.576	28	.016	1.188	.461	.243	2.132	
	Equal variances not assumed			2.614	27.835	.014	1.188	.454	.257	2.118	
If I am encouraged to do code switching, I feel more confident in participating in English class discussions.	Equal variances assumed	1.372	.251	-.757	28	.455	-.366	.483	-1.356	.624	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.744	24.370	.464	-.366	.492	-1.381	.648	
When I use code switching I find it easier to link English grammar with Arabic.	Equal variances assumed	.202	.656	-1.758	28	.090	-.884	.503	-1.914	.146	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.745	26.399	.093	-.884	.507	-1.925	.157	
When my classmates do NOT use code switching I feel lost and can't understand the conversation well.	Equal variances assumed	.039	.845	-.489	28	.629	-.170	.347	-.880	.541	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.489	27.451	.629	-.170	.347	-.881	.542	
I believe using Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary is NOT useful.	Equal variances assumed	5.628	.025	1.001	28	.325	.438	.437	-.458	1.333	

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
	Equal variances not assumed			1.032	25.431	.312	.438	.424	-.435	1.310
Teachers who code switch build a better relationship with students.	Equal variances assumed	6.985	.013	-2.974	28	.006	-1.036	.348	-1.749	-.322
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.843	17.760	.011	-1.036	.364	-1.802	-.270
I think code switching is an effective strategy to learn English.	Equal variances assumed	.983	.330	-2.410	28	.023	-.991	.411	-1.834	-.149
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.364	23.939	.027	-.991	.419	-1.857	-.126
Using both Arabic and English in the English class creates confusion.	Equal variances assumed	4.696	.039	3.246	28	.003	1.250	.385	.461	2.039
	Equal variances not assumed			3.343	25.682	.003	1.250	.374	.481	2.019
When I do not understand a term in my English class, my classmates explain the meaning in Arabic.	Equal variances assumed	.596	.447	-.528	28	.602	-.179	.338	-.872	.514
	Equal variances not assumed			-.511	20.670	.615	-.179	.350	-.906	.549
I like to mix between Arabic and English because I can make a connection between my current knowledge of Arabic and new knowledge in English.	Equal variances assumed	.605	.443	-.971	28	.340	-.393	.405	-1.222	.436
	Equal variances not assumed			-.974	27.729	.339	-.393	.403	-1.220	.434

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower		Upper
I try to speak English in class because switching between two languages confuses me.	Equal variances assumed	.366	.550	2.318	28	.028	1.054	.454	.123	1.984
	Equal variances not assumed			2.323	27.668	.028	1.054	.454	.124	1.983
Code switching gives me the confidence that if I forget a word I can say the word in Arabic to continue to participate in the discussion.	Equal variances assumed	1.403	.246	-.323	28	.749	-.134	.414	-.982	.715
	Equal variances not assumed			-.318	24.628	.753	-.134	.421	-1.002	.734
Code switching does NOT create a more responsive class environment.	Equal variances assumed	.904	.350	2.035	28	.051	.866	.426	-.006	1.738
	Equal variances not assumed			2.055	27.999	.049	.866	.421	.003	1.729
I code switch when I want to put emphasis on a word or sentence.	Equal variances assumed	3.071	.091	.696	28	.492	.268	.385	-.520	1.056
	Equal variances not assumed			.676	21.389	.507	.268	.396	-.556	1.091
Switching between Arabic and English helps me speak better than trying to speak in English only.	Equal variances assumed	.048	.828	-.539	28	.594	-.250	.464	-1.200	.700
	Equal variances not assumed			-.534	26.040	.598	-.250	.468	-1.213	.713
In a class or a group activity when I use Arabic and English I find it easier	Equal variances assumed	1.325	.259	-.080	28	.937	-.036	.447	-.952	.881

Code Switching as a Grammar Teaching Strategy in Saudi Arabian EFL Classrooms

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
to cooperate with my classmates.	Equal variances not assumed			-.078	24.313	.938	-.036	.455	-.975	.904
Teachers who code switch from English to Arabic can better explain grammatical rules.	Equal variances assumed	.044	.836	-2.011	28	.054	-.795	.395	-1.604	.015
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.006	27.192	.055	-.795	.396	-1.607	.018
When I do NOT use both languages (Arabic and English) through code switching, I cannot connect between current and future learning.	Equal variances assumed	2.888	.100	-1.066	28	.296	-.446	.419	-1.304	.412
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.028	19.824	.316	-.446	.434	-1.353	.460
When I do not know a word in English, I express myself by using an Arabic word/expression with the same meaning.	Equal variances assumed	.028	.868	-1.459	28	.156	-.545	.373	-1.310	.220
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.457	27.378	.156	-.545	.374	-1.311	.222
I feel confident participating in English class discussions when I know I can speak both Arabic and English.	Equal variances assumed	.030	.863	-1.366	28	.183	-.625	.457	-1.562	.312
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.351	25.636	.189	-.625	.463	-1.577	.327
Code switching stops me from learning new English grammatical concepts because I only use Arabic to understand the meaning.	Equal variances assumed	4.527	.042	3.071	28	.005	1.348	.439	.449	2.247
	Equal variances not assumed			3.140	27.002	.004	1.348	.429	.467	2.229

Independent Samples Test											
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
										Lower	Upper
It is easier to understand English grammatical rules when they are explained in Arabic.	Equal variances assumed	.039	.845	-2.576	28	.016	-1.000	.388	-1.795	-.205	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.566	26.987	.016	-1.000	.390	-1.800	-.200	
Code switching makes the classroom environment more comfortable.	Equal variances assumed	.078	.783	-2.624	28	.014	-.893	.340	-1.590	-.196	
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.594	25.713	.015	-.893	.344	-1.601	-.185	
I switch from one language to another when I want to put extra emphasis on a particular word or sentence.	Equal variances assumed	.108	.744	-.453	28	.654	-.179	.394	-.985	.628	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.449	25.933	.657	-.179	.398	-.996	.639	
During the English class group activities, if I am unable to understand a word my classmates use Arabic to explain it.	Equal variances assumed	.007	.934	-1.432	28	.163	-.455	.318	-1.107	.196	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.433	27.546	.163	-.455	.318	-1.107	.196	
I believe code switching can help to connect what I already know and what I am learning.	Equal variances assumed	2.130	.156	-.202	28	.841	-.098	.486	-1.093	.896	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.197	21.992	.846	-.098	.499	-1.133	.937	
When the teacher switches between Arabic and English I understand the	Equal variances assumed	.473	.497	-2.484	28	.019	-.920	.370	-1.678	-.161	

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower		Upper
structures of English grammar easily.	Equal variances not assumed			-2.456	25.639	.021	-.920	.374	-1.690	-.149
When I mix Arabic with English in class, I feel that my classmates do not cooperate as much as when we speak English only.	Equal variances assumed	8.816	.006	-.104	28	.918	-.045	.430	-.925	.836
	Equal variances not assumed			-.099	17.624	.922	-.045	.450	-.991	.902
When I do not know a word in English, I do not use a replacement word in Arabic.	Equal variances assumed	.071	.792	-.039	28	.969	-.018	.453	-.946	.911
	Equal variances not assumed			-.039	27.700	.969	-.018	.452	-.945	.909
I find using both Arabic and English is a useful strategy to learn English.	Equal variances assumed	.306	.584	-2.006	28	.055	-.839	.418	-1.696	.018
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.022	27.990	.053	-.839	.415	-1.689	.011
I believe using both Arabic and English in my English class helps improve my results.	Equal variances assumed	.022	.882	-1.729	28	.095	-.804	.465	-1.756	.149
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.716	26.405	.098	-.804	.468	-1.766	.158
I code switch in my English class because I can create a link between what I already know in Arabic and what I am learning in English.	Equal variances assumed	1.150	.293	-1.884	28	.070	-.786	.417	-1.640	.069
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.903	28.000	.067	-.786	.413	-1.632	.060

Appendix C: Detailed statistics of test scores

T test of Overall result

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
preTotal	Equal variances assumed	0.298	0.59	0.353	26	0.727	0.3214	0.9107	-1.5505	2.1934
	Equal variances not assumed			0.353	25.656	0.727	0.3214	0.9107	-1.5518	2.1946
postTotal	Equal variances assumed	1.87	0.183	2.005	26	0.05	2.5	1.2468	-0.0629	5.0629
	Equal variances not assumed			2.005	23.824	0.05	2.5	1.2468	-0.0743	5.0743

Table 12 : Independent t-test result of pre- and post-test

T-test score of individual questions

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
(Pre-test) Specify the sentence type : simple, complex, compound	Equal variances assumed	0.258	0.616	0	26	1	0	0.391	-0.804	0.804
	Equal variances not assumed			0	24.847	1	0	0.391	-0.806	0.806
(Post-test) Specify the sentence type : simple, complex, compound	Equal variances assumed	0.027	0.871	-1.796	26	0.084	-0.571	0.318	-1.226	0.083
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.796	25.13	0.085	-0.571	0.318	-1.227	0.084
(Pre-test) Underline the dependent clause & circle the type	Equal variances assumed	0.161	0.692	0.761	26	0.453	0.3214	0.4222	-0.5465	1.1893
	Equal variances not assumed			0.761	25.926	0.453	0.3214	0.4222	-0.5466	1.1895

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
(Post-test) Underline the dependent clause & circle the type	Equal variances assumed	0.022	0.884	3.235	26	0.003	1.1429	0.3533	0.4167	1.869
	Equal variances not assumed			3.235	25.917	0.003	1.1429	0.3533	0.4166	1.8691
(Pre-test) Choose the type of dependent clause	Equal variances assumed	0.151	0.701	-1.065	26	0.297	-0.714	0.671	-2.093	0.664
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.065	25.347	0.297	-0.714	0.671	-2.095	0.666
(Post-test) Choose the type of dependent clause	Equal variances assumed	0.005	0.944	1.649	26	0.111	0.714	0.433	-0.176	1.605
	Equal variances not assumed			1.649	25.696	0.111	0.714	0.433	-0.177	1.605
(Pre-test) Choose correct indirect statement	Equal variances assumed	0	1	0.291	26	0.773	0.071	0.245	-0.432	0.575
	Equal variances not assumed			0.291	25.999	0.773	0.071	0.245	-0.432	0.575

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
(Post-test) Choose correct indirect statement	Equal variances assumed	14.77	0.001	2.162	26	0.04	0.571	0.264	0.028	1.115
	Equal variances not assumed			2.162	18.626	0.044	0.571	0.264	0.017	1.125
(Pre-test) Circle the best sentence completion	Equal variances assumed	0	1	0.56	26	0.58	0.214	0.383	-0.572	1.001
	Equal variances not assumed			0.56	25.998	0.58	0.214	0.383	-0.572	1.001
(Post-test) Circle the best sentence completion	Equal variances assumed	8.216	0.008	-0.128	26	0.899	-0.071	0.558	-1.218	1.075
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.128	21.248	0.899	-0.071	0.558	-1.231	1.088
(Pre-test) Fill in the blank with suitable conjunction	Equal variances assumed	3.535	0.071	1.071	26	0.294	0.429	0.4	-0.394	1.251
	Equal variances not assumed			1.071	16.406	0.3	0.429	0.4	-0.418	1.275
(Post-test) Fill in the blank with suitable conjunction	Equal variances assumed	1.427	0.243	4.163	26	0	0.857	0.206	0.434	1.28

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
	Equal variances not assumed			4.163	19.868	0	0.857	0.206	0.428	1.287

Appendix D: Questionnaire



استبانة

Date: التاريخ:	Course: المقرر:
Age: العمر:	Level: المستوى:
English Level: (Please circle one): (من فضلك: اختاري واحدة)	
Beginner Intermediate Advanced	
مبتدئ متوسط متقدم	

Brief introduction about the project:

This project is being undertaken by Amirah Nasser Almansour as part of a PhD study. The purpose of this project is to investigate the role of code switching as a language learning strategy among Saudi Arabian female EFL earners. In addition to this questionnaire, the project involves groups of students participating in activities designed to understand the role of code switching in English learning classes. This questionnaire contains 60 questions about your attitude regarding code switching.

Code Switching as a Grammar Teaching Strategy in Saudi Arabian EFL Classrooms

مقدمة مختصرة عن مشروع البحث:

هذا الاستبيان هو جزء من دراسة تقوم بها المحاضرة أميرة بنت ناصر المنصور لمرحلة الدكتوراه. الغرض من هذا المشروع هو البحث في دور ما يسمى في علم اللغة الاجتماعي بالتناوب اللغوي أو المزج بين لغتين كاستراتيجية لغوية لتعليم اللغة بين الطالبات السعوديات اللاتي يتعلمن اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. بالإضافة إلى هذه الاستبانة، يتضمن هذا المشروع مشاركة مجموعة من الطالبات في أنشطة مخصصة لمعرفة مدى دور المزج بين لغتين في فصول تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. وتشتمل هذه الاستبانة على ٦٠ سؤالاً عن موقف الطالبة من المزج بين لغتين أثناء تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.

What is code switching?

When a single speaker alternates between two languages or language varieties, or uses words or phrases from more than one language during the same conversation, this is considered “code switching”. For example: when you start your conversation in English and if you get stuck you say the word in Arabic.

ماهو التناوب اللغوي أو المزج بين لغتين؟

عندما يمزج شخص ما بين لغتين أو أكثر مستخدماً كلمات أو تعابير أو جملًا من أكثر من لغة خلال المحادثة نفسها يسمى ذلك تناوباً لغوياً. فعلى سبيل المثال عندما تتحدثين باللغة الإنجليزية فإنك أحياناً ولا شعورياً تستخدمين كلمات أو تعابير باللغة العربية أو العكس.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavors.

شكراً لك لمساعدتك لي في مسيرتي التعليمية.

The researcher:

Amirah Almansour (PhD candidate)
School of Humanities and Communication Art.
University of Western Sydney
Email:

	Completely Agree			Completely Disagree		NO
I prefer my teacher to explain new English vocabulary in Arabic	5	4	3	2	1	1
When the teacher code switches in the class I find it easier to connect to her	5	4	3	2	1	2
I think using Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary is useful	5	4	3	2	1	3
When the teacher code switches in the English class she gets better response from the students	5	4	3	2	1	4
When teachers and students use code switching in English class, I can understand the teacher/classmates better.	5	4	3	2	1	5
I find code switching is difficult and makes me feel less confident.	5	4	3	2	1	6
Code switching helps me enjoy my classes.	5	4	3	2	1	7
Code switching does NOT have any positive effect on teacher-student relationship.	5	4	3	2	1	8
Grammatical rules must NOT be explained in Arabic.	5	4	3	2	1	9
When I think a particular word needs emphasis I use Arabic for extra attention.	5	4	3	2	1	10
When teachers and students switch from one language to another, it is possible to understand what is being said.	5	4	3	2	1	11
Switching between English and Arabic makes me more fluent in my speaking as I don't have to stop to think about the right words.	5	4	3	2	1	12
Using code switching makes it easier for students to understand and continue the conversation with teachers and students.	5	4	3	2	1	13
While learning new structures of English grammar, Arabic explanation helps me to understand the grammar better.	5	4	3	2	1	14
Code switching helps teachers and students to create more active discussion than using English only.	5	4	3	2	1	15
Code switching from English to Arabic helps me to understand difficult concepts of English grammar.	5	4	3	2	1	16
When the teacher uses both Arabic and English in class I understand English grammar rules better than when she explains in English only.	5	4	3	2	1	17

When the teacher code switches in the class I feel more relaxed than if she used/uses English only.	5	4	3	2	1	18
Code switching between English and Arabic allows me to speak better English.	5	4	3	2	1	19
When I do not understand a word in English, I translate the sentence in Arabic so that I can try to identify what that word might be in English.	5	4	3	2	1	20
When I am not sure about an English word, I try to guess what its Arabic equivalent might be.	5	4	3	2	1	21
I do NOT use code switching when I want to emphasize a word.	5	4	3	2	1	22
Code switching creates a more relaxed learning environment for me.	5	4	3	2	1	23
Complex grammar rules are better explained using a mixture of Arabic and English.	5	4	3	2	1	24
I do NOT believe that using both Arabic and English in my English classes helps improve my results.	5	4	3	2	1	25
When the teacher explains certain parts of difficult English grammar in Arabic it makes it easy for me to understand.	5	4	3	2	1	26
When students and teachers code switch, the classroom becomes more active.	5	4	3	2	1	27
I like it when my teacher explains difficult vocabulary in Arabic.	5	4	3	2	1	28
When the teacher switches between English and Arabic, I find it more confusing than helpful.	5	4	3	2	1	29
If I, I feel more confident in participating in English class discussion.	5	4	3	2	1	30
When I use code switching I find it easier to link English grammar with Arabic.	5	4	3	2	1	31
When my classmates do NOT use code switching I feel lost and can't understand the conversation well.	5	4	3	2	1	32
I believe using Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary is NOT useful.	5	4	3	2	1	33
Teachers who code switch build a better relationship with students.	5	4	3	2	1	34
I think code switching is an effective strategy to learn English.	5	4	3	2	1	35
Using both Arabic and English in the English class creates confusion.	5	4	3	2	1	36
When I do not understand a term in my English class, my classmates explain the meaning in Arabic.	5	4	3	2	1	37

Code Switching as a Grammar Teaching Strategy in Saudi Arabian EFL Classrooms

I like to mix between Arabic and English because I can make a connection between my current knowledge of Arabic and new knowledge in English.	5	4	3	2	1	38
I try to speak English in Class Because switching between two languages confuses me.	5	4	3	2	1	39
Code switching gives me the confidence that if I forget a word I can say the word in Arabic to continue participating in the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1	40
Code switching does NOT create a more responsive class environment.	5	4	3	2	1	41
I code switch when I want to put emphasis on a word or sentence.	5	4	3	2	1	42
Switching between Arabic and English helps me speak better than trying to speak in English only.	5	4	3	2	1	43
In a class or a group activity when I use Arabic and English I find it easier to cooperate with my classmates.	5	4	3	2	1	44
Teachers who code switch from English to Arabic can better explain grammatical rules.	5	4	3	2	1	45
When I do NOT use both languages (Arabic and English) through code switching, I cannot connect between current and future learning.	5	4	3	2	1	46
When I do not know a word in English, I express myself by using an Arabic word/expression with the same meaning.	5	4	3	2	1	47
I feel confident participating in English class discussion when I know I can speak both Arabic and English.	5	4	3	2	1	48
Code switching stops me from learning new English grammatical concepts because I only use Arabic to understand the meaning.	5	4	3	2	1	49
It is easier to understand English grammatical rules when they are explained in Arabic.	5	4	3	2	1	50
Code switching makes me find the classroom environment more comfortable.	5	4	3	2	1	51
I switch from one language to another when I want to put extra emphasis on a particular word or sentence.	5	4	3	2	1	52
During the English class group activities, if I am unable to understand a word my classmates use Arabic to explain it.	5	4	3	2	1	53
I believe code switching can help connecting what I already know and what I am learning.	5	4	3	2	1	54
When the teacher switches between Arabic and	5	4	3	2	1	55

English I understand the structures of English grammar easily.						
When I mix Arabic with English in class, I feel that my classmates do not cooperate as much as when we speak English only.	5	4	3	2	1	56
When I do not know a word in English, I do not use a replacement word in Arabic.	5	4	3	2	1	57
I find using both Arabic and English is a useful strategy to learn English.	5	4	3	2	1	58
I believe using both Arabic and English in my English class helps improve my results.	5	4	3	2	1	59
I code switch in my English Class Because I can create a link between what I already know in Arabic and what I am learning in English.	5	4	3	2	1	60

Code Switching as a Grammar Teaching Strategy in Saudi Arabian EFL Classrooms

Appendix E: Transcription

Class A Recording 1

- 1 T: Lets take a brief summary.
- 2 T: We talked about four types of sentences, what are they?
- 3 S: Simple, complex, compound and compound complex.
- 4 T: So simple, compound, complex and compound complex.
- 5 T: We talked about the simple sentence, what kind of clause is it?
- 6 S: Independent
- 7 T: It's one independent clause.
- 8 How can you determine if it's a clause or not? What do you have to the clause?
- 9 S: Subject and verb.
- 10 T: How would you know it's an independent clause?
- 11 S: The meaning is complete.
- 12 T: So it can stand alone, it doesn't start with a subordinator.
- 13 On the other hand, we have the dependant clause, it has what?
- 14 S: A subject and a verb.
- 15 T: What does it start with?
- 16 S: Subordinator.
- 17 T: Very good, so the meaning is what?
- 18 S: Incomplete.
- 19 T: Very good.
- 20 Now a simple sentence is one independent clause, how about a compound sentence?
- 21 S: Two independent clauses.
- 22 T: Only two?
- 23 S: We can have two or more.
- 24 T: Very good, how about a complex sentence?
- 25 S: One independent and one dependent.
- 26 T: Excellent, how about a compound complex?
- 27 S: It has two independent or more or one dependent clause or more.
- 28 T: Excellent, it has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause, it can have more too.
- 29 Let's have a look at your booklets, page 4, number 1, have that to be the sentence first and then tell me what type of sentence is it and then I want you to explain why you chose the sentence.
- 30 Yes please and your name is?
- 31 S: Maha, it's a complex sentence.
- 32 T: It's a complex sentence.
- 33 Excellent.
- 34 S: It has an independent and dependent, has subordinator.
- 35 T: First let's take it step by step.
- 36 It's a complex sentence, do you all agree?
- 37 S: Yes.
- 38 T: Why is it a complex sentence?
- 39 S: It has one independent clause and dependent.
- 40 T: Where is the independent clause here?
- 41 S: Paulina and Bruno.
- 42 T: So Paulina and Bruno have a big argument every summer.
- 43 Where's the verb?
- 44 S: The verb is have.

- 45 T: Where is the subject?
 46 S: Paulina and Bruno.
 47 T: It's a compound sentence, very good.
 48 We have a subject and a verb, the meaning is complete so it has an independent clause.
 49 The next part?
 50 S: Where is the subordinator verb and they is the subject, spent is the verb.
 51 T: Spent is the verb and it started with a subordinator so it's a dependent clause.
 52 So we have one independent, one dependent, its a complex sentence.
 53 Let's go to number 2, Paulina loves to go to the beach and spend her days sunbathing.
 54 What type of sentence is it? Look for the verbs, look for the subjects, look for clauses and then you determine what kind of clause is it then you'll know what type of sentence it is.
 55 S: Paulina is the subject, loves is a verb, spend is the verb.
 56 T: Do I have another subject?
 57 S: No, it's the same subject.
 58 T: What type of sentence is it?
 59 S: Simple.
 60 T: Why?
 61 S: Because the same subject in two clauses.
 62 T: We don't have two clauses here, we only have one clause.
 63 Look here Paulina loves to go to the beach and spend her days sunbathing.
 64 This is a compound verb here, she loves and spend, so we don't have another subject here.
 65 What if I said Paulina loves to go to the beach and she spends her days sunbathing then it would be a compound sentence, so here it's a simple sentence.
 66 Let's take number 3, Bruno on the other hand likes the view that he gets from the log cabin in the mountains and he enjoys hiking the forest.
 67 Come on ladies any volunteers? *Yalla ya banat ahtagikom tsharkon* (come on girls I need you to participate).
 68 S: Bruno is the subject, likes is a verb, the clause is independent.
 69 T: That he gets from the log cabin up in the mountains, is this a clause or not?
 70 S: It is a clause.
 71 T: Where is the subject? That he gets from the log cabin in the mountains, where's the subject here?
 72 S: He.
 73 T: Very good.
 74 Verb?
 75 S: Gets.
 76 T: Good, what did it start with?
 77 S: That.
 78 T: That is your subordinator.
 79 What type of clause is it?
 80 S: Dependent.
 81 T: Good, continue.
 82 S: Here is the subject, enjoy is the verb, compound complex.
 83 T: Before you determine the type of sentence lets talk about the type of clauses here.
 84 He enjoys hiking in the forest.
 85 He is the subject, where's the verb?
 86 S: Enjoys.
 87 T: What type of clause is it?
 88 S: Independent.
 89 T: So what do we have here?

