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The Function of Code-switching in EFL Saudi Classrooms

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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University
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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to many people who have encouraged and supported me throughout these three years:

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Abstract

In this thesis, I focus on the use of code-switching (CS) – the use of more than one language in a stretch of discourse – in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. Researchers have failed to reach a consensus on the effect of teachers' CS in the EFL classroom; some studies show that CS between the native and target language facilitates learning (e.g., Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Stern, Allen & Harley, 1992; Cook, 2001, 2008; *inter alia*), while others suggest the opposite (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Chambers, 1991; and Macdonald, 1993). These differences may arise from the various purposes for which a teacher uses CS, whether it be for classroom management, linguistic explanation, or, more solely for social purposes. In this study, I allow for the possibility of differential effects of various types of CS by distinguishing two broad categories and applying them in the classroom. The first category is Methodological CS, where CS is employed to explain linguistic phenomena only. The second category is Mixed CS, where the move between two languages takes place across linguistic, classroom management, and social purposes. I test the effect of these different categories of CS on students' outcomes of learning English skills/components (vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, listening) across four different age levels (elementary, intermediate, secondary, and university). Within each level, I taught three different groups for eight hours each, using a different category of CS for each class. Methodological CS was used with one group, while Mixed CS was used with another group, and one control group experienced no CS. A linear regression model of the differences between the pre-test and post-test exam scores revealed that students' performance improved more in the two CS groups than in the control group, regardless of the CS category. However, the benefit of CS was generally higher in the Mixed CS group than in the Methodological CS group. The interaction between the age and CS categories showed that the largest improvements were in the groups where Mixed CS was used, especially at the intermediate level, whereas the relationship between English skills and CS categories revealed the largest improvement in vocabulary and reading where Mixed CS was used. Therefore, Mixed CS generally helped students to improve their performance in English. To conclude, the findings suggest that a rich CS environment, using Mixed CS in particular, facilitates learning in the EFL classroom.

List of abbreviations

EFL English as a Foreign Language

ESL English as a Second Language

L1 First Language

L2 Second Language

CS Code-switching

GTM Grammar Translation Method

CA Comparative Approach

T Teacher

S Student

Italics Non-English language features written in alphabetic form

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in a classroom setting has a very long history, going back at least as far as the 15th century. In the intervening years, the methods for teaching EFL have undergone many changes. Traditionally, teaching English in a foreign language classroom depended on the use of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), also known as the Classical Method. This method focused on translating sentences from the target to the first language (L1) (e.g., Howatt & Smith, 2014), with the classes conducted in the students' L1. The GTM was the dominant classroom approach for a number of centuries. However, in the latter part of the 19th century, several criticisms of this method arose, including its concentration on reading and writing, and the lack of actual exposure to the target language in the classroom setting. To address this issue, the Direct Method was developed in the early 20th century (Howatt & Smith, 2014). In this context, the emphasis was on oral communication skills (Howatt & Smith, 2014), with the use of the L1 seen as a hindrance rather than a help. Thus, the pendulum swung from very little use of the target language to almost complete immersion (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In the late 20th and 21st centuries, classroom attitudes have become more accepting of the use of L1 in the classroom. As a result of this, teachers and students switch back and forth between the target language and L1 (Howatt & Smith, 2014). In fact, CS of this kind is widespread in classroom settings in the present day, where a teacher may move from using the target language to the language of the learners (Sert, 2005). However, a key question that has arisen over the past few decades in the EFL classroom is whether such CS in the classroom benefits learning. Do students attain better command of a foreign language when the teacher employs CS? And are certain types of CS more beneficial than others? In this thesis, I examine this question through the analysis of CS in the Saudi classroom, and specifically how different types of CS may impact learning outcomes.

1.1. Aims

Whether or not using CS in the EFL classroom helps the process of learning a foreign language (e.g., Jingxia, 2010) is subject to much debate. On the one hand, some research shows that CS is very helpful in the EFL classroom (e.g., Atkinson, 1993; Cook, 2001; Franklin, 1990; Levine, 2003; Moore, 2002; Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull, 2001; Wilkerson,

2008: *inter alia*), especially for low-proficiency students (e.g., Moore, 2002; Tien & Lui, 2006; Cook, 2008; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Mujiono, Poedjosoedarmo, Subroto & Wiratno, 2013; *inter alia*). Mujiono et al. (2013) supported the maximal use of the target language without excluding the student's L1, as this can help the students to comprehend the English materials despite their lack of English proficiency. According to Moore (2002), CS is a necessary tool inside the classroom for both teachers and students since it allows them to negotiate meaning, which facilitates the interaction between the students and the teacher or between the students themselves. Since CS has a wide range of beneficial functions in the classroom, it can help to bridge the gap in the discourse.

Other research, on the other hand, shows the opposite, where a move away from the target language has a detrimental effect on student learning (e.g., Krashen, 1981; Chaudron, 1988; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Macdonald, 1993; Alseweed, 2012; Almansour, 2016; *inter alia*). According to Krashen (1981), in order to achieve learning, teachers should immerse their students in the target language (the exclusive use of L2) without using the students' L1. Students can learn the target language gradually through simple information and even though the process of learning a foreign language might be very slow, there is no need to spoil this learning by including vocabulary from their L1.

Studies with an empirical focus tend to investigate the role of CS (the functions/situations/forms/reasons/motivations) or look at teachers' and students' attitudes towards teachers' use of CS in the EFL classroom. These studies depended on observations of teachers' and/or students' talk, using an audio recorder, interviews or a questionnaire. Most of these researchers conducted their research within university EFL classrooms, in different Asian and Middle East contexts, including the Saudi context (e.g., Tang, 2002; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Jingxia, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Nguyen, 2013; Horason, 2014; Younas et al., 2014; Almulhim, 2014; Almuhaya, 2015; Shahnaz, 2015; Bhatti, et al., 2018).

The majority of these empirical studies, conducted in multiple languages, found that CS is helpful and a very useful tool that can facilitate the process of EFL teaching and learning (e.g., Tang, 2002; Lee, 2008; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Qian, Tian & Wang, 2009; Jingxia, 2010; Lee, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Berg, 2013; Nguyen, 2013; Horason, 2014; Younas et al., 2014; Almulhim, 2014; Almuhaya, 2015; Shahnaz, 2015; Bhatti, et al., 2018). In contrast to the findings of these empirical studies, a few other scholars have argued that CS is unnecessary in the EFL classroom (e.g., Alnofaie, 2010). The results of Alnofaie (2010)

demonstrated that switching between L1 and L2 does not help the growth of foreign language knowledge and should be avoided.

Moreover, in prior research, very few studies have employed a rigorous methodology to test the effect of CS across multiple English skills (reading, writing, listening) and/or language components (vocabulary, grammar). Those that did (e.g., Tian, 2012; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Yigzaw, 2012; Alseweed, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Almansour, 2016) used pre-tests and post-tests to measure students' improvements over time, using experimental groups where CS was applied, and control groups that depended only on explanations in English. Yet, even though these experimental studies tested students' progress relative to CS, they mostly focused only on the university level and on a certain English skill. More specifically, some applied this rigorous methodology to test the effect of CS on vocabulary learning only (e.g., Tian, 2012; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013). Others examined the impact of the use of this technique on grammar learning only (e.g., Alseweed, 2012; Almansour, 2016), or on writing learning only (e.g., Yigzaw, 2012). Their results, except those of Alseweed (2012) and Almansour (2016), showed that the students in the experimental groups made greater progress in learning English compared to those in the control groups. These authors suggested that CS might help students to improve their knowledge of English skills. On the other hand, the results of Alseweed (2012) and Almansour (2016) showed that teachers' use of CS was not effective in learning grammar in Saudi university EFL classrooms.

However, the empirical evidence, as shown above, is patchy. First, there is a lack of breadth of age groups in previous studies. Most of these previous studies have focused on a certain age level, mostly at the university level, while very few studies have applied their research to different age levels; examples of those that have are as follows: secondary (e.g., Lee, 2008; Lee, 2010; Berg, 2013), intermediate (e.g., Alnofaie, 2010), and primary (e.g., Qian, Tian & Wang, 2009). There is also little comparison in the literature of the effects of CS on students' performance across different age groups. Second, there is little consideration of the possible differences between various English skills and components. Most of these previous studies did not test the effect of CS on the different English language skills and components, and even if they did, they focused only on one skill, as shown above. Third, there is also a lack of consistency across the types and purposes of CS. According to prior studies, teachers switched habitually from the target language to the L1, and therefore, they varied in their uses of CS. To date, no experimental studies have tested the effect of

controlling these purposes when monitoring students' actual progress inside the EFL classroom, compared to English-only instruction classrooms. Moreover, there is a lack of control over different instructors' teaching methods. Not all English teachers code-switch in the same way, as their teaching methods and strategies are various, and their styles in teaching are also different. Thus, comparing results across classrooms cannot control for differences between teachers. In addition, as seen above, there is little experimental manipulation as most studies have used observational designs. Most of these works did not test the impact of CS within EFL classrooms through actual experiments (except those studies mentioned above that tested the influence of CS on learning only a specific English language skill or component).

Therefore, this study aims to fill the gaps in knowledge and address what is missing in the following way. First, the lack of breadth of age groups has motivated me to consider the role of age in learning English, and my study therefore includes students of all age levels (university, secondary, intermediate, primary). The study compares data across these levels to determine how students of different ages can be impacted by CS. Second, the lack of investigation into the different English language skills and components encourages me to include in my research the specific language skills taught in the EFL classroom. All levels of English language textbooks in Saudi schools and universities cover various English skills and components including vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening. This division of the textbooks allows me to test the effect of CS not only on students' general outcomes but also on their performances during their learning of different English skills and components. Third, I allow for the possibility of differential effects for various functions of CS by distinguishing two broad categories and controlling for them in the classroom, as will be discussed later. Furthermore, I am the participant teacher in this study for all different age levels, so my style is consistent across teaching different ages. I also utilise controlled switches in the classroom, which means that the number of switches is prepared carefully before the class, and I follow the same number. One final contribution of my thesis is that it builds on previous work by systematising its methodology. I employ rigorous experimental methods to control for other possible sources of variation in the results. I use a pre- and post-test to examine the effect of using CS in classrooms by analysing the results of the students in their examinations.

This thesis provides an experimental analysis of CS in a Saudi Arabian classroom. The Saudi classroom was chosen for this study for two reasons. First, the Saudi Ministry of

Education mandates English only as the medium of instruction in EFL classrooms, and second, the general English proficiency of students is quite low. Even though English language is taught as a mandatory subject in all Saudi schools and universities, attainment in English language learning is low in Saudi Arabia. According to the EF EPI¹, the world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills based on the test results of 2.2 million adults in 100 countries and regions, Saudi Arabia was ranked 50 out of 52 countries all over the world in 2012 regarding its proficiency in English. In 2021, Saudi Arabia ranked 104th out of 112 countries all over the world, while it was ranked 10th out of 12 in the Middle East in terms of proficiency in the English language.

Thus, Saudi students and classroom pedagogy stand to benefit substantially from the evidence that supports the use of CS in the EFL classroom improves English learning. An improvement would be most marked in small Saudi Arabian cities where English is used only inside the schools; therefore, proficiency is one of the main problems and such students stand to benefit the most if CS makes a difference. For this reason, the sample of this study was chosen from a small city in Saudi Arabia where the proficiency problems in English are most extreme, and thus CS has the greatest opportunity to make a difference if it does indeed help.

1.2. Research questions

This research is carried out to study the effect of CS in the Saudi classrooms described above, which have low-proficiency students and are located in small cities where English is used only inside the schools. Thus, this current work is designed to fill some of the gaps in the literature mentioned above and to answer the following research questions:

Does the teacher's code-switching in these types of Saudi EFL classrooms improve assessment performance compared to a classroom with no code-switching?

- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the type of code-switching employed by the teacher?

¹ EF English proficiency index (2001). The world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills. <https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/>

- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the age level of the students?
 - Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the specific English skills and components including reading, writing, listening, grammar, and vocabulary?
-

1.3. Thesis structure

The thesis starts with a broad overview of CS in the literature. The term ‘code-switching’ has a wide range of different definitions as previously discussed since it has changed and developed over time. Code-switching is a specific term, and its various definitions indicate that CS has developed and been discussed across different fields of linguistics including psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, or structural linguistic (Al-Enazi, 2006). Therefore, Chapter 2 provides a summary of the various definitions of CS from different views, followed by introducing the development of the term of CS from multiple approaches in the literature.

Chapter 3 focuses on CS in the classroom. According to Rezvani, Street & Rasekh (2011), CS could be a learning tool in English classes to simplify teaching and learning. Within the classroom, teachers choose to switch from their native language (L1) for many purposes and to meet the requirements of teaching the English lessons. Therefore, Chapter 3 starts by summarising the different functions of CS in the classroom, followed by introducing different arguments regarding the use of CS in the EFL classroom which can be understood as falling into one of three general approaches: non-empirical, empirical, and experimental; the chapter ends by reviewing the gaps in the previous research and how my study will cover these gaps.

Chapter 4 provides more details about the key variables of the study: different ages, various English language skills and components, and the two categories of CS as defined for the purpose of this study. This chapter starts by showing the role of age in learning a foreign language and how it can be impacted by CS, followed by a presentation of the different English language skills and components and how CS can help in learning these skills. The chapter ends by introducing the two categories of CS purposes, that I designed, which can

be used inside the EFL classrooms. Chapter 5 provides background about teaching English in Saudi Arabia, the English curricula in Saudi schools, and the different approaches to teaching English, especially in Saudi Arabia.

The remaining chapters present the actual experiments accomplished for this thesis. More particularly, Chapter 6 describes the methods used to collect the data, the research design, the procedures, and the analysis, while Chapter 7 presents the results data and Chapter 8 outlines the findings, discusses the results, and addresses the research questions. Finally, Chapter 9 concludes the thesis and suggests recommendations for future research, and for EFL teachers.

Chapter 2: Broad Overview

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a general overview of bilingualism, and in particular code-switching (CS), which is the use of two or more languages in a stretch of discourse. The chapter discusses the different definitions of CS and its development over the past few decades in linguistic research. The key approaches to the study of CS are also discussed, including structural, social, and conversational approaches. The chapter ends with a conclusion that summarises the main points regarding CS.

2.2. Bilingualism

Bilingualism, according to Bloomfield (1935:56), is “the native-like control of two languages” within one speaker, or the systematic usage of two languages within a specific speech community (Grosjean, 1982: 1), particularly “the regular use of two or more languages (or dialects), and bilinguals are those people who use two or more languages (or dialects) in their everyday lives”. Grosjean (2008: 10) expanded the definitions of bilingualism and stated that the words ‘bilingual’ and ‘bilingualism’ have many different meanings depending on the context they are used in. They can include the knowledge and use of two or more languages, the presentation of information in two languages, the need for two languages, the recognition of two or more languages, and so on.

When bilinguals switch between languages, this is referred to as *code-switching*, and such switching depends on a variety of factors including situation formality (e.g., Auer, 1998; Milroy & Wei, 1995), the role of the interlocutor (e.g., Gumperz, 1972; Myers-Scotton, 1993b; Androutsopoulos, 2014), language attitudes and identity construction (e.g., Poplack, 1980; Toribio, 2002; Finnis, 2013), the linguistic system itself (e.g., Genesee, Nicoladis, & Paradis, 1995; Meisel, 2001; Suek, 2017) and many other factors, as discussed in more detail below.

2.3. Code-switching

Although use of the actual term ‘code-switching’ is often dated back to Blom and Gumperz in 1972, one of the first key studies to discuss this topic was the study of language contact by Weinreich (1953), a pioneer in this field, who was interested in exploring the influence of language contact on languages. According to Weinreich (1953: 1), CS is “the deviations from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e., as a result of language contact”. In other words, this study argues that these deviations or switches could take place at different levels in the linguistic system of a language: syntactical/grammatical, phonological, and lexical. The key to Weinreich’s description is that such switching is highly systematic, a point that was demonstrated amply in the proceeding years (e.g., Vogt, 1954²; Skiba, 1997³; Clyne, 1967 & 2003⁴).

Since Weinreich’s seminal paper, a large body of research on CS has emerged, although how exactly this phenomenon is defined differs across scholars, some defining it very narrowly, where switching occurs only between languages. For example, Hartular (1983) provided a summary of the different definitions of CS that had arisen over the years. Haugen (1971: 30) defined CS as “the interspersal into a speaker’s utterance of one or more unadapted items from another language than the one which primarily characterizes it”, and Di Pietro (1977: 462) defined it as “the use of two more than one language by communicants in the execution of a speech act”. For Valdés-Fallis (1978), it is the mix of words, phrases, and clauses between two languages in a context and when a person makes this mixture, he/she is bilingual. Code-switching for Poplack (1980: 583) is “the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent”. Another definition of CS was formulated by Gumperz (1982: 59) as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems”, while

² According to Vogt (1954), CS is a psychological phenomenon more than a linguistic one, and its causes are considered to be extra-linguistic.

³ For Skiba (1997), CS is seen as interference, which is the transference of one language’s elements to another language at different levels including grammatical, phonological, orthographical, and lexical. Berthold, Mangubhai and Batorowicz (1997) suggested many examples of these different levels of interference.

⁴ Similarly, Clyne (1967 & 2003) has used the term ‘transference’ instead of ‘interferences’ and defined transference as the process of transferring one language’s constructions and forms to another language, which could take place at different levels of a language: lexical, phonological, morphological, prosodic, graphemic, tonemic, syntactic and semantic.

Grosjean (1982: 145) interpreted CS as “the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation”. According to Heller (1988), CS is the person’s mixture of more than one language in one sentence or in a single conversation. Additionally, Muysken (2000:1) explained the term as “the rapid succession of several languages in a single speech event”, while Cook (2008: 174) delineated CS as “going from one language to the other in mid-speech when both speakers know the same languages”.

Other scholars take a broader approach, where CS may also encompass the use of different dialects or styles. For example, Hymes (1974: 103) suggested that “code-switching has become a common term for alternative use of two or more languages, varieties of a language or even speech style”. Myers-Scotton and Ury (1977: 5) stated that “code-switching is the use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation or interaction. The varieties may be anything from genetically unrelated languages to two styles of the same language”. Wong (1979: 56) also defined CS as “the alternate use of two or more different languages, varieties of language or even speech styles within the same conversation by the same speakers.” According to Trudgill (2000), in the field of sociolinguistics, the concept of CS is used to indicate the use of two codes simultaneously, and it does not apply only to languages, but also to dialects.

Regardless of the differing definitions and the terminological debate in the literature⁵, all scholars agree that CS involves the alternation between two (or more) languages, and the switch is governed by both linguistic and social constraints on use. In this thesis, I will use the term code-switching (CS) to describe the teacher’s switch from one language to another for any reason in any syntactic construction, and I focus on the direct effects of switching between two languages in the classroom. Therefore, I will follow a complex definition of CS, which takes a broad and an inclusive approach to the phenomenon I am considering here and defines it as the alternation of two languages. For this reason, I will follow Poplack’s definition of CS (1980: 583) and use the term to mean “the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent”. I adopt this broad definition because its

⁵ In the literature, there were terminological issues related to the description of the use of multiple varieties/codes/languages within the speech of an individual (Yumoto, 1996). For example, diglossia (e.g., Ferguson, 1959; Fishman, 1967; Guy & Lim, 2005), borrowing (e.g., Poplack & Sankoff, 1984; Grosjean, 1982; Schatz, 1989; Winford, 2003), code-mixing (Pandit, 1986; Okon, 1995; Muysken, 2000; inter alia), translanguaging (e.g., Park, 2013; García & Wei, 2013; García & Lin, 2017; inter alia) and several other terminologies employed to describe the use of two codes or more in a single speech.

flexibility suits my needs and frees me to consider all the possible alternations between English and Arabic in the classroom, without being constrained by theoretical considerations that are beyond the scope of this thesis.

Beyond delineating CS, researchers have also investigated this phenomenon employing different approaches: psycholinguistic, structural, and/or sociolinguistic (see Bullock & Toribio, 2009), as detailed below.

2.4. A Taxonomy of code-switching

As mentioned above, the topic of CS has been approached from different perspectives. For example, some scholars have been concerned with the psycholinguistic approach, which focuses on how bilingual speakers' linguistic system is accessed and stored in the cognitive system (e.g., Grosjean, 1995; Gardner-Chloros, 2009; Kootstra, 2015; *inter alia*). However, due to its lack of relevancy to my study, I will not discuss this approach any further.

Furthermore, other scholars have focused on the structural/syntactic approach, which investigates the grammatical aspects of CS to identify its structural positions within speech and to detect the linguistic constraints on CS (e.g., Pfaff, 1975; Wentz, 1977; Lipski, 1978; Poplack, 1980; Sankoff & Poplack, 1981; Pandit, 1990; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Poplack & Meechan, 1995; Muysken, 1997 & 2000; Singh, 1988; Sebba, 1998; *inter alia*). See 2.4.1 below.

In addition, other research has concentrated on the sociolinguistic approach, which aims to understand the social meaning of CS, the effects of CS socially, and the motivational/functional aspects it serves in bilingual/multilingual communities (e.g., Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Valdés-Fallis, 1976, 1978; Gumperz, 1976, 1982; Baker, 1980; Grosjean, 1982; Auer, 1984, 1998; Heller, 1988; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Wei, 1994, 1998, 2002; Wei & Milroy, 1995; Dabène & Moore, 1995; Abudarham, 1998; *inter alia*). This approach will be further developed in subsections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3 below. Specifically, some scholars have researched the roles of CS educationally in a classroom setting (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Martin-Jones, 1995; Eldridge, 1996; Cook, 2001 & 2008; Sert, 2005; *inter alia*) which is the main focus of this study, see Chapter 3. Therefore, the next three sub-sections present the core linguistic and sociolinguistic theories, as well as the different types of CS, for a better

understanding of the term before proceeding to explain CS in a classroom in the following chapter.

2.4.1. Structural aspects of code-switching

Various studies have looked at the structural constraints on CS, specifically at which level they can occur within speech. The switches between two languages can occur in different places within the single discourse of a bilingual individual. These positions can be analysed at three levels: clause or sentence level, phrase level and word level (Yao, 2020).

Poplack (1980 & 2000) identified three sites where CS may occur within a bilingual utterance: inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and extra-sentential/tag switching. The inter-sentential type occurs at the sentential boundaries of the clause/sentence where one clause/sentence is in one language, and the next clause/sentence is in the other language. This type needs the speaker to be fluent in both languages, so that they can follow the rules of both. The switch can occur at the end or at the beginning of a single utterance, as illustrated in example [1].

[1] “Sometimes I’ll start a sentence in English *y termino en español*”

[Sometimes I’ll start a sentence in English and finish it in Spanish] (Poplack, 1980)

The intra-sentential type of CS is the most complex type, where the speaker switches between the languages without gaps, hesitation, or interruption. Unlike inter-sentential, switches of this type can also occur between words or phrases that may appear in the middle of the sentence/speech, as in example [2], produced by a Portuguese-English bilingual.

[2] “Yeah, I don’t know *o meu lugar nesse mundo*...so, something that is weird, like a, like a, I guess it’s ...”

[“Yeah, I don’t know my place in the world. So, something that is weird, like a, like a, I guess it’s...]. (Poplack, 1980)

Moreover, the extra-sentential type, also known as ‘Tag Switching’, occurs outside the clause; it is the simplest type of CS where only a tag, such as *you know*, *right*, *I mean*, etc., is inserted in one language while speaking another language. This occurs in example [3], which is produced by a Panjabi-English bilingual speaker when he switches from English to Panjabi for a tag question:

[3] “It’s a nice day, hanna?”

[It’s a nice day, isn’t it?]

(Wibowo et al., 2017)

Muysken (2000) introduced other types of CS, including insertion and alternation, which refer to where a switch can occur within the strand of speech of the bilingual speaker, as in the following.

- *Insertion*

[4] Yo anduve *in a state of shock* pa dos dias.

‘I walked in a state of shock for two days.’

(Pfaff, 1979)

Example [4] shows how an English prepositional phrase is inserted within a Spanish sentence. In other words, insertion refers to the embedding of the lexical item of one language into the structure of another language. Insertion here is similar to lexical borrowing⁶.

- *Alternation*

By contrast, there is no embedding in the case of alternation. As seen in the previous example, there is an actual switch from Spanish to English. On the other hand, alternation indicates the switch between structures from one language into another, involving both grammar and lexicon. This means that, in the case of alternation between two separate languages, the elements of each language keep their own grammatical structures, as can be seen in example [5]. This type of CS is similar to the inter-sentential type, as Poplack (1980) explained above.

[5] *Andale pues* and do come again.

‘That’s all right then and do come again.’

(Peñalosa, 1980)

Therefore, depending on the syntactic structure, different types of CS can be identified according to the structural positions of the switches between languages. Although there are

⁶ According to Haspelmath (2009:36), “Loanword (or lexical borrowing) is here defined as a word that at some point in the history of a language entered its lexicon as a result of borrowing (or transfer or copying)”. According to Daulton (2012:1), “Lexical borrowing is the adoption of individual or sets of words from another language or dialect. It can include roots and affixes, sounds, collocations, and grammatical processes”.

multiple other varieties beyond the scope of my study, they all share the property of having systematic grammatical factors/constraints that can be observed and identified across multiple languages and contexts (e.g., Sankoff & Poplack, 1981⁷; Appel & Muysken, 1987⁸; Myers-Scotton, 1993a⁹; *inter alia*).

2.4.2. Social aspects of code-switching

While the above studies focused on the structural aspects of CS, other studies focused on investigating the social factors and motivations for bilingual speakers' CS. Blom and Gumperz (1972) is considered one of the early influential studies that looked at CS from a sociolinguistic perspective, discussed the social factors influencing it, and categorised it into two types: situational switching and metaphorical switching.

According to Blom and Gumperz (1972: 424), situational switching refers to the case “when within the same setting the participants’ definition of the social event changes, this change may be signalled among others by linguistic clues. The notion of situational switching assumes a direct relationship between language and the social situation”. According to Wardaugh (1986), here, the alternation between two languages or varieties occurs when a bilingual speaker talks using one language/code in one situation and then switches to another language/code in another situation. As it accompanies a change in situation, such alternation is generally affected by external factors, including participants/interlocutors and/or setting, as in example [5], which illustrates switching between English and Bahasa Indonesian.

⁷ According to Sankoff and Poplack (1981: 5), there are two linguistic constraints in CS. The first constraint is the free morpheme constraint, which is “a switch may not occur between a bound morpheme and a lexical form unless the latter has been phonologically integrated into the language of the bound morpheme”. The second constraint is the equivalence constraint, which is “the order of sentence constituents immediately adjacent to and on both sides of the switch point must be grammatical with respect to both languages involved simultaneously. This requires some specification: the local co-grammaticality or equivalence of the two languages in the vicinity of the switch holds as long as the order of any two-sentence elements, one before and one after the switch point, is not excluded in either language”.

⁸ Appel and Muysken (1987) identify rules that control CS among languages, by proposing two types of approaches: linear and structural.

⁹ Myers-Scotton (1993a) postulated particular syntactic and morphosyntactic boundaries for and constraints to where code-switching might occur, by proposing the matrix language-frame model to explain more grammatical constraints in CS.

[6] Agus: *Menurutku, semuanya karena mereka tidak tahu persis artinya, De, ...* (I think it's all because they don't know exactly what it means).

Mark: Hi, Agus

Agus: Eh, How're you Mark? Mark, this is Made, our friend from Mataram.

Made: Nice to meet you, Mark.

Mark: Nice to meet you too.

What are you two talking about?

Agus: *Nah, ini dia kita bias...* (well, here we are) Mark, can you help us

(Jendra, 2010:77)

In the previous short conversation, the social situation of the conversation changed. At first, Angus was talking to Made, then Angus switched from Bahasa Indonesia to English after the entrance of a third participant who is a native English speaker. So, the switch here occurred as a result of the new participant.

The second type is metaphorical CS, where the speakers alternate between two languages/codes as topical emphasis, satire, humour, or criticism. According to Blom and Gumperz (1972: 117), "the language switch here relates to particular kinds of topics or subject matter rather than to change in a social situation". According to Wardhaugh (1986), cited in Sari (2013), the switch between languages/codes of metaphorical type could be from formal to informal, serious to humorous, solidary to polite, or vice versa, as in example [7], which illustrates a switch between English and Bahasa Indonesian.

[7] **Made:** We want to take it. to where. *Ya itu tempat kita biasa mancing* (Yes, that's where we usually go fishing), and we are drinking, singing, having fun, ok.

Ali: And there we are surfing, swimming... *terus, kita jadi pusing-pusing* (go on, we're getting dizzy) dah... ha, ha, ha...

Made: Are you joining, Jim?

Jim: Okay, then.

(Jendra, 2010:77)

Unlike situational switching, we can note in example [7] that the participants in the conversation were speakers of the same language and the switch from Bahasa Indonesia to English occurred as a result of humour. The topic was first about the activities that they do when they hang out. Ali mentioned some other activities, then he switched when he changed the topic to make some fun. In other words, the change here indicates humour.

[8] **Grandfather:** *Szo! Ide dzsiini!* (pause) *jeszt jeramunyi* [Hungarian]

(Well, come here! Out all this way)

mind e kettuotok, no hat akkor! (pause) [Hungarian]

(Both of you, well now)

kum her! [German] (pause) *Nem koapsz vacsorat* [Hungarian]

(Come here! You don't get supper.)

Gafaranga (2008:287)

Example [8] shows situational switching between English and German. Gafaranga (2008) mentioned an example from a grandfather's speech when he changed his speech from Hungarian to German. According to Gal (1978), German was considered high prestige while Hungarian was low prestige. Therefore, in the second extract, the grandfather called his grandchildren to help him using Hungarian first, but when the two grandchildren did not answer him, he switched to German. Using the German language here gave the grandfather's speech more force since it is related to a more formal setting.

In summary, we note that situational CS occurs when “there are changes of language choice corresponding to changes in the situation, particularly participant, setting and activity type”, while metaphorical CS occurs when “there are changes in language choice in order to achieve special communicative effects while participant and setting remain the same” (Blom & Gumperz, 1972, cited in Wei, 2020: 55). These two types/categories describe when and how CS is used in a conversation, but they do not explain the exact reasons why a speaker would make such switches. Therefore, later, Gumperz (1982) extended his explanation of CS and preferred to use the term ‘conversational code-switching’ instead. He suggested more functions of conversational CS in bilingual communities, which illustrate more motivations for bilingual switches. This will be discussed in the following section.

2.4.3. Conversational functions of code-switching

In terms of analysing various speech communities, Gumperz (1982) affirmed that CS can serve as a conversational strategy to present social meaning. Therefore, Gumperz indicated a list of six functions for CS, as follows.

I. Quotations

Gumperz (1982) mentioned a set of instances from Slovenian German, Spanish English, and Hindi English sentences, where the switch occurs because direct quotations or speech are

cited/reported. Example [9] is from a Hindi English teacher speaking to his colleagues about his visit to the doctor.

[9] **A:** He says: “*e hi medsin kantinyu karo bhai*” (Continue taking this medicine friend).

II. Addressee Specification

Gumperz (1982) also mentioned that CS can be used to simply direct the message to a particular person among several addressees. Example [10] presents a conversation between a group of Hindi English speakers who are discussing the topic of CS between Hindi and English.

[10] **A:** Sometimes you get excited and then you speak in Hindi, then again you go on to English.

B: No, nonsense, it depends on your command of English. (Doorbell ringing during speaker B’s speech)

B: “*kau hai bhai*” (Who is it?). Here, the same B speaker switched from English to Hindi when he/she turned to a third participant C in the conversation who was answering the doorbell.

III. Interjections

In some cases, according to Gumperz (1982), CS serves as a sentence filler or interjection. Example [11] is from a Spanish-English meeting. The speaker at the end of the meeting was introduced by a third participant, saying briefly:

[11] **A:** Well, I’m glad I met you.

“*Andale pues*” (Ok. Swell) And do come again. Mm?

IV. Repetition

Gumperz (1982) also indicated that CS can be used to repeat a message in another code, with this repetition potentially serving to amplify, emphasise or clarify a message. The following Spanish-English instance explains this function of CS:

- [12] **A:** The three old ones spoke nothing but Spanish. Nothing but Spanish. “*No Hablaban ingles*” (They did not speak English).

V. Message Qualification

Gumperz (1982), moreover, mentioned that CS may occur when a topic is presented in one language, then followed by a qualification or amplification/explication in another language:

- [13] We’ve got all ... all these kids here now. “*Los que estan ya criados ya aqui. No los que estan recién venidos de México*”

(Those that have been born here, not the ones that just arrived from Mexico).

VI. Personalisation vs. Objectivization

Code-switching can be used, according to Gumperz (1982: 18), to mark “the distinction between talk about action and talk as action, the degree of speaker involvement in, or distance from, a message, whether a statement reflects personal opinion or knowledge, refers to specific instances or whether it has the authority of generally known fact.” Example [14] illustrates this function of CS:

- [14] **A:** “*anuradha ai?*” (Did Anuradha come?)

B: She was supposed to see me at nine-thirty at Karol Bag.

A: Karol Bag?

B: “*or mai no baje gharse nikld*” (And I left the house at nine).

The previous Hindi English conversation between college students shows that speaker B responded in English to A’s Hindi questions. This means, according to Gumperz (1982), that the appointment is treated as an objective fact. Then, B’s speech shifts to Hindi, clarifying his own action (see Gumperz (1982) for more examples explaining this function of CS).

Finally, in the study of Gumperz (1982), there are numerous examples of each function of CS and more explanations of social meaning and conversational CS. Not only did Gumperz (1982) discuss the conversational functions of CS, but he also gave further

explanations for the different reasons behind a bilingual speaker's switches, as appear below¹⁰.

2.5. Conclusion

CS is widely studied by many researchers in very different contexts and according to different research approaches. In the specialised literature, CS has provided numerous meanings of CS since it has changed and developed over time. Al-Enazi (2006) suggested that CS is a specific term, and its various definitions indicate that it has developed and been discussed according to different approaches. Researchers vary in their expression of the types and theories of CS, some discuss types and theories of CS directly from a grammatical aspect, while others choose a sociolinguistic approach within bilingual/multilingual communities.

To sum up, CS has been discussed here not only in the context of the bilingual speaker, but also in the EFL classroom, which is the central focus of my study. This is a specific type of social environment that has very specialised functions. Therefore, the next chapter focuses on CS in the context of EFL classrooms and discusses the different functions that teachers might use in the classroom.

¹⁰ For example, Myers-Scotton (1993) proposed the markedness model, which demonstrates other social motivations for CS. Some other linguists explained more about the sociolinguistic factors that might affect CS, and how language speakers generate meaning through social interaction in different social situations (e.g., Gal, 1979; Myers-Scotton & Ury, 1977; Grosjean, 1982; Auer, 1984 & 2005; Heller, 1988; Myers-Scotton, 1988; Wei & Milroy, 1995; Nishimura, 1995; Heredia & Altarriba, 2001; Al-Enazi, 2002; Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004; Greene & Walker, 2004; Montes-Alcalá's, 2007; San, 2009; Halim & Maros, 2014).

Chapter 3: Code-switching in the Classroom

3.1. Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to the central topic of this study: CS in the classroom, concentrating on the functional approach of CS in a classroom setting and how it relates to the process of teaching and learning English. Although teachers may code-switch at different structural points in a clause (see Section 2.4.1), here I concentrate on the functional aspects of CS in the EFL classroom. First, Section 3.2 differentiates between teaching EFL and teaching English as a Second Language (ESL). Section 3.3 details the various functions of CS that have been proposed by several scholars and might be used by teachers in the classroom, including linguistic purposes, classroom management purposes, and social purposes. Section 3.4 discusses the debate regarding the use of CS, especially in the EFL classroom. Studies can be understood as falling into one of three broad approaches: non-empirical, based on empirical analysis, and based on experimental analysis. The chapter ends with Section 3.5, which presents the main issues in previous studies that investigated the role of CS in the EFL classroom, and some solutions will be proposed in my current study.

3.2. ESL vs EFL

Since this study focuses on the EFL classroom, before preceding further it is necessary to show the differences between teaching EFL and teaching ESL, as English can also be taught as a target language in an ESL classroom.

Due to the similarities between EFL and ESL, debate exists as to the defining characteristics of EFL vs ESL (e.g., Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Nayar, 1997; Gass & Selinker 2001). More specifically, Reves and Medgyes (1994) used these two terms interchangeably since they observed no difference between them. By contrast, Gass and Selinker (2001: 5) referred to ESL as “the learning of a non-native language in the environment in which that language is spoken” and to EFL as “the learning of a non-native language in the environment of one’s native language”. Moreover, Nayar (1997) argued that, even though the distinction between these two terms does not hinder the process of teaching and learning, it is crucial to differentiate between them, since what learners learn can be affected by the way they are taught. Therefore, according to Ansary and Babaii (2002), a common assumption about these

two terms is that ESL is taught in an English-speaking country to students from different countries, backgrounds, and nationalities, while EFL is taught in a non-English-speaking country to students from the same country who have the same first tongue and background.

In the case of ESL, there is a mix of students from different nationalities and of various ages within the same classroom (Kirova, 2007), with no common language among the students. They must use English even when discussing topics among themselves because they need to use the language that is understood by all students, and they are immersed in English outside the classroom too (Ullman, 1997). When students use English in these classrooms for the purpose of communication, this allows them to practise the language with each other (Brock, 1986). The best example in the case of ESL is when a student stays and lives in an English country for a long time and uses English all the time (Almansour, 2016).

On the other hand, in the case of EFL, most of the students in the classroom may be from the same country and of similar age, because the English course takes place in a non-English-speaking country and is considered a general subject. Thus, the only objective for these students in these classrooms is to pass the exam, without any motivation to learn the language (Rao, 2002). In this case, students have less exposure to English than ESL students, since they are in the L1 environment, and they lack English communication among each other in the classroom. They also face all the difficulties of practising English outside the school, when faced by their compatriots who do not speak English (Longcope, 2009).

To sum up, the difference between ESL and EFL may seem little at first, but in fact, teaching English as a foreign language or as a second language requires very different teaching strategies to meet students' needs and goals, as will be seen in Chapter 5, Section 5.6. Also, we can note from the different characteristics of both terms above that it is very unlikely that CS will be employed in an ESL classroom since there is no common language, and that CS can only happen in the EFL classroom.

3.3. Why do teachers code-switch in the EFL classroom?

3.3.1. Code-switching and translanguaging

Before proceeding further to present the role of CS in the EFL classroom, it is important to distinguish between CS and translanguaging (Park, 2013; Balam, 2021; *inter alia*). Although CS has been studied in the classroom context for decades and is well established and explored by many researchers as a linguistic concept, a further distinction has recently emerged between CS and translanguaging, especially in the EFL classroom. Specifically, translanguaging is identified as a subset of CS.

García (2009: 140) defined translanguaging as “the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximize communicative potential”. According to Williams (2002), translanguaging is simply described as going back and forth between two languages in a very natural way, and it is considered a pedagogical practice. In the classroom, translanguaging refers to the use of two languages by students or teachers in a coherent and integrated way. This term is also discussed widely by other researchers (e.g., García, 2009; Park, 2013; García & Lin, 2017; Cahyani, Courcy & Barnett, 2018).

Both CS and translanguaging are viewed as bilingual/multilingual practices and they are used to teach and learn inside classrooms by shifting between languages. In the case of translanguaging, it is a cognitive concept the languages have some sort of shared or overlapped space in the speaker’s head, rather than the speaker simply flipping between one language and the other. In a pedagogical context, translanguaging is usually applied to the students as speakers, rather than to teachers. Translanguaging allows students to access a unitary linguistic system and it gives them the opportunity to deploy their full linguistic repertoire, not only the specified named languages (L1, L2, L3). These unplanned shifts between the languages encourage and allow students to use their full repertoire, which helps them to gain confidence and feel comfortable with their use of the languages. This practice can empower their full language skills and help them to recognise their full potential (García, 2009).

Conversely, CS, usually examines a speaker’s speech and determines how and why the speaker switches from one language to another within a conversation. In contrast to

translanguaging, CS, especially in the context of this thesis, is about what the speakers do externally with their speech in the classroom. This thesis focuses on the nature and the function of the produced speech – here, Arabic or English – without referencing the cognitive processes that cause the speaker’s choice of language.

To summarise, translanguaging focuses on students centred and it maximises students’ potential by allowing them to use whichever language they choose in order to communicate more effectively (Park, 2013). Hence, translanguaging studies the mind as an integrated whole and shows how languages are connected, as the speakers do not really distinguish between the languages they know. In contrast, in this thesis, I do not focus on student speech, since students are encouraged to exclusively use English, as this improves their communicative potential. Instead, I concentrate on the teacher’s speech and its external realisation without reference to the teacher’s mental state, assuming that the teacher already knows both languages and does not require extra help to articulate ideas.

In this thesis, I specifically use CS to develop the target language and to improve students’ English communication skills. As will become clear in Chapter 6, my methodology requires a very strict set of switching contexts, as opposed to going back and forth between two languages in the more fluid nature suggested by translanguaging. Since I am the teacher and I am distinguishing between L1 and L2, thinking about them as separate systems, the switches are conscious, specific and planned. Thus, the goal here is not to examine the cognitive processes that the teachers navigate when accessing their two languages, but rather to understand the effect of the eventual language choice on the students’ learning. As such, the term “translanguaging” is inappropriate for my purposes, so I employ the more general term ‘code-switching’ instead.

3.3.2. Purposes of code-switching

Code-switching in the EFL classroom refers to the teacher’s use of both the first language (L1) and target language (L2) when teaching students, as follows.

[1] **Teacher:** Does the food you eat the best for your health? “*Yaḥni hal eltʿaṣam elli taklu:h sʿehi.*” (It means that is the food you eat healthy?) (Almulhim, 2014).

[2] **Teacher:** “*Ja: jabab laytakum tiswun alqrubat elli sawaynaha elḥd elmadʿi*” (‘Guys could you make the groups that we created last Sunday’).

(Almulhim, 2014).

[3] Teacher: Mobile phone/Car. What else? What do you think is the most important invention? What is the most important information, invention? Which inventions do you think are the most important?

Teacher: Jeans? Why, why jeans? *Không mặc quần thì ta mặc cái gì?*

(What would you wear if not jeans?)

(Nguyen, 2013).

What are the different purposes/functions that CS serves in the classroom? For example, in [1], it appears that the teacher switches from English to Arabic to clarify the meaning of the question to the students, while in [2] the teacher switches to Arabic to manage the classroom (Almulhim, 2014). In example [3], the teacher asks students about inventions; then, while the teacher was repeating some of the students' answers and prompting more responses, she switches suddenly to Vietnamese to create a friendly atmosphere (Nguyen, 2013).

Many scholars have listed different purposes/situations/functions of CS in the classroom (e.g., Guthrie, 1983; Eldridge, 1996; Mattsson & Burenhult, 1999; Simon, 2001; Yletyinen, 2004; Raschka, Sercombe & Chi-Ling, 2009; Al-Nofaie, 2010; Youkhana, 2010; Rezvani, Street & Rasekh, 2011; Khresheh, 2012; Moghadam, Abdul Samad & Shahraki, 2012; Berg, 2013; Modupeola, 2013; Mujiono, et al., 2013; Alkatheery, 2014; Horasan, 2014; Timuçin & Baytar, 2015; Bhatti, Shamsudin & Said, 2018; Cahyani, Courcy & Barnett, 2018; inter alia). Broadly, the purposes of CS can be mainly classified into three categories: linguistic, classroom management, and social.

1- Linguistic purposes

Linguistic purposes include all the language-related functions associated with communication strategies among teachers and students, where CS is used to teach the target language (Bhatti et al., 2018). This refers to all the academic purposes that teachers pursue when they switch inside classrooms. This means that linguistic purposes are exclusively for teaching the language itself, for example demonstrating how grammar works, what a particular vocabulary means, etc. (see Table 3.1).

Linguistic Purposes	Descriptions	According to
Equivalence	When participants do not understand the meanings in English.	Eldridge (1996)
Floor holding	to avoid gaps in communication that may result from the lack of fluency in the target language.	
Meta-language	When a classroom task is presented in L2 and rule interpretation talking about a task, evaluating performance, and commenting in L1.	
Reiteration	to enhance meaning and affirmation.	
Alignment	to change the system by starting in (L1) then switching to English, and back to (L1).	
Topic switch	to alternate when the topic discussed changes.	
Direct Translation	to translate words, phrases, and sentences into the L1.	Guthrie (1984)
Checking, clarifying, and confirming	<p>to clarify and confirm understanding of various points.</p> <p>to avoid grammatical mistakes in the L2.</p> <p>To avoid difficult expressions in the L2.</p> <p>To introduce a new difficult topic.</p> <p>to check comprehension and make sure students understand a teacher.</p> <p>to clarify grammar rules and make sure of confirming students' understating the grammatical terms.</p> <p>to reinforce students' understanding of the difficult items.</p>	<p>Al-Nofaie (2010)</p> <p>Rezvani, et al. (2011)</p> <p>Khresheh (2012)</p> <p>Moghadam, et al. (2012)</p> <p>Modupeola (2013)</p> <p>Horasan (2014)</p> <p>Timuçin & Baytar (2015)</p>
Explanation	<p>to explain a difficult subject such as scientific problems.</p> <p>to explain the meanings of vague words.</p> <p>to explain difficult ideas to facilitate understanding.</p> <p>to explain basic information.</p>	Bhatti et al., (2018).

	to explain difficult concepts and some of the details that are difficult for students to understand.	
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Table 3.1: The most common linguistic purposes of CS in the classroom.

2- Classroom management purposes

These purposes include all the functions that are related to classroom activities and instruction, and they are not directly related to foreign language teaching (Bhatti et al., 2018) (see Table 3.2).

Classroom Management Purposes	Description	According to
Procedures, guidance and managing	to change voice interaction which is used to divert students' attention to the lesson. to interact with students. to instruct new students. to guide students and give the class multiple instructions. to manage class, maintain discipline and order within the classroom, or keep students silent. to energise students. to direct students to a shift in the subject matter of the lesson. to highlight a certain part of the explanation. to provide feedback.	Horasan (2014) Guthrie (1984) and Timuçin & Baytar (2015) Rezvani, Street & Rasekh (2011)
Class routine	to talk about classroom procedures at the beginning and at the end of a lesson.	Horasan (2014)

Table 3.2: The most common class management purposes of CS in the classroom.

3- Social Purposes

Social purposes of CS in classrooms include all the other functions that deal with students' emotional side, maintaining social identity, and building social relations (Nguyen, 2013). They are not directly related to language teaching or classroom instruction (see Table 3.3).

social Purposes	Description	According to
Conflict Control	to blame, criticise, etc., because it is easier to use the native language.	Eldridge (1996)
Cultural issues	such as the pronunciation of names and places correctly by using the mother tongue.	Horasan (2014)
Attract attention	to attract students' attention or to make a difference in the classroom.	Guthrie (1984), Timuçin & Baytar (2015), Horasan (2014)
Socialising functions	to build friendly relationships between teachers and students. to create a strong relationship between the teacher and the student associated with the emotional aspect of the students' personalities. to give students the chance to communicate with each other and seek to get communicative competence in English classes. to engage with students in a small talk. to minimise the anxiety of students. to say religious expressions.	Raschka et al. (2009) Almuhayya (2010) Rezvani, et al. (2011) Khresheh (2012). Yavuz (2012). Modupeola (2013) Bhatti (2018).
Affective functions	to express feelings and emotions.	Mattsson & Burenhult (1999)
Sense of humour	for accurate expression using jokes or humorous illustrations for the purpose of conveying meaning and content. to reduce student stress.	Horasan (2014)

	to create a friendly and interesting environment.	
Other reasons	It is difficult to clarify certain cases because there are no obvious reasons for the use of CS. The term “filling the gaps” is used to refer to those reasons.	Guthrie (1984) and Timuçin & Baytar (2015)

Table 3.3: The most common social purposes of CS in the classroom.

To summarise, there are various purposes/reasons/functions of teachers’ use of CS, and different teachers employ it in a variety of ways. Generally, the most common purposes of CS are linguistics, classroom management, and social purposes, as mentioned in the previous three tables.

However, some researchers employ different divisions across the functions of CS, distinguishing instead only two primary categories. For example, Modupeola (2013) presented two main CS categories: repetitive functions, which include linguistic purposes; and affective functions, which include social purposes. Similarly, according to Bhatti et al. (2018), the two main categories of CS functions are methodological functions, which include all linguistic purposes; and social functions, including classroom management and social purposes. In this thesis, I will consider the division of Bhatti (2018) where the linguistic purposes are included under the methodological functions category, and where the classroom management and social purposes fall under the social functions category (see Sections 3.5 and 6.4.2 for more details on how I categorised these functions for the purpose of this study). More specifically, I drew a primary distinction between social and non-social functions for the purposes of this thesis because social connections form an essential part of the classroom.

3.3.3. Are social relationships essential in the classroom?

Social relationships are important within the classroom because social interaction plays a vital role in learning, as highlighted by Ryan and Pintrich (1998). More specifically, these authors believed that teachers and peer relationships have an impact on a student’s motivation.

Often, students in the EFL classroom are characterised by a lack of motivation to learn English, which might be ameliorated with positive and strong social ties between the teacher and the students. According to Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris (2004) and Finn and Zimmer

(2012), this decreased motivation to learn English can result in a lack of student engagement in the classroom, which might gradually lead to them losing interest in learning. Therefore, good student-teacher relationships can establish and increase students' passion to learn English (McIntyre et al., 2019).

Moreover, Trickett and Moos (1973) believed that the social contexts inside classrooms affect not only students' motivation but also their individual development. According to Dewaele, Chen, Padilla and Lake (2019), and MacIntyre, Gregersen and Mercer (2019), a friendly and sympathetic relationship between teachers and students might increase their motivation and engagement. Teachers' caring and praising give students confidence, as well as feelings of appreciation and wellbeing (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Derakhshan, Saeidi & Beheshti, 2019; Havik & Westergård, 2020; Sun, 2021). Wentzel (1994) also believed that the relationship between the students and the teacher affected the classroom atmosphere, including students' attitudes towards learning, acceptance of their mistakes or ideas, and the learning rules set by the teacher. The author found that a positive relationship with teachers encourages students to pursue their pro-social classroom goals, and that this allows students to achieve learning without support from their parents or peers.

Some students might experience anxiety in foreign language classrooms (e.g., Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 2017; Ali & Anwar, 2021; *inter alia*), and this might also be ameliorated with strong social connections (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 1983; Goodenow, 1993; Wentzel, 1994; Palacios, 1998; Hallinan, 2008; Horwitz, 2008; Huang, Eslami, & Hu, 2010; Jin & Dewaele, 2018; *inter alia*). A vast amount of research has indicated the potential negative correlations between anxiety and foreign language performance (e.g., Horwitz, 1986; Trylong, 1987; Phillips, 1992; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016; MacIntyre, 2017; *inter alia*). Their studies suggested that anxiety might hinder students' achievements in foreign language learning. Huang, Eslami and Hu (2010) considered social support by teachers in the EFL classroom to be a key component that might relieve students' anxiety and thus positively affect their academic achievements. Also, Horwitz (2008) suggested that teachers' relationships with students, when based upon building a relaxed and comfortable environment, might be extremely helpful in reducing anxiety levels in the foreign language classroom and in increasing students' motivation to engage with the process of learning a foreign language.

According to Lin (1999), the strategic, creative and social use of L1 can ensure students' motivation to learn English. In this study, Lin observed English lessons in four Hong Kong classrooms (namely, A, B, C and D) with four different teachers. The students in Classroom A lived in an expensive residential area, and most of their families were professionals or professors, so the students' English language skills were very good. Students in this classroom had the chance to practise English outside the schools, especially with their parents or their domestic helpers, and they fluently participated inside the classroom. Thus, Classroom A students were already motivated and interested in learning English. Unlike Classroom A, the students in Classrooms B, C, and D lived on public housing estates or in small towns near the industrial zone. Their parents were normal workers and their levels of education ranged from primary to secondary. Thus, the students in these three classrooms came from disadvantaged socioeconomic backgrounds, where the English language was considered alien and did not belong to their culture. Thus, the students did not have the chance to practise English outside of the classrooms, and their English proficiency and fluency in English were poor. The teachers in Classrooms B and C generally used English to explain the lessons, and because of the students' limited knowledge of English, they did not understand their English lessons and found the English course boring. The author noticed that the students in these two classrooms, especially the boys, chatted and played during their classes due to their feelings of boredom. The students in these classrooms admitted that they did not like learning English, but that they were forced to take English lessons because they believed that they would be unable to attend a university or at least find a career without English.

Unlike Classrooms B and C, the teacher in Classroom D used the students' L1 most of the time to explain the lessons and interact with the students. Lin (1999) noticed that the students in this classroom were attentive, focused on their lessons, and eager to participate in the classroom activities, and the general atmosphere of the classroom was livelier than in the other classrooms. Also, Lin observed that this classroom teacher had good relationships with the students, which was already reflected in their interest in learning English. The author also interviewed this teacher, who stated that her use of L1 to explain the English lessons and while interacting with the students, helped them to understand the material, make great progress over the academic year, and take more interest in the lessons. Even though the students in Classroom D came from similar socioeconomic backgrounds to those in classrooms B and C, a background where English was considered a strange language that was irrelevant to their daily lives, the teacher's use of L1 transformed their habitus by

increasing their interest in learning English and building their confidence during English lessons. Therefore, according to the study findings, the teacher's use of L1 to explain difficult English lessons and to build good relationships with the students increased their motivation to learn English and improved their performance. This importance of social relationships was further supported by Lin (1996), who found that one of the most important functions of CS was to place a great emphasis on the role-relationship of friends. Moreover, Lin (2000) stressed that using CS to praise the students and establish friendly relationships with them helped to reduce the distance between teachers and students, which was reflected in their feelings of relaxation inside the classroom. It also helped to facilitate pedagogical tasks. In summary, social relationships are a vital backbone of effective classroom teaching and learning.

My first-hand experience of teaching EFL supports these previous findings, especially those of Lin (1999), which encourage a positive social relationship within classrooms. Through my personal observation of students' attitudes and performance in the classroom, I found that social interaction assisted the students to organise their thoughts and reflect on their understanding. When I was teaching English using the traditional method, in which English is only used to explain the lesson, I built positive relationships with students without using CS in any of my interactions with them, but the students' outcomes and attitudes were not satisfactory. However, when I started to use CS to build a positive relationship with the students, I observed that their attitudes regarding learning English and their performance in the class became better.

Thus, social CS between teachers and students within classrooms might be a key element of academic motivation and individual development. To preview the results, the current study also supports the importance of social interaction through CS in the classroom, especially if students lack motivation to learn English and suffer from anxiety, as they often do in Saudi EFL classrooms – this will be seen later in Chapter 5, Section 5.4.2. Thus, the purposes of social CS in this current study are to help create a friendly and warm environment to motivate students to learn a foreign language and minimise any existing anxiety, since students easily understand material when it is delivered in the L1. I will return later to discuss how social CS in this study might help these issues in Chapter 8, Section 8.2.1.

3.4. Does code-switching help in the EFL classroom?

Traditionally, teaching English in a foreign language classroom depended on using the GTM, which is one of the oldest teaching methods, known as the classical method. This method relies on translation into the native language when teaching the target language (Zhou & Niu, 2015). Later in the historical development of teaching methods, a belief in Krashen's theory of comprehensible input emerged, demonstrating that a student can learn by providing his/her target language with simple, assimilable information. In other words, as long as the student can learn through the target language gradually and very slowly, there is no need to spoil this learning by including vocabulary from his/her L1 (Al-Nofaie, 2010). This leads to the use of the Direct Method of teaching a foreign language, where the native language is expected to be excluded from the EFL classroom. In other words, teachers should be immersing students in the target language, using it at all times, regardless of whether the students understand or not (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, there is still a belief that both methods can be used by teachers and switching back and forth between the target language and the L1 is necessary for certain situations. Therefore, CS received more attention as a unique phenomenon and as a strategy for teaching a second language. Nevertheless, there arose serious debate over whether the use of CS in the EFL classroom has a positive or a negative impact on the process of teaching a foreign language (Jingxia, 2010).

Current research on CS in EFL classrooms, where English is taught as a general course, tends to fall into one of three camps. The non-empirical camp researches whether or not CS is helpful, based on beliefs concerning its consequences for learning. These claims are not generally based on experimental or empirical evidence but lay out experiences and opinions about how CS may affect learning. The empirical camp, by contrast, investigates whether or not CS is a good strategy in the EFL classroom, employing interviews, observations, audio/video recordings, and/or questionnaires. Finally, the experimental camp directly evaluates the effect of CS on students' actual progress in the EFL classroom, relying on pre-tests and post-tests, and experimental groups that are exposed to CS, and control groups where there is no CS.

3.4.1. Non-empirical approaches to code-switching in the EFL classroom

Some supporters of CS in the language classroom focused their research on their theoretical understanding of the process of English language learning. They believed that using CS inside classrooms is useful for both teachers and students, and it is thought to have a beneficial effect on the process of teaching and learning (e.g., Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Stern, Allen & Harley, 1992; Cook, 2001, 2008; Sert, 2005; Modupeola, 2013; Algarin-Ruiz, 2014). On the contrary, there are other studies that take a stance against the use of CS in the classroom; these researchers believe that it is not necessary for the process of learning and teaching (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Chambers, 1991; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Macdonald, 1993). The following two sub-sections summarise these claims and beliefs.

3.4.3.1 In favour of code-switching

Stern (1992) and Cook (2000) claimed that teachers' use of CS has a beneficial effect on the process of teaching. Stern (1992) believed that students' failure to improve their English level within an EFL classroom may be due to the insufficient use of their first language (L1) in illustrating some difficult points of the foreign language (L2), meaning that they needed greater use of their L1 within the EFL classroom. Cook (2000) believed that CS facilitates students' understanding and allows them to know the equivalents of L2 words in their mother tongue. It also encourages students to interact, participate, and express what they want to express exactly.

Moreover, Sert (2005) discussed the functions of CS and some of its benefits for both teachers and students in adult language classes. According to the author, CS is a natural phenomenon that occurs between students and teachers, so it can occur in the classroom. While using the students' native language strengthens the teacher-student relationship, CS also helps teachers to explain the complex procedures that may be difficult for students to grasp. One of the strategies of communication and negotiation to solve exercises among students who speak the same language is to use their L1. Therefore, they communicate and define the tasks in their L1 in order to understand the structure of the foreign language and understand its meanings. In other words, CS is considered an auxiliary tool used to solve exercises.

Modupeola (2013) also highlighted the essential function of a teacher's use of CS as a useful teaching strategy. According to the author, CS is a way to help students learn English, suggesting that the teacher's use of this technique facilitates the process of teaching and learning because it helps the teacher to introduce L2 grammar instructions and compare them to those of the L1. Instead of spending time illustrating the instructions and the rules of the classroom, the teacher's use of CS helps students to follow these instructions easily. According to Modupeola, this technique can help students to enjoy their learning and increase their comprehension of the teacher's input. Therefore, the author suggested that CS can be very useful for students, not only for those studying EFL, but also for those majoring in science and technology, because it helps with explaining complicated scientific concepts and terms. Modupeola also stated that CS techniques are more effective at the early stages of language learning, since they help students to gain a head start, as well as to work out and memorise the meaning of words, due to the teachers' use of the L1 equivalent of the English word. Overall, Modupeola believed that CS could be a useful strategy in foreign language classroom interaction when the aim is to ensure efficient knowledge transfer to students.

Similarly, Algarin-Ruiz (2014) explained how CS can be a useful tool within the classroom, highlighting its potential positive impact on students' learning. More specifically, CS allows teachers to translate cultural aspects, explain idioms, clarify grammar and new words, translate jokes, illustrate proverbs, etc. Also, CS can be a support tool to improve the foreign language since it creates a positive and valuable environment, allowing students to learn new terms and concepts. Therefore, according to Algarin-Ruiz (2014), students may gain a better education through the use of CS.

3.4.3.2 Against code-switching

Although CS is a spontaneous occurrence outside of school and in many communities (e.g., Baker, 1980; Auer, 1984 & 2005; Dabène & Moore, 1995; Finnis, 2013 and many others already mentioned in Chapter 2), some researchers still reject its use in classrooms. They cite many reasons for this, most notably a set of beliefs that the use of students' L1 will delay their learning of the foreign language (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Ellid, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Chambers, 1991; and Macdonald, 1993).

According to Ellis (1984), Wong-Fillmore (1985) and Chaudron (1988), it is not necessary for teachers to use CS inside classrooms. These authors argued that the best way to improve students' level of EFL is to be exposed to English all the time. Also, they argued

that the teacher's switching between languages not only affects the outcomes of the process of teaching, but also the students themselves, because this switch also allows students to use their L1. They claimed that students will ignore the value of the target language because they know if they do not understand the instructions of the foreign language class, the message will be repeated another time in their native language. In this case, students start to neglect the value of the target language and do not gain the benefits from it because they depend on their L1 in the classroom. Moreover, they claimed that the Direct Method, which was used in the 19th century when the use of the native language in a foreign language classroom was not allowed, is the best method to teach English, rather than using CS.

Similarly, Halliwell and Jones (1991, cited in Jingxia, 2010), Chambers (1991), and Macdonald (1993) agreed with the above studies. They believed that using the L1 when teaching a foreign language is not essential, and the focus should be on only using the L2 inside the classroom. They claimed that it is not essential for students to understand every word, as they can understand the gist of the overall message, and teachers can use many other ways to convey the meaning to the students instead of using CS. In other words, they can demonstrate or use visual cues when students need clarification. They also believed that using the L1 when teaching a foreign language and switching between the two does not help the growth of L2 and causes confusion in the learner's mind, especially in academic settings. For them, the use of the L1 in L2 teaching may make the student focus on the structures, logic, and methods of the formation of the foreign language rather than on its meanings and semantics. Therefore, teachers should not use CS while teaching EFL, in order to give students the chance to use the English language and, therefore, access English and acquire proficiency.

3.4.4. Empirical approaches to code-switching in the EFL classroom

While the above studies rely on (perhaps subjective) observations and opinions, a number of studies have investigated the role of CS in the EFL classroom from a more empirical basis through questionnaires, audio/video recordings, and interviews. Most of these empirical studies applied their research within university EFL classrooms, in different Asian and Middle East contexts, focusing on either the role of CS (the functions/situations/forms/reasons) or teachers' and students' attitudes towards CS in the classroom. (e.g., Tang, 2002; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Jingxia, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Nguyen, 2013; Horason, 2014; Younas et al., 2014; Almulhim, 2014; Almuhaya, 2015;

Shahnaz, 2015; Bhatti, et al., 2018). Even though they conducted their research in a real EFL environment where CS was used, these studies' results depended on the analysis of questionnaires/interviews, or on observations of either students or teachers, then evaluating their uses of CS in the university EFL classroom.

Other similar studies conducted their research on learners of different age levels: secondary (e.g., Lee, 2008; Lee, 2010; Berg, 2013), intermediate (e.g., Alnofaie, 2010), or primary (e.g., Qian, Tian & Wang, 2009), but they maintained the same interest in CS in the classroom, and collected their data the same way as the studies in the previous paragraph.

