ESCUELA SUPERIOR POLITÉCNICA DEL LITORAL
Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanísticas

THE EFFECT OF USING THE L1 FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR IN THE EFL CLASSROOM FOR PRE-A1 LEARNERS AT AN ECUADORIAN UNIVERSITY

PROYECTO DE TITULACIÓN

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Presentado por:

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Manuel Morales

Dedication

To my parents, Francys and Manuel, for their support throughout my life.

To Gary and Kendra, my two brightest stars.

Manuel Morales

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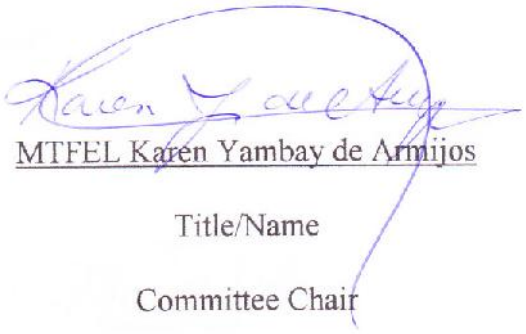

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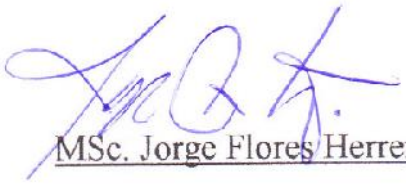

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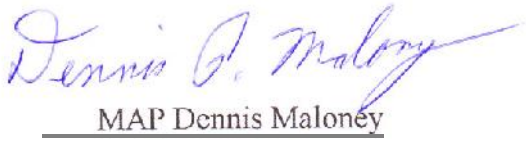

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DECLARACIÓN EXPRESA

"La responsabilidad del contenido de este Trabajo de Titulación, me corresponde exclusivamente; y el patrimonio intelectual de la misma a la Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral".

Manuel Francisco Morales Haz

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of using the L1 for teaching grammar in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom at an Ecuadorian university. To date, research has focused on the teachers and students' beliefs and preferences about first language use, its distribution during class time, its functions while learners perform tasks collaboratively and On the interactions between teacher and students in class. There have been a few recent studies on the effects of the L1 on L2 learning, but these have focused on vocabulary learning. In the present study, seventy-one students enrolled in a pre-university course, ages 17-36 years old, were randomly allocated to an L1 grammar teaching condition or to an English-only grammar teaching condition, and their performance on grammar tests was compared. The findings of this study indicate that both the L1 condition and the L2-only condition had a positive effect on grammar learning. The findings also show that the L1 teaching condition was not superior to the L2-only condition both on immediate posttests and delayed posttest. Possible explanations for these results are proposed.

Keywords: *L1, L2, native language, code-switching, EFL, ESL.*

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List of Abbreviations

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CFFI	Contrastive Focus on Form Instruction
CI	Confidence Interval
CLI	Contrastive Linguistic Input
CLL	Community Language Learning
CN	Compound Noun
d	Cohen's *d*
ELT	English Language Teaching
FFI	Focus on Form Instruction
GJT	Grammatical Judgment Test
IFC	Informed Consent Form
L1	First language
L2	Second Language
L3	Third Language
M	Mean
OPS	Progressive Morphology with State Verbs
p	p-value
PLE	Persian Learners of English
PPP	Presentation, Practice, Production
PPWLS	Present Perfect With Locative State Verbs
PPWPA	Present Perfect With Definite Past Adverbials
RRC	Restrictive Relative Clauses
RRRC	Reduced Restrictive Relative Clauses
SD	Standard Deviation
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
t	t-statistic
TBI	Task-Based Instruction
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TKT	Teaching Knowledge Test
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TT	Translation Test
UG	Universal Grammar

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Although there are today theoretical developments, research findings, and prestigious writers of English Language Teaching (ELT) methodology (Harmer, 2007; Nation, 2009; Nation & Newton, 2009; Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 2002) that attribute to the learner's first language (L1) a role in learning a second language (L2), there is still the belief among some English language teachers that excluding the learners' L1 from the classroom is associated with good standards in the profession. It seems this ideology is the result of teachers from English-speaking countries traveling around the world and not being able to speak the local language or languages, which may have made English not only the language to be learned, but also the medium of instruction (Harmer, 2007). This belief in exclusive use of the L2 is reinforced in seminars, workshops, and training courses offered by ELT publishers. As an example, the training book *The TKT (Teaching Knowledge Test) Course* (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2005), maintains that if appropriate language (the L2) to be used in the classroom is not planned, teachers might "use the L1, or language that is too complex, which would not be helpful to learning" (p. 135). The authors' statement may lead some teachers to interpret that the L1 should be banned from the L2 classroom.

As a consequence, teachers, heads of English language departments, administrators, and government policy makers may be misguided by this belief. In particular, the complete exclusion of the L1 from the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom may be encouraged by recent legislation regarding higher education in Ecuador which requires that undergraduates attain a level of proficiency equivalent

to the B2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). This requirement accompanied by the L1 exclusion belief could make the aforementioned professionals adopt policies and guidelines that suppress the learners' L1 in the L2 classroom, which might prevent learners from using a mediating tool and thus hamper the achievement of the B2 level of proficiency.

1.2 Aims and Rationale

The general objective of this research project is to compare the effect on grammar test scores between EFL instruction that makes use of the learners' first language (Spanish) and EFL instruction that makes use of the L2 only (English).

More specifically the study also attempts:

1. To determine how different are grammar posttest scores between learners who receive instruction in L2 and learners who receive instruction in both L2 and L1;
2. To determine whether there is a difference in the scores of delayed posttests on grammar between learners who receive instruction in L2 and learners who receive instruction in both L2 and L1.

While some studies have been conducted to study the effects of the L1 on L2 vocabulary instruction through reading and listening, and they have particularly focused on intermediate and advanced learners (above pre-A1 level of proficiency in the CEFR), a few have focused on the effects of grammar instruction with beginners (pre-A1 level of proficiency in the CEFR). The number of studies is very limited despite research which has found that learners prefer the L1 not only for explanations of vocabulary, but also for explanations of grammar (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). The results of this study will provide empirical evidence on

the extent to which the use of the L1 can have a positive or negative impact in L2 instruction. This would offer stakeholders (teachers, administrators, government officials, students, and parents) insights into teaching practices that have an impact on L2 instruction.

1.3 Research Questions

In order to inform stakeholders on the effects of the L1 use in the L2 classroom, the following general research questions are posed:

- Do pre-A1 EFL learners who receive grammar instruction using the L1 perform better on grammar tests than pre-A1 EFL learners who receive instruction in L2-only?

This question is in turn divided into two sub-questions:

i. Do pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar using the L1 perform better on grammar post-tests than pre-A1EFL learners who are taught in L2-only?
ii. Do pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar through the L1 perform better on grammar delayed posttests than pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught in L2-only?

1.4 Hypothesis

Once the research questions have been posed, the next step is to establish the hypotheses (Creswell, 2015):

Hypothesis 1:

There is a difference in the scores of post-tests between pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar using the L1 and pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught in L2-only.

Hypothesis 2:

There is a difference in the scores of delayed tests between pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar using the L1 and pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught in L2-only.

1.5 Overview of Enquiry

This section will provide a summary of the chapters developed below in order to offer a general view of this research project.

In chapter 2, the context in which the research took place is detailed. It will describe the location, the institution, the participants, and the instructor. The chapter will also provide information regarding the need for this research project.

In chapter 3, a literature review will be displayed. It will show the origins of the L1 exclusion from the L2 classroom as well as the assumptions that underlie this monolingual approach. The chapter will also offer arguments provided by some scholars against monolingual assumptions and the role attributed to the L1 by some theories of second language acquisition (SLA). In addition, some bilingual approaches to Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) are explained. Finally, studies on the perceptions of students and teachers on the L1's role in the L2 class and research that has investigated the effect of the L1 in L2 learning are included.

Chapter 4 will offer information about the research methodology. It will explain in more detail the research paradigm and methodological stances (nature of the research design, data, research methods, data analysis, and outputs). It will also provide information concerning the research tradition and address issues that ensure validity and reliability as well as ethical considerations involved in the study. Finally,

aspects related to methods of data collection are described such as how the participants were selected and how the data were collected and handled.

In chapter 5, the findings of the study will be provided through a narrative and the use of figures and tables. The results obtained will come from inferential statistics analysis. Results of pre- and post-test scores both from the experimental group and control group will be described, of post-tests between experimental and control group, and of delayed tests between the same both groups.

In chapter 6, the findings will be discussed in order to determine the extent to which L1 instruction on grammar has affected L2 learning compared to instruction on grammar that made no use of the L1. For this purpose, a comparison will be conducted between pre- and post-tests from the experimental and groups, between post-tests from the experimental and control groups, and between delayed tests from the experimental and control groups.

Finally, in chapter 7, a conclusion will be arrived based on the discussion section. It will provide information about findings and how they contribute to answering the research questions. This section will also include the limitations of the study and possible directions for further research.

Chapter 2: Context of the study

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, information about the context of the study (location, institution, participants, etc.) will be provided as well as the need for this study to be conducted. This research was authorized by the Coordinator of the Pre-university Courses since (also as a professor) he wanted to contribute to enhancing knowledge that would allow improvements in TELF that will benefit the students and the university.

2.2 The Institution, the Students, the Instructors

The research was conducted in an Ecuadorian university located in *Los Ríos* province, where agriculture is the main source of income. In Ecuador, the official language is Spanish and English is regarded as a foreign language. In contrast with other provinces, in which certain indigenous languages are recognized, in *Los Ríos* province people only have the Spanish language as their mother tongue. In addition, as in most other provinces, contact with English-speaking people is rare. At the university, the English language is part of the curriculum of programs offered, and thus, learners have to pass six terms and demonstrate a B2 level of the CEFR through a proficiency test just before the last term of their studies.

The students mainly come from low-income families located in towns near the university. Their ages range from 17 to 23 years old. Around half are females and half are males. Most of the students are graduates from state high schools. English language teachers at this university have found that most students in the beginning courses show little command of the language, forcing them to use the L1 in the classroom.