- 90 S: Compound complex because 2 independent, 1 dependent.
- 91 T: Good job.
- 92 Let's take one example 4.
- 93 Bruno likes sitting on the beach, he always gets a nasty sunburn.
- 94 S: Bruno is the subject, likes is a verb, he is a subject and gets is a verb so it's a complex sentence.
- 95 T: Why is it a complex sentence?
- 96 S: Because it has two independent clauses.
- 97 T: It's a compound sentence because it has two independent clauses, has a subject and a verb in the first one, subject and verb in the second one, the meaning is complete in both.
- 98 It didn't start with a subordinator or anything.
- 99 They are joined by a semi colon which is another way to form compound sentences.
- 100 The rest I'd like you to do at home and if you have any questions about any of them you took an example of every type, if any of these are not clear will discuss them next time *insha'Allah* (in Gods will).
- 101 Now we're going to move on to noun clauses.
- 102 We talked about clauses so you all have an idea of what a clause is, what is a clause?
- 103 S: Has a subject and verb.
- 104 T: Good, a clause has a subject and a verb.
- 105 How many type of clauses did we talk about, what are they?
- 106 S: Two, dependent and independent.
- 107 T: What about an independent? It's a complete sentence, has a subject and verb, the meaning is complete, it can stand alone.
- 108 While a dependent clause starts with what?
- 109 S: A subordinator.
- 110 T: The meaning is not complete it cannot stand alone, it has also a subject and verb because it's a clause.
- 111 One of the dependent clause in this we're going to talk about noun clauses, adjective clauses and adverb clauses and they all are dependent clauses.
- 112 Let's have a look at noun clauses today.
- 113 It's a dependent clause, let's look at the definition here.
- 114 Who would like to read the definition for me please.
- 115 S: A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions as a noun in sentence.
- 116 It is used as a subject, an object of a verb, an object of a preposition or compliment.
- 117 Never separate a noun clause from the main clause with comments or other punctuation marks since noun clauses are part of main clauses.
- 118 T: So you do have a main clause and part of that main clause is your dependent clause and it can function as a subject, as an object and verb, object and preposition in the compliment.
- 119 Everybody will see that in detail while we move on.
- 120 Noun clauses come at the beginning of a sentence or after certain nouns, adjectives and verbs such as if you see any of these nouns, adjectives or verbs usually do have a noun clause after them or these are the verbs that usually start with them.
- 121 We'll see some more examples on that like add, show, think of, mention, say, demonstrate then you have a noun clause after that.
- 122 For example she asked if she can go to school, if she can go to school is the noun clause, this is the main clause for the verbs that come before them.
- 123 There are 4 types of noun clauses.
- 124 We're going to talk about each one in detail.

- 125 Generally we have that clauses, subjunctive clauses, if and whether and embedded question which is who, were, when.
- 126 Let's start with number 1, that clause.
- 127 This is also just a summary, we still have 5 classes of noun clauses so we'll talk about that.
- 128 That clause, it begins with that and this is an example, she thought that the exam was cancelled.
- 129 Let's have a look at the sentence first.
- 130 Let's look at clauses and see what kind they are and then we'll talk about the type of nouns.
- 131 She thought that the exam was cancelled.
- 132 How many clauses do you have here?
- 133 S: Two.
- 134 T: How did you decide that, what did you look for?
- 135 S: Subject and verb.
- 136 T: Where is the subject here?
- 137 S: She.
- 138 T: Where is the verb?
- 139 S: Thought.
- 140 T: She thought, we have a subject and a verb.
- 141 Is the meaning complete?
- 142 S: Yes.
- 143 T: What kind of clause is this?
- 144 S: Independent.
- 145 T: That the exam was cancelled, where is the subject?
- 146 S: Exam.
- 147 T: Where is the verb?
- 148 S: Was.
- 149 T: Good.
- 150 What did it start with?
- 151 S: That.
- 152 T: What is that?
- 153 S: Subordinator.
- 154 T: That is a subordinator.
- 155 I have a subject and a verb.
- 156 The meaning is incomplete because of that.
- 157 Remember we talked about that last time.
- 158 If I had the sentence without that, *Mathln* (for example) the exam was cancelled then what kind of clause would it be?
- 159 S: Independent clause.
- 160 T: Independent but here because it has that the exam was cancelled it became dependent.
- 161 So this dependent clause is a noun clause, its starts with that, usually noun clauses do, why? This is one type of noun clause.
- 162 Two we have the subjunctive clause it begins with that too, however, the verb of the noun clause is in a subjunctive mood and we're also going to talk about the subjunctive in detail.
- 163 When the verb is in subjunctive mood I want you to figure out where is the verb here that is in subjunctive mood.
- 164 It is urgent that Ali submit the report today.
- 165 Where is the verb here?
- 166 S: Submit.
- 167 T: What is wrong with submit?
- 168 S: Without this.
- 169 T: Good.

- 170 It came after Ali and doesn't have the third person singular s like Ali reads, Ali prays.
- 171 It should say Ali submits.
- 172 Here why don't I have the s? because of the word urgent.
- 173 It has to be in the subjunctive mood because we do have the verb of urgency and we'll talk about that verbs and adjectives of urgency if you have it in a sentence, the verb and noun clause has to be in the subjunctive form of the verb, subjunctive mood which is the base form without s and it shouldn't be in past tense, it should be in the present tense.
- 174 Without s you should not add anything to it.
- 175 We're going to talk about that in detail, I'll give you a list of some adjectives and verbs of urgency.
- 176 When you see them in a sentence you have to change the verb or leave it in a subjunctive mood.
- 177 It is urgent, this is the main clause, that Ali submit the report today is your dependent clause which here is your noun clause.
- 178 Any questions so far?
- 179 S: What's the difference between the infinitive and subjunctive?
- 180 T: The infinitive has to go before that, so to go, you have to but with the subjunctive mood you don't have to.
- 181 We're going to see later on when you reduce noun clauses you are going to change that subjunctive instead of saying its important that Ali submit, you'll say its important for Ali to submit.
- 182 You can have that when we talk about reduction but then it wont be a noun clause, you wont have that, it will be infinitive.
- 183 We're going to see later on how to reduce a noun clause to an infinitive.
- 184 Now the third type is if and whether, it begins with if and whether.
- 185 The teacher wants to know if the students understand the formula again the teacher wants to know, what it is? what kind of clause is it?
- 186 S: It's an independent clause.
- 187 T: Where is the subject?
- 188 S: Teacher.
- 189 T: Verb?
- 190 S: Wants.
- 191 T: Is the meaning complete?
- 192 S: Yes.
- 193 T: It does not serve as a subordinator or anything; it's an independent clause.
- 194 Now if the students understood the formula, where is the subject?
- 195 S: Students.
- 196 T: Where is the verb?
- 197 S: Understood.
- 198 T: Is the meaning complete?
- 199 S: No.
- 200 T: Why?
- 201 S: Because it starts with a subordinator if.
- 202 T: Very good, because it started with a subordinator if.
- 203 Again if we didn't have if, we had, the students understood the formula, it would be an independent clause because you have if the meaning isn't complete you want to know what about that.
- 204 If the students understand the formula there's something else, you want a main clause for this sentence to be complete.
- 205 Number 4 are question clauses or embedded questions.
- 206 It begins with the question words like where, what, who, when.
- 207 For example, I don't know who she is.

- 208 If you're going to ask a question let's take who she is, are you going to say who she is?
- 209 S: No.
- 210 T: What would you say?
- 211 S: Who is she.
- 212 T: Who is she, this is a question.
- 213 When you have it as a noun clause you going to have to change the order of the subject and verb and you would say, who is she? This would be an embedded question.
- 214 I don't know who she is, I want to know who she is.
- 215 Let's have a look at how a noun clause in a sentence, remember when we took the examples of a complex sentences where we had noun clauses and were embedded sometimes we started them at the beginning and sometimes we left them at the end, so we're going to have a quick look at noun clauses and how they're in a sentence.
- 216 Sometimes they're a subject, object and a verb or object and preposition.
- 217 Have a look here, "That Ahmed can fly is unbelievable" and you have,"the story is unbelievable".
- 218 Let's take each one, the story is unbelievable, where is the subject?
- 219 S: Story.
- 220 T: Where Is the verb?
- 221 S: Is.
- 222 T: What kind of clause is it?
- 223 S: Independent.
- 224 T: What type of sentence is it?
- 225 S: Simple.
- 226 T: It's a simple sentence.
- 227 Have a look at the story, the story is the subject.
- 228 Now look at this example.
- 229 That Ahmed can fly is unbelievable.
- 230 Now the whole noun clause here served as the subject exactly like how the story served as a subject.
- 231 That Ahmed can fly is the subject, is, is the verb.
- 232 That Ahmed can fly is a noun clause and why is that?
- 233 S: It starts with a subordinator that.
- 234 T: Yes, what else?
- 235 S: It has a subject.
- 236 T: Okay it has a subject Ahmed and where is the verb?
- 237 S: Fly.
- 238 T: Good.
- 239 That Ahmed can fly and the whole plane is a subject.
- 240 Let's look at the object of the verb.
- 241 They believed the story.
- 242 They is your subject, where is the verb?
- 243 S: Believed.
- 244 T: Where is the object?
- 245 S: The story.
- 246 T: What did they believe.
- 247 They believed the object.
- 248 Let's go to the subject, what is the subject in Arabic? *Fa'l* (subject) what is the *fl* (verb) how about the object? *Mf'wl bihi* (object) good.
- 249 S: That.
- 250 T: How about the object?
- 251 S: In front of believe.
- 252 T: Now they believed the story.

- 253 Here the same thing instead of the story I want a noun clause so "People once believed that the earth was flat".
- 254 That the earth was flat is your noun clause.
- 255 Where is the subject?
- 256 S: World.
- 257 T: Where is the verb?
- 258 S: Was.
- 259 T: Was, started is a subordinator of that.
- 260 This is a noun clause and it served as a noun clause.
- 261 I won't ask you in an exam if you were to determine if it's a subject or noun but this is very important for you.
- 262 Now objects of a preposition, again here I listened to the story.
- 263 Objects of a preposition, what does it have to have before?
- 264 S: Preposition.
- 265 T: Preposition like to, for, any of those.
- 266 I listened to what he said.
- 267 This is your noun clause, it served as an object of a preposition because you had a preposition before that.
- 268 *tayb* (ok) A compliment, a major concern is how fast these changes are happening, a major concern is the fast changes.
- 269 Now let's look at this, a major concern is the fast changes, where is the subject?
- 270 S: Major concern.
- 271 T: Where is the verb?
- 272 S: Said.
- 273 T: And the fast changes is your complement.
- 274 The same thing here you can replace out in the noun clause by saying, a major concern is how fast these changes are happening, how is the question so this is an embedded question.
- 275 We have a subject and we have a verb.
- 276 The major concern is what is what is your major concern is the fast changes, this is what you're concerned about and here its the same thing.
- 277 Instead of saying that the major concern is how fast these changes are, this is the noun clause, how is the noun clause.
- 278 You should tell me because you already took that in grammar two or one, let me go back.
- 279 Tell me what is the difference between an object and a complement.
- 280 Have a look at this sentence, a major concern is the fast changes and we'll go back to the first one which is the object.
- 281 They believed the story.
- 282 What is the difference between the story and the fast changes?
- 283 S: They, came in the beginning.
- 284 T: What do you mean, they came in the beginning.
- 285 They, we have a subject, believe is a verb, story, what did they believe? They believed the story, so its an object.
- 286 Look at this sentence.
- 287 A major concern is the fast changes.
- 288 S: [inaudible] sentence.
- 289 T: This is really important and I'm going to go over quickly because we're not concerned with it but its very important for you.
- 290 I want you to tell me next and think about exactly these two examples and what is the difference between them and we're going to talk about them next class because I want you to go back at your books and look at yourself and I don't want you to forget the complementary.
- 291 I'm sure when you see it and revise, oh I already know.

- 292 Let's go and continue please with one which is clauses with that and we're going to talk especially about reported speech.
- 293 We said the noun clause is independent clause and starts with a subordinator.
- 294 It can be either an embedded question or that or if and whether or it can be that in the subjunctive mood.
- 295 Now we're going to see the first type of a noun clause which is starts with that and we're going to be concerned with reported speech.
- 296 What is reported speech?
- 297 S: When you're saying someone said something.
- 298 T: When you're saying the sentence that someone said something, interpretation this is what they said, reporting what that person said so you are saying it indirectly so this part...
- 299 S: For example "the class was happy that the teacher cancelled the exam".
- 300 T: All right so here we're just talking about how they can sometimes come after an adjective like happy, even that or sometimes after a verb like hopes or something.
- 301 Also it can appear after some nouns as well.
- 302 Examples, who would like to read the examples here? Yes please.
- 303 S: Idea, theory, opinion, claim people didn't believe the theory that the earth revolves around the sun.
- 304 T: Very good, so again here that the earth revolves around the sun is your noun clause, starts with 'that' and also can appear after nouns.
- 305 And also can start a sentence so it can appear at the beginning of sentence like, That Huda came late was predictable.
- 306 You started with the noun clause and then they came.
- 307 Here are some more examples, "I think that she is a good writer", "That Ahmed cheating in the exam was surprising".
- 308 "Nawal needs a job is obvious", it is obvious that Nawal needs a job.
- 309 Again all of these are noun clauses that start with 'That' and the whole noun clause can come after a noun, verb or adjective.
- 310 Now quotations vs.
- 311 reported speech, this is where we're concerned of.
- 312 Quotations, you know what quotations are, right? Who would like to read what's here for me please.
- 313 S: Quotations are the exact words that a person has used to state something that appears between quotation marks and addition quotations are preceded or followed by a comma.
- 314 We begin quotations with verbs such as say, tell, ask, wonder, etc.
- 315 T: So Susan said and then you have what is between quotations is what she said.
- 316 We're going to see later on how we report that.
- 317 Now quoting more than sentences just talking here about punctuations.
- 318 "My brother is a student, he said he's at KSU," before you end a quotation you should have a comma here, and not a full stop, and after she said you will have the full stop.
- 319 Again here this is the same thing.
- 320 Now quoting a question or an exclamation.
- 321 She asked when will you be here? If you have a question mark also you have that before you close your quotation, before you the quotation marks and then after she said or after she asked.
- 322 Also the same thing with the explanation marks also you have them before the quotation.
- 323 Reported speech, it involves paraphrasing.
- 324 What does paraphrasing means?
- 325 S: Repeating and arguing in a different...
- 326 T: All right, what did you say?

- 327 S: Say in other words
- 328 T: So when you're repeating in other words or you're summarizing in other words, this is what paraphrasing means.
- 329 So reported speech involves paraphrasing.
- 330 You tell the same ideas but with different words.
- 331 So there's no need for commas or quotation marks.
- 332 Also some changes are required in reported speech and this is what we're concerned with because you will be tested on having a quotation and then how to report.
- 333 Have a look at the example: Susan said that Chris was at work.
- 334 You can have that and also you can delete that, I'm going to talk about that in detail later.
- 335 So Susan said that Chris was at work, That Chris was at work what is this?
- 336 S: Noun clause.
- 337 T: It's a noun clause, right.
- 338 It is a reported speech but this part is your noun clause starting with that.
- 339 When you are reporting a quotation you have to do some changes in the sentence and especially with the verbs that you are using.
- 340 Now if the verb in the main or independent clause is in the past the verb and noun clause which is a dependent clause which is your noun clause is changed to one of the past tenses.
- 341 Now its very important here to mention that if the verb in the main clause like for example if when I'm reporting what someone else said if I start with she says then I don't have to make any changes but when I say she said, she asked so the verb in the main clause- this is what I mean by the verb in the main clause, she asked, she said, she reported, if its in the past tense I also have to change the verb in the dependent clause or noun clause to one of the past tenses and why do I say one of the past tenses, because it depends on the verb and the quotation.
- 342 This is what determines which type of past tense I will use.
- 343 We're going to see some examples.
- 344 Now reported speech is, "I watch TV everyday".
- 345 I don't, do you?
- 346 S: Yes.
- 347 T: So I watch TV everyday.
- 348 Reported speech of this, she said she watched TV everyday.
- 349 What are the changes that I made?
- 350 S: The past tense of watch.
- 351 T: Very good, watch I changed it to past.
- 352 Why I didn't say she was watching.
- 353 This is in past too but its different than the verb that is used in the quotation.
- 354 Here I used simple present so when I report it I changed to simple past.
- 355 If it was present continuous I would change it to past continuous.
- 356 We're going to see in the next.
- 357 S: Teacher why didn't you say she is watching TV everyday.
- 358 T: Because you can't change the quote itself.
- 359 Now the quote itself you have to look at the verb in your quotation.
- 360 If its simple present you change it to simple past, if its present continuous you change it to the past continuous so the reported speech has to be equivalent to the spoken one just like.
- 361 And we're going to see that here.
- 362 Have a look at this one, so to answer your question.
- 363 "I am watching TV," when I report that Sarah said she was watching TV.
- 364 Now I'm watching what tense is this?
- 365 S: Present continuous.
- 366 T: Or present progressive.

- 367 When you report it you change it to the past continuous or the past progressive so it has to be the same.
- 368 Now have a look here, “Chris is at work”.
- 369 What kind of verb is this? That is what kind of verb?
- 370 S: Verb to be.
- 371 T: *wesh nisami IS?* (what do we call IS?) Verb to be, right.
- 372 What are verb to be? Am, is and are.
- 373 What is the past tense of is?
- 374 S: Was and were
- 375 T: Good.
- 376 So Chris is at work.
- 377 She mentioned that “Chris was at work”.
- 378 I don’t say that Chris was working.
- 379 You don’t change that, don’t change the sentence, you to have it as it is.
- 380 *Tayb* (ok) I haven't finished yet.
- 381 When I report it what do I change? What tense is this first, haven't finished.
- 382 Have is present so I haven't finished yet, have finished, have played, all of that.
- 383 When you have ‘have’ here this is a present perfect.
- 384 When you report it you change it to past perfect.
- 385 So she hadn't finished.
- 386 Have a look at these examples and the first example we have is simple present.
- 387 When you report it you change it to simple past.
- 388 Present continuous - past continuous, verb to be you'll change it to past tense and here haven't finished you change it to the past perfect, present perfect to past perfect.
- 389 S: We said before we don’t use have *ila* (only if) there is two actions happening.
- 390 T: Yeah this is we're going to talk about it later with the adverb clauses.
- 391 Then we have two actions happening at the same time, both of them are in the past.
- 392 One of them we want to show that this action has completed before the other action happened in the past.
- 393 Here you're going to use also past perfect but also she hadn't finished if in reported speech, if you have the present you have to change to the past.
- 394 Now the idea of the present perfect it just emphasizes that the action had completed at a certain time, that the action is complete or it finished especially with the past perfect.
- 395 When you have two actions happening both of them in the past, the first action that was completed first you'll have it in the past perfect but here with the reported speech you're going to have to do this.
- 396 All right let’s move on.
- 397 Now again “I have watched TV,” he said that he had watched TV.
- 398 “I went home”, she told me that she had gone home.
- 399 Now why is that I want you to tell me, and I am going to exercise, other remark that he was going to exercise.
- 400 Now I'm going, I was going is clear.
- 401 What we have here what tense is this, I am going.
- 402 S: Present continuous.
- 403 T: Present continuous, we change it to past continuous I'm going to come back to this one.
- 404 I have watched TV, I had watched.
- 405 Look at this, I went home, what tense is this?
- 406 S: Past tense.
- 407 T: Its already in the past so what should I do when I report it?
- 408 S: Change to past perfect.
- 409 T: Very good we change it to past perfect.

- 410 So if it was present we change it to past, simple present- simple past, present continuous- past continuous, present perfect- past perfect.
- 411 But if it was in the simple past we change it to past perfect.
- 412 Now there are some exceptions when we're dealing with.
- 413 S: We can also get that the past simple present?
- 414 T: Yes I've had.
- 415 In your book they do say that we have to change it but also I know when you read the book in grammar 2 you did have both ways, so you can either keep it into simple past or you can change it to past perfect.
- 416 We will stick with what we have here your book and I will accept both answers.
- 417 If you still keep it in simple past I will accept because its not wrong but in your book they say if its a simple past you have to change it to past perfect but I won't consider that as wrong.
- 418 Okay in reporting technical or scientific facts the present is generally used.
- 419 If you're talking about facts it might start with a sentence like the world is round, this is a fact unless they decide it isn't, these things are changing like Pluto was a planet.
- 420 Is it a planet now?
- 421 S: No.
- 422 T: So even facts do change but if it is a scientific fact that everybody knows you don't have to change that to past tense.
- 423 So the teacher said the world is round.
- 424 You don't have to say that the teacher said the world was round because we're still talking about now.
- 425 How about if it was the world is flat.
- 426 People are used to say the world was flat then you can guarantee its not a fact anymore.
- 427 Now other exceptions if the verb in the main clause is in the present or future then the noun clauses do not change.
- 428 This is what we mentioned before.
- 429 If I have she says or she has said or she will say, either the present or the future then I don't change the verb in a dependant clause.
- 430 So only if I have the verb in the main clause in the past like she said, she asked, she reported, she added then I do make the changes.
- 431 If I don't then I leave it as it is.
- 432 So she says she watches TV, she has said that she watches TV and she will say that she watches TV.
- 433 So if the verb in the main clause is in simple present or in the future, if its in the present whether its simple or present perfect, if its in the present or the future then you keep the verb in the dependent clause as it is.
- 434 Understood, any questions, am I going too fast for you?
- 435 S: No
- 436 T: Okay *Alhamdellah* (thanks to God)
- 437 T: Would help Chris.
- 438 So if you have can, may and will you going to change them to could, might and would and you're going to keep the verb as it is.
- 439 Changes in modal auxiliaries in reported speech we have here must.
- 440 Now with must you have to think about the meaning here.
- 441 Now when must expresses necessity you change it to the past.
- 442 However, when it expresses probability it does not change, what does this mean? Let's have a look at this example so it will be clear, Ann must help Chris and they have Susan must retire.
- 443 Now the meaning of must is different here in these two, right.
- 444 Now look at the first sentence Ann must help Chris.
- 445 What does that imply to you?