Therefore, the following sub-section 3.4.4.1 introduces the empirical studies in favour of using CS in EFL classrooms, while the sub-section 3.4.4.2 presents other empirical studies that do not advocate its use within EFL classrooms.

3.4.4.1 Empirical studies in favour of code-switching

- At University/College Level

Some studies, conducted in multiple languages, focused on exploring the role of CS (the functions/reasons/purposes) within university EFL classrooms via audio recordings, interviews, and questionnaires (e.g., Nguyen, 2013; Almuhayya, 2015; Shahnaz, 2015; Bhatti, et al., 2018). These studies concluded that CS can be a useful tool for learning English for university students. Their results presented the various situations where teachers used CS in university EFL classrooms and the different reasons behind its use, as follows.

Nguyen (2013) aimed to investigate teachers' practice of switching between two languages in classroom instruction among EFL teachers at Vietnamese universities in order to recognise the different situations, forms, and functions of teachers' CS. The sample analysed in this study comprised 12 EFL teachers, most of whom had more than five years of teaching experience, except for one female and two male teachers. There were 12 participating students, eight females and four males. In terms of data collection methods, Nguyen used ethnography, which includes multiple instruments such as observations, taking field notes in an authentic natural setting, and interviewing. The 12 Vietnamese teachers were observed in their classroom teaching, their lessons were recorded, notes were taken, and interviews were conducted in order to gain an in-depth understanding of their perspectives. The results of the study demonstrated that teachers code-switch on two main

occasions. The first situation is when providing content-related instruction, such as English grammatical rules, pronunciation, or vocabulary. The second one is when managing the classroom process. The findings also showed that there are two main categorisations for teachers' CS: social and instructional functions. The instructional functions involved modelling English pronunciation, shifting tasks, repeating, or modifying information, quoting, and correcting. The social functions revolved around building good relationships with students. Furthermore, the results revealed that the teachers switched between two languages for different reasons. These were related to the teachers themselves, including all the needs of the classroom and their students, such as their weak ability in English and their lack of motivation to learn English. By collecting the data inside classrooms, Nguyen observed that teachers' switching to Vietnamese played a significant role in facilitating students' comprehension and making both students and teachers feel comfortable. The results suggested that CS may be a supporting tool for foreign language learning and acquisition if used in specific situations.

In the same vein, Almuhayya (2015) observed the educational use of CS in teaching EFL at a Saudi university in Majmaah, with a sample of six Arabic male EFL teachers. The main aim of this research was to discuss the functions of CS and the different reasons for the teachers' use of CS. There were six participants in his study, all male English teachers. For the purpose of the study, the author used a demographic questionnaire for the teachers and observed the lessons, using audio recording as well. Data analysis was classified into three main categories for the purposes of CS inside EFL classrooms: linguistic, classroom management, and social purposes. Through classroom observation, Almuhayya noticed that there were specific purposes common among the six teachers, such as clarifying new items and explaining activities and exercises. Regardless of the key goal of his research, Almuhayya used his classroom observation analysis to conclude that CS can be used as a medium of instruction and to perform valuable functions. In other words, this technique can help to identify new words, explain some parts of listening texts, explain pronunciation, clarify classroom instructions, and guide students, as well as engage in small talk with the students. Therefore, this study supported the previous research, which claimed that CS has a positive function in teaching an L2 and that it can be a helpful tool for facilitating foreign language learning.

Shahnaz (2015) explained the role of CS as a teaching strategy in a Pakistani university EFL classroom. The study aimed to help teachers to diversify their teaching methods, using

CS as a teaching strategy to improve the language learning process. The sample in this study were 100 undergraduate students from the engineering department who studied English as a general course, and 30 English language teachers from COMSATS university Islamabad (aka the Institute of Information Technology). Shahnaz used two questionnaires for data collection, including both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The findings showed that CS can be a tool to aid the process of language learning, and that it can help to maintain students' interest; they focus for a longer time than in classes where only English is used. Code-switching in the classroom also has different positive purposes, including the clarification of complicated grammar rules and new difficult concepts, releasing students' boredom and tensions, and creating an interesting environment inside classrooms. So, this study suggested that CS is a useful teaching strategy in the process of learning and teaching.

Bhatti, Shamsudin and Said (2018) investigated whether CS was useful as a language teaching tool in Pakistani university EFL courses. This study aimed to determine the nature of CS used by EFL teachers, its efficiency in English classrooms in Pakistan, and its functions and types in EFL classrooms. To accomplish the aims of this study, the selected participants were four teachers (labelled A, B, C, and D) who were teaching diploma courses. All of these teachers had MA and M.Phil. degrees and at least seven years' experience in teaching EFL. Since this study followed a qualitative research design, the authors observed the four teachers' natural and habitual use of CS, and used audio recording to determine the functions and types of CS used. The analysis of the collected data concluded that English was used as the medium of instruction, while CS from English to Pakistani Urdu occurred in several situations because the topics discussed in the four classes were different. In teacher A's lesson, the topic was "Eating Manners" and CS was frequently used, especially when the teacher explained the difficult points and wished to create a more relaxed and friendly environment. The lecture in the class of teacher B was about "Presentation Skills", and the teacher here switched only to explain the important ideas and to provide task instructions. In the class of teacher C, the lecture was about the "Eid Celebration" and CS was used to explain Pakistani cultural terms. It was observed that the teacher here switched frequently because there was no English equivalent for Pakistani cultural celebrations. She also switched at the beginning of the lecture to instruct the class and ask warm-up questions. In other words, it was observed that the teacher's CS at the beginning of the class allowed students to focus more and feel more relaxed. Lastly, the topic in the class of teacher D was "Cultural Food", and CS was used less here than in the other lessons. The switch only happened when deemed necessary to help students' understanding.

To sum up, the results from the observation conducted by Bhatti, Shamsudin and Said (2018) revealed that CS took place in various situations for various purposes, which differed depending on both the teacher and the type of topic being taught. The most common functions were mentioned, including the explanation of difficult and unclear points, the clarification of ambiguous concepts, and the creation of good relationships and a friendly atmosphere. This was supported by Bhatti et al. (2018), who believed that CS is necessary in classrooms in order to help students understand difficult and unclear points and to allow them to enjoy the lecture at the same time. In fact, the observations of the classrooms showed that in the classes of teachers A and C, where the teachers switched to create an interesting atmosphere, the students were more attentive and eager to participate in the discussion. Thus, this study suggested that CS may be very helpful for students' performance, especially for those who are not very proficient in English.

Within the same interest, other research has focused on exploring the role of CS in university EFL classrooms, similarly to the studies above, but in addition to the functions, they have also investigated the different attitudes of teachers and/or students towards the use of CS in the EFL classroom. The same as the four previous studies, they depended on questionnaires, audio/video recordings, observations, and/or interviews as data collection tools (e.g., Tang, 2002; Ahmad & Jussof, 2009; Jingxia, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Horason, 2014; Younas et al., 2014, Almulhim, 2014; inter alia). Their results supported CS within the classroom by presenting the different views of both teachers and students regarding CS.

Tang (2002) investigated the role of using the L1 in the Chinese context, as well as the different attitudes towards CS of teachers of Chinese university EFL courses. The respondents of this study were 20 teachers and 100 first-year students majoring in English language and attending a university in China. Students' English proficiency was intermediate, and teachers' experience of teaching English varied from one year to 30 years. The instruments used in this research included classroom observations, interviews, and questionnaires. Three reading lessons were selected, 50-minutes long each, randomly chosen and conducted by three teachers. These classes were observed and recorded to identify the frequency with which teachers used CS as well as the different situations in which they switched. Also, the teachers of these three classes were interviewed and asked about the reasons for their preferences related to switching between Chinese and English during their lessons. Moreover, there were two questionnaires, one for teachers and one for students, to determine their attitudes towards the use of Chinese in English lessons. Classroom

observations showed that CS was used on various occasions and for different purposes, which most commonly included explaining, clarifying, and translating complex words and ideas. The analysis of the teachers' interviews showed that all the participating teachers stated that they frequently switched to explain grammatical rules and clarify the meaning of some difficult points. They believed that CS was effective and less time consuming, and one of the most effective ways to learn a foreign language. The results of the questionnaires indicated that both teachers and students responded positively towards teachers' use of Chinese while teaching English in the classroom. The majority of the participating students believed that CS helped them to understand the difficult concepts better, and the majority of the teachers' responses suggested that it could help to facilitate English language learning. Overall, teachers' use of Chinese in university EFL lessons is perceived as a supportive tool with a facilitating role, according to the results of this study.

Correspondingly, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) aimed to explore the different functions of CS and the different attitudes towards its use within Malaysian university EFL classrooms. Their study determined the relationship between CS and successful learning, and demonstrated students' perceptions of teachers' CS in English language classrooms. The study included a survey of 299 randomly chosen low-level proficiency students who were taking an English Communication 1 proficiency course at a public Malaysian university. The questionnaire included 5-point Likert-type scale questions and it focused on three main points: the different occasions when students believed that CS could be helpful and an effective support in their learning, the extent of learning success as a result of the teacher's use of CS in the classroom, and the future use of CS. The findings showed that CS was used to serve different functions such as: checking for understanding, illustrating difficult concepts, clarifying the meaning of new vocabulary, explaining the difference between Malay and English grammar, elaborating the instructions related to classroom management, reducing students' anxiousness, and others. Moreover, the findings showed that students' exposure to CS provided a psychologically helpful learning environment for the students. Teachers' switching between Malay and English while teaching helped students to pay more attention and concentrate on teachers' explanations, especially if they learned the meaning of new words that they did not know before. A total of 64.6% of the students indicated that they felt lost when they did not know the meaning of new vocabulary and difficult concepts, or when they did not understand complex English structures; therefore, the teacher's use of CS helped them to feel less lost in the class. Moreover, a total of 69.3% of the students indicated that teachers' CS allowed them to enjoy the class, while a total of 52.1% indicated

that it helped them feel less tense. Moreover, 68.6% of the participants responded that CS helped students to feel more comfortable in their learning since they could accommodate the teachers' input. In other words, CS might help to create a friendly environment and remove students' stress.

In addition, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) highlighted a relationship between CS and students' learning success. More specifically, the results showed that 71.6% of the students said that CS helped them to understand the vague concepts and the grammatical rules being taught. Also, 67.3% of the students indicated that they were able to perform any task that the teachers assigned in the class when the teachers code-switched. Generally, students believed that in English-only classrooms, comprehensible input cannot be always ensured. In the EFL classrooms in which teachers do not use CS or they do not permit students to use CS, students cannot ask teachers to explain an unclear point due to their low linguistic abilities. According to the results, teachers' CS during the lessons increases the connections between teachers and students, also allowing the students to enjoy their discussion and communicate more with their teachers. Hence, the authors suggested that teachers' CS is a teaching strategy that reflects students' ability to understand the teacher's input through their success in achieving the tasks. This means that students' ability to use English effectively is shown by completing tasks as a result of their understanding during lessons, and that this reflects their learning success. Students in this study had a positive perception of teachers' CS in English classrooms, supporting and encouraging this technique in the future lessons; they believed that CS could be used as a great teaching strategy to help students improve their understanding of the teacher's input, especially for low-proficiency students of English. Overall, the results of this study suggested that CS is an affective support for students, associated with learning success, meaning that it allows students to gain effective and successful learning.

Moreover, Jingxia (2010) conducted his study at Chinese universities with the aim of looking at the main functions of the use of CS in the EFL classroom, and the attitudes of both teachers and students towards switching between L1 and L2 in the EFL classroom. Two hundred and sixty-one undergraduate students and eight teachers were randomly chosen from different classes from three Chinese universities. In order to collect the data, this study employed two main instruments: questionnaires and audio recordings. To grasp students' and teachers' attitudes towards the use of this strategy in the EFL classroom, Jingxia used two types of questionnaires: one for the teachers and the other for the students. The author

also used class recordings to examine teacher talk over the whole academic term in order to determine the main patterns and different functions of CS. The analysis of the collected data revealed that teachers' use of this strategy occurred either occasionally or sometimes in all the English classes. In most cases, CS occurred automatically as a teaching habit, and not as a conscious decision. Jingxia also found that 80% of the teachers and 66% of the students agreed with teachers' use of CS in foreign language classrooms, while 81% of the teachers and 75% of the students viewed it as a good strategy in EFL classrooms. Additionally, class recordings revealed the various functions of CS, including explaining complex grammar structures, translating unknown and unfamiliar items, quoting, changing topics, checking comprehension, attracting students' attention, emphasising certain points, and building a rapport between teachers and students. Generally, the teachers in this study believed that switching to Chinese was a particularly important and useful tool that could help students struggling to understand. Also, they asserted that CS has a significant role in classroom management and creating a stance of solidarity with or empathy towards students. Furthermore, the students stated that CS could help them to understand unfamiliar items, express their emotions, create a good educational atmosphere, and reduce their nervousness, especially when they used the target language in a conversation. Overall, Jingxia's study showed that teachers' CS played a positive role throughout the process of teaching and learning.

Alshammari (2011) is another study that aimed to examine the role of using Arabic within Saudi university EFL classrooms, also investigating students' and teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in the EFL classroom. To fulfil the aims of this study, Alshammari used two different types of questionnaires. The first questionnaire analysed students' views on the use of the L1 while learning a foreign language, while the second questionnaire was for teachers, to establish the different situations in which teachers considered it necessary to switch between Arabic and English. These questionnaires were shared with 13 teachers and 95 students from two Saudi technical colleges in Madinah, Saudi Arabia. The results showed that 21% of the participating students preferred their teachers to always use L1 during their L2 learning, while 54% of them preferred their teachers to use Arabic only in certain situations, and 14% of them preferred a scarce usage of Arabic in EFL classrooms. On the other hand, 10% of these students would rather their teachers did not switch between two languages and used English at all times. The results also revealed that 60% of the participating teachers used CS to help them reduce the time spent on explanations, while 24% of them believed that switching between Arabic and English increased students'

comprehension; only 15% of these teachers believed that using Arabic while teaching English could make the process of learning more effective. All in all, according to the results of this study, using the L1 within EFL classrooms may be useful during the process of learning a foreign language, and essential in some situations to increase students' comprehension. Generally, this study showed that CS can be a helpful strategy on some occasions if used in a balanced way.

Furthermore, Horasan (2014) conducted her study in a Turkish university's EFL classrooms to look at the role of CS in a classroom setting, as well as the perceptions of both teachers and students towards using CS in EFL teaching and learning. The sample of the study comprised 43 students divided into two classes, and four female teachers. The student sample included 25 males and 18 females, aged between 17 and 22 years old, while the teachers were aged between 26 and 28, with variable English experience of four to six years. Horasan collected the data at the elementary level of a public university through classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews with both teachers and students. The results of the collected data showed that CS was frequently used within university EFL classrooms to serve different functions such as building relationships between teachers and students, interacting with different situations within the classroom, explaining complicated rules, clarifying meanings, repeating instructions, and interpreting difficult concepts for students. Students believed that CS enabled them to participate in lessons and motivated them to learn the language. Teachers believed that a greater use of CS in classrooms facilitates students' understanding and attracts students' attention. According to the results of this study, using CS when learning a foreign language has positive effects on both students and teachers and could be a good language-learning tool, especially for those students who have low proficiency in English.

Younas et al. (2014) gathered their data from a Pakistani university to test the functions of CS inside EFL classrooms. The study also explored university students' attitudes towards teachers' use of this technique and its impact on L2 learning. The participants in this study were 60 undergraduate English students at the university of Sargodha, Mandi Bahauddin (UOS MB Din) in Pakistan. A three-point rating scale questionnaire was the data collection instrument. The results of the questionnaire showed that 98% of the students agreed that CS helped them to memorise new information easily, while 87% of them agreed that it decreased the anxiety and pressure imposed by learning a foreign language and increased the feeling of comfort. Moreover, 90% agreed that CS helped them to improve their communicative

skills. Therefore, the findings indicated the usefulness of CS, as it helps with solving students' problems and difficulties during the process of learning a foreign language and creates a realistic environment for teaching EFL.

Likewise, Almulhim (2014) investigated the functions of CS inside Saudi university EFL classrooms and looked at both teachers' and students' attitudes concerning CS in EFL. 200 students and five teachers from 12 classrooms in Alahsa University in Saudi Arabia participated in the study, and the data were collected through video recordings of all the lessons and interviews with the participants. Almulhim transcribed and analysed the recordings to determine the different functions of CS used inside the classroom, and interviewed both teachers and students to gather their perceptions regarding CS. The results of this study uncovered various functions of CS, namely affective, metalinguistic, repetitive, class management, and slips of the tongue. Additionally, the analysis of the interviews revealed that, even though both teachers and students had different opinions about CS, the majority agreed that its use was necessary on certain occasions. Some students highlighted CS's usefulness in simplifying their understanding and delivering information more easily. Moreover, some teachers agreed that certain functions of CS may facilitate the process of teaching and learning, especially with low-level students. All in all, CS is sought as inevitable when occurring as a habitual practice by both students and teachers.

Even though the studies discussed above investigated the use of CS in the university EFL classroom in various contexts including China, Malaysia, Vietnam, Korea, Pakistan, Turkey, and Saudi Arabia, their results confirmed that CS, at the university level, is a valuable tool that facilitates the English language learning process.

- *At Secondary Level*

In contrast to these university-level studies, other researchers conducted their research with younger students, in secondary EFL classrooms, and they explored the use of CS in this environment. These studies, which were conducted in various cultural contexts such as Korea, Malaysia, and Sweden, focused on investigating the different situations of teachers' use of CS in EFL secondary classrooms based on interviews and audio/video recordings (e.g., Lee, 2008), or exploring the functions of/reasons for CS, or teachers' attitudes towards it by using a questionnaire, observations and/or interviews (e.g., Lee, 2010; Berg, 2013).

Lee (2008) aimed to provide a deeper understanding of the aspects and factors that may affect EFL teachers' chosen language during lessons and investigated the different patterns and contextualised meanings of the teachers' CS between English and Korean in EFL secondary classrooms. To collect the data, this study employed video and audio recordings, interviews, and the taking of notes. It focused on two teachers in two public secondary schools in Seoul, Korea. The findings showed that both teachers switched to Korean for many reasons. However, students' limited comprehension, their reduced understanding, and their loss of attention during class were the concerns that motivated the teachers to switch between the two languages. When both teachers found that students failed to provide answers when asked in the class, i.e., non-response to questions, or gave incorrect answers, the teachers switched to Korean to ensure students' comprehension. However, there were contradictions between the two teachers in their range and frequency of CS occurrences. One teacher did not switch unless she had received signals of students' incomprehension, or she had tried different strategies such as rephrasing, repeating English instructions, or using contextualisation cues, such as real objects and gestures. On the other hand, the other teacher immediately switched to Korean to provide translations of English expressions when students failed to understand them. In general, the results pointed out that both teachers had similar ideas of the pedagogical purposes of CS, using it to translate, explain difficult ideas, clarify vague English expressions, and explain grammatical rules. Overall, this study showed that CS can help to increase students' comprehension inside the classroom.

Moreover, Lee (2010) aimed to determine the various types, functions, and frequency of CS in Malaysian EFL secondary classrooms. The study aimed to investigate teachers' attitudes regarding CS and describe the effects of switching between two languages in the process of learning the English curriculum. The respondents in this study were 46 English teachers from different secondary schools located in Malaysia. In order to collect the required data, Lee used a survey questionnaire. The results showed that most of the teachers had a positive approach towards using CS, and that they used it only when they needed such a method in the teaching process. The results also revealed that teachers considered it an excellent technique that could make learning a foreign language easier. The vast majority (88.1%) of the teachers believed that CS in classrooms can be helpful for learning a foreign language, while 47.6% of them believed that it should be used only when necessary, despite their belief in its effectiveness for learning a foreign language. The results also suggested that teachers' responses regarding the different situations in which teachers used CS in classrooms varied. The teachers code-switched to serve different functions in the English

language classrooms. The majority of the teachers agreed that CS is used to explain new vocabulary, discuss tests, clarify difficult ideas and language rules, translate idioms and stories, and save teachers' time. Overall, the teachers involved in this study believed that this strategy could play an important role in facilitating EFL learning. Moreover, most of them agreed with the positive effect that CS could have on students' English learning, increasing their chances of improving their learning. Overall, Lee believed that CS could be a useful and effective technique for use in EFL secondary school classrooms.

Berg (2013) also aimed to recognise the various reasons for using CS and teachers' views regarding its use within Swedish EFL secondary classrooms. This study was based on observations and interviews with different teachers in three Swedish-English bilingual secondary schools. Berg observed seven lessons to see how CS worked, and interviews were conducted with these teachers to elaborate on their answers and personal opinions/views about CS. Through the classroom observations, Berg noticed that teachers were forced to use CS to ensure that they conveyed complex ideas to the students. For example, in one of the classrooms, a teacher handed an article to the students to read and discuss. When one of the students asked the teacher to explain one of the ideas in the article, the teacher illustrated the idea in English and, when he felt that the students did not understand, he tried a different way to convey the message by drawing some pictures on the board. Despite the additional explanation, the teacher felt that the students had not understood the exact meaning, thus he was finally forced to switch from English to Swedish. Also, the classroom observations revealed that students tended to switch between English to Swedish because of their lack of knowledge of the target language lexemes. Berg observed that students would start their speech in English until they reached a word that they did not know the equivalent of in English, they would then try to find synonyms, but they would finally end their speech in Swedish. Thus, Berg observed two main points about CS in the classroom. First, that students used it because of their poor knowledge of the target language, and second that teachers used CS in their speech to ensure that they conveyed the right meaning to the students. Teachers' interviews revealed that switching to Swedish when teaching English could be useful in some cases when the teacher felt that it was necessary. Overall, this study suggested that teacher's use of CS in EFL secondary classrooms is inevitable, and it has positive functions that might be helpful for learning a foreign language.

Although the previous studies, conducted in multiple languages including Malaysian, Korean and Swedish, explored the use of CS in EFL secondary classrooms, their results

suggested that CS at the secondary level is a valuable tool that facilitates the English language learning process.

- **At Primary Level**

So far, however, there have been few studies examining the role of teachers' use of CS in EFL intermediate and primary education, in comparison to the number of studies conducted in university EFL or secondary classrooms. Qian, Tian and Wang (2009) investigated the role of CS in EFL primary school classrooms. Like the above studies, this study also supported the idea that this technique facilitates the learning of English inside the EFL classroom. Qian, Tian and Wang (2009) aimed to determine and identify the different types and functions of CS that teachers use while they are teaching EFL at the primary school level in China. Two female teachers, as well as between thirty and forty students, were selected as research subjects. In order to collect the data, the authors of this study used video recordings to examine how teachers and young students reacted to the use of CS in an EFL primary classroom, as well as the usefulness of this technique for learning the language. The teachers were instructed to video record 20 general English lessons, out of which 10 videotapes were chosen to be analysed in the research. The study results showed that both teachers used CS for a variety of functions: translation, clarification, highlighting, praising, and encouraging. Moreover, they used CS as a discourse methodology in order to manage the students efficiently and allow them to interact with each other and with the teachers. It was also found that CS helped to strengthen the rapport between teachers and learners and create a good environment. The study showed that primary EFL classrooms in China accept and embrace CS, due to the fact that teachers can reach the students more efficiently when they use the original language with English, in addition to increased interaction, which could facilitate the English learning process.

At the end of this sub-section, we can note from the results of the previous studies, shown in multiple languages, that CS is a very useful tool that may facilitate the process of EFL teaching and learning at different levels.

3.4.4.2 Empirical studies against code-switching

In contrast to earlier findings in the previous sub-section, a few other scholars have argued that CS is unnecessary in EFL classrooms. For example, Al-Nofaie (2010) was one of the

few scholars to work with younger intermediate-level students, but the study did not support the use of CS in the EFL intermediate classroom.

- **At Intermediate Level**

Al-Nofaie (2010) argued that use of the L1 when teaching a foreign language is unnecessary and should be avoided. The author aimed to investigate the attitudes of both students and teachers regarding the use of L1 within Saudi EFL intermediate classrooms. The study sample comprised three teachers and thirty intermediate students at a school in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Three instruments were applied to collect the data for this study: interviews, questionnaires for both students and teachers, and classroom observations. The results revealed that, even though students tended to use their L1 inside the classrooms, believing that this helped them to clarify some points in some cases, most of them wanted to avoid its use because they wanted to increase their opportunities to practise English. The results also showed that the teachers believed that switching between L1 and L2 did not help the growth of foreign language knowledge and should be avoided.

3.4.5. Experimental approaches of code-switching in the EFL classroom

To date, far too little attention has been paid to using a rigorous methodology to examine the actual learning outcomes in the EFL classroom that can be attributed to CS in the classroom, generally or across different English skills. Few studies employed a rigorous methodology to examine the effect of CS across multiple English skills (reading, writing, listening) and/or language components (vocabulary, grammar). They tended to use pre-tests and post-tests to measure students' improvements over time, using experimental groups where CS was applied, and control groups that depended only on explanations in English. Even though these experimental studies tested students' progress relative to CS, they mostly focused only on the university level and on a certain English skill. More specifically, some applied this rigorous methodology to test the effect of CS on vocabulary learning only (e.g., Tian, 2012; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013). Others used pre-tests and post-tests to examine the impact of the use of this technique on grammar learning only (e.g., Alseweed, 2012; Almansour, 2016), or on writing learning only (e.g., Yigzaw, 2012).

3.4.5.1 Experimental studies in favour of code-switching

The experimental studies that are in favour of using CS in the EFL classroom collected their data from university-level students to test the effect of CS on students' vocabulary learning, specifically in EFL Chinese/Korean university classrooms. Their results showed that the students in the experimental groups where CS was used made greater progress in learning English than those in the control groups, where English was the sole language used for teaching and learning. Therefore, it can be concluded that this technique may help to improve students' EFL vocabulary knowledge at the university level (e.g., Tian, 2011; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013).

More specifically, Tian (2011) aimed to test the possible effects of teachers' CS on students' EFL vocabulary learning through listening activities. The participants in this study were 117 first-year Chinese students, aged approximately 19 years old, majoring in English within the Foreign Languages Department of a Chinese university. Data were collected through tests, questionnaires, and video recordings. The participants were randomly divided into three groups: two experimental groups where CS was applied, and one control group where English was the only language of instruction and learning. Even though the courses taught were the same across the three different groups, each group was taught by a different teacher. Pre- and post- vocabulary and listening comprehension tests were given immediately before and after the start of the teaching sessions, while delayed post-tests were administered one week after the last teaching session. Generally, the test results showed that the experimental group students benefited from the use of CS, compared to those in the control group; more specifically, their post-test and delayed test results were higher than the those of the control group students. Particularly, the results also showed that students recalled a similar amount of vocabulary in both the post-tests and delayed tests, which means that CS was useful both in the short term and in the long term. Therefore, the results suggest that teachers' use of CS for explaining vocabulary improved the students' vocabulary learning, compared to providing explanations solely in the L2.

Tian and Macaro's (2012) study was also based on pre-tests and post-tests to show the relationship between teacher CS and vocabulary learning outcomes within university EFL classrooms. This study used an experimental design with pre-tests and delayed post-tests, and it was conducted in Chinese universities. The sample of this study comprised 117 first-year students majoring in English, divided into experimental and control groups. They were

given a pre-test, followed by a teaching period that lasted six weeks, and finally, the delayed post-test was carried out after two weeks. The findings suggested some benefits of teacher CS for teaching vocabulary. The results showed that students in the experimental group benefited from the teacher's CS over those in the control group where L1 only was used. Even though the results did not show that CS had a substantial benefit on vocabulary acquisition, students can still gain from the use of this technique to improve their vocabulary knowledge. In other words, switching to the L1 can facilitate the process of learning vocabulary, and teachers can switch to the L1 in many situations and for different purposes. Overall, the results of this study showed a positive relationship between teachers' CS and vocabulary learning outcomes.

Moreover, Lee and Macaro (2013) also conducted rigorous research to test the influence of teacher's CS on both EFL adults and young learners, with a focus on English vocabulary learning compared to classes where only English instruction was given. The participants in this study were from Korea, from two age range categories. At the adult level, there were 10 teachers and 268 freshmen undergraduate students, aged 19 years old, from three different majors in college. At the young learners' level, there were 443 students, aged 12, from two different elementary schools. At each age level, students were divided into two groups: an experimental group that used CS and the control group using L2 only. The research instruments included vocabulary tests, questionnaires, and interviews. The vocabulary tests were carried out in three stages: a vocabulary pre-test to assess the students' vocabulary knowledge of new words; an immediate vocabulary post-test to measure vocabulary knowledge acquisition; and a delayed vocabulary post-test to check the recall of vocabulary knowledge. The questionnaire/interview was designed to assess students' attitudes regarding teachers' CS. The test results showed that this technique was effective and had significant consequences for both the acquisition and retention of vocabulary knowledge. More specifically, the experimental group students' scores were higher than those in the control groups. Although teachers' CS was evaluated as having a positive impact on both adults and young students in their vocabulary learning, it was more effective in the young groups than in the adult groups, for both vocabulary acquisition and retention. The interview results also showed that, even though both age groups had positive views towards teachers' CS for teaching vocabulary, they differed in their preferences for vocabulary teaching techniques. The adult groups would sometimes rather study with native speaking English teachers. Generally, the study results suggested that CS could be effective in improving students' vocabulary knowledge.

While the three above-mentioned studies examined the impact of CS on university students' vocabulary acquisition and retention, Yigzaw (2012) conducted one of the very few studies at the secondary level to test the impact of CS on students' writing outcomes only.

Yigzaw (2012) aimed to determine the effect of using the L1 (Amharic) for teaching a foreign language (English) writing classes with grade 11 (secondary school students). The participants were 108 students from a preparatory school, aged 15–19, divided into two groups: experimental and control. The study was based on pre- and post-writing tests as well as interviews. The pre-tests and post-tests were done individually by the students in both groups. Prior to the post-tests, there was a pre-writing stage where the experimental group students were allowed to discuss and gather ideas using CS as a group, not individually. On the other hand, the control group students were allowed to outline their ideas as a group but they could use only English. The results of the tests showed that students in the experimental group obtained higher results in the post-test than those in the control group. The analysis of the interviews revealed that some students considered that using Amharic during the pre-stage writing helped them to discuss the ideas in depth and enhanced their writing ability. Therefore, the findings indicated that using L1 during the pre-writing stage may have a valuable impact on students' progress in writing, especially when collecting ideas before beginning the actual writing.

3.4.5.2 Experimental studies against code-switching

In contrast to the findings in the previous sub-section, especially in the Saudi context, some scholars have argued that CS is unnecessary for learning grammar in EFL classes at university level (e.g., Alseweed, 2012; Almansour, 2016). For example, Alseweed (2012) and Almansour (2016) used rigorous methodology and claimed that teachers' use of CS was not effective for learning grammar in Saudi university EFL classrooms.

Alseweed (2012) examined the use of the L1 when teaching grammar inside university EFL classrooms, with a chosen sample of 26 male students from Buraydah Community College, Saudi Arabia. All of these students were enrolled on the English programme, and they had studied English for at least six years while they were in secondary and intermediate schools. The students were divided into two main groups; group A was the control group where the teacher was not allowed to switch to L1, while group B was the experimental group where the teacher could code-switch between L1 and L2. Data collection was

conducted using pre-tests and post-tests, as well as interviews with both students and teachers. The students were given pre-tests before the teaching period, which lasted for six weeks, followed by a post-test similar to the pre-test, covering all the rules that the students had learned in the class. After the post-test, all of the participating students were interviewed to gather their views on the effects of CS on their learning of English grammar. Also, interviews were conducted with the nine teachers in the English programme to garner their opinions and experiences of teaching English grammar with the help of CS. The test results revealed that the number of students who passed the test in the control group was higher than in the experimental group. Also, the research interviews' findings indicated that the vast majority of both teachers and students expressed a preference for using only English when teaching grammar as they believed that avoiding the use of the L1 would achieve positive goals. Therefore, the results from this study suggested that it is not necessary to use CS for teaching grammar and that it has no great effect on learning English grammar for university students.

Similarly, Almansour (2016) investigated the effectiveness of CS as a grammar learning strategy within EFL classrooms. The study sample included two female teachers from King Saud University in Saudi Arabia and 46 undergraduate female students. For data collection, Almansour used three types of instruments: audio recordings of teachers' talks, which were conducted at four separate times; pre-tests and post-tests that contained 28 grammar questions; and a student survey with 60 questions to measure students' attitudes towards teachers' CS. Almansour divided the sample of the study into two groups, and the author instructed the teachers on the amount of CS to be used in these two groups, namely around 1% of the teacher's talk in one group and almost 60% for the other group. Even though the results showed that the students considered CS to be a helpful strategy in the classroom, their scores in the exams contradicted their views. More specifically, the scores of the students in the group where 60% CS was used were lower than those of the students in the other group; thus, the results showed that CS did not effectively help the students to learn English grammar even if the students preferred it as a teaching strategy. To conclude, CS did not make a difference or help the students to learn English grammar in the university EFL classroom, according to the results of the study tests.

We can note from the two previously discussed experimental studies (Alseweed, 2012; Almansour, 2016) as well as the empirical study in the previous section (Al-Nofaie, 2010) that there is a resistance in Saudi Arabia to employing CS in the EFL classroom, even though

multiple empirical studies that have been conducted with multiple languages, including Arabic (e.g., Alshammari, 2011; Almuhayya, 2015), have evaluated CS as a helpful strategy. Therefore, more experimental studies should be conducted to further investigate the effect of CS on students' English learning outcomes.

Table 3.4 summarizes the common aims, methods, and results of all the above empirical and experimental studies in the four previous sub-sections, whether for or against the use of CS inside classrooms, in particular EFL classrooms.

The Study	Language	Age	Aim	Methods	Results
Tang (2002)	Chinese	University	Role of CS	Common methods: Questionnaire. Observations. Interviews. Video/audio recording. Taking notes.	CS helps the University EFL classroom.
Jingxia (2010)					
Ahmad & Jusoff (2009)	Malaysian				
Nguyen (2013)	Vietnamese				
Horason (2014)	Turkish				
Alshammari (2011)	Arabic				
Almulhim (2014)					
Almuhayya (2015)					
Younas et al. (2014)	Pakistani				
Shahnaz (2015)					
Bhatti, et al. (2018)					
Tian (2012)	Chinese		Effect of CS on learning (vocabulary)	Tests. Questionnaires/inter views.	CS helps in improving vocabulary outcomes
Tian & Macaro (2012)					
Lee & Macaro (2013)	Korean				
Lee (2010)	Malaysian	Secondary	Role of CS	Questionnaire. Observations. Interviews. Video/audio recording.	CS helps in the Secondary EFL classroom.
Berg (2013)	Swedish				
Lee (2008)	Korean				
Yigzaw (2012)	Amharic		Effect of CS on learning (writing)	Tests.	CS helps in improving

					writing outcomes.
Qian, et al. (2009)	Chinese	Primary	Role of CS	Video recording.	CS helps in the EFL primary classroom.
Lee & Macaro (2013)	Korean		Effect of CS on learning (vocabulary)	Tests. Questionnaires/inter views	CS helps in improving vocabulary outcomes.
AlNofaie (2010)	Arabic	Intermediate	Role of CS	Questionnaire. Observations. Interviews.	CS should be avoided in the EFL classroom.
Alseweed (2010)		University	Effect of CS on learning (grammar)	Tests. Survey.	
Almansour (2016)					

Table 3.4: A brief description of the empirical & experimental studies which discuss the use of CS in EFL classrooms (The black colour refers to the empirical studies, while red colour means the experimental studies)

To sum up, as we can see from Table 3.4, most of the discussed empirical studies focused on the experience in the classroom rather than the actual improvement in English learning. They did not look at actual student progress, but instead looked at either the various reasons/motivations for using CS in the classroom or whether teachers and students supported its use in the classroom.

However, there are a few other studies that actually used rigorous pre- and post-tests and examined the effect of CS on students' outcomes, focusing on a specific skill of the English language or a language component (e.g., Tian, 2012; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Yigzaw, 2012; Alseweed, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Almansour, 2016). Therefore, my study aims to look at the actual improvements in students' skills and knowledge in EFL classrooms as a result of the effect of CS, not only based on the general improvement, but also on their progress in different English skills (reading, listening, writing) and language components (grammar and vocabulary). The following section lays out how my work will fill in these gaps in the current literature.

3.5. Contributions of the current study

In the previous sections, I mentioned the different views and studies regarding teachers' use of CS within EFL classrooms. On the one hand, most of these studies agree that the use of this tool facilitates learning and has an effective role and valuable functions, signifying that the use of CS within EFL classrooms has a positive impact on the process of teaching. On the other hand, there are other studies which not only did not support the use of this strategy in the classroom but also concluded that such switches may harm the process of learning a foreign language, especially in Saudi Arabia. Following an examination of most of these previous studies, I noted some issues that may affect their findings, compared to my current study.

First, there is a lack of breadth of age groups. Most of the studies that have investigated CS in the EFL classroom focused on a specific age group, mostly at the university/secondary school level, but there was less focus on younger children (Intermediate/Primary school) (see Table 3.4). Moreover, there is little comparison of the effects of CS on students' performance across different age groups, as seen in the previous section.

Furthermore, there is a lack of breadth of English language skills and components. Most of the previous studies did not test the effect of CS on different English language skills and, even if they did, they focused only on one skill, therefore leading to a gap in the literature. The vast majority of these previous studies focused on the role of CS in the classroom in order to either present the various reasons, functions, and types of CS or to report on the different attitudes of teachers and students regarding CS in the classroom. However, few studies have focused on a specific English language skill/component (e.g., Tian, 2012; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Alseweed, 2012; Yigzaw, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Almansour, 2016).

In addition, there is a lack of consistency across the types and purposes of CS. There are important differences in why and how teachers use this tool in the classroom. As highlighted in Section 3.3, the functions of CS also vary; however, these functions can be organised under three major categories: linguistic, classroom management, and social. According to previous studies, teachers switch habitually from the target language to the L1, and therefore, they vary in their uses of CS. Some switched only for specific purposes (e.g., linguistic purposes), while others switched for several purposes (e.g., linguistic and classroom management purposes, or linguistic and social purposes, etc.). To date, no experimental

studies have tested the effect of mixing all of these purposes together on students' progress in EFL classrooms, compared to English-only classrooms.

Moreover, there has been little experimental manipulation, as to date most studies have used observational designs. The majority did not test the impact of CS within EFL classrooms through actual experiments (except those studies that tested the influence of CS only on learning a specific English language skill or component). They examined CS by observing teachers' and students' talk, using an audio recorder, doing interviews, or using a questionnaire, as presented in Table 3.4. Therefore, the effect of teachers' CS on learning is still not clear since most of what we know about CS inside EFL classrooms comes from these empirical studies. As seen above, the majority of previous works, conducted in many languages at every level and in every domain, agree that CS can help students' experience inside EFL classrooms. However, relying on the common methods used in these previous studies, we still do not know whether or not CS actually improves students' performance in EFL classrooms.

Furthermore, there has been a lack of control over different instructors' teaching methods in previous studies. In other words, not all English teachers code-switch in the same way, as their teaching methods and strategies vary, and their teaching styles are also different; therefore, comparing results across classrooms cannot control for differences between teachers.

Consequently, the current study addresses these limitations and finds solutions for these issues as follows. First, this study's sample population includes students of all age levels (university, secondary, intermediate, and primary) and the data are compared across these levels to determine whether the various CS purposes have the same effect on different age groups and how CS can improve English learning among these different age groups. Second, I ask whether CS might have different effects on the learning of different English skills and components: i.e., vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening. Third, I allow for the possibility of differential effects for various functions of CS by distinguishing two broad categories and controlling for them in the classroom. As noted earlier, I consider Bahatti's (2018) division of CS purposes: methodological and social, but I distinguish between pure methodological code-switching (Methodological CS) and a combination of methodological and social CS (Mixed CS). The first of these categories (Methodological CS) allows the teacher to switch from English to Arabic purely for linguistics purposes, which in a

classroom setting could be explaining a grammar rule, new word, idiom, pronunciation, part of a reading text, or part of a listening text, etc. The second category (Mixed CS) allows the teacher to switch for all possible reasons, from linguistic purposes to classroom management, social, or personal purposes. Here, the teacher could use CS for various situations, ranging from general conversation, classroom discussion, and encouraging students, to discussing everything within the classroom context (see Figure 3.1). Consequently, in the current study, I study the effect of these various purposes of CS on student learning through the use of Methodological CS and Mixed CS, which will be explained in detail in the methodology section. Fourth, I employ rigorous experimental methods to control for other possible sources of variation in the results. As data collection tools, I use a pre- and post-test, and examine the effect of using CS in classrooms by analysing the results of the students in the exam. Furthermore, I was the teacher for all of the groups in this study, and I used controlled switches in the classroom. This means that my teaching style was consistent across the different groups, the number of switches was prepared carefully before the class, and this number was kept consistent (see Chapter 6, Section 6.4.2).

The results of my study suggest that alternating between the target language and the L1 in the classroom might improve students' performance as well as the outcome of the process of teaching, especially if English is taught as a mandatory subject, and not as a second language.

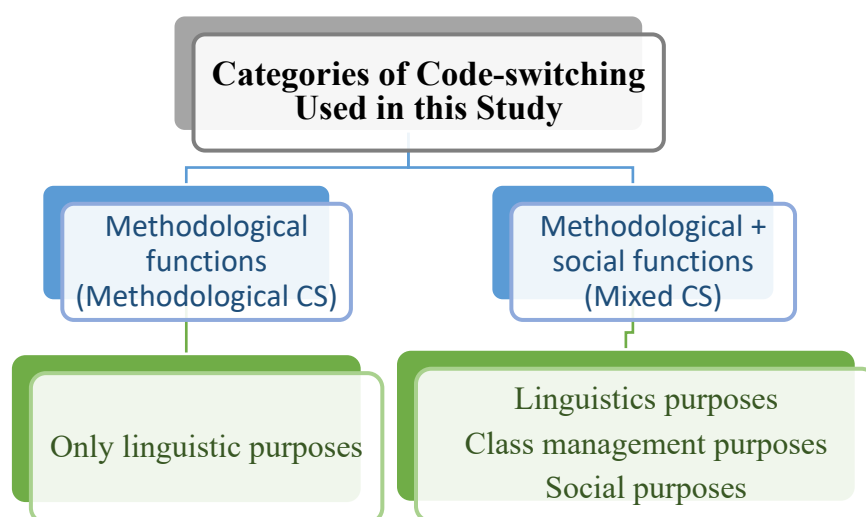


Figure 3.1: The distinction between Methodological CS and Mixed CS

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the concept of CS, presenting the possible functions it can serve in the EFL classroom. It highlighted the importance of social CS in the classroom. The chapter also explored the use of CS in the EFL classroom, discussing the different beliefs and empirical arguments regarding its use, and showing the limitations in the previous literature compared to the investigation of the current study. As my study also aims to test the effects of different CS purposes on students' performance in various English language skills and components across different age ranges, the following chapter will focus on these three key variables: age; English skills and components; and two categories of CS. It will discuss how the learners' ages and the different English language skills and components might be impacted by the two categories of CS.

Chapter 4: Key Variables

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides more details about the three key variables of this study: the different age sets, the different English language skills and components, and the two categories of CS. One aim in my study is to test the effect of CS on the outcomes of students of different ages; therefore, Section 4.2 presents the relationship between age and learning a foreign language and how this might be impacted by CS. Another aim is to test the effect of CS, not only on learning English generally, but also on the English language skills and components that are taught in the Saudi EFL classrooms: vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing and listening, as detailed in Section 4.3. The chapter ends by presenting in Section 4.4 the two categories of CS used in this current study and how they can affect students' learning of different ages and various skills.

4.2. Different age groups and code-switching

This section aims to present the effect of a learner's age on learning a foreign language and how this is related to CS. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the vast majority of previous studies chose their sample from a specific age set (e.g., university, secondary, intermediate, or primary). My study aims to determine whether different learners' ages may have an influence on the process of learning a foreign language in different CS contexts. Therefore, I examine the effect of CS on the learning outcomes among four age groups (university/secondary/intermediate/primary) to determine whether teachers' CS has the same impact on these different ages, or whether it works better with a specific age group.

How age impacts L2 acquisition is debated, but one key finding is that children are better at acquiring an L2 than adults (e.g., McLaughlin, 1977; Steinberg, Nagata & Aline, 2001; Suryantari, 2018). Lenneberg (1967) speculated that a learner's ability to fully acquire an L2 is constrained by age. According to the author, the 'critical period' of language acquisition is from childhood until early adulthood, which is approximately between 2 to 12 years old (but see Oyama, 1979; Flege, 1987; Scovel, 1988; Johnson & Newport, 1989 & 1991; Patkowski, 1990; Hurford, 1991; Johnson, 1992; Bialystok, 1994; Birdsong, 1999; Newport, Bavelier & Neville, 2001; Snow, 2014; inter alia for further developments in this

field). Lenneberg (1967) hypothesised that the ability to acquire language is highest during the critical period, but that this ability then decreases. The author suggested that age can affect language learning because of the maturational variations in the brain structure that are employed in acquisition. This means that, when the brain matures, it loses its plasticity, and the ability to acquire a language. This hypothesis has been examined by several scholars in the context of L2 learning (e.g., Snow & Hoefnagel-Höhle, 1978; Ioup, Boustagui, El Tigi & Moselle, 1994; Bongaerts, Planken & Schils, 1995; Bialystok & Miller, 1999; Flege, Yeni-Komshian & Liu, 1999; Birdsong & Molis, 2001; Hakuta, Bialystok & Wiley, 2003; inter alia) with varied findings. Some findings supported the idea of a critical period in language learning (e.g., Bialystok & Miller, 1999) while others did not (e.g., Snow & Hoefnagel-Höhle, 1978; Flege, Yeni-Komshian & Liu, 1999). The question of the effects of age has also been studied in the context of the EFL classroom, again with mixed results, as detailed below (e.g., Oroji & Ghane, 2014; Valipour & Davatgari, 2014; inter alia).

Oroji and Ghane (2014) investigated whether young or adult learners possess stronger abilities to be successful in their learning of EFL. This study investigated the performance of two groups of learners who were taught EFL. The twenty learners in the first group were aged between 6 and 13 years old, while the second group comprised twenty learners who were aged between 18 and 25 years old. This study was based on pre-tests and post-tests to identify the learners' grammatical errors after teaching them three sessions a week for six weeks. The results showed that, in terms of learning EFL, adult learners' grammatical errors were almost the same as those of the young learners. This study suggested that it is difficult to verify which group performed better in their EFL learning.

Valipour and Davatgari (2014) also employed pre- and post-tests to examine the effect of age on learning the pronunciation and grammatical rules of English as a foreign language, studying children and adults. The participants of this study were ten university students and ten elementary school students who were taught English as a general course. Both groups of students were taught English for three months, concentrating on pronunciation and some grammatical structures of the English language. The results showed that in terms of pronunciation, young students performed better than adult students, while the scores of adult students for grammatical rules were higher than those of young students. Therefore, this study suggested that age can influence the learning of a foreign language, but with different outcomes, depending on which component of the language is being learned.

We can note from these two previous empirical studies that there is a relationship between age and learning EFL. As shown above, these two experimental studies and others varied in their results regarding whether adults possess stronger abilities in learning certain aspects of a language than young learners, or vice versa. Other evidence suggests that there is no significant difference between adults and children in terms of their EFL learning. Generally, we can note that different ages might learn various English skills and components differently. Therefore, age should be taken into consideration inside the EFL classroom even though the common belief is that children are better than adults at learning a foreign language.

In addition to possible inherent age-related differences in learners, different teaching strategies in the classroom might also affect their attitudes and performance within the EFL classroom. Teachers' CS can occur in different situations and for various reasons, depending on students' needs, preferences, and attitudes associated with the various ages (Kim, 2006). Students might respond differently to teachers' switches between two languages in the EFL classroom. However, we still do not know whether or not teachers' CS in bilingual classrooms has different effects on learners of different ages. Very few empirical studies have investigated whether CS in EFL classrooms has the same influence on the outcomes of foreign language knowledge for learners of different ages.

Lee and Macaro (2013) focus on the same question of CS, its effects across different ages, and whether teachers' use of this strategy may benefit the young more than adult learners in their vocabulary learning inside EFL classrooms, or whether they preferred English-only instruction. Pre-tests and post-test were used to examine the effect of CS on 443 elementary school students, aged 12, and 286 college students, aged 19. Both groups of students were taught English as a mandatory course. Questionnaires were completed by all the participants in the study. The analysis of both the tests and questionnaires revealed that, even though both young and adult learners in the CS groups improved their vocabulary learning more than those who were in the English-only instruction groups, young learners gained more benefits from CS than adult learners. The questionnaires showed that adult learners showed a strong preference for English-only instruction compared to young learners. To conclude, this study suggests that age differences in EFL classrooms may affect the progress of foreign language knowledge since the results of this study showed that learners of different ages responded to CS differently.

To conclude, according to the above studies, researchers varied in their results regarding whether young learners were better at learning a foreign language than adult learners or vice versa. In EFL classrooms, teachers' CS may also have different effects on learners of different age levels with regard to their preferences and performance in learning a foreign language. As noted by Lee and Macaro (2013), however, to date little empirical evidence for the effects of CS on different age groups has been published. The authors highlighted that there is limited research on how learners' age and their proficiency in a foreign language can motivate and help teachers to make effective choices regarding what language to use. Such research could, however, help foreign language learning. Lee and Macaro suggested that more experimental studies should be carried out to examine the effect of teachers' CS on learners of different ages in EFL classrooms.

In order to contribute to this question, my study considers the age differences in EFL classrooms and allows the possibility of the differential effect of various ages. It aims to examine the effect of CS among four different age groups – primary, intermediate, secondary, and university students – in order to investigate whether CS has the same effect on learners of these ages.

4.3. Different English skills and code-switching

According to Husain (2015), in a classroom setting, learning EFL usually involves the main skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In addition, grammar and vocabulary are two key components of acquiring these skills, due to their integral role in learning English; learners cannot write, read, speak, or even listen without them. Importantly, the cognitive processes involved in these various parts of language learning differ substantially. For example, memorising vocabulary items may be quite different from processing a text in reading, and this again requires various skills to learn grammatical rules. Despite this, only a very few studies on CS in the EFL classroom treat these vastly different skills separately. In this section, I summarise the key skills and components covered in the EFL classroom, and how these processes may be impacted by CS.

4.3.1. Key components of English language learning

This section focuses on the two key components of the English language: vocabulary and grammar. According to Parlakyıldız (1997), grammar and vocabulary are treated as separate

areas of language learning and teaching, and textbooks generally have separate sections on these. For this reason, most experimental and empirical studies have focused on these two components, as already detailed in Section 3.4.5. In this section, I will introduce these two components and how they might be impacted by CS.

4.3.1.1 Vocabulary

Wilkins (1972) mentioned the importance of vocabulary, as words are the building blocks of a language, and without knowing the right objects, ideas, and actions, people cannot convey their intended meaning. Tosun (2015) supports Wilkin's observation that learners may fail to communicate without great vocabulary knowledge, even if they have mastery of grammar and language structures. Unlike other English skills (e.g., reading and listening), vocabulary learning depends on memorisation. However, learners may have difficulties with recalling the meaning of the newly learned words and spelling them correctly (Alzaidi, 2018), therefore a number of different strategies are employed in the teaching and learning of vocabulary. How effective these different strategies have been is the subject of a number of studies (e.g. Richards, 1976; Gairns & Redman 1986; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Oxford & Crookall, 1990; Lewis, 1993; Nation, 1994, 2000 & 2001; Campillo, 1995; Prince, 1996; Ur, 1996; Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Cameron, 2001; Thornbury, 2002; Folse, 2004; Teng 2014; Alqahtani, 2016; inter alia), and in particular, how CS may aid vocabulary learning (e.g., Kern, 1994; Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Campillo, 1995; Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Jiang, 2002, 2004a, & 2004b; Alqahtani, 2015).

According to Campillo (1995) and Schmitt (1997), one of the common ways to teach vocabulary is the traditional method including translation. This technique, which involves CS, can be useful to convey the meaning since it saves time and allows teachers to clarify those words without an equivalent in the foreign language and to check for accurate comprehension. Also, other scholars suggest accessing learners' L1 conceptual knowledge while learning L2 vocabulary and making direct links between L1 and L2 by comparing the progress of learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Jiang, 2002, 2004a, & 2004b). They suggested that L1 plays a key role in facilitating the learning of foreign language vocabulary and processing its lexical information. Similarly, Kern (1994) and Alqahtani (2015) agreed that the use of L1 is a useful means of teaching foreign language vocabulary. Generally, these previous studies supported the view that CS inside EFL classrooms is an effective method for learning vocabulary. According to them, using the L1

for translating the meaning of a word makes the learning process faster and more efficient. They believe that switching to the L1 is particularly helpful when the teacher needs to translate those words without an equivalent in the foreign language, to clarify the meaning of difficult expressions, to examine students' comprehension ability, to identify similarities or differences between the vocabulary systems of the L1 and the target language, to avoid the possibility of errors in understanding vocabulary, and to save time.

Code-switching may be a helpful tool, not only for directly translating and clarifying the meaning of certain English vague expressions, but also for comparing and explaining puzzling patterns of English vocabulary that may confuse the students. Some types of English words can easily be taught in English, while other domains of English vocabulary require further illustration through the use of the L1. For example, English affixes and phrasal verbs are among the more confusing aspects of English vocabulary for students because it often is not possible to deduce their meaning from their component parts. This is confounded by the fact that Arabic does not have phrasal verbs. According to Folse (2004), knowledge of English affixes (e.g., prefix, suffix) helps learners to derive new words from already known words, and increases their ability to utilise the vocabulary system, understand the basic meaning of other related words if their root is familiar to them, improve their spelling skill, and be aware of the correlation between various affixes and their functions and meanings (e.g., *-tion* for nouns, *-ly* for adverbs, *-able* for adjectives, and *un-* for not). However, according to Igaab and Kareem (2018), there are differences between Arabic and English affixes, meaning that the functions of certain affixes, their meanings, and even their positions within the sentence, are different between the two languages. For example, affixes in English are bound morphemes, which means that they cannot stand on their own, but can only be attached to another word to give a meaning. Unlike English, certain affixes in Arabic can be bound, but these also occasionally function as free morphemes. Thus, in these cases, teachers' CS may be helpful in explaining the differences, which might encourage learners to expand their vocabulary knowledge.

In a like manner, certain words in English are usually accompanied by certain prepositions and this combination changes the basic meaning of the word as (*look for* – *look after* – *look in* – *look like*). Those prepositions should be memorised along with the verb or noun they are associated with. There are other word-formation processes that help us to produce new forms such as compound, blends, and clipped forms. These types of words often confuse students, especially if they know the meaning of the basic word without a

preposition. Unlike English, Arabic does not have these types of words, which, in certain situations, need switching to the L1 to help students understand the difference between both types of words. Consequently, the difference between English and Arabic vocabulary systems is wide, and switching to Arabic when teaching specific English vocabulary might be extremely helpful in certain situations.

A more experimental approach has also been taken to investigating the role of CS in learning vocabulary (e.g., Mazur, Karolczak, Rzepka & Araki, 2016; Nilsen, 2017; Namaziandost, Neisi & Banari, 2019). These studies agreed that CS is one of the most valuable ways of facilitating the learning of English vocabulary, and their results showed that this technique can help to broaden students' vocabulary knowledge.

Mazur, Karolczak, Rzepka and Araki (2016) investigated the role of CS in learning new vocabulary. Their study was based on the SD scale¹¹ and used a CO-MIX method, which is a system of English vocabulary teaching that uses CS for vocabulary acquisition. The sample of this study included 24 Japanese university students and 16 voluntary adults aged between 24 to 43 years old who participated in two evaluation experiments. The findings of this study revealed that using the CO-MIX method improved learners' vocabulary knowledge, which indicated that CS was an effective tool; additionally, the results highlighted a positive relationship between the use of CS and the vocabulary learning outcomes. In addition, the findings showed that teachers' CS can help to expand learners' vocabulary knowledge and provide the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary without using definitions. It also enables learners to engage in other educational learning activities. Moreover, the analysis of the proposed system used in this study revealed that teachers' CS can be an effective method of acquiring new vocabulary. Therefore, the CO-MIX method is useful for vocabulary acquisition and expanding students' foreign language vocabulary.

Likewise, Nilsen (2017) explored the effect of CS on learning English vocabulary. The study aimed to investigate the impact of using L1 while teaching novel English vocabulary, compared to L2-only explanations of these words. The sample of the study comprised 10 Japanese adults whose proficiency in English was between pre-intermediate and

¹¹ The semantic differential (SD) scale was created by Osgood et al. (Osgood, Suci, Percy & Tannenbaum 1957). The SD Scale has been used in a variety of studies and a number of contexts to measure people's attitudes towards stimulus words and concepts (Mazur et al., 2016: 62).

intermediate level and whose ages varied from 40 to 60 years old. Nilsen divided these 10 participants into two groups; one group of five learners was taught novel lexical information using English-only instructions, while CS was used to teach novel vocabulary to the other group. The study used pre-tests and two delayed post-tests, one after two weeks of teaching and the other after eight weeks of teaching, to measure the learners' long-term and short-term retention of the new English vocabulary of the chosen novel. The findings of this study showed that learners in the experimental group where CS was applied outperformed those in the control group. The findings also showed that, regardless of the learner's level of English proficiency, CS had a positive impact on their English vocabulary knowledge. However, Nilsen found that CS works very well for short-term recall of English vocabulary, rather than long-term retention. Even though the exceedingly small sample size and the participants' ages may have affected the results, this study suggests that CS had a profound effect on vocabulary acquisition.

Namaziandost, Neisi and Banari (2019) also examined the effect of CS on vocabulary learning. The participants were 64 Iranian upper-intermediate EFL students, aged 16–18 years old and studying English at a private English language institute¹². These participants were divided randomly between two groups, with CS being used in only one for teaching and learning. The teaching period comprised 15 classes of 60 minutes each. A pre-test and post-test were used to compare the learners' results in the two groups, and the results showed that the post-test scores and performance of the students in the experimental CS group were higher than for the students in the control group. Therefore, the findings suggested that CS had a significant effect on vocabulary learning outcomes, and that it facilitated vocabulary learning.

Other experimental studies have been based on pre- and post-tests to examine the effect of CS on students' vocabulary knowledge inside the EFL classrooms (e.g., Tian, 2011; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013). As discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.4.5.1, these studies applied pre- and post-tests to two groups: the experimental groups which used CS, and the control groups where only the L2 was used. Their results showed that students in the experimental groups benefited from CS more than those in the control group. To sum up,

¹² In contrast to the EFL classrooms in public schools where English is a mandatory subject, private English institutes are non-governmental organisations where learning English is voluntary.

their studies suggested that CS in EFL classrooms is helpful in improving students' vocabulary knowledge.

To conclude, many studies have suggested different ways to teach vocabulary, CS being one of these valuable ways. A more empirical approach showed that CS expands vocabulary knowledge, and other experimental studies showed that this technique can improve students' vocabulary knowledge outcomes. Generally, these empirical and experimental approaches showed that CS can help to improve students' vocabulary knowledge.

4.3.1.2 Grammar

All languages follow a set of systematic grammatical rules and knowing them is fundamental to communication. An example of the importance of this is shown in classic alternations (Fodor, 1975; Lakoff & Ross, 1976; Newell, 1980; Pinker, 1997) such as:

- Dog bites man
- Man bites dog

Even though these two clauses contain the same words, the word order of each is different, and thus so is the meaning. This distinction in the meaning of these two sentences emphasises the importance of grammar, for which setting the rules for the order of words in a sentence is essential to convey a meaningful idea: "who did what to whom". According to Ellis (2006) and Azar (2007), learning grammar gives learners the competence to combine words to form clear and meaningful sentences. It is simply impossible to learn a language without knowing the grammatical rules of that language; thus, this forms a key element of the foreign language classroom experience. Whereas vocabulary includes discrete items that depend on memorisation, as shown above, grammar is a much more complex system that may impose a heavy cognitive load on the language learner.

Several scholars have proposed effective strategies for teaching and learning L2 grammar (e.g., Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Ur, 1996, 2011; Thornbury, 1999; Cameron, 2001; Mandlhazi, 2001; Sams, 2003; Giao & Hoa, 2004; Anderson, 2005; Cook, 2008; Chang, 2011; Ho, 2014; inter alia). In particular, CS is one such recommended strategy that could be used for teaching English grammar (e.g., Giao & Hoa, 2004; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hidayati, 2012; Al-Musawi, 2014; Ho, 2014; Yadav, 2014; Abadi, 2015; Wach, 2016). These studies suggested that CS could be extremely useful for explaining ambiguous

grammar rules that students cannot understand in English. Also, CS practices may be ideal when there is a grammatical component that confuses students, and when comparing the grammar of the English language with the grammar of the L1. Therefore, these studies supported the use of certain strategies that employ CS for teaching English grammar: the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), and the contrastive analysis method.

Code-switching has been at the heart of grammar learning for several decades in the form of the GTM method. According to Giao and Hoa (2004), this method depends on using the L1 for explaining the grammatical rules of the foreign language. A contrastive analysis approach is also another way to teach grammatical rules. This approach, as described by Stern (1991), involves pedagogical translation to help reveal the structural features of a foreign language by means of the L1, exposing the learners to the differences and similarities between the two languages on several linguistic levels, and representing the grammatical rules of a foreign language by adapting them to the norms of the L1. These two ways of employing CS may help to clarify English structures and explain the similarities and differences between the grammatical systems of the two languages.

Let us consider how grammar translation and contrastive methods would each approach a sample English rule that is difficult for Arabic-speaking learners. Some English vocabulary shows the relationships between the parts of the sentence and their main functions are grammatical (Zuhour, 2017). There are about 200 words in English whose meaning is mainly derived from the functions they serve (auxiliaries, conjunctions, articles, etc). Some of the English function vocabulary does not exist and or have an equivalent meaning in the Arabic language. For instance, unlike in English, the auxiliary verb “*to be*” does not exist in the Arabic language, and the verb “*to do*” is not inserted when producing negative sentences or when creating “*W*” or “*Yes/No*” questions. Also, the Arabic language does not have the English indefinite article (*a/an*).

Moreover, Arabic differentiates between males and females when using the pronouns *you* and *they*, in both singular and plural. Many other differences are discussed by Zuhour (2017). These differences are among the challenges that the Arabic students in my study may face when learning the grammar of a foreign language. The examples below show how grammar translation and contrastive analysis would approach a lesson about the use of the copula in English.

1- Teacher: A: I am 12 years old – *ʕumri: iθnaʃ sanah.*

B: I am happy – Ana Saḥi:dah

Teacher: so, if we look to this sentence (A), (*nufef i:nu “am” estaxdmnaha ḡaḡan netkalem ḡn ḡhaleh*), but if we look to this sentence (B), (*nufef i:nu “am” estaxdmnaha ḡaḡan nus^{ef}ḡhaleh*) we use “am” here to describe a condition.