All thirteen instructors hold a bachelor's degree in TEFL from Ecuadorian universities, most of them have a Master's degree in general education, two have a Master's in TEFL, and two are enrolled in a Master's program in TEFL. Only three hold a TKT certificate. One obtained an international B2 certificate in the English language two years ago.

2.3 Need for this Research Project

Due to the government regulation that undergraduates must attain a B2 level of proficiency a term before they finish their studies, and given the English language level that learners bring to the university, it is of paramount importance to provide learners with the best teaching practices based on research and theoretical developments rather than on ideologies.

This study will give teachers, administrators, and students important insights that will influence the way English language teaching is delivered and viewed by non-specialists. These insights will support teachers on the decisions they make in the classroom concerning the use of the L1 and the L2. Teaching will be authentically student-centered since the learners' mother tongue will be recognized and valued. Administrators can be sure that what teachers are doing in the classroom will help learners achieve the required B2 level of proficiency.

2.4 Conclusion

Given the current legislation on higher education and the characteristics of the learners and instructors, conducting this research will shed light on teaching practices and allow students, instructors, and administrators to determine the best course of action to take learners to the level of linguistic competence required by government guidelines.

The next chapter provides an overview of the state of knowledge regarding L1 use for L2 learning. It will present the origins of the exclusion of the L1 and the theoretical and empirical studies that have attempted to elucidate the role of the L1 and its impact on SLA.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

3.1. Introduction

In order to understand the exclusion of the L1 in the L2 classroom, it is necessary to review its origin and examine the tenets that underpin it. For this reason, the following literature review will present in chronological order the way foreign language teaching has evolved as well as the empirical studies that have tried to elucidate this contentious issue.

This literature review will hopefully give stakeholders new insights from experts in the field of SLA, so they can make decide whether to maintain or change the practice of TEFL at the university. The terms monolingual approach and bilingual approach will be used to distinguish between approaches that reject the L1 in the classroom and approaches that assign the L1 a role in SLA, respectively.

3.2. Origin of the Monolingual Approach

In the late 19th century, in the search for a change in the way foreign language was taught by what was known as the Grammar-translation method, some scholars under the Reform Movement advocated for a pedagogy that placed spoken language over written language, presented words and texts in context, emphasized inductive learning of grammar, and avoided translation (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, some scholars from this movement also believed that the learner's L1 could be used "to explain new words or to check comprehension" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 10). In contrast, other scholars among reformers argued that the best way to learn a foreign language was in a *natural* way (emphasis added), which meant that learners had to learn foreign languages monolingually, as children learn their first language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Advocates of this Natural Method claimed that a

foreign language could be taught without using the learner's L1 or translation, but by using action and demonstration (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In addition, Frank (1884, as cited in Richards & Rogers, 2001) offered theoretical arguments for monolingual instruction. He suggested that the target language must be used in the classroom actively by the instructor to foster its use, that the textbook should be replaced from the early stages of teaching, that attention should be placed on pronunciation before producing language orally, that previously known L2 words should be used to teach new vocabulary, and that pictures, gestures, miming, and demonstration should be used.

G. Cook (2010) explains that, in the same period, the increased flux of immigrants to the USA, tourists to Europe, and merchants increased the demand for foreign language classes. In this way, private language schools began. They provided fast lessons that taught language for functional purposes so that learners could easily deal with the demands of the businesses and travel. The most popular school was the Berlitz School. It did not make use of translation during lessons, emphasized oral production, and employed only native-speaker instructors of the target languages. This method of foreign language teaching became known as the Berlitz Method.

According to G. Cook (2010), although the Reform Movement and the Berlitz School emerged separately in the same period and for different reasons (pedagogical reasons and commercial motivation, respectively), their assumptions and practices resulted in new beliefs concerning language use and effective language instruction which formed what is known as the Direct Method. However, this term was never used in the Berlitz Schools (G. Cook, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

3.3. Tenets Underlying the Direct Method

According to G. Cook (2010), four principles underpin the Direct Method: monolingualism, naturalism, native-speakerism, and absolutism. Let us have a look at them:

1. Monolingualism. The first assumption is that the target language will be used only in monolingual contexts. For this reason the target language should be the means of instruction.
2. Naturalism. The second belief is that the best way to learn a second language is in a natural way, in other words, in a setting that replicates the environment in which children learned their first language. Hence, teachers must create a total immersion environment in the L2 classroom.
3. Native-speakerism. This is the belief that native-speaking competence represents the goal to be attained by L2 learners.
4. Absolutism. This is the belief that the only path to successful L2 learning is through the Direct Method.

In the next two sections, it will be explained how the Direct Method changed throughout the following years into what G. Cook (2010) terms form-focused direct method and meaning-focused direct method.

3.4. Form-focused Direct Method

G. Cook (2010) argues that in spite of the apparent break with the past, from the 1950s to the 1970s there still was a focus on form since language learning was still seen as a set of grammar rules to be learned, although now taught in the target language, and certain teaching methodologies included translation activities in their pedagogy. In addition, language learning was considered a matter of habit formation

to master the target structures, and therefore, native language habits had to be replaced by new language habits in the foreign language. The way to accomplish this was by focusing instruction on those aspects of the target language that are different from the pupils' first language.

Among the many teaching movements in the early years of the direct method, a few included translation as part of their pedagogical procedures. Angiolillo (1947, as cited in G. Cook, 2010) reported that in the American Army Method, for example, the unknown language was mediated by the known language, and in practice, the method made use of translation. Similarly, Brooks (1964, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001) listed among the procedures of the audiolingual method, the provision of translation for advanced learners for literary purposes. In suggestopedia, Bancroft (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001) explains that a four-hour class encompasses three different parts, including a portion of the class period when new material takes the form of a dialogue with its translation in order to discuss what the teacher or the learners consider important about grammar, vocabulary, or any other topic. This section is conducted in the target language, but students' questions and comments can be in whatever language they feel they can handle. Likewise, in Community Language Teaching, which adheres to the principle that language activities should emerge from the negotiation between the students and the counselor (the teacher), translation tasks were included among the learning activities (Cook, C. 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). For instance, in a circle of students, a learner whispers a meaning he or she wants to convey. The teacher translates it into the target language, and the student repeats the teacher's translation (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Nevertheless, the representation of these approaches among mainstream developments was not significant.

Although learners were not allowed to compare their L1 with the L2 through translation, such analysis continued in academic research on language learning and on the design of classroom material (G. Cook, 2010). A prominent example is the book *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Teachers* by Lado (1957, as cited by G. Cook, 2010), which, by drawing upon the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, provided the ways by which systematic comparisons between the target language and the learners' own language would be used for "syllabus design, teaching methodology, and testing" (p. 25). These juxtapositions of languages would permit the identification of the learners' linguistic habits to be modified so that learners could acquire the habits of the target language. Under this view, the learners' first language was viewed as negative interference in the learning of the second language. Therefore, it had to be banned in the classroom (V.J. Cook, 2001).

3.5 Meaning-focused Direct Method

G. Cook (2010) argues that new developments in SLA from the 1970s to the 1990s caused a shift in language teaching approaches towards a focus on meaning. These approaches fall under the umbrella known as the Communicative Language Teaching, including the Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-based instruction, and Task-based Language Teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). There is no indication of a role for the learners' first language in the principles and procedures that support these approaches, according to the detailed descriptions made by Richards and Rodgers (2001). Curiously, G. Cook (2010) reports that no translation activities are found in the literature of Task-based Language Teaching

although this type of activity meets the criteria to be considered as a task, that is, "a real world activity outside the classroom" (p. 39). In Content-based Instruction and its European counterpart, Content-Language Integrated Learning, code-switching and translation are practices to be excluded gradually (Marsh, 2002; as cited in G. Cook, 2010). Lastly, G. Cook (2010) criticizes these approaches since although they claim that they take into account the learners' demands (student-centered), they fail to incorporate the learners' first languages, which constitutes the main aspect of their identities.

3.6 Another Argument for L1 Avoidance: Language Compartmentalization

According to V.J. Cook (2001), another argument that promotes the suppression of the L1 is that of language compartmentalization, which consists of building the L2 separate from the L1 (known as coordinate bilingualism), instead of both linguistic systems forming a single one (compound bilingualism)(Weinreich, 1953; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001). Thus, L2 learning should take place without any connection to the L1. Since transfer theories are behind this rationale, the L1 should be prohibited since it is the major problem in L2 learning. Examples of this argument are reflected in teaching practices by using mimes, gestures, and pictures to convey meaning without recurring to the L1.

3.7 Arguments against the Monolingual Approach

From the early 1990s to date, some scholars have cast doubt on the rationale that underlies the monolingual approach. These scholars have also pointed out that there is a pedagogical role for the learners' first language when they are involved in target language learning activities (G. Cook, 2010). In the next paragraphs, the

assumptions underpinning the monolingual approach will be contrasted against arguments from researchers in the field.

Monolingualism assumes that the language to be used in the L2 classroom must be exclusively the very same L2 in order to replicate the setting in which infants learn their first language. This idea mistakenly assumes that children can grow only monolingually, and that, in contrast with L2 adult learners, children do not have an L1 (V.J. Cook, 2001). Additionally, research has shown that exclusive use of the L2 rarely exists in monolingual classes (Macaro, 1997). Moreover, according to the Schema theory (Barlett, 1932; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977; Rumelhart, 1980; as cited in Carrell & Eisterhold, 1932), learners make use of their previous knowledge to process and acquire new information. Thus, learners will use previous knowledge of a language (their L1) to learn another language (the L2). For this reason, Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) argue that although the learners' L1 can be prohibited in the L2 classroom, it cannot be removed from their heads. Instead, they suggest that instruction should work with this normal tendency since it is an important stage in the learners' language development, and not because it is inescapable. In addition, although exposure to the L2 is necessary for SLA, learners also need to be taught what cannot be done with the L2 by comparing the L1 and the L2 (Spada & Lightbown, 1999). The monolingual assumption also ignores that in some circumstances outside the classroom, in natural settings, learners have to make translations for their parents or friends (Malakoff & Hanuka, 1991).