- 446 S: She should do it.
- 447 T: She should it, its something that's necessary and something that she has to do.
- 448 Here you do change it to the past tense so it will be, she said that Ann had to help Chris but have a look at the second sentence.
- 449 Susan must be tired.
- 450 What does must mean here?
- 451 S: May be.
- 452 T: She's may be tired so it expresses probability, she's probably tired.
- 453 If that is the meaning then you leave it as it is.
- 454 Joe said that Susan must be tired.
- 455 You don't say that Susan had to tired.
- 456 If you must if it expresses probability you will leave it as it is.
- 457 If it expresses necessity then you change it to have to.
- 458 One more thing if its already in the past like could then you don't do any changes.
- 459 Could is could, would is would, should is should, ought to, could have helped also again could have helped you don't change it.
- 460 So if it was can you change it to could but if its already could then you don't do anything.
- 461 We'll stop over there, any questions? Please do the homework I assigned you.
- 462 Have a look at them we're going to talk about them next time.

Class A Recording 2

- 1 T: Reductions, I think most of video use structure but may be we are not just familiar with the terms so..
- 2 T: Ok let's just have a quick review of we discuss last time, we were talking about noun clauses and said noun clause is what type of clause you know,
- 3 S: Dependent clause
- 4 T: Yeah, it's a dependent clause, very good and more interesting redundant clause
- 5 S: Has such a . .
- 6 T: Alright I'm going to talk about this right now excellent, it has a subject and a verb which makes it a cause, it is an ideally because starting subordinator, so what the start to the cause and yeah makes the sense, makes the meaning incomplete,
- 7 right ok,
- 8 So we talked about noun clause as we said that we have four types of noun clause.
- 9 What was the first type remember?
- 10 S: Reported speech
- 11 T: Ok that's an reported speech right we talked about non clauses starting with the subordinator 'that' and we talked about reported speech and then changed it ok, its when than noun clausestarts with a question word, right like WHAT, WHEN, and WHERE all of that so good, so these are embedded questions you do have the question and why did we talk about the about embedded questions
- 12 They change and the word order is different than a regular question
- 13 S: and then switch it?
- 14 T: the verb and the
- 15 S: subject
- 16 T: Ok the subject and the verb like when you ask "Where is she?" but when you have it in a sentence
- 17 S: 'I don't know, where she is'
- 18 T: Excellent, 'I don't know where she is', you start with the subject and then the verb.
- 19 Well we have as a question we have it the other way around, alright so we also talk the part about noun close that starts with what, remember to add that in reported speech if that under the question that if you have "if" and..?
- 20 S: Whether
- 21 T: Whether, very good 'if and whether' and the last type we talked about last time was what?
- 22 S: Statement
- 23 T: Statements of urgency, remember, if you have a statement of urgency, so if we have an adjective or a verb of urgency, the verb will be in what mode?
- 24 S: As a subject
- 25 T: Very good, that they start verb which is subjective mode verb very good.
- 26 So this is generally what we talked about.
- 27 These are the, now we all know the noun clause start with a subordinator has a subject has a verb and its function as a noun in the sentence and now we are going to see how to reduce that, so we are not going to look at clauses here, we are going to look at reducing the noun clause to an infinitive.
- 28 Ok, now if you have an infinitive clause of coarse it wouldn't be a noun clause it will be infinitive and this is what we are going to see now but before we start with the reductions we just start over this part very quickly.
- 29 Clauses as subjects of sentences we are just going to see how noun clause can be a subject in the sentence.

- 30 Now a noun clause may be used as a subject in the sentence it must be getting the connecting word that, what.
- 31 Whether, and if and take a single adverb like e.g. ‘that he is a troublemaker’ is certain ok.
- 32 Now that he is troublemaker is your noun clause right? Where is the subject? Where is the subject?
- 33 S: he
- 34 T: Alright, where is the verb?
- 35 S: is
- 36 T: and whom it start with?
- 37 S: That 4;43
- 38 T: That alright, and it is a noun clause and here they just going to show you how it can function is a subject of the whole sentence because after we have got were to be is certain and the same thing here,
- 39 What he’s known for is his mistakes so again this is just to show you, you wouldn’t be tested on this,
- 40 This is for your information.
- 41 I think you already know this.
- 42 Whether they need the cars seems uncertain, where we are working concerns because I have no car.
- 43 Again, all these noun clauses start sentence different they are, they function as a subject in sentences so what they do makes them popular, so we can we did discuss this before I remember we change this whole thing with just one noun.
- 44 So this just shows you how a noun clause can begin a sentence and can be its subject of the sentence.
- 45 Ok.
- 46 Now the anticipatory IT now what they mean with this is, we have a look at this sentence here; “that Salwa missed the exam is strange” ok where is your noun clause here?
- 47 S: That’s Salwa missed the exam.
- 48 T: That’s Salwa missed the exam.
- 49 Right, Salwa as your subject this is your verb and started with that is subordinate ok.
- 50 Is this strange you have again this whole the whole noun clause is the subject and IS is your verb and already have changed here, if you want to change the sentence and have that’s the Salwa missed the exam at the end ok, you can use IT.
- 51 So “It is strange that Salwa missed the exam”.
- 52 So you started with IT here is what? It is your subject IS is the verb and then here that is the subordinate Salwa is subject and missed is the verb right, so we can have at this way or you can have that way.
- 53 And this is just shows you how if you want to start with if you want to start with noun clause at the beginning of the sentence and this will be your subject.
- 54 If you want to keep the noun clause at the end then you just have to add the anticipatory which is at the starts of the beginning you know just so you can have noun clause at the end.
- 55 Any question about this part? No? Looking to this verb.
- 56 Alright.
- 57 So one, here you have some more examples is just the same things its very similar to we have discussed before.
- 58 Alright now let’s go to this last part of the noun clause just reduction of the noun clause is due infinitive phrases, now you know what is infinitive phase is right? What this is start with?
- 59 S: To
- 60 T: Very good, and why do we call a phrase and not a clause?

- 61 S: Toward, to and word....
- 62 T: Alright why isn't it a clause.
- 63 S: Because doesn't have a subject
- 64 T: Doesn't have a subject and the verb very good.
- 65 So this is very important it's not considered as a clause it's considered as a phrase.
- 66 So infinitives are phrases ok, now commands can be reduced to infinitive phrases and reported speech.
- 67 The verb say doesn't take a noun or pronoun as its object before the noun clause or the infinitive phrase.
- 68 However, the verb tells must take a noun or pronoun as its object before the noun clause or the infinitive phrase.
- 69 And some verbs such as advice, urge, command fill the same patches and the verb tell what this mean? Now give me a sentence with say.
- 70 S: What?
- 71 T: Give me a sentence with the word say or said
- 72 S: Any sentence?
- 73 T: You can see that word, no I want reported speech, I want something that...
- 74 S: "She said, that she is going to the mall."
- 75 T: Ok, "She said that she is going to the mall", alright, she said she is
- 76 S: she was.
- 77 T: Alright why?
- 78 S: said.
- 79 T: Alright, the verb in the main clause is in the past tense remember, when you have the verb in the main clause past tense then verb and the dependent clause has to be in the past.
- 80 So she said she was
- 81 S: Going to the mall
- 82 T: Going to mall, alright, I want another sentence with tell which you told.
- 83 S: She told the truth
- 84 T: Alright, she told
- 85 S: She wasn't in a
- 86 T: Ok so what is the difference between these two sentences?
- 87 S: After tells there is subject
- 88 T: Very good, excellent thank you so much, so "She said that she was going to the mall, she told me that she was going to the mall".
- 89 So you have to have something after the word TELL.
- 90 So and the same thing here with advice, urge, and command he advised me he advised her you have to have someone, you can't say "she told she was go to the mall" you have to have something after that, this is what it means.
- 91 Let's have a look at sentences, now these are some examples of the commands reported speech and infinitive phrase, now the command is "stop it" right, remember you said that this is interrogative when you do we report that.
- 92 Ok "stop it, she said that we should stop it" remember when you talked about reporting commands we add should to it, right, so "she said that we should stop it" now where is your noun clause?
- 93 S: That we should stop it,
- 94 T: That we should stop it, where is your subject?
- 95 S: we
- 96 T: we, where is the verb?
- 97 S: Should, stop
- 98 T: Should the verb?
- 99 S: No
- 100 T: Ok, and what did the noun clause start with?
- 101 S: That

- 102 T: That, which is a subordinator, if you want to reduce that if you want to make that shorter, it wouldn't be come a clause anymore, it will be an infinitive, so I say "she said to stop it" so I reduced the whole noun clause to an infinitive phrase, so I deleted 'that' and we and 'should' and everything it just started, ok this is how you reduce this is reduction.
- 103 Let's have a look another example "finish the work" "she told us, that we should finish the work" again where is your subject?
- 104 S: We
- 105 T: we, where is the verb?
- 106 S: Finish
- 107 T: Finish, and what does it start with?
- 108 S: That,
- 109 T: That, what kind of clause is this?
- 110 S: Noun clause.
- 111 T: it's a noun clause, so a noun clause is what kind of clause?
- 112 S: Dependent
- 113 T: A dependent clause very good.
- 114 So this is a dependent clause and this is a noun clause, I want to reduce this noun clause to infinitive phrase, what do I say, "She told us to finish the work" so instead of saying that we should finish it will just be to finish ok, same thing goes here, "Do a good job, she told us that we should do a good job" "she told us to do a good job" now there is something very important here if you do have a command and ask you to report this using a noun clause you don't report it using infinitive phrase if you do this ok it's the grammatically correct but it is an infinity phrase.
- 115 You have to pay attention in the exam for what I ask for, alright.
- 116 So read the question properly if I want a clause then you have to mention a clause, you don't just change it in reported you just have to make sure that's a clause or that it's an infinitive phrase ok.
- 117 Now yes or no questions are sometimes use as requests of actions, now here also we are going to see when we reduce their reductions can be a request for actions and there are requests for we have also another type we are going to see that in a minute.
- 118 T: So yes or no questions are sometimes used as requests for actions and what's this mean?
- 119 Sometime it's an action sometimes it's a permission, now here it's an action why? "Could you help me?"
- 120 Now the speaker wants you to help him/her right, ok so there is request for action, they want you to make an action, the structure is different than when you ask for permission, you just want the other person to give you permission for something. You are going to see that in minute,
- 121 So if they are turned into noun clauses they can be reduced to infinitive phrases, the objects must be used with the infinitive phrase, like "she asked me if I could help her" "she asked me to help her".
- 122 Ok, so go back to the question "could you help me? Fine if I want to report that I will say, "She asked me if I could help her" where is the noun clause here?
- 123 S: If, I
- 124 T: "If I could help here" started with IF this is the thing in the third type where you are talking about, I is your subject, where is the verb?
- 125 S: Help
- 126 T: Help ok, so "She asked me, if I could help her" when I reduce that "She asked me to help her" ok you have to have ME here.
- 127 Look at the other type which is a request reaction you're going to see how a request for permission how is different, ok now, "could you help me" she asked me if I could help her "she asked me to help her",

- 128 again, “Could you lend me 5 dollars” she asked me if I lend her 5 dollars “She asked me to lend her 5 dollars”. Ok, I think it is clear? Any questions so far? Ok I’m going to come back to this.
- 129 Now have a look at this reductions of request, requests for permission, now yes or no questions are sometimes used as request for permission like, “Could I take your pen?” Obviously if you ask someone could I take your pen, or could I barrow your book? Are you asking that person to do something to you?
- 130 S: No
- 131 T: You aren’t, you are just asking for the permission, you want to take that book, you want to take that pen and so on.
- 132 So could I take your pen, when you reporting that “she asked me if she could take my pen” right, now look when you reduce it “she asked to take my pen” what is the difference?
- 133 S: Me
- 134 T: you don’t have to say me, she asked me to take my pen, because if you say she asked me to take my pen that means I am the one who’s going to go and take the pen, see how one word can change the meaning? Ok, have a look at this example “She asked to take my pen” or, “She asked me to take the pen”? Who’s going to take your pen in the first one?
- 135 S: Her
- 136 T: Ok so if she asked to take my pen she is only asking for permission, she is going to take it, but she asked me to take the pen that means she asked me to go and take the pen for her.
- 137 See how it is different, is it clear? Now we are going to compare these two and going to see how they are different, now have a look at this example first, “Can I leave early?” Sarah asked me if she could leave early, she asked to leave early.
- 138 Because if I say, “She asked me to leave early” I am the one who’s going to leave early right, but if you say she asked to leave early so she asked for permission to leave.
- 139 See how the meaning is different?
- 140 S: Yes
- 141 T: Ok, now, “Could I turn ON the light?” “She asked me if she could turn ON the light, she asked to turn on the light.
- 142 Alright, ok, any questions? Alright just compare these two, “She asked to take the pen, can I take the pen?” And “She asked me to take the pen, would you take the pen?” Now this is the permission.
- 143 And this is the action, have a look at these two think about them so before we move on.
- 144 Ok, so do you know this difference between these two?
- 145 S: Yes
- 146 T: Ok let’s move on, now we going to see reduction of embedded question but first before we before we move on to this part, so if you have a request for action or request for permission you have to think about these two, if it is a permission then you don’t have to have ME if someone is asking you for an action or asking her you have to have an object ME, her or him.
- 147 Ok now we are going to do a lot of exercises on all of the reductions especially in the booklet, they are very helpful.
- 148 Ok reduction of embedded questions, now embedded yes or no questions with auxiliaries can be reduced to infinitive phrases as well, “Should I come early”, “Jay asks if he should come early”.
- 149 Ok now how am I going to reduce that? First of all where is the noun clause here?
- 150 S: if he should come.
- 151 T: Good, “if he should come early”, right, where is the subject?
- 152 S: he

- 153 T: where is the verb?
- 154 S: come
- 155 T: ok, what are they starting with?
- 156 S: if
- 157 T: if, and what is if?
- 158 S: subordinator
- 159 T: Is a subordinator, so this is my noun clause, when I want to reduce it how can I reduce this on? “She asked whether to come early” now have a look at here, in reducing this yes no questions whether or not is always used with infinitive phrases, the speaker and the subject of the question must be the same.
- 160 Now what does this mean? The speaker and the subject of the question must be the same.
- 161 What does this mean, from the example, have a look at this example,
- 162 S: He should come earlier or not
- 163 T: Ok, so we said that the speaker and the subject have to be the same person.
- 164 S: I and umm asked me to
- 165 T: No have a look at this sentence, Jay asked, “if he should come early”
- 166 S: should say Jay?
- 167 T: So should Jay has to be the same person as he, ok so I can be able to reduce it.
- 168 And let’s just try something else, what if it was a different person, so “Jay ask if Sarah should come early” when I reduce it, can I say “Jay asked whether....
- 169 S: Sarah
- 170 T: “to come early” where is Sarah, so I can’t do it this way, so you can say “Jay asked whether Sarah should come early” you can reduce it, because there will be two different people, if there was the same person then you can reduce it using whether and infinitive.
- 171 Is it clear? So “Jay asked, if he should come early”, “Jay asked whether to come early” So if you have should sorry if you have if and then, when you reduce it to change it whether before the infinity, ok.
- 172 S: Does just have to be whether?
- 173 T: Well it usually is this.
- 174 Especially if you have a IF here.
- 175 Ok now compare these sentences, look at the first one, “Should I submit the paper on Tuesday” and “Should Sarah submit the paper on Tuesday” ok “Ali asked if he should submit the paper on Tuesday” “Ali asked if Sarah should submit the paper on Tuesday” and here “Ali asked whether to submit the paper on Tuesday” the second one cannot be changed into infinitive.
- 176 Now look at the first sentence, the first sentence here “Should I submit the paper on Tuesday?” Ok, who is this speaking here, if we are going to change it to... First of all we are going to report that right, so always when you are changing the question into infinitive phrase you going change it to a noun clause and then you are going to reduce it to infinitive phrase.
- 177 Now if I change this to noun clause, and then reduce it to an infinitive phrase.
- 178 I am reporting it right, so, “Ali asked, if he should submit the paper on Tuesday” now where is your noun clause?
- 179 S: “if he should submit”
- 180 T: Good, “if he should submit the papers on Tuesday”, IF is your subordinator HE is your subject and submit is your verb ok.
- 181 Now “Ali asked” because this is your main clause, now Ali and he is the same person right, so I can reduce it, how can I reduce it? “Ali asked whether to submit the paper on Tuesday” is that clear? Now let’s look at the second example “Should Sarah submit the paper on Tuesday” “Ali asked, if Sarah should submit the paper on Tuesday” now Ali and Sarah are they same person? Of course not, so can I reduce it that to infinitive?

- 182 S: no
 183 T: I can't.
 184 Ok so if they are the same person you can reduce it to infinitive phrase, if they aren't you can't.
 185 Now, the second one can be change into the infinitive phrase because the subject to the main clause is different from the subject of the noun clause is it understood? Any questions?
 186 S: No
 187 T: Now reduction of embedded questions, embedded double ways questions can be reduced into infinitive phrases as well.
 188 Now we saw reducing yes or no questions with if and whether now going have a look and how we reduce embedded questions.
 189 "Which page should I read?" "Jay asked which pages he should read" ok.
 190 Now in reducing the WH questions and form the question words or WH words such as WHERE, WHEN AND WHAT are always used with infinitive phrases.
 191 The speaker and the subject of the question must be the same.
 192 Again likely if and whether the subject and the speaker have to be same, so "Jay asked, which pages to read" so you do leave here the question word which is WHICH ok, there are going to be some more examples.
 193 Now "When am I going to Egypt" "Ali asked when he is going to Egypt" how am I going to reduce this "Ali asked when to go to Egypt" ok so the question word you do have in the infinitive phrase, now if you have IF we are going to change it to whether right, if you have whether then you are going to leave whether the same and if you have a question word when you are reducing it you can relieve the question word and then add the infinitive ok.
 194 So "Ali asked when to go to Egypt" ok.
 195 Now the second one can be changed, let's take the second example "When are they going to Egypt" "Ali asked when they are going to Egypt" so what do you have here?
 196 S: Subject.
 197 T: The speaker is different than the subject so have Ali and have 'they' are different, so can I reduce this one?
 198 S: No
 199 T: I can't reduce it, so the speaker and the subject have to be at the same with embedded questions if and whether to be able to reduce it alright, any questions? Ok now we are going to see how we can reduce statement of urgency, now remember last time we talked about statement of urgency, we said we have some adjectives and we have some verbs of urgency, and they both have the meaning of what?
 200 S: importance
 201 T: Importance, they all have the meaning of that is urgent, that is important and they do imply this meaning right, ok and the verb is in the subject of mode, the verb in then the noun clause isn't the subjunctive mode, what does the subjunctive mode mean?
 202 S: Original
 203 T: Base follows the verb that means what?
 204 S: without S
 205 T: without S you don't add anything to it, look into the past tense was in the simple present you don't add anything to it that means its in the subjunctive mode.
 206 Right ok.
 207 Now "it is important that she call".
 208 Where is the noun clause?
 209 S: That she
 210 T: That she call, right, where is the subject?

- 211 S: She
 212 T: She, where is the verb?
 213 S: Call
 214 T: Call, and what did it start with?
 215 S: That
 216 T: That is the subordinator, so “that she call” is your noun clause.
 217 Call isn’t the subject of mode why?
 218 S: So because of importance
 219 T: Because of importance right, because we do have importance here we do have urgency that means the verb in the noun clause has to be in the subjective mode, it has to be in the base form of the verb, or usually the verb after she has a what?
 220 S: “S”
 221 T: Yes we should say she calls right, she reads, she writes, but because we have importance which is adjective of urgency the verb is in the subjective mode.
 222 Ok So there is a important that she calls, now how I can reduce that? “It is important ..
 223 S: for her
 224 T: For her to call”.
 225 This is how you going to reduce it ok.
 226 Now look at the next example, “It is necessary that I eat well” where is your noun clause?
 227 S: That I eat well.
 228 T: very good, that I eat well, where is your subject?
 229 S: I
 230 T: I, where is the verb?
 231 S: Eats.
 232 T: Eats, and what do they start with?
 233 S: That
 234 T: What is that?
 235 S: Subordinator
 236 T: A subordinator very good.
 237 They really have to know how to spell subordinator, coordinator, and every book in junction ok.
 238 S: Know have to what?
 239 T: you know how to spell it, for example because you are going to write the word.
 240 T: Ok lets go back to the example, it is necessary that I... , where is your noun clause you said “that I eat well” ok now we are going to reduce it.
 241 “It is necessary for me to eat well” so if you do have statement of urgency you have to add for her for me for him ok.
 242 Now look at the last example, “It was essential that he have the money” where is your noun clause?
 243 S: that he have the money.
 244 T: that he have the money, very good.
 245 That is what?
 246 T: Subordinator, he?
 247 S: Subject.
 248 T: Subject, have?
 249 S: Verb.
 250 T: Verb, why do I use have and not using has here?
 251 S: Essential
 252 T: because of the word essential, and essential is what?
 253 S: Adjective of urgency

- 254 T: Excellent, essential is an adjective of urgency so the verb and the noun clause has to be the subjunctive mode which is the base form of the verb which is have in this case.
- 255 Ok, when I reduce it, “It was essential for him to have” ok so always if you have adjective of urgency you are going to add for her, for me, for him you have to show it’s for whom.
- 256 Ok.
- 257 Now let’s have a look now at the verb of urgency, now some urgent request can be used as infinitive phrases.
- 258 Only the following words of request can be used as the infinitive phrase.
- 259 So remember when you we took the whole list of verbs that’s if you see the verb in the noun clause of in subjunctive mode, ok not all of these verbs...um, remember when I did tell you that only five of them can be reduced only these five verbs of urgency can be reduced but the others cannot.
- 260 So you do have to know these.
- 261 Advice, urges, command, require, and ask only if you see these five verbs of urgency these are the only once they can be reduced.
- 262 Other than those the other verbs you can’t reduce them ok.
- 263 Now I will advise that he call right away.
- 264 Now where is your noun clause?
- 265 S: That he call right away.
- 266 T: That he call right away and when I reduce it I will advise him to call right away.
- 267 Same thing here, “He urges that I see a doctor”.
- 268 Where is your noun clause?
- 269 S: that I see a doctor.
- 270 T: that I see a doctor, when I want to reduce it “he urged me to” you have to add something he urged me, he asked him you have to have an object after that to see a doctor.
- 271 Any questions?
- 272 S: No
- 273 T: are you sure? Ok.
- 274 Let’s have a look at some more examples ok. Attend the meeting.
- 275 when you have the command attend the meeting, we asked that the manager attend the meeting and we asked the manager to attend the meeting, now have a look at the first one we asked that the manager attend the meeting, what is this? Your noun clause, right, started with that is your subordinator, where is the subject?
- 276 S: Manager
- 277 T: Manager, where is the verb?
- 278 S: Attend
- 279 T: Attend, and why do we have manager attend and not attends.
- 280 S: Because ask
- 281 T: Because of ask, and ask is what?
- 282 S: Adverb, or
- 283 T: Why should we have it in the subjunctive mode? It’s because....?
- 284 S: urgent
- 285 T: No! because its in verb of urgency right, ok, I am not talking about we have here verb of urgency we have ask, and urge right, we have to know them *ya banat* (girls).
- 286 S: and advise
- 287 T: ok so, “We ask that the manager attend the meeting” again attend I didn’t add the S here, we didn’t take a rule that reported speech remove the S we said that we change it to the past right.