Teacher: so, if we look at this sentence (A), we can see that we use “am” here to talk about the situation in the present, but if we look at this sentence (B), we use “am” here to describe a condition.

In example 1, the teacher uses GTM to explain some grammatical issues that Arabic students might face. Since Arabic does not have the verb “to be” and there is no equivalent meaning for it, the teacher in example 1 switches to Arabic to illustrate the different functions this verb serves in forming the present simple tense.

2- Teacher: She is a beautiful girl.

(*lw nelaḡ hi:na els^{ifa} jat qabel eli:sem ḡaksana ḡendana eli:sem yi:ji a:wel baḡdain els^{ifa}*)

We can note in this sentence that, unlike in Arabic, the adjective comes first followed by a noun in English, while we have the noun first followed by the adjective.

In example 2, the teacher uses contrastive analysis, where the teacher switches to compare the structural systems of English adjectives and Arabic adjectives.

Therefore, for Arab EFL students, some grammatical rules are challenging, and using CS to explain them or compare/contrast between the two languages might help to facilitate understanding of these difficulties and alleviate confusion due to the significant differences in the L2 compared to what Arabic EFL learners were exposed to in their childhood. Thus, I suggest that teachers’ switching to the L1 when teaching such rules could help with their explanation, as well as with clarifying function words and the functions they serve, since there is no equivalent meaning. Teachers’ CS is also useful for comparing the structures of the two languages, as shown above. Several empirical and experimental studies have tested the effect of CS on learning grammar, as detailed below.

Chang (2011) tested the GTM for teaching English grammar. The study aimed to compare GTM and the Communicative Approach (CA) for teaching grammar, in order to

investigate which one was most efficient. The emphasis in CA is on making language teaching comparative to a real-world situation, but it uses the target language only and does not employ CS in teaching. Two college classes participated in this study; GTM was applied in one class and CA was applied in the other for one complete semester. Pre-tests and post-tests were used to test which one of these two methods improved students' grammatical knowledge the most. The results revealed that the participants in the GTM class made significantly more progress than those in the CA class. Therefore, the results showed that the GTM is effective in teaching English language grammar and that it can help to improve college students' grammatical knowledge.

Hidayati (2012) investigated CS as a teaching tool for grammar from a different perspective. Rather than comparing teaching methods, Hidayati asked whether using CS for teaching receptive aspects of the English language and grammar promoted classroom interaction. Six classes with six teachers and 100 adult students from higher education were chosen to participate in this study. Hidayati observed the six classes, video recorded them, and interviewed the six teachers, while the students were asked to fill out a questionnaire. The author observed the classrooms and used the video recordings to explore classroom interaction, while the teachers' interviews and the students' questionnaires were used to gather the teachers' and students' perspectives of the benefits of using the L1 for learning receptive skills and grammar in EFL classrooms. The classroom observations and video recordings showed that teachers in these classes code-switched habitually and the number of switches within each lesson varied, meaning that some teachers used CS less than others. As a result, the research findings from the classroom observations and video recordings indicated a significant relationship between the use of CS and classroom interaction. Hidayati observed that the classes where teachers used more CS for the teaching of receptive aspects of English language and grammar had high levels of classroom interaction, indicating that CS helps to improve classroom interactions, which was also supported by the results of the interviews and questionnaires. Students in the classes of high classroom interaction stated that when teachers used more CS, they felt less lost when learning grammar. In addition, through the analysis of the observations and recordings, CS was evaluated as having several beneficial functions, including explaining ambiguous grammar rules that may confuse the students. To sum up, the results of this study suggested that CS helps students to learn English grammar more effectively.

On the other hand, even though previous studies had supported the view that CS may be helpful for learning grammar, several other studies that tested the impact of CS on students' outcomes of English grammar learning confirmed that CS is not effective in teaching grammar. For instance, Alseweed (2012) and Almansour (2016) used pre- and post-tests to examine the effect of CS on university EFL students' grammar knowledge. As shown in Chapter 3, Section 3.4.5.2, both studies used experimental groups in which CS was applied and control groups without CS. The results of these two studies showed that CS did not have a significant impact on the students in the experimental groups, compared to those in the control groups. This means that CS did not really make a difference, or help students to improve their learning of grammar.

Nevertheless, even though the results of Alseweed (2012) and Almansour (2016) showed that CS is not effective in improving university EFL students' performance in grammar, there is no evidence that CS harmed their progress. There might be other external factors that affected their results, but generally, CS might be helpful for learning grammar and have positive functions for teaching grammar, as already shown in many other studies. I will return to discuss these issues again in Chapter 8, Section 8.2.

To sum up, the literature on grammar learning has been reviewed in relation to CS. With the exception of Alseweed (2012) and Almansour (2016), the findings from the majority of studies supported the idea that CS can be effective in teaching grammar in the EFL classroom, as explained above.

4.3.2. Main English skills

Reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills are the four main skills of the English language, and the relationship between these skills is complex, yet each skill naturally supports the other. On the one hand, reading and listening are receptive skills where learners receive information, while writing and speaking are productive skills where learners produce phrases, words, sentences, and paragraphs (Davies, 1976). According to Elhassi and Imssalem (2017), developing receptive skills is often easier and faster than developing productive skills, meaning that an individual can be good at reading but might not be able to produce information in writing. In other words, learners usually begin by understanding the new items they receive, then later they produce language, since productive skills require

practising of receptive skills. In fact, foreign language learners spend time practising receptive skills by reading or listening.

On the other hand, there is a time pressure in listening and speaking, but not in reading and writing. Even though listening is a receptive skill and therefore may be easier to acquire than a productive skill, it may be affected by external pressure. According to Maad (2008), time pressure is one of the factors that affect the process of learning some English language skills. For instance, students have the opportunity to re-read a text many times, unlike listening, which is instant. On the other hand, unlike speaking, writing allows students to make changes and revisions without pressure (see Table 4.1).

	<i>Receptive skills</i>	<i>Productive skills</i>
<i>Time pressure</i>	Listening	Speaking
<i>No time pressure</i>	Reading	Writing

Table 4.1: The four main skills of the English language

Generally, even though there are certain components characterising each skill, as shown above, each of these main skills is not discrete, but rather they overlap and connect to each other. They are in harmony with each other when it comes to communication, and they all reinforce each other and depend on a good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. However, since the Saudi curriculum in my study distinguishes between them, my study aims to examine these skills separately: reading, writing and listening. Therefore, this section introduces each one of them, and how they might be impacted by CS in the classroom.

4.3.2.1 Reading

According to Pang, Muaka, Bernhardt, and Kamil (2003), reading means understanding written texts. It is considered to be a complex activity that includes both thought and perception. Reading contains two related processes: comprehension and word recognition. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Without comprehension, learners cannot read since it relates to the meaning of phrases, sentences, words, and connected text. This means that learners use their prior vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, experience with text, and any other strategies

to help them understand what is written. According to Sukandi and Syafar (2018), English reading skills are divided into three main interrelated components: cognitive components, which refer to the recognition of words and the understanding of their meanings; psychological components, which are concerned with the motivation and interest of the learners; and environmental components, which refer to the learners' environment and culture. All of these components lead to the formation of reading skills in the context of learning EFL. In short, developing basic reading skills in the context of learning EFL may lead to an improvement in literacy. Unlike when learning vocabulary and grammar, the improvement of the cognitive, psychological, and environmental components while providing suitable reading materials for the learners affects the development of the reading skill.

In addition, according to Qanwal, Karim and Haq (2017), learners' previous knowledge, experience, and values are required for the comprehension of a text. In other words, learners always notice some parts of the texts and compare them with what they already know. Many foreign language learners count on their L1 and cultural background; however, how they interpret the text compared to their L1 will vary due to the structural and cultural differences between the two languages. Thus, it is important for the learners to know the relationship between reading and literacy. Again, this study also suggests that CS might be particularly beneficial for the reading skill in explaining these differences. Also, another focus of this study is reading for detailed comprehension, which means a very close accurate reading for detail, used to grasp details of a specific situation. In this case, it is important to understand each word, number, or fact. Therefore, reading comprehension relies on vocabulary knowledge and vice versa. The more vocabulary learners know, the better they can read, and the more learners read, the better their vocabulary and writing skills become (Qanwal et al., 2017).

A number of different strategies are employed in the teaching and learning of reading. The effectiveness of these different strategies has been the subject of a number of studies (e.g., Paulston & Bruder, 1967; Stanovich, 1980; Barnett, 1989; Grabe, 1991; Ruddell, Ruddell & Singer, 1994; Ur, 1996; Hudson, 1998; Harmer, 2007; Cook, 2008; *inter alia*), in particular, how CS may aid reading acquisition (e.g., Kern, 1994; Jiménez, García & Pearson 1995 & 1996; Upton, 1997; Lee, Seng & Hashim, 2006; Bhooth, Azman & Ismail; 2014). According to Lee, Seng and Hashim (2006), teaching foreign language reading involves different strategies, such as paraphrasing, questioning about related ideas, guessing,

inferencing, word recognition, summarising, dictionary use, using context, rereading, reacting to text, and using structure. It also involves translating, using the L1, or switching between the L1 and L2. Jiménez et al. (1995 & 1996) claimed that CS plays an important role in facilitating reading comprehension. Also, Kern (1994) suggested that CS could help to facilitate reading a text by removing the affective barriers that students face when they try to understand a text. In addition, Kern (1994) suggested that, when CS was used to make a reading text more familiar to the learners, their confidence in their ability to comprehend a text increased. Therefore, CS might be one of the helpful ways to teach reading.

Some researchers have investigated the role of CS in teaching and learning reading inside the EFL classroom. For instance, Bhooth, Azman and Ismail (2014) employed a mixed method of questionnaires and interviews to investigate the use of L1 in EFL classrooms and its role in teaching reading. The participants were 45 EFL second-year undergraduate Yemeni students, selected from the English Department of one of the universities in Yemen. The findings showed that the switch from English to Arabic is a useful facilitating tool, not only for learning reading, but also for learning EFL generally. Students admitted that, when the teachers explained reading strategies in Arabic, they understood better. The findings also indicated that using Arabic in reading classrooms is useful as students believe that the L1 helps them to understand new concepts and instructions, translate new items, and engage in pair and group reading activities.

Similarly, Lee, Seng and Hashim (2006) examined the use of the L1 in reading foreign language texts. The participants in this study were 4 first-year Malay female students on an education course. Thy study is based on using the L1 in many reading strategies used by students where they think, read, and discuss aloud. Audio-tapes and video recordings were used to ascertain the students' speech. The findings of the study showed that L1 was used in many of the reading strategies. Through the observation of the recordings, it was shown that CS was used in different situations and that these switches to the L1 could facilitate the understanding of reading texts. Also, the findings indicated that using the L1 is useful for teaching reading, not only when translating, but also when employing other reading strategies like guessing and questioning. Lee, Seng and Hashim (2006) confirmed that even though teachers should encourage students to use the target language in foreign language classrooms, using the L1 is necessary for some reading activities.

To conclude, unlike grammar and vocabulary, reading is a complicated English skill that requires different strategies to be learned, especially in the EFL classroom. Several studies, as shown above, supported the view that CS can be used in the EFL classroom as a useful strategy that can facilitate the learning of reading and increase students' comprehension of a text.

4.3.2.2 Writing

According to Rao (2017), writing is an important productive skill that requires extensive and specialised instructions, even for those who are native speakers of a language. Similar to reading, writing is also a complex skill, whose mastery depends on other English skills. Klimova (2014) described the writing skill as a cognitive action, considered by most learners to be a very difficult skill because it requires so many other vital skills, including knowledge of the mechanics of writing, knowledge of possible sentence structures in a language, knowledge of a great deal of vocabulary, and some experience of listening, speaking, and reading. According to Hussain (2017), the process of learning a foreign language is concerned with students achieving a certain level of writing skills. Learners in foreign language classrooms are expected to produce literary pieces that exhibit correct spellings, grammar structure, and coherence of ideas, which means that writing skills depend on other key language components. However, because there is no time pressure in writing as already discussed earlier, writing makes learners more relaxed and confident with a new language because it allows them to work at their pace (Rao, 2017).

Several effective strategies have been proposed for teaching and learning the writing skill in a foreign language classroom (e.g., Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Harmer, 2007; Baroudy, 2008; Cook, 2008; Klimova, 2014; Hussain, 2017; Durga & Rao, 2018; Sukandi & Syafar, 2018; inter alia), and in particular, how CS might assist with learning writing (e.g., Woodal, 2002; Beare & Bourdages, 2007; Weijen, Bergh, Rijlaarsdam & Sanders, 2009; Gort, 2012). The social-constructionist approach is one of the strategies suggested by Klimova (2014) and Durga and Rao (2018), who believed that this approach should be considered for learning writing. It is based on the idea that a teacher's choices should be tailored to meet the needs of the students in order to allow them to introduce their thoughts when they find a topic interesting. Similarly, Sukandi and Syafar (2018) stated that students need strong motivation to be able to master writing skills, including the ability to learn and understand language styles and grammar, write complete and well-structured sentences, use meaningful

words and communicative language, use coherent and clear ideas, and choose appropriate words and expressions.

When it comes to the use of CS as a strategy in learning and teaching the writing skill, Gort suggested that CS is interpreted as aiding meaningful language use, allowing support for writing production, and significantly enhancing ideas. Weijen et al. (2009) pointed out that using CS for teaching foreign language writing has different purposes, especially in the pre-writing stage, including generating ideas, planning (Beare & Bourdages, 2007), reviewing (Woodal, 2002), and solving linguistic issues (Gort, 2012). A more experimental approach showed that CS can be effective in improving EFL students' writing outcomes. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, Section 3.4.5.1, the experimental study of Yigzaw (2012) is one of the very few studies that examined the effect of CS on students' writing outcomes. The results of this study showed that CS had beneficial functions that could be used to collect ideas in the pre-writing stage, which enhanced EFL students' writing abilities and improved their writing production.

To sum up, we can note that learning L2 writing, as with reading, is complex and needs specific strategies and a great knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Several scholars have suggested that CS is one of the strategies that can be employed for teaching and learning writing, and even that CS can improve students' writing production.

4.3.2.3 Listening

According to Thompson and Rubia (1996), the listening skill is an active process where listeners interpret information that they receive from visual and auditory sources in order to recognise what is happening and what the speakers want to say. Listening is also defined by Solak (2016) as the process where the brain receives and creates meaning out of verbal and non-verbal cues. It includes the speaker's pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary knowledge as well as an understanding of the meaning (Thomlison & Rubin, 1984; Hamouda, 2013). Thus, as with other English skills, the listening skill depends on remembering prior grammar and vocabulary knowledge and connecting it to the process involving sound and form of meaning.

Even though reading, writing, and listening need high levels of knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, there are some factors that may affect these skills even if the learner has a previous background in grammar and vocabulary. For example, unlike reading and writing,

time pressure can affect listening. The learner may not catch the meaning of the speech on the first time of listening, but they can re-read a text and have time to think about what they want to produce in their writing. According to Hamouda (2013), the ability to understand spoken English is very important. Listening to spoken English is an important way of acquiring language structures and vocabulary. In a situation where learners are living in a country where English is the L1, they have plenty of exposure to the language. They hear it all the time and can acquire it more easily than learners who do not hear English spoken around them. In a country like Saudi Arabia, many students listen to English mostly in the EFL classroom where they face a lot of time pressure. According to Walker (2014), learners encounter several difficulties with listening skills, such as the listener may not be able to determine the boundaries of sentences and words, or the meaning of new words in the context. The listener may also not be able to maintain an understanding of the passage as a result of time pressure. Due to these difficulties, teaching and developing the listening skill necessitate the learning of specific strategies. Several effective strategies have been proposed to help develop learners' listening skills and enhance their performance (e.g., Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Vanderplank, 1988; Rubin, 1994; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Vandergrift, 1997; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998; Harmer, 2007; Cook, 2008; Walker, 2014; Solak, 2016; Alrawashdeh & Al-zayed, 2017; Yurko & Styfanyshyn, 2020; Djabbarova, 2020).

Studies on improving listening skills in relation to CS are very rare. Teacher's CS when practising listening skills is limited, and CS is used mainly in many studies to clarify the meaning of new words or ideas in a text. This may be an explanation for the scarcity of studies that discuss the role of CS in learning listening. Some studies have investigated the effect of CS on vocabulary knowledge through listening activities (e.g., Tian & Macaro, 2012; Hennebry, Rogers, Macaro & Murphy, 2013). They suggested that CS is used for teaching listening skills by illustrating new words and concepts or clarifying the meaning of the ideas before listening to a text. These studies suggested that CS could be helpful for listening by explaining the meaning of vocabulary before or after listening to a particular passage.

A more experimental approach showed that using CS to clarify the meaning of a passage's vocabulary and explain the difficult ideas in a text facilitated the learning of the listening skill. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, Section 3.4.5.1, Tian (2011) aimed to test the possible effect of teacher's CS on students' foreign language vocabulary learning through listening tasks. In relation to the listening skill, the results of post-tests showed that

students' scores in the experimental group, where CS was applied, were better than those of the students in the control group. The results of this study thus suggested that teacher's use of CS for vocabulary explanation facilitated students' listening comprehension performance.

To sum up, like reading and writing, listening is also a complex skill that requires a great knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. However, listening can be affected by external factors such as time pressure. Therefore, employing CS for teaching or learning listening is much harder than for other English language skills and components. Listening might benefit from CS, not because CS is specifically directed at the listening skill, but because CS helps students to learn one of the key English language components: vocabulary. Very few studies have suggested that the use of CS could be also a helpful way to reduce this pressure and facilitate students' listening comprehension by clarifying the meaning of difficult words, phrases, and sentences, or discussing the ideas of a text before or after listening. This indicates that CS benefits to listening are indirect consequences of its benefits to other language skills and components.

4.3.3. The impact of code-switching on different English skills and components

As shown in the section above, the learning of different English language skills and components requires various strategies. Even though each skill has its own cognitive process, all of these skills overlap, enhance, and reinforce each other. Some of the previous studies investigated the role of CS as a teaching strategy for helping learners to improve their knowledge of different English language skills and components. According to the majority of these previous studies, CS might facilitate the learning of all these skills and components.

Moreover, the functions of CS used with different English language skills and components vary. In other words, there are many functions that can be used with one skill, but much less with another skill. For example, vocabulary and grammar may have benefited widely from the several functions of CS, which would help them much more than other skills. In contrast, it is much harder to employ CS for the learning of English listening skills than for other skills.

Since there are various means of employing CS for the learning of different English language skills and components, as well as numerous external factors that might affect their

development, CS might therefore affect these different skills in a wide range of ways. However, we still do not know whether CS helps one skill more than others. As noted in the previous section, grammar and vocabulary have been studied via ample pre-tests and post-tests, which revealed that CS helps learners to acquire them because they are key components, which other skills rely on. Different functions of CS can be used to teach these two components rather than other English skills. However, there is still an insufficient number of experimental studies showing the effect of CS on other English skills. Thus, a more experimental approach to the use of this technique in the EFL classroom should be considered for learning reading, writing, and listening.

The following table summarises the studies that investigated the effect of CS on learning a specific English language skill or component.

The study	Language	Age	Skill	Method	Result
Lee & Macaro (2013)	Korean	Adults, aged 19 and Young, aged 12.	Vocabulary	Tests: * Pre-tests. * Post-tests/delayed tests.	CS has positive impact on learning vocabulary.
Tian & Macaro (2012)	Chinese	Adults, aged 19.			
Nilsen (2017)	Japanese	Adults, aged 40-60			
Namaziandost, Neisi & Banari (2019)	Iranian	Intermediate, aged 16-18			
Mazur, Karolczak, Rzepka & Araki (2016)	Japanese	Adults, aged 19-43		- SD scale. - CO-MIX	
Chang (2011)	Taiwanese	Adults in College level	Grammar	Pre- & post-tests.	CS is helpful technique in learning grammar.
Hidayati (2012)	Indonesian	Adults in Higher education		Questionnaires Interviews. Observation.	
Alseweed (2012)	Arabic	Adults, aged 19-22		test	CS isn't effective in learning grammar.
Almansour (2016)					
Bhooth, Azman & Ismail (2014)	Arabic	Adults, aged 19-22	Reading	Questionnaires Interviews.	CS is helpful technique in learning reading.
Lee, Seng & Hashim (2006)	Malay			Audio-taped and video recording	

Yigzaw (2012)	Ethiopian	High school, aged 15-19.	Writing	Pre- & post-tests. Interviews.	CS has positive impact on learning writing.
Tian (2011)	Chinese	High school, aged 15-16.	Listening	Tests	CS has positive influence on learning listening.

Table 4.2: A brief description of studies discussing CS in learning different English skills/components

4.4. Different categories of code-switching

According to the previous studies in Table 4.2, CS has different positive functions; it might help with some skills more than others.

- 1- For vocabulary learning, teachers use CS to translate new words directly, clarify difficult terms without an equivalent meaning in the L1, explain the vague meaning of combined words, expressions, and idioms, identify the similarities or differences between the vocabulary systems of the two languages, and explain the different parts/types of the words, especially those which do not exist in the L1 and may confuse the students.
- 2- For grammar learning, teachers can use CS when explaining ambiguous grammar rules or grammatical components that may confuse the students, as well as when comparing the grammar of the English language with the grammar of the L1, which may help only with some of the rules, not all of them.
- 3- In reading skill development, the teacher can code-switch to translate individual words, clarify the meaning of the difficult concepts in the context, explain the main ideas of the texts, and/or assimilate the overall meaning of the texts.
- 4- Code-switching can be helpful in the pre-stages of writing and in the pre- or post-stage of listening. For instance, switching between the two languages can help with planning and generating ideas before writing, and also with understanding the meaning of difficult terms or discussing the ideas of the spoken text before or after listening to that text.

We can note that all of these different CS functions are related to the linguistic purposes that have already been discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.3. Conceivably, all of the benefits of CS could come from linguistic purposes only. However, not only the linguistic purposes

of CS can be used to help learn different English skills; as we have seen in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.3 that social relations are important as well. The social purposes of CS can also be employed to facilitate learning these different English language skills and components. For example, reading, writing, and listening might benefit more from these purposes because CS might help students to engage with the topic and enhance their own internal motivations. More specifically, the social purposes of CS might help with the pre-stage of writing. At this stage, social CS might motivate students to generate, list, map, and gesture ideas concerning the topic they will write about.

Although the CS functions of linguistic purposes have been shown to be efficient in learning different English skills/components, according to the results of the previous studies as discussed in Section 4.3 above, there is not enough evidence to confirm whether these might also help with learning these English skills and components.

Thus, my current study aims to test not only the impact of the linguistic purposes on the learning of these different skills, but also the impact of the social purposes. Therefore, I have classified these different purposes into two main categories: Methodological CS, which includes only the linguistic purposes, and Mixed CS, which includes all the possible purposes of CS including the social purposes, as previously discussed in Section 3.3 (more examples of each purpose will be introduced later in Section 6.4.2.) This division will show us which category works best with each one of the different English skills and components and with each age, not only for grammar and vocabulary, but also for reading, writing, and listening.

Most of the previous studies on CS in EFL classrooms focused either on a specific English language skill or component, as discussed in this chapter, or on the general outcomes of learning without focusing on individual skills, as discussed in Chapter 3. In my study, I will look specifically at each of the different English skills and components across the whole range of skills summarised in this chapter (vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening).

4.5. Conclusion

This chapter has displayed the relationship between CS and the process of teaching and learning English for different ages. First, it explained the impact of age on the process of

learning and teaching and how the students' learning of different age might be affected by CS. It also demonstrated the cognitive process of some English language skills and components, and how the different processes employed for teaching and learning each skill might be impacted by CS. Even though each English skill/component discussed in this chapter has its own cognitive process, the use of CS is considered to be one of the techniques that could facilitate the learning of all of these skills. As the aim of the current study is to test the effect of CS on the English learning outcomes of learners of various age sets in Saudi EFL classrooms, the following chapter discusses the teaching of the English language in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter 5: Teaching English in Saudi Arabia

5.1. Introduction

As detailed in Section 1.1, with respect to learning EFL, the status of English proficiency in Saudi Arabia is of particular interest to this topic. According to EF EPI, in 2020, Saudi Arabia ranked 97 out of 100 countries all over the world regarding its proficiency in English. In order to contextualise this further, this chapter provides information in Section 5.2 on teaching English in the Saudi EFL classroom. This is followed by introducing the development of the English language as a subject in the educational system of Saudi Arabia from the past until now, in Section 5.3. Section 5.4 introduces English language teaching in the Saudi context. Section 5.5 presents the English curriculum in Saudi Arabia for each stage relevant to the study's participants: primary, intermediate, secondary, and university, and the chapter ends by demonstrating the different methods and approaches for teaching English, especially in Saudi Arabia, in Section 5.6.

5.2. English language in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia was founded as a Kingdom in 1932, and since then it has witnessed a rapid growth in various fields such as education, health, science, economy, and technology. In recent years, the field of education has been rapidly booming in the Kingdom. The unprecedented growth in different fields in Saudi Arabia has helped the rapid growth in education. From the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1953 until 1970, the number of boys' schools increased from 290 to 2,722, and the number of girls' schools increased to 511. However, the current number of schools, colleges, and universities for both girls and boys, not stands at more than 25,000 schools and 45 private and government universities, as well as many other training and educational institutions (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

Alongside this growth in education, a number of external and internal pressure resulted in the need to integrate English into the curriculum as a subject. Alongside a desire for modernisation more generally, the heavy dependence on foreign countries for economic development meant that raising the quality of English language education became necessary. In addition, learning English was seen as a pathway for Saudi graduates to compete more

strongly in the global economy. More specifically, oil and gas companies in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia set strict requirements for their workers in terms of English proficiency and communication efficiency (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

When the English language was introduced into the Saudi education system, it was resisted by Saudi society because of the belief that it was a threat to their native language, Arabic, as well as their customs, traditions, culture and religion (Alsharani, 2016). Thus, the introduction of learning English received little attention at first time and it was given little importance compared to other courses in the education system (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

However, with the rapid development of Saudi Arabia, the interest in teaching and developing methods of teaching EFL has been increasing. Awareness of the importance of English has become evident through the growing interest of the government and decision makers. For example, from 1958 to 2003, English was taught in intermediate schools for only two lessons a week. However, since 2003, the status of teaching English has expanded to include also elementary schools with two lessons a week, while the number of lessons in intermediate and secondary schools has expanded to four lessons a week. In addition, there are, nowadays, numerous private institutions that offer different age groups the opportunity to learn English in various cities of Saudi Arabia. Also, over the years, English teachers have been trained in modern teaching methods to suit each level of education.

With the continued desire to develop education in general and interest in English in particular, the situation of English teaching in Saudi Arabia was undergone a period of instability and constant change. For example, English has become the medium of instruction in medicine, technical education, and other majors in Saudi universities (Alshahrani, 2016). In addition, the Ministry of Education keeps modifying and adjusting the students' textbooks as well as the methodologies of teaching English, as will be discussed in the next section. The aim has been to increase student achievement and efficiency, as well as teachers' and students' awareness of the importance of English as a global language at present (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

Despite all the efforts of the government and decision makers to improve and develop English language teaching in schools, they face many challenges. English language education in Saudi Arabia remains a subject of debate. There are political, social, and religious objections to teaching English for a variety of reasons, one of these being the fear of change in the Arabic language, leading to a change in the Arab identity. There is also

ensorship of the textbook content in order to provide subjects and pictures of characters that fit social and religious beliefs. In addition, there is a concern that many Arabic words will be replaced by English equivalents (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Therefore, we can say that, even though English has drawn the attention of the Saudi Ministry of Education, English still suffers in Saudi EFL classrooms due to several factors that may affect the learning of English in Saudi Arabia. The following sections present the history of English in Saudi EFL classrooms, and how it has been developed, followed by the different Saudi contexts that contribute to the continuous difficulties associated with learning English. The chapter then looks at how my study could improve EFL learning performance in the Saudi context.

5.3. The development of English as a subject in the Saudi educational system

In an attempt to accelerate integration with countries around the world, teaching and learning English became more of a priority within the Saudi educational system. According to Alshahrani (2016), the exact date for the start of English teaching in the country is unclear. Baghdadi (1985) and Al-Shabbi (1989) both agreed that it began in 1924 when the Directorate of Education was established. Other claim that English began to be taught in Saudi Arabia in 1928, meaning that English was introduced into the school curriculum five years after the establishment of the Directorate General of Education in 1923. Al-Johani (2009) stated that English was first introduced in the 1930s, and that it was used in business only after the discovery of oil. He also said that the Saudi government added English to the curriculum in the 1950s. Al-Ghamdi and Al-Saadat (2002) explained that English was taught for the first time in Saudi Arabia at the Scholarship Preparation School (SPS), which was established in 1936 in Mecca to prepare Saudi citizens for travel missions abroad.

According to Al-Abdulkader (1978), in 1958 the English language was included as a subject in the educational system of Saudi Arabia, to be taught from grade 7 to grade 12. Until 2003, English was taught to students in intermediate and secondary classrooms, as part of the curriculum of six grades, from intermediate to the end of secondary school, grade 12 (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). From the late 1990s to 2002, the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia was subjected to considerable criticism from different sections of society, as students' learning outcomes in English in schools were very poor, even though they spent six years from grade 7 to grade 12 learning English. As a result of this criticism, in 2002, the Ministry

of Education in Saudi Arabia discussed a decision to insert English subjects into elementary schools, which might help to solve a part of the issue. After September 11, 2003, the Government of Saudi Arabia, responding to political and social pressures, decided to gradually introduce English into all primary schools. This was done under the supervision of Dr. Abdullah Al-Musharraf, Director of the Curriculum Department at the Ministry of Education (Abahussain, 2016).

At the university level, English was first taught as a mandatory subject in 1949 in the Islamic law college in Macca for two hours per week for a period of four years. Recently, almost all Saudi colleges and universities have been opening English departments and English language centres where English is taught as a compulsory course for at least one semester to students in other departments. Also, English is the medium of instruction in engineering, medical, and science colleges (Faruk, 2013).

The growth of English in Saudi Arabia has also affected the breadth and the development of the English curriculum taught in schools and universities. According to Alhajailan (2006), the first EFL curriculum in Saudi Arabia was taught for specific purposes: to teach writing, reading, grammar, and translation. The GTM was the common teaching method at that time due to its focus on writing and reading skills, as well as its emphasis on translation and grammar as a means of comprehension. Gradually, a shift was witnessed in the English curriculum to focus on the teaching of many different English skills and components. Each new version of the English curriculum was reviewed, evaluated, and criticised. Therefore, the English curriculum in the Saudi educational system has undergone major changes over time. In 2013, according to Mitchell and Alfuraih (2017), Saudi Arabia announced the release of the new English language curriculum in government schools for grades 4–12 (elementary, intermediate, and secondary). The English Curriculum Department within the Ministry of Education partnered with Tatweer for Educational Services to develop the English curriculum in Saudi Arabia. According to the agreement, Tatweer Educational Services provides books dedicated to teaching English, with three international publishing partners known globally for the quality of their curricula.

Recently, besides this agreement with Tatweer, the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia launched a national project that aims to develop all the elements of the English language curriculum in line with the latest theories and approaches. Fatima Mohammed Alsukhairi, the head of the English Department in the Directorate of Educational Supervision

of the city of Taif, has pointed out that the vision of this recent project is to offer a distinctive curriculum that can compete effectively at the local and global levels. The objectives of this project include the English language curricula being an effective means of achieving the objectives of the education policy in an integrated manner. This is to be achieved by including in the curriculum the Islamic values, knowledge, skills, and positive attitudes that are necessary for learning, good citizenship, and productive work. It also targets the use of positive new trends in curricula design such as thinking skills, problem-solving skills, self-learning skills, collaborative learning, good communication with sources of knowledge, and the development of performance skills by focusing on learning through work and the actual practice of activities (Alsukairi, 2018).

To follow up on the new curriculum improvement plan, professional development activities have been added, including English language proficiency assessment tests, the activation of educational skills, the creation of electronic versions of textbooks, and English proficiency training. Since the new English language curriculum relies on various activities and modern technologies that allow students to enjoy learning and motivate them to learn English, thousands of teachers in Saudi Arabia have been trained in these proficiency programmes. They also have been trained to use different teaching approaches, especially those which match the tasks and activities of the Saudi curriculum (Mitchell & Alfuraih, 2017). Training programmes on new methodologies are important in the context of teaching English. According to Rahman and Alhaisoni (2013), it is not enough for a teacher to have a qualification in order to be a good teacher; rather, they need proficiency in communicating in English, to be highly familiar with the effective methods of teaching English, understand how students think, and know how to build an intellectual and emotional relationship with them. Therefore, the development of the new curriculum, including tasks and activities, gives teachers the chance to replace traditional teaching methods with modern teaching methodologies in which they have been trained. However, some EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia still use the traditional teacher-centred method (AlHarbi, 2016). Using such a method, which disregards students' preferences, could result in students lacking the motivation to learn English (e.g., Al- Khairy, 2013; Alrabai, 2014).

We can conclude that the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia aims to make several improvements in the design of the English curriculum in order to motivate students to learn English and to meet their needs. Even though the Ministry of Education has made all of these extensive efforts and Saudi EFL teachers have been trained very well, English learning in

Saudi Arabia is still suffering. As mentioned earlier, as far as English proficiency is concerned, Saudi Arabia has been ranked among the lowest places in the world since 2011, which means that its citizens' English proficiency is still low (see Table 5.1). In other words, there may be other factors influencing their performance and attitudes towards learning English, meaning that Saudi students need more ways to be stimulated to learn English. Therefore, the following section aims to introduce the different variables which might affect their performance in EFL classrooms, as well as their attitudes towards English as a subject.

Year	Saudi Arabia rank in English proficiency around the world
2011	26 out of 44
2012	52 out of 54
2013	59 out of 60
2014	59 out of 63
2015	68 out of 70
2016	68 out of 72
2017	72 out of 80
2018	83 out of 88
2019	98 out of 100
2020	97 out of 100

Table 5.1: Proficiency Trend of English in Saudi Arabia according to EF EPI

5.4. English Language teaching in the Saudi context

5.4.1. Social, traditional and cultural context

According to Shah, Hussain and Nasseef (2013), teaching a foreign language is linked to the social and cultural context, which have a significant impact on the interactions between students and teachers in the classroom. The social and cultural context is essential in the development of foreign language skills for students, as the personal experiences of teachers and students cannot be discarded and left out of the classroom environment. Thus, society and culture influence teaching practices and student progress. In other words, many students do not learn languages well in the classroom and learn better on the street, at the workplace, or within the community, and these opportunities are often not available in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, especially in some small cities. According to Alrahaili (2013), Saudi Arabia is considered a collective tribal society where conservative tribal customs and traditions, Islamic identity, and family ties are deeply rooted. Al-Saraj (2014) also described the Saudi Arabian culture as being characterised by strong traditions that are affected by religion and tend to be conservative.

English language teaching is always influenced by these sociocultural factors. Many Saudi students come from a background where English is unknown, and they cannot practise English outside schools, due to the conservative Saudi society. Therefore, a key goal of the current study is to explore whether the use of CS can help to mitigate the lack of opportunity to communicate in English outside schools. If Mixed CS might motivate students to learn English and help them to improve their communicative competence, then incorporating it into the classroom experience might counteract the constraints on using English that arise from the social, cultural, and religious customs in Saudi Arabia.

5.4.2. Saudi students' negative attitude towards learning English

Besides the religious, cultural and social aspects of Saudi society, as shown above, there are several factors that may cause Saudi students' negative attitudes towards learning English, thus hindering their learning achievements and production in English.

One of these factors is anxiety. Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) has been explored and defined by several researchers. According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986: 128), FLA can be described as "a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process". Several other researchers have defined, discussed and explored FLA as a unique type of anxiety and as a reality existing inside the EFL classroom for many students (e.g., Ely, 1986; Cohen & Norst, 1989; Young, 1992; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994b; Zhang, 2001; Argaman & Abu-Rabia, 2002; inter alia). These studies showed more clearly what FLA is and they described some of its symptoms. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b), FLA is related to the negative emotional reaction that arises during the process of learning a foreign language. In other words, it is a psychological phenomenon that describes the feeling of tension and fear associated with a foreign language context. Anxiety existing inside the EFL classroom is related to the fact that performing a foreign-language-related task is not a normal function for students (Zhang, 2001). This means that anxious students are less likely to participate in classroom activities and their speech is often accompanied by blushing and trembling hands, especially in oral classroom activities (Ely, 1986; Cohen & Norst, 1989). Also, anxious students show avoidance behaviours such as postponing homework, skipping classes, and failing to finish classroom activities and tasks (Argaman & Abu-Rabia, 2002). These previous discussions and findings show that anxiety inside the EFL classroom is a serious issue that can be attributed to a combination of reasons, including

low self-confidence, fear of making mistakes, low self-esteem, fear of being laughed at, or competition. All of these factors arise as a result of students' limited English knowledge and obtuse instructions given by the teacher; they therefore find it difficult to follow the teacher's talk inside the classroom (Salim, Subramaniam & Termizi 2017). Thus, the existence of anxiety can negatively affect EFL students. Teachers' CS might solve this issue by helping the students to follow their explanations of a lesson. We will return to discuss this issue in detail in the discussion chapter.

Other prior research studied the relationship between achievement in learning a foreign language and anxiety (e.g., Aida, 1994; Oxford, 1999; Trylong, 1987; *inter alia*). Some empirical studies, including some within the Saudi context, found that students' fear of making mistakes in the EFL classroom may increase language anxiety, which reduces listening comprehension and damages word production, thus leading to low scores in language courses. These studies revealed that the existence of anxiety within the foreign language classroom may have negative impacts on the process of learning a foreign language and increase the students' negative attitudes towards learning English. (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Oxford, 1999; Alrabai, 2014; Al-Saraj, 2014; Javid, 2014; Mohammed, Hayati & Salmiah, 2015; *inter alia*).

Al-Shalawi (2009) investigated the causes of anxiety in Saudi EFL classrooms. He used both quantitative and qualitative methods to examine Saudi students' perceptions and knowledge of FLA and to identify the methods that may reduce students' anxiety in the EFL classroom. The results of this study concluded that anxiety has a negative impact on foreign language learning. Therefore, reducing this anxiety might help to improve students' enthusiasm and motivation. One of the ways to possibly decrease students' anxiety is through the teachers themselves. Saudi participants in this study affirmed that teachers play a vital and necessary role in minimising anxiety in the EFL classrooms. They confirmed that EFL teachers creating a warm, interesting, and fun environment could help to relieve their anxiety and increase their motivation to learn English.

Another factor that might result in Saudi students' negative attitudes is the lack of motivation to learn English. L2 learning motivation has been defined and discussed by several researchers. According to Gardner (1985: 10), it is "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity". Previous research demonstrates that L2 motivation inside the

classroom directly affects the students' engagement in L2 learning, including how much input students understand, how much they collaborate with native speakers, how well they perform in tests, how well they participate in classroom activities, and how long they maintain foreign language skills after the study period (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Schmitt (2002: 172) posited that "motivation is often seen as the key learner variable because without it nothing happens". This suggested that students' motivation has an effective role in foreign language learning. Thus, the existence of motivation during the L2 learning process is extremely important.

Lacking this interest in and desire to learn a foreign language is also a serious issue inside the EFL classroom. Most Saudi students lack motivation in learning English, thus hindering their progress in improving their English proficiency (e.g., Al-Johani, 2009; Al-Khairy, 2013; Alrabai, 2014; Khan, 2011; *inter alia*). Students feel bored inside English language classrooms due to their poor language skills, which hinder their understanding. According to Shah, Hussain and Nasseef (2013), the lack of motivation is the biggest challenge for Saudi Arabian students when studying English. In fact, the objectives of the majority of students who learn EFL in the Saudi public schools are to achieve good grades and get certificates. In this case, students do their best for this purpose, while neglecting the real learning of the language.

Furthermore, Asmari and Javid (2011) and Al-Asmari, Farooq, and Javid (2012) investigated Saudi students' motivational orientations towards learning the English language at Taif University. The studies included both male and female undergraduate students, from different majors, studying EFL as a subject; the findings confirmed students' need for extensive motivation to learn English. Even though the participants varied in their motivational orientations towards learning English, they supported the inclusion of various activities in the class and building a warm and interesting environment for students in the EFL classroom, as this helped to increase their motivation.

Anxiety and a lack of motivation are among the major factors that might result in Saudi students' negative attitudes towards learning English and a low proficiency in English. As noted in the studies discussed above, teachers themselves may have a strong effect on students' anxiety and decreased motivation, which indicates the importance of the teacher's role in teaching a foreign language. According to Dallimore, Hertenstein and Platt (2004), Khan (2011), and Alrabai (2014), teachers themselves have an effect on both students'

performance and participation, as they can increase or reduce students' engagement in the classroom. Thus, the EFL teachers' style and behaviour are among the factors that might affect students' attitudes towards learning English.

In view of this, the Ministry of Education seeks to educate teachers about these issues and how they can develop their relationships with students. It also seeks to educate teachers on how to provide students with an interactive learning environment with diverse activities and strategies to create an active classroom environment to attract student attention. Moreover, it encourages teachers to diversify their teaching methods and strategies in the EFL classroom and engage their students in meaningful tasks such as communication activities to encourage students to talk together and with others (Shah, Hussain & Nasseef, 2013).

Even though the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia has made great efforts to solve all of these issues, students still need to increase their motivation to learn English. This statement is supported by Faruk (2014), who declared that Saudi students' perceptions of English in recent years have differed and improved compared to the negative views from the past. Alsamadani and Ibnian (2015) discussed the relationship between students' academic achievements and their attitude towards learning English in the Saudi EFL context, and they found that students with high GPAs also had a positive view of learning English. In other words, excellent students have a gradual more positive view of learning English. On the other hand, many other students still lack the motivation to learn English, especially in some small cities in Saudi Arabia where students still have low levels of English.

In this case, it is necessary to motivate students and encourage them to practise English and not worry about mistakes, because as concluded by Getie (2020), the interaction between students and teachers can motivate students and help them to develop a positive view about learning a foreign language. Thus, I believe that teachers' use of CS inside the EFL classroom, especially Mixed CS, is one of the suggested solutions that might motivate and encourage students to learn English and relieve their anxiety over making potential mistakes. I will return to discuss these issues in Chapter 8, Section 8.2.1, along with how my study might help solve them and reduce students' negative attitudes towards learning English.

5.5. English curricula in Saudi schools

Since I have used the Saudi English curriculum as material for the current study, it is necessary to look at its structure. The Ministry of Education has launched several international series of courses, which include the Macmillan courses series, the McGraw Hill course series, and the MM Publication courses series. These new curricula for the English language (international series) have been designed according to modern theories in teaching English, such as the CA, Constructivism, and Triple A. These motivate all students to practise English in public life by activating the four main skills – reading, writing, listening, and speaking – and language components such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and spelling (Alsukhiri, 2018). The division of these current student textbooks encourages and allows me to test the effect of CS not only on the general outcomes of Saudi students, but also on the different English language skills and components.

5.5.1. Primary English curriculum

Get Ready is an English language course with six levels that are designed for grades 4, 5, and 6 for the primary stage of the public-school system in Saudi Arabia. Each level of this textbook covers one full semester of the Saudi Arabian academic year and consists of a student's book and workbook combined. In the student's book, there are twelve units, each unit consisting of eight presentation units and four revision units. In the student's workbook, there are three pages for each of the eight presentation units and two pages for each of the four revision units; the activities being designed to do as homework. The main focus of these activities is on writing practice and recycling the language already presented in the student's presentations units.

In my study, the material I used for the primary stage is *Get Ready* level 3, in which each presentation unit follows a theme allowing the new language to be taught in context. Themes include 'My family', 'My clothes', 'My classroom' and 'The weather today'. These themes have been chosen to meet the interests and needs of young students at this level. The student's book *Get Ready* level 3 and the other levels of the course possess specific features and include the components as follows (see Table 5.2).

Items	Description
<i>The eight presentation units</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Each one of these units in the student's book includes two lessons and provides enough material for two lessons. - Each unit contains new structures and vocabulary, exposing the young students to the English alphabet and the basic phonics, ensuring oral and literacy development and teaching the four language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. - Each unit presents language activities related to all four language skills and components in order to contextualise, activate and practise new language, skills, and topics. - Each unit has phonics exercises to practise the 44 sounds of English and demonstrate how these sounds are most commonly represented in English spelling; phrase banks which list the most important phrases and words of a unit; a grammar focus section that lists the most important rules and structures of a unit; and <i>Look!</i> and <i>Listen!</i> boxes to draw students' attention to language points.
<i>Revision units</i>	The four revision units are located after presentation units 2, 4, 6, and 8. Each revision unit provides enough material to revise and reinforce the knowledge taught in the previous two units.
<i>Saudi Stars</i>	<i>The Saudi Stars</i> , 1, 2, 3, and 4, consist of two pages which come after the revision units. They contain stories, puzzles, games, chants, and projects that are designed as additional materials to recap the linguistic contents of the previous input of the two units.
<i>Progress Check</i>	Each unit has two pages of Progress Check, which focuses on grammar, vocabulary, reading, and literacy. Progress check provides ongoing formative assessment for students, which can help teachers to assign students' weaknesses to what they have already been taught. <i>Progress Check 1</i> comes after <i>Saudi Stars 2</i> and covers presentation units 1–4 and is located after them. <i>Progress Check 2</i> comes after <i>Saudi Stars 4</i> and covers presentation units 5–8.
<i>The Audio CD</i>	The audio CD contains native English speaker audio for all the texts and dialogues of the listening activities in the student's book. These audio files give the young students the opportunity to hear a variety of voices, which ensures more practice in listening and pronunciation.

<i>The Website</i>	The website of elt.tatweer.edu.sa includes all the resources for the course, accessible by clicking the Macmillan Education logo once you open the site.
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Table 5.2: A brief description of the contents of the primary English curriculum

5.5.2. Intermediate English curriculum

Lift Off! is an English language course designed for grades 7, 8, and 9 for the intermediate stage of the public-school system in Saudi Arabia. Each level includes the following components: a combined student's book and workbook, a CD consisting of audio files, and an online resource. The material I used in this study for the intermediate level is *Lift off! 3*, which begins with a list of contents to understand the overall plan of the course, followed by the essential rubrics, instructions, and grammatical terms that will be taught in the course. The *Lift Off!* student's book presents new topics, functions, skills, and grammatical rules that build on the language of previous materials. The student's book for *Lift off! Level 3* and the other levels of the course have specific features as follows (see Table 5.3).

Item	Contents
<i>Student's Book</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The student's book of <i>Lift Off!</i> has ten units, four lessons each. The last lesson of each unit is a review. The <i>review</i> recalls the previous language taught in the unit and reviews the vocabulary, functions, and grammar of the previous three lessons. - There are two <i>Progress Check</i> sections in the student's <i>Lift off!</i> book which consist of two pages. <i>Progress Check 1</i> comes after the <i>Review</i> lesson of unit 5 and covers units 1–5. <i>Progress Check 2</i> comes after the <i>Review</i> lesson of unit 10 and covers units 6–10. - At the end of the book, there is a <i>dictionary</i> that contains the new vocabulary that was introduced in the student's book.
<i>Workbook</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The workbook also consists of ten units, each designed to follow previous knowledge already covered in the student's book lessons. - The aim of the workbook lessons is to give the students the opportunity to practise the material in lessons 1–3 of each student's book unit. The activities in the workbook are designed to serve as homework and they are not for extensive use during the lesson.

CD	The CD contains all English native speakers' recordings for the listening activities in the student's book, which give students the opportunity to hear authentic pronunciation patterns of English speech. Some of the audio tracks in some activities are intended to be models for repetition, which could benefit the students as they can repeat some natural English speech of native speakers.
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Table 5.3: A brief description of the contents of the intermediate English curriculum

There are other distinctive features of the student's book, which can be summarised as follows:

- Many lessons have a *Look!* box, which clarifies the aspects of language that students may find new, confusing, or difficult.
- Some lessons have a *Pronunciation* section, devoted specifically to features of pronunciation.
- Some lessons include poems and rhymes; students could benefit from these rhythms and the pronunciation to improve their language when speaking English.
- Each *Review* lesson in the student's book contains a *Grammar* study box.

5.5.3. Secondary English curriculum

Flying High is an English language course that is designed for grades 10, 11, and 12 of the secondary stage of the public-school system in Saudi Arabia. This course puts communication first and is designed according to the Triple A approach: Access, Analysis, and Activation, which is reflected in the structure of the student's book. Each unit includes four lessons. Lesson 1 works on communicative skills and access to a new language. Lessons 2 and 3 depend on the analysis of language structures and the practice of a new language, as well as communicative skills, which gives the students the opportunity to discover how the language is structured and works. Lesson 4 (*Saudi Arabia and the World*) focuses on the activation of the students' language resources through realistic communicative skills and activities, which are particularly interesting to Saudi students and familiar to them.

As shown above, the development of communicative skills is of central importance to the *Flying High* course. Truly communicative reading, writing, listening, and speaking are carefully developed in the lessons of each unit. In my study, the material I used for the

secondary stage was *Flying High 4* and the following table presents the course components and the other levels of the secondary curriculum.

Item	Description
<i>Student's book</i>	The student's book contains eight units which cover various topics that have been chosen to be particularly engaging for secondary Saudi students. The topics range across nature, culture, history, and science, as well as many aspects of everyday life including health, study, relationships, work, and money.
<i>Progress test</i>	There are two <i>progress tests</i> in the student's book after unit 4 and unit 8. These progress tests allow teachers to assess the overall progress of their students. Each test contains grammar tasks and exam-style vocabulary that revisit the language of the previous four units. It also includes reading, listening, and writing tasks to evaluate students' skills development.
<i>Workbook</i>	The <i>workbook</i> includes additional grammar and vocabulary activities to give students the opportunity to practise the language already covered in the student's book. The activities in the workbook reinforce understanding of the target rules and structures. The workbook activities also give further opportunities to practise reading and writing skills. These activities can be done during the lesson, but they are also suitable for homework.
<i>Wordlists</i>	There are <i>wordlists</i> at the back of each unit in the workbook which include information about pronunciation and how common a word is. The starred words in each list indicate the most useful and frequent words in English, and the words with three stars are the most common.

Table 5.4: A brief description of the contents of the secondary English curriculum

5.5.4. University English curriculum

English Unlimited is an English language course designed for students at the university stage and it is used at Taif University in Saudi Arabia. The current English curriculum for university students focuses on comprehensive and qualitative development, and high linguistic support, to improve students' English level. It is designed to be interesting and attractive to university students. Despite the density of the curriculum, it gives scope for teachers to apply useful strategies in order to increase the development of students' language

skills. In my study, the material I used for the university stage is *English Unlimited Level 2*. This course consists of a student's book, a workbook, and a DVD-ROM.

The student's book has eleven units, each divided into parts with clear and practical goals for learning. The first four pages in the unit help to build language knowledge and skills including reading, writing, listening and speaking as well as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation activities. Each unit contains a *target* activity which helps students to practise what they have learned. In addition to that, each unit has the *explore* section, which begins with a keyword. These keywords in the explore sections are from the most useful and frequently used words in English. The *explore* section also contains either a "Get it right!" or an "Across Cultures" section, followed by an "Explore writing" or "Explore speaking" task. The tasks and activities in the *explore* section centre on real-life objectives and give students the opportunity to practise additional language skills and activities that aim to help students become more effective learners and better communicators of English. Each unit ends with "The Look again" sections, which help students to extend and review their learning.

The *workbook* offers extra activities to practise the grammar and vocabulary taught in the student's book. There are also other activities for reading and writing skills and a whole page of listening and speaking tasks. The DVD-ROM contains interactive videos, games, and activities for students to practise and improve their grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, as well as their listening and speaking.

5.6. Approaches to teaching English in Saudi Arabia

Celce-Murcia (2001) differentiated between approaches, methods, and techniques for teaching a language. According to the author, an approach is a theory that encompasses certain models for language-learning practices; a method refers to the procedures that provide the ways and steps to teach a language, and a technique is the narrowest term, which refers to specific skills used to apply activities in the classroom. The techniques also include the characteristics of a particular method. However, some English teachers use these terms interchangeably, while the most important point is using an appropriate way of teaching (in this case English), which meets the students' needs as well as improving their learning of a language. Therefore, here, CS is a technique that is compatible with multiple approaches.

According to AlHarbi (2018), despite the variety of approaches to teaching modern English, there is one approach that is still most commonly used in the classroom in Saudi Arabia. This approach is the GTM, a traditional approach that focuses on teaching rather than learning, without creating an interactive environment and leading students to rely primarily on the teacher. Therefore, such a teacher-centred method may result in decreased student motivation because each student has a different learning preference and cultural background. AlHarbi (2016) believed that students generally find the traditional approach used to teach English in the Kingdom boring. The use of communicative language teaching (CLT) methods in the Saudi context is required because it can achieve competence in communication by focusing on particular skills.

There are different teaching methods and approaches that an English teacher can use in the classroom to achieve learning goals. The most important aspects of the lesson plan or unit plan are learning objectives. Therefore, the teacher must determine the appropriate method /approach for a specific situation to produce results; however, in a different situation, the chosen method might fail completely. The English teacher must choose the most appropriate method so as not to fail to communicate the information to the student and to succeed in achieving the objectives of the lesson. A variety of teaching methods are now used in addition to grammatical translation, the bilingual approach, audio-lingual approach, direct method, CA, and also computer-assisted teaching (Khan, 2011).

Generally, the field of foreign language teaching has undergone great shifts over the years, leading to a wide variety of methods that can be used for teaching a foreign language. According to Taylor (2016), a radical shift occurred in the last century when English teachers shifted from the grammar translated approach to the beginnings of the CLT. The three recent basic approaches, Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP), Test, Teach, Test (TTT), and Task-Based Learning (TBL), have become increasingly popular in Saudi Arabia in the field of teaching the English language and foreign language acquisition, especially the TBL.

5.6.4.1 PPP approach (presentation, practice, and production)

A traditional model for organising foreign language (L2) lessons employs the deductive approach to lessons. PPP is an acronym for ‘Presentation, Practice, Production’, an approach through which the teacher first presents new words and structures of the lesson in English and gives examples. Then, the teacher allows the students to practise the target language (L2) through typical activities with specific answers, either written or oral. Finally, students use

the target language to express what they have learned in the classroom freely, through either written or oral productions (Vystavělová, 2009).

Through the PPP approach, the teacher introduces individual language elements, such as the simple past tense. This individual element is then practised in the form of typical spoken and written exercises. Students then use it in other activities, such as speaking and writing. This approach is criticised for its arbitrariness in determining the chosen rules, which may not meet the needs of students. As concluded by Fominykh, Enygin and Zarudnaya (2018:1), “the production stage is often based on a rather inauthentic emphasis on the chosen structure”.

Some teachers follow the PPP methodology, especially when teaching English grammar. This approach might not be particularly effective in English language classes in Saudi Arabia because most students do not understand the structural pattern of sentences. Students feel confused and reluctant to solve grammar exercises, leading to the decreased motivation of students to learn English (Chowdhury, 2014).

5.6.4.2 TTT approach (test teach test)

The Test Teach Test approach is an alternative to the PPP approach where the production phase comes first, and students undertake a particular task or activity without the help of the teacher. The role of the teacher is then based on the problems that have arisen with some students in the first stage, with the teacher providing an explanation in the target language. Students are asked to perform another task to practise the language or perform the first task again to correct mistakes. This approach can work if the risk of randomisation is avoided when choosing the first task (Bowen, 2010). For instance, the teacher gives a text to the students who have not studied phrasal verbs and asks them to find examples; they may have the ability to do this but not to deduce meaning. Then, the teacher prepares a lesson to help learners develop this, and after that asks them to do a similar activity.

TTT is a useful approach as it enables teachers to identify learners’ specific needs concerning a language area and address these needs suitably. This approach can be particularly useful at intermediate levels or above, where learners may have seen the language before, but have specific problems with it, and also in mixed-level classes to help identify objectives for each individual (Vystavělová, 2009).

5.6.4.3 TBL approach (Task-based learning approach)

Tasks and activities in the English curricula in Saudi Arabia encourage teachers to use the Task-Based Learning (TBL) approach. According to Mugableh and Khreisat (2019), TBL is a modern educational approach to learning a language through tasks and activities that should be designed to give students the ability to communicate while learning and to take responsibility for their learning. The TBL approach is therefore based on the actual tasks performed by students, and it stimulates their focus on these specific tasks. The role of the teacher is to guide students as they perform the task by selecting and sequencing activities and tasks. The teacher also raises students' awareness and encourages them to use cognitive thinking methods, while the role of students is to discuss tasks, carry out their procedures and evaluate themselves and then produce what is required of the tasks. Students also work in pairs or groups to solve task problems.

According to Bowen (2010), TBL provides an opportunity for learners to focus on performing a specific activity or task that they have to complete by using the L2. The activities and tasks presented to the student in TBL reflect real life and can be considered as methods of problem solving, information sharing, or playing games, where students are given a goal to achieve. Each activity or task in the TBL can be organised as follows:

- Introduction to the subject of the lesson and the activity before the task.
- Task cycle: Begin with the task → Planning to solve the problem of the task → Report the solution and assess the performance of students.
- Students should focus on the L2 and their reactions to the task should be in the same language (L2).
- The fluency of the language used in the task must be balanced with the accuracy required by the task performance notes.

To sum up, this section has discussed different methods and approaches to teaching English. These approaches are not the only methods of teaching English; however, I have presented the most common approaches used for teaching English. I used the TBL approach in my teaching and data collection with all the groups of different ages in the study for many reasons. First, the TBL method is a strong CA where students spend significant time communicating. Also, it replaces the “traditional” classroom with real-life situations that allow the learners to answer or solve real problems. Furthermore, it facilitates the use of CS

inside the classrooms since the designed activities and tasks in the Saudi English curriculum are suitable for the TBL approach.

5.7. Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the teaching of English in Saudi Arabia, explaining how English started to be taught in Saudi Arabia and how it has developed over time. Moreover, it has demonstrated the different variables that might influence the learning of English in Saudi Arabia. It has also presented the structure of the English curricula in Saudi Arabia, especially the materials used in my current study for the four different stages: primary, intermediate, secondary, and university. The chapter ended by describing the different approaches to teaching English, especially those that are recommended for use by Saudi English teachers.

Chapter 6: Methodology

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the methods used in this experimental study to answer the following questions.

Does the teacher's code-switching in Saudi EFL classroom improve assessment performance compared to a classroom with no CS?

- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the type of CS employed by the teacher?
- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the age level of the students?
- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the specific English skills and components including reading, writing, listening, grammar, and vocabulary?

This chapter describes the methods used to collect, process, and analyse the data. Section 6.2 introduces the sample of the study, while Section 6.3 lays out the materials used in the study and the designs of the tool employed. First, it describes the content of the chosen units from the students' English textbooks, followed by the design and question format of the pre-tests and post-tests applied at the four different stages. Section 6.4 illustrates the research design, explaining how the participants from the different levels were divided into various groups and how their English classes were arranged. It is followed by an explanation of the categories of CS divided among these groups. Section 6.5 discusses the data processing, also presenting the ethical considerations and arrangements, and describing the teaching process and the exam procedures in the different groups. Section 6.6 outlines the data check and quantitative data analysis of the study.

6.2. Participants and place

Saudi Arabian cities differ in their demographic characteristics: some, such as Riyadh, Dammam and Jeddah have considerable exposure to English through, for example, the oil and gas industries, as well as international companies. Others, such as Taif and Baha, have

little exposure to English. This study was carried out in Taif, which falls into the second category, as detailed below.

Taif is a small city and governorate in the Mecca Province of Saudi Arabia, located in the West of Saudi Arabia (see Figure 6.1). The area of Taif city is 321 km², and in 2020, the city had an estimated population of 688,693 people. In contrast to many larger Saudi cities that are home to many oil and gas industries, international companies, and other industries, Taif mostly depends on agriculture (“Taif”, n.d./Wikipedia). These bigger Saudi cities, such as Jeddah, are more centrally located and have numerous commercial developments (“Jeddah”, n.d./Wikipedia). Therefore, unlike residents of Taif city, people in these bigger cities are likely to be more exposed to English since there are many foreign workers with whom they need to communicate at work or in their daily lives. In addition, unlike Taif, some families in Jeddah work and depend on trades and often travel abroad, where their children have the chance to practise some English. On the contrary, in Taif, there are many local tribes that are very conservative, with strong deeply rooted traditions, as mentioned in Al-Saraj (2014), with limited travel abroad. As a result, there is no culture of learning English in Taif and there is nothing forcing or motivating people there to learn the language.



Figure 6.1: Map of Taif city in the West of Saudi Arabia

(<https://maps-saudi-arabia.com/map-taif-saudi-arabia>)

Due to this fact, most students in Taif city do not have opportunities to use English outside the classroom since there is a limited number of English speakers. The only way for the majority of students to practise English is inside the EFL classrooms. This lack of exposure provides a more controlled environment for the study of CS in the classroom, compared to cities where the use of English is much more pervasive.

Therefore, the participants were from three schools in Taif city and from Taif University. As summarised in Table 6.1, the participants were 372 students, from four different levels of education: 155 university students (aged 19–21), 90 secondary school students (aged 16–18), 54 intermediate school students (aged 13–15), and 72 primary school students (aged 10–12). Their English proficiency ranged from beginner to intermediate levels, following government descriptions of the target levels of proficiency, as also shown in Table 6.1.

In order to select the most appropriate schools from Taif city that really met my needs, I consulted with Mrs. Fatima Alsukhairi, Head of the English Department at the Directorate of Educational Supervision, Taif. She has a vast knowledge of all the schools in Taif city, including the demographics of the students and their families, as well as general school performance generally. Therefore, under her guidance, we selected the schools whose populations had very little opportunity to practise English outside their educational institution. For example, the parents of the students couldn't speak English, and their level of education ranged from primary to secondary, but not university. This made it possible to observe the actual results of tests using CS inside these chosen classrooms, where students were exposed to the English being spoken by the teacher without additional support. In fact, these classrooms actually reflected the environment of most of the other English classrooms in Taif, as well as in other small cities in Saudi Arabia.

	Number of students	Age of Students	The expectations of proficiency in English skills	Type of English course
Primary stage	72	10–12 years old	<p>Reading: can understand familiar names, words, and very simple sentences; for example, on notices, posters or catalogues.</p> <p>Writing: can write a short simple postcard, emails, holiday greetings, very simple descriptions, and so on.</p> <p>Listening: can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases</p>	All Saudi students whose native language is Arabic study English as a mandatory course.