Naturalism is the belief that a foreign language is best learned by replicating in the classroom the natural conditions through which the first language was learned as a child. For .G. Cook (2010), it is questionable that the classroom can replicate "what

happens to someone who 'picks up' a language through immersion in a context where it is used" (p. 8). He also adds that naturalism ignores the fact that some learners grow up in a setting where two or more languages are spoken, and they learn how and when to code-switch.

As for Native-speakerism, criticism of the native speaker as the L2 learner's ultimate goal includes the argument that it is an elusive target (Levine, 2011) which transforms learners into failures (V.J. Cook, 2001). Ortega (2014) points out that the terms native speaker (someone exposed to the language since birth and raised monolingually) and non-native speaker (someone who has learned or is learning another language, but not from birth) go through a process of synecdoche in which the language aspect (monolingual, bi/multilingual) is replaced by the time aspect (exposure to the target language from birth or later in life), which has implications for SLA research. First, the label posits monolingualism as the default process for language learning, against which L2 learners' progress must be measured, triggering a comparison characterized by subordination since bi/multilingualism is considered to be a less natural way of learning than monolingualism. This subordination involves ethical issues since it depicts people who learn another language later in life as deficient. Additionally, it affects the validity of the knowledge obtained based on that assumption since research has found that the human brain can learn more than one language from birth (De Houwer, 2009; Werker & Byers-Heinlein, 2008; as cited in Ortega, 2014). Second, the erasure of bi/multilingual competence from the label of the non-native speaker has the consequence that they are paradoxically investigated as monolinguals, with validity implications, and they are seen in deficit terms as language users, which is an ethical issue. Third, the birth aspect explicit in the native

speaker label confers a linguistic ownership that is associated with a superior competence. Therefore, any linguistic competence that is developed later in life is viewed as less legitimate, aggravating the ethical issue with respect to non-native speakers. One alternative model to be achieved by L2 learners is the one proposed by Levine (2011), who suggests that learners should be instructed to become multilingual and intercultural speakers. A more recent proposal is the one in which learners should be regarded as multicompetent learners (V.J. Cook, 1996; as cited by Block, 2014), that is, as multilingual (having two or more languages) and multi-modal (having a variety of semiotic resources) (Block, 2014).

With respect to absolutism, the idea that successful foreign language learning can only be accomplished by means of the direct method, G. Cook (2010) notes that there is no empirical evidence that supports this assumption. Instead, he argues that research has found in relation to the Direct Method, that "in some circumstances, it may be less effective, or no more effective, than translation" (Källkvist 2008; Kaneko 1992; Laufer and Girsai 2008; Rolin-Iantizi and Brownlie 2002; as cited in G. Cook, 2010, p. 9), and that some learners deeply oppose it (Brooks-Lewis, 2007, 2009; as cited in G. Cook, 2010, p. 9).

Finally, in regard to language compartmentalization, as explained above, this is the belief that the L2 system should be kept apart from the L1 system as the L2 is learned so that successful L2 learning occurs. Nevertheless, research has found that the two linguistic systems are interconnected in the L2 learners' minds in phonology (Obler, 1982, as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001), in pragmatics (Locastro, 1987; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001), in syntax (Cook, 1994; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001), and in vocabulary (Beauvillain & Grainger, 1987; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001). Therefore,

the learners' knowledge of the L1 and the L2 is not neatly separated into blocks, but rather constitutes a system containing both types of knowledge (Block, 2014). In other words, the "L2 meanings do not exist separately from the L1 meanings in the learner's mind" (V.J. Cook, 2001, p. 407). For this reason, there is no point in trying to separate the two languages in the mind since they are interwoven in various ways (V.J. Cook, 2010).

3.8. Role of the L1 in SLA Theories

In her analysis of the role of the first language in ten SLA theories presented by VanPatten and Williams (2015), Ortega (2015) found that the following theories attribute an important role of the L1 in SLA: the Universal Grammar theory, the Usage-based approach, and the Sociocultural Theory.

White (2015) points out that, in the Universal Grammar (UG) theory (Chomsky, 1981; Chomsky, 1995; as cited in White, 2015), the L1 has a privileged role since it is seen as the starting point of SLA. At the initial stages of L2 learning all parameters in the interlanguage (e.g. a head parameter) are set in relation to the L1 configuration. Parameter reconfiguration of the learners' interlanguage to the L2 will depend on the L1 and L2 as well as on the extent to which the L2 input provides positive evidence.

According to Ortega (2015), usage-based approaches grant the L1 a role in SLA: the amount of L2 intake is limited by the learner's experience with the L1, preventing the learner from achieving a final state of L2 acquisition. After years of using the L1 for everyday activities, the learner's brain connections are so tuned to the L1 that learning an L2, L3, etc. will "be biased by this 'learned attention'"(p. 255). Learned attention occurs when our attention focuses on linguistic cues that are more

easily noticeable because they were learned from the L1, but at the same time ignores other redundant linguistic cues because the meaning was already achieved. Although the L1 is not the most important factor in SLA, both the L1 and L2 have an effect (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). Thus, usage-based approaches recognize that the L1 also influences SLA in a positive way.

Ortega (2015), highlights that in the Sociocultural Theory (Vigotsky, 1978, 1986), the L1 is assigned a more prominent role. The learners' own language is just another mediating tool that they use to learn. Thus, the learners' L1 is not seen as interference, but as an instrument that allows them to accomplish tasks they cannot carry out yet in the L2 such as discussing L2 grammar, clarifying words, and talking about how to perform a class activity.

According to Ortega (2015), the role of the L1 in the rest of the theories presented by VanPatten and Williams (2015) is not significant. For example, in the Input-processing theory, it is not considered whether the L1 filters the strategies learners use to parse and understand input. In the Concept-oriented Framework and in Processability theory there is no place for an L1 role in functional language. On the other hand, in the Interaction approach and in the Skill Acquisition theory, an influence is recognized, but without being a crucial determinant. In Complexity theory, the L1 is important since learners are not empty vessels. They bring previous knowledge of their own language and use it to perform tasks. However, the theory does not make any predictions. Finally, the declarative/procedural model does not mention whether or not declarative/procedural knowledge of the L1 is a factor when establishing memories for the L2.

3.9 Bilingual Teaching Approaches

As a consequence of the criticism of the monolingual approach, some approaches have emerged that make use of the learners' first language. Their procedures vary in terms of target language elicitation and how much translation activities are involved. These approaches will be described briefly in the following paragraphs.

New concurrent method.

The method makes use of codeswitching in L2 learning for particular situations (Jacobson, 1990; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001). For instance, the teacher could switch to the L1 to praise or reprimand or switch to the L2 to review a lesson that was explained in the L1. Codeswitching is thus recognized as a legitimate practice of L2 users "in which both languages are concurrent, not a pretend L2 monolingual situation" (p. 412).

In a strong version, the method makes use of cognates as the starting point of the lesson (Giauque & Ely, 1990; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001). Hence, at the beginning of the lesson, the teacher and students use intra-sentential codeswitching to provide and ask for new vocabulary, respectively. Then, after two weeks the instructor is speaks more in the L2 and expects the same from the students.

Community language learning (CLL). Here learners become involved in L2 conversations through the mediation of the L1 (Curran, 1976; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001). As mentioned above in section 2.4., at the initial stage the learner says something in the L1. This is translated by the teacher into the L2. The same learner repeats what the teacher said in the L2. The other learners heard both versions of the

utterance. The learners will need translations less as they make progress. Thus, the L1 is the means by which meaning is transferred to the L2 utterances.

Dodson's bilingual method. The procedure is the following: the teacher reads aloud a sentence several times in the L2 and provides its meaning in the learners' L1. Then the learners repeat the sentence chorally, and next, they repeat it individually (Dodson, 1967; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2001). The teacher checks comprehension by pointing to a picture while saying the sentence in the learners' L1 and requiring learners to reply in the L2. This technique is called 'interpreting'. As in CLL above, the role of the L1 is to attach meaning to the L2 sentence.

Butzkamm and Caldwell's bilingual method.

Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) build their method on Dodson's. They believe that, in order to learn a second language, learners need to learn to decode and code break. In other words, learners not only need to understand the meaning of the sentences as a whole, but also the literal meaning of the sentences. This way, they will be able to use such linguistic items in different settings in the future. As an illustration, a learner of French is taught holistically that *S'il vous plaît* means 'please'. But if the same expression is taught through a sequence of translations (termed *mirroring)* that begins with the literal translation of each linguistic item and finishes after a more equivalent translation is obtained, in this case 'if it pleases you', this would allow learners to transfer the expression to other situations like '*si l'hôtel vous plaît'* ('if you like the hotel') or '*si le vin vous plaît'* ('if you like the wine'). Another feature of the method is the use of what they term 'bilingual semi-communicative drills', which they justify based on the fact that the L2 classroom cannot provide the amount of input exposure and interaction of L2 settings. These

drills involve the following stages: (1) the new expression is analyzed through the mirroring technique; (2) the instructor says several sentences that will be translated into the L2 by the students; (3) the instructor says more sentences, increasing the number of linguistic items and situations; (4) the instructor starts a conversation with the class to elicit sentences so that learners can transfer the knowledge they practiced during the drills to the meaning they want to convey. This step transforms the bilingual drills into semi-communicative ones.

In this process, intra-sentential code-switching is permitted so that learners do not stop talking. Nonetheless, the instructor can also use the 'sandwich technique' to provide the vocabulary needed by the student. In this technique, the teacher provides the meaning of a word or expression by saying it through the sequence L2-L1-L2. The idea is to provide learners with L2 exposure as much as possible. Finally, role plays that include short dialogues are also part of the learning activities. These short dialogues are displayed bilingually. Once the students have understood the dialogues, the instructor reads them aloud, interpreting the roles of the characters. The learners attempt to memorize the dialogues by imitating what the teacher says and the way the teacher speaks (pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation). Then, the students are allowed to make their own role plays in the L2. And finally, they perform their role plays.

The multilingual classroom community of practice.