- 288 But here we do have a verb of urgency, so attend here has to be in subjunctive mode.
- 289 When I reduce it, “We asked the manager to attend the meeting”.
- 290 Ok now look at the second example get eight hours of sleep at night “the doctor advised that every child get” and why we didn’t say gets here?
- 291 S: Because it’s advice
- 292 T: Because of advice of verb of urgency very good to the verb passed to be a subjunctive mode, so that every child get eight hours sleep at night.
- 293 When I want to reduce that, “The doctor advised every child” you have to say advised who? Because, think about the change of meaning can we say he advised, you have to say to whom we have to say who did they advise, he advised me, he advised her, he advised the child, you have to mention who he was advising, who he was talking to.
- 294 So “The doctors advise every child to get eight hours of sleep” ok.
- 295 We have one more example, “Forbid all forms of discrimination”, the union urged that the company forbid again forbid isn’t the subjunctive mood, because we have urge here.
- 296 When I want to reduce it “the union urged the company” so you have to say “they advised him, they advised the company, they urged the company, they urged her, ok, to forbid all forms of discrimination.
- 297 Now give one month’s vacation the union commanded that the company give again because we have commanded the verb isn’t the subjunctive mode, when I want to reduce it “the union commanded the company to give one month’s vacation.
- 298 Ok any questions? This is the end of noun clause your exam is until here.
- 299 We are meeting on Wednesday bring your books and booklets, we are going to do all exercises, if you don’t do your homework you have to do it please for next time because we don’t have time to go through everything, there are a lot of activities in the booklet.
- 300 One you do this we can discuss the answer together ok.
- 301 Have a nice day.

Class A Recording 3

- 1 T: Ok, as we mentioned before noun, clauses, adjective clauses all of them are depended clauses Ok.
- 2 We said that there are two types of adjective clauses.
- 3 Can you remember what they are?
- 4 S: Restrictive and non-restrictive.
- 5 T: Good, restrictive and non-restrictive.
- 6 Where did we mention about restrictive and non-restrictive? In terms of meaning, what does it mean? What does it do to a sentence?
- 7 S: umm
- 8 T: Restrictive adjective clauses, let me -not audible-
- 9 T: And how about the noun it quantifies? Is it a unique noun, or I mean how can you differentiate between a restrictive clause and non-restrictive, there are some features, right? This is what we are talking about.
- 10 So, we said in terms of meaning, limits the information, and it is not just additional information like the non-restrictive, they are modifiers it is just a regular noun not a unique noun or proper noun or the restrictive, right? There is something else if you said if you see at the superlative there, or the noun is modifying as a superlative, and this is also a clue to help you know this is restrictive, right? Ok, how about commas, which one has commas?
- 11 S: Non-restrictive.
- 12 T: very good with the non-restrictive we do have commas; with restrictive we use that without commas, very good.
- 13 Alright, let's go to the non-restrictive adjective clause in terms of meaning, and it is just what?
- 14 S: Additional information.
- 15 T: Additional information, very good and the noun the adjective clause modifier as what?
- 16 S: Proper noun.
- 17 T: Proper noun, a unique noun, what else?
- 18 S: Demonstrative.
- 19 T: Demonstrative, very good, what is it demonstrative?
- 20 S: This and that.
- 21 T: Wonderful, this, that these and those.
- 22 So, if you and you see any of those and the commas of course, you will know it is a non-restrictive adjective clause.
- 23 Now I am going to talk about the different features, I mean how different they are in a sentence, and you said that the subordinator 'that' I can use with which one?
- 24 S: -not audible-
- 25 T: That.
- 26 S: No.
- 27 T: No, but with the restrictive clause, the restrictive clause I can use 'that' with a non-restrictive I can't use 'that'.
- 28 So, I only use that with a restrictive clause and we also said that the relative pronoun we can omit that, in which type?
- 29 S: Restrictive.
- 30 T: With the restrictive too, so with the restrictive I can use 'that' and I can omit the relative pronoun whereas with the non-restrictive I can't do that.
- 31 We did a lot of examples last time remember, when we said, when we mentioned all the possible answers that can be done? So, with people I am going to use what? Which relative pronoun?
- 32 S: Who and that.
- 33 T: Who and that, very good.

- 34 If it is a subject, if the adjective clause is a subject, if it is an object?
- 35 S: Who, that.
- 36 T: And whom, right?
- 37 T: Ok, very good, and how about omitting the relative pronoun, can I do that?
- 38 S: With what?
- 39 T: With both and can remove the relative pronoun, if it is what?
- 40 S: Restrictive.
- 41 T: That is restrictive, ok, it is restrictive then I can omit the relative pronoun.
- 42 And how about the non-restrictive? Can I use 'that'?
- 43 S: No.
- 44 T: No, we just mentioned that, and can I omit the relative pronoun with the non-restrictive?
- 45 S: No.
- 46 T: No, so these two things you can't do.
- 47 Now we are going to see when and where and has the same rule in terms of when we are going to use it in a sentence as an adjective clause, if it is restrictive then I can use when and that and omit the relative pronoun, or if its the non-restrictive I only can have when I can't use that and I can't omit the relative pronoun, ok, this is what we are going through today.
- 48 T: Ok, now clauses with when and where.
- 49 Now we only talked about who and which last time so, now we have when and where.
- 50 Now when and where may be used to form adjective clauses and non-restrictive clauses only when, where or which plus a preposition are used.
- 51 And remember last time when we formed some sentences with the preposition? Do you remember which was the most formal way to construct an adjective clause? If we have which and the preposition like 'to' for example?
- 52 S: To which?
- 53 T: To which, very good, so we have the preposition before which it will be more formal.
- 54 So, and the less formal of course will be let's say which was.
- 55 S: -not audible-
- 56 T: Yeah, like to go to or so on and you can end your sentence with the preposition.
- 57 Whereas if you want to go little bit more formal you can start with the preposition before using the relative pronoun, ok, and of course when and where are relative adverbs and non-relative pronouns, who, which we call the relative pronouns, whereas when and where we call the relative adverbs.
- 58 T: Ok, and now only when and where and which prepositions are used, so if restrictive clauses 'that' plus preposition can also be used or the relative pronoun can be omitted so this is the same thing that we discussed last time.
- 59 So, if you do have that or a relative pronoun in a restrictive clause, in a restrictive adjective clause then you can omit them whereas if it's a non-restrictive you just leave it, you don't omit it.
- 60 T: Ok, let us just do an exercise so that you can apply what we are just saying.
- 61 We have two sentences here we want to join them and make the second sentence as an adjective clause, alright? So, the first sentence is, "At the time, the statues were still standing".
- 62 The second sentence is, "The Dutch arrived then" ok? Now you have 'at that time' and you have 'then'.
- 63 I want you to combine these two into one complex sentence.
- 64 The second sentence I want you to make an adjective clause, which to add at the beginning.
- 65 S: -not audible-

- 66 T: Ok, you should add also pronoun, right? Now here because it is at the time and then you have the when does represent that time, right? So, this is what I want you to do, I want you to combine these two, by using when.
- 67 S: So, we have to make some change?
- 68 T: Of course, you are going to have to make some changes to the sentence.
- 69 So, what you actually have to do is just change the words involved and change them or replace them with a relative adverb.
- 70 S: -not audible discussing with each other-
- 71 T: Ok, the second part to be should be your adjective clause, ok? Combine them, make them one sentence, using when.
- 72 I will give you a minute to think about it and then I will discuss your answers.
- 73 T: It is easy, ready?
- 74 S: Yes
- 75 T: Ok, who is ready, yes please.
- 76 S: "The statues were still standing when the Dutch arrived, "
- 77 T: Ok, now what did we say, what was the most important thing we said about adjective clauses? Where does it occur in a sentence?
- 78 S: First.
- 79 T: Yeah, where does it occur, not beginning or end, it doesn't matter at beginning or end, what matters is what?
- 80 S: The time?
- 81 T: No, the adjective clause generally, where should it occur?
- 82 S: After the noun
- 83 T: Ok, after the noun, modifier right, what does it modifying here? when, what it is modifying?
- 84 S: Standing.
- 85 T: Standing?
- 86 S: No, the Dutch arrived.
- 87 T: This is your adjective; this is your adjective clause, so where should it be?
- 88 S: at that time when Dutch arrived.
- 89 T: Yes.
- 90 S: The statues were still standing.
- 91 T: There you go!! "At that time when the Dutch arrived the statues were still standing", because what I am modifying here is the time, right? When is used for time, right and here modifying that time, am talking about that time, at that time what happened, when the Dutch arrived and then you continue the sentence, the statues were still standing, ok? Now of course what I am going to omit is then I don't need to repeat it that again because it is already referring to at that time.
- 92 So, at that time and then have the same meaning and I have to write then again.
- 93 So, always when you are combining these two sentences and I'm always going to tell you which part of the sentence you are making an adjective clause.
- 94 Which you are going to do, you are going to put the relative pronoun at the beginning and then you are going to place the adjective clause directly after the noun that modifies.
- 95 So, what are we modifying here? You have to look at the sentence, what are we modifying and what are we talking about? And then you can add that.
- 96 So, "At that time when the Dutch arrived the statues were still standing", this is one way.
- 97 Now, we are modifying at the time right? So, what type of adjective clauses is this? Is it restrictive or non-restrictive?
- 98 S: Restrictive.
- 99 T: Restrictive, alright, at that time I didn't specify a certain date, I didn't say 1992 or just generally, at that time, so, this is a restrictive adjective clause.

- 100 So, because it is restrictive what can we use other than ‘when?’ I can use ‘that’,
alright.
- 101 So, ok, the same sentences combine them using that, what would you say?
- 102 S: “At that time that the Dutch arrived.”
- 103 T: Very good, “At that time that the Dutch arrived the statues were still standing.
104 “Good, can I omit the relative pronoun?
105 S: Yes.
106 T: Yes, I can, why?
107 S: Because it is a restrictive adjective clause
108 T: Because it is a restrictive adjective clause, so will be at that time the Dutch
arrived, very good, the statues were still standing.
109 And here you have the answers.
110 At that time when the Dutch arrived, at that time that the Dutch arrived and you
can omit the relative adverb.
111 And at that time that the Dutch arrived the statues were still standing so, you see
these are all of these are different ways to combine these two sentences using an
adjective clause because it is restrictive, any questions?
112 S: No.
113 T: Are you sure? Ok, let's move on.
114 Now have a look at these two "The lives of Germans suddenly changed on the
night", then the second sentence "East German soldiers begun building the
Berlin wall during that night."
115 Now I would like you to combine them using when.
116 And I want you to think is it a restrictive or non-restrictive before you decide
and writing it again with that or meaning it, I will give you a minute
117 T: Ready?
118 S: -group discussing-
119 T: Ok, *yalla Nourah* (go on Nourah)
120 S: “On the night when East German soldiers begun building the Berlin wall the
lives of Germans suddenly changed.”
121 T: What did you do exactly?
122 S: On the night when?
123 T: All right.
124 S: “East German soldiers begun building the Berlin wall the lives of Germans
suddenly changed”
125 T: ummm
126 S: Germans), no?
127 T: Again, all right so you started with on the night then, all right ok you changed
the sentence a little bit but it is still correct.
128 So, “On the night when East Germans begun to build the Berlin wall the lives of
Germans suddenly changed.
129 “ Yeah, but you can do it in another way to, how do you do that? Yes.
130 S: “East German soldiers begun building the Berlin wall when the lives of
Germans suddenly change,” no?
131 T: No, no, why I want the second part to be your adjective clause, so, this is
going to be adjective clause when you start when here, ok? And then it has to
come directly after what it is modifying.
132 So, where should it be? Yes please.
133 S: “The lives of Germans suddenly changed on the night, when the East German
soldiers begun to build the Berlin wall”
134 T: Exactly so, why do it the hard way all right, so the lives of the Germans
suddenly changed on the night, so, when East German soldiers begun building
the Berlin wall, I don't need to repeat during the night again ok? So, this is one
way, now my adjective clause is when East German soldiers begun, so it is

- modifying again, what is it modifying? The night, right? So night is the noun that I am modifying.
- 135 So, is it restrictive or non-restrictive?
- 136 S: Restrictive.
- 137 T: Restrictive, very good, night is general.
- 138 So what other ways I can use other than when? Yes.
- 139 S: The lives of Germans suddenly changed on the night East German soldiers begun to build.
- 140 T: Very good, this is one way which is omitting the relative adverb, the lives of Germans suddenly changed on the night East German soldiers began to build the Berlin wall, very good.
- 141 There is another way other than the meaning the relative pronoun was that.
- 142 S: On the night that East Germans.
- 143 T: Excellent, so you had the same sentences instead of when you have that.
- 144 Here are your answers - the life of Germans suddenly changed on the night when and then you have on the night that, and you have on the night East German without the relative pronoun, because it is restrictive adjective clause.
- 145 Excellent, all right now we are going to look at non-restrictive, now non-restrictive clauses with when.
- 146 In 1722 the statues were still standing, this is one sentence and then we have second sentence the Dutch arrived then, ok? Now when we are going to combine these two, look what I am going to do, now this part, I want the second part to be my adjective clause, when I am going to start with?
- 147 S: When.
- 148 T: When, very good, now we said that the adjective clause has to come directly after the noun and modifies, what are we modifying?
- 149 S: Here?
- 150 T: The time which is 1722.
- 151 So, "In 1722 when the Dutch arrived the statues were still standing."
- 152 So, and then here, is this a restrictive or non-restrictive adjective?
- 153 S: Non-restrictive.
- 154 T: Non-restrictive, why is that?
- 155 S: Specific the time.
- 156 T: Very good, this is specific date here so the way we deal with like how we deal with proper noun so with specific date, that's why it is a non-restrictive adjective clause, what do I have to add? I have to add commas, right? Because non-restrictive adjective clause, ok any questions? Ok, we are going to do an exercise now.
- 157 T: Alright, I want you to combine these two.
- 158 "On November 9th, 1989 their lives changed again" and then the second sentence "The wall was torn down on November 9th 1989", now the second part, this is what I wanted to make, I wanted to make it as an adjective clause, ok? I give you one minute to think about it, and I want you to think about all the possible answers too as well.
- 159 T: Ok, are you ready? Ok, and your name is.
- 160 S: Abeer
- 161 T: Ok Abeer
- 162 S: "On November 9, 1989 when the wall was torn down their lives changed again."
- 163 T: Excellent, on November 9th, 1989 and then this is what I am modifying, I am modifying this time, so that's why I have to have the adjective clause here, when the wall was torn down I don't have to repeat the date again, then I have their lives changed again, very good.
- 164 Now how about any other possible answer?
- 165 S: No.

- 166 T: Why not?
 167 S: It's a non-restrictive.
 168 T: It's a non-restrictive adjective clause so I can't use that and I can't omit the relative pronoun, there is also another way to form this adjective clause other than that and omitting it.
 169 Which? Which with what?
 170 S: Preposition.
 171 T: With the preposition, which preposition?
 172 S: On.
 173 T: On, so how can you do that?
 174 S: On November 9th, 1989.
 175 T: Ok, on November 9th, 1989.
 176 S: The wall was torn down.
 177 T: Very good, the wall was torn down their lives changed again and we are going to talk more about that later so, when this is how we do it, we have the adjective clause directly after the date and then we continue the sentence.
 178 And then talk about using preposition with which later on, but you can do that with non-restrictive clause, but what you can't do this that and omitting, this is what you can't with a non-restrictive.
 179 Ok, now restrictive clause with where, which, that or anything.
 180 Now, where of course is used for place, and this is what we are going to do here, combine these two sentences using where, "This is an island" and the second sentence is, "An advanced society flourished here".
 181 Now I want you to combine these two making the second sentence your adjective clause using where.
 182 S: "This is an island where an advanced society had flourished".
 183 T: Very good, ok this is one way.
 184 "This is an island where an advanced society had flourished" do I have to repeat here?
 185 S: No.
 186 T: No, of course not, I omit here because I already have the island and we don't have to repeat here again.
 187 Ok, now, can I use that here, so is it a restrictive or non-restrictive?
 188 S: Non-restrictive.
 189 T: It is restrictive because island can be any island all right, so it is not specified which island that is so here it is restrictive, we can use that?
 190 S: Yes.
 191 T: Ok, who can give me the sentence? Yes, please.
 192 S: "This is an island that an advanced society had flourished."
 193 T: Very good, ok, so this is the island that, first of all this an island that where this is an island that, what else?
 194 S: Which.
 195 T: Ok, we are going to talk about which later on.
 196 What else do we have?
 197 S: Nothing
 198 T: Nothing so this is an island an advanced society had flourished and how about which?
 199 S: you can
 200 T: This is an island, which an advanced society had flourished, ok.
 201 And here your answers, we have where, and we have on which, of course you are going to start this is the formal way to do it.
 202 And you can have on at the end too, that will be less formal.
 203 So, where on which and here this is what we discussed which an advanced society had flourished on which is less formal.

- 204 And we have that and also we can omit the relative pronoun because it is a restrictive adjective clause, this an island an advanced society had flourished, ok.
- 205 T: Now non-restrictive clause is with where and which, this is a non- restrictive, this is Easter Island and the same sentence an advanced society had flourished here, so how can you combine these two?
- 206 S: This is Easter Island.
- 207 T: This is Easter Island.
- 208 S: Where an advanced society.
- 209 T: Where an advanced society had flourished on this is one right? Give me something else?
- 210 S: the same but which
- 211 T: On which good, can I use that?
- 212 S: No.
- 213 T: No, can I omit the relative pronoun?
- 214 S: No.
- 215 T: No because.
- 216 S: Non-restrictive adjective clause
- 217 T: It is non-restrictive adjective clause because Easter Island is a proper noun.
- 218 S: Miss, should we use on when we say that, this is Easter Island that should we use on?
- 219 T: Depending on the sentence.
- 220 S: The other sentence, it is not have on.
- 221 T: Which one?
- 222 S: Go back please.
- 223 T: All right, we have a preposition, ok, lets go back
- 224 S: here here.
- 225 T: Ok, in the sentence, this is an island an advanced society had flourished here.
- 226 S: Yeah, we don't have on here.
- 227 T: Ok, I get what you mean, even though when we are talking, ok when we are talking about a place or time you can use when with time and where with place, if you are going to use which then you have to have a preposition.
- 228 S: Yeah.
- 229 T: Even if you don't have in the sentence.
- 230 S: Which I know but when we use that.
- 231 T: Because you are not saying you are not using which like what we have used it before you are using to describe a place.
- 232 If you are describing a place then you can use at which, on which to just express about this place, that's why you have to have add the preposition and which.
- 233 S: So, that is the same as which here.
- 234 T: You mean if you are saying that?
- 235 S: Yeah they put on.
- 236 T: Well, let see, I mean why did we add on, yeah it's the same thing.
- 237 S: Same thing.
- 238 T: The same thing.
- 239 So when you are using which or that you have to add the preposition, this is the island that an advance society had flourished on, and yes it is expressing place yeah, why it's different that we talked about it before because it is describing place and time.
- 240 So if you are describing then yes you do either preposition and then address them ok?
- 241 T: Alright, I think we have one more, this is just to show you what we talked about before choosing restrictive clauses or non-restrictive clauses subject the object of preposition and the object, and when you are starting with preposition in plus whom this is the most formal way and then you get less formal.

- 242 This is the same thing that we discussed last time also this shows you the subject and the object when you use whom, whereas with the subject we don't use whom we only use who.
- 243 T: Also here there is one of the tools we discussed here ok, we are not going into the expression of quantity, we will do it next time.
- 244 So, generally here we have where and when.
- 245 And how we use them with a restricted and non-restricted.
- 246 I want you to go back to your book and read the tables and go to the pages you have for the slides and just read the tables we have there, we are going to do some more activities on this next time *inshaAllah* (in Gods will) when we meet, ok, any questions? Alright have a nice day
- 247 T: Let me just take your attendance please.

Class A Recording 4

- 1 T: Last time we were talking about reductions and how we can reduce an adjective clause.
- 2 We said that one of the things we should do to a sentences to change or how should we reduce an adjective clause, we reduce it to what?
- 3 S: [Inaudible]
- 4 T: We're gonna omit the relative pronoun, that's right.
- 5 Remember when we reduced noun clauses we reduced them to infinitives, right? How about adjective clauses when we want to reduce them, we reduce them to what?
- 6 S: Participle.
- 7 T: Participle phrases, right.
- 8 Good.
- 9 So what you do is reduce the adjective clause to a participle phrase and how do you do that.
- 10 First you omit what?
- 11 S: The relative pronoun.
- 12 T: Good, the relative pronoun.
- 13 So who, that, which, you delete them, you omit them and then you change the verb to either a present participle or a past participle.
- 14 How can you decide? You have to look at the adjective clause if it is...?
- 15 S: Active...
- 16 T: Or...?
- 17 S: Passive.
- 18 T: Excellent.
- 19 So you have to look at the adjective clause.
- 20 Is it active or passive and then you decide how to reduce that to a participle phrase.
- 21 If it is active...
- 22 S: You change the verb.
- 23 T: Very good, you're going to change the verb.
- 24 Whatever tense it was you're going to change it to present participle which is adding what to it?
- 25 S: -ing.
- 26 T: Good.
- 27 Eating, swimming and all of that.
- 28 Now when you have the passive voice you're going to omit the relative pronoun and you're going to change the verb to past participle like eat, ate, eaten, eaten is your past participle.
- 29 Okay good, we said we're going to delete the relative pronoun, we're going to change the verb to a present participle if its active or past participle if its passive.
- 30 And we also talked about if we have different, the perfect tense which is the present perfect or past perfect which always starts with what? has, have and had.
- 31 So if you see has, have, had, how are you going to change that to a past perfect?
- 32 First of all if its active you're going to change have, has and have to.
- 33 S: Having.
- 34 T: Having and you're going to use the past participle that if its passive then you're going to have, 'have been eaten' for example.
- 35 What are you going to do?
- 36 S: Having been eaten.
- 37 T: Very good, you're going to change also has, have and had to having and been you're going to leave it as it is, if you do have a being also you're going to use that as a participle.
- 38 Any questions so far?