			<p>when a person speaks slowly and clearly.</p> <p><u>Speaking</u>: can manage very short utterances with much pausing to search for the right expressions.</p>	
Intermediate stage	54	13–15 years old	<p><u>Reading</u>: can understand simple texts that consist of everyday language, as well as the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.</p> <p><u>Writing</u>: can write simple connected texts on topics which are familiar or relate to their personal interest like experiences and impressions.</p> <p><u>Listening</u>: can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar topics.</p> <p><u>Speaking</u>: can manage and keep going simple speech with pausing for grammatical and lexical planning.</p>	
Secondary stage	90	16–18 years old	<p><u>Reading</u>: can understand long articles, discussions and arguments on familiar topics.</p> <p><u>Writing</u>: can write clear and long texts on familiar topics.</p> <p><u>Listening</u>: can understand long and clear speech on familiar topics as well as the main point of the speech.</p> <p><u>Speaking</u>: can express themselves with less pausing and can produce clear speech.</p>	
University stage	155	19–22 years old	<p><u>Reading</u>: can understand long and complex familiar texts and can understand specialised articles in different fields which contain familiar words.</p> <p><u>Writing</u>: can write well-structured reports or short essays on topics which are well-known.</p> <p><u>Listening</u>: can understand extended speech on familiar topics and can understand the main points of the speech.</p> <p><u>Speaking</u>: can express their opinions with clear speech on familiar topics.</p>	

Table 6.1: Summary of study participants

All these participants were female due to the fact that the Saudi government separates genders in education, so there are schools for females and schools for males. The system of education in Saudi Arabia has long been associated with the customs and traditions of society and it is influenced by the provisions of Islam. This means that the Islamic religion dominates all aspects of Saudi life, including citizens' beliefs, culture, and customs, and even the governmental policies and roles. One of the Islamic regulations that governs the Saudi educational system means that it is not co-educational, but rather female schools are separate from male schools (Al-Zarah, 2008). This gender segregation arises due to the Islamic beliefs, cultural values, and social customs that remain at the core of the educational system in Saudi Arabia, meaning that there are no mixed educational institutions for both genders (Alrashidi, & Phan, 2015). In order to conform to the rules of sex segregation in Saudi Arabia, as a female I was only able to work with female students in this study, which is why all of the participants were female.

6.3. Materials

The materials utilised in this study included the students' textbooks and activity books, as well as the pre-tests and post-tests administrated at the beginning and end of the teaching period (see Chapter 5, Section 5.5 for an overview of the Saudi Curriculum for the English Language). In this section, I will present a brief description of the content of the selected units for all stages, as well as the composition of the pre-tests and post-tests. This is followed by a description of the research design, including the class arrangement of these four stages, plus the distribution of the various categories of CS among these four stages.

6.3.1. Textbooks' content

The textbook has a prominent place in the EFL classroom (e.g., O'Neill, 1982; Prodromou, 1988; Sheldon, 1988; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Cunningsworth, 1995; Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Harmer, 2001; inter alia) and have many merits: they provide a clear syllabus to follow and can also be a great source of activities and ideas for students' communicative interaction (e.g., Ur, 1996; Richard, 2001). They can also be a supportive guide for teachers, especially those who are less experienced, as they demonstrate new and different teaching methodologies and increase teachers' confidence (e.g., Cunningsworth, 1995). However, a reliance on textbooks can also be problematic (e.g., Ur, 1996). They are not all suitable for various students with different needs, and they do not always offer topics that are interesting

to and relevant for all of the students. According to Alptekin (1993), most textbooks' writers are native speakers who might transmit the values, beliefs, views and attitudes of their own society through the activities and text, but these might not be suitable for other societies. Therefore, most EFL textbooks lack cultural appropriateness and customisation for specific populations. In addition, they provide artificial activities and language examples.

Despite the advantages and disadvantages, I should point out that in the context of the present study, I had little choice over which materials I could use in the experiments. Textbooks are the main teaching material in Saudi Arabia; thus, I had to situate within the existing government-mandated curriculum.

Before proceeding with this section, it is necessary to take a look at the student books I used, their content, the topics covered in these books during the classes I taught, and the duration of each class, as well as the aims of the subjects, in order to provide a general background to the test questions. I depended on the current syllabus for the English language in Taif, which has been built and designed according to high international standards in cooperation with the Macmillan courses series, McGraw courses series, MM publications, and Cambridge University, all of which try to produce an appropriate course that analyses the needs of students at all levels (see Appendix B: Sample of the used materials for examples of student books).

In general, all of the student books used in this study, for all levels, were clearly organised. It was easy for students to find the material they wanted at any point. All of the textbooks offered up-to-date topics that were relevant and appropriate to the students' society. They all included a high number of activities and exercises that properly tested the content that had been taught in each unit of each textbook. Some of the textbooks' activities integrated some English skills together within a single activity, which can help students to transfer skills to a real-life situation that they might come across in their actual lives. For example, when students are asked to listen to a certain talk, take notes, and respond, this can help them to practise a situation that they might come across in their own lives. Also, when students are asked to read a simple article before writing their own ideas or opinions, they will become more familiar with the content and the structure of the text, and that will make it easier and help them to plan. In addition, all the textbooks included irregular verb lists and indexes at the end of the books, and some of them also had vocabulary lists when really necessary. There was also a workbook, that accompanied the main textbooks, and contained

many supplementary activities to support the main points taught in each unit. The accompanying audio CD was also very helpful because the students could play the recordings at any time they wished.

Even though the English textbooks used in Saudi Arabia are designed to be attractive and they share many merits as described above, each textbook has its own specific features, and some other downsides as follows.

6.3.1.1 Primary stage

For the primary education classes, I used the 'Get Ready' textbook for the primary stage. There are 17 weeks in the semester, including two exam weeks. The students' English book contains 8 units, spread across the 15 teaching weeks, and it covers different topics, with each unit being taught in two classes over a week. Moreover, there is a revision unit after every two units and a progress test after every four units. The duration of each class is 45 minutes, giving a total of 360 minutes of teaching time for the duration of my research at this stage.

The 'Get Ready' textbook generally introduces various topics that are familiar and suitable for the students' age. The language used in the textbook's instructions and examples is clear and simple. All of the textbook's components, including pictures, content and topics, are appropriate and reflect the cultural values of Saudi society. In terms of learning grammar and vocabulary, any new vocabulary and grammar are presented in an effective way, and they catch the students' attention. Most of the new vocabulary items are linked to pictures, which help to clarify some of the words to the students and make them more memorable. In terms of learning English skills, the textbook covers all the required skills. However, the different English skills are not covered equally. There is a greater focus on the listening and speaking skills than on the reading and writing skills. There is a shortage of communicative activities, which would enable the students to use the language in real-life interactions. There is not enough diversity in the textbooks' activities and some of them are repeated throughout the textbooks. Most of these activities do not take into consideration the individual differences that exist between students in a mixed-abilities classroom (see Tomlinson, 2001; Thousand, Villa & Nevin, 2007). This means that some of the activities are so complex that they are only accessible to students with a higher-than-average proficiency.

I taught unit 5 and unit 6 to the primary level cohort, which were entitled “Tom’s House” and “My Classroom”. The main skills and components of the English language (vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening) are covered in the units of the book. Table 6.2 introduces the subjects covered under each skill within the unit.

Unit 5: Tom’s house P32 / Unit: 6 My classroom P36	
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - New: bed, lamp, book, rug, desk, chair. - Recycled: living room, bathroom, kitchen, bedroom, garden. - New: interactive whiteboard, computer, mouse, keyboard, pupils, laptop - Recycled: desk, pen, pencil, bag, book
Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Demonstratives: this/that/these/those. - Refer to people and things using demonstratives (this/that/these/those). - There is/There are - Possessive adjectives (my, your, his, her, its, our, their). - Recycled: to be (Affirmative – Negative – Questions – Short answers).
Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Follow a short simple text while listening to the audio recording. - Read and comprehend simple sentences. - Recognise basic rules of punctuation. - Understand short simple texts if there is visual support. - Understand the main idea in short simple texts.
Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recycled: describe location using prepositions of place (in, on, under, next to, between). - Identify and describe items in a house. - Identify and describe people, places, toys, and things. - Identify and describe rooms in a house. - Identify and describe toys, games, and classroom objects.
Listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recognise simple intonation patterns. - Understand basic instructions and directions. - Understand simple questions about oneself. - Understand the main idea and/or basic information in short monologues or dialogues consisting of two to four exchanges.

Table 6.2: Description of the topics covered in unit 5 & 6 for the primary stage

The five language skills and components I tested in my study are covered within the contents of the two units. Thus, the first class starts by focusing on the new vocabulary in the unit. For the following classes, there are also some listening and reading activities containing the new vocabulary within the topics of the unit. The grammar in this unit refers to countable and uncountable nouns, and *this/that is, those/these are*. Moreover, the students complete writing exercises in the form of simple sentences, using the new vocabulary and grammar within the topics of the unit.

6.3.1.2 *Intermediate stage*

At the intermediate level, I used the textbook called ‘Lift Off’. For this age group there are 18 weeks in the semester, including two exam weeks. There are ten units in the student’s textbook, each unit containing four lessons. The fourth lesson in each unit is a *Review*, which provides a review of the language in the unit and recycles the grammar, functions, and vocabulary of the previous three lessons. The ten units cover various topics, and each unit is taught in eight lessons over two weeks. The duration of each class is 45 minutes with a total of 360 minutes of teaching time for the duration of my research at this stage. Also, there are two *Progress Check* sections: *Progress Check 1* covers units 1–5 and *Progress Check 2* covers units 6–10.

The ‘Lift Off’ textbook covers in general all the required English skills equally, including reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar and vocabulary, within a unit. The textbook offers a variety of topics, and most of the textbook’s content is relevant and appropriate to the students’ environment. The textbook provides activities that properly test all of the skills that were taught in the class, and the activities are varied, incorporating individual, pair, and group work. As mentioned before, some English skills are integrated with other skills within a single activity; for example, reading before writing or listening before speaking. However, it would be difficult for the students to finish some of these activities all at the same time, and most of the activities do not encourage students’ critical thinking. Furthermore, the content of each lesson and the number of activities in each lesson are so great that the teachers might not have enough time to cover all of the points. There is a lack of clarification of the grammar rules in each lesson, meaning that the teachers need to prepare materials to explain any new rules. The textbook’s level is generally not well matched to the students’ level.

I taught unit 7 entitled “Our World” to the intermediate students. In addition, each unit in the book covers the main basics of the English language including vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening. The subjects covered under each skill/component are illustrated in Table 6.3.

Unit 7: Our World P58	
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - bank, bin, rot (v), naturally, disappear, gold. - planet, matters (n), verse, conserve, scissors, mobile (phone), fridge. - man-made, volcano, Mount, erupt, ash, tonne, serious, flood (n), drought, visa, Embassy, finally.
Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Modals: can, could, should, may, might, must/have to. - Recycled: Present simple. - Recycled: Past simple (regular and irregular verbs).
Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Understand the main idea in short simple texts on familiar topics. - Transfer information from a text to a table. - Read and order a process. - Read for general and specific information. - Order events based on understanding a text. - Introduce vocabulary.
Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Describe/define people and things. - Give advice. - Make suggestions, make requests/ask for, give, and refuse permission. - Write about habitual actions, routines, and permanent situations. - Write about habitual actions in the past and understand the sequence of past events/experiences.
Listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Understand basic instructions and directions. - Understand the main idea and/or basic information in the conversations and take notes for the important information. - Able to take notes while listening.

Table 6.3: Description of the topics covered in unit 7 for the intermediate stage

The lessons of unit 7 concentrate on developing all the five previous skills and components across the topics of the units. The unit starts by introducing the new topic and focusing on the new vocabulary of the unit. There are also some listening activities and some articles containing the new words and idioms related to the topic of the unit. The grammar rule of this unit is about modal verbs plus the present and past simple tenses (recycled as a review). Moreover, students complete writing exercises using their previous knowledge, besides the new vocabulary and grammar introduced in this unit.

6.3.1.3 Secondary stage

In the secondary school classes, I used the ‘Flying High’ textbook. There are 18 weeks each semester, including two exam weeks. There are eight units in the students’ English book, which are spread and organised across the 16 teaching weeks. The eight units cover various topics, and each unit is taught in eight lessons over two weeks. The duration of each lesson

is 45 minutes with a total of 360 minutes of teaching time for the duration of my research at this stage.

The ‘Flying High’ textbook introduces many different topics that are culturally appropriate to Saudi society. The textbooks provide a balance of activities for each skill including reading, writing, listening speaking, grammar, and vocabulary, and the activities are varied, incorporating individual, pair, and group work. Also, the textbook activities encourage a creative response, as well as meaningful and communicative practice. These activities are task based, which requires the interactive use of the new language, as the students engage in discussions, pair conversations, problem-solving tasks, and role-plays. Thus, practising these tasks could help students to practise the language in the way that they may encounter it in real life. At the intermediate level, some of the tasks integrate two skills or more together, for example where the students are asked first to talk or read about a specific topic or listen to a certain topic, then they write about it, or vice versa.

However, the questions in the textbook, especially related to the reading skills components, appears to be not sufficiently advanced. Most of these questions require short answers only, with little concentration on higher level cognitive questions compared to the frequency of the questions about remembering and understanding. Students should be required to interact with the text, negotiate the meaning, and thus really think about questions being asked. Moreover, some of the reading activities are too long and do not match the students’ level; the students therefore find some of the texts very difficult to understand. There are also a few spelling errors, and the intensity of the activities in each unit hinders the learning process because there is not enough time to practise all of these activities in one session. In addition, some of these activities are very difficult because they do not give the students the practice they need. This kind of difficulty in the textbooks hinders students’ comprehension of the language input. Therefore, the number of goals to be achieved does not fit the duration of the class, and in this case, the desired benefit cannot be achieved.

I taught unit 5 entitled “Knowing the Market” to the secondary school students. The major basics of the English language, i.e., vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening are covered within the lessons of the unit (see Table 6.4).

Unit 5: Knowing the market P42	
Vocabulary	- Focus on vocabulary related to marketing, fashion, and the advertising industry.
Grammar	- Expose students to target grammar: a- The active and the passive voice. b- Different passive forms.
Reading	- Read articles related to the topics of the unit (market segmentation, holiday brochures, designer jeans) - Read for advertisements. - Read for details. - Read to fill in the blanks.
Writing	- Write an advertisement - Write a report: What life was like for our grandparents. - Write a story: A hero. - Write an article: (A city 100 years ago, An inspiring person). - Write an email to a friend: having a garment made.
Listening	- Listen for inferring meaning. - Listen for detail/exact words. - Listen for different types of speech (radio interview, dialogue about friendship, lecture, description of a biosphere, interview with a marketing expert).

Table 6.4: Description of the topics covered in unit 5 for the secondary stage

The content of the lessons in Unit 5 concentrates on improving all English language skills and components within the topics of the units. Thus, the first class works on communicative skills and access to new language. The following classes focus on analysis and practice of the new language, as well as communicative skills through reading, writing, and listening activities. The grammar section focuses on the different forms of the passive voice and the differences between the active and passive voice. The unit ends by working on communicative skills with activation of the learners' language resources.

6.3.1.4 University stage

For the university stage, I used the 'Unlimited English' textbook. The university academic year includes 15-week-long semesters, including two exam weeks and a mid-term break. The students' English book contains 12 units which are spread across the 12-week teaching period. The twelve units cover various topics, and each unit is taught in three lessons over a week. The duration of each class is 90 minutes.

Every unit in the ‘Unlimited English’ textbooks is well structured and arranged into five sections. All of the activities and exercises are well suited for the students’ level. The focus on English skills in English Unlimited is well-balanced, and all the tasks and activities test the content that has been taught in the class. The first two pages in each unit provide a student with a series of listening and reading activities, which are particularly helpful and include various text types. There is a comprehension-checking section after each text to ensure that the students are not confused by the new and unfamiliar words. Listening skill tasks include informal topical conversation and more formal interactions in different situations, which are produced by both native and non-native English speakers. This can provide the students with various functional languages that can be used in their daily lives.

The following two pages in each unit provide further practice for the new language as well as introducing helpful grammar references and pronunciation practice that is nicely connected to the content of the unit or the previous units. Also, the ‘target activity’ section enables the students to practise and develop their speaking skills, as the students can communicate, and they have enough time to work in pairs or groups and brainstorm ideas. The ‘explore writing’ section is well set up and linked to the listening and reading sections, which contain a selection of purposeful and practical tasks.

Each unit ends with a ‘Look Again’ section, which expands the language and skills that were taught earlier by looking at very different areas, including the meaning of keywords and expressions, highlighting the helpful connections between sounds and spelling, developing intercultural awareness, and providing a self-assessment box. This can encourage students to reflect on their progress in the unit.

Even though this textbook in general is a very good textbook, there are still some issues. For example, there are no guided points for students in the writing activities, so the students sometimes get lost, and the teacher has to help them with that. Also, there is no explicit explanation of grammatical rules for each unit, thus the student cannot revisit that explanation at any time. The onus is then on the teacher to prepare an explanation for each new grammatical rule which the students must then write down. The number of activities in each unit was too much to go through in one session, especially with the huge number of students in each class. The teacher is forced to leave some of the activities for the students to do by themselves at home or with friends.

I taught unit 9 “Getting Ready” to the university students. The following table summarises the subjects covered under each skill within the unit including vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening.

Unit 11: Getting Ready P74	
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expose students to the new language (using transport, getting information) - Expose students to the proposition of movement.
Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expose students to the new grammatical rules (Comparative & Superlatives).
Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read for details. - Read for specific information. - Read an article about a journey including preposition of movement. - Read an article about transportations: one wheeled wonder.
Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Write a report: Journey you like. - Getting around. - Compare between two cities.
Listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listen to get the main ideas. - Listen for specific information. - Listen to a conversation: Vijay visits Lucknow. - Listen to a conversation: Vijay buys a ticket.

Table 6.5: Description of the topics covered in unit 9 for the university stage

The content of Unit 9 lessons for the university stage focuses on improving all the five above English skills and components. The first lesson introduces the new topic and helps students to access the new language. There are articles related to getting information about places you visit and the transportation there, containing the new words and idioms. The following lessons include some writing and listening activities within the topic of the unit. The grammar section of this unit is about comparative and superlative adjectives.

Despite the criticism regarding the above textbooks, I had no choice but to use them because it would not have been possible to embed myself in these schools if I was not teaching the approved curriculum. And indeed, my findings would not be applicable to general school use if I did not use the approved government curriculum and show that my teaching methods worked in that context.

6.3.2. Pre-tests & post-tests

According to the policies for teaching English in Saudi classrooms, 80% of students’ performance in all the English language skills is evaluated on the basis of tests. The goal of

this thesis is to determine whether CS can improve students' performance in these tests. Therefore, even though there are many ways to measure the knowledge of the students in the classroom, the use of tests is a good way to assess the effect of CS, as this assessment method is standard, common and mandated in Saudi EFL classrooms.

According to Dixson and Worrell (2016), summative assessments such as tests are one of the standard ways to evaluate the quality of learning, judge students' performance, and identify their achievement in a classroom setting. Therefore, this study was built on two tests: a pre-test and a post-test. These tests allow researchers to know how much learning has taken place and they provide valid gauges of students' progress regarding their attainment of the acquired knowledge. The pre-test exam was taken before teaching started and the students took the post-test exam after the whole unit had been taught. These tests covered the topics presented in the section above.

The pre-tests and the post-tests in this thesis were the same for all the groups at each level. On the one hand, having the same test can mean that any improvement across all levels might not be due to teaching, but simply due to the fact that the students are seeing the same test again. However, those concerns are mitigated by the goal of this study. I am not interested in overall improvement, but rather the difference in the improvement between the CS groups and the control groups. This means that any advantage caused by repeating the test materials will be identical across groups. Therefore, any differences between groups can still be attributed to the effects of using CS in the teaching between the pre-test and post-test.

Re-using the same material for the pre-test and post-tests also offers a way to control the difficulty of the post-test across age sets and English language skills and components. If the material in the post-test were different from that in the pre-test, then it would be difficult to know whether differences between age sets are the result of the age set, or whether instead they reflect some uncontrolled difference in the design of the post-tests. For example, if the intermediate students showed less improvement than the university students, would that be due to their age, or due to the fact that the intermediate post-test was harder than the university post-test? Similarly, if students improve less in the grammar than in the vocabulary, does that mean that grammar is harder to learn, or does it mean that the grammar post-test was harder than the vocabulary post-test? So, having a different test makes the comparison more difficult and, in this case, the difference in the degree of difficulty between the pre-test and post-test might introduce another new variable that would be beyond the

scope of this study. By using identical material in the pre-test and post-test, I could control the sample and be sure that any differences in the test scores between groups or skills did not reflect differences in the composition of the post-test.

To conclude, the existence of strong robust differences in the results of the tests between the three groups would only be possible if the teaching mattered. Also, using the same tests allowed me to control for the possibility that there were varying degrees of difficulty between the pre-tests and post-tests across age groups or across the different language skills tested.

6.3.2.1 Question format

The tests were divided into five sections, with five points for each section, giving a total of 25 points. The five sections tested the basic skills and some components of English: vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening.

There are various methods to test students' recognition ability, such as multiple-choice questions, error recognition, true or false detection, pair matching, and cloze methods. In addition, item completion, transformation, paraphrasing, rearranging, blank filling, editing sentences, and word substitution are among the most common ways to test students' ability (Clay, 2001). Since the aim of this study is to identify any improvements in the students' performance regarding language recognition and production, I focused on specific types of questions that reduced aimless guessing and provided the teacher with a means for measuring specific knowledge. Therefore, the types of questions varied between subjective questions such as open-ended questions, objective questions such as completion, fill in the blanks, rearranging, error recognition, and true or false detection where the students had to correct mistakes. Accordingly, I included both objective and subjective questions. The arrangement of the test questions was similar to the design of the English course tests in Saudi schools, to make them familiar to the students. Table 6.6 provides a summary of the content of the tests and the arrangement of the questions.

Stage	Sections in the tests	Topics covered	Types of questions	
			Subjective	Objective
<u>Primary</u>	<u>Section one:</u> <u>Listening</u> Hear numbers of new words.	House & Classrooms		- Listen and number.
	<u>Section two:</u> <u>Reading</u> Read a passage.		- Open-ended questions.	
	<u>Section three:</u> <u>Vocabulary</u> Complete simple sentences with the suitable words.			- Fill in the blanks with a correct word.
	<u>Section four:</u> <u>Grammar</u> Use the new grammar rule to fill in the blanks.	- Demonstratives - Possessive adjectives		- Fill in the blanks by choosing from the box.
	<u>Section five:</u> <u>Writing</u> Look at the picture and describe it in simple sentences using the new words and grammatical rules.	House & Classrooms	- Describe the picture with simple sentences.	- Order the words to make a complete sentence.
<u>Intermediate</u>	<u>Section one:</u> <u>Listening</u> Hear a description for five pictures.	Environment & Recycling	- Write one sentence describing a picture according to what you heard.	
	<u>Section two:</u> <u>Reading</u> Read a passage.			- Complete the following table. - True or False with correcting mistakes.

	<u>Section three:</u> <u>Vocabulary</u> - Complete sentences with the new words - Choose the suitable alternative to produce an understandable sentence.			- Fill in the blanks with a suitable word. - Choose the correct alternative.
	<u>Section four:</u> <u>Grammar</u> Use the new grammar rule to answer the questions.	Modals		- Fill in the blanks by choosing the correct models from the box.
	<u>Section five:</u> <u>Writing</u> Write some advice using the new words and grammatical rules.	Environment & Recycling	- Write five complete sentences.	- Arrange the words to make a meaningful sentence.
<u>Secondary</u>	<u>Section one:</u> <u>Listening</u> Hear a conversation.	Marketing and Fashion	- Open-ended questions.	- True or false with correcting errors.
	<u>Section two:</u> <u>Reading</u> Read a passage.		- Open-ended questions.	
	<u>Section three:</u> <u>Vocabulary</u> Complete sentences with the new words.			- Fill in the blanks. - Matching.
	<u>Section four:</u> <u>Grammar</u> Use the new grammar rule to answer the questions.	Active and passive voice		- Fill in the blanks. - Correct the mistakes.
	<u>Section five:</u> <u>Writing</u> Write a short paragraph using the new words and grammatical rules.	Marketing and Fashion	- Write a short paragraph.	- Rewrite the sentences.

<u>University</u>	<u>Section one:</u> <u>Listening</u> Hear a conversation.	Transportation and travelling	- Open-ended questions.	- True or false with correcting errors.
	<u>Section two:</u> <u>Reading</u> Read a passage.		- Open-ended questions.	
	<u>Section three:</u> <u>Vocabulary</u> Complete sentences with the new words.			- Fill in the blanks.
	<u>Section four:</u> <u>Grammar</u> Use the new grammar rule to answer the questions.	Comparative and superlative		- Fill in the blanks. - Correct the mistakes.
	<u>Section five:</u> <u>Writing</u> Write a short paragraph using the new words and grammatical rules.	Transportation and travelling	- Write a short paragraph.	- Rewriting. -Rearranging.

Table 6.6: The format and the types of test questions in pre- and post-tests

The questions asked in these pre- and post-tests were based on the topics covered in the taught unit, in order to ensure that the students were tested only on the content that they had been taught in the classes.

6.3.2.2 Questions

All of the questions that are asked in the pre- and post-tests examined the content of the student book's lessons. It was anticipated that the students would not be able to answer all of the questions correctly, since the questions asked about new knowledge. Thus, while there was a higher possibility that students would be able to identify most of the answers in the post-tests correctly, not all of the students were expected to answer everything correctly; the test aimed simply to determine which group performed the best. The following section illustrates all of the questions asked in the tests.

6.3.2.2.1 Primary stage

1) Listening Section

a. Listen and number

In this question, the students were presented with five pictures designating new words from the unit. They listened to pairs of numbers and words and then tried to write the number next to the picture of the corresponding word. I played the recording twice, using a loudspeaker to make sure that the words were heard clearly by all the students. The question examined students' understanding of basic instruction and direction. It also examined students' comprehension of what they had heard (see Figure 6.2).

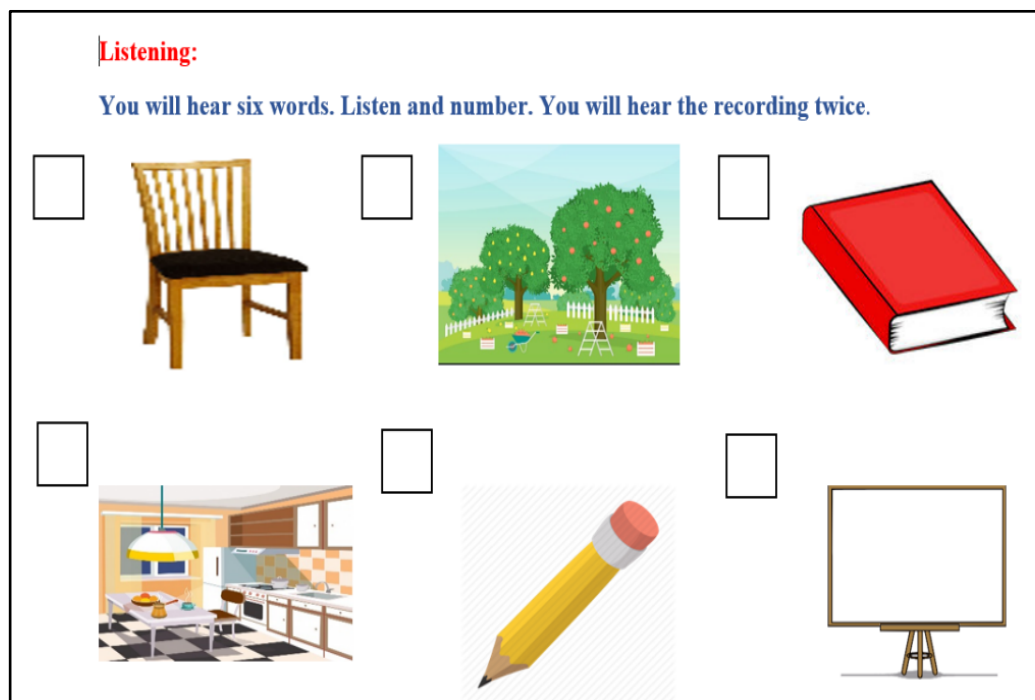


Figure 6.2: Example of the listening questions for primary students

2) Reading Section

a. Read the following passage, then answer the questions

Students here were given a short paragraph with very simple sentences. They were instructed to read the paragraph carefully, and then answer five open-ended questions. The questions were sequentially arranged according to the order of the paragraph. Students had to understand the paragraph first, then answer the questions. These questions test students' comprehension of what they have read (see Figure 6.3).

Reading:**Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:**

My name is Sara and I'm 9 years old. My classroom is big and nice. Our teacher is Miss Rachel, and she likes decorating the walls of the class with posters. There are ten desks in the classroom. In our class, there is a computer and a blackboard. The teacher's desk is beside the blackboard. There is also a bookcase, and you can see four books on the shelves. There are nine students in our classroom.

My desk and my chair are brown. On my desk, I have my pencil case, it is colourful. In my pencil case, I have two pencils and a purple pen.

1. How many desks are in the classroom?

.....

2. Where is the teacher's desk?

.....

3. How many pupils are in the classroom?

.....

4. What colour are the desk and the chair of Sara?

.....

5. What does Sara have in her pencil case?

.....

Figure 6.3: Example of the reading questions for primary students


3) Vocabulary Section


a. Fill in the blanks using the correct words

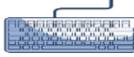
Students here had five simple sentences with a blank space. There was a picture next to each sentence. These pictures helped the students to choose a suitable word that was missing in the sentence. This type of question checked students' knowledge of the new words in the unit (see Figure 6.4).


Vocabulary:

Fill in the blanks with a correct word:

1. These are three..... 

2. This is a..... 

3. I always use the.....to write on the computer. 

4. These are the best..... in the classroom. 


5. This is my..... 

Figure 6.4: Example of the vocabulary questions for primary students

4) Grammar Section


a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, using the words in the box

In this question, students were given five sentences with a blank line. Students had to fill in the blank space with the appropriate words according to the new grammatical rule studied in the two units, namely demonstratives and possessive adjectives. The question here examined students' understanding of the new rules (see Figure 6.5).


Grammar:


Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, the words in the box may help you:

(This is, These are, That is, Those are, How many, my, his, her, your)

1. my computer. 

2. My best friend is Rami. This is uncle.

3. a chair. 

4. pupils are there? 


5. my pencils. 

Figure 6.5: Example of the grammar questions for primary students

5) Writing Section

a. Order the following words and punctuate the sentence

Here, the students were asked to arrange the given words to create a meaningful sentence and punctuate it if necessary. Ordering the sentence tested the students' comprehension of the grammatical rule that was the focus of the unit and their understanding of the sentence content (see Figure 6.6).

b. Look at the picture and try to describe it by writing three complete simple sentences

Students in this question were instructed to describe the provided picture by writing three complete simple sentences. They used the appropriate vocabulary and grammatical rules already learned in the unit or in previous units. This type of question examined students' production of language learned in the unit since they would use the new words, plus the new grammatical rule of the unit (see Figure 6.6).

Writing:

- Order the words and punctuate the sentences.

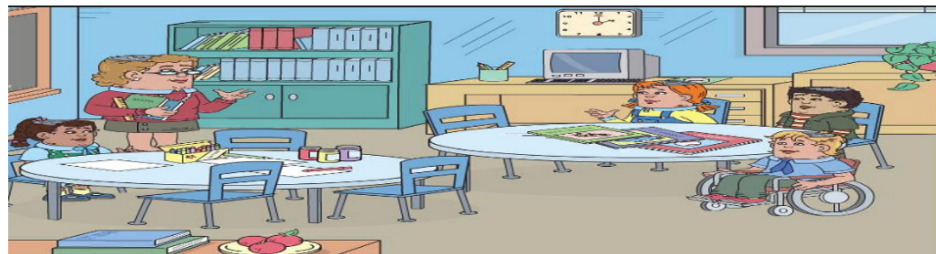
1. are / three / black / These / chairs

.....

2. is / my / That / laptop

.....

- Look at the picture and try to describe the classroom. Write only three complete simple sentences.



.....

Figure 6.6: Example of the writing questions for primary students

6.3.2.2.2 Intermediate stage

1) Listening Section

a. Listen to a description of the following pictures, then try to describe each picture

In this question, the students had five pictures and they heard some descriptions of these pictures. They were instructed to write just one sentence describing each picture according to what they had heard. I played the recording twice using a loudspeaker so that it could be heard clearly by all the students. This examined students' production and understanding of what they had listened to (see Figure 6.7).

Listening: (Track:42)

You will listen to a description for the following five pictures. Try to write one sentence describing each picture. You will hear the recording twice.






	
	
	

Figure 6.7: Example of the listening question for intermediate schools

2) Reading Section

a. Read the following passage, then answer the questions

Here, the students were given a passage from their book. After reading the passage carefully, they could answer the following questions. In the first question, the students were instructed to complete the table with a correct answer according to the events that happened in the passage. Then, in the other question, the students had to decide if the given statements were

true or false, and correct them if they were false. This question tested students' comprehension of what they had read (see Figure 6.8).

Reading:
Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:

On Saturday 15th June 1991 a volcano called Mount Pinatubo erupted. Mount Pinatubo is in The Philippine Islands in the Pacific Ocean.

The eruption lasted for nine hours and by Sunday 16th 800 people were dead, but this was not the end of the problem. First, gas and ashes came out of Pinatubo and rose 34 km into the sky. The gas was sulphur dioxide (SO₂). Between 15 and 30 million tonnes of SO₂ went up into the air. It formed an enormous cloud. This cloud travelled slowly round the world and produced serious climate change. The heat from the sun could not get through the cloud and the world's climate got cooler. In 1992 North America had the coldest, wettest winter for 77 years, and in March 1993 there were serious floods near the River Mississippi. In September 1993 in Africa the change was different. The Sahel Desert in North Africa had even less rain than usual. There was a very serious drought. Most climate change is man-made but natural events can also cause large and more sudden changes.

- Complete the following table:

Date	What happened?
1. 15th June 1991	
2.	800 people died

- Are the following statements true (T) or false (F), if the sentence is false, correct the mistakes in:

3. The eruption lasted for 9 hours and by Sunday 16th 800 people were dead.

4. The Sahel Desert in North Africa had too much water than usual.

5. Natural events is the most climate change.

Figure 6.8: Example of the reading questions for intermediate schools

3) Vocabulary Section

a. Choose the correct alternative

In this question, there were two sentences containing two alternatives. Students had to read the sentences carefully, then choose the correct alternative according to their understanding of the meaning of the sentence. This question examined students' understanding of the meaning of the sentence (see Figure 6.9).

b. Fill in the blanks with a suitable word

In this type of question, there were two sentences with a blank space. Students were instructed to guess the missing word to make an understandable sentence. This question checked students' understanding the meaning of the new words plus the content of the sentence (see Figure 6.9).

Vocabulary:

- Choose the correct alternative:

1. Sara threw some old bottles in the *rubbish/recycle* bin and put some old magazines in the *rubbish/recycle* bin.
2. When I brush my teeth, I *turn on/turn off* the tap and when I go to sleep, I *turn on/turn off* the lights.
3. Next week, James will start to learn how to *cycle/drive* the car.

- Fill in the blanks with a suitable word:

4. are made of leather. You can wear them on your feet in the mountains.
5. is made of plastic. It's round and you can listen to it.

Figure 6.9: Example of the vocabulary question for intermediate schools

4) Grammar Section

a. Complete the sentences using the appropriate modals from the box

In this question, students were given sentences with a blank line. The modal verb in each sentence was missing and the students had to put the appropriate one in the blank space according to their understanding of the meaning of the sentence. The questions checked students' understanding of the meaning of the sentence and the new grammar rules (see Figure 6.10).

Grammar:

Complete the sentences using the appropriate modals from the box.:

(can, can't – could, couldn't – may, mayn't – might, mightn't– should, shouldn't)

1. Close the window! The parrot escape.
2. I didn't hear what you said. you please repeat it again?
3. When you start to study, you listen to music.
4. When I was two years old, I swim.
5. Yasser passed the exam of driver's licence, so now he drive his new car.

Figure 6.10: Example of the grammar questions for intermediate students

5) Writing Section

a. Order the following words and punctuate the sentence

In this question, students were instructed to arrange the given words to make a meaningful sentence, with punctuation where necessary. Sentence ordering here checked students' language production (writing a sentence) using the grammatical rule of the unit, as well as their understanding of the meaning of the sentence (see Figure 6.11).

b. Write three pieces of advice for your friend about any topic

In this question, the students were instructed to write three complete sentences to advise a friend. They used the appropriate vocabulary and grammatical rules already learned in the unit or in previous units. The question here examined students' production of what they had learned from the unit since they had to use the new words plus the new grammatical rule of the unit (see Figure 6.11).

Writing:

- Order the words and punctuate the sentences.

1. paper / you / both / should / write / on / the / sides / of

2. should / you / outside / garden / the / in / your / clothes / dry

- Write three advice for your friend about any topic. Using your own ideas.

.....

Figure 6.11: Example of the writing questions for intermediate students

6.3.2.2.3 Secondary stage

1) Listening Section

a. Listen to a conversation between two persons, then answer the following questions

In this question, students listened to a conversation between two persons about a topic already covered in their book. I played the recording twice, using a loudspeaker so that it could be heard clearly by all the students. There were three open-ended questions and students answered these questions from the conversation. The questions were direct and arranged sequentially from the same conversation; they examined students' comprehension of what they had heard (see Figure 6.12).

b. Put true if the sentence is correct and false if it is wrong, and then correct it

Students here read two sentences, and then they had to decide whether these two sentences were right or wrong, according to their understanding of what they had listened to. If the sentence was false, the students had to correct it. This question tested students' ability to understand the listening part (see Figure 6.12).

Listening:

You will hear a radio interview with a marketing expert. The listening will be played twice.

a: Answer the following questions:

1. What is the occupation of Milton Knowles?

.....

2. What are the four Ps?

.....

b: Put True if the sentence is correct and put False if it is wrong, then correct it.

3. Because not all people are rich, there are many models of phones with various prices. ()

.....

4. Holiday destinations are often advertised in magazines. ()

.....

5. Since people are looking for a way of entertaining themselves during journeys, they buy magazines at train stations and airports. ()

.....

Figure 6.12: Example of the listening questions for secondary students

2) Reading Section**a. Read the following passage, then answer the questions**

Students were given a passage about a topic from the student's book. They were instructed to read the passage carefully and then answer five open-ended questions. The questions were sequentially arranged according to the events in the passage. Two of these questions were direct, while the three others were not direct since they tested the students' comprehension of what they had read. Students had to understand first, then they could answer (see Figure 6.13).

Reading:

Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:

Fashion in Ancient Egypt was mainly designed for comfort in the hot, dry desert climate and clothes were generally made of linen. Male outfits usually included a kilt. The kilt was used to serve a variety of purposes, such as indicating the age and status of its wearer.

Ancient Egyptian haute couture for women typically included a straight kaftan or shift. This changed very little over the centuries.

Footwear did not feature as a high priority in Egyptian fashion. Those who could afford them wore leather sandals. Others went barefoot.

The Egyptians did not, however, totally sacrifice elegance for comfort. Jewellery, for example, was extremely popular throughout the period. Excavations of tombs have shown that queens of Egypt were almost always interred with a quantity of jewellery.

The amount of jewellery worn by individuals often indicated their social position and level of wealth. Jewelled collars were very popular and usually made of very brightly coloured gems. Rings, anklets and bracelets were also part of the normal fashion wear. Earrings were common among wealthy women. Even the less well-off attempted to adorn themselves with as much jewellery as was possible.

While not nearly as lavish, the jewellery of the common Egyptian was usually very brightly coloured and was made out of inexpensive materials such as pottery.

1. In Ancient Egypt, what did a man's kilt tell people about the wearer?

.....

2. What is the high fashion of ancient Egyptian females?

.....

3. What does the amount of jewellery refer to?

.....

4. What kind of accessories was preferred by wealthy females?

.....

5. What was the jewellery of common Egyptians made of?

.....

Figure 6.13: Example of the reading questions for secondary students

3) Vocabulary Section

a. Fill in the blanks using the suitable words from the box

In this question, there was a box containing some of the new words from the unit of the student's book and there were three sentences that contained a blank space. Students had to choose the suitable word from the box to fit and complete the sentence. This question checked students' understanding the meanings of the new words plus the content of the sentence (see Figure 6.14).

b. Match each expression with its similar meaning

This question contained two columns, the first with some new vocabulary from the unit, and the second with synonymous words based on the previous knowledge of the students. Students were instructed to match each word from the first column with its similar meaning in the other column. This question examined students' knowledge and their ability to connect the meaning of the new words with what they already knew (see Figure 6.14).

Vocabulary:

a: Fill in the blanks with a correct answer:

(lifestyle - culture - outlets - target market – accessories)

1. Handbags, designer watches and jewellery are all fashion

.....

2. "People have different needs according to their social customs, language and dietary habits" refers to

b. Match the expressions with similar meanings.

3. consumers

a) basic principles

4. fundamentals

b) people with something in common

5. market segments

c) customers

Figure 6.14: Example of the vocabulary questions for secondary students

4) Grammar Section

a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, decide if the sentence is active or passive

In this question, the students were given three sentences with a blank line. The verb in each sentence was missing and the students had to put the appropriate verb in the blank space, according to the new grammatical rule learned in the unit, namely the active and passive voices. The question checked students' understanding of the new rules (see Figure 6.15).

b. Correct the grammatical mistakes in the following sentences

Here, there were two sentences containing a grammatical mistake. The students were instructed first to identify the mistake, and then correct it according to their knowledge of the grammatical rule (see Figure 6.15).

<p>Grammar:</p> <p>a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, decide if the sentence is active or passive:</p> <p>1. We (not/use) plastic in our factory</p> <p>2. I didn't understand anything because the instructions(write) in Japanese.</p> <p>3. Linda (bring) many presents for her family last week.</p> <p>b. Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.</p> <p>4. The mails is bring by John every day.</p> <p>5. I was lived with my grandmother when I was child.</p>
--

Figure 6.15: Example of the grammar questions for secondary students

5) Writing Section

a. Rewrite the following sentence to be in the passive form, using (by + subject) if necessary

In this question, the students were given a sentence in the active voice, which they had to transform into the passive. They used the grammatical rules they had learned in the unit.

Rewriting the sentence tested students' comprehension of the grammatical rule in the unit (see Figure 6.16).

b. Write four complete sentences about (...). The following questions will help you:

In this question, the students were instructed to write four complete sentences about a topic from the student's book. They used the appropriate vocabulary and grammatical rules they had already learned in the unit or in previous units. Students were provided with questions related to the chosen topic (products and brands). The writing section examined students' production of what they already learned from the unit since they had to use the new words plus the new grammatical rule of the unit (see Figure 6.16).

Writing:

a. Rewrite the following sentence to be in the passive form, used (by + subject) if necessary.

1. Samantha called the manager of the company last week.

.....

b. Think of a special product/ brand you like. Write four complete sentences about it. The following questions will help you:

- What is this product/ brand?
- How did you hear about this product/brand?
- When did you buy this product/brand? (first time of buying)
- Why do you like it?
- What are the features of this product/brand which makes it special?

.....

.....

Figure 6.16: Example of the writing questions for secondary students

6.3.2.2.4 University stage

1) Listening Section

a. Listen to a conversation between two persons, then answer the following questions

Similar to the task given to the secondary school students, the university students listened in this question to an audio recording about a topic from the taught unit. The audio recording was played twice through a loudspeaker so that it was heard clearly by all the students. There

were three open-ended questions and the students had to answer these questions from the conversation. The questions were direct and arranged sequentially from the same audio recording. This type of question checked students' listening comprehension (see Figure 6.17).

b. Put true if the sentence is correct and false if it is wrong, and then correct it

This question is also similar to part two in the listening section of the secondary stage; it aimed to test students' ability to understand what they were listening to by deciding if the given sentences were correct or false. They also had to correct the mistakes if the sentence was wrong (see Figure 6.17).

Listening:

You will hear a conversation between Meera and Vijay. The listening will be played twice.

a: Answer the following questions:

1. What is the first thing Vijay looking for?
.....

2. What is the other thing Vijay asking about?
.....

3. What time do Universal Booksellers close?
.....

b: Put True if the sentence is correct and put False if it is wrong, then correct it.

3. Meera prefers not to walk to Hazratgani because it's crowded plus the weather isn't cool.
()
.....

4. Meera and Vijay decide to take a Taxi to get to Hazratgani. ()
.....

Figure 6.17: Example of the listening questions for university students

2) Reading Section

a. Read the following passage, then answer the questions

Similar to the secondary stage, students were provided with a chosen written passage from the taught unit, and then they answered five questions about the text. The questions were sequentially arranged according to the events in the passage. Two of these questions were

not direct and the students had to read the text carefully to understand the main idea of the passage in order to correctly answer these questions (see Figure 6.18).

Reading:

Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:

The Smart car is a very small car, but it is very quick and can reach speeds of about 145 kph. A smart car costs about \$12,000 but it isn't very expensive to run because it only uses about 5 litres of petrol per 100 kilometres. When the petrol tank is full, it can travel for about 620 kilometres. It is made for using in cities more than in the country and it is very easy to park. It is a powerful car, and the engine is in the back of the car. It is 1000cc in size. It is strong because it has a thick steel frame, but it isn't very safe or heavy because most of the body is made of plastic. It only weighs 816 kilograms. The luggage space is small because it is mainly for driving in the city. The back of the car can carry two medium sized bags and shopping for two people.

This is a GMC Terrain. It is a very large car also known as a Sports Utility Vehicle or SUV. It costs about \$35,000. It can carry seven people. It is very comfortable, and it has a very large luggage space. It can fit many large bags and shopping for more than two people. It is very good for families. The engine is very large. It is 3000cc and it is a very powerful car that can reach speeds of up to 220 kph. It uses about 15 litres of petrol to travel 100 kilometres. It can travel on the highway and also on very rough roads. It is a very heavy car, and the body is made of steel, so it is very strong. It weighs 2000 kilograms.

1. What is the main idea of the passage?

.....

2. How far can the Smart car go?

.....

3. Is the Smart car safe? Why/why not?

.....

4. How many people and items can the SUV carry?

.....

5. Why is the GMC Terrain heavy and strong?

.....

Figure 6.18: Example of the reading questions for university students

3) Vocabulary Section

a. Fill in the blanks using the suitable words from the box

As with the secondary stage, there were three sentences in this question and a missing word in each sentence. The students were expected to choose the appropriate word from the given box to fill in the blank space and make a meaningful sentence. This question tested the students' recognition of the new words in the unit (see Figure 6.19).

b. Complete the following conversation by filling in the missing words

In this question, the students were provided with two short conversations and there was a missing expression in each conversation. Students completed the missing vocabulary to form a meaningful dialogue. The teacher put the first letter of the missing expression to help the students guess the suitable word. This question examined students' ability to understand the meaning of the entire conversation (see Figure 6.19).

Vocabulary:

a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer:

(car – underground – walk – drive – ride)

1. I always my car when I go to the university.
2. Most days I get the
3. He his motorbike to work every day.

b. Complete the following conversation by filling in the missing words:

4. **A:** Do you k..... w..... it's open?

B: Yes, from 9.30 to 5.00.

5. **A:** A taxi is probably very expensive. C..... we w.....?

B: Yes, but it's about 3 miles away.

Figure 6.19: Example of the vocabulary questions for university students

4) Grammar Section

a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer

This question tested students' understanding of the grammatical rule of comparatives and the superlatives. They were given sentences with a blank space to complete by using the appropriate adjective. They also had to decide whether the sentence was comparing two things or more than one thing (see Figure 6.20).

b. Correct the grammatical mistakes in the following sentences:

Here, there were two sentences, and each sentence included a grammatical mistake. Students were instructed first to find the mistake, and then to correct it, according to their understanding of the grammatical rule (see Figure 6.20).

Grammar:

a: Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, decide if it is comparative or superlative:

1. The trains in France are in Europe. (comfortable)
2. Walking is than driving. (healthy)
3.way to travel around is to cycle everywhere – it's free! (cheap)

b: Correct the mistakes in the following sentence.

4. Jeddah is hottest than Taif.
.....
5. The giraffe is taller animal in the world.
.....

Figure 6.20: Example of the grammar questions for university students

5) Writing Section

a. Rearrange the following words to make a complete sentence

In this question, the students were provided with the randomly ordered words of a sentence, and they had to arrange them following the instructions of the grammatical rule in order to

make a meaningful sentence. This question tested students' ability to understand the meaning of the words, plus the composition of the grammatical rule (see Figure 6.21).

b. Rewrite the sentence by adding the preposition in the brackets in the correct place

In this question, the students were instructed to insert the given preposition in its correct place inside the sentence. The tested unit contained a list of various prepositions; thus, this question checked the students' understanding of how to use the different prepositions (see Figure 6.21).

c. Write three comparative sentences about (...). The following adjectives will help you

In this question, the students were instructed to write three comparative sentences to compare two things. They were expected to use the appropriate vocabulary, suitable prepositions, and grammatical rules that they had already learned in the unit. They were provided with a list of adjectives. This question tested students' production of complete sentences using the appropriate prepositions and the correct grammatical rule (see Figure 6.21).

Writing:

a. Rearrange the following words to make a complete sentence:

1. city/ is/ in/ the/ Saudi Arabia/ . / biggest/ Riyadh

.....

b. Rewrite the sentence adding the preposition in brackets to the correct place:

2. I always walk the park on my way home. (through)

.....

c. Think of two towns or cities you know well. Write three comparative sentences about them. Use some of the adjectives in the box:

(beautiful – busy – clean – expensive – interesting)

.....

.....

Figure 6.21: Example of the writing questions for university students

6.4. Research design

6.4.1. Classroom arrangements

As mentioned earlier, the participants in this study were from four education stages/levels: primary, intermediate, secondary, and university. The students from each stage were divided into three groups as follows. There were 72 primary school students aged between 10 and 12 years old, divided into three groups of 24 students each. Additionally, there were 54 intermediate school students, aged 13–15, who were divided into three groups with 18 students in each group. The 90 students from secondary school were divided into three different groups of 30 students aged between 16 and 18 years old. The last category included 155 university students aged between 19 and 21 years old, split across three uneven groups, namely 50 students in the first group, 45 students in the second group, and 60 students in the last group.

It was not possible to control the sample of this study. As shown above, the number of students in each stage was not consistent because the number of students in each stage and their arrangements among the three groups were related to the policies of each school, the size of the school, and number of students in the whole school. In other words, some schools had a large or medium number of students, while others had a small number; the difference in the student numbers within the three university stage groups was related to Taif University's policies, which dictated group size according to the available seats of the different departments. As a result, I could not control the class size for these reasons. Some researchers suggest that class size is very important for a student's learning experience and achievements (e.g., Chingos 2012; Fredriksson, Öckert, & Oosterbeek, 2013; Gary-Bobo & Mahjoub, 2013; Urquiola, 2006; *inter alia*). Therefore, the lack of control over group size might cause problems. However, it could be treated here as an advantage because it represents a realistic situation given the nature of different Saudi schools and their sizes, and it may give my study the opportunity to see how CS can work across different classroom sizes.

The time of the English classes differed among these different stages, as some classes were in the morning, while others took place in the afternoon. Timetables were set according to school policies, rules, and routines. Each school has its own timetable as the schools' principals arrange the teachers' schedules, which have to fit in their duties during the whole

week. Some researchers suggest that a morning class might matter for learning a foreign language (e.g., Biggers, 1980; Millar, Styles & Wastell, 1980; Mulenga & Mukuka, 2016; *inter alia*). Consequently, the lack of control over classes' times might also cause problems. However, this could give my study the opportunity to determine whether CS effects are robust enough to emerge, despite variability across differently timed classes.

There are other external factors that may arise as a result of the differences in timetabling, such as pressure caused by other classes. Having other class exams/tests after the English classes may affect students' focus, and hence the results of the study. Some previous studies investigated the external factors that result in lapses in students' attention, factors that are out of the teachers' control, including pressure from other classes (e.g., Wilson & Korn, 2007; Bunce, Flens, & Neiles, 2010; Phillips, Ralph, Carriere, & Smilek, 2016; Hlas, Neyers & Molitor, 2019; *inter alia*). However, this may also give my study the opportunity to determine whether the effects of CS are robust enough to emerge across sources of variability.

Thus, as shown above, the arrangement of the three groups at each stage, the time of the English classes during the day, and the potential external pressure from other classes were out of my control. Therefore, these issues may affect the students' performance. Nevertheless, these differences are representative of the variability that characterises the Saudi educational system. If the results are to have practical application, they will need to be sufficiently robust to emerge despite these sources of variation. Therefore, I do not regard these differences as an issue because they show the real characteristics of Saudi education. I will return to discuss all these ideas in Chapter 8, Section 8.2.2.

6.4.2. Code-switching categories and their arrangements

As previously outlined, this study explored the effect of the various purposes of CS in the classroom on student progress among different age sets. Thus, I divided up these different purposes of CS inside EFL classrooms, as shown in Section 3.3, and separated them into two main categories: Methodological CS, where a teacher switches between languages for linguistic purposes only, and Mixed CS, in which a teacher changes the language for linguistic, classroom management and social purposes, as well as for personal intent. At each age level, Methodological CS was applied with one group and Mixed CS was used with another group, while the last group was taught without the use of CS (NCS/Controlled). The

goal of this experiment was to see how the students in the different groups improved over the course as a result of these various purposes of CS use.

As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, most previous works have examined CS by observing teachers' and students' talk, using an audio recorder, doing interviews, or using a questionnaire to investigate the role of CS in the EFL classroom. According to my observation of these studies, teachers habitually switch, and they differ in their purposes when they switch from one language to another. As I was the teacher in this study, I could control the language switches in the teaching of the different groups, unlike all the other English teachers who use CS in the classroom according to their habitual behaviour. This means that the number of switches was prepared carefully before the class, and I tried to follow this number. The controlled switches helped to test the use of CS in EFL classrooms accurately and to identify which category of switching worked best. The following table shows the number of switches and how they were divided among the groups of each stage.

Stages	Intermediate			Primary		
Groups	Group 1 (NCS)	Group2 (Methodological CS)	Group 3 (Mixed CS)	Group 1 (NCS)	Group2 (Methodological CS)	Group 3 (Mixed CS)
Students	18			24		
Units	One			Two		
Lessons	eight			eight		
Period	45 minutes			45 minutes		
Switches	0	35	35	0	30	30
Types of switching	0 CS	35 MCS	21 MCS 14 SCS	0 CS	30 MCS	18 MCS 12 SCS
Percentage	0% CS	100% Methodological CS	60% Methodological CS 40% Social CS	0% CS	100% Methodological CS	60% Methodological CS 40% Social CS

Stages	University			Secondary		
Groups	Group 1 (NCS)	Group2 (Methodological CS)	Group 3 (Mixed CS)	Group 1 (NCS)	Group2 (Methodological CS)	Group 3 (Mixed CS)
Students	50	46	60	30		
Units	One			One		
Lessons	four			eight		
Periods	90 minutes			45 minutes		
Switches	0	60	60	0	40	40
Types of switching	0 CS	60 MCS	36 MCS 24 SCS	0 CS	40 MCS	24 MCS 16 SCS
Percentage	0% CS	100% Methodological CS	60% Methodological CS 40% Social CS	0% CS	100% Methodological CS	60% Methodological CS 40% Social CS

Table 6.7: The implementation of CS among the groups

As clearly outlined in the table above, the number of switches across the different educational levels varied for each group. The primary variation in the number of switches is due to class length; more specifically, classes of 45 minutes received 40 to 50 code switches each session, while 90-minute classes received 105 code switches in each session. However, beyond that, a small variation in the number of code switches reflects the nature and the difficulties of the different curricula. This means that the switch from the target language to the first one or vice versa will occur when necessary.

Since I use controlled switches in this study, the number and the types of CS were arranged and planned before I started teaching. The following sections provide examples of the different purposes of CS I used in each of the two CS groups: Methodological CS with linguistic-purpose-only switches, and Mixed CS, where the switches were also used for classroom management and social purposes.

1) Linguistic Purposes

I used CS in the EFL classroom for linguistic purposes to help the EFL students understand, as in the following examples.

- to explain a grammar rule

Some of the English grammatical rules are difficult for Arab students; they can be confusing due to their close similarity to other rules, but they serve different functions, such as modal verbs, which are entirely different from ordinary verbs. For example, in the following instance, I explain the modal verbs and how they differ from ordinary verbs.

T: Now, here are the Modal verbs. Modal verbs are different from normal verbs that you know. “*Kul waḥdeḥ fi:hum laha maʕnaʾ muxtalef wa tu:ʔadi: waðʕi:fah muxtalefah. Elmodal daʔi:man taxuð nəfs elʔakel ma yifərq eða kan el subject mufrad aw jaməʕ we elafəʕal elly teji: baʕdaha daʔi:man tukun mujaradah.* (Each one of them has a certain meaning and serves different functions. They always take the same form either with singular or plural. They are directly followed by infinitive verbs without using ‘to’).

- to compare the grammatical systems of the two languages.

Most of the English grammar rules are different from the Arabic ones, therefore it can be helpful in some cases to compare them and give students a better understanding, as shown in the following example.

T: So, generally when we want to describe something, we usually use an adjective. When we want to describe two things and compare them, we usually add a syllable ‘-er’ at the end of the adjectives and use the word “than” to show the comparison between them. *Zay ʕandana fi elʕarabi maḥalən law neʕuf haḍi: eljumalah:* This blue car is bigger than that red car. “*haḍi: elsayarah elzarqa akbər men haḍi:k elsayarah elḥamra’a*”. *lama ji:na neqaren ʔayrana kelmət kabi:r* “big” *wasʕart Akbər* “bigger” *wʔdʕna men elly heya* “than”.

T: So, generally when we want to describe something, we usually use an adjective. When we want to describe two things and compare them, we usually add a syllable ‘-er’ at the end of the adjectives and use the word “than” to show the comparison between them. As in Arabic, if we look at this sentence: This blue car is bigger than that red car. When we come to make a comparison, we change the adjective “big” in Arabic by adding the syllable ʔ “-er” to become “*Akber*” “bigger”. And we add the word “men” which is the same as “than” in English.

- to clarify the meaning of difficult words

Some English words are very difficult to explain in English, such as the word “haute couture”; by ‘difficult’ we mean that it is difficult to explain with only one word as a direct translation due to the lack of an exact equivalent word in Arabic. This needs more explanation with more than one sentence to convey the meaning accurately to the students.

T: haute couture: this is a new word here, see. Do you know the meaning of haute couture? It is a French word that means the most fashionable and influential dressmaking and designing until the 1950s, or made-to-measure. The term made-to-measure can also be used for any garment that is created for an individual client. *Elly heya axer sʕayḥat elmudʕah w elmalabes elly yatəm tasʕni:ʕaha xi:sʕi:sʕən ʕala ḥasəb eltʕaləb. yaʕni: elʔzya’a elraqyaha.* (It refers to the high fashion/high dressmaking and custom-made garments).

- to disambiguate some confusing words

Some English words have very different meanings in different contexts, such as the word “bank”. The students here already know that the word “bank” means the place where people deposit and withdraw their money and/or borrow money. So, I here switched to Arabic to clarify the meaning of the word “bank” and to show that the word “bank” in the chosen text is different from the meaning that the students already know.

T: plastic bank. Here the word bank *mu maṣna el bank elly niṣri:fuh. yaṣni: ḥawi:yah i:ṣadet eltadwi:r.* (The word bank here is not the bank that we already know. It means a specific large container where people put empty plastic bottles which might be deposited for recycling or used again).

- to give direct translation/introduce new vocabulary

Some of English words are introduced for the first time to the students; they can be difficult to explain in English but they have an equivalent meaning in Arabic. Therefore, I used CS to introduce new vocabulary in the unit that might be unknown to the students by providing the direct translation for the words, as in the following example.

T: In which picture is the family doing more to stop climate change? Climate change *yaṣni: tayaiur el munax.*

- to clarify the meaning of functional phrases

Some English phrases have specific meanings that may often be difficult to understand for Arabic students. For example, I in the following instances switched from English to Arabic to explain the meaning of an English phrase that it serves.

T: talk someone out of it: to persuade/convince someone not to do something, or to do something different. (*haḍi: elṣi:baraah hena kulaha kamalah taṣni: i:nuh tiḥawili:n ti:qni:ṣin faxes^ḥ i:nuh mayisawi fay muṣain aw yisawi fay muxtaliḥ ṣanuh*).

- to explain idioms

English lexis includes idioms that have specific meanings. Students might know the meaning of each word in the idiom, but they do not know the exact meaning of these words when they combine together to make a special meaning. Therefore, I used CS here to explain these kinds of words to the students, as in the following example.

T: ‘Under the weather’ here means *malha daxəl bəl jaw hena yaʕni: ti:ʕaber ʕən ʕalat elmari:dʕ*. (It is not related to the weather here. It means feeling sick/ill).

- to clarify English cultural expressions by comparing them to local cultural expressions

Some English expressions have a similar meaning to Arabic expressions, but they are different in some ways according to the culture. I used CS here to explain that to the students by showing them the local Arabic cultural expressions and which phrases in their books were similar.

T: A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. What you have is worth more than what you might have later. *Zey ʕəndana bəðʕətʕ yum nəqu:l ʕəsʕu:r fi: elyad wala ʕafəraha ʕala elfajarah*.

- to identify the general idea of a reading text

In the following example, I used CS to explain the overall meaning of a reading text in the students’ book.

T: *taib alqiteʕah tetekalam ʕan ʕadaθ elburkan altʕabaqi: fi jabal binatang fi jazi:rat liwzun alfilibiyn*. (This text talks about the volcano event at Mount Pinatubo in Luzon Island, Philippines).

- to identify the general idea of a listening text.

In the following example, I also code-switched to explain the general meaning of a listening text before the students listened to that text, so that they could get a better idea of what they would hear.

T: *taib dahin rah tismafun jumal basi:t'ah fan ela?dawat elly mumken titwajad fi elfas'al eldi:rasi.* (Now you will listen to very simple sentences about classroom objects).

- to clarify tasks/activities/exercises instructions

I used CS to explain the instructions of a specific activity, as in the following sentence.

T: *fi haða eltamri:n rah niqra awələn elkali:mat elly hena, baɣdain ni:wasel kul kali:mah bis'uratha elmunasibah wa'axer fay ni:kətub elkali:mah taħət s'uratha.* (In this task, you will read the words first, then match each word with its right picture, and finally write each word under the picture).

- to explain pronunciation

Unlike Arabic, some letters in English make a sound when they come together. I code-switched here to explain that to the students, as in the following instance.

T: *fi eli:nqlif fi baɣəd' elhuruf lama tiji məɣ baɣəd' tiɣt'i: a'as'wat muxtali:fah maθlen ħaraf elsa wa ħaraf elha tiɣt'i:na s'ut elsha:* (Unlike Arabic, two letters in English come together to make a sound, such as, sh and ch).

- to double check students' understanding

In the following example, I code-switched to check the students' comprehension of an idea.

T: *t'aib yaɣni fi elmi:θal elsabiq yiqs'dun inuh kaθrat elzabayil tisabəb talawθ bi?i. s'aħ?* (So, the idea in the previous example means that a lot of trash can cause environmental pollution. Right?)