Levine (2011) does not propose a bilingual teaching method, but rather an approach which uses codeswitching conscious-awareness activities to encourage learners to use the L1 and the L2 indistinctively (codeswitching) in the L2 classroom. These codeswitching conscious-awareness activities have two objectives: (1) to have learners notice the importance of L2 use for SLA, the role the L1 plays in L2 learning,

and the usefulness of codeswitching as normal practice in the classroom; (2) to construct norms, along with the learners, for L1 and L2 use in the classroom. His theoretical framework is based on the Sociocultural theory, the ecological perspective of language learning (Van Lier, 2004), intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993, 1998, 2002b, 2006; Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999; as cited in Levine, 2010), and the notion of communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; as cited in Levine, 2011). Nevertheless, Levine does not make any predictions about the results of his approach and draws upon complexity theory to explain that such results will be contingent on how the students react to each other and to the environment. In other words, although we can create learning situations, we cannot be sure how different groups of learners will react to them.

3.10 The L1 for Maximizing L2 Use

Despite criticism from advocates of a bilingual approach against the L2 monolingual approach, they do not support a return to the Grammar-translation method. Instead, they recognize the importance of L2 use, but argue that bilingual techniques can complement L2 monolingual techniques and that the L1 and the L2 can coexist in the same learning environment. As an illustration, Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) argue that the most important instrument in learning a foreign language is the foreign language per se and that the second most important instrument is the learners' own languages. Additionally, Turnbull (2001) indicates that the principle of maximal use of the target language in the classroom does not imply the exclusion of the mother tongue, but rather an acknowledgment that both languages can coexist. V. J. Cook (2001) adds that a return of the learners' own language to the

classroom may contribute to the improvement of existing teaching techniques and may introduce innovative changes in methodology.

In sum, these scholars admit that the L2 has to be used as much as possible in the classroom, but this does not mean that L1 use should be banned or seen as detrimental to L2 learning. Instead, they suggest a view of a maximal use of the L2 accompanied by bilingual techniques (making use of both the L1 and L2) that promote such maximization of the L2.

3.11 Grammar Instruction

In this section, I will present an overview of current knowledge about grammar teaching. I will include its definition, the implicit/explicit debate about grammar teaching, grammar instruction in SLA theories, and models of grammar instruction.

3.11.1 Definition

Diane Larsen-Freeman (2003, 2014; as cited in Brown & Lee, 2015) points out that there are three dimensions of grammar: (1) form: morphological inflections, syntactical patterns, phonemes, and graphemes; (2) meaning: the semantic aspect of the form; (3) use: the semantic dimension in different types of discourse and contexts.

Traditionally, grammar has been seen only from the form dimension, ignoring the other two (Brown & Lee, 2015). But nowadays grammar concerns "what forms mean and when and why they are used" (Larsen-Freeman, 2014; as cited in Brown & Lee, 2015). Finally, these three dimensions of grammar are not hierarchical and are interconnected in such a way that one has an effect on the others (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 269; as cited in Brown & Lee, 2015).

3.11.2 Methodological approaches to grammar teaching.

In this section, five approaches to grammar teaching will be explained based on Ur's (2011) classification. A sixth approach is taken from the literature.

Presentation, practice, production (PPP).

In this approach, a grammar item is presented and explained through the provision of context; then the new structures are practiced with controlled practice activities, that is, activities that exclusively use the new language without mistakes; and finally a less controlled practice activity is carried out in which learners can include their own words (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2005).

Although PPP has come under criticism on the ground that it does not reflect SLA processes (R. Ellis, 1993; Skehan, 1997; as cited in Ur, 2011), it still pervades the majority of English language learning course books (Nitta & Gardner, 2005; as cited in Ur, 2011). PPP has also been criticized under the argument that despite the fact that learners obtain explanations and practice of the L2, they keep making the same mistakes. A possible explanation is the *Teachability* Hypothesis (Pienemann, 1984; as cited in Ur, 2011), which states that language acquisition of morphology and syntax follows a natural sequence and instruction cannot alter such developmental transition, i.e., learning will only take place if the learners are in the natural stage of development that precedes the new corresponding structure. If the learner is not ready, instruction will be unsuccessful and teaching may be detrimental. However, there is no conclusive evidence on this since studies have found mixed results (R. Ellis, 1989; as cited in Ur, 2011; Spada & Lightbown, 1999).

Another argument against the effectiveness of the PPP approach is that it does not reflect the way first languages are learned, that is, through communicative

activities, and thus learning will not be successful (Ur, 2011). Nevertheless, research has found that explicit instruction has a tendency to produce better results than implicit instruction (Spada, 1997; Norris & Ortega, 2001; Leow, 2007; as cited in Ur, 2011).

Task-based instruction (TBI).

Spratt et al (2005) describe this approach to teaching: at first the teacher and learners discuss the topic of the lesson; then the teacher provides the learners with a task, placing them in a situation where they are forced to use the new structures for real communication, as when they learned their first language; after that the teacher discusses with the learners any problems they had in completing the task; finally, the teacher gives the learners an exercise to practice the new structures.

Seedhouse (1999; as cited in Ur, 2011) has questioned the effectiveness of TBI for teaching grammar. The transcripts of lessons from his research showed that learners, in order to complete the tasks, recur to basic and simple language, often employing lexical items without grammar. Therefore, in recent years, grammar is taught as part of or as an extension of TBI.

Focus on form instruction (FFI) and consciousness-raising.

Ellis (2001, as cited in Ellis, 2006) makes a distinction between three types of form-focused instruction: *focus on forms, focus on form*, and *incidental* focus on form. Focus on forms describes a method that focuses exclusively on accuracy, with learning activities devoted to a particular grammatical structure. Focus on form refers to predetermined or planned activities in which especial attention is paid to the meaning attached to the structures being practiced in learning exercises. Incidental

focus on form occurs when a grammatical item emerges as a consequence of the linguistic needs of learners as they perform a communicative activity.

Another methodological approach to form-focused instruction is consciousness-raising (Ellis, 2001). In this approach, learners are given a task to raise their awareness of particular structures by the use of inductive or deductive teaching. The focus of the activity is not to provide practice, but to develop the learners' explicit knowledge of a grammar item. Ellis claims that consciousness-raising, although it may not have an immediate effect on acquisition, may result in a "*delayed* effect" (p. 172).

Skilled-theory-based Instruction.

Johnson (1996, as cited in Ur, 2011) and Dekeyser (1998, 2007; as cited in Ur, 2011) have argued that the process of learning another language and its grammar is similar to developing a skill such as learning to play a musical instrument or fly a plane, i.e., it transforms declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge through deliberate practice and ultimately creates automatization. By language practice is meant what Larsen-Freeman (2003, as cited in Ur, 2011) terms *grammaring*: grammar activities for purposeful communication (communicative activities) and not mechanical drills that focus on accuracy.

Some researchers have argued that the types of practice that results in better learning is one in which learners must process input (by associating its meaning with its form) rather than produce language (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; VanPatten, 2003; as cited in Ur, 2011). Subsequent studies have confirmed these findings (Qin, 2008; as cited in Ur, 2011), but in general, there is no conclusive evidence (Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006; as cited in Ur, 2011).

Contrastive Focus on Form Instruction (CFFI).

This is an explicit approach to teaching that provides learners with comparisons between L2 and L1 forms to highlight the differences and similarities between them (Laufer & Girsai, 2016). It has been suggested that CFFI can be also used for vocabulary instruction (Laufer & Girsai, 2016). According to Sheen (1996), after research concluded that negative transfer represented a small proportion of learners' errors (Dulay & Burt, 1972; George, 1972; Krashen & Pon, 1975; Richards, 1971; as cited in Sheen, 1996) and that most learners made similar errors and followed similar stages (Krashen, 1982; Selinker, 1972; as cited in V.J. Cook, 2010), the role of Contrastive Analysis (CA) in language teaching and learning faded in the United States (Sheen, 1996). However, in Europe, it became part of a deductive approach and the CA findings were implemented in the classroom to provide students with explanations about the differences between the L2 and L1 (Sheen, 1996).

3.12 Previous Research on the Functions of L1 Use in the Classroom

This section presents an overview of previous research related to teachers and students' perceptions on the role of the L1 in L2 instruction, as well as research on the role of the L1 while performing L2 tasks.

Macaro's (1997) study found that most learners prefer to understand the L2 first before using it in the classroom, or before listening to or reading it. Similarly, learners showed a preference for the L1 for homework instructions and administrative directions. Antón and DiCamilla (1999) and Hancock (1997) reported that learners use their L1 as private or inner speech to focus on the L2 tasks. Learners also use their L1 to share their ideas while performing tasks with other learners in pairs or groups. Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) and Swain and Lapkin (2000) found that L2

learners recur to their L1 to build relationships and generate a stimulating social environment for performing tasks, to focus their attention and overcome difficulties in grammar and vocabulary comprehension, and to keep the task going. Chavez (2003) reported that L2 learners prefer the L1 for clarification of instructions, for feedback from their teachers, for discussion of assessment, and for issues that need an immediate response. Levine's (2003) study showed that use of the L1 or the L2 by instructors and learners is contingent upon the dyads formed and the setting. A positive correlation between anxiety and L2 use was not found. Instead, approximately 63% of students and instructors considered that L2 use was stimulating and gratifying. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie's (2008) findings demonstrated that learners showed a preference for the L1 in grammar explanations and for learning and understanding vocabulary. Some students reported the L1 helps to reduce anxiety. Other students expressed that L2 use was encouraging. The studies conducted by Kim and Elder (2005) and Polio and Duff (1994) found that the L1 is used by teachers for grammar and vocabulary instruction. Macaro (2001) and Polio and Duff (1994) showed that the L1 was used by teachers in classroom management events to assign homework, plan exams, and give instructions. In the study conducted by Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005), the results showed that learners' use of the L1 or the L2 depends on the pedagogical focus of the instructor at a given stage of the lesson. That is, the teacher may recur to the L1 to have learners speak in the L2, or may recur to the L2 to encourage learners to speak in the L1, or may recur to the L2 to get learners to speak in the L2. Moore (2013) reported that students working in pairs while performing a task in which they were given the freedom to select the format and content of the task used the L1 more: (1) as they performed a similar task twice and became more

familiar with their partners; (2) at the initial stages when learners had to negotiate the content and format of the task; (3) during conflict; (4) and when learners perceived their partners had a lower level of proficiency.