- 39 S: No
- 40 T: This is what we talked about last time and now we're going to see appositives.
- 41 Appositives is the same as a noun but when you're reducing an adjective clause
- 42 to an appositive it won't be a participle phrase,
- 43 it will be called an appositive because you're going to actually delete the verb to
- 44 be, now this is what we're going to see.
- 45 Remember we did that last time when we had who was, we said we omit 'who',
- 46 relative pronoun and we omit 'was' which is verb to be.
- 47 This is it when you omit the verb to be you don't have a verb, so you don't have
- 48 the participle tense so it can't be called the participle phrase, SA7? (right?) so
- 49 what you call it an appositive and this is what we'll see today.
- 50 Now have a look at the book here first we're going to be looking at some
- 51 examples.
- 52 Adjective clauses with verbs to be can be reduced to phrases by eliminating the
- 53 relative pronoun and the verb, these are called appositives.
- 54 Commas are used with appositives, also word order can often be changed in
- 55 appositives and this is what we're going to see in the examples.
- 56 Have a look at this example please, Shah Jahan, who was the fifth emperor of
- 57 the Mughal empire, built the Taj Mahal.
- 58 Now where is your adjective clause?
- 59 S: Who was.
- 60 T: Very good which is the one I'm going to, who was the fifth emperor of the
- 61 Mughal empire.
- 62 What is it modifying?
- 63 S: Shah Jahan.
- 64 T: What type of adjective clause is it?
- 65 S: Non restrictive.
- 66 T: Non restrictive, why?
- 67 S: It's a proper noun.
- 68 T: Very good, there are commas and its modifying a proper noun which is we
- 69 have the name here Shah Jahan.
- 70 So this is a non restrictive adjective clause.
- 71 Now I want to reduce that.
- 72 We said when we're reducing adjective clauses we reduce it to a present
- 73 participle or past participle but here where's the verb?
- 74 S: Was.
- 75 T: What kind of verb is was?
- 76 S: Verb to be.
- 77 T: Verb to be.
- 78 What are verb to be?
- 79 S: Am, is and are.
- 80 T: Very good.
- 81 Am, is and are and the past tense to be, was and were.
- 82 So was is the verb to be, when I want to reduce that to a relative pronoun omit
- 83 what? So it will be Shan Jahan, the fifth emperor of the Mughal empire, built the
- 84 Taj Mahal.
- 85 It's not called a participle phrase because you don't have a participle verb, this is
- 86 called an appositive.
- 87 If you're reducing an adjective clause that has verb to be you just going to cross
- 88 out the pronoun, cross out the verb to be then you will have your appositive.
- 89 Now we can also change the location of the appositive in a sentence.
- 90 So I can start with it and say; The fifth emperor of the Mughal empire and then
- 91 between commas Shan Jahan, and then continue built the Taj Mahal.
- 92 So either it can have his name and then between commas is whatever its
- 93 modifying which is the relative clause or you can also change it and start with

- the appositive and have the name or proper noun that's modifying between the commas.
- 76 This is another way to do it, any questions? I want you to try this actively with a sentence.
- 77 Reduce the sentence to an appositive and also change the location of the sentence.
- 78 Look at the first sentence, "George Washington, who was the first president of the United States, was a general in the army."
- 79 And I also want you to do the second sentence which is "Paris, which is the capital of France, is an exciting city."
- 80 I'll give you a chance to reference, take half a minute.
- 81 Okay the first sentence, yes Muna.
- 82 S: George Washington, the first president of the United States, was a general in the army.
- 83 T: Excellent.
- 84 So George Washington, the first president... what did you do?
- 85 S: I omitted the relative pronoun who and verb was.
- 86 T: Very good.
- 87 She omitted the relative pronoun which is who and verb to be which is was and left the sentence as it is.
- 88 Can you change the order of the sentence?
- 89 S: The first president of the United States, George Washington, was a general in the army.
- 90 T: Very good, and what do you need before George Washington and after it?
- 91 S: Comma.
- 92 T: Good, you need a comma before George Washington and after it.
- 93 The second sentence please.
- 94 S: Paris, the capital city of France, is an exciting city.
- 95 T: Okay, the capital of France, is an exciting city.
- 96 Excellent.
- 97 Paris, and then we omit the pronoun is the capital of France is an exciting city.
- 98 Change the order?
- 99 S: The capital of France, Paris, is an exciting city.
- 100 T: Very good.
- 101 The capital of France, comma Paris, another comma and then we have is an exciting city.
- 102 Another comma and then we have is an exciting city.
- 103 Any questions? These are the answers, they're exactly like what you mentioned and this is the end of the adjective clause.
- 104 The reduction of an adjective clause, if you have to decide first of all you look at the adjective clause, decide if it's restrictive or non restrictive.
- 105 Decide if its active or passive then so you can decide.
- 106 When you're reducing if you see the verb to be is just going to cross it up with the relative pronoun.
- 107 If you see, has, have and had, you're going to change that to having.
- 108 If you have just a regular verb, you have a relative pronoun and any tense of the verb, if the sentence is active you're going to change it to present participle which is -ing.
- 109 If you have passive voice you're going to change it to the past participle and not present participle.
- 110 This is generally what we're going to do, you're going to have exams on sentences where you have to reduce them either to participle phrase or to appositives.
- 111 That's all for today.

- 112 Please bring your books and do a lot of activities and on Wednesday I'll ask you questions before the exam.
- 113 Do you have any questions? Okay I'll take your attendance.

Class B Recording 1

- 1 T: When we start the sentence with might *Ya'nī niqūl mathalan* [You say for example] "Jordan said that he might go home" when we report it will stay as is.
- 2 T: You get what I mean? *Ya'nī* [That means] when you start with 'may' you will report it as might. When you start as might you keep it as might. So it is an exception when you start with it.
- 3 S: only might?
- 4 T: no, might .. should all the models in the perfect form.
- 5 T: So we have a time table actually, on page 300 "the changes in model auxiliary with reported speech."
- 6 So we have a number of models that are changed uh umm when reported. Those include can, may and must..
- 7 Also will would shift to would, may into might, can into could and must to had to.
- 8 T: *ṭayyib* [ok]
- 9 S: Must to what?
- 10 T: had to.
- 11 S: had to?
- 12 T: Yes!
- 13 T: *Tafazzalī* Afnan [welcome Afnan]. –student came in –
- 14 T: We are on page 300. Alright! So these are some examples so Ann can help Criss when we report it she said that Ann could help Criss and so on.
- 15 John 'may' will become John 'might' *ba'dīn* [After that] 'will' will change into 'would.'
- 16 T: So when you find a sentence that contains 'must' you have to have a knowledge about the meaning of the word must. Alright?
- 17 T: umm *Tafazzalī* [come on], *ṭayyib* [ok].
- 18 Exceptions could should ought to. All these are the models in the perfect forms. Yes you keep them as they are.
- 19 And you have these exceptions on the same table on page 300.
- 20 T: *tamām* [ok]. *Khallīnā nirūḥ lilghiyāb* [Let's check the attendance].
- 21 Then we can come back in completing what is left. *'abāl mā nisawwī l-ḥuḍūr wa al-ghiyāb* [Till we check the attendance].
- 22 I need you to work on practice number two on page 300 please.
- 23 T: What you will be doing is starting every sentence with the word..
- 24 S: The study showed
- 25 T: The study showed.. that *ṭab'an* [Of course]
- 26 S: ok
- 27 T: *ba'dīn* [After that] the trend will continue indefinitely. *mīn ya'fīnī hadhā l-mithāl?* [who will give me this example?]
- 28 T: Yes Rana?
- 29 S: The study showed the trend will continue indefinitely.
- 30 T: *'aḥsantī* [well done], *mumtāzah* [You're excellent].
- 31 T: Please continue doing the rest while I'm taking the attendance.
- 32 T: Actually you don't have to rewrite everything just rewrite the verbs of the models.
- 33 T: *ṭayyib* [ok], number two 'the study showed that computer related jobs..
- 34 S: were becoming coming more and more popular..
- 35 T: *'aḥsantī* [well done]! Were coming more and more popular. Number three.. Rawan?
- 36 S: The study showed that the number of teaching jobs had begun to increase.
- 37 T: Excellent!
- 38 T: Anood
- 39 S: The study showed that many sellers have lost their jobs.

- 40 T: Excellent.
- 41 S: What does clerical mean?
- 42 T: What?? Clerical means *'āmil - muwazzaf* [Worker – employee] *ṭayyib* [ok].
- 43 T: How would you get this in an exam?
- 44 You will have someone said *ṭayyib* [ok] the quotation then you will have different variation of the reported speech you will choose the one that suits all the rules.
- 45 T: *Tamām* [ok] *'atghayyarit ḥatkūn –āima bitkūn fy* "pronouns", *sana'khudhuhā in' shā'a Allāh 'aw fī* "verbs" *'aw* "modals" [The changes will be – they will be in the pronouns – we will take it [God willing]- the verbs, or the modal auxiliaries].
- 46 T: Alright? So when you report you need to make sure that every part of the sentence is changed into the form that shows that this is a reported speech. *Tamām* [ok].
- 47 S: Yes
- 48 T: *Khallaṣnā al-* "verbs" *wa Khalaṣ'nā min al-* "modals". [So far we have completed discussing the verbs and the modals.]
- 49 T: I need your help she said that she...?
- 50 S: She needed my help.
- 51 T: *kayf tiqūl* "They needed my help." [How do you say "They needed my help.]"
- 52 T: *'ish rāḥ tikūn l-jumlah hay* [What will this sentence be?]
- 53 T: They need her help *li'annū* [because] she said. *ṭayyib* [ok].
- 54 T: *kayf 'aqūl l-jumlah hadhī biḥayth tiṣīr* "my help" [How do I say this sentence so that it becomes "my help".]
- 55 S: *kayf 'aqūl* [how can I say?] My,,,?
- 56 T: *kayf 'aqūl l-jumlah.....*[how can I say ...]
- 57 S: My My! Your your!
- 58 S: *Lahḥza* [wait] they needed your help?
- 59 T: *Lā* [no] *mū* [not] they needed
- 60 T: *kayf 'inghayyir hādhi l-jumlah biḥayth hādhi l-jumlah tiṣīr* "when I report it" – "they needed my help." [How can we change this sentence so that it becomes "when I report it" – “they needed my help”.]
- 61 T: *mā sima 'tū wish qālit* [You didn't hear what she said.] *ish 'ismik ḥabībī* [What's your name? My darling.]
- 62 S: Nourah
- 63 T: *ṭayyib* [Ok].
- 64 T: So if she said they need your help *ḥaykūn al* report [the report will be] they needed my help.
- 65 S: my help.
- 66 T: *Tamām* [ok] these pages need to be corrected
- 67 S: She said that those pages ...
- 68 T: Those alright! These changes into those. *ṭayyib* [Ok].
- 69 These papers *lamma 'ana batkallim* "those" [When I say].
- 70 *Tamām* [ok]
- 71 T: Change the sentence to reported speech *yallā kullinā* [All of us]. Everyone everyone *kullakum* [All of you] participate.
- 72 S: -student speaking at once-
- 73 T: *lā mū tas'mī' ka'inanā fī ḥiṣṣit Qura'an* [Don't recite as if we are in a Qura'n class.] write down all the changes please.
- 74 S: -students working in groups speaking mostly Arabic-
- 75 T: When you report you start with a female's name.
- 76 S: *ṭayyib līh?* [but why?]
- 77 T: *bas 'ashan kullana nittafiq 'alā l-taghyrāt* [in order to agree upon the changes]
- 78 T: Hind said

- 79 S: -laughing-
- 80 T: *mā 'āj'biḳ* [You don't like it.] okay Sarah said
- 81 T: Oh there is a mistake here it's a number of sentences so it should be change 'these' sentences.
- 82 T: *shuftū kayf l-'ajalah mā tiṣlah, 'intabhū fī l-'khtibār. 'anā mā ḥad biyṣallahī, bas 'intū 'intabhū 'anā baṣallihlikū* [be careful, doing things in rush is not a good thing. Nobody will correct me, but I will correct to you] – Note: the teacher here is talking about correcting [marking] exam papers.
- 83 T: *tayyib* [Ok]
- 84 T: Alright ya Lubna [the teacher is calling one student].
- 85 S: I'm not finished yet ..
- 86 T: Just give me the first sentence please
- 87 S: Ok, John said that he is a computer programmer in San Francisco.
- 88 T: *tayyib* [Ok], *fih ḥajah mā 'ajabatnī* " He was....." [there is something I didn't like "he was....."
- 89 S: He was? but *mumkin tikūn* [it can be if]
- 90 T: "He is" *lamā tikūn* "fact" , *bas 'innuh mumkin titghayyar. Mumkin 'innuh kān "....." wī ṣār shay thanī, ṣār duktūr mathalan* ["he is" when it is "a fact", it can be changed, it is possible that he was "...." and he became something else; he became a doctor, for example]
- 91 S: *'ashān 'akūn fī al-* "safe side" *lammā 'aghayyir* [to be on the safe side when I change]
- 92 T: *ḥatkūnī fī al-* "safe side", *bas fī hālah waḥīdah, lammā binkūn nitkallam 'an ḥaqīqah lā yumkin taghyīrhā; zay ḥaggīt l-kurah l-'arḍiyyah* [You will be on the "safe side", but there is one case when we are talking about facts that can't be changed, as the case of the globe.]
- 93 T: *lāḥiẓtū 'innū fī 'alqawā'id dāyman dāyman al-shakhābīt tabda' fī* "exceptions". [please notice that in grammar the mistakes start always in the "exceptions".]
- 94 T: *khalūnā ḥatā fī al-* "exceptions", we have a rule. [let's have a rule even in case of the "exceptions"
- 95 T: Ok,, *'abghī ḥad ghayr* Areej [I want someone other than Areej.]
- 96 T: Ok Noor..
- 97 S: 'He grew up in India, he helped design several websites'
- 98 T: *'ah yā kalbī* [oh my heart!] something is wrong, *al-jumlah bas 'al'ūlā* "he grew up." [Only the first sentence "he grew up".]
- 99 S: He had grown up??
- 100 S: *tayyib mā yinfa'* [ok wouldn't it work if..] –another student-
- 101 T: *'ahsantī* [well done], again he had grown up
- 102 S: grew up!?! Is grew up the third tense?
- 103 S: grown up –student together-
- 104 T: he had grown up
- 105 S: *tayyib mā yiṣlah līh?* [ok why it seems not suitable].
- 106 T: *mā yiṣlah līh?* [not suitable way?] *li'annū* [because], when we change the past into it doesn't work this way. We have to change each tense to the past of that tense.
- 107 So grew up *ḥanḥawwilha* to [will change it to]..
- 108 S: had grown up –students together-
- 109 T: yeah third tense, *ḥatṣīr* [will become], 'he had grown up'.
- 110 T: *tamām* [ok]?
- 111 S: yes
- 112 T: I helped design..?
- 113 S: He had helped design several websites.
- 114 T: *'ahsantī* [well done]. He had helped design several websites.
- 115 T: My hobbies are...?

- 116 S: His hobbies were reading and swimming.
 117 T: *yā salām* [great!]
 118 S: -asking question not clear in Arabic-
 119 T: *lā* "they could change." [No, "they could change."]. *lissā tawnā binqūl* "even with exceptions, we need a rule." [We have just said that "even with exceptions, we need a rule."]
 120 T: *hādhā 'illī kunnā niqūluh, 'innuh fīh* "facts". [this is what we have been saying, that there are "facts".]
 121 T: *kalāmik ṣaḥīḥ, nafs al-fikrah 'illy qālūhā al-banāt, 'innuh* "He was a computer programmer." [What you have said is correct; it is as the idea the girls talked about.]
 122 T: *bas 'ihnā 'ashān nittaḥiq 'alā* "exceptions". [only because we want to agree upon the "exceptions".] *ṭayyib* [Ok]?
 123 T: Table 7.5 page, 301 "time and place of expressions"
 124 T: We need the work 'now' we change it to .. now we are talking about time 'change of time'. So they said that
 125 S: They needed the work then –teacher and students together-
 126 T: *fī dhālika l-hīn* [at that time' then] Alright.
 127 T: Directional and time related verbs may also change according to when and where the reported speech occur.
 128 T: *fīh 'andī fi 'layn* "bring" *tiṣīr* "take"; "come" *tiṣīr* "go". [We have two verbs: "bring" becomes "take"; "come" becomes "go".]
 129 S: *līh?* [why?]
 130 T: He asked me to bring them, he asked me to take them, he asked me to go there *ti ṣer* [will become]. Come changes into go, bring changes into take. *Tayyib* [ok], So I will always apply the rule the way it is.
 131 T: *mithāl* [an example], *ṭayyib* [Ok] "Let's finish the command first." '*ashān yiṣīr 'ttamrīn kāmil* [in order to complete the exercise]. *ṭayyib* [Ok].
 132 T: You know the commands? What type of sentences are commands? *Qulnāhā qabil* [we said it earlier].
 133 They are categorized as simple sentences. The verb is there, the subject is hidden. *ya 'ī* [I mean], when I say 'run!' it means 'you' run. You do the running.
 134 T: *ṭayyib* [ok], the change of commands in general to reported speech.
 135 For example, 'should' *bima 'nā fīh* " you should"; *fīh* " had to"; *fīh* " ought to" [I mean it has "you should", "had to", and "ought to".]
 136 T: umm *ṭab'an* [of course] there is had to, must, ought to according to the degree of the strength of the command. *ya 'nī* "the degree is not strong" [I mean "the degree is not strong."]
 137 T: *ṭab'an* "note that the verb doesn't change." [of course, "note that the verb doesn't change."]
 138 T: *shūf l-darajāt ḥaqqit* "previous different commands" [see the degrees of "previous different commands"]
 139 T: Stop it! 'we have an exclamation mark' so "This is strong." *yithawil 'ilā* "command" "Stop it!" "This is strong."
 140 It is changed to "command". *ṭayyib* [Ok].
 141 T: Clean your room!?
 142 S: You must clean your room..
 143 T: *shūf* "clean your room" *tiṣīr* "I had to"; "I must"; *kullahā ṣaḥīḥah* [see/notice "clean your room" becomes "I had to"; "I must"; both of them are correct.]
 144 T: *ṭab'an* "when I give you multiple choice questions." [of course, " when I give you multiple choice questions."]
 145 I won't give you a number of these, because all of them are correct. You will have one of them.
 146 T: *li'annuh mumkin 'afham* "stop it" '*alā 'innhā* "strong command"; '*anā 'ithā ḥawwālahā* "reported speech"; *ḥaqūl* "she said that you must stop it" [it is

- possible that I understand "stop it" as " a strong command", so when I want to change it into "reported speech", I will say, "She said that you must stop it."].
- 147 T: *tamām, khallaṣnā* [Ok, we finished.] *lissā baqīlnā waqt, nikammil* "practice" *wa* "quiz" *kamān* [we still have time, so we will do both the "practice" and "the quiz."].
- 148 T: Change the commands to reported speech. "Be at your desk by nine" -*Yala* [ok] take your time- -students discussing the exercise in Arabic very low voice-
e.x *wish katabtī?* [what have you written?]
- 149 T: *ṭayyib, khalṣū shabab* [Ok, finish young girls?]
- 150 T: Practice number three, how would you report "be at your desk?" Rana?
- 151 S: I must be at my desk by nine
- 152 T: I must be.. I should be *hiyya ta'tamid 'alā* [it depends on] *iḥsasik* [what you feel].
- 153 T: *mumtāz ḥilw 'ttaghyīr* [Excellent! The change is good.] Amjad number seven?
- 154 S: My boss told me to limit my time in the internet.
- 155 T: Ought to, my boss told me that I ought to limit my time using the internet.
- 156 T: *'aḥsantī* [well done]. Afnan next please..
- 157 S: My boss told me that I should call as early as possible if I were sick.
- 158 T: I were.
- 159 S: I was..?
- 160 T: *fīh mushkilah* "subjective verbs.....", *lamā āḥwwilhā lilmādī* "you are" *biṣīr* " I was" [There is a problem "subjective verbs", when I change it "you are" becomes " I was".]
- 161 *Zay mathalan* [for example] he told him that he must arrive *wa hiyya fī al-'grammar' niqūl* [and we say in grammar] he arrives.
- 162 T: *lakin lammā nistakhdim* subjunctive form *tiqūl* "he arrives". [but when we use the subjunctive form we say he arrives.] *'adī ṣaḥīḥa* [its okay its correct]
- 163 T: It's an exception in the language. We will go through it *insh'Allah* [in Gods will] next time.
- 164 T: *ṭayyib, khalīnā nimur 'alā hādhā al* "quiz", *'aḥlā mā fīh 'ninuh* "it is solved in question..... ." [Ok, let's go through this quiz; the best thing about it is that "it is solved in question.....".]
- 165 T: 'Tom said I want to visit my friends this week' let's say we have three alternatives A, B and C. which one will you choose?
- 166 S: B yeah B
- 167 T: *ḥadā 'anduh ta'līq 'ākhar* [Does anybody have another comment?]
- 168 S: -went to the second question and answered B as well-
- 169 T: *'a'ṭū l-nās furṣah ḥatā yifakkirūn fī l-ḥal* [Give other students a chance to think about the answer.]
- 170 T: "Do you see the differences?" *'anā wallah qa'adit fatrah 'ashān 'ashūf l-farq* [It took me a while before I could notice / realize the difference.]
- 171 S: This, that! –couple of students together-
- 172 T: *yā salām* "this, that", *'aḥsantū* [Good, "this, that" well done].
- 173 T: *tiftakrū ḥaqqit* "these papers/ those papers". *'aḥsantūm* " Do you still remember that of "these papers/those papers", well done.] So this changes into that.
- 174 S: -student asked low voice-
- 175 T: *'aywah, ṭab'an, hādhā 'akīd* [Yes, Of course, for sure [this is sure]. *ṭab'an* "wants" *tithawwal 'ilā* "wanted"; [Of course "wants" is changed into "wanted"; This confused me a little bit.]
- 176 S: *'ṭwā* [right].
- 177 T: Ok so your answer must be correct, excellent!
- 178 T: The next one "Jerry said I'm studying a lot AT the moment."
- 179 S: umm A *lā lā* [no no] C –students answering together and confused-