2) Classroom Management Purposes

Besides the linguistics purposes of CS as above, in the Mixed CS group, I also used CS to instruct in EFL classrooms and guide students, as in the following examples:

- to check attendance

T: *fi: aħəd yaɣəb elyum?* (Is anyone absent today?)

- to get the class's attention

T: *xalas^ʕ entabhu: maʕayah ya s^ʕabaya.* (Watch out girls).

- to assign homework/exam

T: *la tensun raqem eθni:n wa θalaθah hena wajeb* okay. (Don't forget girls. [Number 2 and 3 in this page will be homework]).

- to give class instructions

T: *mumken ti:sawun elqurubat elly sawaaynah eli:sbu? Elmad^{ʕi}:.* (Could you please make the groups we created last week?).

- to give exam instructions

T: *awal fay raħ nebd? beli:sti:maʕ, baʕdain ti:qrawun elqet^ʕʕah we tjawbun ʕala elasʔi:lah elly taħtaha ...* (First, you will listen to a text. Then, you will read another text and answer the questions under the text).

3) Social purposes

In addition to the previous purposes, in the Mixed CS groups, I also code-switched in the EFL classrooms for various social purposes, sometimes for different functions, including changing the students' moods, reducing their anxiety, encouraging them to participate, creating a warm and friendly atmosphere, and establishing positive and friendly relationships with the students, as follows.

- to welcome the students (greeting)

T: *elsalam ʕalykum.* (Religious expression for greeting means "Peace be unto you").

- to start the class (warm up).

I sometimes code-switched to warm up the class in order to enhance their engagement and attract their attention from the start of the class, as in the following example.

T: *qabəl mani:bda? darəs elyum, fendi: hena box fi:h baʕədʕ ela:fya? elly ti:qdər ti:fref elfay elmawjud dixel elboks men mujarad eləlams bi:dun mat:dʕli:ʕuh fi xelal ʕafer θawani bas, laha hadyi:ah.* (Before we start our lesson today, I have a box in here including some objects, if anyone can guess within only 10 seconds what that object is from only touching that object, she will get a reward).

In the previous example, I started the lesson with a challenging game. I brought a box with me containing some items related to the new vocabulary that I was going to teach in that class. So, I switched language to ask the students to come, put a hand inside the box, choose one item, and try to guess within only 10 seconds what that object was, while the student's hand was still inside the box. If the student guessed the right object, she was rewarded.

- to introduce religious expressions

I also code-switched in the EFL classroom to introduce religious expressions, which have a great effect on students because they are so familiar with them. This increases the students' self-confidence and encourages them to participate.

T: Yes, that's correct. *Wafeq Allah* (Religious expression means "May Allah grant you all success").

- to give students positive feedback

I code-switched to give students positive feedback when they participated in the classroom activities and tasks. This helped to build and increase the students' confidence and encouraged them to participate more in other activities.

T: *Mafa'a Allah. Wow. Wadʕəh i:nuh baðelti: majhud ʕaðʕi:m* to do it in the right way. I'm really happy *wa marrəh methami:sah afuf wif raħ ti:sawi:n fi elwajib eljay.* ([“what God has willed” which used to refer that something good has happened]. Wow. Your work looks great! It's obvious that you take care about your work and take the time to do it correctly. I'm really happy and so excited to see what you will do in next task).

- to correct mistakes gently

I also code-switched to correct students' mistakes in the lesson, using kind words followed by positive words to reduce the students' anxiety over a mistake, increase their confidence, and encourage them to participate in future activities.

T: *kuwais qarabti: men eljawab. Raki:zi: hena wa rah tiji:bi:nha.* (Good try! You are close to the right answer. Look at this, you will find it).

- to give the students praise/compliments

I code-switched to praise the students for their general performance inside the classroom, in order to encourage them to improve even further in future lessons, and to build a positive relationship with the students.

T: *elyum s'arahah kunti: ra?i:ʕah.* (Your performance today was really so great). Just keep going.

T: *elyum elʕatʕarah nayimah. Enti mumtazəh. Matʕawdet afufik keḏa. Elmarah eljayah ma?a:bya afufek kiḏa. Itafqana?* (Today, you look sleepy. You're a very good student and I used to see you active. So, please I don't want to see you like this next time. Okay?).

- to chat with students about the exam

I code-switched to talk to the students about the exam, to reduce any stress they felt about it and to allow them to be relaxed about it.

T: *elxti:bar ma yi:ḥtaj muḏakarah eʕtamdo elly fehəmtuh men elclass...* (There is no need to study for test. Just depend on what you understood from my classes. Easy peasy).

- to tell local idioms

Some Arabic idioms are very common and frequently used in the Saudi community. These idioms can have funny meanings, hence I used them also within the EFL classroom to change the students' mood and create a friendly atmosphere.

T: *Ya jabel ma yi:həzzik ri:h.* (Like a mountain, don't let the wind shake you). It refers to a way of telling someone that she is strong and encouraging her not to let a small problem bother her.

T: *tʃanjarah wi laqət yatʃaha.* (A pot that has found its lid). It refers to when two persons get along really well where each one of them found their other half. **طنجرة ولقت غطاها.**

T: *elti:krar yi:ʃa:li:m elfutʃa:r* (Repetition can teach even a). It means practice makes perfect.

- to tell local proverbs and wisdom

Similar to idioms, some Arabic proverbs are frequently used by Saudi people. These proverbs can also have funny meanings that can be used inside the EFL classroom to change the students' mood and create an enjoyable atmosphere.

T: *haḍa zay elly yiqul wain i:ḍənk ya juḥa.* (A proverb means when someone solves a problem through choosing the longest way/the most difficult alternatives).

T: *hilu fasir elma'a bilma'a baʃəd juhīd jahi:d.* (A proverb means after making great efforts, one explains that water is water).

- to tell local jokes/common jokes

I sometimes code-switched to tell some local jokes that are very funny and common, but which sometimes lost their humorous meaning when translated into English.

T: *Okay, haḍa zay Juḥa lama raḥ huwa wi ḥəmaruh lisuq ʃaʃan yiftari aʔyradʃ fajaʔah Juḥa laḥəḍʃ i:nuh ḥəmaruh dʃaʃ fi: elzaḥmah wi sʃar Juḥa yi:dʃḥək wi lama saʔluh ʃala ayf yi:dʃḥək qal law kunt ʃala elḥi:mar kan dʃiʃət maʃah.* (Like Juha when he went with his donkey to the market to buy some things. Suddenly, Juha noticed that he had lost his donkey in the crowded market. However, he was smiling all the time. When people asked him, 'Why are you so happy even though you have not found your donkey yet?', he said, 'I am smiling and happy because if I had been riding on my donkey I, myself, would have been lost).

I also sometimes code-switched to tell jokes that are very common in the Saudi community and at the same time include an effective meaning.

T: *Okay, haḏa zay elsulḥafah elly ithtadet elarənib fi elsurḥah wi mi:n yusʿal awal. Lama dʿihik ṣalayh elarənib wa badʿa elsibaq wa raḥ baʿid wi waḥiq fi nafsuh ziyadah ṣen elizum wa qarər yaxuḏ yafwah wefi elnihayah sʿihi wəkmel elsibaq weyum wisʿal liqi elsulḥafah tistanah ṣind xatʿ elnihayah.* (Like a turtle who challenged a rabbit to a race to see who could run faster than the other. Because the rabbit found it so funny, when he got to the halfway point and could not see the turtle anywhere, he decided to take a short nap. However, when he woke up, he went at full speed to the finishing point, but he found the turtle there waiting for him. This means that we must not be affected by the negative attitudes about us. Trust ourselves and just keep going).

- to give personal advice/to engage in small talk with students

I code-switched to give students advice about their language learning, to show them where they could improve their English skills.

T: *Dai:mən hutʿi: fi balik i:nuh enti tudrusi:n elenqilif mu ṣafa:n madah wibti:njahi:n fi:ha, la: ṣafa:n kul elwaḏʿi:f meṣtamdah ṣalyi:ha.* (Always put in your mind that you are studying English not because it is a course and you have to pass it, but because your future career will depend on it).

- to inform a short personal story

Throughout my English learning period, I passed through both difficult and funny experiences. Therefore, I sometimes code-switched to inform students about these experiences when they were relevant to the topics in the lesson, to either encourage the students to learn English or change their mood.

T: *haḏa ḏakrni: bi:nəfsi lama dʿaiṣat tʿari:q eljaməṣah wana jaləṣah fi: elbasʿ ka:n awal marah fi ḥayati arkəb basʿ wikunt aḥəseb i:nuh raḥ yi:waqif fi kul maḥtʿah wi tʿi:liṣ i:nuh lazem ari:n eljares ṣaḥn yiwaqif.* (This reminds me when I used the bus for the first time. I was sitting and waiting for the bus to stop in the place I wanted, but it was like that I had to press a button if I wanted the bus to stop).

6.5. Procedures

6.5.1. Ethical considerations and arrangements

For this research, I followed procedures laid out by the University of Glasgow College of Arts Ethics committee (<https://www.gla.ac.uk/colleges/arts/research/ethics/>), and was granted ethical approval by the University for this research. However, further approval was necessary from the local research site. Accordingly, contact was made with the Ministry of Education, the General Directorate of Education in Taif, especially with Mrs. Fatima Mohammed Al-Sukhairi, the Head of the English Department, Taif – the Directorate of Educational Supervision – and also school administrators (see Appendix A: Permissions and Forms). Based on the correspondence, specific fieldwork dates were set to match the semester timetable of the schools and Taif University. One week before starting the fieldwork, meetings were conducted with the supervisor of education and schools' principals in order to illustrate the nature of the project and what would happen, and to explain the instructions to the participants in the schools. I further ensured that I gave all the participants their consent forms to be signed by their parents, to make sure that they both were fully informed about the study. I also ensured that the information in the consent form was conveyed in Arabic – it described in detail all the relevant information about the study to make sure that the participants and their parent fully understood its purpose (see Appendix A: Permissions and Forms). The respondents were all given pseudonyms to guarantee anonymity.

6.5.1.1 *My role as both researcher and teacher*

To undertake ethical research, I must state my positionality related to the topic under study. According to Holmes (2020), the researcher's positionality indicates their beliefs and values relevant to a topic and how that might impact the research process. It is important to acknowledge that the research analysis and the evaluation of its findings cannot be fully separated from the researcher's beliefs. Thus, since as a teacher in the study I am a participant in this thesis, it is important to introduce my positionality in this research. Indeed, I found some difficulties with being a researcher and a teacher at the same time. In general, the primary goal of being a researcher is to understand while the primary goal of being a teacher is to help students learn. So, I believe that a researcher who is also a teacher in a study about teaching could face challenges and dilemmas.

First, my role as a teacher could have caused problems with the validity of the research. As a teacher, on the one hand, I want to make sense of how the knowledge that I gained about CS during my experience of teaching EFL in Saudi EFL classrooms can be a valuable and beneficial resource. I genuinely believe that using CS facilitates students' learning and helps them to learn more, and EFL students in a classroom where CS is used will learn better than those in a classroom where it is not. This means that my belief about the benefits of CS will affect my way of teaching, which might lead me to teach more attentively in the CS groups than in the control groups. This might put students' learning in the control groups at a disadvantage relative to the other groups. Therefore, the values and beliefs that I carried as an English teacher about CS might pose difficulties in the research, because the groups that I thought would perform the worst were the control groups; the students' improvement might therefore reflect my attentive teaching rather than the inherent benefits of CS.

To mitigate this challenge to the research's soundness, I prepared for each lesson thoroughly. I practised teaching many times, managed the class time and recorded myself each time to make sure that I followed the same design pattern. After the teaching was over, I listened to the recording and examined the events that occurred. This process I did before the actual process of collecting the data, and it helped me to understand my performance in the teaching context, recognising my role as a teacher, making particular decisions, and exploring alternatives that might lead to robust findings. All of these procedures that I did before the actual teaching ensured that the lessons proceeded as similarly as possible across the different groups.

As a researcher, on the other hand, I aimed to determine which group learned better than others. The answer to this would help to answer the research questions, and it depended on unequal achievement across student groups. I chose to be a teacher in the study because I wanted to make sure that the teaching performance perfectly captured the design I wanted, that the code switches are controlled, and that the students had the same teacher with the same style across all levels. As all of these factors can affect the validity of the results, it is very important to control the teacher's style and performance rather than having a teacher who might not pay attention to the importance and purpose of the study or having multiple teachers with multiple styles in the different classrooms. However, this design posed an ethical problem for me as a teacher, because I knew that my students by virtue of being assigned to different CS groups and may thus achieve unequal outcomes as a direct result of my actions among the groups.

This challenge to teaching ethics is mitigated by the fact that the control groups – which I predict will perform the worst – are actually receiving the government-mandated education. As the Saudi Ministry of Education mandates no CS inside EFL classrooms, my teaching of the control groups actually gave them exactly the same learning experience as the one that they would have received if I had never conducted the research at all. Therefore, although I believe that these students might not learn as much as other students in this study, I can still be sure that they will not be disadvantaged relative to the students who did not take part in the research at all. Therefore, the only possible outcome was that either students received exactly the education that they were going to receive if I had never carried out the study, or they received an education that I thought would help them.

Therefore, I have carefully taken into consideration the benefits of the study design, which outweigh the concerns on both sides as a teacher and as a researcher. Even though the role of the researcher as a teacher might affect the results of this study, I ensured that I separated both roles in this study, as shown above. And, generally, the majority of the research that is reviewed in Chapter Two says that CS is beneficial in the EFL classroom. Very few studies, according to their results, showed that CS did not have a great effect on students' performance. So, my results will either enhance these previous studies that support the use of CS in the EFL classroom or agree with the very few studies that advocate avoiding CS. In this case, there was no reason why the students who participated in my study would have a worse experience than if they did not participate. There was also a chance that they might have a better experience.

6.5.2. Teaching and exam procedure

As clearly outlined from the beginning of this chapter, the study was conducted within EFL Saudi classrooms, and it employed pre-tests and post-tests. The experiment started by including participants from four different stages of their education; they were divided into three groups for each stage. This was followed by choosing an entire unit for each stage that contained four lessons from the students' books that would be suitable for the time that I was collecting the research data. As explained in Section 6.3.1, the chosen units for each stage covered the basic skills of the English language: reading, writing, and listening, as well as some English components: vocabulary and grammar. I taught the chosen units to the three different groups at each stage, but I used a specific category of CS in each group:

Methodological CS was applied in one group, Mixed CS was used with another group, while there was no code-switching (Control) in the last group, as already discussed in Section 6.4.2.

Prior to teaching the chosen units, the pre-tests took place in the first class. The test contained 25 questions, including some narrative questions, and the duration of the test was one hour. Then, the unit was taught over two weeks for all the stages except the primary stage, where the unit was taught over four weeks. The participants were all Arabic native speakers and in the secondary and intermediate schools I taught them EFL four times a week, and in the primary schools I taught two classes a week. The duration of each class was 45 minutes. Unlike the schools, the university students had two classes a week for 90 minutes each, thus 6 hours over two weeks. As noted earlier, both the weekly timetable and the duration of each class were set according to the teaching policies of English in Saudi Arabia, as administered by the Ministry of Education. Finally, the post-tests were conducted during the last class at the end of the unit. The students were given a full hour in both tests to answer the 25 questions since there were narrative questions that required more time to complete (see Appendix C: Pre- and post-test Forms for the sample of the tests).

6.5.3. Recording teachers' talk

Audio recording of the teachers' talk was used as a data check in the study. The reason for the classroom recording was to ensure that I maintained the pre-determined pattern of CS for each group. I was the teacher, so the recordings were made for the purpose of checking my speech in the classrooms. A Sony sound recorder was placed at the front of the class where I was standing during the time of recording. A total of eight recordings per class were conducted for the primary, intermediate, and secondary stages. Each recording was 45 minutes long, equal to the entire period of each lesson. On the other hand, for the university stage there was a total of four recordings, each 90-minutes long. All of these recordings covered the scheduled lessons in the taught unit for all the stages. All the recordings were taken from February to March 2019 for the secondary and university stages, and from October to December 2019 for the primary and intermediate stages.

6.6. Analysis

This part outlines the data collection process, including the audio recording of the teacher's talk and the pre- and post-tests. The type of data collected and how they were generated are discussed here.

6.6.1. Data check

The audio recordings of the teacher's talk were needed to double check that I had followed the procedure that I had designed for myself earlier. A digital audio recorder was used to record my speech, and then all the recordings were transferred to the computer using a USB drive. The recordings of each group were saved separately in an MP3 format playable on any electronic device. In order for the data to be thoroughly and clearly organised for ease of access, each recording was entitled with the class name, sequence recording, and date of recording. For example, the name of each recording follows the pattern: Group A (MCS), 1/8, 13/03/2019. Moreover, the recordings were transcribed in IPA style (see Appendix D: Extract of teacher's CS for the transcription of the recordings).

6.6.2. Quantitative data

Pre-tests and post-tests were used to collect the quantitative data employed in this project and this was the main method that the study depended on. The tests were printed, given to the students as printed copies, and then collected after the exam and arranged according to the students' numbers in the lists of each group. The papers were corrected, and the test scores were stored in an Excel sheet (see Appendix E: Students' test scores in Excel sheet). The scores were analysed with the R program, (see Appendix F: Detailed statistics of students' results in R program), to identify the mean of the students' improvements in their scores from the pre-tests to post-tests, (see Appendix G: The average of the results of pre-test and post-test exams). A statistical analysis of the overall change in students' scores between the pre-test and the post-test was also carried out, as will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter. Also, each skill was scored separately, and the following table presents an example of how the results were scored and arranged. Students' names here are pseudonyms to preserve their anonymity.

No.	Name	Total 25/25	Listening 5/5	Reading 5/5	Vocabulary 5/5	Grammar 5/5	Writing 5/5
1	Raghad	8	3	3	0	2	0
2	Angham	15	2	1	5	3	4
3	Nada	7	2.5	1	2	0	1
4	Durfah	6	3	1	1	1	0
5	Sumaih	10	0	0	4	1.5	4

Table 6.8: Example of students' test scores totally and in each section

Chapter 7: Results

7.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the findings obtained from the analysis of the data assembled from the results of the pre-test and post-test scores. It discusses the effect of CS on the students' outcomes and determines if it can serve to improve English learning, especially in Saudi Arabia. In order to inspect the relationship between the various categories of CS that I used (as categorised and used in the EFL classrooms) and to develop English learning, I used the *R* programming environment (R Foundation, 2019) to analyse students' scores in the pre-tests and post-tests. I chose *R* because it is flexible and contains a wealth of useful information. According to Levshina (2015), *R* is the standard tool that can be used in many areas of linguistics (e.g., Kimps, 2018; Vindenes, 2017) due to its great various functions and packages that are designed and written by professional statisticians in different fields for specific tasks.

The aim of this analysis is to identify which category of CS (Methodological CS/Mixed CS) produces the largest improvement among different Age levels (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) and determine whether there is an association between these results and improvements in English learning through the use of these various categories of CS. It also aims to identify whether these different categories of CS have the same effect on the different English skills and components (vocabulary/grammar/reading/writing/listening).

Thus, the first part of this chapter reports the analysis of the overall improvement of the different Age levels (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the various CS Groups (Methodological CS/Mixed CS/Control). Section 7.3 starts by introducing the mean of the students' scores in the pre-test and the post-test to provide the average value, which represents the whole range of values in the different Groups. This is followed by discussing the analysis of the linear regression of the overall improvement from the pre-test to the post-test, in order to model the relationship between the two variables (CS Groups and different Age sets). Section 7.4 illustrates the analysis of the improvement from the pre-test to the post-test in English language skills and components separately: vocabulary and grammar, then reading, writing, and listening. At the end of the chapter, Section 7.5 summarises the most important results of the data analysis.

7.2. Test scores

The pre-tests and post-tests contained the same number of questions, and so were scored on the same scale. Among the individual English skills and components, the maximum possible score was 5. When summed together, this meant that the total possible score was $5 * 5 = 25$.

7.2.1. Pre-test scores

The pre-test contained 25 questions, and each set of 5 questions tested a specific English skill (vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing and listening). It was conducted before the teaching period started, in order to determine the students' initial knowledge of the target unit from their books at the outset of the study. This test was an important way of establishing whether the different Groups in each Age set under the different instructional conditions were similar in terms of their initial knowledge and general English proficiency. It also highlighted and captured any differences that existed between the various Groups and Ages. Many students were unable to complete the test or failed to answer some questions due to the fact that the tasks in the pre-test were new to them. Thus, the baseline scores were quite low. After calculating the pre-test scores of each student, the mean of the students' scores across the different Groups, along with their standard deviations, were also calculated (see Table 7.1). The standard deviation tells, on average, how far each score lies from the mean.

Ages Groups	University N = 155		Secondary N = 90		Intermediate N = 54		Primary N = 72	
	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev
Control	9.78	5.30	10.5	4.70	8.61	3.18	9.29	3.73
Methodological CS	8.27	3.63	7.93	4.05	8.27	3.02	9.87	4.67
Mixed CS	7.97	3.46	7.6	4.22	8.61	3.53	9.12	3.01

Table 7.1: Mean & standard deviation of pre-test scores across Age sets and CS Groups. The score of the pre-test is out of 25 points. (N = <number of students>, StdDev = <Standard Deviation>).

According to the students' scores in the pre-tests, shown in the previous table, the mean pre-test score for the Intermediate and Primary students was relatively similar in all three Groups (Control, Methodological CS, and Mixed CS), which indicates that their initial knowledge is at a very similar level. On the other hand, there were minimal differences in the mean pre-test scores of the Secondary school and University students, which might

indicate that some factors affected their focus on the tests. We will discuss this in more detail in the discussion chapter.

Generally, we note that even though the students' general English proficiency and initial knowledge in the different Groups of each Age set were similar prior to the instructional period, there were very minimal differences between the different Ages and Groups. We note also that the effects of CS are not being measured at this stage as the students have not yet been taught by the researcher using CS. See also Appendix G: The average of the results of pre-test and post-test exams for the pre-test means of the various English skills and components (vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing and listening) across the different Groups and Ages, along with their standard deviations.

7.2.2. Post-test scores

Like the pre-test above, the post-test consisted of 25 questions that were divided equally between the five English skills and components (vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing and listening). The post-test was in fact identical to the pre-test. The post-test highlighted whether the different instructional conditions of CS had had an effect on the students' scores in terms of improving their knowledge and general English proficiency. Thus, after calculating the post-test scores for each student across the different Age sets, the mean of these scores across the different Groups, along with their standard deviations, were also calculated. The results are presented in Table 7.2.

Ages Groups	University N = 155		Secondary N = 90		Intermediate N = 54		Primary N = 72	
	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev
Control	14.2	6.42	13.5	5.53	13.5	2.97	13.5	3.90
Methodological CS	13.9	4.08	16.3	4.26	17.9	3.11	17	6.33
Mixed CS	15.4	5.62	18.5	6.85	20.3	2.22	20.2	4.02

Table 7.2: Mean & standard deviation of post-test scores across Age sets and CS Groups. The score of the post-test is out of 25 points. (N = <number of students>, StdDev = <Standard Deviation>).

According to the students' scores, unlike the pre-test mean scores, the mean of the post-test scores across the different Ages and Groups is not consistent. The lowest post-test mean scores were in the Control Groups for the different Ages, except for the University students, whose mean was less with Methodological CS than it was in the Control Groups. The highest

post-test mean scores for all Ages was in the Mixed CS Groups. Regardless of the different CS Groups, we note that the mean of the Intermediate post-test scores was the highest, while the University students scored the lowest mean on the post-test. Thus, some Groups across the different Ages have higher scores than other groups, especially the CS Groups, but we cannot be sure that these higher scores were a result of the use of CS because there were other factors, including the class size and time, which might affect their results, as already discussed in Sections 5.4.2 and 6.4.1. See also Appendix G: The average of the results of pre-test and post-test exams for the post-test means of the various English skills and components (vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing and listening) across the different Groups and Ages, along with their standard deviations.

Generally, we note that the higher scores were among the CS Groups, rather than the Control Groups. This might be indicative of some effect of CS, but it is not conclusive, because the pre-test scores also showed some starting differences between the Groups. Therefore, it is necessary to calculate the improvement between the pre-test and the post-test, by subtracting the pre-test scores from the post-test scores. This improvement from the pre-test to the post-test will be the dependent variable in all future analyses.

7.3. Total Improvement across all skills

To summarise the patterns of student development across the unit, it was necessary to compare the students' pre-test and post-tests scores and take the mean of the differences between these scores in order to obtain the **mean improvement** for each subgroup.¹³ I started by considering the total change across all five English skills and components. Since the total score is a maximum of 25, the possible values can vary from -25 (in the case where a student scored perfectly on the pre-test and 0 on the post-test) to 25 (in the case where a

¹³ I will use the term 'improvement' rather than 'difference' when I talk about the difference in the differences across the various groups, ages, skills and components. Since the difference between the pre-test and the post-test was almost always positive, indicating higher scores on the post-test than on the pre-test, the term 'improvement' is generally accurate. Furthermore, since I will be talking extensively about the differences between groups, it would be cumbersome to refer to the difference in differences across groups. For this reason, I will use the term 'improvement' from here on to describe the difference between the post-test and the pre-test scores.

student scored 0 on the pre-test and perfectly on the post-test). Positive values indicate a distinct improvement in scores.

The pre-test was subtracted from the post-test for each student, then the students' differences were averaged to obtain the mean of improvement. Table 7.3 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the improvement in students' scores from the pre-test to the post-test among the four different Age levels (Primary/Intermediate/ Secondary/University) in the three different CS Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS).

Age Groups	University N = 155		Secondary N = 90		Intermediate N = 54		Primary N = 72	
	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev	Mean	StdDev
Control	4.48	4.61	3	3.05	4.94	2.81	4.25	2.67
Methodological CS	5.63	2.80	8.36	5.29	9.66	3.02	7.12	3.71
Mixed CS	7.50	4.62	10.90	7.26	11.78	2.69	11.08	2.58

Table 7.3: Mean & standard deviation of improvement in scores from the pre-test to the post-test across Age sets and CS Groups. The score of the post-test is out of 25 points. (N = <number of students>, StdDev = <Standard Deviation>).

Table 7.3 shows the improvement in the mean of the students' scores from the pre-test to the post-test. We observe in Table 7.3 that the scores of the students from all four levels generally improved in the three different CS Groups. The students' scores in the Control Groups, where there was no CS, experienced the lowest change in scores from pre-tests to the post-tests, for all the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) compared to the other two Groups (Methodological CS/Mixed CS). In other words, the Control Group still showed a positive mean improvement, indicating that the students were learning even if they were not taught with CS. On the other hand, the greatest change in the students' scores from the pre-test to the post-test was in the Mixed CS Groups, where methodological and social CS were used. Moreover, the Intermediate students have the largest change in their scores across all the CS Groups, compared to the three other Ages (University/Secondary/ Primary). This means that the Intermediate students improved considerably more than the students of other Ages.

To summarise, according to Table 7.3, the initial overall results suggest that the CS category that has the greatest effect on students' performance is Mixed CS, which combines linguistic purposes with classroom management and social purposes (see Chapter 6, Section 6.4.2 for more details on the different categories of CS).

Although the results in Table 7.3 are suggestive, the standard deviations indicate that there is still variability in the degrees of improvement. Accordingly, I then moved to inferential statistics to test the significance of the differences in improvement. I used linear regression as an analytical tool. Linear regression allows a researcher to determine whether variation in an outcome variable – such as test score improvement – is influenced by other independent variables. It also allows the researcher to conclude whether differences in the outcome are likely to be the result of random variation, or whether they are significant – i.e., reflect some meaningful effect of the influencing factors. In this case, influencing factors are the different Ages and the different CS Groups. Regression, therefore, allows us to see whether the improvement in scores varies significantly across the different CS Groups and Age sets. It also allows us to see whether the effects of a Group vary according to Age. In this case, the regression model will enable us to understand the students' performance in the different Groups and identify the relationship between them (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS) and the Age sets (University/Secondary /Intermediate/Primary). Accordingly, I used linear regression to model total improvement as a function of Age sets, CS Groups, and the interaction between the two. The model summary is provided in Table 7.4.

Before I discuss the model summary, it is necessary to explain some R language terminology used in Table 7.4 and in the following tables of the next section. There are two independent variables here: the Age of the students involved in the research (University, Secondary, Intermediate, Primary), and Group, which are the three CS Groups (Control, Methodological CS, Mixed CS). I selected the University students as the default Age as it is the oldest and the largest Age Group, and the default Group is Control, which acts as a baseline with which the other two Groups' improvements are compared. The intercept presents the estimated mean change or the degree of improvement for the two default levels of the independent variables; in other words, for Age, which is University, and for Group, which is the Control Group. Intercept is the default level to which the other levels are compared. The *b*-value, or estimate, indicates the estimated effect of each predictor. For example, if the Mixed CS Group had a *b*-value of 4, that would mean that they improved by 4 points more than the Control Group. The *t*-value and the *p*-value indicate whether the predictors are significantly different from zero, or whether there is no improvement at all; this means that if the value of the predictor is not significantly different from zero, there was no improvement in the scores from the pre-test to the post-test. Thus, if the *p*-value is greater than .05, this means that no effect was observed (Levshina, 2015). For example, if the Mixed CS Group had a *b*-value of 4 but a *p*-value of .15, then we could not conclude that those 4

points of improvement are meaningful; the difference between the Mixed CS Group and the Control Group might just be due to random chance.

For the intercept, the term ‘improvement’ means the increase in scores from the pre-test to the post-test for the two default values of the independent variables. In the other words, the intercept describes how much the University Age students increased their scores in the Control Group. The term ‘code-switching effect’ means any further increase in the amount of improvement a Group of students made between the pre-test and the post-test, over and above the baseline improvement shown in the Control Group. In my study, I have two CS effects: the Methodological CS effect, which is the amount of additional improvement in the Methodological CS Group relative to the Control Group, and the Mixed CS effect, which is the amount of additional improvement in the Mixed CS Group relative to the Control Group.

	Variables		<i>b</i> -value	Std. error of <i>b</i> -value	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value
	Group	Age set				
1 Intercept	Control	University	4.48	0.53	8.37	1.29e-15 (<0.001) ***
2		Secondary	-1.48	0.92	-1.59	0.11
3		Intermediate	0.46	1.11	0.41	0.67
4		Primary	-0.23	1	-0.23	0.81
5	Methodological CS	University	1.15	0.77	1.48	0.13
6	Mixed CS		3.01	0.84	3.56	0.0004 ***
7	Methodological CS	Secondary	4.21	1.32	3.18	0.0001 **
8		Intermediate	3.56	1.58	2.25	0.02 *
9		Primary	1.72	1.42	1.20	0.22
10	Mixed CS	Secondary	4.88	1.36	3.57	0.0003 ***
11		Intermediate	3.81	1.62	2.35	0.019 *
12		Primary	3.81	1.46	2.6	0.009 **

Table 7.4: Linear regression model predicting total improvement as a function of CS Groups (Control, Methodological CS, Mixed CS), Age sets (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary), and the interaction between Group and Age set.

We are now ready to consider Table 7.4. This model could explain around 30% of the variance in improvement in the overall test scores ($R^2 = .302$, $F(11, 359) = 14.15$, $p < .001$), which is significantly better than a null model.

The first row, the intercept, shows that the Control Group of University Age improved significantly ($b = 4.48$, $p < .001$), increasing on average 4.48 points between the pre-test and the post-test. The next three rows (2–4) indicate how the other three Ages (Secondary/

Intermediate/Primary) improved compared to the University Age – just for the Control Group. The coefficients of lines 2–4 are not significantly different from zero, which means that within the Control Groups, there was no significant difference between the improvement of the University students and the improvements of those of Secondary school Age ($b = -1.48, p = .11$), Intermediate ($b = 0.46, p = .67$), and Primary Age ($b = -0.23, p = .81$). In other words, within the Control Group, all four Ages showed roughly the same improvement between the pre-test and the post-test.

Lines 5 and 6 indicate how, for the University students only, the two different categories of CS (Methodological CS and Mixed CS) resulted in a greater improvement than in the Control Group. In other words, these two lines show the magnitude of CS's effect on the University students. More specifically, line 5 (Methodological CS) showed additional improvements of 1.15 points from the pre-test to the post-test over the Control Group ($b = 1.15, p = .11$) which is not significantly different from 0, while line 6 (Mixed CS) increased by 3.02 additional points relative to the Control Group ($b = 3.02, p < .001$) which is significantly different from zero. Thus, only for the participants of University Age, those in the Mixed CS Group improved significantly over and above those in the Control Group, while the students in the Methodological CS Group showed no difference to those in the Control Group. In other words, among the University students only, there was a significant Mixed CS effect, but no significant Methodological CS effect.

The next three lines (7–9) indicate whether the Methodological CS effect was different among students of Secondary, Intermediate, and Primary Ages compared to University students. Line 7 indicates that the Secondary school students showed an additional improvement of 4.21 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 4.21, p < .001$) in the Methodological CS Group, over and above the insignificant improvement of 1.15 points from the pre-test to the post-test for the University students in the Methodological CS Group. In other words, for Secondary school students, relative to the Control Group, the students in the Methodological CS Group improved by an additional $4.21 + 1.15 = 5.36$ points pre-test to post-test. The fact that this effect is significant means that the Methodological CS helped Secondary students significantly more than it helped the University students. In other words, the Methodological CS had a significantly stronger effect on Secondary students than it did on University students.

Lines 8 and 9 provide the same comparison for the Intermediate and Primary school students. Line 8 shows that, similar to the students of Secondary Age, Methodological CS had a significantly stronger effect on students at Intermediate schools than on those at University. Their scores increased by 3.56 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 3.56$, $p < .05$), which is an additional improvement relative to the University students in the Control Group. In other words, the Methodological CS Group of the Intermediate students showed $3.56 + 1.15 = 4.71$ points of additional improvement from the pre-test to the post-test, which is significantly higher than that of the University students. In line 9, by contrast, Primary students showed no significant additional improvement in the Methodological CS Group compared to the University students ($b = 1.72$, $p = .22$). Overall, Methodological CS did not significantly improve University or Primary students' scores compared to the Control Group, but it did improve Intermediate and Secondary students' scores. In other words, Methodological CS had no significant effect on University or Primary school students, but it did among Intermediate and Secondary students. This means that Intermediate and Secondary school students benefited more from Methodological CS than University students.

The remaining three lines 10–12 display the magnitude of the Mixed CS effect on the different Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary), compared to the University Age Groups. These lines indicate that the Secondary, Intermediate, and Primary Age Groups experienced a significantly stronger Mixed CS effect than the University students. Specifically, line 10 shows that Mixed CS led to an improvement of an additional 4.88 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 4.88$, $p < .001$) for the Secondary school students, which is an additional and significant improvement compared to the University students, in the Control Group. Line 11 indicates a similar effect for the Intermediate Age: relative to the Control Group for Intermediate students, the Mixed CS Group improved by an additional 3.81 points ($b = 3.81$, $p < .05$). Line 12 shows that the same is true for the Primary school students: relative to the Control Group, the Mixed CS Group also improved by an additional 3.81 points ($b = 3.81$, $p < .01$). Thus, the three coefficients of the three Ages (Secondary /Intermediate/Primary) are significantly greater than zero, which means that they showed significant additional improvements. Overall, Mixed CS increased University students' improvements compared to the Control Groups, but it helped the other three Age Groups (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) even more. Therefore, Mixed CS had a significant effect on all the Age Groups.

In summary, students' improvement in the different three Groups (Methodological CS/Mixed CS/Control) varied among the four different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary). Both Methodological CS and Mixed CS had a positive effect on students' progress compared to the Control Group. For all the different Ages, students in the Methodological CS Groups sometimes showed greater improvement than those in the Control Groups, while students in the Mixed CS Groups showed more improvement at all Ages.

Figure 7.1 illustrates these results: the University students in the Methodological CS Groups showed minimal improvement over the Control Group, while the students of the other three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) showed a large leap. The University students showed greater improvement in the Mixed CS Group than those in the Methodological CS Group, but they still had the smallest improvement overall. By contrast, the students of the other three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the Mixed CS Groups showed substantial improvement relative to the Control Groups. To sum up, the analysis of the total improvement from the pre-test to the post-test revealed the following patterns:

1. The scores of the University students changed the least, but even within the University Age Group, the students in the Mixed CS Group showed an improvement over those in the Control Group.
2. The other students at Secondary, Intermediate and Primary school benefited more from both Methodological CS and Mixed CS than the University students.
3. Across all Groups, students of all Ages benefited the most from Mixed CS.

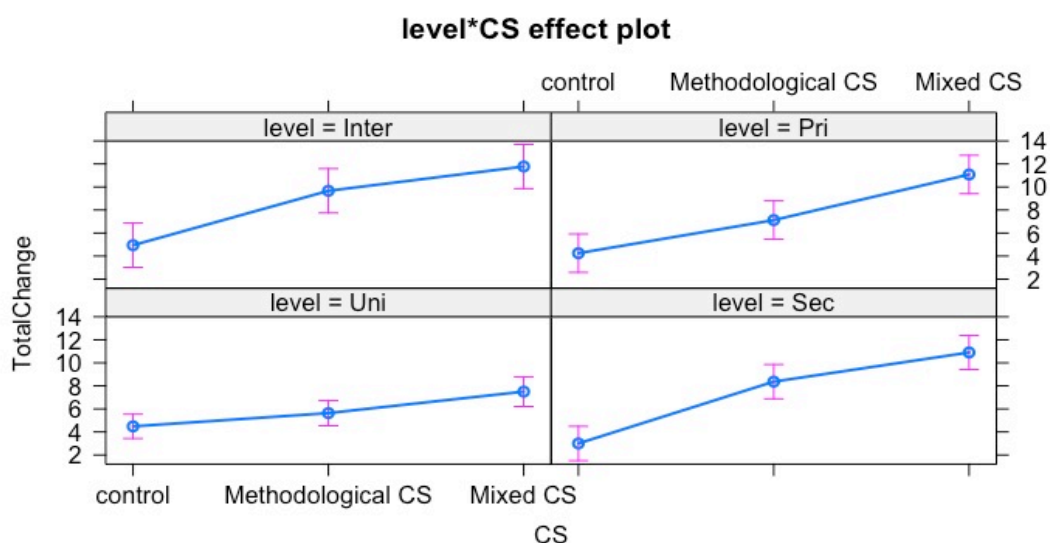


Figure 7.1: Partial effects plot visualising the total change model estimates from Table 7.4 . All Groups and Ages showed a significant improvement between pre-test and post-test, but the Mixed CS Group shows the largest improvement across all Age sets. (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary).

7.4. Improvement in different English skills and components

The previous section showed the robust effects that CS had on students' overall improvement, as determined by their test scores across all skills and components. In this section, I break down the scores into different skills and components, to determine whether the effects of CS vary across each of the different skills and components of the English language. In the tests, the students could score up to five points for each English skill or component, so the maximum possible improvement was five points. In other words, the change in scores will be on a much smaller scale than the previous analysis of total improvement. Thus, I start with the analysis of the vocabulary and grammar scores followed by the reading, writing and listening skills.

7.4.3. Vocabulary

	Variables		<i>b</i> -value	Std. error of <i>b</i> -value	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value
	Group	Age set				
1 Intercept	Control	University	0.44	0.18	2.42	0.015 *
2		Secondary	-0.18	0.32	-0.56	0.57
3		Intermediate	0.83	0.38	2.16	0.03 *
4		Primary	0.80	0.34	2.32	0.020 *
5	Methodological CS	University	0.83	0.26	3.13	0.001 **
6	Mixed CS		0.87	0.29	3.01	0.003 **
7	Methodological CS	Secondary	0.86	0.45	1.90	0.058.
8		Intermediate	-0.22	0.54	-0.41	0.68
9		Primary	-0.50	0.49	-1.02	0.31
10	Mixed CS	Secondary	1.32	0.47	2.81	0.0052 **
11		Intermediate	0.39	0.55	0.71	0.47
12		Primary	0.41	0.50	0.82	0.41

Table 7.5: Linear regression model predicting vocabulary improvement as a function of CS Groups (Control, Methodological CS, Mixed CS), Age sets (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary), and the interaction between Group and Age set.

The model in Table 7.5 could explain around 21% of the variance in improvement in students' vocabulary test scores ($R^2 = .213$, $F(11, 359) = 8.861$, $p < .001$), which is greater than a null model.

Table 7.5 introduces the students' improvements in vocabulary from the pre-test to the post-test among the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the different CS Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS). The intercept in the first line shows that the University students in the Control Group improved by 0.44 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.44$, $p = .015$), which is greater than zero, and that is a significant improvement.

The next three lines (2–4) show how the other students of the three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) improved in the Control Group compared to the improvement of the University students in the Control Group. There are two significant coefficients in these three lines. Line 3 shows that the scores of the Intermediate students in the Control Group increased by 0.83 additional points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.83$, $p = .03$), which is a significant additional improvement. This means that the Intermediate students improved significantly more than the University students when just

receiving their normal teaching, in the Control Group. Additionally, line 4 shows that the scores of the Primary school students in the Control Group increased by additional 0.80 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.80, p = 0.02$) which is also another significant improvement. In other words, the Primary Age students also improved over and above the University students in the Control Group. Line 2, by contrast, indicates that the Secondary school students in the Control Group had a negative coefficient and changed by -0.18 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = -0.18, p = .57$), which looks less than the improvement of the University students in the Control Group. However, this negative coefficient is not significantly different from zero, which means that the Secondary students in the Control Group improved by a similar amount to the University students in the Control Group. In other words, the degree of improvement of the different aged students in the Control Groups varied. The Intermediate and Primary students in the Control Groups improved over and above the University students in the Control Group, while the Secondary students improved by a similar amount as the University students, in the Control Groups.

Lines 5 and 6 illustrate the magnitude of the Methodological and Mixed CS effect on the University students in terms of vocabulary. More specifically, line 5 shows that the performance of the University students in the Methodological CS Group increased by a significant 0.83 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.83, p = .001$), while line 6 shows that the University students in the Mixed CS Group also increased by 0.87 additional points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.87, p = .003$) which is also significantly different from zero. Overall, both the Methodological CS and Mixed CS University Groups showed a significant additional improvement over and above the Control Group. In other words, Methodological and Mixed CS had a significant positive effect on the University students' learning.

The next three lines (7–9) demonstrate whether the Methodological CS effect on the three different Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in vocabulary was different from the effect on the University students. There are two negative coefficients for the interaction terms of the Methodological CS Group in lines 8 and 9 of the Intermediate and Primary Ages, but neither are significant. Consequently, we can say that the intermediate and Primary students performed similarly to the University students in the Methodological CS Group compared to the Control Group. In line 7, by contrast, the Secondary students in the Methodological CS Group improved by an additional 0.86 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.90, p = .058$). Despite these higher values, however, it was also not a

significant improvement. In other words, there was no significant difference in the Methodological CS effect among the Secondary, Intermediate and Primary students compared to the effect among the University students. Overall, compared to the Control Groups, all the different Age Groups (University/Secondary/ Intermediate/Primary) improved roughly by the same amount from the pre-test to the post-test in the Methodological CS Groups. The Methodological CS therefore had a similar positive impact on all the Age groups, and their vocabulary scores from the pre-test to the post-test improved more than those of the students in the Control Groups.

The remaining lines (10–12) illustrate the Mixed CS effect on the vocabulary scores of the three different Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) compared to that effect of the University Age. Within these three lines, only the Secondary Age in line 10 shows a significant Mixed CS effect higher than the University Age, meaning that Secondary school students benefited from Mixed CS significantly more than the University students. Their scores increased by 1.32 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.32, p < .005$) which is an additional improvement more than the University students, relative to the Control Group. In other words, the Mixed CS Group of the Secondary students showed $1.32 + 0.87 = 2.19$ additional points of improvement from pre-test to post-test, which is significantly greater than the University students. By contrast, in lines 11 and 12, Intermediate and Primary school students showed no significant Mixed CS effect compared to the University Age. Therefore, Mixed CS did not significantly improve Intermediate or Primary students' scores in comparison to the University students' scores relative to the Control Group, but it did significantly improve Secondary students' scores over and above the University students' scores. Overall, the performance of the students of all Ages was improved by Mixed CS, but the Secondary school students showed a significant additional Mixed CS effect. This means that Mixed CS improved the University, Intermediate, and Primary students' scores in a similar manner, but it improved Secondary students' scores even more, as reflected in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2 presents the improvements in students' learning outcomes from the pre-test to the post-test in vocabulary. All the various categories of CS play an important role in improving students' progress, in terms of learning vocabulary. However, Mixed CS had the strongest effect on the students' vocabulary learning outcomes. Generally, compared to the baseline of the Mixed CS effect on the University students' performance, the Intermediate and Primary students' scores increased by the same rate as the University students, while the

Secondary students showed an even greater improvement. Students of all Ages improved their vocabulary from the pre-test to the post-test significantly more in the Mixed CS Groups than in the Control Groups. To conclude, the analysis of the students' improvement from the pre-test to the post-test in vocabulary revealed the following patterns:

- 1- The University students' vocabulary scores improved in both the Methodological CS and Mixed CS Groups over and above the improvements in the Control Group.
- 2- The improvements in the vocabulary scores of the other three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the Methodological CS Groups were the same as those of the University Age students.
- 3- Only Secondary school students' vocabulary scores improved in the Mixed CS Groups more than those of the University students, while the Intermediate and Primary school students' vocabulary scores in the Mixed CS Groups improved the same as the University students' vocabulary scores.

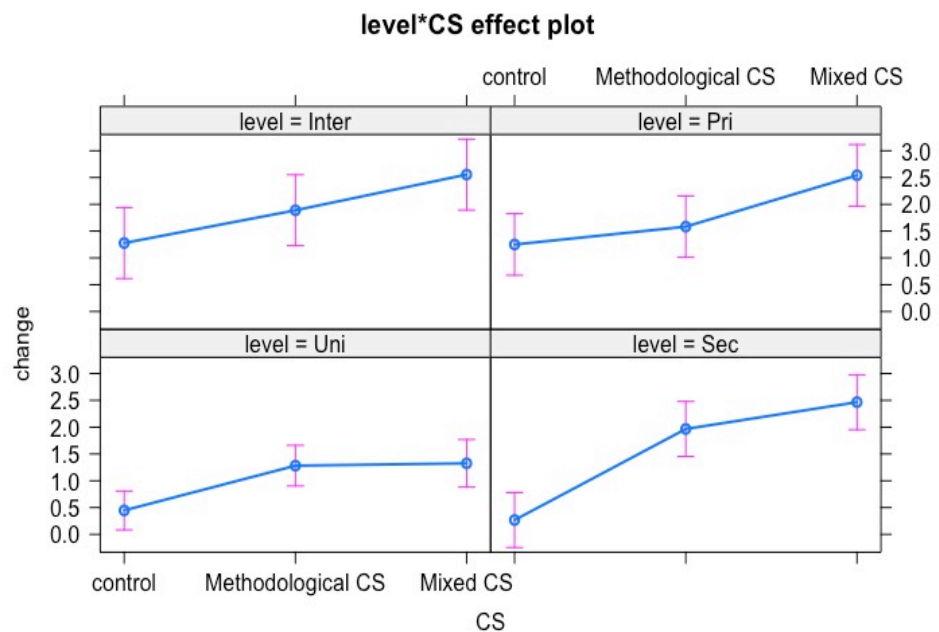


Figure 7.2: Partial effects plot visualising the vocabulary model estimates from Table 7.5. All Groups and Ages showed a significant improvement between pre-test and post-test, but the Mixed CS Group shows the largest improvement across all Age sets. (Uni = University/ Sec = Secondary/ Inter = Intermediate/ Pri = Primary).

7.4.4. Grammar

	Variables		<i>b</i> -value	Std. error of <i>b</i> -value	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value
	Group	Age set				
1 Intercept	Control	University	1.77	0.17	10.38	2e-16 (<0.001) ***
2		Secondary	-0.97	0.29	-3.29	0.001 **
3		Intermediate	-0.44	0.35	-1.24	0.21
4		Primary	-0.94	0.32	-2.95	0.003 **
5	Methodological CS	University	-0.26	0.25	-1.076	0.28
6	Mixed CS		0.02	0.27	0.09	0.92
7	Methodological CS	Secondary	2.04	0.42	4.85	1.76e-06 (<0.001) ***
8		Intermediate	1.15	0.50	2.28	0.022 *
9		Primary	0.72	0.45	1.59	0.11
10	Mixed CS	Secondary	2.42	0.43	5.56	5.10e-08 (< 0.001) ***
11		Intermediate	1.14	0.52	2.20	0.027 *
12		Primary	1.93	0.46	4.13	4.49e-05 (<0.001) ***

Table 7.6: Linear regression model predicting grammar improvement as a function of CS Groups (Control, Methodological CS, Mixed CS), Age sets (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary), and the interaction between Group and Age set.

The model in Table 7.6 could explain around 25% of the variance in improvement in grammar test scores ($R^2 = .225$, $F(11, 359) = 9.512$, $p < .05$), which is greater than a null model.

Table 7.6 demonstrates students' progress from the pre-test to the post-test in grammar among the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the three different Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS). The intercept in the first line indicates that the University students in the Control Group improved by 1.77 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.77$, $p < .001$) which is greater than zero, and that is a significant improvement.

Lines 2-4 show the improvements of the students of the other three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the Control Group compared to the improvements of the University students in the Control Group in grammar. Relative to the Control Group of

the University Age, the estimates in the next three lines (2–4) were mainly negative, and two of them were significant (Secondary and Primary Ages), showing that the degree of improvement is not consistent across the three different Ages. This means that students of Secondary and Primary Ages improved by less than those of University Age in the Control Group, while the Intermediate school students improved the same as the University students in the Control Group. Consequently, within the Control Group, the University and Intermediate school students improved by a similar amount, while the Secondary and Primary school students improved less.

Lines 5 and 6 display the magnitude of the Methodological CS and Mixed CS effects only for the grammar scores of the University students. Line 5 indicates that the University students in the Methodological CS Group changed by -0.26 ($b = -0.26, p = .28$) points from the pre-test to the post-test, which is not significant, and slightly lower than the University students' improvement in the Control Group. However, this negative coefficient in line 5 is not significantly different from zero, so we can say that the performance of the University students in the Methodological CS Group was similar to their performance in the Control Group. Line 6 shows that University students in the Mixed CS Group improved by 0.02 ($b = 0.02, p = .92$) points from the pre-test to the post-test, which is also not significant. Overall, there were no significant Methodological CS and Mixed CS effects among the University students, which means that the University students performed similarly across the three Groups (Methodological CS/Mixed CS/Control).

In comparison to the Methodological CS effect for the University students, lines 7–9 show whether the Methodological CS effect on grammar was different for the other three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary). There are two significant coefficients for the estimates of these three lines. Line 7 shows that the Secondary school students showed a significant additional improvement of 2.04 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 2.04, p < .001$) in the Methodological CS Group, over and above the insignificant improvement of -0.26 points for the University students in the Methodological CS Group. In other words, compared to the Control Group at the Secondary Age, the Methodological CS Group at the Secondary Age showed $2.04 + -0.26 = 1.78$ points of improvement from the pre-test to the post-test. In other words, Methodological CS had a significant effect on the Secondary school students' grammar. Line 8 also indicates that, similar to the Secondary school students, Methodological CS had a significant effect on the Intermediate school students. Their scores improved by 1.15 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 2.28, p = .022$),

which is a greater additional improvement than the University students, compared to the Control Group. In other words, the Methodological CS Group of the Intermediate students showed $1.15 + -0.26 = 0.89$ additional points of improvement, which is significantly higher than the progress made by the University students. By contrast, line 9 indicates that Primary students showed no significant additional improvement in the Methodological CS Group when mapped against the Control Group. Overall, Methodological CS did not make significant progress on University, or Primary students' scores compared to the Control Group, but it did improve Secondary and Intermediate students' scores. This means that Methodological CS only had a significant effect on Secondary and Intermediate students.

The last three lines (10–12) display the Mixed CS effect on the grammar of the Secondary, Intermediate and Primary school students compared to the University students. These three lines indicate an additional improvement in the grammar of the Mixed CS Groups of these three Age Groups compared to the improvement of the University students in the Mixed CS Group. The improvement among Secondary, Intermediate and Primary school students was significantly different from zero, hence showing a strong Mixed CS effect. In line 10, we can see that the Secondary school students progressed by an additional 2.42 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 2.42, p < .001$), which is greater than zero and higher than the improvement recorded by the University students in the Mixed CS Group. The scores of the Intermediate students (see line 11) increased by an additional 1.14 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.14, p = .027$), which is significant progress, just as the rates recorded by the Primary students increased by 1.93 points of improvement from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.93, p < .001$). Thus, they all improved significantly over and above the improvement of the University students in the Mixed CS Group, compared to the Control Group. Overall, students of all Ages experienced a significant Mixed CS effect, meaning that they showed similar positive effects of Mixed CS. All students improved their grammar from the pre-test to the post-test significantly more in the Mixed CS Groups than in the Control Groups. These interaction terms are in fact reflecting what we can see in Figure 7.3.

Generally, Figure 7.3 presents the progress of the students' grammar scores from the pre-test to the post-test; their grammar learning outcomes improved in general. However, the scores of students of different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) varied in the three CS Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS). This illustrates that Methodological CS had a greater effect on the Secondary and Intermediate students than on

the University students compared to the Control Groups, while Mixed CS has a considerable impact on all students of all three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) over and above those at University, compared to the Control Group. To conclude, the analysis of the students' improvements from the pre-test to the post-test in grammar revealed the following patterns:

- 1- The University students changed minimally across the three Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS). Their improvements in grammar were similar in all Groups.
- 2- Both Secondary and Intermediate school students' grammar scores improved in the Methodological CS Groups more than those of the University students in the same Group.
- 3- With regard to the students' grammar learning outcomes, their grammar scores for three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) improved more than those of the University students in the Mixed CS Group.

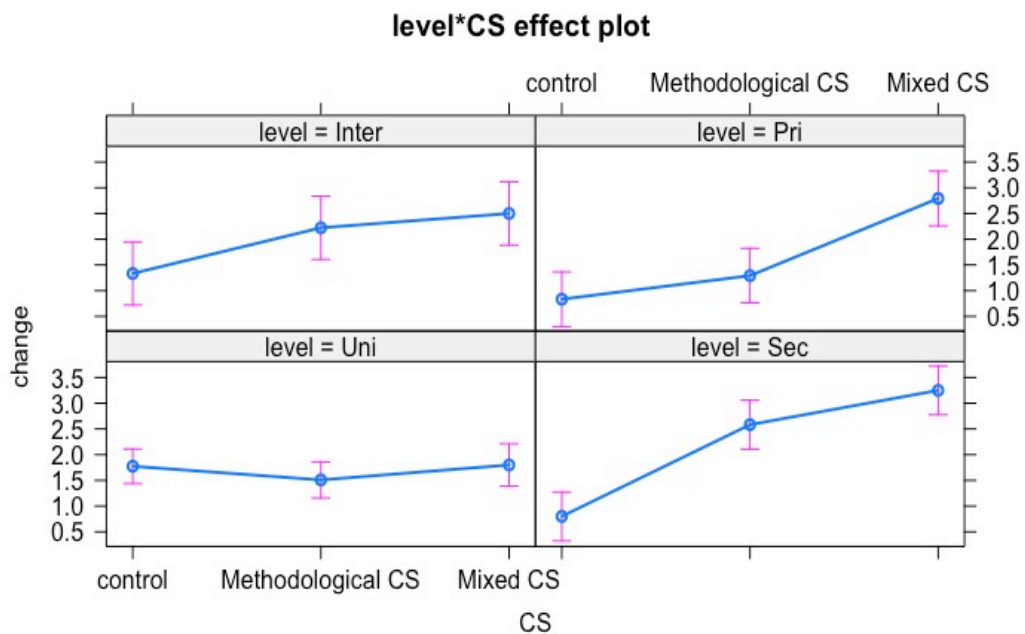


Figure 7.3: Partial effects plot visualising the grammar model estimates from Table 7.6. All Groups and Ages showed a significant improvement between pre-test and post-test, but the Mixed CS Group shows the largest improvement, but only at Secondary, Intermediate, and Primary Ages. (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary).

7.4.5. Reading

	Variables		<i>b</i> -value	Std. error of <i>b</i> -value	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value
	Group	Age set				
1 Intercept	Control	University	0.45	0.15	2.83	0.004 **
2		Secondary	0.77	0.27	2.79	0.005 **
3		Intermediate	0.05	0.32	0.15	0.87
4		Primary	0.38	0.29	1.29	0.19
5	Methodological CS	University	1.04	0.22	4.54	7.63e-06 (<0.001) ***
6	Mixed CS		1.40	0.25	5.58	4.59e-08 (<0.001) ***
7	Methodological CS	Secondary	0.09	0.39	0.23	0.81
8		Intermediate	-0.37	0.46	-0.79	0.42
9		Primary	0.37	0.42	0.89	0.37
10	Mixed CS	Secondary	0.16	0.40	0.41	0.68
11		Intermediate	-0.06	0.47	-0.14	0.89
12		Primary	0.10	0.43	0.23	0.81

Table 7.7: Linear regression model predicting reading improvement as a function of CS Groups (Control, Methodological CS, Mixed CS), Age sets (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary), and the interaction between Group and Age set.

The model in Table 7.7 could explain around 27% of the variance in improvement in students' reading test scores ($R^2 = .276$, $F(11, 359) = 12.49$, $p < .001$), which gave us a good chance to understand the different effects of the different CS Groups across the various levels.

Table 7.7 introduces the improvement in students' scores from the pre-test to the post-test in reading among the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/ Primary) in the three different CS Groups (Control/ Methodological CS/Mixed CS). The intercept in line 1 shows that the University students in the Control Group improved by 0.45 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.45$, $p = .004$), which is significant. In other words, there was a significant improvement from the pre-test to the post-test in the Control Group of the University students.

The next three lines (2–4) present the improvement of the other Age Groups' (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) Control Groups compared to the progress of the University students in reading, in the Control Group. Line 2 shows that the Secondary students improved by 0.77 additional points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.77$, $p = .005$) which is greater than zero. In other words, the Secondary school students in the Control Group made a significant additional improvement, which was greater than the

improvement in the University Control Group. Lines 3 and 4 show that the Intermediate and Primary school pupils made no significant additional improvement above that of the University students. In other words, both Intermediate and Primary school students improved by roughly the same amount in comparison to the University students. Generally, this shows that within the Control Group, the Secondary school students made the greatest improvement from the pre-test to the post-test, while the Intermediate and Primary school students improved by approximately the same amount as the University students.

Lines 5 and 6 indicate the magnitude of the Methodological and Mixed CS effects for the University students' reading skill. Compared to the Control Group, line 5 shows that the University students in the Methodological CS Group improved by an additional 1.04 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.04, p < .001$) which is significant, while line 6 shows that the University students in the Mixed CS Group improved by 1.40 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.40, p < .001$), which is also significant. In other words, the University students in both the Methodological CS and Mixed CS Groups made significant additional improvements, which were greatly different from zero. In other words, both Methodological CS and Mixed CS had a significant effect on the University students' English reading performance.

The lines 7–12 show whether the Methodological and Mixed CS effects on the Secondary, Intermediate and Primary students were different from those on the University students for the reading skill. Even though lines 8 and line 11, which show the improvement of the Intermediate school students in both the Methodological CS and Mixed CS Groups, have negative coefficients, they are not significant. Overall, none of the coefficients in these lines were significant, meaning that, compared to that baseline of the CS effect for the University students, i.e., 1.04 points of improvement in the Methodological CS Group and 1.40 points of improvement in the Mixed CS Group, none of the other Ages were significantly different. Essentially, Methodological CS and Mixed CS had similar positive effects on the reading skills of all the students (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary). They all improved their reading skills from the pre-test to the post-test, significantly more so in the two CS Groups (Methodological CS/Mixed CS) than in the Control Group, as also reflected in Figure 7.4.

Figure 7.4 outlines the improvements in students' reading outcomes according to their scores on the pre-test and on the post-test. As shown in the Figure, Methodological and

Mixed CS had a significant effect on the University students, as the students in these Groups showed greater improvement than those in the Control Group, while the other three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) showed roughly the same amount of improvement as the University students. In other words, all the different Age Groups improved by roughly the same amount in all the Groups, while the highest improvement was seen in the Mixed CS Groups compared to the Control Groups for all Ages. The analysis of the improvements in students' scores between the pre-test and the post-test in the reading skill revealed the following patterns:

- 1- The reading scores of students of all Ages improved similarly in the three Groups.
- 2- For the University students, their reading scores improved more in both the Methodological CS and Mixed CS Groups than in the Control Group.
- 3- The reading scores of the other three Age Groups (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) improved by the same amount in both the Methodological CS and Mixed CS Groups as the scores of the University students.

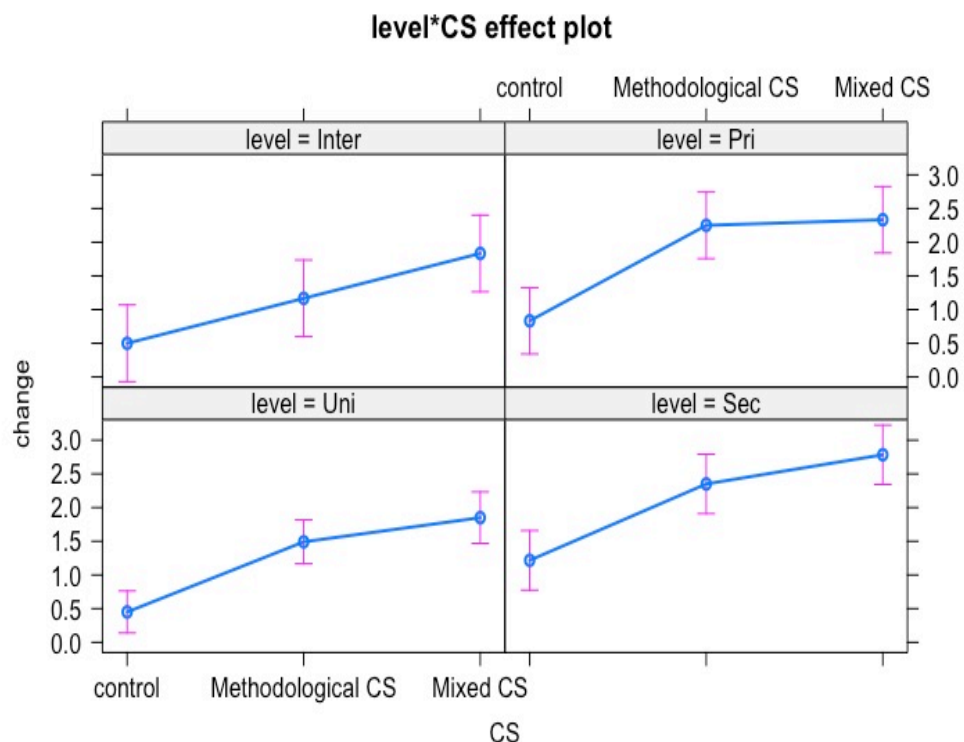


Figure 7.4: Partial effects plot visualising the reading model estimates from Table 7.7. All Groups and Ages showed a significant improvement between pre-test and post-test, but the Mixed CS Group shows the largest improvement across all Age sets. (Uni = University/ Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary).