No experimental studies before the present research have attempted to measure the effect of grammar instruction in the L1 on teaching the L2 using a PPP approach. However, in the next section various experimental studies that employed the CFFI approach will be presented on the basis that they also aimed at testing the effect of L1 in L2 instruction.

3.13 Previous Studies in Contrastive Focus on Form Instruction (CFFI)

In the next paragraphs, three experimental studies that measured the effect of CFFI on grammar teaching will be explained. Two of them found that CFFI produced a significant effect on grammar learning as compared with an instruction without CFFI. The results of the third study do not show a significant difference between groups.

Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996) tested the effect of Contrastive Linguistic Input (CLI) on the acquisition of difficult English grammar structures by Hebrew speakers. The participants were 137 native speakers of Hebrew from two Israeli high schools. Their average age was 16 and they had been studying English for five years. Classes were randomly assigned to the control group (67 students in two classes) or the experimental group (70 students in two classes). A pretest, posttest, and delayed test research design was implemented. Data collection was conducted through two recognition tasks and two production tasks. The English forms used for the study were compound nouns (CNs) and reduced restrictive relative clauses (RRRCs). The latter can be understood through restrictive relative clauses (RRCs). The instructors

were two 35-year-old teachers who had graduated with high grades from the same school. They received lesson plans and teaching materials before the experiment began, as well as directions to not review the target structures between the posttest and the delayed test period.

The instruction for both experimental and control groups consisted of an inductive presentation, a communicative writing task, and the provision of affective feedback. The experimental treatment consisted of CLI (short summaries of the differences between the L1 and the L2) and recognition tasks. In the CN recognition tasks, participants had to identify the head noun and the modifier while in the RRRC recognition task the participants had to circle the removable items from RRCs. The instruction was conducted in six lessons after which participants were tested. The delayed posttest was administered three months after the immediate posttest. The results indicated that the experimental group performed significantly better on all tasks and on posttests and delayed tests than the control group, who were taught the same structures only through comprehensible input in an implicit way.

Sheen (1996) conducted a study to compare the error rates between learners of English who received grammar instruction through an inductive approach and learners of English through a deductive approach that made use of Contrastive Analysis (CA). The participants were 50 Saudi Arabian male graduates enrolled in an English language program before studying for an MBA in the United States. Their ages ranged from 23 to 24. They were regarded as false beginners since all of them had studied English in their high schools. The placement test used determined that their level of English was homogeneous. Both the control group and the experimental group contained 25 participants. The course lasted 40 weeks, with five classes a week

and 5 hours per day. The teachers for the control group were two native speakers of English from the US. The teachers for the experimental group were the investigator, a native speaker of English from the UK, and a native speaker of Arabic from Sudan with native-like proficiency in English. The lessons for beginners and intermediate learners from a course book were used to teach both groups. In addition to the course book, the material for the experimental group included material for CA input. With the experimental group, all the content of the book was taught using the method of the book, except for that selected as CA input. The selection of linguistic items was based on how useful they were for contrastive analysis. These English items do not exist in Arabic and include the copula, the articles *a* and *an, will* and *going to*, the prepositions *on, in, at, from*, the auxiliaries for negatives and questions, relative clauses that make a reference to the object of the clause, and the verbs *have, make,* and *take.* The control group was taught with an inductive approach and minimal explanation while the experimental group was taught by explaining the differences between Arabic and English. The use of the L1 (Arabic) was necessary for explanations in the early stages, but its use was greatly reduced by the end of the course. There were five tests every eight weeks for the forty weeks. Each test contained cloze exercises, completion with multiple-choice exercises, writing a question for an answer, and writing a story from pictures. In the last two tests, a free composition replaced the story-writing exercises. The tests also included an interview consisting of responses to general questions, obtaining information about the examiner, and using the language for invented situations. All errors were collected and classified by whether they originated through language transfer or by other explanations. The results showed a significant effect of the treatment of CA input as

compared with the inductive treatment, that is, the experimental group made statistically fewer errors related to interference than the control group.

Ahmadi (2016) compared the effect of FFI and CFFI on pretests and posttests with two tasks and for three different types of grammatical structures for Persian learners of English (PLE). Ahmadi was interested in the effect of CFFI on both implicit and explicit metalinguistic knowledge of the learners. The participants were males and females in their first year at an Iranian university. The two classes were randomly chosen. There were 21 and 22 students in each class. Their homogeneous proficiency was confirmed through a mock TOEFL test. Their ages averaged 19 years and ranged from 18 to 23 years. Ahmadi selected three problematic structures for PLEs: progressive morphology with state verbs (OPS), present perfect with definite past adverbials (PPWPA), and present perfect with locative state verbs (PPWLS). She also chose two tasks to measure the participants' performance on these three structures: (1) grammatical judgments and (2) translations. The tests chosen to measure such performances were the Grammatical Judgment Test (GJT) and the Translation Test (TT). The tests were aimed at measuring the participants' implicit and explicit knowledge, respectively, of the target structures.

The GJT and the TT were given to the control and experimental groups before the instruction (pretest). Both the control and experimental groups received the explicit metalinguistic instruction, but the control group received instruction in English only and the experimental group in both English (L2) and Persian (L1) by highlighting the contrasts between these two languages. The treatment took two weeks in which four 90-minute class sessions were delivered. Drawing upon Ellis (1994, as cited in Ahmadi, 2016) on the benefits of using both explicit and implicit

instruction, Ahmadi implemented both types of instruction in the treatment. The first and second sessions were identical in both groups, but in the third and fourth sessions, the control group received more practice of text construction while the experimental group received CFFI and translation practice. Both conditions received corrective feedback before taking the posttests. After two weeks of instruction, the participants took the GJT and TT. The results showed that there was no significant difference between the FFI and the contrastive FFI on the GJT. However, after realizing the final score did not include the number of incorrect choices made by participants, Ahmadi decided to analyze those too. She found differences between groups related to particular features of the target structure and the cognitive procedure involved in the instruction. It seemed that the use of contrastive analysis, which makes use of metalinguistic reasoning processes, confused participants in the experimental group. Thus, for the OPS, 52% of the control group participants improved their judgments of these ungrammatical structures as compared with 16.6% of the experimental group participants. In contrast, in the PPWPA, 43% of the participants in the experimental group were more accurate in identifying ungrammatical choices whereas 18% of the participants in the control group were able to do so. As for the PPWLS, the results are not clear cut. Eighteen percent of the participants in the control group and 20% of the participants in the experimental group became more accurate in recognizing the target structures as ungrammatical. Another possible factor was the participants' learning styles since some could have been more analytical than others, who may not have made the most of CFFI. In the TT, both FFI and CFFI increased the participants' accuracy of all target structures, but the CFFI was superior to the FFI. As a possible explanation, the explicit and analytical training received by the

experimental group may have prepared them for the TT. In contrast, the control group received extra practice on target structures in the form of implicit teaching.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Research Paradigm

4.1.1 Definition and rationale.

This study aligns to a positive research paradigm. According to Bassey (2002), in the positivist research paradigm, reality exists out in the world, independent of people's interpretations. With time and effort, this independent reality can be identified through the senses. Since language is a socially accepted system to describe reality, discoveries can be communicated to others. Positivist researchers do not consider themselves as variables in their studies. Positivists usually attempt to express their discoveries through generalizations. The data that positivist researchers handle are usually numerical, appropriate for statistical analysis.

In this study, I try to understand a reality that exists outside my interpretation or the interpretation of participants or stakeholders. This object of study, if it exists, is the effect of grammar instruction that makes use of the L1 in L2 learning, in contrast with a type of instruction that privileges the L2. In order to determine the existence of this phenomenon, I will have to observe the students' performance under certain controlled conditions and determine whether or not it occurs. The data provided by the students' performance will be subject to measurement and therefore statistical analysis will be employed to confirm or not the presence of the object of study.

4.1.2. Methodological stances.

4.1.2.1 The researcher and the participants' roles.

As a researcher and in alignment with my ontological and epistemological position described above, I was in an external position with respect to the study although I was the instructor in both the L1 condition and L2 condition. As I

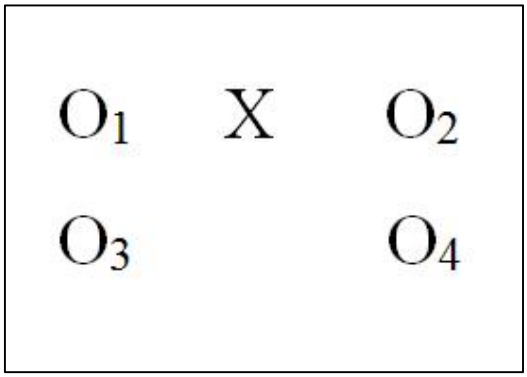
researcher I took the necessary steps to ensure validity and reliability of the research. I also collected the data from valid and reliable instruments and used statistical procedures for the analysis of data. I provided a discussion of the findings and a conclusion without any subjectivism or biased.

The role of the participants during the study was to attend classes and engage in the activities as students normally do; that is, they participated in pair/work/class activities, completed exercises individually, asked questions, and behaved respectfully and cordially towards the teacher and classmates. The participants' role also included not cheating during the administration of tests. Finally, it is necessary to mention that participants were paid a stipend of US$1.00 per class attended as a compensation for incurred transportation expenses.

4.1.2.2 The nature of the research design.

This study was quasi-experimental and consisted of a pretest/posttest control group design as shown in Figure 4.1 below. The tests assessed the students' knowledge of English grammar. The research was conducted in six weeks. There were four weeks of instruction with two class sessions per week, each lasting 2 hours per day. A pretest and a posttest were administered before and after each class session respectively for both control and experimental group. The delayed test was administered two weeks after the last session.

Figure 4.1 Research design



4.1.2.3 Nature of the data and research method.

At the end of each class, participants' knowledge of grammar was tested using objective assessments for discrete items of grammar. These tests and their corresponding answer keys were taken from the book series used at the university. Since it is published by a worldwide prestigious publisher, it was assumed that they had been tested for validity and reliability. The learners' tests were marked and the results expressed over ten points in order to make comparisons with other tests in the study. Therefore, the data provided by the tests are quantitative in nature and continuous.