- 180 T: C?
 181 S: yes
 182 T: Ha ha ha –answer was incorrect-
 183 S: no no A A
 184 T: *līsh* A? [why A?]
 185 S: Because I was..
 186 T: Ok *'ithan ḥaṭṣīr* A [then it will become A] *shuftī al-farq?* [do you see the difference?] Hessah?? –making sure Hessah understood-
 187 S: *'ih 'ih* [yes yes].
 188 T: *kīf al-waḍ' miyyah miyyah?* [everything good one hundred percent?]
 189 T: *tamām* [good]. Alright “Jerry said he was studying English a lot at that moment”
 190 S: “at that moment”
 191 T: *wallāhī 'innakum mumtāzīn* [I swear! you are really excellent.]
 192 *mā rāḥ yiṣīr fī A's wala B's kulū A+* [there won't be A's or B's you will all have A+?]
 193 S: *'inshā'a Allah, 'inshā'a Allah* [in Gods will]
 194 T: Next one: they said we've lived here a long time.”
 195 S: the last one..
 196 S: -another student- *'istannī daqīqah* [wait a minute]
 197 T: *min jid al-bint takūl daqīqah* [really the girl is telling you one minute]
 198 T: “Jasmine have you finished reading the newspaper?”
 199 T: *al-ḥaqīqah hādhi lissā mā 'akhadhnāhā* [in fact, we haven't taken this yet] anyway think about it..
 200 S: B the answer B
 201 T: *bita 'rifū ḥaqqit* "if" *wa* "whether" "Do you know that of "if" and "whether"?"
 202 S: yes yeah
 203 T: *Khalāṣ ana raḥ 'ajīb lakum zayyihā* [okay I'll give similar to it].
 204 S: *lā lā 'anā mā 'a 'rifhā* [no no I don't know it]
 205 T: *ṭab 'an mā rāḥ tista 'milī 'ayyat* "question mark" [of course, you will not use any "question mark".] because when you are reporting you are saying a sentence.
 206 *ḥatkūlī* [you will say] “he asked me “if” *wallā* [or] “weather”. *ṭayyib* [Ok].
 207 T: Can I ask you a favour?
 208 S: Sure
 209 T: *ḥāwilī 'innuh yikūn 'andik daftar* [Try to have a notebook] , *wa ḥuṭṭī fih 'annī ghiliṭit hunā fī hādihā al-naṣ* [and write in it where you committed mistakes]....
'ashān ti 'rafi "Yes, Yes" [so that you can recognize/know them easily] "Yes, Yes".
 210 T: *mā 'rif 'ankum bas anā 'aṭīh fī nafs al-aghlāṭ* [I don't know about you but I always fall into the same mistake]
 211 S: *'ashān al-kull mirakkiz 'alīhā* [because everybody is focusing on it].
 212 T: "Grammar" *taḥḍīdan malyān 'istithnā'āt yiḥtājluḥ taṭbīqāt wa sama'* [Grammar is particularly full of exceptions, so it needs practice and listening.].
 213 T: *fīh 'ashyā' tuktab wa lākin mā tulfaz* [There are things we write, but we don't pronounce.].
 214 T: *wa zay fikrat 'innuh yibda' al-jumlah bi* "a noun clause that starts with "that"" [and also the idea of starting the sentence with ""a noun clause that starts with "that""].
 215 T: *'alā fikrah 'ams kunt baqra' wāḥidah min* "reviews" *ḥaqqit* "noun clause"; *mithāl* , *'ay mithāl* "what Alex needs is a new job. This is a new job." [By the way, yesterday I was reading one of the "noun clause's" reviews; an example, any example "What Alex needs is a new job. This is a new job."
 216 T: *fīn tiḥdīk hādhy; lā mū fī* "wh-questions"[Where does this benefit you? No, not in the " wh-questions"] ;

- 217 *'aqṣid fī 'ay nū' min al-'as'ilah fī al-'ikhtibārāt; āy nū'* "parts of speech". [I mean in which type of questions in the exams.]
- 218 Which type? yes, "parts of speech"] ; *lammā tishlīhā wihūṭṭī badālhā* "this"[When you remove it and put "this" instead of it],
- 219 *tiqūmī ti'rafī fīn mawqi'hā fī al-jumlah.* [you immediately know its place/location in the sentence.]
- 220 *Fahamtū 'alayyā ḥabāybī lammā 'aqūl* "This is obvious." [Did you understand my dear students?]
- 221 When I say "this is obvious"] *Kalimat "this" mawqi'hā* "subject". . . , [the word "this" is a "subject".]
- 222 ṭayyib [Ok].
- 223 T: *mā hī* "object compliment" *li'annahā jāyah ba'd* "linking verb". [It isn't an "object compliment", because it comes after a "linking verb"]
- 224 *'illī fī* "booklet" *huwwa 'i'ādah li sharḥ* "chapter". [What is in the "booklet" is a repetition of what we have taken in the book]
- 225 *Wa biṣarāḥah* "too much" *'innuh tishrah* 'illy fī *al-kitāb wa 'illy fī* "booklet". . . And honestly, it is too much to explain what is in the book and what is in the "booklet" at the same time.]
- 226 S: Ms *illī fī al-booklit mā akhadhnah ṣaḥ?* [Ms what in the booklet we didn't take it yet, right?]
- 227 T: *illī fī al-booklit huwwa 'i'ādah sharḥ* [what's in the booklet is a repetition] *tamām* [ok]?
- 228 T: *ḥabāybī 'ashūfkum yūm al-'aḥad. ḥanitqābal fī qā'ah thalāthīn.* [My dear students, see you next Sunday. We will meet in classroom "30".]

Class B Recording 2

[In this class, the teacher is discussing an exam and the questions it will include and the distribution of marks on each question.]

- 1 T: *ṭabʿan ʿintū shuftū fī al-ʿilān ʿillī ḥaṭītūh* "We are going to have 25 points" [Of course, you saw in the advertisement I posted that "we are going to have 25 points]
- 2 *muqassamah ʿalā tisa ʿasʿilah.* [Distributed in 9 questions".] Each one is worth four points.
- 3 T: *tamām* [ok]
- 4 S: -student asking not clear-
- 5 T: *ya ʿnī* whether it is a coordinator "conjunctive clause" *ʿaw* "adverbial conjunction" *kulluha ṣaḥīḥah. niqūl* "conjunctive adverb can appear" [I mean whether it is "conjunctive clause "and" adverbial conjunction" both of them are correct. We say "conjunctive adverb can appear"],
- 6 *tamām, ʿidhan ʿish ʿandanā* [Ok, so what we have]
- 7 *ʿandanā wāḥid yarbuṭ wiḥdatīn mutasāwīyatīn* "grammatically" [We have one that connects two equal units "grammatically"]
- 8 *ʿillī huwwā* "coordinating conjunction" *wāḥid yījī fī bidāyat al* " independent clause"
- 9 *wa wāḥid yījī fī bidāyat ʿaw muntaṣaf ʿaw nihāyat āl* "subordinating clause" *aw* "strong clause"
- 10 *wa ʿismuh ... ʿish ʿismuh* "adverbial conjunction" *aw* " conjunctive adverb" [that is " coordinating conjunction"; one comes at the beginning of the "independent clause" and one comes, at the middle, or at the end of the "subordinating clause" or "strong clause" and its name is ""adverbial conjunction" or "conjunctive adverb"....]
- 11 *fa ʿintī ʿish ḥatsawwī* "when you have such sentences" [So you what will you do ""when you have such sentences"]
- 12 *ḥaṭīṭalla ʿī wa tishūfī huwwa marbūṭ bi ʿish wa huwwa jāy fī bidāyat , fī nihāyat, fī muntaṣaf ʿish biḍḍabṭ, ṭayyib.* [You will look and see with what it is connected and whether it comes at the beginning, at the middle, or at the end of what exactly, ok.]
- 13 S: *kullahā fī..?* [all of it is mentioned in..?]
- 14 T: Yes, in the appendices of the booklet. *ṭayyib?* [ok]
- 15 T: Can we all open the appendix C in the booklet?
- 16 T: Do you have it with you?
- 17 T: *Ma ʿākum?* [do you have it with you]
- 18 S: No
- 19 T: *ṭayyib* [its okay]
- 20 T: *māhi mushkila* [no problem] *shūfī zamīlātic fīn fāḥīn* [see with your classmates] *ṭayyib* [ok]
- 21 T: We have the first three types of conjunctions followed by the last one *ellī huwwa* [which is]
- 22 T: conjunctive adverbs or called adverbial conjunctives *kulluha ṣaḥīḥah* [Both are correct]
- 23 T: *yikūl* [it says] 'conjunctive adverbs can appear at the beginning, the middle or the end' of what?
- 24 Abrar?
- 25 S: of an independent clause.
- 26 T: independent clause.
- 27 *Idhan wish ʿindina? ʿindinā wāḥid yarubṭ bīn wiḥdatīn mutasāwīyatīn* 'grammatically' [so. what do we have? we have two equal units grammatically]
- 28 *ellī huwwā* [which is] coordinative conjunction.

- 29 T: *wāḥid yījī fī bidāyait al* “dependent clause” [one comes at the beginning of a dependent clause]
- 30 *elli howwwa mīn?* [which is] subordinate conjunction.
- 31 *Wa wāḥid yījī fī muntaṣaf 'aw nihāyit* an independent clause, or a strong clause [one can come in the middle or the end of an independent clause, or a strong clause].
- 32 T: *'ish 'ismū?* Ashwak? [what is it called Ashwak?]
- 33 S: *'ismū* adverbial conjunction or conjunctive adverb. [Its called conjunction or conjunctive adverb].
- 34 T: So what will you do, first you see if it's between two equal sentences then it is a coordinative clause, if it's at the beginning of a weak .. subordinate. If it is an independent clause then it is a..
- 35 S: adverbial conjunction.
- 36 S *wīn* adverbial? [Where is the adverbial?] –other student-
- 37 T: *hādhī hiyya 'ākhīr wāḥdah 'anā batkallim 'anhā yā 'nūd.* [This one, the last one I am talking about, Anoud.]
- 38 *tamām?* [Ok?]
- 39 T: "Next question" *fīh 'arba' jumal* “types of clause”. [“Next question” contains/has four sentences.] The next question is worth two points *fīh 'arba' jumal* [contains four sentences].
- 40 T: You will have a complete sentence with an underline part, you will have to decide whether it is an independent or a dependent clause. *Tamām?* [Understood?]
- 41 T: What would you do? You will take this part ...
- 42 S: and replace it with
- 43 T: *lā* [no] you don't replace it with anything.
- 44 *'ihnā 'illy binḥaddid* "whether it is a weak or strong clause". [No, we determine "whether it is a weak or strong clause".]
- 45 T: Then you take it and put it alone, if it express a complete idea or not.
- 46 *li'annuh 'ihnā 'ittafaqnā 'innuh* "a clause has two things". *'illy hummā* "a verb and a subject". [Because we have agreed that "a clause has two things" which are "a verb and a subject".]
- 47 S: The underlined part?
- 48 T: Yes, the underlined part. *mū kull al-jumlah* "only the underlined part". “Not the whole sentence, only the underlined part”.]
- 49 T: Then you will have four different sentences, you will have to choose the best type whether it will be a simple, compound a complex or a compound complex. Four sentences two points.
- 50 T: Ok the next question *'amilnā 'alīhā* practice *kathīr* [we have done lots of practice on it]
- 51 *'ih kān yā Sārā?* [what was it Sara?]
- 52 T: We underline the noun clause in the sentences.
- 53 You ONLY underline the noun clause *yā shabāb* [guys] please!
- 54 *lā trūhū 'ilā 'ākhīr al-jumlah* [don't underline till the end of the sentences] *ḥataṭer kul al'alamah* [the whole mark will go away].
- 55 T: "Question 5 is compound question." *'ish ya 'nī* "compound questions",
- 56 *wa kif ḥanākhudh* "practice" *'alīh.* ["question 5 is compound question." What do "compound questions" mean? And how can we take "practice" on them?]
- 57 T: Compound means it has two parts *tayyib* [ok] the first part, you have a question or a sentence or a statement you have to change it into a noun clause. *tayyib* [ok?]
- 58 S: uhm *nafs 'illī sawīnah?* [just like what we have done?]
- 59 T: *'aywah* [yes]. *jumlah 'aw su'āl* "you change it" [a sentence and a question and "you change it".] ... *shuftū mithāl mithāl...323* [did you see the

- example...the example 323]... *lā mū ṣaḥīḥah*..... 'ay jumlah 'ādiyyah.....mathalan
- 60 No, it's not correct... any normal sentence...for example
- 61 T: *khallīnā nishūf ṣafhat 375* [Let's see page 375]... 'illī biyyīkī 'illī huwwa fi al-naṣ [what come in the exam will be what is in the text]..... 'tsh ḥatkūn al-muhimmah ḥaggitik "you change it into a noun clause".. [And what will be your role? It will be "you change it into a noun clause."]
- 62 T: 'illī hiyyah mathalan "clauses with embedded questions".
- 63 "When will you start a new job?" [For example, "clauses with embedded questions". "when will you start a new job?"]
- 64 *ḥaṭhawwilīha 'ilā* "She wanted to know when will I start my new job". You will change it into "she wanted to know when will I start my new job"
- 65 T: *lāḥiẓī 'innuh hādhy al-qā'idāt ḥatijīkī fi su'ālayn mukhtalifīn* [Please notice that these rules will come in two different questions]
- 66 *ḥatijīkī marrah* "change into the noun clause" *wa marrah ḥatijīkī fi* "identifying the errors", *ṭayyib*. [the first one will be "change into the noun clause" and the second one will be in "identifying the errors", Ok.]
- 67 T: *khalāṣ kidah 'amilnā al-juz'iyah al-'ūlā*. [we have already completed the first part.]
- 68 *al-'ān kif 'aḥawwilhā 'ilā* "complex sentence". [And now how I can change it into a "complex sentence".]
- 69 *takhayyalī 'innuh al-jumlah 'illy 'iāhā su'āl wa qultillik* "change it into a noun clause then add an independent clause to the complex sentence." [Imagine that the sentence I will bring in the exam is a question and I ask you to "change it into a noun clause then to add an independent clause to the complex sentence."]
- 70 *ṭayyib*. [ok.] "complex" *ya'nī 'tsh?* ... *ya'nī* "dependent" *zā'id* "independent" *wa hādihā 'illy ḥatqūlīh fi al-'ikhtibār* [What does "complex" mean?]
- 71 It means "dependent" plus "independent" and this is what you will say in the exam.]
- 72 *wa 'alīh 'arba' darajāt, ṭayyib*. [and this will worth four points, OK]
- 73 T: "She wanted to know when I will start my new job" Is this a dependent or independent part?
- 74 S: Independent.
- 75 T: Independent clause. How would I change it to the complex sentences?
- 76 S: Add dependent.
- 77 T: *yā salām 'alīkī* [well done]
- 78 T: "Independent clauses" 'tsh *bidāyithā tkiūn* 'tsh *nū'* "conjunction" *ḥaqqithā, ṭayyib*. [What is the beginning of the "independent clauses" and what is the type of its "conjunction"]
- 79 S: a subordinating
- 80 T: A subordinating!! 'aḥsanty [well done].
- 81 T: A subordinating conjunction starts a dependent clause", *ṭayyib. fīn nuḥuṭṭuh ..* "beginningend ...doesn't matter" , *al-muhim yiṣīr lahā ma'nā*. [Ok. Where should we put it ..." beginningend ...doesn't matter", but the most important thing, is that, it must have meaning.]
- 82 T: 'tsh *al-fikrah 'illī 'iḥnā nibghāhā* "we want to know how you act. You know how to change things." [What we want to know is that "we want to know how you act. You know how to change things."]
- 83 T: *fī kull al-'aḥwāl 'intī rāḥ 'iḥuṭṭī qā'idatāin*. . [In all circumstances, you will apply only two rules.] *Al-'ūlā hiyyā taḥwīl jumlah 'aw su'āl 'alā* "noun clause" [The first one is to change a sentence or a question into a "noun clause"]
- 84 'tsh *ḥatsawwī* [what will you do] .. *ba'dīn tirūḥī 'alīhā kullahā taḥuṭīlhā* "dependent clause" *biḥayth tiṣīr* "independent", [after that you go through all sentences again and you add to them a "dependent clause", so that it become "independent"]

- 85 *ṭab'an. wa 'ay jumlah 'intī ḥaṭḥutīlhā ḥatkūn* "independent" *wa ḥaṭḥutīlhā* "dependent part" *wa ḥaṭḥutīlhā* , of course. And any sentence you want to change is "independent" and you add a "dependent part" and change it.]
- 86 T: *widḥat al-fikrah hādhy. ṭayyib nirūḥ lallī ba'duh* .[Is this idea clear? Ok, Let's go to the next one/thing?]
- 87 T: *'aqra' lukm al-su'āl?* [shall I read the question?]
- 88 S: *'īh* [yes]
- 89 T: Ok "turn.... *'isma'ū 'īsh ḥaykūl!* [Listen to the question].
- 90 T: Turn each of the following statements and questions.... *Li'no 'iḥnā bingḥaṭṭī kull al-qā'dāt* [because we are covering all the grammar rules], into a noun clause, and then add it to a main clause to form a complex sentence.
- 91 T: *ṭab'an 'anā khuft illī yilakhbaṭkum huwwā al* "main clause" [of course I am afraid what might confuse you is the word main clause]
- 92 T: main clause *ma'nā 'innū* [which means] you can add anything that is dependent *la'annū 'intī 'ārfā al complex lāzim lahā* [because you know that a complex needs] strong plus weak to form complex sentences. Ok.
- 93 T: "Question 5", *'andikū mushkilah fī "coordination" "tanasuk" hunā fī al-faṣl fīh mushkilat* "coordination". ["question 5" you have a problem in "coordination", here in this class there is a "coordination" problem.]
- 94 *wa hādḥā al-su'āl khamas jumal kull wāḥidah 2.5* . [This question consists of 5 sentences, each of which is out of 2.5 marks.]
- 95 T: "Question 6" change into the infinitive.. you have five different statements. we have practiced it. So five sentences you change them into the infinitive. *ṭayyib* [ok?]
- 96 T: "Question 7", *marrah sahl wa 'illī sawwīnā 'alīh* "practice" *malyūn marrah*. ["Question 7" is so easy and we did a million "practice" on it.]
- 97 *hādḥā sahl 'akhadhnāhā fī al-bidāyah* . [it is easy, we have discussed this previously.]
- 98 T: *tiftakrū* "reported speech"... *tijīkī jumlah* "you change".... *ṭab'an ḥatijīkī* "choices" *tamām fa 'intī* "what would you do?" [Do you still remember the "reported speech". You will have a sentence and "you change"; of course, you will have "choices" and "what will you do?"]
- 99 T: *wāḥad min 'iḥnān: 'idhā kān 'indik waqt kāfī ghayyirī al-jumlah thumma dawwirī 'alyh fī al-'ikhtiyārāt*. [You will do one of two things: if you have time, change the sentence into the reported speech, then find it in the choices]
- 100 *'idhā mā kān 'andik waqt 'uq'udī qārnī bīnhā wa bīn al-khayārāt al-mawjūdah* [but if you don't have time, compare between the sentence and the choices and then try to guess the correct answer.]
- 101 *al-ḥilū 'innuh 'īsh 'andik* "each sentence has two choices only", *'ikhtiyāryin bas*. [The best thing about this question is that "each sentence has two choices only; two choices only."]
- 102 S: *'ahā ya 'nī mā rāḥ niktibḥā?* [oh so we are not going to be writing anything?]
- 103 T: *Lā* [no] you will choose the best reported speech.
- 104 T: "Question 8" *ḥani'mal 'alīh* "practice" *al-'ān* "identifying errors". .["Question 8" we will do some practice on it right now. It is "identifying errors"
- 105 *'īsh ḥatkūn 'andik ḥatkūn 'andik al-jumlah ḥaṭṭalli'ī fīhā* "two errors" *ba'dīn* "two errors" *ḥaṭṣallīḥihā bi* "two corrections". You will have a sentence, and you will find out "two errors", after that you will do "two corrections".]
- 106 T: *kull jumlah ḥati'malī 'alīhā 'arba' 'ashyā*. "You will identify the errors", *bithuṭṭī 'alīhā dawwāyir kidhā ba'dīn* "you will correct them what will you have? [For each sentence, you will do four things. You will find the errors, circle them, and then "you will correct them."]

- 107 T: *zay mathalan al-'aṣ'ilah haqqit* "yes/no questions" *tamāman* "you can choose if or whether". ["exactly as the "yes/no questions" "you can choose if or whether".]
- 108 T: *fanty fī hādhī al-ḥalah tikhtārī 'illī tabghī wa mū lāzim titqayyadī bishay' mu'ayyan, tamām.* [in this case you choose whatever you want, and you don't need to restrict yourself to one choice or something in particular, ok.]
- 109 T: *'ākhīr su'āl , su'āl tis'ah. 'arba' 'ikhtiyārāt kull wāḥidah 'alīh nuss.* [The last question is question 9, each item has four choices each part is half a mark.]
- 110 T: You will have to choose the correct form of the verb ex: watch *wallā* [or] watches, teach *wallā* [or] teaches, go *wallā* [or] goes.. According to what?
- 111 T: According to the type of the noun clause...
- 112 S: According to the urgency..
- 113 T: *ṭwā!* [yes!] *yā salām 'alīkum* [well done]
- 114 T: Just what Al'anoud said 'it depends on the type of the noun clause, if it is an urgency you will have to choose the subjunctive mood of the verb otherwise you can just go for a regular one.
- 115 S: *'ish ya 'nī* MCQ's? [What does MCQ's mean?]
- 116 T: MCQ's [means] multiple choice questions.
- 117 T: "Now let's practice." "I don't know where are my friends..."
- 118 T: *banāt ma 'lish lā tijawbūn biṣūt 'ālī* [please girls do not answer loudly].
- 119 T: Ok.. *Jāwbū kul wāḥidah laḥālḥā wa ba 'dīn nināqish al-ḥālāt* ["Ok Please answer the exercise individually and after that we will discuss your answers.]
- 120 S: *ṭh ṭh* [yes yes]
- 121 T: *mā rāḥ 'ajīb jumlah ṣaḥīḥah wa 'aḡullakum* "surprise" *mā fīh* "errors". [I will never bring a correct sentence and say "surprise" there are no errors.]
- 122 S: -student group work discussing in Arabic-
- 123 S: "I don't know where my friends are, and if they have gone home or not"
- 124 T: *'ish nū' al-jumlah?* [What type of sentences is it?]
- 125 S: Compound.
- 126 T: *'ish zaman al-jumlah?* [What tense is this sentences?]
- 127 S: Past! ... Present!!
- 128 T: *līsh?* [Why] Have?! *'ashān mawjūdā* "had" *lāzim niḡuṭ* "have"?? [Because there is had we have to put have?]
- 129 S: *Lā Lā!!* [no no], "and they went home?"
- 130 S: *mā tiṣlah* [it's not right!]
- 131 T: *Lā tighyirū al-fi'l* [don't change the verb], lets underline the errors.
- 132 S: "my friends are"
- 133 T: *'aḡsantū* [well done], *līsh?* [Explain why]..
- 134 S: *li'annū mā tiṣlāḥ tikūn su'āl* [because it can't be a question]
- 135 T: Yes! When we are creating a noun clause we should never use the question form. *Tamām* [ok]
- 136 T: *al-thānyah* *hādhī marrah saḡlah* *al-thānyah marrah saḡlah* ... [the second one it is so easy the second one is so easy..]
- 137 S: *ṭayyib nifakkir qābl* [OK, we want to think first]
- 138 T: Okay *fakkirū qabl* [okay think first]
- 139 T: "My parents said they are travelling tomorrow" *Kul jumlah fīhā* "two errors" [Every sentence has two errors]
- 140 T: "because of said" *ṣārat* [became] "they were" *Tamām* [ok] "are and tomorrow" ..
- 141 T: *sārah bitqūl līsh* "tomorrow". [Sarah said why did we use "tomorrow?..."]
- 142 T: *tawwnī kunt baḡūlhā* [I have just said that] *'indanā thalāth 'ashyā'* *binnisbah lizzaman* [we have three cases with regard to the tense]

- 143 *lammā yikūn 'andanā fī al-jumlah al-'asāsiyyah* "yesterday" *niḥawwilhā wa bitṣīr* "the day before; the previous day". [When we have "yesterday" in the main sentence, it becomes "the day before; the previous day"]
- 144 *lammā yikūn* "tomorrow" *bitṣīr* "the day after; the following day". [when we have "tomorrow", it becomes "the day after; the following day"]
- 145 *lammā yikūn* "now" *bitṣīr* "then", *fī dhālika al-ḥīn*. [and when we have "now", it becomes "then"....at that time.]
- 146 T: *ṭab shūfū hā al-jumlah* [look at this sentence] "it is known that a student brings a new book to school." "This is an anticipatory sentence" it becomes "it is known that a student brings a new book to school."
- 147 T: " *līsh* [why] "brings" *wa līsh mā 'istakhdamnā* [why didn't we use] "subjunctive form of a verb".....
- 148 T: *li'annuh mā fīhā*[because there is no.....] *'aḥsantī*. [well done] *Wa hunā 'ntī mumkin tighayirī biṭarīqatīn* [and here you can change in two ways] "you can change the verb brings"
- 149 T: *tiqūm tiṣīr munāsibah libidāyat al-jumlah* [and in this way it becomes suitable to the beginning of the sentence] *'aw ṭalamā hādhā*. [And because this is] "this is a subjunctive form of the verb. you can change this sentence as "it is crucial".
- 150 T: *fihimtū 'alay ṭayyib... bas wiḍḥat al-fikrah ...*". [Did you understand? Ok ... the idea is clear now.]