7.4.6. Writing

	Variables		<i>b</i> -value	Std. error of <i>b</i> -value	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value
	Group	Age set				
1 Intercept	Control	University	0.49	0.16	3.1	0.002 **
2		Secondary	-0.35	0.27	-1.30	0.19
3		Intermediate	0.39	0.33	1.20	0.22
4		Primary	0.30	0.29	1.01	0.31
5	Methodological CS	University	0.14	0.23	0.63	0.52
6	Mixed CS		0.87	0.25	3.47	0.0005 ***
7	Methodological CS	Secondary	0.27	0.39	0.69	0.48
8		Intermediate	0.85	0.47	1.82	0.06 .
9		Primary	0.18	0.42	0.45	0.65
10	Mixed CS	Secondary	0.36	0.40	0.89	0.37
11		Intermediate	0.57	0.48	1.19	0.23
12		Primary	0.42	0.43	0.97	0.33

Table 7.8: Linear regression model predicting writing improvement as a function of CS Groups (Control, Methodological CS, Mixed CS), Age sets (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary), and the interaction between Group and Age set.

The model in Table 7.8 could explain around 20% of the variance in the improvement in students' writing test scores ($R^2 = .201$, $F(11, 359) = 8.23$, $p < .001$), which is significantly better than a null model.

Table 7.8 introduces the improvement of students from the pre-test to the post-test in the writing skill across the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the three different Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS). The intercept in the first line demonstrates that University students in the Control Group improved by 0.49 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.49$, $p = .002$), which is a significant improvement, as their improvement is greater than zero.

The next three lines (2–4) demonstrate how the other Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the Control Groups improved compared to the University students in their scores for the writing skill. Basically, the Secondary, Intermediate and Primary school students in the Control Groups showed no significant additional improvement over the University students in the Control Group. This indicates that Secondary, Intermediate, and Primary students were all similar to University students in their improvements. In other words, for the Control Group, all the Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) improved roughly the same amount from the pre-test to the post-test.

The next two lines, 5 and 6, show the magnitude of the Methodological CS and Mixed CS effects on the University students' writing skills. In line 5, we can see that Methodological CS improved by 0.14 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.14$, $p = .52$) which is not significantly different from zero. Thus, the University students in the Methodological CS Group did not improve significantly more than the Control Group. In other words, Methodological CS had no significant effect on University students' English writing skills. On the other hand, in line 6, we can see that the University students in the Mixed CS Group increased by an additional 0.87 points of improvement from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.87$, $p = .0005$), which is significantly different from zero. Thus, line 6 indicates that Mixed CS had a significant effect on University students, meaning that they performed similarly in both the Control and Methodological CS Groups, but showed additional improvement in the Mixed CS Group.

The lines 7–12 indicate whether the Methodological and Mixed CS effects on the Secondary, Intermediate and Primary students were different from those on the University students for the writing skill. Fundamentally, all of the coefficients in these lines are not significantly different from zero. In other words, compared to the baseline CS effect for the University students of 0.14 points of improvement for Methodological CS, and 0.87 for Mixed CS, the CS effect on all the other Age Groups (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) was not significantly different. In other words, the effect of Mixed CS was the same for all Age Groups. Basically, the performance of the students of all Ages improved in both CS Groups (Methodological CS and Mixed CS) by nearly the same amount between the pre-test and post-test, as reflected in Figure 7.5.

To sum up, the following figure shows that writing learning outcomes improved by almost the same amount in all Groups (Primary/ Intermediate/ Secondary/ University students). For all the Age Groups, we note that the highest improvement was in the Mixed CS Groups compared to the Control Groups, meaning that the students improved their writing skills from the pre-test to the post-test more significantly in the Mixed CS Groups than they did in the Control Groups. The progress analysis from the pre-test to the post-test in the writing skill revealed the following patterns:

- 1- Generally, the writing scores of students of all Ages improved similarly in the three CS Groups.

- 2- The writing scores of students of all Ages improved significantly only in the Mixed CS Groups when compared to the Control Groups.
- 3- Methodological CS did not provide additional improvement for any Age Group, in terms of their writing outcomes.

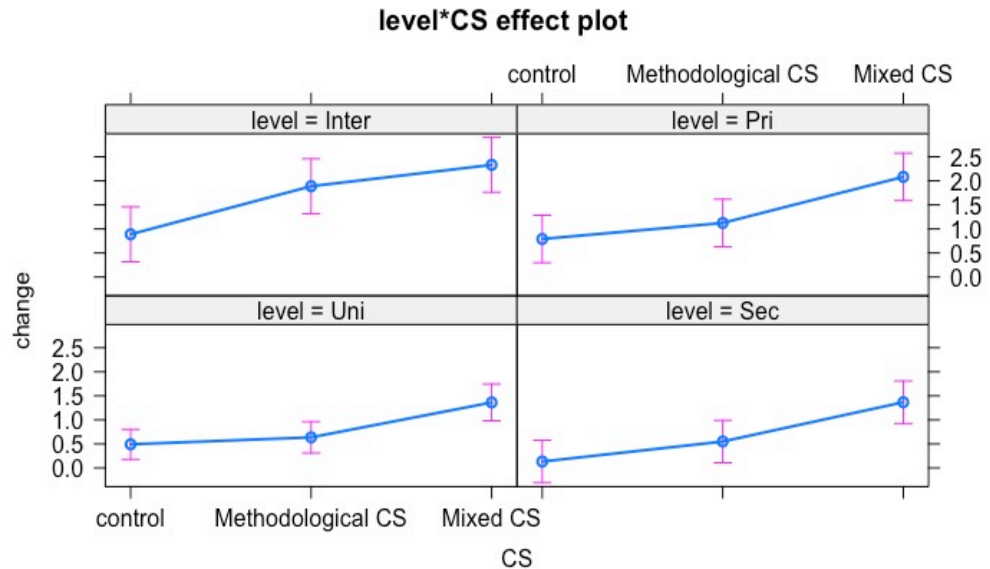


Figure 7.5: Partial effects plot visualising the writing model estimates from Table 7.8. All Groups and Ages showed a significant improvement between pre-test and post-test, but the Mixed CS Group showed the largest improvement across all Age sets. (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary).

7.4.7. Listening:

	Variables		b-value	Std. error of b-value	t-value	p-value
	Group	Age set				
1 Intercept	Control	University	1.18	0.17	6.63	1.24e-10 (<.001) ***
2		Secondary	-0.55	0.30	-1.77	0.076.
3		Intermediate	-0.23	0.37	-0.64	0.52
4		Primary	-0.64	0.33	-1.92	0.05.
5	Methodological CS	University	-0.31	0.25	-1.20	0.22
6	Mixed CS		0.029	0.28	0.10	0.91
7	Methodological CS	Secondary	0.87	0.44	1.99	0.047 *
8		Intermediate	1.86	0.52	3.53	0.0004 ***
9		Primary	0.64	0.47	1.35	0.17
10	Mixed CS	Secondary	0.50	0.45	1.10	0.26
11		Intermediate	1.58	0.54	2.92	0.003 **
12		Primary	0.76	0.48	1.56	0.11

Table 7.9: Linear regression model predicting listening improvement as a function of CS Groups (Control, Methodological CS, Mixed CS), Age sets (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/Pri = Primary), and the interaction between Group and Age set.

The model in Table 7.9 could explain around 11% of the variance in improvement in students' writing test scores ($R^2 = .119$, $F(11, 359) = 4.42$, $p < .001$), which is significantly better than a null model.

Table 7.9 displays the improvements in students' scores from the pre-test to the post-test in the three different Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS) across the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the listening skill. The first row, the intercept, indicates that the University students in the Control Group improved by 1.18 points between the pre-test and the post-test ($b = 1.18$, $p < .001$), which is a significant improvement. The next three lines (2–4) show the improvement of the other three Age Groups (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) in the Control Groups in comparison to the University students' Control Group; the negative coefficients of these three lines are not significantly different from zero. In other words, the three different Age Groups (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) improved by a similar amount as the University students within the Control Groups.

Lines 5 and 6 indicate the magnitude of the Methodological CS and Mixed CS effect on the University students' listening skills. More specifically, line 5 shows the improvement of the University students in the Methodological CS Group ($b = -0.31$, $p = 0.22$), which is not significantly different from zero, and therefore shows similar performance to the Control Group. Moreover, line 6 shows that University students in the Mixed CS Group improved by 0.029 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.02$, $p = 0.91$), which is also not significant. In other words, neither Methodological CS nor Mixed CS led to significant additional improvement in comparison to the Control Group for the University students. Thus, Methodological and Mixed CS had no significant effect on the University students' English listening skills.

The next three lines (7–9) show whether the Methodological CS effect for the other three Age Groups (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) was different from that of the University students in listening skills. The coefficients showed that the degree of improvement was not the same for the different Ages. Line 7 indicates that the Secondary school students made an additional improvement of 0.87 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 0.87$, $p = .0047$) over and above the insignificant improvement of -0.31 points for the University students in the Methodological CS Group. In other words, compared to the Secondary school Control Group, the Methodological CS Group showed $0.87 + -0.31 = 0.56$ additional points of

improvements from the pre-test to the post-test. This remarkable progress means that Methodological CS helped the Secondary school students significantly more than it helped the University students. In other words, Methodological CS had a significantly stronger effect on Secondary school students' listening skills than it did on the University students' listening skills.

Lines 8 and 9 provide the same comparison for Intermediate and Primary students. Line 8 shows that, like the Secondary school students, the intermediate school students benefited from Methodological CS significantly more than University students. Their scores increased by 1.86 points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.86, p = .0004$), which is an additional progress above that of the University students, compared to the Control Group. In other words, the Intermediate students in the Methodological CS Group showed $1.86 + -0.31 = 1.55$ points of improvement, which is a significantly stronger Methodological CS effect than that of the University students. By contrast, line 9 shows that Methodological CS led to no additional improvement among Primary school children compared to University students. Overall, Methodological CS did not significantly improve University or Primary school students' scores compared to the Control Group, but it did improve Intermediate and Secondary students' scores. In other words, Methodological CS had no significant effect on the Primary and University students, but it did on the Secondary and Intermediate students.

The remaining three lines (10–12) show whether the Mixed CS effect on the listening skill was different for the other three Ages (Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) compared to the University students. Line 11 indicates that only the Intermediate school students showed significant additional improvement in the Mixed CS Group. In other words, they benefited from Mixed CS significantly more than the University students, with their scores increasing by 1.58 additional points from the pre-test to the post-test ($b = 1.58, p = .003$), which is a significantly stronger Mixed CS effect than that experienced by the University students. In other words, the Intermediate school students in the Mixed CS Group showed $1.58 + 0.029 = 1.61$ additional points of improvement over the Intermediate students' improvement in the Control Group; this is significantly more than the improvement of the University students in the Control Group. By contrast, lines 10 and 12 indicate that the Secondary and Primary school pupils showed no significant additional improvement in the Mixed CS Groups compared to the University students. Overall, only the Intermediate school students experienced a more significant Mixed CS effect than the University students.

These coefficients mainly reflect the information shown in Figure 7.6, which is that the University students showed almost no difference across the three Groups. In fact, the University students in the Methodological CS Group had lower rates of improvement than those in the Control Group, reflected in the negative coefficients in line 5. However, this negative coefficient was not significantly different from zero, which means that there is no evidence to conclude that Methodological CS worsened University students' performance compared to the Control Group. Overall, Methodological CS had the strongest effect on secondary and Intermediate school students, while Mixed CS had the strongest effect on the Intermediate school students, over and above the University students, when compared to the Control Group. In other words, Methodological CS had a significant effect on both Secondary and Intermediate school students, while Mixed CS only had a significant effect on the Intermediate school students, in terms of their listening skills.

To sum up, Table 7.9 and Figure 7.6 demonstrate the improvement in the students' scores from the pre-test to the post-test in the English listening skill. Students' results varied in the three different CS Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS) across the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary). The analysis of the students' progress from the pre-test to the post-test in listening skills revealed the following patterns:

- 1- The scores of University students changed minimally in the three CS Groups (Control/Methodological CS/Mixed CS). Their improvements in the listening skill in all three Groups were very similar.
- 2- Both Secondary and Intermediate school students' listening scores improved more in the Methodological CS Groups than the scores of the University students in the same Group.
- 3- Mixed CS produced a significant effect only on the Intermediate school students. Their listening scores in the Mixed CS Group improved more than those of the University students' scores in the same Group.

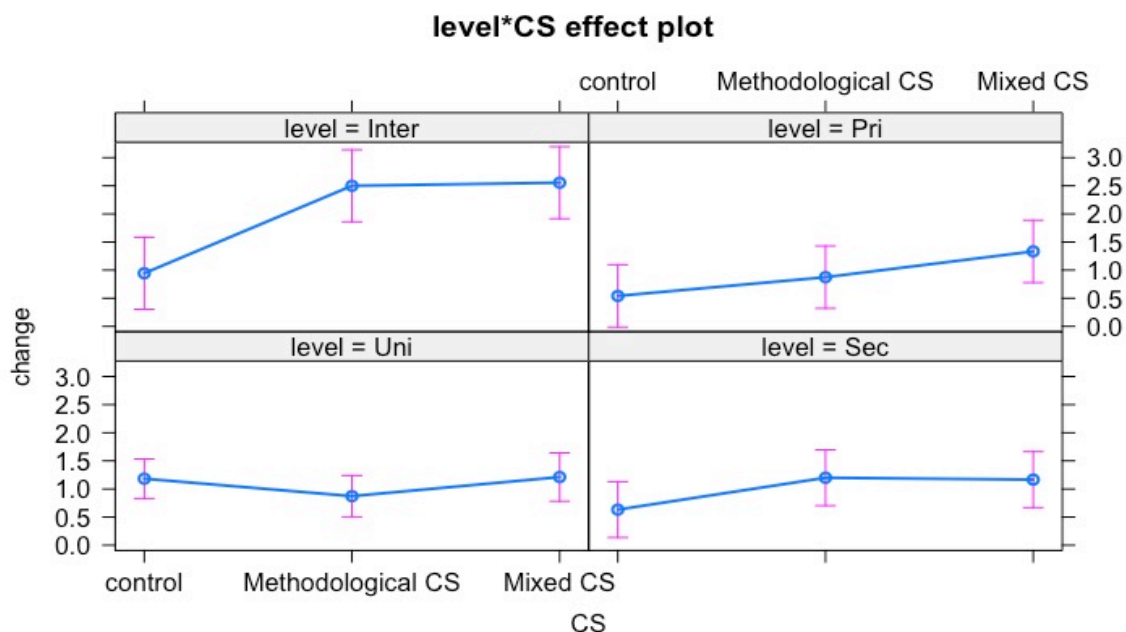


Figure 7.6: Partial effects plot visualising the listening model estimates from Table 7.9. All Groups and Ages showed a significant improvement between pre-test and post-test, but the Mixed CS Group shows the largest improvement only at the Intermediate Age. (Uni = University/Sec = Secondary/Inter = Intermediate/ Pri = Primary).

7.5. Summary of the results

In my current study, I used two main CS categories, namely Methodological CS and Mixed CS. The first focused only on purely linguistic purposes, while the latter combined the linguistic purposes with classroom management and social purposes. The results showed that both categories of CS can help to improve learning outcomes in EFL classrooms. Generally speaking, Mixed CS works very well with all students of all Ages for the skills and components of the English language, and better than Methodological CS or standard teaching with no CS. This evidence in favour of building social and personal connections in the classroom will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

The results of this chapter show that Methodological CS and Mixed CS play an important role in improving students' performance. The overall improvement from the pre-test to the post-test across the different Ages (University/Secondary/Intermediate/Primary) demonstrates that students in the Methodological CS Groups sometimes perform better than those in the Control Groups, while students in Mixed CS Groups obtain the highest scores, therefore Mixed CS has the greatest effect over and above both Methodological CS and no CS (Control Groups).

With regard to the differences in the improvements in the English skills across Ages, the improvements in the students' scores varied. The analysis of these scores revealed the following pattern:

- 1- Students' scores in the Methodological CS Groups sometimes improved more than those in the Control Groups, but other times they improved similarly.
- 2- Students' scores in the Mixed CS Groups always improved the most, consistently outperforming both the Methodological CS and Control Groups.
- 3- The effects of Mixed CS on the different Ages show that the Intermediate school students benefited from Mixed CS the most, and the University students benefited the least. This means that Intermediate school students' scores in the Mixed CS Group were the highest and the University students' scores in the mixed CS Group were the lowest.
- 4- The influence of Mixed CS on the different skills and components of the English language across the different Ages shows that Mixed CS helps consistently most with reading, vocabulary and grammar, and least with listening. Students' learning outcomes in reading, vocabulary and grammar were the best in the Mixed CS Groups, while their listening outcomes were the poorest in this CS Group.
- 5- Secondary students in the Mixed CS Group showed the best performance in grammar and reading, while Intermediate school students in the Mixed CS Group performed the best in vocabulary, writing and listening.

To sum up, the learning of each skill in a foreign language is influenced by the learning of the L1, which means that the teacher's use of CS in EFL classrooms may affect the acquisition of the different skills and components of the English language, among students of different Ages. Using Methodological CS and Mixed CS in EFL classrooms has a positive impact on the learning outcomes of students. Even though students' scores across different Ages varied for the different skills of the English language, Mixed CS worked better for all the skills and components of English examined here. However, the differences involved in teaching each English skill and the various CS purposes used for teaching each skill explain the differences in the improvement of students' scores in each skill (see Section 4.3 in Chapter 4, for further details). The next chapter will further discuss the possible factors that may affect the students' scores.

Chapter 8: Discussion

8.1. Introduction

The key goal of this study is to determine if specific types of CS can serve to improve English learning, especially in Saudi EFL classrooms; thus, this study aims to test the impact of teachers' CS on students' learning outcomes. In Chapter 3, the relevant research was reviewed and this revealed a number of knowledge gaps concerning how CS impacts learning outcomes. Specifically, as shown in Chapter 3, Section 3.4, most past empirical studies that discussed CS in multiple languages and were applied within university EFL classrooms were based on observations, questionnaires, audio/video recordings or interviews to either identify the various types and the functions of CS, or the different attitudes towards CS within university EFL classrooms; however, they did not evaluate students' performance (see Section 3.4.4). On the other hand, a few other experimental studies used pre-tests and post-tests instead, to examine the effect of CS on actual student performance, but only to test this effect on a single English skill (see Section 3.4.5). In addition, as seen in Chapter 3, the majority of these studies, either empirical or experimental, did not consider the role of age as a potential factor in learning a foreign language, hence they focused only on a specific age level.

Considering these issues, the methodology design of the present study employs pre-tests and post-tests to examine the potential benefit of teachers' CS for improving English learning within EFL classrooms. Specifically, I examine the effect of different categories of code-switching (Methodological CS and Mixed CS) on the development of different English language skills and components across different ages. This chapter discusses the findings of this study, connects them to previous literature, and answers the research questions.

Research Questions:

This research investigates the use of CS in Saudi EFL classrooms and aims to answer the following questions:

Does the teacher's code-switching in Saudi EFL classroom improve assessment performance compared to a classroom with no CS?

- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the type of CS employed by the teacher?
- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the age level of the students?
- Does the effect of code-switching on assessment performance depend on the specific English skills and components including reading, writing, listening, grammar, and vocabulary?

Section 8.2 presents, analyses, and discusses the answers to these three questions and whether or not CS affects the students' learning outcomes. Section 8.3 supplies a general discussion of the whole findings.

8.2. Discussion of findings

8.2.1. Effects of code-switching on students' learning outcomes

(Does the effect of CS on learning depend on the type of CS employed by the teacher?)

The aim of my study was to determine whether teachers' alternation between the first and target language in the Saudi EFL classroom could help to improve student performance. Thus, pre-tests and post-tests were conducted to address the main aim here and to find the answers to the following:

- Which category of code-switching (Methodological CS and Mixed CS) can serve to develop English learning among different age sets and across the whole range of different English skills?

In Chapter 7, I observed that CS had a significant effect on the students' outcomes. According to the students' scores, both CS groups showed greater improvement than the control groups. The students in the Methodological CS and Mixed CS groups were able to understand what they were taught and they performed much better than the monolingual classes. However, Mixed CS provided much greater aid to students' performance in the EFL classroom generally. The results therefore showed a clear link between CS and students' performance improvement.

The results of my study are consistent with those of several previous studies (e.g., Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Almulhim, 2014; Horasan, 2014; Bhatti et al., 2018), i.e., that CS can be a beneficial strategy with students with a low or medium level of English. As

mentioned earlier, the employment of CS inside classrooms is constantly a point of contention. However, the results suggest that CS in the classroom facilitates the process of learning a foreign language. In Chapter 3, I examined different views and studies related to whether or not the teacher's use of CS in EFL classrooms has benefits for the process of teaching and learning. Most previous studies reported that the teacher's use of CS is effective and that it has a valuable impact on the process of teaching. Some of them (e.g., Moore, 2002; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Almulhim, 2014; Horasan, 2014; Bhatti et al., 2018) suggested that CS can be more effective with low-proficiency students. According to the results of my study, we can agree that CS can be useful to students who have a low or medium proficiency in English.

As shown earlier in Chapter 1 and Chapter 5, the status of the English language in Saudi Arabia shows that most Saudi students have a low level of English. According to the EF EPI, the world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills based on the test results of 2 million adults in 112 countries and regions, in 2021 Saudi Arabia ranked 104 out of 112 countries globally, and 10 out of 12 in the Middle East. Thus, Saudi students' English proficiency is still low, which means that the proficiency of the Saudi participants in my study is also not high. However, according to the results of my study, both Methodological CS and Mixed CS helped to improving low-level students' performance in English.

Even though Methodological CS plays a strong role in improving students' performance, it cannot be compared to the significant effects of Mixed CS on students' outcomes. One possible reason for this could be related to students' engagement in the classroom. There are three areas where Mixed CS could have increased students' engagement in the classroom, relating to my relationship as a teacher with the students, the students' interest in the classroom environment, and the benefits of sharing personal stories, as follows.

8.2.1.1 Relationships with students

One possible reason that could explain why Mixed CS could have increased students' engagement is related to the teacher building a good rapport with the EFL students. According to Hamid (2016), using CS to build solidarity and good interpersonal relationships with students can create a supportive atmosphere for language learning in the classroom. Lin (1999) also found that switching between the L1 and the target language not only ensured students' understanding but could also be used to build a strong social relationship between the teachers and students, which increased the latter's motivation to

learn English. Moreover, Lin (2000) stressed the importance of using CS to praise students and establish friendly relationships with them, as this can help to reduce the distance between teachers and students. This kind of relationship not only helps to facilitate pedagogical tasks, but it also increases students' feelings of relaxation inside the classroom. As noted earlier in Sections 3.3.3 and 5.4.2, some students in the EFL classroom might experience anxiety or a lack of motivation to learn English. Many empirical studies, including some in the Saudi context, have shown that anxiety exists among most EFL students, and that it may have negative impacts on the process of learning a foreign language (Alrabai, 2014; Al-Saraj, 2014; Javid, 2014; Al-Shalawi, 2009; inter alia). Other empirical Saudi studies have shown that most Saudi EFL students lack motivation to learn English, which might negatively hinder their progress in improving English efficiency (e.g., Al-Asmari, Farooq & Javid, 2012; Al-Khairi, 2013; Alrabai, 2014; inter alia). Using CS to build a positive relationship with students in Mixed CS groups could help to solve these issues, as follows.

In EFL classrooms, some students who experience anxiety, specifically due to the fear of negative evaluation, might be sensitive to the views of either the teacher or other students (Horwitz et al., 1986). As a result, these students will avoid participating in classroom activities because of their fear of being judged by the teachers, and even for fear of the reactions of other students, who might laugh at them if they received assertive or negative feedback from the teachers (Wardhani, 2019). Other students stated that they avoided interaction in the classroom because of the fear of misunderstanding teachers' corrective feedback on their answers. Wardhani (2019) also believed that if teachers use the L1 in EFL classrooms to soften negative evaluation, this helps the students to feel less anxious and more relaxed. Therefore, using CS to evaluate the students might be very useful and avoid misunderstandings, as the L1 is easy for the students. Also, switching to the L1 to use kind words if the students get the wrong answer in the classroom activity or correct their mistakes might help them to feel more comfortable.

The following examples illustrate how I used CS to soften criticism, correct students' mistakes gently, heighten praise, and use effective and friendly terms to encourage students' participation in the EFL classroom.

1- Teacher: Marketers often refer to customers as _____

Students: purchased.

Teacher: Yes, you're right. *Muḥəwalah d̤zajdəh*, They purchase products, *lakən wəf ni:sa:mi:hum?* Think about it. It was a new word I mentioned here yesterday.

Yes, you're right. Good try. They purchase products, but what do we call them?

Think about it. It was a new word I mentioned here yesterday.

Students: buyers.

Teacher: buyers is also right, *lakən mu: huwa el mu:həm. ʔla ku:lən mu:farkətki: eljum xlətni: abtasəm. Ana mətə:kida i:nəh elmarəh eld̤zayəh bitd̤zawbi:nha. Ahəm fay la təḥi:mi:na men mufraktəc el latʕ i:fəh*. Just keep going.

Teacher: buyers is also right, but it is not the word that we are looking for. Anyway, your participation today made me smile. I believe that next time you will do it. [Don't prevent us from your nice participation (literal Arabic translation!)]. It's a pleasure to see you participating again/I'd like to see you participate again. Just keep going.

In example 1, I asked a question. When one of the students, who rarely participated in my classes, participated for the first time, she did not provide the right answer on the first try. I switched to Arabic to use gentle words to confirm that her answer was not the answer we were looking for and to motivate her to think more and find the right answer. Unfortunately, she did not find it. It was obvious that she did not have the right response and I did not want to embarrass her. Therefore, I switched again to thank her for her participation and support her with friendly words in Arabic to show that she was a good student with the ability to do well next time. This was to maintain her motivation at a high level, and encourage her to engage in classroom activities in the future. Later, this student participated again in another class even though she did not get the right answer on her first try. To sum up, teachers' use of CS to gently use Arabic phrases with an effective meaning could keep fostering students' confidence and motivating them to participate and do well.

2- Teacher: Who can write the word "fashionable" on the board?

Students: "fshionable"

Teacher: *nesi:ti ḥərf. ḥawli: təthəḍzainəha*. Listen how I pronounce it. "fashionable". *ʕala fəkrəh xətʕ k beli:nqli:zi ma:rah Jami:l. Aif el xətʕ elḥi:lu haḍa*. So, what is the missing letter?

Teacher: You're missing one letter. Try to spell it. Listen how I pronounce it. "fashionable". By the way, what a nice handwriting you have. You have a very beautiful handwriting.

Student: “fashionable”

Teacher: Excellent! *Bark Allah fi:k*. Well done.

Religious expression means “May God bless you”. Well done.

In example 2, I asked students to write on the board a new word from the unit. One of the students wrote the word missing one letter. I switched to Arabic to remind her that she had missed a letter and I tried to pronounce the word for her. The student was nervous when I told her that she had missed a letter, so, I switched to praise her handwriting in order to reduce her nerves and let her focus on the missing letter. When I praised her, she was smiling, and I thought that this might allow her to feel less nervous. The student got the missing letter and wrote the word correctly. I switched again by using the religious expression “*Bark Allah fi:k¹⁴*” to thank her, showing the direct blessing of Allah towards her and praising her efforts.

3- Teacher: Who can read this small conversation?

Student 1: Hi. Did you see *The Interview* last night?

Student 2: Yes. I watch it every week. Last night I watched it with my father and uncle.
They like the interviewer.

Student 1: Yes, he is polite and listens to what his guest says.

Student 2: And he doesn’t interrupt. Did you see it when he had to stop the other guest interrupting?

Student 1: Yes, I thought he handled it really well. And he always asks interesting people to come on the show.

Student 2: Yes, I agree. Who would you like him to interview? etc

Teacher: Thank you so much. *Maḥa? Allah ḥalaikum Aif el i:lqa elḏẓami:l haḏa*. Great job.

Religious/local expression meaning “what God has willed”. Excellent, that’s incredible. What a nice performance you had. Great job.

In example 3, I asked the students to read one of the conversations in their textbook. Two students took part in the reading of that conversation. Even though these two students took a long time to spell out some words, I encouraged them to complete the reading. After they

¹⁴ *Bark Allah fi:k¹⁴* is a religious expression that we often use to express thankfulness showing the gratitude and direct blessing of God towards a person.

had finished, I switched to praise their performance. I considered the Saudi cultural environment and used one of the most common religious expressions “*Maḥaʔ Allah*¹⁵” which we use when we are amazed by the beauty of something/someone. They were smiling and happy when I praised their performance, and they were more active in their participation for the rest of the class. Therefore, I switched here in order to build their confidence and increase their motivation to participate more in future lessons.

4- Teacher: Okay, then. Let’s start. Look around you. Find an object and use the grammar we learned. Don’t forget. If you give a full meaningful sentence without any mistakes, you will get a star.

Student: Those are her colourful notebooks.

Teacher: Wow. *Bravo ṣalaik. Bravo ṣalaik. raʔi:ṣah wa mubdi:ʕ kəlṣadah* (Well done! You’re so great as usual). Those are her colourful notebooks. Right! Then, two stars for you too. Wow, so today you got seven stars. Wow. That’s so nice. *Elyum bədaʕti: maḥa’a Allah ṣalaik.* (Today, you have been so incredible).

In example 4, I asked students to make a meaningful complete sentence using the correct words and appropriate grammar that they had already learned in the previous classes. One of the students formulated a very good sentence. Therefore, I switched to Arabic twice to praise them. The first time, I switched to praise her great response to the task, followed by another switch to praise her great performance during the whole class generally, since she was so active and participated nicely in the classroom activities more than once.

Hence, the use of the L1 affords greater linguistic scope to soften criticism and heighten praise, which in turn promotes a more relaxed atmosphere and leads to a more optimal environment. For example, I saw this effect first-hand throughout the teaching period. At first, some students did not participate at all, however, most of the students in the Mixed CS groups gradually started to participate in the classroom activities. A possible explanation for this might be that the use of CS when giving positive feedback, heightening praising, softening criticism, evaluating students’ performance, or gently correcting their mistakes

¹⁵ *Maḥaʔ Allah* is a common religious expression that has different meanings because it is used in different situations. It can be used to express awe, praise, joy, thankfulness, or appreciation for a person or an event that was just mentioned. Here, it is used to express a feeling of amazement regarding the beauty of something/someone.

makes the language easier to understand for the students, as well as having a stronger effect on them, especially the low-level students. Switching to the L1 for all these previous reasons could increase students' engagement in the classroom and their confidence in their ability to do well, since many Arabic expressions cannot be translated and have the same affecting meaning in English, as already shown in the previous examples.

To conclude, using CS when building teacher-student rapport, which is associated with the learners' emotional needs, could reduce any existing anxiety, boost their participation, increase their motivation and confidence, and encourage them to learn English, which may maintain their progress in learning English. Since these purposes were only possible in the Mixed CS groups, that could explain why the Mixed CS groups improved.

8.2.1.1. Interesting classroom environment

Another possible reason that could explain why Mixed CS could have increased students' engagement is that it created an interesting classroom environment, which was applied in the Mixed CS groups in my research. For example, I sometimes language switched to tell local Arabic jokes when they were related to the topic of the class. Some studies have shown that humour inside classrooms can minimise students' stress and anxiety, create a warm and interesting environment, and even improve performance (e.g., Berk, 2000; Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987; Ford, Ford, Boxer & Armstrong, 2012; inter alia). Other studies have suggested that humour is likely to facilitate foreign language learning (e.g., Cook, 2000; Tarone, 2000; van Dam, 2002; Bell, 2005; inter alia). Therefore, it can be concluded that jokes are a form that may be used to change a student's mood.

Even though I also used jokes with the Methodological CS groups when I found the students had become slightly bored, these jokes did not have the effective positive effects, either because they were not local and spoken in English, so the students could not understand them, or because they did not find these funny. Even if these jokes were local and presented in English, they did not make sense to them since local Arabic jokes were generally difficult to tell or translate into English. If translated, they would lose their exact humorous meaning. On the contrary, in the Mixed CS groups, some local Arabic jokes really changed the students' mood, refreshed them, and encouraged them to be active for the rest of the class.

Moreover, sometimes there are local/international trends on social media that are related to the topic presented in the class. Switching to Arabic to present these trends in the Mixed CS groups made the class more interesting since such topics attracted teenagers. On the other hand, even though I presented some local trends in the Methodological CS, it did not make a difference to the class atmosphere. For example, one of the topics I taught in one of the classes was about global warming. At that time, there was a trend on social media about the California fires, which were related to global warming. I presented this trend in both groups: the Methodological CS and Mixed CS groups. In the Methodological CS group, I discussed this trend only in English, while in the Mixed CS groups, I switched to Arabic to talk about it. The students in the Mixed CS group engaged more actively in the discussion on California fires than those who were in the Methodological CS group.

To sum up, one measure that could change students' moods and encourage them to participate in the EFL classroom could be the use of the L1 to tell local jokes or/and social media trends related to the topic discussed in the class. This could increase their motivation to learn English and their engagement inside the EFL classroom, which might improve their performance in the EFL classroom.

8.2.1.2. *Personal sharing*

The third possible reason that could explain the increased engagement of the students in the Mixed CS groups is sharing personal stories. This study employed this technique, meaning that I switched to tell some of my experiences of learning English when they matched the subject in the unit. Since I am an English teacher, I have passed through difficult experiences to achieve competence in English. Telling students such personal complicated experiences related to the topic might encourage them to know that nothing is impossible, and they can learn English if they just keep going. As stated by Noddings (1997: 10), "students like to hear stories about the personal experiences of their teachers"; in other words, students might profit from hearing about teachers' experiences, accomplishments, and how they overcame the difficulties they faced. Noddings also suggested that these stories should not be told all at once and should be presented only if they are relevant. Similarly, Hidayati (2012) mentioned that teachers' CS to tell such a personal experience can motivate students, which may increase their classroom interaction.

Here, in my study, I switched to tell a personal story if it suited the situation and matched students' needs since teachers should be aware of these as a priority. For example, one of

the classroom activities in a lesson I taught included a conversation between a teenager and his family. This teenager had moved to another country to study and was telling his family that he was finding it difficult to understand people's speech there. Here, I faced a similar experience when I travelled for the first time abroad. I could read, write, and understand the teacher's speech, so I thought that I was good at English. However, when I met a native English speaker for the first time, I could not speak with him. Everything was in my mind, but it was very difficult to conduct a very short discussion or even just explain something. This is because when I was a student at their age, I just sat on my chair, listened to the teacher and I did not practise English or even participate in the classroom. However, this issue was gradually solved with some practice. Therefore, in my lesson, I switched to narrate this short experience to the students to show them the importance of practising English, as even short participation in the classroom can make a difference and help to make English easy. Telling this type of story informs the students that English is not difficult and encourages them to do some practice even if they find it difficult and make mistakes at the beginning. Gradually, their English will improve with the help of teachers' support through their positive interpersonal behaviour with their students, as shown above in Section 8.2.1.1.

Moreover, switching can be used not only to report difficult personal experiences, but also humorous experiences that are also relevant to the topic of the class. In fact, Noddings (1997) suggested that humorous personal stories can change the students' mood if teachers pull them out in suitable situations. Here, in my study, besides switching to local jokes, I switched on some occasions to tell humorous personal stories if they related to the topic of the class. For example, I received a scholarship to complete my master's degree in the United States. That was my first time alone in a different culture, and I experienced some difficulties and funny experiences at the beginning. One of these funny things that happened to me when I got there was linked to culture shock. The word "culture shock" was one of the new words in the secondary students' books. Here, after explaining the words to the students and asking them if they had experienced this before, I code switched to briefly introduce my funny story on the topic.

In the Mixed CS groups, when I switched to tell interpersonal stories related to the discussed topic, the students were very amused to listen to them, even becoming curious and excited to hear more about other stories. In other words, in these groups, sharing these stories with the students helped refresh them and make them more active for the rest of the class because they were so excited. After hearing about some of my difficult experiences in

learning English, the students' direct interaction with me demonstrated that their attitudes towards English had become more positive. For example, after hearing these stories, some students even asked about ways to help them improve their English because they had started to believe that English was not easy, but also it would not be that difficult to learn if they did some practice.

Even though I told the students in both groups the same personal stories, the students in the Mixed CS groups engaged more with them than those in the Methodological CS groups. As a result, one possible way in which Mixed CS could have a stronger effect on students' interaction in the EFL classroom is through these kinds of interpersonal stories. Thus, teachers' use CS to share personal funny and difficult experiences of learning a foreign language to help change students' moods, refresh them, improve their engagement within the class, and increase their motivation to learn a foreign language.

To conclude, the results of my study support the view that both Methodological CS and Mixed CS can be very helpful for students with low-level English; as a result, their scores were higher than those of the students in the control group, as shown in this study. Specifically, Mixed CS can improve students' outcomes, as revealed by their test scores in this study, as it can increase their engagement inside the EFL classrooms, which in turn, may lead to a more optimal learning environment, as shown above.

Generally, students who were in the Mixed CS groups were livelier and participated more actively than those in the other two groups. In addition, students' direct interactions with me demonstrated that their behaviour regarding English became more positive. As mentioned earlier in Section 5.4.2, Saudi students generally have negative attitudes towards learning English. According to the results of my study, Mixed CS could help to positively change students' views of learning English. For example, some students in the Mixed CS groups came to me after the final class and told me that, before I taught them, they used to hate English and even saw it as the most complicated subject. However, their views of English became more positive and they even asked me about helpful ways to improve their English. To conclude, Mixed CS has many valuable functions that could increase and maintain high motivational levels among students for learning English. My results suggest that Saudi EFL teachers should employ Mixed CS in the EFL classroom, as students understand and perform better with both Methodological CS and Mixed CS.

8.2.2. Effects of code-switching on different age levels

(Does the effect of CS on learning depend on the age level of the student?)

Previous literature has discussed the impact of age on learning a foreign language. Some scholars support the critical period hypothesis, finding that young students performed better than adults in learning a foreign language (e.g., Lenneberg, 1967; Bialystok & Miller, 1999; *inter alia*) while others do not support this view (e.g., Snow & Hoefnagel-Höhle, 1978; Flege, Yeni-Komshian & Liu, 1999: *inter alia*). Other scholars have suggested that there is no difference between them. Even though there is still debate over this idea of a critical period for learning a foreign language, the age factor plays an important role in learning a foreign language, as shown in Section 4.2. Since the students' age might affect their foreign language learning, the outcomes of students of different ages may differ, in terms of how they are affected by CS. Several previous studies have tested the use of educational CS in classrooms on a specific age group, as we have already seen in Section 3.4. From these studies, we know that CS is beneficial for university students, in terms of learning English (e.g., Tang, 2002; Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Jingxia, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Nguyen, 2013; Horason, 2014; Younas et al., 2014; Almulhim, 2014; Almuahaya, 2015; Shahnaz, 2015; Bhatti, et al., 2018). We know also that CS could be a very helpful tool for teaching English to secondary students (e.g., Lee, 2008; Lee, 2010; Berg, 2013), and primary students (e.g., Qian, Tian & Wang, 2009). None of these studies have directly tested the impact of CS across various age groups, although some comparison has been made between primary and university students, in terms of using CS to improve their learning of English vocabulary (e.g., Lee & Macaro, 2013). Thus, in my study, I explored the differential effects of age on learning a foreign language. I focused on students in various age groups to determine whether CS had the same effect on four different age sets and how CS could serve to improve English learning among these different age groups (University/Secondary/Intermediate/ Primary).

The results of my study showed that, while CS – especially Mixed CS – improved students' scores across all the age ranges, the amount of improvement differed between them. The intermediate level had the highest improvements in both CS groups compared to the other age levels, followed by secondary and primary, while the lowest improvement was recorded for students at the university level. This means that Methodological CS and Mixed CS were helpful for learning English in Saudi schools, especially Mixed CS, as it had the greatest effect across the age range of students.

My results support those of the experimental study of Lee and Macaro (2013). This study showed that age differences in the EFL classroom might influence the outcome of foreign language learning, and that, in terms of vocabulary learning, CS had a larger effect on young EFL learners than on adults. However, the young participants in Lee and Macaro's (2013) study were 12 years old, whereas in my study, CS had a strong effect on the intermediate students, who were aged between 13 and 15 years old.

Even though CS significantly affects intermediate students, it also greatly influences secondary students. I can say that both Methodological and Mixed CS strongly influence both intermediate and secondary students' performance compared to the performance of primary and university students. Therefore, both types of CS work very well with all ages, but Mixed CS especially.

However, regardless of the types of CS, Methodological or Mixed, the intermediate students benefited from this technique the most and these differences in their improvements might arise as a result of some external reasons. In other words, it might not be connected with age, but with some other factors that were not controlled for in the study, such as the time of the English class, external pressure from other subjects, or the size of the class, as follows.

8.2.2.1 Time of class

One reason why intermediate level students might have benefited from CS the most could be the time of the lesson, meaning that the timing of the lesson might affect the students' achievement. As mentioned in Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1, timetabling across the different ages in my study varied, with some classes taking place in the morning and others in the afternoon, depending on the day; however, the intermediate level had most of their classes only in the morning.

Several research studies have investigated the difference in performance between morning and afternoon students. Millar, Styles and Wastell (1980) believed that superior immediate recalling of knowledge is associated with morning learning, rather than with afternoon or evening learning. Similarly, Biggers (1980) claimed that students' attention in the morning is greatest whereas it decreases during the rest of the day. Moreover, according to Mulenga and Mukuka (2016), the time of day has an effect on students' performance, as

they found that the students in morning classes for English, Science, and Biology, performed slightly better than those students who were in the afternoon classes.

I agree with these studies which concluded that students might learn better in the morning classes than in the afternoon classes. Regardless of the two categories of CS, I observed that students' productivity in the morning classes was, in fact, higher than that of those studying in the afternoon. More specifically, during the morning classes, especially after the first break, the students were hyperactive and at the peak of their learning mode. Therefore, besides age, another measure or factor that could help intermediate students to benefit from CS is knowing that students are at the peak of their learning mode in the morning classes, and they are then most likely to benefit from anything that could help to improve their learning such as CS. Generally, the time of the lesson might affect students' performance and morning classes might help intermediate students to benefit from CS more than other ages.

8.2.2.2 External pressure from other subjects

Another reason why the intermediate level might have benefited from CS the most could be related to their attention in the lesson. Some external pressures, such as having an exam in another subject, might affect students' attention, which could influence their performance. As mentioned in Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1, students in the EFL classroom might experience external pressures from other classes. According to Hlas, Neyers and Molitor (2019), some internal and external factors can result in students' attention lapses. Students' attention plays an essential role in learning, and these lapses might influence their academic performance. Many other researchers have investigated the attention lapses of students that may occur during a class/lecture (e.g., Wilson & Korn, 2007; Bunce, Flens, & Neiles, 2010; Phillips, Ralph, Carriere, & Smilek, 2016; Hlas, Neyers & Molitor, 2019; inter alia). The study of Hlas, Neyers and Molitor (2019) aimed to explore the causes of students' attention lapses that could occur in a foreign language classroom. According to this study, some factors that cause attention lapses are out of the teachers' control. In this study, students reported three major causes of their attention lapses which were out of the teacher's control: they were too tired, there was too much on their mind, or they were thinking about other subjects or ideas. One of the reasons why students might think about other subjects is that they have exams in the following lessons for other subjects. According to Hamid (2019), exams result in a great amount of stress that can impact the quality of students' performance.

During my teaching to collect the data, the students sometimes had scheduled tests in other subjects after my class, especially the secondary and university students. They were very worried about their exams and even asked me to allow them at least five minutes at the end of my class to revise before their exam. Therefore, I support previous research which showed that having external pressures such as exams might affect students' attention in classes. In other words, having a test on other subjects after my class might create a stressful atmosphere for them, which might influence their ability to focus during my lessons, especially for university and secondary students.

Crucially, there were no tests or exams during the time I taught the intermediate students. The presence of this type of stress could affect students' focus, which, in turn, might affect their performance in the classroom. This can lead us to the conclusion that intermediate students' attention might be the strongest, and it may not have been affected by having a stressful atmosphere of other subjects' tests, out of all the classes I taught. Therefore, holding the intermediate students' clear attention in the EFL classroom could help them to benefit from both Methodological CS and Mixed CS, more so than other ages.

8.2.2.3 *Size of class*

A third reason why intermediate students might have benefited from CS the most could be the class size. As shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1, the number of EFL students across all the ages varied, as some classes were more numerous than others. According to Ehrenberg, Brewer, Gamoran, and Willms (2001), one of the simplest variables in the production of knowledge or learning is the class size. In the literature, there is a debate about the optimal number of students in a classroom, thus many studies examine the relationship between students' achievement and class size. On the one hand, some studies have associated high levels of student achievement with classes containing a smaller number of students (e.g., Urquiola, 2006; Chingos, 2012; Fredriksson, Öckert, & Oosterbeek, 2013; Gary-Bobo & Mahjoub, 2013; inter alia). A few other studies, on the other hand, found no relationship between students' achievement and class size (e.g., Woessmann & West, 2006). Generally, researchers promote the idea that in order to produce the desired benefit in the classroom, it is better to have a small class size (Jepsen, 2015).

The class size of the intermediate students' groups in my study was the lowest, with 18 students in each group. The class size of the secondary students' groups was very similar or slightly larger than the size of the primary students' groups, as the number of students in the

secondary groups was 30, and in the primary groups it was 24. The class size of the university students' groups was the largest, with more than 30 students in each group.

I agree with the above studies which concluded that having a small class size can help to produce the desired benefits. My intermediate classes were the smallest, hence each student in the class could have the chance to participate in classroom activities. The purposes of Mixed CS include motivating students to learn and encouraging them to participate. For example, in large classes such as the university groups, even if the students were motivated enough, they did not have the opportunity to participate due to the large numbers. Therefore, even the slightest participation in classroom activities could help to build self-confidence and improve the learning of a foreign language, as already discussed earlier. Therefore, another reason why the intermediate students benefited from both categories of CS, especially Mixed CS, rather than the other age ranges, might be their reduced class size, where each student had the chance to participate. Even though the class size is a simple variable that might affect students' performance in the EFL classroom, it should be considered.

Although the class size of the secondary students' groups in my study was slightly larger than that of the primary groups, the secondary students benefited from CS more than the primary students. However, certain issues occurred with the primary students, aged between 10 and 11 years old, issues that might affect how they benefited from CS. More specifically, each time I switched to Arabic, children would get so enthusiastic about the funny stories I told them that it was difficult for them to re-focus on the actual lesson, as they wanted to play and listen to those stories all the time. Yet, despite the loss of formal instruction from the distraction, they still improved more with CS than without.

All of these previous reasons could explain why intermediate students aged between 13 and 15 years old benefited from CS the most. In other words, if the students are more receptive to learning, they are also more receptive to the benefits of CS. However, I do not have a straightforward answer or further explanations for the superior performance of the intermediate students, since even the secondary students (who had experienced a non-optimal learning environment) still benefited from CS more than those in the university and primary level groups. Generally, it is difficult to explain such results within the context of age here, yet I suggest that different age levels respond to the effects of CS differently.

At the end of this section, the results of my study showed that the factor of age might affect the learning of a foreign language, showing that intermediate students aged between 13 and 15 years old had the best performance in terms of learning a foreign language. However, secondary students also gained a high benefit from CS, even though there were external factors that might have affect their performance in the EFL classroom. Therefore, I suggest that both categories of CS (Methodological CS and Mixed CS) helped both the intermediate and secondary students aged between 13 and 18 years old, more than it did the university students aged 19–22 years old or the primary students, aged between 10 and 12 years old. According to my results, both Methodological CS and Mixed CS work well with all ages, even though all of the non-optimal conditions and external factors mentioned above occurred during the data collection. Particularly, Mixed CS works very well with intermediate and secondary students compared to primary and university students. Even though the benefits from CS varied among the different ages, students of all ages benefited from CS, especially Mixed CS.

8.2.3. Effect of code-switching on teaching different English skills and components

(Does the effect of CS on learning depend on a specific English skill and component?)

In my study, I also aimed to see if CS had different effects, depending on the lesson/skill being taught. In the previous literature, the studies that examined the effect of CS on learning focused on a certain English skill, as discussed earlier in Section 4.3. These studies focused mostly on vocabulary and grammar, and to a lesser extent reading and writing; and they neglected listening. Yet, as detailed in Chapter 4, my study shows that English skills are different with respect to the effects of CS. Each one of these skills requires a different cognitive process in which vocabulary and grammar are discrete components, seen as being easier than other English skills to acquire. On the other hand, reading and listening are receptive skills, while writing and speaking are productive skills for which the students need a good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, as well as a lot of practice in order to learn them. According to the cognitive differences between these skills, it seems that discrete components are acquired more easily than other complicated skills, which require more practice. These previous studies, by focusing on only one skill at a time, could not determine whether the effects of CS varied across skills. My study shows that they do.

The results of my study showed that the impact of CS on various English skills varied among the different age groups. On the one hand, Methodological CS works well with reading and vocabulary. Also, it works well with the listening skill for intermediate students, and with grammar for both secondary and intermediate students. On the other hand, Mixed CS had the most positive effect on improving the performance of students of all the different ages in all the English skills. Generally, Methodological CS and Mixed CS had the greatest effect on all the students' outcomes in learning vocabulary and reading, and the lowest effect on listening. Specifically, Mixed CS works very well with children of all ages in terms of improving their performance in all the English skills.

8.2.3.1 Code-switching effects on vocabulary

Teachers' CS for teaching vocabulary had a significant impact on students' production; the results showed that, across all the ages, both Methodological CS and Mixed CS were useful for learning English vocabulary. Particularly, Mixed CS had the most positive effect on improving students' vocabulary knowledge. In the Methodological CS groups, I switched to translate the meaning of some difficult words directly, to clarify the meaning of English idioms and expressions that do not have equivalents in the Arabic language. Also, I switched to explain the meaning of some complex English lexis or phrasal verbs that do not exist in the Arabic language and can sometimes be confusing, as already discussed in Section 4.3.1.1. For example, the word "look" means to direct your eyes towards a particular direction. However, when it is accompanied by a certain preposition, the meaning changes. "Look" when it is attached to the preposition "after" means to take care of something/someone. In the Mixed CS groups, in addition to the purposes I switched for in the Methodological CS groups, I also switched to create a warm and friendly atmosphere while learning vocabulary. For example, when I switched to explain the meaning of some words/idioms or expressions, I connected them to real life by telling funny situations, jokes, or personal stories that were related to the target words. One instance was when I switched to tell my funny personal stories linked to the expression "cultural shock", as appeared above in Section 8.2.1.3.

Consequently, the results showed that using CS for learning vocabulary for these different purposes could be very helpful, especially Mixed CS when it is connected to the meaning of some words to some real situations that might be stored in the students' memories for a long time. My results support several experimental and empirical studies

(e.g., Tian, 2012; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Mazur, Karolczak, Rzepka & Araki, 2016; Nilsen, 2017; Namaziandost, Neisi & Banari, 2019) which suggest that using the L1 is very beneficial when learning vocabulary, as discussed in Sections 3.4.5 and 4.3.1.1. Employing pre- and post-tests to examine the effect of CS on students' vocabulary knowledge inside EFL university classrooms, Tian (2011), Tian and Macaro (2012) and Lee and Macaro (2013) showed that students in the experimental groups benefited from CS more than those in the control group. Their studies suggested that CS in university EFL classrooms helps to improve students' vocabulary knowledge. In a like manner, the results of Nilsen (2017) and Namaziandost et al. (2019) showed that the post-test scores and performance of the adult learners in the experimental CS group were higher than those of the learners in the control group. Their findings suggested that CS has a significant effect on vocabulary learning outcomes. Similarly, Mazur et al. (2016) highlighted a positive relationship between CS and learning vocabulary outcomes. They found that using the CO-MIX method improved learners' vocabulary knowledge, which indicated that CS was an effective tool.

The results of my study are consistent with the findings of these previous studies, which demonstrated that teachers' CS has a positive influence on adult learners and university students' performance, but also on the performance of younger students at secondary, intermediate, and primary levels, in terms of learning vocabulary. My study goes further to demonstrate that both types of CS (especially Mixed CS) can facilitate the learning of vocabulary and improve students' vocabulary outcomes.

8.2.3.2 Code-switching effects on reading

Similar to vocabulary, CS helps to facilitate the learning of reading. The results showed that both Methodological CS and Mixed CS had significant effects on the reading performances of students of all ages. Specifically, the results of my study showed that Mixed CS had the greatest positive impact on students' performance in reading skills. In my study, I used Methodological CS when teaching reading skills to translate the unknown words, clarify the meaning of difficult idioms/phrases, and explain the general idea of the text. In the Mixed CS groups, in addition to the purposes I switched for in the Methodological CS groups, I also switched to link the text to real life, motivate students to read, change the students' mood, encourage students to be active readers, and tell them personal stories related to the ideas of the text context. Therefore, the results showed that using CS when learning to read for a wide variety of purposes could be very helpful for improving students'

reading skills. The results also showed that CS can increase students' understanding of a text, since reading is a complex skill that requires comprehension.

Thus, my results support a number of previous empirical studies (e.g., Bhooth, Azman & Ismail, 2014; Lee, Seng & Hashim, 2006), (see Section 4.3.2.1) which suggests that although there are many strategies that can be used to improve reading skills, CS can positively influence students' reading skill acquisition. Booth et al. (2014), after analysing questionnaires and interviews with university students, found that switching between English and Arabic facilitated students' reading comprehension. Analysing audio and video recordings, Lee et al, (2006) also found that CS used in different situations helped university students to understand a text. Thus, my results agree with these findings that CS is a very useful tool for facilitating students' reading. My results also show that CS was very helpful, not only with university students as shown in these two previous studies, but also with students of different ages.

My results also support previous studies that reported that both types of code-switching (Methodological CS & Mixed CS) help students to overcome the difficulty of comprehending a text, i.e., it can improve reading comprehension. However, in my study, I added some specific purposes in the Mixed CS groups that could have contributed to not only greater comprehension but also greater fluency. The students' engagements with the reading activities could have made Mixed CS more effective than Methodological CS for teaching reading skills; this engagement could in turn be very helpful for reading comprehension and fluency. In the Mixed CS groups, my code switches for social purposes might have helped the students to be more active in participating in the reading activities. Besides the students' scores, which showed their improvement in reading, students in the Mixed CS groups were eager to participate in the reading activities. For example, I mentioned above in Section 8.2.1.2 that I switched to praise students' performance when they were reading out a conversation, even though they were not perfect and took a long time to pronounce some words. My switch here to using Arabic effective terms to praise and thank them could have had a strong effect on their performance, which in turn promoted a more relaxed class and led to a more optimal environment for participation. Interpersonal relations with students, associated with the students' emotional needs, could help to build self-confidence and encourage them to participate. Their participation in reading activities can help to improve not only their comprehension of the text, but also their reading fluency. As a result, these reasons for using CS in the EFL classroom, especially Mixed CS, were

evaluated in my study as particularly helpful for learning to read a foreign language, for students of all ages.

8.2.3.3 Code-switching effects on grammar

In the matter of learning grammar, the result of my study showed that CS generally has positive effects on students' English grammar. However, the effect of both categories of CS varied across the age groups. My study showed that Methodological CS works well with both intermediate and secondary students for learning grammar, while Mixed CS had the most significant influence on the performance of the primary, intermediate, and secondary school students. Yet, the university students had the smallest improvement in their grammar. In the Methodological CS groups, I switched when explaining complicated English grammatical rules, especially those that do not exist in the Arabic system, as discussed in Section 4.3.1.2. Also, I switched to compare the grammatical systems of Arabic and English for some rules, to help the students gain a better understanding of these rules (see the examples in Section 4.3.1.2). In the Mixed CS groups, besides the purposes for which I switched in the Methodological CS groups, I switched to create a friendly and interesting environment when teaching grammar. The results show that CS improves students' performance in grammar. Besides that, I observed that the students in the Mixed CS groups were more engaged in the grammar activities than the other students in the other groups. They were active and tried to participate even if they gave the wrong answers.

Therefore, on the one hand, my results support studies which suggest that CS can be very helpful for learning grammar (e.g., Chang, 2011; Hidayati, 2012) (see Section 4.3.1.2). Comparing GTM and CA, Chang (2011) found that the college students' scores on post-tests in the group where GTM was used were better than those who were in the group where CA was used. The results of this study showed that GTM, which reflected CS, was effective in teaching grammar and in improving students' knowledge of English grammar. After using multi-methods to testing CS usage in the EFL classroom, Hidayati (2012) also found that classroom observations and video recordings indicated a significant relationship between the use of CS and levels of classroom interaction. Adult students in the classroom where CS was used had a higher level of classroom interactions than those in the control group where there was no CS. Also, the results of interviews and questionnaires with the students showed that teachers' use of CS helped them to feel less lost when learning grammar, and it also helped them to increase their grammatical knowledge. The results of this study therefore showed

that CS has several beneficial functions that help students to learn English grammar more effectively. My results in this study agree with these two studies – that CS improves students' grammatical knowledge. However, in my study, CS was more effective with young students than with adults, who were the participants in the above studies.

On the other hand, my results also agree with Saudi research studies which report that CS has no significant effect on university students' grammar learning. In the previous literature, only very few experimental studies had tested the effect of CS on learning grammar in the Saudi context (e.g., Alseweed, 2012; Almansour, 2016). These two studies tested the influence of CS on the performance of Saudi university EFL students in grammar. Both of them showed that CS is not essential and that it had no great effect on university students' learning of grammar. The results of my study also demonstrate that CS had no great impact on this aspect of learning English among university students. However, even though CS did not have a significant influence on university students' performance in grammar, it did not harm their performance. In other words, CS might not have a great impact on university students' learning grammar performance, but it still helped their learning of other skills, and it did not hurt their English grammar. Also, many other external factors might affect university students' performance, as discussed earlier in the previous section. Perhaps CS would have been able to help even their grammar if they had not experienced those external factors. I believe that CS will help university students to perform better if there are no external factors. Generally, CS had a significant impact on students' grammar learning at the other levels, and even though the university students showed the lowest improvement in learning grammar, they still benefited from Mixed CS.

8.2.3.4 Code-switching effects on writing

In terms of learning writing, across all ages, students in the Methodological CS group performed similarly to those students in the control group. However, Mixed CS had a significant effect on all ages (primary, intermediate, secondary, university). In the Methodological CS groups, I switched only to guide students in writing, translate the meaning of unfamiliar words and explain the topic to them. In addition to the purposes for which I switched in the Methodological CS groups, I also switched in the Mixed CS groups to encourage the students to write and to create a very interesting environment in which they could generate their ideas before they started to write. My results support those of several previous studies which suggest that CS is very valuable and plays an important role at the

pre-writing stage, where students gather their ideas (see 4.3.2.2) (e.g., Woodal, 2002; Beare & Bourdages, 2007; Weijen et al., 2009; Gort, 2012; Yigzaw, 2012). Weijen et al. (2009) stated that using CS in the teaching of foreign language writing, especially at the pre-writing stage, can help to generate ideas. It can also help with planning (Beare & Bourdages, 2007), reviewing (Woodal, 2002), and solving linguistic issues (Gort, 2012). Furthermore, Yigzaw (2012) found that using CS in the teaching of English writing has positive effects on secondary students' writing outcomes, particularly in terms of collecting ideas at the pre-writing stage, which enhances EFL secondary students' writing abilities and writing production. Thus, my results support these studies which suggest that CS is very helpful in improving students' writing skills, especially at the pre-stage of writing, not only for EFL secondary students, but also for other students of different ages.

Consequently, my results support these previous studies, as discussed in Section 4.3.2.2, which suggest that students need strong motivation to master writing, and that the topics also should be tailored to meet the needs of the students, allowing them to introduce their own thoughts (e.g., Klimova, 2012; Rao & Durga; 2018; Sukandi & Syafar, 2018). In my study, the topics were chosen from their textbooks, which had already been designed to meet students' needs and interests (see Sections 5.3 and 5.5). Even though these topics were interesting, and they were the same for all the groups at each level, only the Mixed CS groups showed a significant benefit in their writing outcomes.

The reason why Mixed CS was more useful in my study than Methodological CS could be related to students' motivation. Mixed CS might help to motivate students and create the right environment for planning and generating ideas, which is extremely valuable for encouraging them to practise writing, do their best for maximum benefit and improve their writing outcomes. It seems that the use of Mixed CS promoted a more relaxed atmosphere in the class and led to a more optimal learning environment. For example, the students in the Mixed CS groups were more engaged in the writing activities than the students in the other groups. Some students in the Mixed CS groups did some writing practice at home or during their break time at the school and they asked me to correct their writing and to give them other topics to write about for the next time; in fact, further writing practice could improve their performance in writing. Therefore, the social purposes I used in the Mixed CS groups could be very helpful for motivating the students to practise writing, which may improve their writing performance. Generally, Mixed CS can be very useful for learning writing for all ages.

8.2.3.5 Code-switching effects on listening

Concerning the listening skill, the results of my study showed that CS had the weakest impact on students' listening performance. Both Methodological CS and Mixed CS only had significant impacts on the intermediate students' listening performance, and particularly Mixed CS. In listening skill, I used Methodological CS to translate the meaning of unknown words and/or to explain the ideas in the texts the students listened to, while Mixed CS was used to create a friendly and interesting environment, in addition to the translation and explanation of words and ideas. I agree with Tian (2011), that CS can be used with the listening skill by explaining any vague vocabulary or ideas before and/or after listening. Tian (2011) found that using CS to clarify the meaning of vocabulary in a text can help university students' understanding of that text. My results concur with this, as they show that using CS to interpret not only the new vocabulary, but also the ideas, can increase students' comprehension of a text. Even though my results agree with those of Tian (2011), in my study, CS was more effective in improving the listening skills of young students rather than adults.

Additionally, in terms of learning listening, I also agree that interesting content and switching to explain complicated words and create a livelier environment that motivates students to listen, facilitates listening skill acquisition, as shown in Section 4.3.2.3. However, other external factors such as time pressure can affect listening even if the students enjoy the topic, have good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, and are motivated enough to listen. The reason why both categories of CS were very useful only for the intermediate students could be attributed to the external factors discussed above in Section 8.2.2, as these might have affected the listening results of the students of other ages.