In the light of the above, the most appropriate research method is the quantitative research method. According to Bryman (2012), the quantitative research method involves eleven steps that are not necessarily linear: (1) developing a theoretical framework (in our case, the literature review); (2) establishing a hypothesis; (3) selecting a research design; (4) devising measures of concepts (in our study the tests taken from the textbook used at the university); (5) selecting a research site; (6) selecting respondents; (7) administering research instruments and collecting data (the administration of grammar tests); (8) processing data to be quantified (re-

expressing the test scores over 10 points); (9) analyzing data (comparing test scores within groups and between groups); (10) arriving at results/conclusions (findings are interpreted by the researcher and the implications are determined); (11) reporting results/conclusions (through this manuscript).

4.1.2.4 The nature of data analysis.

The data obtained from the pretests, posttests, and delayed tests were analyzed by the use of inferential statistics. After choosing the appropriate statistical test, IBM SPSS version 23 was employed to run the calculations. However, the results were confirmed with the use of an online calculator at www.socscistatistics.com/tests. This online tool also provided the real value of *p*. Cohen's *d* was obtained at www.uccs.edu/~lbecker/ and checked by using the formulas provided by Gravetter and Wallnau (2013).

The figures presented in this study were also obtained by using IBM SPPSS version 23. This software provided more accurate figures than the ones provided by Microsoft Excel 2016.

4.1.3.5 Nature of outputs.

The data obtained from the data analysis were numerical in nature. From the statistical analysis, I determined the values of the mean test scores, standard deviation, degrees of freedom, *t* value, *p*-value, Cohen's *d*, and confidence intervals were obtained. All of these were necessary to make a contrast and determine whether the mean test scores of the experimental and control groups were significantly different or not.

4.1.3. Ascertaining the warrant for the study.

a. Reliability.

In research, reliability refers to the replicability of the results of an experiment if the procedures are followed in the same way as in the original study (Bryman, 2012). In testing, reliability refers to the consistency of the results of the test after several administrations (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

It is possible that the results of the study can be replicated since the research design and the procedures to conduct the experiment and collect the data were detailed. As regards the reliability of the tests employed in this study, they were obtained from the course book used for university English classes: *Four Corners* (Richards & Bohlke, 2011), published by Cambridge University Press. However, according to Mackey and Gass (2005), it is important to verify that the tests measure the variable as it was operationalized. After doing that, I selected the exercises that would measure the variable in each of the lessons and at the delayed test time. I noticed that the grammar exercises tested learners' knowledge of morphological and syntactical structures through the use of objective tests that included completion questions and multiple option questions (see Appendix A). These types of questions require objective marking and therefore it is expected that the results are stable if they are administered again. In addition, the tests were piloted with university students who did not participate in the experiment.

b. Validity.

Validity is "the appropriateness of a procedure for measuring the underlying construct a study intends to investigate" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 203). The procedure established in the experiment to measure the variable "knowledge of grammar" is appropriate since steps have been taken to control for extraneous variables in the pretest-posttest control group design, and objective written tests were selected to measure the construct. Thus, aspects such as content validity, face validity, construct validity, criterion-related validity, and predictive validity were checked although it could have been assumed that the authors of the course book had taken all of these into account when designing their tests.

In testing, validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it is intended to measure (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). The tests thus had to measure participants' knowledge of discrete syntactical and morphological items by having learners complete sentences and questions, transforming verbs and nouns, or by selecting the appropriate form for a sentence, question, word or answer. After checking the grammar exercises from the quizzes and test of the course book, surprisingly, the grammar exercise in the quiz for lesson 4 of the research did not measure the variable as it was operationalized. The exercise required that learners make lexico-grammatical choices by matching questions containing *how old* and *who* with the corresponding answers. Neither morphological transformation nor syntactical movement was requested from learners. Furthermore, none of the exercises from the quizzes, tests, and workbook measured the grammar point for lesson 4 of the research as it was operationalized, and thus, no test was administered in that lesson. A similar situation occurred with the grammar exercise for lesson 6 and 7. The exercises did

not test all the grammatical items included in that lesson or did not have face-validity. Thus, after consulting with the thesis advisor, two exercises from the workbook were used instead. Another feature of the quiz exercises that would have affected validity was that three of them contained examples as a way to guide learners to complete the task. However, I considered that these examples would have jeopardized the validity of the results and removed them.

Creswell (2015) and Bryman (2012) also warn us about threats to validity, which are factors that can cause us to make wrong inferences about the results of an experiment. They distinguish two types of threats to validity: threats to internal validity and to external validity (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015). Let us take a look at each of them.

Threats to internal validity.

Internal validity is the extent to which the cause-effect relationship obtained through the study is explained by the independent variable (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Threats to internal validity, thus, are problems that lead us to wrong conclusions about the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable, and they can be categorized as threats related to the participants (history, maturation, regression, selection, mortality, and interactions with selection), related to the treatments (diffusion of treatments, compensatory equalization, compensatory rivalry, and resentful demoralization), and related to the procedures (testing and instrumentation) (Creswell, 2015). They will be discussed below in relation to the present study.

One of the threats to internal validity related to the participants is history (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015). These are events different from the manipulation of

the researcher that occur throughout the experiment and may affect the results of the study (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015). In this study, there were two particular events that might have influenced the results: the final exam and the make-up exam of the pre-university course. These took place between the last immediate posttest and the delayed test, and might have caused some learners to lose focus in the last lesson or become too busy to prepare for the delayed test.

Maturation and regression are two other threats to internal validity (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015). The former refers to developments of the participants during the experiment such as gaining experience and knowledge, becoming older or stronger, etc. that could affect the outcomes of the experiment (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015). The present study lasted 6 weeks, and therefore significant changes probably did not occur during that time since it is not enough time for such changes to take place. On the other hand, regression occurs when participants obtain better or worse scores on the posttests irrespective of the treatment because they were selected from groups with extreme scores. This is not the case in the present study since learners were selected based on the level of proficiency indicated by the placement test. Only learners placed at level 1A or 1B were selected.

Selection can present a threat to internal validity because individuals might be selected who are considered more intelligent, or more responsive to a treatment, or have received the treatment before and are assigned to the control group (Creswell, 2015). Bryman (2012) points out that this type of threat occurs when the participants have not been selected randomly from a population and the outcomes of the study could be explained by the learners' differences and not by the treatment. However, this could be avoided by random allocation (Bryman, 2012). In this research, the

participants were not selected randomly from a population. Instead, they were invited to participate through the use of an informed consent form (IFC). However, in order to control for the learners' differences, they were randomly allocated to the experimental group or control group through a matching process (Creswell, 2015) based on gender in order to equally distribute differences among participants. Therefore, this type of threat to validity did not exist in this study.

Another threat to internal validity is mortality. It happens when the participants stop attending the experiment because of any reason they may regard as important (Bryman; 2012; Creswell, 2015). Unfortunately, in this research, there was a significant level of mortality. The number of students attending the sessions decreased during the experiment, creating a limitation of the study. One possible explanation is that most of them gave priority to their pre-university classes.

As for the threat of validity known as interaction with the selection, it refers to the problems originated by the interplay between the selection of the participants and any of the above-mentioned threats (Creswell, 2015). For instance, there may be an interaction between selection and certain events since various participants come from different backgrounds.

Creswell (2015) also warns about threats to internal validity related to the treatment: diffusion of treatments, compensatory equalization, compensatory rivalry, and resentful demoralization. Diffusion of treatments occurs when participants from the control group and experimental group can communicate with each other and share information about the treatment. In this study, the groups were separated by receiving their classes on different days. Although there was the possibility that they could communicate in the afternoons when they attended their pre-university classes, this

possibility was low since they were from different majors and faculties and their classes were taught in different classrooms and buildings.

In addition, during an experiment, only the experimental group receives a treatment (with potential benefits) while the control group does not, causing inequality, a potential rivalry between groups, and demoralization by members of the control group (Creswell, 2015). These threats to validity were addressed by providing participants from the control group with the treatment (compensatory equalization) in the following two weeks after the delayed test, avoiding rivalry (compensatory rivalry), resentment and demoralization, which could have affected the performance of participants and thus internal validity.

Another category that threatens internal validity is related to the procedures of the study: testing and instrumentation (Creswell, 2015). Testing takes place when participants remember the responses from the pretest and use them later in the posttest (Creswell, 2015). In this experiment, the participants were given a pretest and posttest for each class. This would have been a threat to internal validity if there had been one group design, but our study was a two group pretest-posttest design. Therefore, the design does not affect internal validity since both groups were administered the pretests and posttests with the difference that the experimental group received the treatment, and changes in performance between the groups can be explained by the treatment.

Instrumentation is another threat to internal validity in which the findings of a study can be the result of a different way of administering the tests between groups (Bryman, 2012, Creswell, 2015). That is not the case in our research. First, the tests

were the same for the experimental and for the control group. Second, the tests were administered following the same procedure and for the same amount of time.

Threats to external validity.

External validity refers to the extent to which the results can be generalized to other settings (Bryman, 2012) and to the broader population of language learners (Mackey & Gass, 2005). In order to overcome threats to external validity, Creswell (2015) recommends "strong research designs, random assignment, a thorough description of subjects, and replication of studies" (p. 306). Let us compare them with our study.

This research demonstrates a solid pretest/posttest research design by taking measures that ensure internal validity. Although the participants were not selected randomly from a population, they were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups, and the likelihood of pre-existing differences between both groups was dissipated (Bryman, 2012). The participants will be described in the corresponding section below.

Campbell (1967; as cited in Bryman, 2012) and Cook and Campbell (1979; as cited in Bryman, 2012) point out five threats to external validity: interaction of selection of treatment, interaction of setting and treatment, interaction of history and treatment, interaction effects of pre-testing, and reactive effects of experimental arrangements. Each of these will be explained below, along with a comparison to our study.

The interaction of selection of treatment concerns the inability to generalize to a wide spectrum of individuals in terms of social class, age, ethnicity, geography and personality (Campbell, 1967; Cook & Campbell, 1979; as cited in Bryman, 2012). A

way to increase generalizability is to show potential participants how convenient for them their participation could be (Caldwell, 2015). Participation in this study was offered to all pre-university students from different faculties, with the exception of the Faculty of Agricultural Sciences, whose students could not participate since their pre-university classes took place in the morning and conflicted with the experimental lessons. Potential participants were informed that they would receive English language lessons, class material, and coffee breaks for free. The results of this study cannot be generalized to a broader population since all participants scored enough points on pre-admission tests to allow them to be in the pre-university classes. In addition, most of them come from mid-low socio-economic status. These learners' characteristics, admittedly, set a limit to a generalization of the results.