Class B Recording 3

- 1 T: We replace a noun with an adjective clause we replace the subject of the second sentence *bim 'nā* [which means], You usually have two sentences you start with the first one
- 2 *b 'deen* [then], you replace the subject of the second sentence with the adjective clause
- 3 *'afwn mish* [excuse me not] adjective clause
- 4 *aşlan hiyyā* [it's] adjective clause, you replace the subject with,
- 5 *shusmah* [what's called ?]
- 6 S: Relative pronoun?
- 7 T: Yes
- 8 S: Restrictive?
- 9 T: "*la la*" [no no], relative pronoun, *mithal* [example], 163 Please, Table 4.4
- 10 T: The sentence says The man was named Stevens, he found those ,
- 11 *ħute kaħt taħt kilmt* he, *al-thanyā* [underline the word he, the second] . We replace this [he]
- 12 *tab 'an* [of course] he is subject pronoun, we replace it with the word what who or that.
- 13 In this case when we were changing, when we were substituting an adjective clause to replace the subject we can use either for person, we can use either 'who or that', who is preferred the word who is always preferred *tigdri tist 'mlī el ethneen* [you can use both of them,] *laken yufadal esti 'mal klemāt?* [but it is preferred to use?]
- 14 S: *who*
- 15 T: When it's an animal or thing, we can use 'which or that' in this case 'that' is preferred, *ya 'nī ti 'mle l-ī bay'n -lqusīn hyā l-khiyār l-'aqal*, [which means you should always put between brackets the weaker choice.]
- 16 S: *al-khiyār l-ad 'af* [the weaker choice]
- 17 T: If you asked to change something the easiest way doing it would be to insert the word [that] *shūfū tb 'an hiya mshroħa fog l-gadwa* [look at the top of the table relative pronouns [*fī 'andik magmū 'it nuqat ana ħaħa 'alay'ha hinā bi l-akhħar* [it's already discussed in many points which is coloured in green] *'andī 'ilī hiyya foog l-gadwal 'andī 'anā ħaħa 'ikħtişārħā* ,
- 18 Pronouns who which or that replace the subject of the second sentence *b 'deen* [then], 'who' or 'that' referred to people 'which' and 'that' referred to animals and things.
- 19 T: Nonrestrictive sentences we agreed that we cannot use which word which pronoun?
- 20 S: That!
- 21 T: *'aħsantum, yā salām 'alīkom, tamām*, [You are so good], *tab 'an 'iħnā 'ish hanasawwy -lyūm*, [so, what are we going to do today] *raħ nirāg ' 'ala -lka 'dat* . [we will be discussing the rules] *wī nug 'ud sā 'a kida nisawwī practices* [and then do some practice]. Excellent!
- 22 T: "Who knew that French people could be so untidy?"
- 23 From the simple sentence, to change these sentences into complex sentences, look at these, simple sentences or complex sentences so, when you merge two sentences into one they become complex sentence.
- 24 T: The man was named Stevens and in between you will insert the adjective clause.
- 25 T: *ba 'dīn* [then], Not restrictive we can use who or which only, so I read about Stevens he was a very interesting character in this case we will use the *'tsh* [what] , comma, to show that this piece of information is an additional one
- 26 T: I read about Stevens comma, who was a very interesting character, *şah yā 'nood?* [Is it right Anood?]

- 27 S: Yes, “I read “I read about Stevens, who was a very interesting character”
- 28 T: Next rule, next page 165 [4.5] , ‘clauses with whose’ -we have noticed before in table 4.4 that, both sentences start with subject *ṣah?* [right]?
- 29 T: Here in this case the first one starts with a subject the second one starts with a possessive pronoun, *ṭayyib? 'illī hiya 'ish* [which are?]
- 30 'there, his, hers, its', in all cases for all people you use ‘whose’, in all cases restrictive and none restrictive sentences, you always use the word whose, you can't do without it *tamām*, [all right],
- 31 When you need to change to restrictive clause ‘*a fawn* [excuse me],
- 32 sentence, you will insert the word whose and if it's not restrictive you will add the comma and the word whose as well for everything people things and animals.
- 33 *māhad yigūl* [nobody say] which, this is a possessive case. when do we use whose?
- 34 S: When you have a sentence starting with possessive pronoun, it's hers, theirs, and ours and so on.
- 35 Phone alarm ,,.,.,., trrr ,trrrr
- 36 T: *ṣabāḥ al-khīr yā jamā'a* [good morning people!]
- 37 Students laugh due to staying awake at night, and the alarm just rang now!
- 38 T: So 4.4, 4.5 do you see the difference now?
- 39 S: Yes
- 40 T: Between 4.4 and 4.5 in 4.5 the second sentence starts with a possessive pronoun on 167, it's, ' *ish al-ka'dah ḥagit'hā* [what is its rules.]
- 41 T: Always starts with the anticipatory it *ma'nāhā 'in' mā yīgī ba'dahā lāzim yikūn* [which means what comes after it must be]
- 42 A singular form of the verb, it is “ *wallā* “ or , it was *ḥattā law kān l-shay l-binit'kallim 'annuh plural* [even if were talking about plural] , *ya'nī mathalan* , [for example] “it was my students who are playing in the..”
- 43 S: Who are having
- 44 T: So the anticipatory it we use it in all cases singular plural, right. ... What change is the verb within the adjective clause “*huwwa lliy 't'ghay'ar* [which changed.]
- 45 It was my students who were playing “*walla* “ [or], who are getting the full mark “ *fa 'hna bins'ta'mil el plural* “ [so, we use plural form] within the adjective clause we cannot use it with the anticipatory it
- 46 “ *ma nigūl* it are *mathalan walla* it were “ [we don't say it are for example or it were], are as simple as easy as that.
- 47 T: *Tmām, 'nūd ... 'nūd* “ “*Tamām yā shabāb?* [Is everything ok? Ahood, Anood? Alright girls?]
- 48 T: In both cases in the case of sentence and forming a question look at the second part.
- 49 An environmental disaster whose, how we could say it, was it, was it, “*li'annu*” [because], in this case I'm using the anticipatory it, so I have to start.
- 50 S: It was
- 51 T: Next one please let's move on to the object, any questions or comments? Aright,
- 52 T: substituting an object “*afwan*” excuse me! Substituting an object with an adjective clause.
- 53 T: In the cases of objects we use a number of relative pronouns such as on page 171 we use [whom, which and that] the most favourable one is the word [whom].
- 54 S: Because it is only found with the objective.
- 55 T: Yes! *La'* [No].

- 56 T: It's most preferred when we are using formal form of English. You can say whom which or that in cases of animals and objects and things but whom is the most preferred form.
- 57 T: Examples, when we say whom is acceptable which and that “*ma nāha* [which means,] you can use all of these pronouns to form different forms of adjective clauses, *tamām* [alright?]
- 58 S: ok
- 59 T: Let's go back to page 172 please it's much clearer. Restrictive whom or *that* *Shūfi kam fā'il 'an'dik likul wāhda* [look how many subject for each one].
- 60 “The artists lived centuries ago, histories credited for those statues.”
- 61 You have a number of alternatives, all of them are acceptable, are accepted [the artists whom, the artists who, the artist that] *tamām* [ok!]
- 62 T: and you can also omit Take out all the pronouns you can do without, all are accepted that or which in the case of animals and objects the figure of the
- 63 I like this figure the most the figure which I like the most we are talking about an objectis of course , you can do with that or without the figure I like the most is *tig'dary tis'ta'milthā 'aw tishlītha fī kul l-ḥālāt saḥīḥa* [you could use it or remove it, in both cases correct]
- 64 most probably will get such sentences in either forming a sentence or connecting a form.
- 65 T: Next case non restrictive sentences, *tab'an* [of course], these are the restrictive
- 66 *'ish tit'waqa'ī hayit'ghayyar bil* nonrestrictive [what do you expect to be different in nonrestrictive?]
- 67 T: We will do without the word ‘that’ we cannot use the word ‘that’.
- 68 T: In non restrictive sentences when we are talking about people we use the word ‘whom’, ‘when’ it's about things which don't forget the commas please, just to show that this is none restrictive sentence, *tamām* [ok!]
- 69 Replacement of objects in general in the previous case we substituted the subject with the subject with the clause, here we are substituting the object with a clause, in the next case we were substituting an object of preposition *'ish lhāla hathī l-lī hyyā ḥrūf l-jar* [when prepositions are used.]
- 70 T: *tayyib* [ok]
- 71 S: Yes
- 72 T: The same case applies restrictive sentences we use ‘whom’ and ‘that’ non restrictive we use ‘whom’ and ‘which’, *tayyib* [ok]
- 73 S: We can use ‘which’ for the restrictive?
- 74 T: Yes, of course! But you can't use ‘that’
- 75 T: What is the difference here, the only difference is that in this object in this particular case the object is coming after a preposition is preceded By a preposition *mithālahā* [for example] the Greeks believed in them.
- 76 T: In them is?
- 77 S: Preposition
- 78 T: A prepositional place
- 79 T: What are we changing here, we are changing the word ‘them’ into, ‘whom’ or ‘who’ or ‘that’
- 80 S: Where?
- 81 T: Page 173
- 82 T: *shūfī, khallīnā niṭalla'hā biltaf'sīl* [look! Let's focus on it in more detail].
- 83 T: The first sentence the Gods are depicted in the statues *l-Gum'la hādhi tif'dal zay mā hiyyā* [this sentence will remain unchanged] *bas hanifsil'hā lammā, nidakkhal al-adjective clause* [it will be just separated when we put the adjective clause].....

- 84 *l-gumlā l- thānya heyyā l-sar fihā l-tagħ'yīr* [the second sentence will be changed,] *fy kol l-aḥ'wāl shoftū min l-bidāyā* [any way we noticed from the beginning]
- 85 *Imma kunna nit'kallim* ‘[and the replacement of subjects when we talked about replacement of subjects] *l- gum'lh 'Thānyā hiyyā 'llī bin'dakḥḥl 'aly'hā tagħ'yīrāt hinā* [we just change the second sentence here]
- 86 also *l-gum'lā l-thānyā hiyya -llī binidakhkhal 'alyhā l-tagħ'yīrāt* [please notice that, in every example we just change the second sentence while the first remains unchanged.]
- 87 T: The Greeks believed in them “*innū kif ḥaṭa 'raf l-gum'lā hāthī hatinatbiq 'ala* objects *walla* objects of prepositions *tale' fī nhayet l-gumlā shūfy 4.7* [so, how will we know if this sentence will follow objects or objects of prepositions rules, look to 4.7 .]
- 88 T: The artist lives centuries ago *l-gumlā l-thānyā* [the second sentence] histories credited them for the statues.
- 89 T: “*tayyib*” [ok?]
- 90 S: Yes
- 91 T: There is no preposition phrase in them *l-thānyā* in them *wallā shūfī taḥtahā qa 'dit* which or that *l-gumlā l-thānyā tin'tihī bi at the museum* [the second one or look below for the which or that rule, the second sentence ends by at the museum]
- 92 So them being people *wallā* [or] statues in this case the we can substitute the word ‘whom’ ‘who’ or ‘that’ or ‘nothing.’
- 93 T: You must have the same form in all cases sometimes you can start with it in some other cases you can finish the phrase with it. *Khalaṣ 'āḥir shay* [finally last thing]
- 94 T: 175 rule [4.9] “clauses with who’s” again this is the easiest case in position case it may replace possessing in the object or the object of preposition *shūftū hināk fī* [do you remember?]
- 95 T: In replacement of subject it can replace subjects as people animals and things in restrictive and none restrictive in all cases here the same thing applies for only possessive case “*ya 'nī lāzim yikūn 'andī ḥālit milkyyā*[I have to find a case of ownership] *wi ba 'dīn aḍīf'hā 'alā kūll l-ḥālāt* [and then add it to all the cases],
- 96 T: replacement of objects, replacement of object prepositions people thing animals every thing
- 97 T: *Khallīna n'shūf mithāl* [let’s see some examples] about simple sentences “One of Greece’s greatest philosophers was Socrates, plateau could Socrates’s ideas in writing
- 98 *Fīn 'il* possessive case *hinā* [where is possessive case here]? S: Socrates’s ideas
- 99 T: *ṭab'an* “ for sure, we already mentioned him in the first sentence *'ashān kidā* [that’s why], we referred to him with the word whose one of Greece greatest philosophers was Socrates ‘whose’ ktha [so on],, “*tamām* “ okay !
- 100 T: “*wāḍḥah?* [Is it clear?]
- 101 S: yes!
- 102 T: “*al-ḥīn 'ihnā khallaṣna, wi māshyīn ma' l-class al-tānya,* [we have just finished and we reached the other class] if we moved up faster there won’t be a problem.] Side talks
- 103 T: Practice number 2 in page 158 please I’m very interested in this practice it’s something very similar to something you are going to have.

- 104 Let's agree on something, who we decide whether this is a restrictive or not restrictive sentence restrictive when the person the thing or the place we are talking about is unknown *nakirah* [unknown] *Ya 'nī lammā 'agūl* [when I say],
- 105 "I saw the man", *y'ni esh rḥ yegi wrāha* [will be followed by] restrictive.
- 106 T: I don't know the man *fa lāzim 'a'arrafo bilma 'lūma 'illy 'anā ḥdīf'ha* [I have to know him by the information which I am already adding], "I saw the man who ate the cupcake."
- 107 *Hinā mā ag'dar bikul l-'aḥwāl 'innī 'akhallīha* [I can't make it nonrestrictive case in any situation].
- 108 S: *ya 'nī 'anā 'aḥuṭ bibālī 'innū* [I put in my mind] *'idhā ḥadhaf'tahā 'adī wi 'idhā ḥaṭīt'hā 'adī 'ashān 'a'raf'hā?* [if I leave it's correct and if I omit it is it correct either?]
- 109 T: *ḥabīb'tī* [uh! Dear] *hādhī kull wāḥda wi 'alāmhā bisrāḥa!* [it depends on how you study] *Bass 'innū ni'raf sawa Kānit nakira 'aw ma'rifa sahla marra* [but in general to know if it's known or unknown is totally easy!]
- 110 T: My biology teacher who won the [*madrī mīn*] prize, *madrī 'īsh madrī 'īsh*", etc,
- 111 T: A teacher, *mah'nā 'ar'fīn huwwa* teacher *mīn walla 'īsh bilzabṭ* [we don't know exactly who he is] bs, *lamma gulnā* [but when we said] Professor Jones we know him, so it would be nonrestrictive case
- 112 T: *ya 'nī 'idhā ruḥ't 'anduhum min al-su'ūdiyya fil'jāmi'a* [if I went from KSA to USA to the university] *'anduhum wi gul'til'hum* [and asked about him] Please show me where Professor Johns is, they are going to direct me to him!
- 113 T: *nishūf al-wājib ma' ba'd, yallā bisur'a wāḥid* let's see the homework fast, number one. The place *'īsh nū'hā*, [what kind?]
- 114 S: Nonrestrictive, mmm *'ās'fa*, [uh sorry sorry] restrictive
- 115 T: *'ith'nayn* [second] we all agree that in nonrestrictive sentences we can take out the information and won't affect the sentence.
- 116 S: *Saḥīḥ* [right!]
- 117 T: "*Walism billugha al-'arabiyya gummal e'tiraḍiyya*, [it's called in Arabic interceptor phrase] *tiḍīf ma'na eḍāfī* [in which it could add an additional meaning to the phrase] *lakīn mā ti'athar 'ala al-gummal ḥīn ezālithā* [but once it was removed won't affect it] *Lākin fī hādhi al-7ālāt kif 'a'raf* ,, [but in this case how could I know the difference?]
- 118 T: For example: The place where the pyramid stands and the plat... of visa where the pyramid stand *Bass 'ammā 'agūl* [I don't say], the man, the place, *tiṣīr* [it will become] *restrictive li'annu* [because] it's unknown
- 119 S: *Sā'a wāḥ'da wa nuṣ* [its 1:30 pm right now!]
- 120 T: Number two "my brother "wāḥ'da tīgūl one brother *wa al-thāniya tīgūl* I have three brothers [one will say one brother and in another case three brothers.]
- 121 T: My only brother," *ma'rūf'idhan* [it's known] so it is non restrictive
- 122 T: *'andī*, Plat.. of visa, *ma'rūf* [it's known]
- 123 T: Number three?
- 124 S: Restrictive
- 125 T: "*Yā salām, 'ashān 'īsh Yā 'asīl?*" uh! Good because why Aseel?
- 126 S: *'ashān ma'rūf* [because it's known], mmmmm, non-restrictive
- 127 T: Number three the first choice is what, the famous Temple of Careen near a town
- 128 S: Restrictive, restrictive
- 129 T: *gūl'il'hum yā bin'tī 'alimīhum* [tell them dear, teach them!]
- 130 S: *'anā 'ar'fāhum bas e'tlakhbat be* restrictive *wil* non restrictive [I know them but I get confused in restrictive and non-restrictive ones.]
- 131 T: *māḥada galik tilakh'bitī* [nobody told you to be confused!]

- 132 S: *hiyya nakira*? [Is it unknown?]
 133 T: near a town, “*ya ’nī nakira*” [which means],” *ya ’nī*” restrictive.
 134 T: Number four is extremely easy.
 135 S: Nonrestrictive
 136 T: Nonrestrictive, because the man’s name is known.
 137 T: *Al-thāniya* [the second one] is restrictive because he said the man
 138 S: *ḥil’wah ṣarāḥah* [honestly it’s really good]
 139 T: *fī ’andik su’āl raḥ yikūn* choose if these are restrictive or nonrestrictive
 140 *wi su’āl jumal wi mmmm manī fāk’ra* [there will be a question about choosing
 which one is a restrictive and a non-restrictive sentence], also a question about
 sentences, and something else but I don’t remember.

Class B Recording 4

- 1 T: sentence
- 2 T: This girl, hm non-restrictive, non-restrictive, these girls non-restrictive ...although I am using the word girl *ma bgūl mathlan Magda wlla 'hood wla 'nood* [am not saying for example Magda, 'hood or 'nood] am not saying the name still ...
- 3 T: “because of using a demonstrative; this, that, these, those I am appointing something that is already known” *tmām* [okay!]
- 4 T: so when I say: “these books” *m 'natā bhaddid 'innu* these books [That means I am specifying these books] *tmām* [okay!]
- 5 T: a known ... aaa ... yes a known subject ...so this sentence must be what ? non-restrictive *fahmin 'lyya* [understood?] ... ok ?
- 6 S:*nḥuṭ faṣla gabl ?* [Should we put a comma before?]
- 7 T: Yes yes
- 8 T: *m 'natā* [that means] in this case, if you are asked to punctuate the sentence you will use commas these books (comma) which were giving the cost slight ready (comma) need to be counted, ok ?
- 9 T:*Khalāṣ widhit 'ālfikra* [is it clear?]
- 10 T: *ṭayyib* ,, *kmān* what ? [good, what else?] *ṭayyib?*[good]
- 11 T: ok ... on page 176 please ... page 176 ... please pay attention
a. this rule is only dedicated to restrictive clauses. only restrictive clauses.
- 12 T:*shūfi lammā ygūllik* [look, when he says to you] superlative and adjective clauses
- 13 T: *'āwwil ṣaṭar tahtahā 'ish ygūl* [what's written in the 1st line under it?]
Restrictive adjective clauses often follow superlative construction yes? so *'ish m 'nā hādhā al-klām* [what does it mean ?]
- 14 T: Whenever you see a sentence containing a superlative form this is ... what type of sentence?
- 15 S: Restrictive sentence
- 16 T: Restrictive sentence, “ṭayyib” [good].
- 17 T: When do you expect to see it in the question and identify type of the clause of adjective clauses *tatawq t 'innik mumkin tlagīhā hinā* [you could suspect to find it here]
- 18 T- *aw momkin tlagīha fe su' al* [or you could find it in a question] *mathlan 'inni aḥuttalik eyāha w b 'din 'ish 'agūllik* [for example, to put it and ask you]
- 19 T: these are non-restrictive clauses, true or false *hatgūlilī* [you will say] false. Because the superlative form always connects to type of restrictive clauses. *tmām* [ok?]
- 20 S: “ṭayyib” [good]
- 21 T: Let's have a look *'ish ygūl hinā* [what does he say here] *ygūl* [he says] “adjective clause can be used to identify superlative ... *gulnāhā* [said before] ‘the’ is generally used with the nouns which have been modified” ṭab 'n [sure]
- 22 T: ṭab 'n [for sure] we already know ṭab 'n *t 'rfu hadhi ḥāga min zmān* [you knew this in the past]
- 23 T: When you are using the superlative form you need to use “the” the greatest, the fastest the most handsome *mathalan* [as example] *wlla* [or] the most beautiful.
- 24 T: Ok so when you see a superlative form, this is a restrictive sentence. Alright?
- 25 T: *'amthila* [examples]: several of the greatest statues that were originally in the bal ,, *'afwn* [excuse me] in the Parthenon are now in London. *Tmām* [ok]
- 26 T: So, where is the adjective clause *hiyya* [it is] the superlative form the greatest statues that were originally in the Parthenon.
- 27 T: ok *nafs 'ālshay* [the same] fifteen of *b 'dīm yīgī* [then it comes] superlative adjective clause... the most important statue that were used