These external factors might affect students' attention inside EFL classrooms. According to Tyagi (2013), it is essential to pay attention during active listening exercises to maintain focus; in other words, students should pay attention to what they are listening to in order to understand the speaker's speech. As mentioned earlier, some external and internal factors can affect students' attention in class; more specifically, if students' attention lapses when listening to a text, it would affect their understanding of that text. What makes both categories of CS work very well, especially with the intermediate students, is that they might not face certain external factors affecting their concentration. Unlike the intermediate students, there were some external factors that might have affected other students' attention,

as discussed in the previous section. Morning classes, not having exams in other subjects, and small class size might increase students' attention in the class. That is why both Methodological CS and Mixed CS might have had a significant impact on intermediate students' listening outcomes compared to other age levels. Additionally, the most notable finding here is that Mixed CS has a greater impact on intermediate students' listening performance than Methodological CS, which shows the importance of the social purposes I used in the Mixed CS group, which could help to motivate students to listen and relieve the pressures on them. Even though the results did not show that Mixed CS had a significant impact on the listening performances of students of other ages, or on students' engagement in the listening activities compared to other students, this indicates the importance of social purposes in the Mixed CS groups. Generally, CS is highly efficient because, even if it does not always help listening due to its fragility, it never hurts it, and it does help other skills.

To conclude, CS had different effects on the learning of different English skills. Methodological CS had a great effect on certain skills, while Mixed CS had the strongest effect on almost all the English skills. The greatest effect of CS was on vocabulary and reading, followed by grammar, writing, and listening. A possible explanation for the different impacts of CS on English skills is that vocabulary is a discrete component, while reading depends greatly on understanding the vocabulary in the text. On the other hand, writing and listening require other features to be acquired, as already shown above.

At the end of this section, according to the results, we can conclude that the effects of CS varied as follows. Mixed CS was more effective in improving students' learning outcomes than Methodological CS. Across all the ages, Mixed CS was the most helpful for increasing students' performance in EFL classrooms. However, it was most beneficial for the intermediate and secondary students and the least for the university students. Also, although Mixed CS had the strongest influence on students' learning outcomes for the different English skills and components, it helped the most with vocabulary and reading and the least with listening.

The most notable finding was that both Methodological CS and Mixed CS had the greatest effect on intermediate students' outcomes in the different English skills. This can therefore lead us to surmise that certain external factors hindered learning for the students of other ages; in other words, as mentioned earlier, these might have affected the students' performance. However, CS generally, and Mixed CS in particular, had a positive effect on

all the students' outcomes, despite all the non-optimal conditions and the external factors that occurred in my study.

8.3. General discussion

The reasons why learners of all ages from all around the world wish to study English differ greatly. Some students only learn English because it is a mandatory subject in schools, as shown in my study, while studying English for others reflects some type of choice; additionally, some students need English for specific purposes related to their careers or lives. These different purposes of learning a language have an effect on what they want and need to learn, and they influence what they are taught. Learners who are living in an English-speaking country often learn what difficult words and phrases mean through their everyday study or work lives.

For those students who learn English because it is a mandatory subject in schools, learning a language, for the majority of students, is a slow and painful process, in which EFL teachers must try to do something to accelerate the pace of learning. Using CS for teaching English can help learners to achieve more communicative success in lessons and become more aware of the knowledge they need to acquire to learn different English skills more successfully. Many students do not learn languages well in the classroom; learning is easier on the street, in the workplace or community, but these opportunities are often not available in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, especially in some small cities; in these cities, the only way for students to practise English is inside the EFL classroom. In other words, the EFL classroom gives the students the opportunity to practise English. If the students experience FLA and have a fear of negative evaluation regarding their performance, they will not participate in the class and they will lose their chance to practise English, which may result in a low proficiency in English. Using CS to provide positive support to the students can help them to engage in the classroom activities and practise more English in the EFL classroom.

Moreover, learners need the motivation to learn different English skills. According to previous researchers such as Sukandi and Syafar (2018), Klimova (2014), and others, motivating learners to learn English is another way to develop different English skills. According to Bailey and Brown (1999), learning English as a subject can become frustrating and boring during the process of learning. In order to avoid routine in teaching and learning

English, the best way is to inject different activities that make the content interesting. In fact, as seen earlier, various researchers in the field support the use of interesting content for teaching different English skills because they believe that such content plays an important role in developing learners' English skills. Klimova (2014), Yurko and Styfanyshyn (2020), and Alrawashdeh and Al-zayed (2017) are examples of such studies that support the benefits of interesting content when learning a language.

Here in my study, the content I taught had already been chosen because I used students' textbooks. The designers of textbooks in Saudi Arabia have attempted to meet students' needs and interests (see Sections 5.3 and 5.5). Even though English education has received attention from the Saudi Ministry of Education to meet students' needs, English still suffers in EFL classrooms, as students lack the motivation to learn English. Since the key goal of this study is to determine whether and how CS can serve to improve English learning, I suggest that teacher's use of Mixed CS inside the EFL classroom is one way to increase motivation for learning English skills. The different purposes of CS that I used in Mixed CS while I was teaching English can help not only to facilitate and improve the outcomes of the students, but also to increase their engagement in the classroom, which gives them the chance to practise English. Therefore, a focus on using CS to build a good personal rapport between the students and the teacher, which is associated with meeting the students' emotional needs and creating an interesting and positive environment, might help to solve this issue of low motivation.

According to the results of my study, CS works well with one particular skill more than with other skills, and with one age level more than the other age levels. However, CS was generally useful for learning English at all ages and for different English skills. More specifically, Mixed CS played an important role in solving most of the issues that faced EFL students, as shown in Section 8.2.1. Moreover, even though there were external determinants such as external pressure, dealing with different classroom sizes, and various timetables, as discussed in Section 8.2.2, CS works very well even under non-optimal conditions, with some classes in the morning, and others in the afternoon. Related to this aspect, most past empirical research showed that students' concentration was often better during morning classes than during afternoon classes. Also, some students in my study faced external pressures such as having exams for other subjects scheduled after the EFL class. Research shows that these types of external pressure on students might influence their focus in the classroom. In addition, the number of students in each group was different. Previous studies

recommended having a small number of students in a class to increase students' achievements. Therefore, we can note that Mixed CS can improve students' English outcomes even with the effect of external factors as shown above. Mixed CS could also be a solution that reduces students' anxiety and increases their motivation to learn English, as it can enhance student's engagement and learning, as we have seen in this current study.

Not only have I shown that CS is highly beneficial in the EFL classroom, but also that it might be useful in other subjects too, such as business, science, accounting, and more (e.g., Uys & Van Dulm, 2011; Low, 2016; inter alia). In conclusion, CS is highly recommended inside the EFL classroom.

Chapter 9: Conclusion & Recommendations

The current study investigated whether using CS in the EFL classroom can help to improve students' performance inside the classroom. This chapter concludes the current study by summarising the aims, the methodology, and the findings of this thesis, as well as discussing the potential future implications of these findings for teaching English in Saudi EFL classrooms in future years.

9.1. Summary of aims and methodology

This research discusses whether CS can facilitate English learning in Saudi Arabia. First, I explored the differential effects of the various functions that CS can serve in the EFL classroom by distinguishing two main categories of CS: Methodological and Mixed. More specifically, my study aimed to test whether these two main categories had the same effect on students of different ages and how the various English skills and components could be impacted by them. I included students of all age levels (university, secondary, intermediate, primary) and compared the effect of CS across them, bearing in mind the fact that age can affect ability to learn a foreign language. Also, I tested the impact of CS on different English skills and components: vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening, since Saudi students' textbooks are designed to cover these different skills. Pre- and post-tests were conducted to address the aims of this thesis.

To summarise, the pre-tests and post-tests, which were taken before and after teaching, covered the topics of a chosen unit from the students' book. Five components were tested: vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, and listening. The students' scores in the exams were analysed by using the *R* programming environment, and then each skill was scored separately. First, the total change in the students' overall outcomes was analysed, followed by the analysis of the change in each English skill between the tests. The visualisation and statistical analysis of the students' scores on the whole tests and in each skill were discussed.

9.2. Summary of the findings

The results showed that CS can facilitate English learning and improve different English skills across all four ages. Both Methodological CS and Mixed CS groups improved students' performance, seen by comparing their results with the results of the control groups.

The results also showed that the effect of CS on students of different ages varied. Both intermediate and secondary students benefited from Methodological CS and Mixed CS more than university and primary students. Even though there were non-optimal conditions that could have affected the students' performance in the EFL classroom, Mixed CS worked very well in terms of improving the students' performance, as well as their engagement during the lesson, compared to Methodological CS.

As far as the different English skills and components are concerned, the results of this study showed that CS had different effects on the development of different English skills and components. Both Methodological CS and Mixed CS had the strongest impact on reading and vocabulary, while the slightest impact was on listening. However, CS generally, and Mixed CS in particular, had a positive impact on all the different English skills and components.

To conclude, students of different ages generally benefited from Methodological CS. However, Mixed CS had the greatest impact on the students' learning performance. It also helped improve the learning outcomes of different ages of students in different English skills and components.

9.3. Limitations, future directions and recommendations

In this section, I present the limitations that could be avoided in further research, followed by some recommendations for EFL teachers regarding the role of Mixed CS in learning English as a foreign language.

9.3.1. Limitations and future directions

There are some suggested directions for future projects which have arisen from the limitations of this present study.

First, even though the study tested the effect of CS on the outcomes of students of different ages, it did not include male participants. This means that the findings cannot be generalised to different ages of Saudi EFL male students. Consequently, it is better for future work to include male participants as well, to see if gender plays a role in the results of learning English while using CS.

In addition, the participants in this study were chosen from a small city in Saudi Arabia where the students did not have opportunities to practise English outside the classroom; therefore, the only place they used English was the English classroom. Even though the chosen classrooms reflect the real environment of most Saudi classrooms, especially those in small cities, the results cannot be generalised across all Saudi EFL students. This is due to the fact that some Saudi students' families are professors or professionals and have English language skills. These students might therefore be already motivated and have opportunities to speak English with their parents at home. Furthermore, some students in Saudi Arabia who live in the capital city or other large cities may have the opportunity to practise their English with foreign speakers. Accordingly, future research could include different classrooms from different cities with different types of Saudi families, in order to see the effect of CS with students who might have the opportunity to use English outside the classroom.

There were other factors that might have narrowed down the results of my study. I examined the effect of CS on students' performance by teaching only one chosen unit from a student's textbook. There were four to five lessons chosen, considered short units due to their limited information. Besides that, I spent only two weeks teaching one unit. This period of teaching is also considered short. Since I organised my study for only one unit to be taught over two weeks, the recalling of knowledge involved only short-term recalling. In other words, testing the effect of CS on the recall of long-term knowledge would tell us whether the effects of CS are long lasting or short-term benefits. Future research could therefore consider follow-up testing after longer time intervals, which would reveal the longevity of the effect of CS.

Furthermore, I was limited by the Saudi government's curriculum. This is due to the fact that it would not have been possible for me to embed myself inside the chosen classrooms if I had not been teaching these curricula; I thus had to use the materials designed and approved by the Saudi Ministry of Education. Applying my study to different materials that could be

very new to the students might affect the results of the study. So, future studies might look at the effect of CS by choosing different materials.

Moreover, I was the only teacher in this study, and I held the belief that CS was very helpful. Since I was the teacher and the researcher, who hold different roles – as already discussed in Section 6.5.1.1 on positionality – that might affect the results. These results would be strengthened if they were replicated with different teachers who were not also the researcher. Thus, future research could consider having multiple teachers employing the same pattern who are training to code-switch in a controlled manner. Furthermore, using different teachers would address a further weakness in this study. Since I am female, I could not teach male students and my findings only applied to female students. Bringing in male teachers would allow me to determine whether the benefits of CS switching apply to male students as well as female students. This is important because social relationships between male students and male teachers might be quite different from those between female students and female teachers. It would therefore be interesting to explore what Mixed CS, which exploits those social relationships, looks like in an all-male context, and whether its effects can be generalised. Future research, especially in Saudi Arabia, could consider including male teachers and schools for boys.

In this study, I used the same pre-test and post-test across all the age levels in order to measure the students' knowledge of the different English skills and components. Even though the repetition of pre- and post-tests was a great way to control for the elements I was concerned about in this study, as already discussed in Section 6.3.2, having different pre- and post-tests could produce different results. Therefore, future research might consider using different pre- and post-tests, or different measures of the proficiency in each English skill. Because I applied my study inside Saudi classrooms where the policies of the Ministry of Education mandated that students' proficiency be assessed in exams, I followed the same pattern. As the goal of this study is to determine the effect of CS on students' performance inside Saudi English classrooms, using the same standard that is common and mandated in Saudi classrooms helped me to establish whether CS can be observed in that context. However, performance in state-mandated tests is only one component of proficiency. Future research should examine whether the benefits of CS can be observed in other measures of proficiency.

Due to the fact that testing students' performance in speaking requires different types of measures and its time consuming, I could not test the students' performance in speaking and pronunciation. Future research could consider looking at the effect of CS on students' speaking and pronunciation as well.

Moreover, class size plays an important role in learning a foreign language. The number of students within a group in my study varied; some were large classes, such as the university groups, while others included the standard number of students, as supported by previous research. The times of the English classes in my study were also not consistent. Some classes were in the morning and others were in the afternoon. These factors and others as already discussed in Section 6.4.1 were out of the teacher's control.

It is important to be aware of the fact that the factors discussed above might have impacted the results. However, these factors are also an unavoidable component of the real teaching context in Saudi Arabia. Controlling these circumstances very precisely, if it was possible, might give results that are not practical in an actual teaching context. Subsequently, these uncontrolled external factors suggest that the thesis findings can provide practicable and robust recommendations for pedagogical practice. These are elaborated on in the following section.

9.3.2. Recommendations for teaching English as a foreign language

The results of this study showed that Methodological CS was valuable for low attainment students in English. However, students benefited from Mixed CS more than Methodological CS, as Mixed CS strongly affected their performance inside the EFL classroom.

Generally, Mixed CS can be highly beneficial for students of different ages. However, in this study it had a strong impact on students aged between 13 and 18 years old. Also, Mixed CS can help students to improve all of their English skills and components generally, but the results showed that it had stronger effects on reading and vocabulary. Therefore, Mixed CS can be a good teaching strategy and EFL teachers can use it for various valuable functions.

- Mixed CS can be used to build strong relationships with students by creating a warm and friendly environment that might help students to feel less anxious and more relaxed inside the EFL classroom (see Section 8.2.1).

- Mixed CS can be used to introduce teachers' care about their students, which might increase students' engagement in the EFL classroom, as well improve their motivation to learn English.
- EFL teachers should be more aware of students' unwillingness to interact in the foreign language classroom because of the fear of negative evaluation. Mixed CS can be used to evaluate students' performance in a gentle manner, using kind words that they understand to correct their mistakes. Using the L1 to give them feedback, evaluate their performance, or correct their mistakes means that the comments are more accessible to students, and it avoids misunderstanding. In other words, Mixed CS can help to create a supportive and lively environment. It can also encourage students to participate even if they provide wrong answers, and build up their confidence in their ability to do well in English classes.
- EFL teachers should be aware that students sometimes feel bored or do not pay attention. Therefore, using Mixed CS to tell humorous stories or share local jokes when necessary and suitable to the topic of the lesson can change their mood, refresh them, and create a very interesting environment. Using the L1 here means that the language is more accessible to students and keeps them focused. In other words, making students laugh helps them to be more relaxed and helps to build positive relationships. When students' needs are met in a place where they feel that they belong and are loved, they can learn at an astounding rate.
- All EFL teachers have had difficult and funny experiences while they were learning the English language. Switching to Arabic to share these personal experiences with students when appropriate or suitable to introduce the discussed topics might show them that they can be good at English, and that they have the ability to learn even better than us. Sharing experiences of learning English can help to create a supportive atmosphere for students, with the help of positive interpersonal behaviours, and this can encourage students and build their self-confidence.
- Saudi EFL teachers know that social media trends, especially local ones, attract teenagers. Using Mixed CS to discuss these local trends when they are related to the topic of the class/lecture can also change students' moods, refresh them, increase their attention in the classroom and motivate them to participate.
- Saudi EFL teachers know that English will be a part of almost all future careers in Saudi Arabia, in line with recent policies. Bearing in mind that for most Saudi students the EFL classroom is the only place where they can practise English, students should be motivated to learn English. Using Mixed CS to create a positive

environment, which increases students' motivation, can help them to practise their English in the EFL classroom.

Switching to the L1 for all these purposes improves students' understanding, especially for students who have a low attainment in English, and it has a strong effect on them since many of the local and cultural Arabic expressions are very difficult to translate into English; even if they are translated, they lose their effective meaning. Therefore, teachers code-switch in the EFL classroom to praise students' efforts, thank them for their participation, use gentle and kind words to evaluate their performance or correct their mistakes, encourage them to practise English, tell a joke or discuss social media trends, and/or narrate funny or difficult interpersonal experiences, which may be very helpful in terms of creating a humorous and interesting environment. Creating this kind of environment through the use of CS could be very useful to build self-confidence, relieve students' levels of anxiety, and motivate them to learn English, which may improve their English and change their attitudes towards the learning of the English language.

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Appendix A: Permissions and Forms

A. The permission for applying the study at the schools.

Arabic Version (The Original)

<p>الرقم: 415</p> <p>التاريخ: 1441/02/03</p> <p>المشروعات:</p> <p>الموضوع: تسهيل مهمة الباحث: إيمان عبدالرحمن عبدالمحسن الزهراني</p> <p>في تطبيق دراسة علمية (دكتوراه)</p>	 <p>وزارة التعليم Ministry of Education</p>	<p>المملكة العربية السعودية</p> <p>وزارة التعليم</p> <p>الإدارة العامة للتعليم بمحافظة الطائف</p> <p>إدارة التخطيط والمعلومات</p> <p>البحوث والدراسات</p>
<p>..... المكرمة قائدة مدرسة</p>		
<p>وفقكم الله</p>		
<p>إيمان عبدالرحمن عبدالمحسن الزهراني</p>		<p>اسم الباحث</p>
<p>University of Glasgow</p>		<p>الجامعة</p>
<p>Applied Linguistics</p>	<p>التخصص</p>	<p>School of Critical Studies</p>
<p>دكتوراه</p>		<p>الغرض من الدراسة</p>
<p>Code-switching and its function in Saudi bilingual classrooms</p>		<p>عنوان الدراسة</p>
<p>طلقات</p>	<p>عينة الدراسة</p>	<p>أدوات الدراسة</p>
<p>السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته,,, وبعد:</p> <p>فبناءً على ما تقدّم به الباحث الموضح اسمه أعلاه لتطبيق</p> <p>الأداة الخاصة بدراسته, ونظراً لاكتمال إجراءات الدراسة نأمل منكم تسهيل</p> <p>مهمته في التطبيق على العينة المشار إليها .</p> <p>شاكرين لكم ومقدرين تعاونكم ,,,</p> <p>المدير العام للتعليم بمحافظة الطائف</p> <p style="text-align: center; margin-top: 20px;">أ. طلال مبارك اللهيبي</p>		

English Version (Translated)

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Education
General Administration of Education in Taif
Planning and Information Department
Research and studies



Number: 415
Date:
Subject: Facilitating research task:
Eman Alzahrani in applying a
scientific study (PhD)

Dear School Principal:

Researcher Name:	Eman Abdulrahman Alzahrani		
University:	University of Glasgow		
College:	College of Arts - School of Critical Study		
Purpose of study:	PhD collecting data	Specialization:	English Language & Linguistics
Title of study	The role of code switching in Saudi bilingual classroom.		
Tool of study:	Pre- & post-tests	Sample of study:	Students

Peace and blessings be upon you:

Based on what has been submitted by the researcher named above to apply the tool for her study, and regarding the completion of the study procedures, we hope that you will facilitate her task in applying her study on the chosen sample.

Thank you and appreciate your cooperation.

General Director of Education in Taif

Mr. Talal Al-lihaibi

B. The form of consent to participate in scientific research.

Arabic Version (The Original)

نموذج موافقة على المشاركة في بحث علمي

حول نموذج الموافقة:

يرجى قراءة هذا النموذج بعناية. سنقوم بإخبارك بمعلومات مهمة حول دراسة بحثية. إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة حول البحث أو حول هذا النموذج، يرجى التواصل مع الباحث، وبيانات الباحث ستجدها داخل النموذج. إذا قررت المشاركة في هذه الدراسة البحثية، فيجب عليك قراءة هذا النموذج أولاً ثم التوقيع على هذا النموذج لإظهار رغبتك في المشاركة. سنقدم لك نسخة من هذا النموذج للاحتفاظ بها.

عنوان الدراسة: تأثير استخدام اللغة العربية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية داخل الفصول الدراسية بالسعودية
اسم الباحث الرئيسي: إيمان عبد الرحمن الزهراني

لماذا يتم إجراء هذه الدراسة البحثية؟

البحث عبارة عن دراسة كيفية استخدام اللغة العربية في تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية، وما مدى تأثيرها على المخرج التعليمي للطلاب، وما إذا كان هناك فروقات واختلافات في استخدام اللغة العربية في صفوف اللغة الإنجليزية بين الأعمار المختلفة وفي تدريس مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية المختلفة. لذا سيتم إجراء هذا البحث لمعرفة ما إذا كان استخدام اللغة العربية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية أداة فعالة لتطوير أداء الطالب.

ماذا سيحدث في هذه الدراسة البحثية؟

عينة البحث المستهدفة هي الطالبات في المراحل المختلفة، وسيتم تدريس صف اللغة الإنجليزية في ثلاث مدارس مختلفة (ابتدائية، متوسطة، ثانوية) بالإضافة لطالبات الجامعة، وسيتم تدريس وحدة كاملة من مناهج اللغة الإنجليزية في السعودية لبعض من الصفوف المختارة في مدينة الطائف. هناك نوعين مختلفين متضمنة الأغراض المختلفة لاستخدام اللغة العربية في تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية، وفي هذه الدراسة سيتم تدريس ثلاث فصول مختلفة من كل مرحلة دراسية. سيتم استخدام نوع واحد في الفصل الأول، والنوع الآخر سيتم استخدامه في الفصل الثاني، أما الفصل الثالث فلن يتم استخدام أيًا من هذين النوعين، وسيكون التدريس في هذا الفصل فقط باللغة الإنجليزية بدون استخدام اللغة العربية.

إذا تمت الموافقة على المشاركة في البحث، سيتم إجراء اختبار للطالب قبل البدء في تدريس الوحدة المختارة للتدريس ثم بعد الانتهاء من الوحدة سيتم إعادة إجراء الاختبار للطالب لمعرفة ما إذا كانت هذه الأغراض المستخدمة في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية لها منافع على أداء الطالب. أيضاً سيكون هناك تسجيل صوتي للوحدة الدراسية كاملة لغرض البحث.

ماهي المدة التي ستستغرقها المشاركة في الدراسة البحثية؟

سيتم تدريس الوحدة المختارة في ثمان حصص موزعة خلال أسبوعان إلى أربعة أسابيع.

ماذا عن خصوصية المشارك في البحث؟

لن يستمع أحد للتسجيلات الصوتية سوى الباحث ولن يتم نشرها ؛ وسيتم استخدام التسجيلات فقط للتأكد من استخدام أغراض التدريس المختلفة وإعطاء أمثلة عليها في البحث. لن يطلع أحد على اختبارات الطلاب وأسمائهم سوى الباحث ولن يتم نشرها ؛ ولكن سيتم استخدام درجات الطلاب في كلا الاختبارين من أجل غرض تحليل البيانات وسيتم نشرها في مرفقات البحث بأسماء مستعارة وإمكانية مشاركتها في البحوث العلمية.

من سيقوم بتدريس الفئة المستهدفة؟

الباحثة نفسها ستكون المعلمة حيث أنها متخرجة من جامعة الطائف بتخصص لغة إنجليزية، وحاصلة على دبلوم تربوي في البرنامج العام للتربية، كما أنها حصلت على درجة الماجستير في تخصص اللغويات التطبيقية من جامعة فلورتن الأمريكية، ولديها خبرة كمعلمة لغة إنجليزية من خلال تدريسها سنتين في جامعة الطائف. خلال السنتين حصلت الباحثة على دورات تخصص طرق تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية بإشراف من جامعة كامبردج البريطانية.

ماهي أسباب اختيار هذه الفئة المستهدفة؟

تم اختيار المدارس عشوائياً من قبل الأستاذة/ فاطمة محمد الصخيري (رئيسة قسم الإشراف التربوي بإدارة التعليم بمحافظة الطائف ، ايميل: fsukhairi@hotmail.com ، هاتف: 0595991246) وستكون الدراسة تحت إشرافها أيضاً.

ماهي المخاطر والمنافع المتوقعة من التواجد في هذه الدراسة البحثية؟

هذا البحث لا يشمل مخاطر متوقعة. ولن يحصل الطالب على فوائد مباشرة من البحث ولكن سيكون جزء من تطوير استراتيجيات تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في المستقبل.

ماهي طريقة التواصل في حال وجود سؤال أو استفسار؟

يمكنك التواصل مع الباحث عن طريق رقم الهاتف أو عنوان البريد الإلكتروني
(e.alzahrani.1@research.gla.ac.uk)

إذا وافقت على المشاركة، فلن يتضمن هذا المشروع أي التزام بوقت إضافي من جانبك؛ وستقدم مساهمات قيمة للبحث من خلال كونك جزءاً منه.

موافقة وتوقيع المشارك في البحث:

حصلت على شرح مفصل عن الدراسة وأهدافها وإجراءاتها، ومنافعها، وعن الحرية الكاملة للمشاركة. أفهم كل المعلومات التي قدمت ووصلتني إجابة على كل أسئلتي. أوافق على أن أشارك في هذه الدراسة بطوعية وبدون أي نوع من الإجبار أو الضغوط. أفهم أن بإمكانني التوقف عن المشاركة في أي وقت.

موافقة ولي أمر المشارك/

الاسم:

التوقيع:

التاريخ:

موافقة المشارك/

الاسم:

التوقيع:

التاريخ:

أعلم أنه سيتم تسجيل الحصة الدراسية بالصوت كجزء من هذه الدراسة. أوافق على تسجيلي بالصوت بطوعية وبدون أي نوع من الإجبار أو الضغوط. أفهم أن بإمكانني التوقف عن المشاركة في أي وقت.

موافقة ولي أمر المشارك/

الاسم:

التوقيع:

التاريخ:

موافقة المشارك/

الاسم:

التوقيع:

التاريخ:

أعلم أنه سيتم استخدام درجات الاختبار في تحليل البيانات كجزء من هذه الدراسة ونشرها أو مشاركتها بأسماء مستعارة في مرفقات البحث.

أوافق على استخدام درجاتي ونشرها باسم مستعار بطوعية وبدون أي نوع من الإجبار أو الضغوط. أفهم أن بإمكانني التوقف عن المشاركة في أي وقت.

موافقة ولي أمر المشارك/

الاسم:

التوقيع:

التاريخ:

موافقة المشارك/

الاسم:

التوقيع:

التاريخ:

شكراً لك لمساعدتك لي في مسيرتي التعليمية.

*English Version (Translated)***A form of consent to participate in scientific research****About this consent form:**

Please read this form carefully. It provides you with important information about a research study. If you have any questions about the research or about this form, please contact the researcher. If you decide to take part in this research study, you must first read this form, then sign the form to show that you are interested in participating. We will give you a copy of this form to keep.

Study title: The role of code-switching in Saudi EFL classrooms.

Researcher's Name: Eman Alzahrani.

Why is this research study being done?

The study is about how Arabic language is used in teaching English language, the extent of its impact on the educational output of students, and whether code-switching affect the same among different ages and in teaching of different English language skills. Therefore, the research aims to find out whether the use of Arabic language in teaching English is an effective tool for improving student's performance.

What will happen in this research study?

The sample of the study is female students from different stages. English language will be taught in three different schools (Primary, Intermediate, and Secondary) as well as the University, and a whole unit of English language curricula in Saudi Arabia will be taught to these different stages.

There are two different categories including the different purposes of teacher's use of code-switching inside EFL classrooms. There will be three groups in each stage. The two categories will be divided into the two groups, while the third group will be taught without using code-switching.

If you agree to participate in the research, a test will be conducted for the student before teaching of the chosen unit, and then after completing the unit, the test will be repeated for the student to see if the use of code-switching has benefits for the student's performance or not. There will also be an audio recording of the whole class for the purpose of the study.

How long will it take to participate in this research study?

The chosen unit will be taught in eight lessons spread over two to four weeks.

What about the privacy of participants?

The audio recordings will only be heard by the researcher and will not be published. The records will only be used to double-check that the researcher followed the procedure that she had designed earlier, and to give examples of the various purposes of code-switching in the research.

Only the researcher will see the students' exams and their names, and they will not be published. However, students' scores on both tests will be used for the purpose of data analysis and there is a possibility to be published in the research attachments under pseudonyms or shared with scholarly research.

Who will teach the target sample?

The researcher will be the teacher as she is a graduate of Taif University with a major in English, and she holds an educational diploma in the general program of education. She also obtained a master's degree in applied linguistics from California state university, Fullerton, and she has an experience in teaching English since she was an English instructor at Taif University for two years. During the two years, the researcher took courses on English language teaching methods under the supervision of the University of Cambridge, United Kingdom.

What are the reasons for choosing this particular sample?

The schools were chosen randomly by Mrs./ Fatima Muhammad Al-Sukhairi (Head of the Educational Supervision Department at the Education Department in Taif, email: fsukhairi@hotmail.com, Tel: 0595991246). The study will also be under her supervision.

What are the possible risks and benefits from being in this research study?

This study will not provide direct benefits to you. However, your participation will contribute to a better understanding of the use of code-switching.

If I have questions or concerns about this research study, whom can I call?

You can contact the researcher with your questions or concerns on her email (e.alzaghrani.1@research.gla.ac.uk) or call her on her telephone number is listed below. Ask questions as often as you want. You can also contact Mrs/ Fatima Al-Sukhairi and her contact information is above.

If you agree to participate, this project does not involve any additional time commitment on your part. You will make valuable contributions to the research by being a part of it.

Approval and signature of the participant in the research:

I obtained a detailed explanation of the study, its objectives, procedures, benefits and complete freedom to participate.

I understand all the information provided and have received answers to all my questions.

I agree to participate in this study voluntarily and without any kind of coercion or pressure.

I understand that I can stop participating at any time.

Participant approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

Participant's parent approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

I know that the class will be recorded as part of this study.

I agree to be recorded voluntarily without any kind of compulsion or pressure. I understand that I can stop participating at any time.

Participant approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

Participant's parent approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

I know that tests' scores will be used in data analysis as part of this study and may be published or shared under pseudonyms.

I agree to use and publish my scores under a pseudonym voluntarily and without any kind of coercion or pressure. I understand that I can stop participating at any time.

Participant approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

Participant's parent approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

Thank you for taking the time to be a participant in my project and assist me in my educational endeavours.

I know that the class will be recorded as part of this study.

I agree to be recorded voluntarily without any kind of compulsion or pressure. I understand that I can stop participating at any time.

Participant approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

Participant's parent approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

I know that tests' scores will be used in data analysis as part of this study and may be published or shared under pseudonyms.

I agree to use and publish my scores under a pseudonym voluntarily and without any kind of coercion or pressure. I understand that I can stop participating at any time.

Participant approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

Participant's parent approval/

Name:

Date:

Sign:

Thank you for taking the time to be a participant in my project and assist me in my educational endeavours.

Appendix B: Sample of the used materials

A) Example of a student book for the University stage.


9

Getting around

9.1 goal
 get information in places you visit

How do you get there?

VOCABULARY
Using transport



Vijay from London, England

- Match the questions with Vijay's answers a-e.
- How do you get to the city centre?
- How do you get to the shops?
- How do you usually get to work?
- How do you get to your closest friend's home?
- How do you get to the airport?

a Well, it's a bit difficult to get there by public transport, so I usually walk. He rides a motorbike and that's how he gets to my place.









c I drive because I usually buy more than I can carry.

b Well, I usually get the underground because it's cheaper. But if it's a business trip, I get a taxi.

d I get the train. I hate driving on crowded roads and it's difficult to park in the centre.

e I cycle most days but if I'm late, I get the bus.


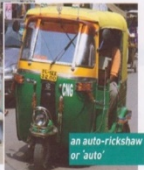
- Match the **highlighted** verbs and expressions with pictures 1-8.

b Listen to check.

c What other kinds of transport do you know? *scooter, the Metro*

9.1

an auto-rickshaw or 'auto'

VOCABULARY
 Getting information
 best know near nearest take can

Asking where something is

Is there a cash machine here?

Are there any bookshops here?

Where's the nicksnaw stop?

Asking how to get there

What's the way to get there?

How long does it take?

Is there a bus?

Asking when it's open

Do you open when it's open?

- Complete the questions from Meera and Vijay's conversation with these words.

best know near nearest take can

b Add these questions to the correct groups in 3a.

Is it far? What time does it open?
 Where can I buy some shoes?
 How far is it?

- Complete the questions in the conversations.

1

A: Where's the nearest bus stop?

B: It's on Station Road.

A: What's the nearest?

B: Oh, you can walk.

A: How far is it?

B: About half a kilometre.

2

A: Is there a bank near?

B: Not really. The nearest one is next to the train station.

A: Is it far?

B: It's better to get the metro.

A: How long does it take?

B: About fifteen minutes.

3

A: Where's the nearest shop?

B: The best shoe shop is Peter's.

A: Is it open?

B: No, it's a ten-minute walk.

A: What time does it open?

B: It opens at nine-thirty.

b Listen to check.

PRONUNCIATION
 Sentence stress and /ə/

- Underline the stressed syllables in 4a, conversation 1. Then mark the schwa sounds with /ə/.

A: Where's the nearest bus stop?

B: It's on Station Road.

A: What's the nearest shop?

B: The best shoe shop is Peter's.

A: Is it open?

B: No, it's a ten-minute walk.

A: What time does it open?

B: It opens at nine-thirty.

b Look at the script on p154 to check. Practise saying the conversation in pairs.

- Practise all the conversations in 4a, changing the **highlighted** words.

Where's the nearest cinema?

It's on 127th Street.

Excuse me. Where's the nearest train station?

It's on Park Street.

SPEAKING

- Think of three places you might need to find when you're visiting a new place. For example:

- a bank
- a hotel

- a post office
- the tourist information office

- a supermarket
- a train station

- gift shops

b You leave the building you're in now. Stop another student to ask for information.

c Ask your questions again to another student. Are the answers the same?

A visitor in Lucknow

75

B) Example of a student book for the Secondary stage.

Lesson 2 Knowing the market

2 In fashion

1 Word builder: fashion

a Complete the text with phrases from the box.

haute couture	mass market
ready-to-wear	

There are three main categories of fashion design:
 1 _____: the type of fashion design which was most influential until the 1950s was 'made-to-measure' or _____, (French for high-fashion). The term made-to-measure can also be used for any garment that is created for an individual client.
 2 _____: these clothes are not made for individual customers, but great care is taken in the choice and cut of the fabric. Clothes are made in small quantities to guarantee exclusivity, so they are rather expensive.
 3 _____: nowadays the fashion industry relies more on _____ sales. The _____ caters for a wide range of customers, producing clothes in large quantities and standard sizes. Cheap materials, creatively used, produce affordable fashion. Designers often adapt the designs created by the famous names in fashion.



2 Speaking and writing

a In groups, find someone who has had clothes made specially for him / her. What did he / she have made? What would you choose if you had the opportunity?

b Imagine you've been invited to a special event and need a new garment, which you are having specially made. Write an email to a friend describing the event and your new garment, giving details of fabric and colour. Start your email 'I've been invited ... We've been asked to wear ...'

Learning tip

To understand and learn vocabulary, you often need to use several strategies together, e.g. noting context, and checking in your dictionary. Sometimes, for instance, you may think you know the meaning of a word only to find that, in context, it has a different meaning. Compare the word **market** in these sentences:

*I bought some eggs on the **market**.*

*We're going to **market** the new product next year.*

*The fashion industry relies on mass **market** sales.*

Knowing the market Lesson 2

3 Reading and speaking



a Read the article and complete it with numbers from the box.

20th	17th	300
\$450	1848	

b Calvin Klein - Jeans

In pairs, think of manufacturers of other top-of-the-market products (e.g. watches, cars). Say the names of the manufacturers to another pair and they must answer with the products.

Nowadays, jeans are in the USA as early as the (2) _____ century, they really took off after gold had been discovered in California in (3) _____, and the miners created a demand for cheap but hard-wearing trousers. For decades after this jeans were associated with manual labourers. Who would have thought that, by the end of the (4) _____ century, a pair of designer jeans could easily cost (5) _____ and be worn on the most stylish occasions?

GRAMMAR GUIDE: different passive forms

a In pairs, write as many different sentences as you can using the underlined words in the example, a different verb tense, and a phrase from the box.

next year	last year	so far this year
around the world at this very moment		
before mass market clothes became popular		

Many new haute couture fashions are created every year.

b Complete the sentences below using the correct forms of the words in brackets.

- Designer jeans _____ (can / wear) in most situations.
- Hasn't Martha had her exam results yet? Surely she _____ (should / tell) by now.
- Why are you holding that book so close to your face? You really _____ (must / your eyes / tested) soon.
- You _____ (can / your trousers / alter) if you think they're too long.
- I think I _____ (should / my hair / cut). It keeps getting in my eyes.

Language assistant

Remember that the passive puts the focus on the **receiver** of the action.

The dress was made by a famous designer.

The active, on the other hand, puts the focus on the **doer** of the action.

A famous designer made the dress.


Note also the **have + past participle** structure related to the passive:

*She **had** the dress **designed** for her.*

C) Example of a student book for the Intermediate stage.

Unit 8

Spare time



LESSON 3 *Holiday time*

1 Say.

a) Where do you go on holiday?
b) What do you do there?
c) Where would you *like* to go?

2 Read, write and say.

a) Charlie and his family go on holiday every summer. Where do they go? Read and answer.

COME TO

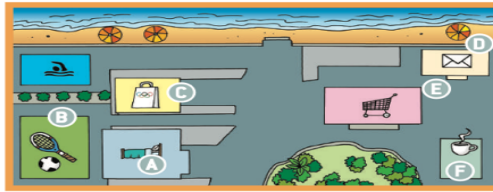
THE ISLAND HOLIDAY VILLAGE

FOR A GREAT TIME!

We have something for all the family!

Sports
The hotel is in the middle of the holiday village. Next to the hotel we have a fitness centre where you can exercise and do other sports. There is a shop next to the fitness centre with sports equipment. Next to the shop is a fantastic swimming pool.

Shopping
There is a bank and a supermarket opposite the beach.



Eating
There is a restaurant in the hotel for breakfast, lunch and dinner. There is also a snack bar. You can also have a snack in the Café in the Park. Or you can order a picnic from the hotel and eat it on the beach.

b) Label A–F with the correct words.

café hotel post office fitness centre
 sports shop supermarket

A _____

B _____

C _____

D _____

E _____

F _____

It's in the middle of the holiday village.

It's ...

70

Unit 8 • Lesson 3

Unit 8 • Spare time • LESSON 3

3 Look, listen and say. Track 48

a) Look at Charlie's holiday picture of friends. Describe them.

b) Listen and read. Which boys in the picture does Fred ask about first?

Fred: Who's that boy over there?
Charlie: Sorry Fred. Can you say that again? Which boy?
Fred: Who's that boy with the dark hair.
Charlie: There are two boys with dark hair.
Fred: The one standing next to the table.
Fred: And who's that boy sitting at the table?
Charlie: Pardon. Could you repeat that, please?
Fred: Of course. Who's the boy with the blond hair?
Charlie: There are two boys with blond hair.
Fred: I mean the one holding some juice and wearing a green shirt.



c) Read. What two things did Charlie say when he didn't hear Fred?

4 LOOK!

Sorry. Can you say that again?
Could you repeat that, please?



5 Write.

Make one sentence.

- I know the boy. He's wearing black trousers.
I know the boy in black trousers.
- Who's the girl? She's taking a photo.

- Who's the woman? She's standing with Ranya.

- Look at the man. He's driving the red car.

- I know the boys. They're talking to Omar.

- I can see a girl. She's eating ice cream.

CHECK

see Workbook pp142–143

Unit 8 • Lesson 3

71

D) Example of a student book for the Primary stage.

5

Tom's house

Lesson Link



www.ien.edu.sa

Lesson 1

1 Listen and find. 



2 Listen and say.  



32

1 Listening; reading: understand the main idea in short monologues; identify and talk about rooms in a house

2 Listening; speaking: respond to simple questions with basic information

5

Lesson 2

Lesson Link



www.ien.edu.sa

1 Read and match. Write. Listen and say.    

chair desk bed lamp rug books

1



This is a _____.

2



This is a _____.

3



This is a _____.

4



This is a _____.

5



These are _____.

6



This is a _____.

2 Read and say in pairs.  



Is this your lamp?



No, it isn't.
It's my mother and father's lamp.



It's their lamp.






34

1 Reading; listening; speaking: understand and say basic descriptions

2 Reading; speaking: ask and answer questions about ownership

Appendix C: Pre- and post-test Forms

1) Pre & Post-test for Primary Stage

1. LISTENING: (5 marks)

You will hear six words. Listen and number. You will hear the listening twice.







5







2. READING: (5 marks)

Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:

My name is Sara and I'm 9 years old. My classroom is big and nice. Our teacher is Miss Rachel, and she likes decorating the walls of the class with posters. There are ten desks in the classroom. In our class, there is a computer and a blackboard. The teacher's desk is beside the blackboard. There is also a bookcase, and you can see four books on the shelves. There are nine students in our classroom.

My desk and my chair are brown. On my desk, I have my pencil case, it is colourful. In my pencil case, I have two pencils and a purple pen.

1. How many desks are in the classroom?

.....

2. Where is the teacher's desk?

.....

3. How many pupils are in the classroom?

.....

4. What colour are the desk and the chair of Sara?

.....

5. What does Sara have in her pencil case?

.....

5

3. VOCABULARY: (5 marks)

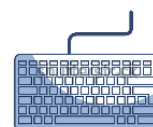
Fill in the blanks with a correct word:

1. These are three.....



2. This is a.....

3. I always use the.....to write on the computer.



4. These are the best..... in the classroom.

5. This is my.....



5

4. GRAMMAR: (5 marks)

Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, the words in the box may help you:

(This is, These are, That is, Those are, How many, my, his, her, your)

1. my computer.



5

2. My best friend is Rami. This is uncle.

3. a chair.



4. pupils are there?



5. my pencils.

**5. WRITING:** (5 marks)

- Order the words and punctuate the sentences.

1. are / three / black / These / chairs

.....

5

2. is / my / That / laptop

.....

- Look at the picture and try to describe the classroom. Write only three complete simple sentences.



.....

.....

.....

.....

2) Pre & Post-test for Intermediate Stage

1. LISTENING: (Track:42) (5 marks)

You will listen to a description for the following five pictures. Try to write one sentence describing each picture. You will hear the recording twice.



5

2. READING: (5 marks)

Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:

5

On Saturday 15th June 1991 a volcano called Mount Pinatubo erupted. Mount Pinatubo is in The Philippine Islands in the Pacific Ocean.

The eruption lasted for nine hours and by Sunday 16th 800 people were dead, but this was not the end of the problem. First, gas and ashes came out of Pinatubo and rose 34 km into the sky. The gas was Sulphur dioxide (SO₂). Between 15 and 30 million tonnes of SO₂ went up into the air. It formed an enormous cloud. This cloud travelled slowly round the world and produced serious climate change. The heat from the sun could not get through the cloud and the world's climate got cooler. In 1992 North America had the coldest, wettest winter for 77 years, and in March 1993 there were serious floods near the River Mississippi. In September 1993 in Africa the change was different. The Sahel Desert in North Africa had even less rain than usual. There was a very serious drought. Most climate change is man-made but natural events can also cause large and more sudden changes.

- Complete the following table:

Date	What happened?
1. 15th June 1991	
2.	800 people died

- Are the following statements true (T) or false (F), if the sentence is false, correct the mistakes in:

3. The eruption lasted for 9 hours and by Sunday 16th 800 people were dead. ()

.....

4. The Sahel Desert in North Africa had too much water than usual. ()

.....

5. Natural events is the most climate change. ()

.....

3. VOCABULARY: (5 marks)

- Choose the correct alternative:

1. Sara threw some old bottles in the *rubbish/recycle* bin and put some old magazines in the *rubbish/recycle* bin.

2. When I brush my teeth, I *turn on/turn off* the tap and when I go to sleep, I *turn on/turn off* the lights.

3. Next week, James will start to learn how to *cycle/drive* the car.

5

- Fill in the blanks with a suitable word:

4. are made of leather. You can wear them on your feet in the mountains.

5. is made of plastic. It's round and you can listen to it.

4. GRAMMAR: (5 marks)

Complete the sentences using the appropriate modals from the box.:

(can, can't – could, couldn't – may, mayn't – might, mightn't– should, shouldn't)

1. Close the window! The parrot escape.

2. I didn't hear what you said. you please repeat it again?

3. When you start to study, you listen to music.

4. When I was two years old, I swim.

5. Yasser passed the exam of driver's licence, so now he drive his new car.

5

5. WRITING: (5 marks)

- Order the words and punctuate the sentences.

1. paper / you / both / should / write / on / the / sides / of

.....

2. should / you / outside / garden / the / in / your / clothes / dry

.....

- Write three advice for your friend about any topic. Using your own ideas.

.....

.....

.....

5

3) Pre & Post-test for Secondary Stage

1. LISTENING: (5 marks)

You will hear a radio interview with a marketing expert. The listening will be played twice.

a: Answer the following questions:

5

1. What is the occupation of Milton Knowles?

.....

2. What are the four Ps?

.....

b: Put True if the sentence is correct and put False if it is wrong, then correct it.

3. Because not all people are rich, there are many models of phones with various prices.
()

.....

4. Holiday destinations are often advertised in magazines. ()

.....

5. Since people are looking for a way of entertaining themselves during journeys, they buy magazines at train stations and airports. ()

.....

2. READING: (5 marks)

Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:

Fashion in Ancient Egypt was mainly designed for comfort in the hot, dry desert climate and clothes were generally made of linen. Male outfits usually included a kilt. The kilt was used to serve a variety of purposes, such as indicating the age and status of its wearer.

Ancient Egyptian haute couture for women typically included a straight kaftan or shift. This changed very little over the centuries.

Footwear did not feature as a high priority in Egyptian fashion. Those who could afford them wore leather sandals. Others went barefoot.

The Egyptians did not, however, totally sacrifice elegance for comfort. Jewellery, for example, was extremely popular throughout the period. Excavations of tombs have shown that queens of Egypt were almost always interred with a quantity of jewellery.

The amount of jewellery worn by individuals often indicated their social position and level of wealth. Jewelled collars were very popular and usually made of very brightly coloured

gems. Rings, anklets and bracelets were also part of the normal fashion wear. Earrings were common among wealthy women. Even the less well-off attempted to adorn themselves with as much jewellery as was possible.

While not nearly as lavish, the jewellery of the common Egyptian was usually very brightly coloured and was made out of inexpensive materials such as pottery.

1. In Ancient Egypt, what did a man's kilt tell people about the wearer?

5

2. What is the high fashion of ancient Egyptian females?

3. What does the amount of jewellery refer to?

4. What kind of accessories was preferred by wealthy females?

5. What was the jewellery of common Egyptians made of?

3. VOCABULARY: (5 marks)

a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer:

(lifestyle - culture - outlets - target market – accessories)

5

1. Handbags, designer watches and jewellery are all fashion

2. "People have different needs according to their social customs, language and dietary habits" refers to

b. Match the expressions with similar meanings.

3. consumers

a) basic principles

4. fundamentals

b) people with something in common

5. market segments

c) customers

4. GRAMMAR: (5 marks)

a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, decide if the sentence is active or passive:

1. We (not/use) plastic in our factory.

2. I didn't understand anything because the instructions(write) in Japanese.

3. Linda (bring) many presents for her family last week.

5

b. Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

4. The mails is bring by John every day.

.....

5. I was lived with my grandmother when I was child.

.....

5. WRITING: (5 marks)

a. Rewrite the following sentence to be in the passive form, used (by + subject) if necessary.

1. Samantha called the manager of the company last week.

.....

b. Think of a special product/ brand you like. Write four complete sentences about it.

The following questions will help you:

- What is this product/ brand?

- How did you hear about this product/brand?

- When did you buy this product/brand? (first time of buying)

- Why do you like it?

- What are the features of this product/brand which makes it special?

.....

.....

.....

5

4) Pre & Post-test for University Stage

1. LISTENING: (5 marks)

You will hear a conversation between Meera and Vijay. The listening will be played twice.

5

a: Answer the following questions:

1. What is the first thing Vijay looking for?

.....

2. What is the other thing Vijay asking about?

.....

3. What time do Universal Booksellers close?

.....

b: Put True if the sentence is correct and put False if it is wrong, then correct it.

3. Meera prefers not to walk to Hazratganj because it's crowded plus the weather isn't cool.

()

.....

4. Meera and Vijay decide to take a Taxi to get to Hazratganj. ()

.....

2. READING: (5 marks)

Read the following passage. Then, answer the questions:

The Smart car is a very small car, but it is very quick and can reach speeds of about 145 kph. A smart car costs about \$12,000 but it isn't very expensive to run because it only uses about 5 litres of petrol per 100 kilometres. When the petrol tank is full, it can travel for about 620 kilometres. It is made for using in cities more than in the country and it is very easy to park. It is a powerful car, and the engine is in the back of the car. It is 1000cc in size. It is strong because it has a thick steel frame, but it isn't very safe or heavy because most of the body is made of plastic. It only weighs 816 kilograms. The luggage space is small because it is mainly for driving in the city. The back of the car can carry two medium sized bags and shopping for two people.

This is a GMC Terrain. It is a very large car also known as a Sports Utility Vehicle or SUV. It costs about \$35,000. It can carry seven people. It is very comfortable, and it has a very

large luggage space. It can fit many large bags and shopping for more than two people. It is very good for families. The engine is very large. It is 3000cc and it is a very powerful car that can reach speeds of up to 220 kph. It uses about 15 litres of petrol to travel 100 kilometres. It can travel on the highway and also on very rough roads. It is a very heavy car, and the body is made of steel, so it is very strong. It weighs 2000 kilograms.

1. What is the main idea of the passage?

5

2. How far can the Smart car go?

3. Is the Smart car safe? Why/why not?

4. How many people and items can the SUV carry?

5. Why is the GMC Terrain heavy and strong?

3. VOCABULARY:(5 marks)

5

a. Fill in the blanks with a correct answer:

(car – underground – walk – drive – ride)

1. I always my car when I go to the university.

2. Most days I get the

3. He his motorbike to work every day.

b. Complete the following conversation by filling in the missing words:

4. A: Do you k..... w..... it's open?

B: Yes, from 9.30 to 5.00.

5. A: A taxi is probably very expensive. C..... we w.....?

B: Yes, but it's about 3 miles away.

4. GRAMMAR:(5 marks)

a: Fill in the blanks with a correct answer, decide if it is comparative or superlative:

1. The trains in France are in Europe. (comfortable)

2. Walking is than driving (healthy)

3.way to travel around is to cycle everywhere – it's free! (cheap)

b. Correct the mistakes in the following sentences.

4. Jeddah is hottest than Taif.

5

5. The giraffe is taller animal in the world.

5. WRITING: (5 marks)**a. Rearrange the following words to make a complete sentence:**

1. city/ is/ in/ the/ Saudi Arabia/ . / biggest/ Riyadh

5

b. Rewrite the sentence adding the preposition in brackets to the correct place:

2. I always walk the park on my way home. (through)

c. Think of two towns or cities you know well. Write three comparative sentences about them. Use some of the adjectives in the box:

(beautiful – busy – clean – expensive – interesting)

Appendix D: Extract of teacher's CS

Classroom 1: University Methodological CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: How do you usually get to university?

S: by bus, by car....

T: That's good. What about me! what my question was? Can anyone ask me the same question?

S: How do you get to work? (While the student was repeating the question, the teacher was writing the question on the board).

T: Excellent.

T: So, did you see how we format the question? We use this question *yum niji: nesʔal ahd kaif yusʔal limakan muʔain aw kaif yuruh lidawamuh*. (When we want to ask someone about the way to arrive a specific place). Right?

T: So, if we look to these pictures, how does Vijay get to the city centre, to the work, to the shops, to his friend's home, to the airport? With your friends in the group, look at these pictures, try to match each answer with its right questions in here. Okay?

T: Let's know see the correct answers for each question. 1. How does Vijay get to the city centre?

S: He gets the train.

T: Very good. How do you know that he gets the train?

S: because the centre always crowded and it's hard to find parking.

T: Wow, exactly right. Excellent. Look at your beautiful answer. Keep going. So, *liunuh elsenter dayim muzdahim wasʔ yilaqi mawqif faʔqshaluh yistqxdi, elqitʔar*. Okay next. How does Vijay get to the shops?

S: by underground.

T: Are you sure about that? See in here. You just about have it. What do you see?

S: Yeah. Yeah, by car. He drives to carry what he bought.

T: Yes. That's much better. You got it. Very good. He drives *ʔafan yahmal fi:ha elafya'a elthetaqilal elly yiftariha*.

T: Good. Good. Next one. How does Vijay get to his work?

S: by walk.

T: Yeah. Great. He walks to his home's friend. How do we know that?

S: *qarib mi:nuh*.

T: Yes, in English it means?

S: It's near from him.

T: Good answer. You see you got it and that's good. I know you could do it. By the way, you're so good today. I'm really happy to see you like this. Just keep going okay.

T: So, he walks to his home's friend because he is very near to Vijay's home. Okay. Next one. How does Vijay get to work? Come on girls. We still have only two answers. Then, we will move to our game. We have many rewards today.

S: use cycle or bus.

T: umm. That's good but try to give me a full answer.

S: He usually cycles but if he is late, he gets the bus.

T: Nice. I can see a difference in your progress today compared to yesterday.

T: okay girls. The last one. How does Vijay get to the airport?

S: He usually gets the underground, but sometimes he gets a taxi.

T: Great. Keep up the good work as usual.

T: So, girls now we already know how to make questions *ʔan kaif nusʔal limakan muʔayan* (about the transports we use to arrive a place) and their answers. So far so good! Do you have any questions?

Classroom 2: University Mixed CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: Okay girls. Let's imagine together. Now, we are in a city that we don't know. We visit it for the first time, and we want to buy some shoes, make up, clothes. What kind of questions can we ask?

S: *fi mahal qari:b...* (Is there a shop...)

T: in English girls.

S: Is there a shoe shop near here?

T: *Mumtazah. Enti ra?i:ʕah elyum.* (Excellent. you're so good today).

T: What else we can ask?

S: Where can we find cloths shops here?

T: *Ahsanti. suʔaal ra?i:ʕ* (Great. That's a really good question).

T: What about if we want to know if it's far away?

S: How far is it?

T: Excellent. *Bark Allah fi:k.* (Well done).

T: So, That's nice girls. Thank you so much for all your answers. *Jad mubdiʕi:n* (so great).

T: So, girls lets know move to the grammar rule for this unit. Comparative and superlative. Do you have any idea about that?

S: compare between things.

T: Yes, we use comparative adjectives to make a comparison between two things and superlative adjectives to compare something with a group of objects. (*elli hiya elmuqarant bain hajatain muxtali:fatain aw muqarant fay maʕ afya'a kaθirah.*).

T: So, look at here girls. What do you see?

S: Two persons. Jack and Mike.

T: That's good. What do you observe about them?

S: Jack short and Mike tall.

T: Good. Good. So, if I want to compare between them, I can say Jack is shorter than Mike or Mike is taller than Jack. So, here I use the comparative adjectives shorter and taller. What do you notice here? What happened to the adjectives: short and tall?

S: We add -er.

T: Excellent. We add the suffix -er. What else do you notice? Something we use it new in the sentence.

S: than.

T: Excellent. *Zay ʕindana bilʕarabi lama niqu:l Jack aqsʕar min Mike aw Mike atʕwal min Jack. Kelmat qasʕ:r sʕarat aqsʕir wa tʕawi:l sʕarat atʕwal. Hina adʕfna a lisʕifah wistaxdamna kelmāt min ʕafan nurbutʕ bain elmuqaranati:n.* So, than *hay min wa -er hay a. hili?* (like what we have in Arabic, when we compare between two things we add to the adjectives {a} which is like {-er} and we connect them by {min} which is as {than}. Good?).

S: Yes.

T: So, first we have the noun (the subject) + the verb+ the adjectives (-er) + than+ the other noun (the object).

T: Let's know apply this format for the following pictures. Let's do the first two pictures together.

T: Picture one. What do you see?

S: Two boxes. One is large and one is small.

T: So, how can we compare between them.

S: This box is larger than the other box.

T: Or we can say the red box is smaller than the blue box.

T: what about this picture. What do you see?

S: Tow towers.

T: Compare between them **S:** The red tower is higher than the green tower.

Classroom 3: Secondary Methodological CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: Do you have any idea about the four Ps are in the marketing?

S: No.

T: Okay. So, you will hear to a radio interview with a marketing expert. From this interview. you will know the four Ps. The four Ps are related to advertise marketing. It's like the marketing fundamentals. (*t'aib raḥ nismaḥ muqabalah maḥ xabi:r taswi:q yitkalam fi:ha ḥan elPs elarəbaḥah. Taib elPs elarəbaḥah laha ḥalaqa biltaswi:q weli:ḥlan ḥen elmuntag. Zay elasasi:yat aw eljawhari:yat taqri:ban. Xaluna nismaḥ sawa wi nataḥaraf ḥalaiha*). Let's listen together.

T: So, girls have you got the four Ps? We will listen again girls to the interview, but before we listen again do you have any questions?

S: Yes, teacher

T: Go ahead.

S: What the meaning "Gender"?

T: It's like men and women, girls and boys.

S: *yaḥni ḍžens elḥaxs*. (It means sex).

T: Yes.

S: Teacher. What is the meaning of Market segmentation?

T: Market segmentation is a way of dividing consumers into groups with common needs or interests, for example by age, gender or income. (*yaḥni zay eltariqah litaqsim almustahliki:n i:lāa maḍžmuḥat elly i:ḥtiyajatuhəm aw i:ḥtimamatuhəm muftarakah maḥalan ḥala ḥasab elḥumr aw alḍžins aw eldaxel*).

T: Any other questions?

S: Thank you teacher.

T: Okay. So, girls what are the four Ps according to what you heard from the marketing expert? First!

S: Product.

T: Excellent. Second!

S: Price.

T: That's great. Third!

S: Promotion.

T: Good Good. The last one!

S: Place.

T: Nice. You did that very well girls. So, product, price, promotion, and place are the four Ps according to the marketing expert. Have you got each P refers to?

S: Yes, teacher.

T: Then, if I say more and more people are buying certain goods online, which P is this?

S: Place.

T: Brilliant. You're special today.

T: What if I say some PCs are much expensive than others, but then they are more powerful, which P is this?

S: Product.

T: Yes. Yes. Superb. Just keep up the good work.

T: Okay girls. I think now we are ready for the next activity.

T: Look at this box. Are you familiar with them? Do you know the meaning of the words here?

S: Yes, teacher.

T: So, now I'll play the recording again. When you hear anyone of these words appeared in this box, just tell me to pause the recording? Okay! *yaḥni: iḍa səmḥtu ay kalimah min hina qululi: awaqif*. (It means when you hear any words here, just tell me to stop the recording).

Classroom 4: Secondary Mixed CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: Okay girls. Here, we have four groups of people who want to go on a holiday. Look at these holiday brochures, which holiday suits of these people best? With your groups, before choosing the holiday brochures for each group, suggest the criteria which might be looking for when they choose a holiday, like costs, types of activities, types of accommodations. Okay! *yaʕni qabel ma nixtar elly yinasibhum min hina nihawel nihdad mi:zani:yathum*, wish el activities *wi el sakan elly yinasi:bhum* with your groups. (It means before we choose from here, try with your group to specify their budgets and what are the activities and the accommodation that you think they might be interested in). Okay!

S: Yes, teacher.

T: Go ahead.

T: Ok, girls. Have you written your suggestions for each group?

S: Yes, teacher.

T: So, girls. Here we have four groups of people: A family with small children, a retired couple, a young, single professional person, and a university or college student. Let us now read these advertisements of the holiday brochures here and match each advertisement with the group you think it suits them according to your written notes and suggestions. Who wants to read advertise one? Yes, group 2. Anyone of you.

S: Enjoy the peace and quiet of the English countryside in one of our Country House Hotels. Five-star dining, five-star service, five-star accommodation. Our staff are there to cater for your every need. Guided tours to places of historic interest are included in the price of all our hotels.

T: Wow. *Mafa'a Allah ʕalaik, i:lqai?k lilʕlan dʒidan mumayazah bilfiʕel i:ʕlan fiftu kaif aʕlant. Ana lw asmaʕ haða eli:ʕlan aruħ lilfunduq direct.* (You did a really great performance while reading the advertisement. It seems like it is a real advertisement. If it is a real advertisement and hear it from you, I'll go directly to the hotel). Clap for here please.

T: Okay, with your group, according to your notes, this advertisement suits which group? And why?

S: Retired couple because we think that they need a quiet and peace place, and they have enough money for their work.

T: *Mumtazi:n.* Excellent. *Ellyum qurubakum mubdiʕ.* (Your group today fantastic). Let's give the chance for the other groups. Who wants to read advertisement 2? Yes, group 3, anyone of you! Go ahead.

S: Do you want a holiday but can't afford it? Then try one of our working holidays. We have hotels all over the country and are looking for summer staff. Come and give us a try. We guarantee that you'll meet interesting people. You'll have free food and accommodation. You'll have plenty of time off to relax and have a good time. And, when you go home, you'll have money in your pocket. Phone us now for an application form.

T: Wow, *Mafa'a Allah marah θaniyah ʕala i:lqa'a dʒami:l θani: abdaʕtu bilfiʕel i:ʕlananat haqi:qi:yah* (You did a really another great performance for another advertisement). Perfect. Another clap for her.

T: Okay, with your groups and according to your suggestions, which group of people do you think this advertisement is the most suitable for them?

S: for college student.

T: That's great. Why do you think this advertisement is suitable for a college student?

S: The offers in the advertisement good for budget students. Free food and accommodation. Meet interesting people. Spend relax time. All good for students.

T: You're right. All the offers in this advertisement are suitable for students' budget. *Aħsntu s'arah maʕi:ndi was'f lirawʕatkum* (You did a great job. I don't have enough words to describe your great work).

Classroom 5: Intermediate Methodological CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: Tell me some of the ways in which our lifestyles are causing climate change.

S: Industries, gas problems, cars, trashes, electricity.

T: Good. Good. We can see that there some of the things we do almost every day that can cause climate change. So, let's us now look at these two pictures in here and find the differences between them. What can you see girls? Find at least five differences. Come on girls.

S: tab of water here is flowing and here not.

T: Good. The tap water in picture 1 is flowing while in the other picture it's not. What else?

S: All the lights are open here but not in here.

T: Great. The lights in picture 1 are turning on while these lights in picture 2 are off. What else?

S: Here trashes but not here.

T: Excellent. There are many trashes in picture 1 while there are specific banks for the trashes in picture 2. What else?

S: Wash machine and oven are turning on here in this picture.

T: Nice. In picture 1, they consume a lot of electricity unlike picture 2. What else?

S: They are using car in picture 1 and here using bus.

T: Good. Good. Here in picture 1, they use their own car while they use buses in picture 2. So, girls, in which picture is the family doing more to stop climate change?