Interaction of setting and treatment involves the difficulty of generalizing to other settings rather than the one in which the experiment was conducted (Campbell, 1967; Cook & Campbell, 1979; as cited in Bryman, 2012). Probably, the study can only be generalizable to rural state universities and with students who share the same first language, in this case Spanish. It would not be cautious to generalize to private universities, high schools, or to students who speak a common first language different from Spanish or any other European language. Thus, caution should be taken when extrapolating the results to other settings.

Interaction of history and treatment refers to the attempt of the researcher to generalize the results to past and future situations or at different points in the year (Campbell, 1967; Cook & Campbell, 1979; as cited in Bryman, 2012). As stated before, the participants started taking the lessons in the middle of the pre-university term, and the experimental sessions ended near the final examinations. Perhaps the

findings would have been different if the experiment had started at the beginning of the term. According to Creswell (2015), a solution is to replicate the experiment at another point in time.

Interaction effects of pre-testing occur when the results of an experiment cannot be generalized to people who are not pre-tested, which is the condition of most people in real life (Campbell, 1967; Cook & Campbell, 1979; as cited in Bryman, 2012). It is clear that this could be an additional limitation of the study. All participants were administered a pretest and students outside an experiment condition do not receive that type of examination.

Reactive effect of experimental arrangements refers to the possible situation in which participants may modify their behavior because they are aware that they are taking part in an experiment (Campbell, 1967; Cook & Campbell, 1979; as cited in Bryman, 2012). There was no indication that participants in this study behaved as if they were in an experiment. They attended sessions and participated in them as if they were normal English classes.

4.1.4. Ethical considerations

Conducting experiments which involve human beings implies taking certain ethical issues into account in order to avoid causing physical or psychological harm. Ethical considerations of this study will be detailed in the following paragraphs.

First, I visited the Dean of the Business Faculty at his office to explain that I needed a classroom to conduct my research project for my master's degree and that the results of the project would have important implications for teaching English at our university. The Dean gave me access to one of the classrooms that was available

during the term for the period that I needed to conduct the research. The room assigned was room 3.05 located on the third floor. See appendix C.

Second, I solicited authorization from the Coordinator of the Pre-university Department to conduct the research and to access the students enrolled in the first term of the year 2017. I explained to him the aims of the research, research design, how, when, and where it would be conducted and what the results would be used for. I also provided him with information about potential risks during the research. After explaining the details of the study, he provided written authorization to conduct the study and to go into classrooms inviting students to participate. The authorization letter can be seen in Appendix D.

Third, I provided potential participants with an Informed Consent Form (IFC) to provide them with information regarding the study and to obtain their authorization to participate. There were two versions of the IFC: one for adults and the other for minors. The IFC informed potential participants about the goal of the study, the procedure to select participants, the research design, how they would be assigned to the control or experimental groups, and the time the study would take. In addition, ethical considerations regarding their safety were included in the IFC as well as details about the provision of additional classes to the control group so they could receive the potential benefits of the treatment. The document also contained explicit information about how confidentiality and anonymity would be handled. In addition, the IFC explained that participants could stop attending classes at any time for any reason without any type of penalty. At the bottom of the first page, contact information about the researcher was displayed in case of questions regarding the participation or the research. On the next page, there was a space for the participant's

signature. In the IFC for minors, the document requested the signature of the minor's parent as well. This IFC for minors had a section with an appropriate level of language for them to consent to their participation. The IFC also provided potential participants the opportunity to choose the class schedule most convenient for them. Two options were included, one on weekdays and the other on weekends.

It is important to mention that there was no need for Review Board Approval since internal regulations of the university do not rule this type of research. In addition, all of the above was explained to potential participants while I visited the classrooms. I encouraged them to ask questions and I answered them. With respect to their concerns about not understanding classes in the control group (L2-only condition), I explained to them that I had been trained for that purpose and that I had about 12 years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language to young adults.

One important ethical issue to mention is that the IFC did not include, but I did explain to potential participants, that they would receive a stipend of US$1.00 per class attended as a compensation for transportation expenses for traveling to classes. At the end of each class, a coffee break was offered to both groups. Similarly, in order to encourage attendance, I offered participants who would always attend classes the opportunity to participate in a raffle for two movie tickets. One movie ticket was offered in the same way to those who would miss two or three classes. The raffle would be on the day of the administration of the delayed test. All prizes were given as promised.

Another important ethical issue to consider was the protection of the copyright of the instructional material employed in the experiment. For this reason, an

authorization letter was solicited from the General Manager of Cambridge University Press in Ecuador so that the lessons selected from the student's book, the quizzes, tests, workbook, and placement test could be used without infringing copyright. See Appendix F.

Finally, in order to avoid preventing participants in the experimental group from the potential benefits of the experimental instruction, they attended additional lessons to receive the L1 grammar instruction not only from the lessons and exercises, but also through additional practice from the exercises in the workbook.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Definition and characteristics.

The quantitative research method is used for this study. According to Bryman (2012), quantitative research "emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data" (p. 35) and shows the 0066ollowing characteristics (Bryman, 2012):

a. It involves a deductive approach in the testing of theories.
b. It makes use of the scientific procedures and rules found in the natural sciences, in particular, those of positivism.
c. It views social phenomena as an objective, external reality.

Creswell (2015) points out the following characteristics

a. Research problems are identified based on trends or on attempts to explain the relationship between variables.
b. The literature is conferred an important role from which research questions, research justifications, and hypotheses are originated.
c. Specific, observable, and measurable "purpose statements, research questions, and hypotheses" (p. 13) are generated.

d. Numerical data from a large number of individuals is gathered with instruments that contain pre-fabricated questions and answers.
e. Tendencies are analyzed, groups are compared, variables are related or contrasted by employing statistical analysis, and the findings are interpreted by contrasting them with previous studies and predictions.
f. The researcher takes an unbiased approach and makes use of pre-established structures and evaluation principles to write the research report.

Finally, according to Mackey and Gass (2005), there are two types of quantitative research: associational and experimental. Associational research attempts to find a relationship between variables while in experimental studies the researcher "manipulates one or more variables (independent variables) to determine the effect on another variable (dependent variable)" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 137). This study falls into the latter category since the researcher employed grammar instruction that used L1 grammar instruction (independent variable) to find out the effect on the participants' knowledge of grammar (dependent variable).

4.2.2 Methods of data collection.

At this stage of the research, it is necessary to specify the variables in the hypotheses, define the variables, and select an instrument to measure the variable (Mackey & Glass, 2005).

a. Specification of variables.

Let us take a look at the research questions and hypotheses in order to determine the variables:

Research question 1*:*

Do pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar through the use of their L1 perform better on grammar post-tests than pre-A1EFL learners who are taught in L2-only?

Research question 2:

Do pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar through the use of their L1 perform better on grammar delayed posttests than pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught in L2-only?

Hypothesis 1:

There is a difference in the scores of post-tests between pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar by using their L1 and pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught in L2-only.

Hypothesis 2:

There is a difference in the scores of delayed tests between pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught grammar by using their L1 and pre-A1 EFL learners who are taught in L2-only.

We can therefore determine that the dependent and independent variables are the following:

Dependent variable**:** learners' performance on grammar

Independent variable: grammar instruction in two levels: one in which the L2-only is used and the other in which both the L1 and L2 are used.

b. Definition of variables.

Although grammar can be defined as an individual's knowledge of morphology, syntax, and phonetics (Richards & Rodgers, 2002), or as an

understanding of the form dimension, the meaning dimension, and the pragmatics dimension (Diane Larsen-Freeman, 2003, 2014; as cited in Brown & Lee, 2015), its definition will be limited here to knowledge of morphological and syntactical rules due to time constraints of this study. Thus, the dependent variable is defined as: the degree to which a participant has learned grammar.

The independent variable is defined as: the additional instruction of English language grammar by using inter- and intra-sentential codeswitching and the sandwich technique.

c. Selection of an instrument.

The instrument selected to measure the participants' knowledge of grammar is an achievement test. The content of the achievement test provides evidence that it measures what it is intended to measure. Since the guidelines provided by this master's program to conduct this study required that tests be taken from the literature with previous authorization from the author in order to use valid and reliable tests, I analyzed and selected the grammar exercises from the quizzes and tests of the course book used for instructing participants. The course book selected was *Four Corners* (Richards & Bohlke, 2011). I was familiar with the textbook since it is used at the university where the study was conducted and where I used to work. The General Manager of Cambridge University Press in Ecuador gave her authorization as you can see in Appendix F. That way I verified that tests measure the grammar that has been taught and as it has been operationalized. I had to remove a test from the experiment since the exercises provided in the quizzes, test, and workbook did not assess morphology or syntax of the grammatical item, but rather the meaning of the structure through questions and their corresponding responses. See Appendix A for a view of

the tests. On another occasion, after discussion with the thesis advisor, it was deemed necessary to use a workbook exercise since the quiz provided did not measure all the grammar aspects taught in the lesson. Thus, the exercises for the pretests and posttests were taken from the quizzes and workbook while the exercises for the delayed test were taken from the Units 1-6 test. The pretests and posttests for each session were the same and measured the grammar item taught on that day. The delayed test measured knowledge of grammar from all eight sessions.

4.2.3 Selection and handling of data.

The dependent variable was operationalized as learners' performance on grammar tests and the data that these tests provided were quantitative in nature: numerical and continuous data. For this reason, in order to administer the data, quantitative research procedures were used.

First, the tests were collected and placed into the briefcase. Pretests were stored separately from posttests. At the office, the tests were marked based on the answer key provided by the course book. The total score for each participant's test was obtained. All participants' scores were entered into a Microsoft Excel 2010 file according to the type of condition (experimental vs control), on the corresponding class session, according to the participant's code number, and according to the type of test (pretest or posttest).