- 28 T: How would you make a sentence? *hatgīkī belṭarīga altāliya 'illi hiyyā* [it will come by the following way] in practice I will give you an adjective that you will use to make superlative form and a verb to create a sentence
- 29 T: *mithal hina* [for example]: beautiful place slash visit... *fa 'inti lamma ygīkī* beautiful place *'ish hatgūly 'laṭūl* ? [when you see, beautiful place what will you say directly]
- 30 T: *Hatgūlī* [you will say], the most beautiful place *b'dīn* [then] visit *'ish hatgūlī* [what will you say?]
- 31 T: I visited *walla* [or] I usually visit *walla* [or] I am visiting now? *Hatgūlīhā b'ayy tariqa* [you will say it by any method] *almuhim 'innik hatidmigī il 'ithnin m' b'd biḥith 'innik* [but you have to use the two sentences as you create complete sentences]
- 32 T: *Wādiḥa yā shabāb* [is it clear girls?]
- 33 S: Yes
- 34 T: Yes so far so good? *ṭayyib*[okay]
- 35 T: *'idhan* superlatives *'ish tisawwī* [so, superlative equals?] Restrictive adjective clauses.
- 36 T: Yes *'illi b'du* [the next] other adjective clause constructions .. *trakīb trakīb al gumal* [sentence constructions] *tmām* [okay].
- 37 T: What do we have here on page 179. We have adjective clauses that use both forms when and where. When do we use when?
- 38 S: Time
- 39 T: When we describe time.
- 40 T: *ṭayyib* [okay] when the adjective clause is modifying time *tmām* [okay ...e when *walla* [or] at 2 pm *almuhimm 'innu* [the important is] there will be time that I have to modify with this type of adjective clause.
- 41 T: So when we use it, when we modify time, how about where?
- 42 S: Place
- 43 T: Place, to modify place
- 44 T: So how about we know which words to use when *zayy al 'āda* , *kilmit that* [as usual, the word that] is the word which we can always use but we can use it with which form?
- 45 S: With the restrictive form of the clause
- 46 T: *'ahsanti ,mumtāzah* [well done ! Excellent] restrictive that's *tmām* [good]
- 47 T: With the restrictive also we can omit all the relative pronouns *ṭab'n hadhi* [for sure] when and where *'ismahā* [called] relative pronouns *zayy* [as] which , *wa* [and] who ... whom that when *wa* [and] where
- 48 T: With restrictive form in the time sentence we can use 'when' *shūfī 'ihnā fīn hina 'awwil waḥda* table 4.11 [look , we are now in 1st one at table 4.11] *ṣafha 297 yā mnna wa sara , ṭayyib*, [page 297, Menna, Sara, okay]
- 49 T: We can use when at the time when this happen *mumkin nist'mil* that [we could use that] *lmmā* [when] this is restrictive sentence at the time that this happens we can omit "at the time this happens" we can do it with our relative pronoun.
- 50 S: When *wa 'iḥ* ? [when and what?]
- 51 T: When *wa* that [when and that]
- 52 T: *ṭab'n* when you omit something *wehs tsy ḥala , , tiḥuṭṭī dayra w fīhā mark* [just put mark there] *ṭayyib* [okay]
- 53 T: how would you get a question about this rule? *mumkin ygīlik biṭargtīn aw 3 ṭurug* [it may come in 3 cases, or 2] *'illi 'anā fakirhā 'innu* [but what I remember is]
- 54 T: I can give you sentences simple sentence *wa 'agūllak* [and I will say] change into complex sentences use all the possible forms *'agblik kida mathlan* [example will be given like this]

- 55 T: “At the time the statues were still standing the Dutch arrived there” *tmām* [okay] *w 'agūllak* [and ask you] change it into a complex sentence which adjective clause use all possible forms.
- 56 S: *y 'ni 'ithnin?* [that means two?]
- 57 T: *thalāth* [three]
- 58 T: *ḥatgūli m'* when [you will say it using when] *W ḥatgūli m'* that [you will say it using that] *W ḥatgūli* [you will say it] without anything that mean 2 or 3, you will use when, that and without anything.
- 59 S:- asking in Arabic not clear-
- 60 T: yes *'illi ḥiyyā gumla hadhi* [this sentence] *'anā hagiblik dayman 'ammā 'agūllik* [No, I will bring you always] create a complex sentence *dayman* [always] 2 sample sentences *hagiblik gumlitīn wa b'dīn* [I will bring you 2 sentences and then]
- 61 T: I will ask you to create an adjective clause using the second sentence you always use the second sentence not the first one.
- 62 T: *kanit almagmū'a 'illi gā'da hina* [the group which were here] *'asīl 'nūd wa mīn m'āhum sara azunn* [Aseel, Anood, and Sara maybe] *kuntu biḥussu aldunyā 'innukum 'intu* [was totally wrong as they] create an adjective clause using the 1st sentence which is wrong.
- 63 T: you always use the 2nd sentence to create an adjective clause alright? *'algumla althanyā ḥiyyā alwasfiyya lilgumla 'il 'uula* [the 2nd sentence describe the 1st sentence] *'ittafagnā* [agree] *ḥilw* [good].
- 64 T: *ṭayyib* [so] non-restrictive we use *ṭab'n* [sure] non restrictive *'ish mizitha* [one of its character] *'innhā* it always has a comma *lazim ykūn alwaqt fīha mu'rraf* [the time must be known] *shūfī hina* [look here]
- 65 T: “In 1722 *tmām* [okay] the statues were still standing the Dutch arrived then.”
- 66 T: *fahatgūlī* [you will answer] “in 1722 when the statues, *'fwan* [excuse me] when the Dutch arrived the statues were still standing .
- 67 T: *'ish 'ast'mil fī hadhi alhala* [what should I use in this case?] only the word when *ma 'agdar la 'asawwi* that *m'* [I can't use that with] non-restrictive *wala 'agdar 'ish* [or even] I omit everything.
- 68 T: I can't omit ... *mā 'agdar 'agūl* [I can't say] “In 1722 the Dutch arrived the statues *mathlan* [as an example] ... *hatitl' mrra fragile mā, ... hatitl' fragment* [the sentences will be totally fragile] save apply to the ... place role.
- 69 T: Restrictive we use ‘where’ we use ‘that’ we use ‘which’
- 70 S: *matā ,,nista 'mil* which? [when do we use which?]
- 71 T: *m' m'* [when, with ... with] place we use which *hgūllukum matā nista 'mil* [I will tell you when to use] which we can omit everything we can do without a relative pronoun *matā 'agūl* [when I say] where *w matā 'agūl* [and when I say] ‘which’ *'agūl* [I say] ‘where’ when I insert the adjective clause and substitute the word ‘where’ with the place.
- 72 T: *mithal hyyā gumlitīn* [example in 2 sentences] “This is an island an advanced society has flourished here” here *kilma tadull 'lā almakān* [here is a word related to place] so *'il kilma di hashelha* [this is the word which am going to erase] *wa 'astabdil mkanhā kilmit* where this [and I'll put “where is” instead of it]... *'fwan* [excuse me] this is an island where an advanced society had flourished *nuqṭa* [full stop] *tmām* [okay].
- 73 T: Where *ḥatīha badal* [replace with] here *matā 'ast'mil* [when I use] which when I use a preposition *lammā tkonama 'anā 'abghā 'ast'mil ḥarf garr* [when I want to use a preposition] *aw lmmā 'agūllik ḥuṭṭīlī* make [or when I say put “make”]
- 74 T: *'ammā 'agūllik mathalan* [when I said for example] make, make an adjective clause, place adjective clause using the word which you must use a preposition at from ... according to the place which you talking about.
- 75 T: *mithāl hinā* [examples here] *althāni, alsatṛ althani* [the 2nd line]

- 76 T: “This is an island on which *tmām lmmā ykūn ‘ndī* [when I got] where I don’t use any preposition *khlās* [it’s enough]’where’!!
- 77 T: *bas* [just] ‘where’ when I am using which I must use a preposition on ‘which’ *wllā* [or] ‘which bla bla bla’ on *shūfī ‘illī tahtahā* [see the below] “which an advanced society had flourished on” you can do it other ways *wa ṭab ‘n m* ‘ that [and also with] this is an island that an advanced bla bla bla flourished on *bardu* [also]
- 78 T: *wa ‘agdr ‘aswwihā* [I could do it] without any relative pronoun, “This is an island an advanced society had flourished on”.
- 79 T: So the only case when I don’t use a preposition when I use the word ‘where’ *tmām* [okay] non-restrictive *Lāzim ykūn ‘ndak almkān muḥaddad Ygūllak* [it says we have to get a known place].
- 80 T: This is an island *Mkān gizīra ma ‘a ‘raf ‘ish hiyyā* [it’s a place, not a specified one,] *‘illī b ‘dahā* [the next].
- 81 T: this is Easter Island *tmām* [okay] where an advanced society had flourished *‘ist ‘milnā* [we used] *kilmit* [the word] whereon which *wllā* [or] which bla bla bla on ...
- 82 T: *‘izan fī ḥālit* [in case of] non-restrictive we use only 2 forms, were and which that *ṭab ‘n* [sure] that w *‘dam ‘ist ‘mal ‘ayy shay’ ma tsī ‘mil fī ḥāzi alḥāla* [and don’t use any thing here else] *wādiḥa yā shbāb* [is it clear?]
- 83 S: Yes
- 84 T: Excellent
- 85 T: *‘illī b ‘daha mrra mrra sahla* [the next is so easy] *ṭab ‘n ‘ish gūlnā hināk fīl* superlative *ennahā khāsa bi‘ayy nū ‘ min gumal*, [of course we have said about “superlative” that it is related to any kind of sentence] restrictive or non-restrictive *‘illī kanu mwgūdīn m ‘ānā* [which we took] superlative restrictive.
- 86 T: Okay
- 87 T: So with the superlative we use restrictive sentences the sentence is always the restrictive form expression with quantity *‘a ‘dad* [numbers] expression with quantity the sentence is always a non restrictive sentence *b ‘dīn* [then] adjective clause.
- 88 T: *tmām ‘idha hināk ‘ammā gulnā* [Ok, if we said there] superlative with restrictive *hinā* [here] expression with quantity non restrictive *mā m ‘āy sā ‘a* [don’t have a watch] *ṭayyib* [okay]
- 89 T: How do we express *thalātha ‘ashyā’ raḥ t ‘rfthā fī ḥāzi kā ‘da* [3 things you will learn in this rule] how do I express quantity *kīf ‘a ‘raf ‘in gumla ḥādhy tadul ‘lā a ‘dād* [how to know if the sentences relate to numbers]
- 90 T: When it has one of these expression *‘il mawgūda fīlsatrīn el ‘uula fūg fūg alkā ‘da nafsahā* [that was existin in 1st 2 lines ... in the beginning] expressions such as one of *‘amma agūl* one of two of three hundred *off ‘ayy raqam agūlu* [any number, I say] of this is quantity expression all of none of The rest of either of either *walla* [or] neither of *ṭayyib* [okay] *ḥādy ‘ad either walla* [this is either or] either neither of.
- 91 T: *hgūllik ‘līhā ḥāga muhimma tintibhy ‘līhā* [will tell you something important you have to be aware of] *ṭayyib* [Okay] this is number one so quantity expression has to have these expressions. Number 2 when I’m referring to a person I always use the word whom *tmām* [okay].
- 92 T: When I’m referring to an object or something I always use the word which *bas faqat ḥāzī alḥāltīn* [just only these two cases] these clauses must include whom or which. “Sailors attacked the islanders *ṭayyib* [okay] three of the islanders were killed”.
- 93 T: Three of the islanders *Hadūl ‘illī ‘abgha minnuhum* modification [so those which I want from modification], *‘idhan ‘iish yṣīr ‘ndī*, [so what do I get ?]
- 94 T: Three of which *wlla* [or] three of whom
- 95 S: Three of whom

- 96 T: Three of whom *tmām* [okay]
- 97 T: “Sailors attack the islanders, three of whom were killed” *lahiḡtu sha' bilnisba lil* punctuation *hina* [have you noticed something related to punctuation here?]
- 98 T: Islanders is unknown *ṣah?* [right?]
- 99 S: Yes, but still there is a comma.
- 100 T: Still there is a comma why? Because it's a non-restrictive sentence *shufīhā shufīhā filbidāya* [look at it] ... *tiftikru lamma gulna* [and you will remember when we talked about] superlatives. Superlatives when it contains numbers they are known.
- 101 T: *yes 'aḡsanti* [excellent!] because they are numbers they are known *tmām* [okay]
- 102 T: One of the them two of them *khalās 'anā baḡadid zayy 'ille gulnāha felbidāya* [we just focus on what I said in the beginning] *'lle gultilku 'iḡna 'akhṡa'ana* [when I said we were wrong] *'iḡna ma 'akhṡa'ana fīhā wlākin 'anā 'akhṡa'at , wa 'anā ammā 'aḡillahā m'ākum*, [we weren't actually just was me when I was doing it with you]
- 103 these books *ḡagit tamarīn* [for exercises] *gūlu l zamīlatkum 'illi gum fil 'aākher* [tell your friends who came late,] *ṡayyib* [okay]
- 104 T: So *thlātha 'ashyā'a la 'arba' 'ashyā'a* [so they are, 3 things, no, 4 things] 'ila 'al'aān *gulna thlātha 'ashyā'a* [till now we just said 3]
- 105 T: There are certain expressions to start the quantity, the expression of quantity *'illi hummā* [which are] one of, all of, the rest of, none of neither of *ṡayyib hādhe 'il'uula* [so that was the 1st] *althānyā* [the second one] we must use one of 2 words ‘whom’ with persons and ‘which’ the rest *m'a* [with] objects , animals .. anything *'alshay' 'althālith* [the third thing].
- 106 T: We must use commas *la'innu* [because] this is not restrictive sentences *'intabihī lil thalāth ka'dāt* [take care of the 3 rules] *la'innik* [because] you will be creating sentences in the exam *'anā bgullik 'iyyāhā min 'il'aān* [I am telling you now] *el'ikhtibār fīh gumal 'inti trakkibīhā bunā'an 'lā 'alkā'dat* [that you are going to face these types of questions in the exam where you should combine sentences depending on the rule]
- 107 *fa 'inti ammā tīkr'aī gumlitīn mathalan tkra'iī gūmla el 'uula* [so if you read 2 sentences for example, you have to read it 1st]
- 108 T: *tgūlī mathlan* “I ate the food none of it *mathlan* ,, *wlla* [for example, or] I didn't like any ... *Mani 'arfa 'ish 'aḡul* [I don't know what to say]
- 109 *Y'ni 'ammā ygullik shay' biṡḡḡhit al'a'dād* [when it comes to you as form of number] *ti 'rafī 'innu shay'* [you have to know] that I am going to transfer it to another restrictive sentences that has, yes either whom or which *ṡayyib* [okay].
- 110 T: 'Aakhir shay' ,, 'aakhir shay',, *shūfīha fīlsaṡr 'il 'aakhīr* [look to the last line] 'illi *hiyyā* [which is] simple sentences complex sentences *ḡagit* [for] neither of the ships *Wlla* [or] neither ship “they sailed two ships neither of the ships *wlla* [or] neither ship was sunk” neither of the ships *ṡayyib* [okay] ‘was ‘sunk’.
- 111 T: *hina biygūl wala waḡda minnuhum mu 'shan gānī ships aḡūm aḡūl* [here, they said no one of them, it's not because you saw ships so you have to say] were sailed *la'in hina 'anā* [here I'm] I'm talking none of them *y'nī la hādhi wla hādhi wla ay waḡda fīhum* [no any ship] was sunk, so in here we always use the singular form.
- 112 S: As a group?
- 113 T: As a group but within the group where I identify each and every ship of them *'anā baḡūl* [I'm saying] neither of the ships *wla waḡda fīhum , la hādhy alsafīna wla hādhi wla hādhy* [none of them, not this ship or this] *fa hina* [here] am identifying each and every one of them *tmām* [okay]
- 114 T: So this case I am using the singular form *hadhi tu'aaddy bīna ilā ka'da 'illi b'daha 'illi hiyyā ka'dah forth fifteen* [this leads us to the next rule 415], which is “subject verb agreement. “Subject verb agreement simply states that, when

- subject is singular the verb must be singular. When subject is plural verb must be plural.
- 115 T: *al'uūla* [the first] “The islander who was killed *ṭab'n* [of course] *wlla* [or] “the islanders were killed “*ma ṭḥtāg sharḥ 'aṣlan* [does not need to be discussed]
- 116 T: “the islander who was killed ... “ “the islanders were killed” *tmām* [good] yes subject verb agreement is a simplest and easy as that.
- 117 T: *'illi b 'dahā fi 'ndak* [next, there is] 2 cases, I need you to pay attention this is a piece of cake - a very simple rule and always always whenever there is an exam or a question you always find it *ṭayyib* [good] *,sawā' fi mid terms walla quiz walla final ay shay' l'innaha* [whenever in midterm, quiz, or final, anything as it] is a piece of cake is extremely easy.
- 118 T: *w bagūllukum ṭarīga* [I'll tell you the way] the only one ... when I use the word ‘the only one’.
- 119 T: *m'natu* [that's mean] *innu* [that] I am talking about one thing so, the form of verb *w* [and] must use is singular. Singular *mithal* [for example] “it was the only one of islands that was formed by...”
- 120 T: *tmām ,lamma 'agūl* [good, when I say] one of the, one of the *m'natu* [mean] one of the *m'natu* [mean] plural “it's one of the islands that were *kida kida kida* [bla bla bla] it is one of the islands ...” *hina i refer to guzur* [here I am referring to islands]
- 121 T: *shūfti gumla al'ula billugha al'rabyya* [see the 1st sentence, in Arabic language] *mrra ashal 'lik* [it will be more easily] *hyya algazīra alwḥīda allati tkwwanat bf'l albarākīn sh* [it's the only island which was formed by volcanoes] *m'nato I am referring to algazira alwaḥīda hnā 'ana ma'agūl mathlan gazīrat* [that means I am referring to only island as]
- 122 T: *sumtra hiyya iḥdā alguzr allaty takwwanat bfi'l albarākīn* [Sumatra, is one of the islands that were formed as a result of volcanoes] *m'natu mā hyya bas liḥalhā hya mgmū'a* [this means, it's not only one island, they are a group] *y'nī ṣifa hadhy tadull 'la almgmu'a* [this character is connected to group]
- 123 T: One of the *mu 'ankhadi' bkilmit* one of the *hast'mil plural form* [I shouldn't be tricked by the word one of, I will use plural form] because this applies for the whole group. but when I'm saying the only one I am referring to singular *widhit yā shabāb?* [is it clear girls?]
- 124 S: Yes!
- 125 T: *tamrīna mrra y'ni mumkin mā yākhud mnnā 30 thānya* [these exercises are so easy, it will take just 30 seconds] I would like to do it while I am taking the absentees *mrra sahl* [so easy].
- 126 T: *'ish hatsawwī* [what you have to do?] , *'anā sawwīthā highlighter* [I did it with a highlighter] *,ḥadditilik nū' alshay' hal huwwā* plural *aw* singular [as I determined for you the type either plural or singular] according *li ,Tihadidī alf'l 'illi hatist'milī m'āh* [you have to determine the verb, which you will use with it]
- 127 T: *Kīf hatgīlik ṭarīgit su'aāl* [how will the questions be given?] *Waḥid min itnin* [one of two] *Ya 'innī agīblik* subject *mutaghyyir ya f'l mutaghyyir* [I could give you changeable subject or changeable verb].
- 128 T: *y'ni* [that means] alternatives subjects alternative verb *'agullik mathlan* [for example, I could say] *mumkin 'agullik mathlan* [for example, I could say] “I bought *wlla* [or] I like the only bag that was *wlla* [or] were?”
- 129 S: was
- 130 T: *hadhi alṭarīga al'ula min al'as'ila* [this is the 1st way of questions] alternative verbs.
- 131 T: *alṭrīga althānya* [2nd way] “I bought the only bag that was *wlla* [or] one of the bag was?”
- 132 S: The only one

- 133 T: The only one *tayyib* [okay]
 134 T: Could you please do the exercises while I am taking the absentees. It will be much clearer that way.
 135 S: Exercise two *ṣaḥ* [right]?
 136 T: Exercise three *'ish sawwī bas 'i 'mly* [just put] highlight *wlla* [or] underline.
 137 S: Sneezed !!
 138 T: *yarḥmukum ALLAH* [ALLAH bless you] so ... let's do it together please!
 139 T: *'lā alsrī* , *Ha yā farah* [let's do it quickly, so go on Farah] Number one what did you choose? Was *wlla* [or]were?
 140 S: Were
 141 T: *Aḥsanti* [excellent] Number 2?
 142 S: Was
 143 T: *Aḥsante yā Majda* [excellent Majda] "He was the only one.."
 144 T: Afnan, Number 3
 145 S: Was
 146 T: "the only scientist who was.."
 147 T: No. 4 *yā 'nood* [Ahood number 4]
 148 S: Have
 149 T: Good Abrar ... Ashwag
 150 T: *'hood 'aākhr waḥda* ,, [Ohood, last one]
 151 S: *No. 5 bi "S" walla bidūn?* [number 5, with or without S?]
 152 T: *'inti gultīli* [you tell me]
 153 S: *Anā ḥaṭitha m' S*, [yes I put it] ,
 154 T: lish? [why?] "One of the few books ... *Waḥda min magmū 'it kutub* [one of the group] ,*Y'ni binitkallim 'lā mgmū 'a* [that means I am talking about the group]. *Hadhy 'S' alfl yā 'yūni mu 'S' algam'* [this is "S" for verb not plural]
 155 T: *Yallā* [so] let's compare here, look at the sentence and see the difference:
 156 "It was only one of the islands that was formed *'fwan* [excuse me] It is one of the island that were"
 157 T: Do you see the deference?
 158 S: Yes
 159 T: Only one of the islands *tayyib* [good] *B 'dīn tānī waḥda hinā* [then the 2nd on here] "One of the islands the only one" The singular one I am talking about.
 160 T: *Bāgy khams ka 'dāt* [still 5 rules] ,*Ba 'd ma nikhallas* [when we finish] all adjective clauses *hanibda' fl* [will start with] adverb clauses, *ḥilw Daḥīn lammā nikalhallas* [now, when we finish] adjective clauses then modify nouns, as the clauses modify what..
 161 S: Verbs
 162 T: Verbs, yes. They will be extremely similar to what we already covered
 163 *Law laḥiztu law khallaṣna* [if you noticed, when we finish] noun clauses *ṣārit alkā 'dat 'illi b 'dha kullahā sahla* [the next rules, will all be easier]
 164 S: *Al'ikhtibār yūm 23?* [the exam will be on 23?]
 165 T: Yes! *Al'ikhtibār yūm 23 yūm al'arb' alsā 'a waḥda* [the exam will be on Wednesday 23, at 1pm] *'intu wayya alshu 'ba althānya El 'ikhtibār mrra sahl* [you will be with the other class also, the exam will be very easy].