S: Picture 1.

T: Be careful girls. I mean to stop stop climate change not to cause climate change. *yafni yihawilun mafi wisfahum safan yiwaqifun el* climate change (where they try their best to help in stopping climate change).

S: Picture 2.

T: Yes. Picture 2. Why? What are they doing?

S: Because in picture 1 the family is doing a lot of things that can cause climate change like the trashes and the car and the lights unlike the family in picture 2.

T: That's great. Nice job girls. So, girls can we give the family of picture 1 some advice (*nas'ai:h*) to help in stopping the climate change. Do you know how to do that?

S: Use must, have, should

T: Yes, we use must and have to in some situations not all. So, for example, here in this picture we can use "should" to give some advice for the family. We cannot force them to do that by using must and have to. For example, you should turn off the lights during the day since you already have the sun light. *yafni lmma adzi ast'i: nas'ai:h hina aqul min ela?fd'al ti:swan kiða* (should) *bas ma ?aqul lazim ti:swan kiða* (must, have to) *li:a 'anuh mu i:ðzbari*. (It means when I give advice in this situation, it is always better to use should instead of must and have to because it isn't a mandatory something that the family has to do). Got it!

S: Yes, teacher.

T: So, girls if you look to the form of the sentence I made here, we can notice that the verb after should is infinitive without any adds. So, subject + should/ must/ have to + the infinitive verb as we already discussed yesterday. Right!

S: Yes.

T: So, now, girls, it is your turn try to give the family of picture 1 some advice.

S: They should use the bus instead of the car because there is a bus stop near their house.

T: Marvellous. Great sentence. Good advice. Another advice, girls!

S: They should put their trashes in their specific banks.

T: Wonderful. Good advice. What else?

Classroom 6: Intermediate Mixed CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: So, girls. Look at the sentences I wrote here on the board. Let's us read them together.

S: Yesterday I went to school. First, I studied history. Then, I studied English. Then, I had break. Then, I studied maths. Then, I went home.

T: Is this good English?

S: Yes, teacher. The grammar is correct.

T: Hilu. Hilu. (Nice. Nice). So, you're right. The grammar is correct, but do you see any problems in these sentences.

S: No.

T: Are you sure?

S: Yes.

T: Okay. Look at these (Underlying all the adverbs. Then, then, then, then). Are there any problems?

S: No, but then is repeated many times.

T: *Birafo ṣali:k. Maṣa'a Allah mirakizah mazbut^ᶜ wi haḍa elly nibyah* (Bravo! Well done. You got it. It is obvious that you really pay attention today, and this is what I want here).

T: So, girls we have other sequencing adverbs where we can use them instead of repeating then, then, and then. So, now, *fī nafs maḍḡmuṣatkum haqət ams* (in the same groups as yesterday) read the flowing email message *wi nidawi:r ṗala elkalimat elly tidul ṣala tasəlsul elahdaθ* (and lets us find the other sequencing adverbs). Okay!

S: Okay.

T: Okay, girls. Who wants to read the first two sentences here?

S: Dear Omar, Great news! We're definitely coming to Saudi Arabia to see Dad in December. But we have a lot of things to do. First, we must get some passport photos for our visas.

T: *aḥsenti ḥabibti:.. Birafo ṣali:k.* (Well, done. Bravo).

T: Who wants to complete and read the next two sentences?

S: Then, we must take the passports to the Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia in London. Next, we must get our plane tickets and after that we must do our shopping. And finally, we arrive in Riyadh!.

T: *Mumtazah Mumtazah. Birafo ṣali:k.* (Excellent, Bravo).

T: So, girls now what are the sequencing adverbs that you found with groups in this email message?

S: First, then, next, after that, finally.

T: *aḥsenti.Allah ṣali:k..* (Well, done!). So, now can we alternate the repeated then here in my sentences with these sequencing adverbs here in this email message?

S: Yes, teacher. Yesterday I went to school. First, I studied history. Then, I studied English. Next, I had break. After that, I studied maths. Finally, I went home.

T: *aḥsntu aḥsntu aḥsntu Mubdiṣi:n.* (Well, done! Incredible).

T: Okay. Now, girls, each one of you ask your classmate next to you about what she did yesterday? Ask each other. Make a kind of small conversation and use the sequencing adverbs. Okay!

S: Okay. Teacher.

T: *yalla ya banat.* (Come on girls).

S: Hi, Sara. Hi, Rima How are you? I'm fine. How are you? I'm fine too. Thank you. What did you do yesterday? It was a great day. First, I went to the shopping mall. Then, I bought a gift for my cousin. Next, I prepared for my cousin's birthday party. After that, I went to the party. We danced, played and had a great time. Finally, I returned our home. What about you? For me, nothing special. It was normal day as usual. First, I woke up and had my breakfast. Then, I helped my mom clean the home. After that, I played with my brother and finally I ate dinner and slept.

Classroom 7: Primary Methodological CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: My beautiful girls. Look at this picture. What is this?

S: House.

T: Excellent. It's a house. Listen and repeat after me. What is this? This is a house.

S: This is a house.

T: Again

S: This is a house.

T: Whose house is this? Look here and say.

S: This is Tom's house.

T: Brilliant. It's Tom's house. Okay, girls. Let's go together and see Tom's house.

What is this?

S: This is a living room.

T: Very nice. It's Tom's living room. What is that?

S: This is desk.

T: Excellent. It's a desk, but girls listen carefully how I asked and look to my finger.

What is that? That is a desk.

T: What is this? *Mahaḍa asa'ʔal biha ṣan elafya'a? elqaribah mini wi aḍḥawib bi this is.... Ama lw kan elṣay baṣi:d ṣani asa'ʔal bi what is that? wi aḍḥawib bi that is* (I use "what is this?" when I ask about an object is close to me, and I use "this is" to answer or indicate about an object is close to me. On the other hand, I use "what is that?" to ask about an object is farther from me, and I use "that is" when I answer or indicate an object which is farther from me). Got it!

S: Yes, teacher.

T: Are you ready to practise together then?

S: Yes, teacher.

T: Let's start my beautiful girls. What is this?

S: This is a bedroom.

T: Nice. What is that?

S: That is a door.

T: Brilliant! What is this?

S: This is a kitchen.

T: Excellent. and what is that?

S: That is a rug.

T: Wow. Bravo. Nice going girls. You did a really great job. So, I think now you are ready to have fun time. Are you ready?

S: Yes, teacher.

T: Let's start then. Look at these beautiful pictures. Do you know all of them?

S: What this teacher?

T: This is a window (*fubak*).

T: Okay girls. So, look at these pictures, *Intabhu li ifarat eli:s'baṣ qari:b wi:la'a baṣi:d. Baṣdain raḥ ni:kawin aḍḥumlah kami:lah.* (Pay attention for the Figure indicating either close or far, and them make a full correct sentence). Let's start. Number 1.

S: This is an apple.

T: Nice. Nice Nice. Great job my beautiful girl. Clap for her. Number 2

S: That is a mango.

T: Brilliant. Nice job. Another clap for another clever girl. Number 3.

S: That is orange.

T: Very nice. It's orange, but you missed something in here. It is only one orange. Only one. What should we say?

S: an orange.

Classroom 8: Primary Mixed CS group

Five minutes from one of the classes

T: *Yalla ya banati elhilwat* (come on my beautiful girls). Listen and repeat. This is a pencil.

S: This is a pencil.

T: These are pens.

S: These are pens.

T: Listen to me carefully. It's not bens. It's pens.

S: Pens.

T: Say it again.

S: Pens.

T: These are pens. *Yall fi:du elti:krar yi:ʕalim elfutʕar* (repetition teaches cleverness). These are pens.

S: These are pens.

T: Good. Good. This is my desk.

S: This is my desk.

T: That is her desk.

S: That is her desk.

T: *Bravo ʕalaikum banati eldʒamilat*. (Excellent my beautiful girls). So, now. Where we are?

S: in the school.

T: Good, but where exactly?

S: in the classroom.

T: Great. We are in our classroom. This is our classroom. So, let's practise what we already know about the objects in the classroom. You know how to use this is, that is, these are, those are, my, her, his, our. Right!

S: Yes, teacher.

T: Okay, then. Let's start. Look around you. Find an object and use the grammar we learned. Don't forget. If you give a full meaningful sentence without any mistakes, you will have a star.

S: This is my bag.

T: Right. This is her bag. *mumtazah binti: elḍaki:yah* (Excellent my clever girl). This is a star for you. Another sentence!

S: These are my books.

T: These are her books. *maʕa'a Allah ʕala binti: elḍaki:yah elḍanyah* (Well done, my another clever girl). This is also another star.

T: So, girls. We use this is and these are. Let's try that is and those are. Now, if use that is and those are in a correct and complete sentence, I will give two stars not one this time. Two stars. Not one. So, be careful when you make a sentence.

S: That is a board.

T: *Mubdiʕah* (You are creative). That is a board. Correct. *Wallhi: mumtazah dʒi:dan. Aḥsnti: Aḥsnti: Bark All fi:k* (So excellent. Well done! Allah bless you). Two stars for you. Another sentence.

S: Those are her colourful notebooks.

T: Wow. *Bravo ʕalaik. Bravo ʕalaik. raʕi:ʕah wa mubdi:ʕ kaʕʕadah* (Well done! You're so good as usual). Those are her colourful notebooks. Right! Then, two stars for you too. Wow, so today you got seven stars. Wow. That's so nice. *Elyum baḍaʕti: maʕa'a Allah ʕalaik*. (Today, you are incredible).

T: Do you have other sentences?

S: That is her chair.

Appendix E: Students' test scores in Excel sheet

In this table, each row represents a student, coded by pseudonym. Test scores are organised according to subskill and pre-test. The following abbreviations are used:

W.5: writing component of test, worth 5 points

G.5: grammar component of test, worth 5 points

V.5: vocabulary component of test, worth 5 points

R.5: reading component of test, worth 5 points

L.5: listening component of test, worth 5 points

Total.25: Overall test score, worth 25 points (the sum of the previous five subskills)

Pre: pre-test

Post: post-test

The CS column encodes Group. The values are Control, MCS (Methodological Code Switching), and MSCS (Mixed Code Switching).

The level column encodes Age Set. The values are uni (university students), sec (secondary students), inter (intermediate students), and pri (primary students).

Name	W.5 pre	G.5 pre	V.5 pre	R.5 pre	L.5 pre	Total. 25 pre	CS	level	W.5 post	G.5 post	V.5 post	R.5 post	L.5 post	Total. 25 post	Total Change
Raghad	0	2	0	3	3	8	MCS	sec	1	3	3	3	3.5	14	6
Angham	4	3	5	1	2	15	MCS	sec	4	3	3	2	2	14	-1
Nada	1	0	2	1	2.5	7	MCS	sec	2	4	5	3	3.5	20	13
Durfah	0	1	1	1	3	6	MCS	sec	2	4	5	3	3.5	18	12
Sumaih	4	1.5	4	0	0	10	MCS	sec	5	3	5	3	2	18	8
Noor	3	0	1	0.5	2	10	MCS	sec	1	2.5	5	4	4	17	7
Majedah	2	0	0	1	0.5	4	MCS	sec	5	4.5	5	3	4	22	18
Maha	2	0	3	1	3	9	MCS	sec	1	1.5	3	5	2	8	-1
Reema	1	1	1	1	2.5	7	MCS	sec	1	4	5	3	5	18	11
Rawan	0	0	5	1	1	7	MCS	sec	1	2	3	3	2	11	4
Muhrah	0	0	1	0	2	3	MCS	sec	3	4	4	4	5	20	17
Thekra	0	0.5	2	0	3.5	6	MCS	sec	0	1.5	3	2	2	9	3
Haneen	3.5	0	1	0.5	1.5	7	MCS	sec	3.5	4.5	4	1	4	17	10
Reyoof	0	0	3	0	3.5	7	MCS	sec	1	2	3	5	2	8	1
Rahaf	0	0	1	0	2.5	4	MCS	sec	1	1	3	1	2	8	4
Renad	2.5	0.5	3	1	3.5	11	MCS	sec	1	3.5	4	3	4	16	5
Rana	0	0	2	2	2	6	MCS	sec	1.5	5	5	3	4	19	13
Manar	0.5	0	4	0.5	2.5	7	MCS	sec	3	4.5	4	4	5	21	14
Jood	0	0	1	1	1.5	4	MCS	sec	0.5	3.5	5	2	4	15	11
Shahad	3	0.5	0	0	3.5	7	MCS	sec	2	3.5	4	4	5	19	12
Remas	2.5	0.5	2	0	1	6	MCS	sec	2.5	1.5	3	2	2	11	5
Masheal	1.5	0	4	0	2.5	8	MCS	sec	1	3.5	4	3	4	16	8
Afnan	0	0	0	0	1	1	MCS	sec	2.5	2.5	5	4	3.5	18	17
Atheer	4	2.5	4	1	5	17	MCS	sec	3.5	4.5	4	4	4	20	3
Nadiya	4.5	4	4	4	4.5	21	MCS	sec	4.5	4.5	4	4	5	23	2
Dana	2	2	1	1	2	8	MCS	sec	3	4	3	3	3	16	8
Jana	3	2	1	1	1	8	MCS	sec	3.5	3	2	3	3	15	7
Saleha	2	0.5	3	0	1.5	7	MCS	sec	1	5	5	4	5	20	13
Sereen	2.5	1	2	2	3	11	MCS	sec	3	3	4	4	4	18	7
Hadeel	2.5	0	0	0	3	6	MCS	sec	3.5	4	5	3	4	20	14

Mayadah	1	2	3	0.5	2.5	9	MSCS	sec	3	4	5	3	3	18	9
Shumookh	0	0	3	0	2.5	6	MSCS	sec	3	4.5	5	3	5	21	15
Masheal	5	1.5	3	2	4	16	MSCS	sec	5	4.5	5	5	5	25	9
Maymonah	5	3	5	0	4	17	MSCS	sec	5	4.5	5	5	5	22	5
Ahlam	0.5	0	0	0	3	4	MSCS	sec	4	5	5	4	5	23	19
Walaa	3	3	3	0	5	14	MSCS	sec	3	5	4	4	5	21	7
Bayan	0	1.5	2	1	4	9	MSCS	sec	4	3.5	5	2	3	18	9
Buthainah	4	0	5	1	5	15	MSCS	sec	5	4	4	4	5	22	7
Hutoon	3.5	0	0	1	3	8	MSCS	sec	4	5	5	5	5	24	16
Zagaah	3	0.5	3	0	3.5	10	MSCS	sec	4	5	5	4	5	23	13
Layan	0.5	0.5	0	0	3.5	5	MSCS	sec	3	4.5	5	4	5	22	17
Nesreen	0	0.5	0	0	1.5	2	MSCS	sec	3	5	5	4	5	22	20
Najla	0	0	0	1	4	5	MSCS	sec	3	4.5	5	4	5	22	17
Roouz	2	0	0	0	3	5	MSCS	sec	2	5	5	3	5	20	15
Amjad	4	0	4	2	4	14	MSCS	sec	4	4	5	2	5	20	6
Helalah	0	0	1	0	3	4	MSCS	sec	0	0	0	0	0	0	-4
Hayfaa	0	0	0	0	4.5	5	MSCS	sec	2	2.5	5	2	5	17	12
Weam	0	0	0	1	4	5	MSCS	sec	1	5	5	4	5	20	15
Noorah	0	0	3	2	1	6	MSCS	sec	0	0	0	0	0	0	-6
Wadyah	0	0	3	0	2	5	MSCS	sec	1	4.5	5	5	5	21	16
Wesaam	2	0	0	0	4	6	MSCS	sec	3	5	5	5	5	23	17
Rasha	0	0	0	2	1	3	MSCS	sec	2	5	5	3	5	20	17
Lama	0.5	2	0	0	1	4	MSCS	sec	2	5	5	3	5	20	16
Ghala	0	0	0	0	4	4	MSCS	sec	3	4.5	5	5	5	22	18
Rooaa	0	0	3	0	0.5	4	MSCS	sec	5	4	5	5	5	24	20
Elaf	4	0	5	0	5	14	MSCS	sec	4	4.5	5	5	5	24	10
Alaa	0	0	3	0	3.5	7	MSCS	sec	1	4	5	4	5	19	12
Yasameen	1	1	1	1	2	6	MSCS	sec	1	1	1	1	2	6	0
Wafaa	2	2	1	1	3	9	MSCS	sec	2	2	1	1	3	9	0
Selin	2	1	2	0	2	7	MSCS	sec	2	1	2	0	2	7	0
Yusra	4	2	5	4	4	19	control	sec	4	2	5	4	5	20	1
Wardah	5	3.5	4	3.5	5	21	control	sec	5	3.5	4	4	5	22	1
Alhanoof	3	0	2	0	1.5	7	control	sec	0.5	0.5	2	2	3.5	9	2
Lamyaa	0	0	3	1	1.5	6	control	sec	0.5	1.5	0	3	3	8	2
Reemm	0.5	0.5	4	0	2	8	control	sec	0	0.5	3	1	3.5	8	0
Aryam	1	0.5	4	1	2	9	control	sec	0	1	4	3	5	13	4
shaam	0	0	0	0	1	1	control	sec	0	1	4	1	3	9	8
Manayer	1	0.5	5	0	1.5	8	control	sec	0.5	1	4	2	2.5	10	2
Dana	4	1	4	0.5	4.5	14	control	sec	2	1.5	3	4	4	15	1
Ghaida	1	0	1	1.5	3	7	control	sec	0	1.5	1	2	4	9	2
Atheer	3.5	0.5	1	3	5	13	control	sec	4	2.5	3	4	5	19	6
Nedaa	1	1	1	1.5	2.5	7	control	sec	0.5	1.5	3	3	4.5	13	6
Hutoon	2.5	1	5	1	4.5	14	control	sec	3	3.5	2	5	5	19	5
Rand	0	0	4	0	3.5	8	control	sec	0	0.5	2	1	5	9	1
Ghadi	1	0.5	2	1	5	10	control	sec	0	2.5	5	3	3	14	4

Wefaq	1	0.5	1	1	3	7	control	sec	0	0	3	1	2	6	-1
Juri	1	0	5	2	4	12	control	sec	0	0.5	5	3	4	13	1
Halah	0.5	0	3	1.5	4	9	control	sec	0.5	0	4	2	3	10	1
Nawras	2	0	3	0	1.5	7	control	sec	1	1	4	1	1	10	3
Shooq	1	0	2	0	3	6	control	sec	0	0	0	0	0	0	-6
Rabab	2	0	5	4.5	3	15	control	sec	5	2.5	5	4	5	22	7
Reta	1	1	4	3.5	4	14	control	sec	2	2	4	2	5	15	1
Farah	3.5	1.5	5	1	4	15	control	sec	5	3.5	5	5	5	24	9
Israa	4.5	1	5	4	5	20	control	sec	5	2	5	4	5	21	1
Bushra	0.5	0.5	4	0	2	7	control	sec	0	1.5	4	3	4	14	7
Nawal	3.5	2.5	4	3	2	15	control	sec	5	1.5	5	3	4	19	4
Nasrah	2	2	1	2	3	10	control	sec	5	3	3	3	3	15	5
Najla	2	1	2	2	2	9	control	sec	4	2	3	3	2	13	4
Nouf	3	3	2	2	2	12	control	sec	4.5	3	3	4	3	16	4
Amnah	1	1	1	0	2	5	control	sec	3	2	2	1	3	10	5
Meryaf	0	2	3.5	4	2	12	control	uni	0	4	4	3.5	1	13	1
Lamar	0	0	0	1.5	2	4	control	uni	0	3	4	3.5	1	12	8
Nawaar	0	2	4	4	4	14	control	uni	0	3	4	3.5	1	12	-2
Shatha	0	1	5	4	5	15	control	uni	4	5	5	5	5	24	9
Jomanah	1	1	4	3	4	13	control	uni	4	3.5	5	3	4	20	7
Rasha	2	9	2.5	5	2.5	12	control	uni	4	4	5	4	5	22	10
Najah	4	4	5	5	5	23	control	uni	4	4	5	5	5	23	0
Atha	4	0	5	5	3	17	control	uni	4	4	5	4	5	22	5
Najeebah	2	0	2.5	3	1.5	9	control	uni	0	3	3	2	4	12	3
Nabeelah	2	0	4	0	0	6	control	uni	2	0	4	0	0	6	0
Natasha	3	1.5	5	4.5	3	17	control	uni	3	1.5	5	4.5	3	17	0
Gaazo	3	2	4	2	4.5	16	control	uni	3	3	5	3	5	19	3
Najwa	2	0	1	1	2.5	7	control	uni	2	2	0	0	3	7	0
Rahav	2	2	2	3	2	11	control	uni	2	3	5	3	5	18	7
Jehan	1	1	4	4	3	13	control	uni	3	2	5	4	3	17	4
Melesya	0	0	4	0	0	4	control	uni	0	1	1	0	1	3	-1
Maysoon	2	0	2	1	0	5	control	uni	1	1	2.5	2	3.5	10	5
Rajab	0	0	2	2	0	4	control	uni	2	4	5	3	5	19	15
Jamilah	2	0	1	0	4	7	control	uni	1	2	1	0	3	7	0
Alanood	1	2	4	3	2	12	control	uni	2	3	5	3	5	18	6
Tafe	4	2	4	3	4.5	18	control	uni	3	3	3	4	5	18	0
Ngood	0	1	4	0	1	6	control	uni	0	2	2.5	0	0	5	-1
Arwa	4	3	4	0	2	13	control	uni	4	4	4	4.5	5	21	8
Busra	4	2	3	4	4.5	18	control	uni	4	2	3	4	4.5	18	0
Saher	2	2.5	4	2	1.5	12	control	uni	2	4	4	4	5	19	7
Bashayer	2	0	5	2	1	10	control	uni	5	4	5	4	5	23	13
Seera	0	0.5	2.5	0	5	8	control	uni	0	4	5	3.5	4	17	9
Marzooqa	2	0	2.5	4	3	12	control	uni	5	4	4	4	2	19	7
Rwzan	2	0	4	0	0	6	control	uni	0	2	1	0	0	3	-3
Seeda	2	0	2.5	3.5	2	10	control	uni	4	4	2	2	4	16	6
Amela	0	0	2	2	1	5	control	uni	0	0	2	2	1	5	0

Seham	5	3	5	4	5	22	control	uni	5	5	5	5	5	25	3
Sameha	0	0	2	0	0	2	control	uni	0	1	1	1	2	5	3
Moroj	0.5	0	1.5	3	1.5	7	control	uni	0	2	1	1	0	4	-3
Aisha	2	0	2	1	0	5	control	uni	0	2	4	0	2	8	3
Maram	3	4	5	4	5	21	control	uni	3	4	5	4	5	21	0
Basheerah	0	0.5	4	0	1	6	control	uni	0	0.5	4	0	1	6	0
Wejdah	2	0	5	2	0.5	10	control	uni	0	3.5	5	3	5	17	7
Manarah	3	2	3.5	4	4.5	17	control	uni	3	3	5	2	5	18	1
Rahmah	0	0	3.5	0	2	6	control	uni	4	4	5	0	5	18	12
Fanar	3	3	4	5	3	18	control	uni	5	4	5	5	5	24	6
Baylasan	2	0	5	3	2.5	13	control	uni	2	2	5	3	2.5	15	2
Maytha	1	0.5	3.5	3	4	12	control	uni	3	4	2	3	4	16	4
Anaheed	0	0	2	0	2	4	control	uni	0	3	3.3	3	3	13	9
Duha	0	0	1	1	0	2	control	uni	0	1	3	3	0	7	5
Ruwaa	0	3	4	2	2	11	control	uni	2	3	4	4.5	4.5	18	7
Faten	2	1	3	3	0	9	control	uni	3	4	5	4.5	5	22	13
Rayanah	1	0.5	1	2	0	5	control	uni	1	0.5	1	2	0	5	0
Taj	0	1	3.5	3	0	8	control	uni	0	1	3.5	3	0	8	0
Eram	2	0	3	3.5	2	11	control	uni	3	4	2	3	4	16	5
Juwanah	0	0	2.5	0	0	3	control	uni	4	4	4	3	5	20	17
Sumayah	1	2	4	3	2	12	control	uni	3	4	4	4	5	20	8
Jehan	2	1	3	0	3	9	control	uni	1	2	4.5	0	3	11	2
Rasama	2	1	2	2	2	9	control	uni	2	3	5	3	5	18	9
Jalah	2	0	2	1	0	5	control	uni	3	2	3	2	5	15	10
Wedad	0	0	2	0	0	2	control	uni	0	3	1	1	2	7	5
Elef	0	0	2	2	0	4	control	uni	1	4	3	2	1	11	7
Seela	0	0	3	0	2	5	control	uni	2	3	4.5	1	2.5	13	8
Fatimah	0	1	4	2	0	7	control	uni	0	1	4	2	0	7	0
Hashimah	2	0	1	0	0	3	control	uni	0	2	0	0	1	3	0
Tolay	2	0.5	2	1	5	11	MCS	uni	0	3.5	5	4	5	18	7
Afaf	1	2	1	1.5	4.5	10	MCS	uni	0	3	3.5	3	5	15	5
Ghadeerah	1	1	0.5	1	3	7	MCS	uni	1	1	2	2	3	9	2
Rusleen	2	2	2.5	2	3	12	MCS	uni	5	5	3.5	3	2	19	7
Sultanah	0	0	3	2	4	9	MCS	uni	0	2	1	1	3	7	-2
Hadiyah	0	2	0	1	3	6	MCS	uni	1	3	3.5	3	3	14	8
Kamilya	1	1	2	0	2	6	MCS	uni	1	1	3	0	2	7	1
Ghusoon	2	0	1	0	3	6	MCS	uni	2	1	4	2	3.5	13	7
Saha	2	0	1	3	2	8	MCS	uni	5	5	3.5	3	2	19	11
Rabeeah	1	0.5	2	1	2	7	MCS	uni	1	2	3	2	4	12	5
Sahab	1	3	3.5	3	3	14	MCS	uni	4	5	4	5	3	21	7
Rodyanah	5	2.5	5	3	5	21	MCS	uni	5	4.5	5	5	4	24	3
Bareqah	2	3	2.5	2	5	15	MCS	uni	4	4	3	4	3	18	3
Badrah	1	1	1	1.5	2	7	MCS	uni	2	1	2	2	4	11	4
Mariyah	0	0	1	0	2	3	MCS	uni	0	0	2	0	2	4	1
Harthiyah	1	1	2.5	1	2	8	MCS	uni	4	3	3	3	4	17	9
Nadeen	1	1	2	0	2	6	MCS	uni	1	1	2	2	3	9	3

Ajwa	1	0.5	2.5	1	2.5	8	MCS	uni	3	4	4	2	4	17	9
Salmah	1	1.5	2.5	1	1.5	8	MCS	uni	2	2	2.5	2	3	12	4
Rawaya	1	0.5	1	1	0	4	MCS	uni	1	2	3	3	3	12	8
Andalus	2	1	2	1	2.5	9	MCS	uni	2	2	3	4	5	16	7
Ensaf	2	0	1	0	3	6	MCS	uni	2	2	3	3	5	15	9
Ansar	0	0.5	4	1	1.5	7	MCS	uni	3	3	3	2	3	14	7
Musferah	0	0	1	2	3.5	7	MCS	uni	1	2	3	2	4	12	5
Tara	3	0	1.5	3	2	10	MCS	uni	2	2	3	3	5	15	5
Raseel	0	0	0	0	0	0	MCS	uni	0	0	2.5	2	4	9	9
Hamdah	1	1	3.5	0.5	2.5	9	MCS	uni	1	3	4	3	2	13	4
Rufaydah	3	0	0.5	3	5	12	MCS	uni	4	0	3	4	3	14	2
Thanaa	1	0	2	0	3	6	MCS	uni	1	1	2	2	3	9	3
Houryah	2	2.5	2.5	1	1	9	MCS	uni	3	4	3	2	2	15	6
Safeerah	1	2.5	1.5	0	1	6	MCS	uni	3	3	3	2	2	13	7
Abaad	1	0	3	0	2.5	7	MCS	uni	1	3	4	3	2	13	6
Badriyah	2	2	1	2	2	9	MCS	uni	4	0	3	4	3	14	5
Hasnaa	1	0	2	3	5	11	MCS	uni	3	3	3	5	5	19	8
KhadooJ	0	2	3	0	2.5	8	MCS	uni	3	4	4	2	3	16	8
Huda	3	1.5	3	0.5	3	11	MCS	uni	3	3	3	2	3	14	3
Razan	0	0	1	0	2.5	4	MCS	uni	1	1.5	1.5	0.5	2	7	3
Zaynab	2	0.5	1.5	0.5	0	5	MCS	uni	1	3	2	2	3	11	6
Sebaa	3	2	2	2	4	13	MCS	uni	3	4	3	3	3	16	3
Aliyah	2	2	1.5	0	1	7	MCS	uni	5	4	3	2	2	16	9
Fareedah	1	0	2	3	2	8	MCS	uni	1	5	5	3	5	19	11
Abeer	2	2	1	2	2	9	MCS	uni	0	2	3	3	4	12	3
Afrah	2	2	1	2	2	9	MCS	uni	4	3	3	3	2	15	6
Marah	5	5	3.5	3	2	19	MCS	uni	5	5	5	5	5	25	6
Ahad	0	2	1	1	3	7	MCS	uni	0	2	3	3	3	11	4
Rawiah	2	2	0	2	0	6	MCS	uni	3	2	2	2	3	12	6
Layla	3	0	1.5	3	2	10	MCS	uni	0	3	5	4	3	15	5
Maliykah	1	1.5	1.5	0.5	2	7	MCS	uni	2	1	2	2	4	11	4
Yaqeen	1	1	1	0	3	6	MCS	uni	3	3	3	3	3	15	9
Manal	2	0	4	0	1.5	8	MCS	uni	1	5	3	3	3	15	7
Ahwood	2	2	1.5	2	3.5	12	MCS	uni	3	3	4	4	3	17	5
Azizah	1	1	2	2	3	9	MCS	uni	1	3	3	2	3	12	3
Ekram	0	0.5	1	0	0	2	MCS	uni	0	3	3	3	3	12	10
Galyah	1	0	1	1.5	2.5	6	MCS	uni	1	0	2	3	3	9	3
Basmalah	1	1	2	1	0	5	MCS	uni	2	3	3	4	4	16	11
Salwah	0	0	3	0	0	3	MSCS	uni	1	3	3	1	2	10	7
Sedrah	0	0	0.5	0	2	3	MSCS	uni	0	0	1	2	4	7	4
Raheeq	0	0	0	0	2	2	MSCS	uni	0	0	1	1	2	4	2
Salsabeel	0	0	3	2	2	7	MSCS	uni	0	0	3	2	2	7	0
Durah	1	1	1	1	2	6	MSCS	uni	4	3	1	3	3	14	8
Zumurad	1	0	2	1	2	6	MSCS	uni	4	3.5	3	3	3	17	11
Sofya	2	0	3	0	2	7	MSCS	uni	4	3	3	2	5	17	10
Anabeela	2	1	3	0	0	6	MSCS	uni	5	5	1	2	2	15	9

Angelia	2	2	2	2	3	11	MSCS	uni	3	3.5	3	3	5	18	7
Monyah	1.5	0.5	0	1	3	6	MSCS	uni	3	4	2.5	3	5	18	12
Ezdehar	3	0.5	3	2	4	13	MSCS	uni	3	0.5	3	2	4	13	0
Faredha	1	1	1	0	2	5	MSCS	uni	3	5	5	5	5	23	18
Ajras	3	2.5	2	1	3	12	MSCS	uni	4	3	3	2	5	17	5
Ansaah	3	2	1.5	2	5	14	MSCS	uni	4	4	5	5	5	23	9
Ajaweed	2	2	3	2	3	12	MSCS	uni	5	4.5	5	4	5	22	10
Wadha	0	0	3	1	2	6	MSCS	uni	1	2.5	4.5	2	2	12	6
Orkeed	2	2	1	1	3	9	MSCS	uni	2	2	1	1	3	9	0
Elisaa	2	2	3	1	3	11	MSCS	uni	4	4	4	4	2	18	7
Nabeelah	1	0	0	0	3	4	MSCS	uni	1	0	0	0	3	4	0
Tooleeb	2	2.5	3	0	1	9	MSCS	uni	2	2.5	3	0	1	9	0
Rafeef	2	2	3.5	0	2	10	MSCS	uni	3	3	4.5	2	5	18	8
Khuzama	0	1	0	1	3	5	MSCS	uni	0	1	0	1	3	5	0
Tahani	1	0	4	1.5	0	7	MSCS	uni	3	3	3	1	2	12	5
Nardeen	2	2	3	2.5	3	13	MSCS	uni	5	5	4	5	5	24	11
Asmaa	1	1	4	1	2	9	MSCS	uni	2	2	4.5	3	5	17	8
Rubeen	3	3	3	5	4.5	19	MSCS	uni	5	5	5	5	5	25	6
Muslehah	1	0	1	0	2	4	MSCS	uni	3	5	4.5	3	3	19	15
Sameerah	2	0.5	2	2	3	10	MSCS	uni	5	3	5	4	5	22	12
Janso	1	1	1	1	2	6	MSCS	uni	1	3	5	3	2	14	8
Jelan	3	2	1	1	2	9	MSCS	uni	2	2	3	4	3	14	5
Burju	2	2	2	1	3	10	MSCS	uni	4	4	5	5	2	20	10
Dafnah	1	1	2	2	3	9	MSCS	uni	1	2	3	3	2	11	2
Torkan	0	1	2	1	2	6	MSCS	uni	2	2.5	3	3	2	13	7
Sulaaf	2	2	1	1	3	9	MSCS	uni	3	3	4	4	5	19	10
Sali	2	1	2	1	2	8	MSCS	uni	2	3	3	4	3	15	7
Lenda	1	1	0	0	2	4	MSCS	uni	3	3	4	4	2	16	12
Feryal	2	2	2	1	1	8	MSCS	uni	5	5	4	5	5	24	16
Shafaq	2	2	2	1	2	9	MSCS	uni	4	3	4	4	5	20	11
Rehab	0	1	0	1	3	5	MSCS	uni	4	3	4	3	4	18	13
Radi	1	0	4	2	0	7	MSCS	uni	2	3	3	4	4	16	9
Daryaah	0	0	0	3	2	5	MCS	Inter	2	3	3	3	4	15	10
Nehan	1	0	3	2	0	6	MCS	Inter	1	3	4	3	4	15	9
Suhan	0	1	2	3	2	8	MCS	Inter	2	2	3	4	2	13	5
Thohol	1	1	1	3	1	7	MCS	Inter	3	3	5	5	5	21	14
Deneez	1	2	3	3	3	12	MCS	Inter	3	3	5	4	5	20	8
Senderila	0	0	3	3	1	7	MCS	Inter	2	3	5	4	4	18	11
Shahrazad	0	0	1	1	1	3	MCS	Inter	2	3	4	4	4	17	14
Janat	1	0	2	3	2	8	MCS	Inter	5	4	5	5	4	23	15
Afkar	2	1	3	4	3	13	MCS	Inter	5	4	5	4	5	23	10
Altaf	0	0	3	2	1	6	MCS	Inter	2	4	4	4	4	18	12
Omaymah	2	3	2	2	1	10	MCS	Inter	3	3	3	3	4	16	6
Awsaf	1	1	3	2	2	9	MCS	Inter	2	3	3	3	3	14	5
Eftekhhar	0	1	2	3	1	7	MCS	Inter	2	3	4	3	4	16	9
Tumadoor	0	0	3	3	2	8	MCS	Inter	2	3	5	4	4	18	10

Jabrah	0	2	2	2	1	7	MCS	Inter	2	3	3	3	4	15	8
Wateen	4	3	3	3	3	16	MCS	Inter	3	4	5	5	5	22	6
Jaidaa	1	1	2	3	1	8	MCS	Inter	3	3	4	4	4	18	10
Halimah	0	1	3	3	2	9	MCS	Inter	4	3	5	4	5	21	12
Ruqauah	4	3	3	3	3	16	MSCS	Inter	5	5	5	5	5	25	9
Rayhanah	0	0	2	2	2	6	MSCS	Inter	3	4	5	4	5	21	15
Zubaydah	0	2	2	3	1	8	MSCS	Inter	3	4	4	4	3	18	10
Manasef	1	0	2	2	3	8	MSCS	Inter	3	4	4	5	5	21	13
Zakiyah	2	1	3	3	3	12	MSCS	Inter	3	3	4	5	4	19	7
Suaad	0	0	0	0	2	2	MSCS	Inter	3	3	4	4	4	18	16
Suhaylah	1	0	2	2	1	6	MSCS	Inter	2	5	3	3	4	17	11
Shahlaa	1	2	3	2	3	11	MSCS	Inter	3	4	5	3	5	20	9
Salma	1	2	2	3	2	10	MSCS	Inter	3	4	4	5	4	20	10
Sana	3	3	2	3	3	14	MSCS	Inter	5	4	4	4	5	22	8
Fayrooz	1	1	2	2	0	6	MSCS	Inter	3	4	4	4	4	19	13
Katiya	1	0	1	1	2	5	MSCS	Inter	4	3	5	4	5	21	16
Loujain	1	2	0	3	2	8	MSCS	Inter	3	4	4	4	5	20	12
Kareemah	1	3	0	1	1	6	MSCS	Inter	3	4	5	3	5	20	14
Kenza	0	1	1	2	2	6	MSCS	Inter	4	3	4	4	5	20	14
Lateefa	0	0	3	3	2	8	MSCS	Inter	3	3	4	3	5	18	10
Abiyah	2	3	2	2	3	12	MSCS	Inter	5	5	5	4	5	24	12
Marseel	2	2	2	3	2	11	MSCS	Inter	5	4	5	5	5	24	13
Jenan	1	0	3	3	3	10	control	Inter	4	3	4	4	5	20	10
Taqwa	2	0	0	3	3	8	control	Inter	2	2	3	3	4	14	6
Sajdah	3	2	2	3	4	14	control	Inter	3	3	4	4	5	19	5
Tasneem	1	1	0	3	3	8	control	Inter	3	3	2	3	3	14	6
Ethraa	1	2	0	3	3	9	control	Inter	2	3	2	3	3	13	4
Athar	1	0	2	0	2	5	control	Inter	2	2	2	2	2	10	5
Atara	1	2	2	3	3	11	control	Inter	2	3	3	3	3	14	3
Raneem	1	0	1	3	3	8	control	Inter	2	3	3	3	4	15	7
Ebtehaj	2	2	2	3	2	11	control	Inter	3	3	4	3	4	17	6
Fahyrah	0	1	0	1	1	3	control	Inter	2	2	2	2	3	11	8
Ebtesam	1	1	1	3	3	9	control	Inter	2	2	3	3	3	13	4
Fahadah	1	0	0	2	2	5	control	Inter	2	1	2	3	3	11	6
Safa	2	2	2	2	2	10	control	Inter	2	3	3	3	3	14	4
Dareen	1	1	0	2	2	6	control	Inter	2	2	2	3	4	13	7
Sadeya	1	1	3	1	1	7	control	Inter	2	3	3	2	4	14	7
Ghumrah	3	3	3	3	3	15	control	Inter	2	3	2	3	3	13	-2
Suluh	1	2	3	3	2	11	control	Inter	1	2	3	3	2	11	0
Wasan	1	1	1	1	1	5	control	Inter	2	2	1	1	2	8	3
Aljouri	2	2	2	2	3	11	MSCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	14
Abrar	2	2	2	2	3	11	MSCS	Pri	3	4	4	4	4	19	8
Ghazal	2	2	2	3	3	12	MSCS	Pri	3	3	4	4	4	18	6
Hajer	3	4	1	2	3	13	MSCS	Pri	4	5	4	4	4	21	8
Jood	1	3	2	1	3	10	MSCS	Pri	3	4	3	3	4	17	7
Rneem	0	0	1	1	4	6	MSCS	Pri	2	5	4	4	4	19	13

Dina	2	3	2	3	3	13	MSCS	Pri	4	5	5	5	5	24	11
Bayader	1	0	1	1	4	7	MSCS	Pri	4	5	4	3	4	20	13
Amnah	2	3	1	0	3	9	MSCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	16
Hanadi	2	3	1	3	3	12	MSCS	Pri	4	5	5	5	5	24	12
Zahra	1	1	1	0	2	5	MSCS	Pri	3	4	3	3	3	16	11
Fawzyah	0	1	2	1	2	6	MSCS	Pri	2	3	3	3	3	14	8
Fooz	2	2	3	3	2	12	MSCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	13
Almas	1	0	1	2	2	6	MSCS	Pri	2	4	3	3	3	15	9
Shatha	0	0	1	1	2	4	MSCS	Pri	2	3	3	3	3	14	10
Aldana	3	1	2	2	3	11	MSCS	Pri	4	4	5	5	5	23	12
Anwar	2	1	2	2	3	10	MSCS	Pri	4	5	5	5	5	24	14
Reemah	1	0	1	0	3	5	MSCS	Pri	3	3	4	3	4	17	12
Ameerah	1	2	3	2	4	12	MSCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	13
Maryam	1	0	1	1	3	6	MSCS	Pri	2	4	4	4	3	17	11
Mawa	0	1	2	2	3	8	MSCS	Pri	3	5	5	4	5	22	14
Luban	1	1	1	1	2	6	MSCS	Pri	2	3	3	3	3	14	8
Ghalati	1	1	2	3	4	11	MSCS	Pri	4	4	5	4	5	22	11
Rafa	2	3	3	3	2	13	MSCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	12
Retaj	0	1	2	0	2	5	MCS	Pri	2	2	2	2	5	13	8
Yara	1	0	0	0	2	3	MCS	Pri	1	2	2	3	4	12	9
Sahooda	0	1	3	0	3	7	MCS	Pri	2	2	3	3	5	15	8
Ghebat	3	2	3	1	3	12	MCS	Pri	4	3	3	5	5	20	8
Lamyah	3	2	2	2	4	13	MCS	Pri	3	3	5	5	5	21	8
Leen	4	3	4	3	4	18	MCS	Pri	4	5	5	5	5	24	6
Sandy	4	3	1	0	4	12	MCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	13
Rayda	3	3	3	3	4	16	MCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	9
Toleen	2	4	3	2	4	15	MCS	Pri	5	5	4	3	5	22	7
Tsabeeh	4	3	3	3	3	16	MCS	Pri	3	5	4	4	5	21	5
Alaa	3	4	3	2	3	15	MCS	Pri	5	4	5	5	5	24	9
Waadah	3	1	3	1	4	12	MCS	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	13
Thekrah	4	2	3	1	3	13	MCS	Pri	5	4	5	5	5	24	11
Ryof	2	2	3	3	5	15	MCS	Pri	3	3	3	3	3	15	0
Amasi	0	2	0	3	4	9	MCS	Pri	2	2	2	5	5	16	7
Dan	0	0	0	1	3	4	MCS	Pri	1	1	1	0	0	3	-1
Ramal	2	3	0	0	3	8	MCS	Pri	2	2	2	3	5	14	6
Amaal	0	1	2	1	2	6	MCS	Pri	2	3	2	3	3	13	7
Luluah	2	3	2	1	4	12	MCS	Pri	2	3	4	4	4	17	5
Jaradah	0	0	1	0	4	5	MCS	Pri	2	3	3	4	5	17	12
Ranosh	1	1	0	1	3	6	MCS	Pri	2	2	3	2	5	14	8
Rubaty	0	2	0	1	2	5	MCS	Pri	2	3	3	3	1	12	7
Refali	0	1	0	0	3	4	MCS	Pri	0	1	1	0	1	3	-1
Shadiyah	1	1	1	1	2	6	MCS	Pri	2	3	3	2	3	13	7
Taleen	5	4	4	4	4	21	control	Pri	5	5	5	5	5	25	4
Turkyah	1	1	1	1	3	7	control	Pri	2	2	2	2	4	12	5
Fajer	2	1	2	1	3	9	control	Pri	2	3	3	3	3	14	5
Baraa	2	1	2	2	3	10	control	Pri	3	4	4	3	3	17	7

Rebal	1	3	0	2	2	8	control	Pri	2	4	3	4	3	16	8
Jarydah	1	1	1	2	3	8	control	Pri	2	2	3	3	4	14	6
Remas	1	2	1	1	2	7	control	Pri	2	2	3	2	3	12	5
Arwani	1	1	1	0	3	6	control	Pri	2	3	3	4	4	16	10
Maherah	1	1	1	1	2	6	control	Pri	2	2	2	1	3	10	4
Refal	1	2	1	3	3	10	control	Pri	2	2	2	2	3	11	1
Seba	1	2	1	2	3	9	control	Pri	2	3	3	3	3	14	5
Shani	2	1	2	3	3	11	control	Pri	3	2	3	4	3	15	4
Sama	2	3	3	4	3	15	control	Pri	3	3	3	4	5	18	3
Salwa	1	1	1	1	2	6	control	Pri	1	1	2	2	3	9	3
Reham	1	2	1	2	1	7	control	Pri	3	2	2	3	2	12	5
Shooq	0	1	1	1	2	5	control	Pri	2	2	2	2	3	11	6
Haneen	2	2	1	2	3	10	control	Pri	2	3	3	3	4	15	5
Munerah	2	1	2	1	4	10	control	Pri	3	2	3	2	4	14	4
Ghandorah	3	3	1	2	4	13	control	Pri	4	4	3	3	4	18	5
Mayar	2	1	2	1	3	9	control	Pri	1	2	1	1	2	7	-2
Azza	2	3	0	1	3	9	control	Pri	2	2	1	0	3	8	-1
Albandary	2	3	2	4	4	15	control	Pri	3	3	3	3	3	15	0
Reenad	0	1	1	1	1	4	control	Pri	1	2	2	2	2	9	5
Aishaa	1	1	2	1	3	8	control	Pri	2	2	3	2	4	13	5

Appendix F: Detailed statistics of students' results in R program

```
> wide <- read.csv('Data CS.csv')
> wide$level <- factor(wide$level, levels=c('Uni',
'Sec', 'Inter', 'Pri'))
> tapply(wide$TotalChange, list(wide$CS, wide$level), mean)
```

	Uni	Sec	Inter	Pri
control	4.483333	3.000000	4.944444	4.25000
Methodological CS	5.636364	8.366667	9.666667	7.12500
Mixed CS	7.500000	10.900000	11.777778	11.08333

#Effects of CS on different levels:

```
> mod <- lm(TotalChange ~ CS*level, data=wide)
> summary(mod)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = TotalChange ~ level * CS, data = wide)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-16.9000	-2.4917	0.3333	2.5083	12.5167

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t	
value Pr(> t)				
(Intercept)	4.4833	0.5356	8.371	1.29e-15

levelSec	-1.4833	0.9276	-1.599	
0.110688				
levelInter	0.4611	1.1149	0.414	
0.679415				
levelPri	-0.2333	1.0020	-0.233	
0.815989				
Methodological CS	1.1530	0.7744	1.489	
0.137398				
Mixed CS	3.0167	0.8468	3.562	0.000417

levelSec:Methodological CS	4.2136	1.3218	3.188	0.001559
**				
levelInter:Methodological CS	3.5692	1.5849	2.252	0.024928
*				
levelPri:Methodological CS	1.7220	1.4262	1.207	
0.228064				
levelSec:Mixed CS	4.8833	1.3654	3.576	0.000396

levelInter:Mixed CS	3.8167	1.6215	2.354	0.019123
*				
levelPri:Mixed CS	3.8167	1.4667	2.602	0.009647
**				

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 4.148 on 359 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.3024, Adjusted R-squared: 0.281

F-statistic: 14.15 on 11 and 359 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

```
> library(effects)
> plot(allEffects(mod))
> plot(allEffects(mod, x.var='CS'))
> write.csv(x=wide, file='Data CS.csv', row.names=FALSE)
```

#Use reshape package to melt data from wide into long format:

```
> library(reshape)
> tmp <- melt(data=wide, id.vars=c('Name', 'CS', 'level'),
+             measure.vars=colnames(wide)[c(2:7, 10:15)])
> #create separate columns for skill and test type
> tmp$skill <- ''
> for (i in 1:nrow(tmp)){
+   if (startswith(as.character(tmp$variable[i]), 'w')){
+     tmp$skill[i] <- 'writing'
+   } else if (startswith(as.character(tmp$variable[i]), 'G')){
+     tmp$skill[i] <- 'Grammar'
+   } else if (startswith(as.character(tmp$variable[i]), 'V')){
+     tmp$skill[i] <- 'Vocab'
+   } else if (startswith(as.character(tmp$variable[i]), 'R')){
+     tmp$skill[i] <- 'Reading'
+   } else if (startswith(as.character(tmp$variable[i]), 'L')){
+     tmp$skill[i] <- 'Listening'
+   } if (startswith(as.character(tmp$variable[i]), 'Total')){
+     tmp$skill[i] <- 'Total'
+   }
+ }
> tmp$skill <- as.factor(tmp$skill)
> tmp$test <- factor(ifelse(endswith(as.character(tmp$variable),
'pre'), 'pre', 'post'))
> raw <- tmp
```

Create improvement df to show change from pre to post test:

```
> library(plyr)
> improve <- ddply(raw, .(Name, skill, level, CS),
+                  .fun=function (df){c(change
= df$value[df$test == 'post'] - df$value[df$test == 'pre'])})
> write.csv(raw, file='rawLong.csv', row.names=FALSE)
> write.csv(improve, file='improveLong.csv', row.names=FALSE)
```

Mixed effects model across all skills:

```
> library(lme4)
> mod.lmer <- lmer(change~level * CS * skill + (1|Name),
data=improve[improve$skill != 'Total', ])
```

Analyse separately across skills:

Writing:

```
> writing <- improve[improve$skill=='writing', ]
> writing.mod <- lm(change ~ level * CS, data=writing)
> summary(writing.mod)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = change ~ level * CS, data = writing)
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-3.6364	-0.6364	-0.1250	0.6521	3.6333

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t	Pr(> t)
value (Intercept)	0.4917	0.1586	3.099	0.00209
levelSec	-0.3583	0.2748	-	
1.304	0.19301			

```

levelInter          0.3972      0.3302      1.203  0.22981
levelPri            0.3000      0.2968      1.011  0.31276
Methodological
CS                  0.1447      0.2294      0.631  0.52857
Mixed
CS                  0.8708      0.2508      3.472  0.00058 ***
levelSec:Methodological CS  0.2720      0.3915      0.695  0.48771
levelInter:Methodological CS  0.8553      0.4694      1.822  0.06930
levelPri:Methodological CS  0.1886      0.4224      0.447  0.65546
levelSec:Mixed CS      0.3625      0.4044      0.896  0.37069
levelInter:Mixed CS    0.5736      0.4803      1.194  0.23315
levelPri:Mixed CS      0.4208      0.4344      0.969  0.33335

```

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.229 on 359 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.2014, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1769
F-statistic: 8.23 on 11 and 359 DF, p-value: 6.855e-13

```

> plot(allEffects(writing.mod))
> plot(allEffects(writing.mod, x.var='CS'))

```

Reading:

```

> reading <- improve[improve$skill=='Reading', ]
> reading.mod <- lm(change ~ level * CS, data=reading)
> summary(reading.mod)

```

Call:

```
lm(formula = change ~ level * CS, data = reading)
```

Residuals:

```

      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-4.7833 -0.5000  0.0091  0.6583  4.0500

```

Coefficients:

```

              Estimate Std. Error t      value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)    0.45000    0.15850  2.839  0.00478 **
levelSec        0.76667    0.27453  2.793  0.00551 **
levelInter      0.05000    0.32994  0.152  0.87963
levelPri        0.38333    0.29652  1.293  0.19692
Methodological CS  1.04091    0.22919  4.542 7.63e-06 ***
Mixed CS        1.40000    0.25061  5.586 4.59e-08 ***
levelSec:Methodological CS  0.09242    0.39117  0.236  0.81335
levelInter:Methodological CS -0.37424    0.46905  -0.798  0.42547
levelPri:Methodological CS  0.37576    0.42206  0.890  0.37391

```


levelSec:Mixed CS	0.16667	0.40409	0.412	0.68026
levelInter:Mixed CS	-0.06667	0.47988	-	
0.139 0.88959				
levelPri:Mixed CS	0.10000	0.43406	0.230	0.81793

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.228 on 359 degrees of freedom
 Multiple R-squared: 0.2768, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2546
 F-statistic: 12.49 on 11 and 359 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

```
> plot(allEffects(reading.mod))
> plot(allEffects(reading.mod, x.var='CS'))
```

Grammar:

```
> grammar <- improve[improve$skill=='Grammar', ]
> grammar.mod <- lm(change ~ level * CS, data=grammar)
> summary(grammar.mod)
```

Call:
 lm(formula = change ~ level * CS, data = grammar)

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-6.7750	-0.7958	0.1667	0.7778	3.4909

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t	
value Pr(> t)				
(Intercept)	1.7750	0.1709	10.388	< 2e-16

levelSec	-0.9750	0.2960	-3.294	0.00108
**				
levelInter	-0.4417	0.3557	-	
1.242 0.21517				
levelPri	-0.9417	0.3197	-2.946	0.00343
**				
Methodological CS	-0.2659	0.2471	-	
1.076 0.28257				
Mixed				
CS	0.0250	0.2702	0.093	0.92633
levelSec:Methodological CS	2.0492	0.4217	4.859	1.76e-06

levelInter:Methodological CS	1.1548	0.5057	2.284	0.02297
*				
levelPri:Methodological CS	0.7242	0.4550	1.592	0.11234
levelSec:Mixed CS	2.4250	0.4356	5.566	5.10e-08

levelInter:Mixed CS	1.1417	0.5173	2.207	0.02796
*				
levelPri:Mixed CS	1.9333	0.4680	4.131	4.49e-05

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.324 on 359 degrees of freedom
 Multiple R-squared: 0.2257, Adjusted R-squared: 0.202
 F-statistic: 9.512 on 11 and 359 DF, p-value: 4.405e-15

```
> plot(allEffects(grammar.mod))
> plot(allEffects(grammar.mod, x.var='CS'))
```

Vocabulary:

```
> vocab <- improve[improve$skill=='vocab', ]
> vocab.mod <- lm(change ~ level * CS, data=vocab)
> summary(vocab.mod)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = change ~ level * CS, data = vocab)
```

Residuals:

```
      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-5.4667 -0.7818 -0.2500  0.7333  3.7333
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t	
value Pr(> t)				
(Intercept)	0.4467	0.1845	2.421	0.01596
* levelSec	-0.1800	0.3195	-	
0.563 0.57356				
* levelInter	0.8311	0.3840	2.164	0.03111
* levelPri	0.8033	0.3451	2.328	0.02049
* Methodological				
CS	0.8352	0.2668	3.131	0.00189 **
Mixed				
CS	0.8783	0.2917	3.011	0.00279 **
levelSec:Methodological CS	0.8648	0.4553	1.900	0.05829
levelInter:Methodological CS	-0.2240	0.5459	-	
0.410 0.68177				
levelPri:Methodological CS	-0.5018	0.4912	-	
1.022 0.30769				
levelSec:Mixed CS	1.3217	0.4703	2.810	0.00522
**				
levelInter:Mixed CS	0.3994	0.5585	0.715	0.47497
levelPri:Mixed CS	0.4133	0.5052	0.818	0.41382

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.429 on 359 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.2135, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1894
F-statistic: 8.861 on 11 and 359 DF, p-value: 5.664e-14

```
> plot(allEffects(vocab.mod))
> plot(allEffects(vocab.mod, x.var='CS'))
```

Listening:

```
> listening <- improve[improve$skill=='Listening', ]
> listening.mod <- lm(change ~ level * CS, data=listening)
> summary(listening.mod)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = change ~ level * CS, data = listening)
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-4.1833	-0.8739	-0.1667	0.8167	3.8167

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t	
value Pr(> t)				
(Intercept)	1.18333	0.17850	6.630	1.24e-10
**				
levelSec	-0.55000	0.30916	-1.779	
0.076086 .				
levelInter	-0.23889	0.37157	-0.643	
0.520685				
levelPri	-0.64167	0.33393	-1.922	
0.055455 .				
Methodological CS	-0.31061	0.25810	-1.203	
0.229608				
Mixed CS	0.02917	0.28223	0.103	
0.917747				
levelSec:Methodological CS	0.87727	0.44052	1.991	0.047190
*				
levelInter:Methodological CS	1.86616	0.52822	3.533	0.000465

levelPri:Methodological CS	0.64394	0.47531	1.355	
0.176341				
levelSec:Mixed CS	0.50417	0.45507	1.108	
0.268657				
levelInter:Mixed CS	1.58194	0.54042	2.927	0.003638
**				
levelPri:Mixed CS	0.76250	0.48883	1.560	
0.119676				

 Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.383 on 359 degrees of freedom
 Multiple R-squared: 0.1195, Adjusted R-squared: 0.09248
 F-statistic: 4.428 on 11 and 359 DF, p-value: 2.934e-06

```
> plot(allEffects(listening.mod))
> plot(allEffects(listening.mod, x.var='CS'))
```

Appendix G: The average of the results of pre-test and post-test exams

• University Stage:

Groups	Types of switching	Student Number	Total average		Average of Listening		Average of Reading		Average of Vocabulary		Average of Grammar		Average of Writing	
			Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1	Control	60	9.78	14.2	1.99	3.17	2.15	2.6	3.15	3.59	1.03	2.80	1.47	1.96
2	Methodological CS	55	8.27	13.9	2.40	3.28	1.24	2.73	1.81	3.1	1.1	2.60	1.43	2.07
3	Mixed CS	40	7.97	15.4	2.28	3.5	1.07	2.92	1.93	3.26	1.11	2.91	1.43	2.8

• Secondary Stage:

Groups	Types of switching	Student Number	Total average		Average of Listening		Average of Reading		Average of Vocabulary		Average of Grammar		Average of Writing	
			Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1	Control	30	10.5	13.5	3.03	3.66	1.48	2.7	3.06	3.33	0.83	1.63	1.86	2
2	Methodological CS	30	7.93	16.3	2.33	3.53	0.81	3.16	2.03	4	0.75	3.33	1.7	2.25
3	Mixed CS	30	7.6	18.5	3.1	4.26	0.51	3.3	1.76	4.23	0.61	3.86	1.43	2.8

• Intermediate Stage:

Groups	Types of switching	Student Number	Total average		Average of Listening		Average of Reading		Average of Vocabulary		Average of Grammar		Average of Writing	
			Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1	Control	18	8.61	13.5	2.38	3.33	2.33	2.83	1.38	2.66	1.16	2.5	1.33	2.22
2	Methodological CS	18	8.27	17.9	1.61	4.11	2.66	3.83	2.27	4.16	0.94	3.16	0.7	2.66
3	Mixed CS	18	8.61	20.3	2.05	4.61	2.22	4.05	1.77	4.33	1.38	3.88	1.16	3.5

• Primary Stage:

Groups	Types of switching	Student Number	Total average		Average of Listening		Average of Reading		Average of Vocabulary		Average of Grammar		Average of Writing	
			Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1	Control	24	9.29	13.5	2.79	3.33	1.79	2.62	1.41	2.66	1.75	2.58	1.54	2.33
2	Methodological CS	24	9.87	17	3.25	4.12	1.25	3.5	1.75	3.33	1.87	3.16	1.75	2.87
3	Mixed CS	24	9.12	20.2	2.87	4.20	1.70	4.04	1.66	4.20	1.5	4.29	1.37	3.45

The pre-test scores' average and standard deviation:

	Groups	Levels	Total Out of 25		Vocabulary Out of 5		Grammar Out of 5		Reading Out of 5		Writing Out of 5		Listening Out of 5	
			Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev
1	Control	University	9.78	5.30	3.15	1.27	1.03	1.53	2.15	1.65	1.47	1.36	1.99	1.68
2		Secondary	10.5	4.70	3.06	1.59	0.83	0.94	1.48	1.41	1.86	1.44	3.03	1.25
3		Intermediate	8.61	3.18	1.38	1.19	1.16	0.92	2.33	0.97	1.33	0.76	2.38	0.84
4		Primary	9.29	3.73	1.41	0.88	1.75	0.94	1.79	1.10	1.54	1.02	2.79	0.83
5	Methodological CS	University	8.27	3.63	1.81	1.06	1.1	1.06	1.24	1.05	1.43	1.11	2.40	1.32
6		Secondary	7.93	4.05	2.03	1.56	0.75	1.06	0.81	0.94	1.7	1.51	2.33	1.14
7		Intermediate	8.27	3.02	2.27	0.89	0.94	0.99	2.66	0.86	0.7	1.06	1.61	0.84
8		Primary	9.87	4.67	1.75	1.35	1.87	1.19	1.25	1.11	1.75	1.53	3.25	0.84
9	Mixed CS	University	7.97	3.46	1.93	1.22	1.11	0.90	1.07	0.97	1.43	0.95	2.28	1.10
10		Secondary	7.6	4.22	1.76	1.75	0.61	0.94	0.51	0.72	1.43	1.71	3.1	1.26
11		Intermediate	8.61	3.53	1.77	1.00	1.38	1.19	2.22	0.87	1.16	1.09	2.05	0.87
12		Primary	9.12	3.01	1.66	0.70	1.5	1.21	1.70	0.99	1.37	0.87	2.87	0.67

The post-test scores' average and standard deviation:

	Groups	Levels	Total Out of 25		Vocabulary Out of 5		Grammar Out of 5		Reading Out of 5		Writing Out of 5		Listening Out of 5	
			Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev	Ave	StdDev
1	Control	University	14.2	6.42	3.59	1.51	2.80	1.26	2.6	1.59	1.96	1.70	3.17	1.88
2		Secondary	13.5	5.53	3.33	1.42	1.63	1.04	2.7	1.31	2	2.08	3.66	1.30
3		Intermediate	13.5	2.97	2.66	0.84	2.5	0.61	2.83	0.70	2.22	0.64	3.33	0.90
4		Primary	13.5	3.90	2.66	0.86	2.58	0.92	2.62	1.13	2.33	0.91	3.33	0.81
5	Methodological CS	University	13.9	4.08	3.1	0.89	2.60	1.42	2.73	1.12	2.07	1.56	3.28	0.95
6		Secondary	16.3	4.26	4	0.90	3.33	1.11	3.16	0.98	2.25	1.39	3.5	1.09
7		Intermediate	17.9	3.11	4.16	0.85	3.16	0.51	3.83	0.70	2.66	1.08	4.11	0.75
8		Primary	17	6.33	3.33	1.34	3.16	1.30	3.5	1.53	2.87	1.51	4.12	1.51
9	Mixed CS	University	15.4	5.62	3.26	1.42	2.91	1.44	2.92	1.42	2.8	1.55	3.5	1.33
10		Secondary	18.5	6.85	4.23	1.61	3.86	1.53	3.3	1.62	2.8	1.44	4.26	1.48
11		Intermediate	20.3	2.22	4.33	0.59	3.88	0.67	4.05	0.72	3.5	0.92	4.61	0.60
12		Primary	20.2	4.02	4.20	0.83	4.29	0.80	4.04	0.85	3.45	1.10	4.20	0.83