Second, the test scores were standardized. Since the different tests were designed by taking the exercises from the quizzes, tests, and workbook of the course book, this resulted in different total scores for each test. Thus, in order to make valid comparisons between score means, it was necessary to express the total test scores over 10 points by using the rule of three in Microsoft Excel.

The next step was to select the correct statistic. According to Brown (1988), this choice depends on the "number of groups, the types of scales, and the sizes of the samples" (p. 158). He adds that the *z* statistic is used for large samples (more than 30 observations), and the *t* statistic for any sample size (Brown, 1988). Therefore, since there were two groups (control and experimental groups), the type of scale was nominal, and with a sample size less than 30, the *t* statistic was chosen for the inferential analysis.

However, Gravetter and Wallnau (2013) point out that there are three assumptions that have to be taken into account before using the *t* test for independent measures. First, the data must come from two independent samples. Second, "the two populations from which the samples are selected must be normal" (p. 337). And third, "the two populations from which the samples are selected must have equal variances" (p. 337). Therefore, it was verified if the data met those assumptions. First, for the posttest analysis, the data came from two different groups: the control group and the experimental group. Thus, the first assumption was fulfilled. Second, there was no reason to think that the samples were not taken from a population with normal distribution since all pre-university students were approximately 1,200 people. Data tend toward a normal distribution as the number of the observations increases (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Third, Larson-Hall (2012) suggests using the Welch procedure when the equal variance assumption cannot be satisfied. She also adds that Dalgaard (2002, as cited in Larson-Hall, 2012) recommends such a procedure even for samples with equal variance. Ruxton (2006) states that Welch's t-test is also known as unequal variance t-test. Therefore, the t-test for unequal variances was used here.

Similarly, Gravetter and Wallnau (2013) note that there are two assumptions for the dependent samples *t* test. First, the observations within each treatment must be independent. Second, difference scores must be normally distributed. Thus, since any participant's performance on the grammar test was not influenced by any other participant's performance, the first assumption was met. Finally, because the sample size was small and decreased during the experiment, the second assumption may not be met satisfactorily, which would weaken the power of the statistic in the pretest-posttest analysis. However, Gravetter and Wallnau (2013) suggest the Wilcoxon test when there are concerns about whether one of the assumptions for the dependent sample *t* test cannot be satisfied. In that vein, the Wilcoxon test was used instead of the *t* test for repeated-measures design.

IBM SPSS version 23 was used to run the calculations and make the figures presented here. In addition, the statistical calculator at www.socscistatistics.com/tests was used to confirm calculations and to obtain the exact value of p in the *t* test for independent-measures design assuming unequal variances. Cohen's *d* was obtained by using the online calculator at http://www.uccs.edu/~lbecker/ and the results were confirmed by using the formula provided by Gravetter and Wallnau (2013).

The files containing the scores, calculations, results, tables, and graphs are stored in my laptop computer and backed up in the cloud of my personal Hotmail account.

4.2.4 Participants.

The biodata of the participants was obtained through the use of a short survey provided in Appendix G. This collected contact information and information about

personal background that will be detailed below. These surveys were stored separately from the tests to protect anonymity and confidentiality.

The participants are pre-university students enrolled in the afternoon and evening shift of the second term of the year 2016. Six percent of participants were pre-university students from the Faculty of Environmental Sciences, 25% were from the Faculty of the Administrative and Entrepreneurial Sciences, 45% from the Faculty of Engineering Sciences, and 24% from the Faculty of Animal Sciences. Students from the Faculty of Agricultural Sciences were not able to participate since their class schedule had a conflict with the classes of the experiment.

More than half of the participants (57%) were males and 43% were females, with ages ranging from 17 to 36 years old. The average age was 19 years old. Fifty percent of the participants were between 18 and 21 years old.

4.2.5 Selection and/or sampling.

After obtaining authorization to access a classroom and solicit students of pre-university courses enrolled in the afternoon and evening shift, I went into each of the 33 classrooms (23 classrooms on the main campus and 10 classrooms on another campus located 20 minutes away) to invite potential participants to take part, providing them with information regarding the study and the ethical measures to secure their safety. Minors obtained a different version of the IFC so that they could ask authorization from their parents. Some students signed the IFC on the same day, others (adults and minors) on the next day. Some declined to participate and returned the IFC.

When I visited the classrooms, I also explained that students who decided to participate would not necessarily be part of the study. They would have to take a

placement test in order to determine their level of English. I explained that if a learner were placed at a high level, he or she would not be accepted to participate since the study focused on learners at the pre-A1 level of proficiency of the CEFR and his or her participation would undermine the validity of the results.

As a result, 142 people signed the IFC and were informed about the time, date, and location of the placement test. Seventy-one students took the placement test and completed a survey on their biodata. As mentioned before, the placement test was one of the components of the course book used to teach classes at the university and which was used to teach the classes to both the experimental and control group. Since the research focused on the effects of the experimental instruction on pre-A1 learners, only those students who were placed at level 1A or level 1B were selected to participate in the research. According to a table at the back of the course book, students who are at level 1 (level 1A or level 1B in the split version) are developing to achieve an A1 level. So, at the end of level 1 (or at the end of level 1B), learners would be able to take a proficiency test (after taking a preparation course to familiarize them with the test) for an A1 level. For this reason, participants placed at levels 1A or 1B were considered pre-A1 learners.

The results of the placement tests showed that 24 students were placed at level 1A, 47 learners at level 1B, 11 people at level 2A, 8 students at level 2B, and 3 candidates at level 3A. In this vein, only people who were placed at levels 1A and 1B (a total of 71 participants) were selected to participate. These students were informed of the starting date of classes, the time, and the classroom. Before classes began, they were randomly allocated to the control group or experimental group with a matching process (Creswell, 2015) based on gender to equally distribute such a difference

between both groups. Finally, there were 36 participants in the experimental group and 35 participants in the control group.

Unfortunately, from the first day of class, there was participant mortality. Twenty out of 36 participants of the experimental group and 28 out of 35 participants from the control group attended classes on the first day.

4.2.6 Background of the participants.

The participants' background was obtained through a survey administered on the day of the placement test. A sample is provided in Appendix G. These surveys were stored separately from the rest of the research data and documents to protect the participants' anonymity and confidentiality.

Most of the participants were high school graduates from state schools. Thirty-six percent of them were from Quevedo, 17% came from towns near Quevedo, and 30% from towns and cities that are more than two hours away from Quevedo.

The majority of participants (80%) were high school graduates from state schools. The rest of the participants (20%) graduated from private high schools. Among those who graduated from state schools, 12% had studied at a private school for three years of secondary school. As for the students who graduated from private high schools, most of them had studied in that type of institution from the second year of secondary school.

As for the results of the placement test, 34% were placed at level 1A while 66% of them were placed at level 1B. According to the table provided in the back of the course book, learners at those levels should take classes using this book to achieve an A1 level of the CEFR. Since they have not passed level 1, technically, they do not possess an A1 level of proficiency and thus are regarded as pre-A1 learners.

4.2.7. Procedure.

Before explaining the procedure, it is necessary to know about the instructional material, the grammar items taught, and the experimental treatment. All of these will be detailed separately below.

4.2.7.1 The instructional material.

As stated above, the instructional material was a course book used to teach English at the university where this study was conducted. The textbook was Four Corners book for level 1A. The representative of the publisher in Ecuador provided the authorization to use the material in this study. The lessons taught were the ones with a focus on grammar and reading. The lessons are included in Appendix H. Due to the research design and time constraints, it was not possible to include lessons containing listening and writing activities. However, their absence did not affect comprehension of the subsequent lessons. Despite that, learners did get exposure to L2 input from the audio texts of the lessons and the teacher.

4.2.7.2 The grammar items.

The class sessions were based on the lessons from the instructional material described above. The grammar features taught in each lesson were the ones detailed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Grammar items taught in each session

Session	Grammar items
1	The simple present of be. Possessive Adjectives.
2	Singular subject pronouns. Yes-no questions with be.
3	Plural subject pronouns. Wh-questions with be.
4	Who and How old with be.
5	Demonstratives. Articles *a* and *an*. Plurals.
6	Possessive pronouns. Whose. Possessive nouns.
7	Simple present statements.
8	Simple present yes-no questions.

4.2.7.3 The instructional treatment.

The experimental treatment consisted of an additional explanation of the English grammar by using codeswitching. However, this codeswitching was performed with the sandwich technique (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009) in which the meaning of the L2 is provided in the L1 in the sequence L2-L1-L2. Besides, this codeswitching could be performed with words or phrases, between sentences or within sentences (inter- and intra-sentential codeswitching).

In both groups (control and experimental groups), classes followed the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) teaching approach. The language used in both the control and experimental group was English (L2), except for when the experimental group received the experimental treatment. In general, each of the lessons that had a focus on grammar started by introducing new vocabulary explicitly through the use of contextualization, pictures, and audio recordings (and the use of

techniques by the teacher such as mime, gestures, drawings, use of cognates, and others). Then a dialogue (with its corresponding audio recording) was presented which included some of the vocabulary introduced in the previous section and the new structures to be taught in the next section. Here the new structures were taught implicitly. In the following section, the grammar section, the new structures were presented through example sentences and questions displayed in tables. The features of the new structures were highlighted in bold in the course book so that learners could notice them. During class, I also provided an explanation to both groups in English, with the addition of one more explanation to the experimental group. After concept checking, I instructed learners to complete the grammar exercises individually, subsequently checking the answers together as a class. Then, I had learners do the semi-controlled oral grammar activities that followed the grammar exercises. I walked around the classroom during this stage to provide help as needed and took notes of learners' mistakes. Sometimes I provided feedback on the spot, at other times waiting until the end of the activity, depending on whether the mistake would cause a communication disruption in the future. Finally, I administered the posttests.

4.2.7.4 Procedure.

Each lesson for both the control and experimental group started by administering the pretest, followed by the instruction, and then by the administration of the posttest. There were eight lessons in 4 weeks, 2 lessons per week, each lesson lasting 2 hours per day. The class schedule for the experimental group was Mondays and Wednesdays from 8:30 a.m. to 10:30 a.m. The class schedule for the control group was on Tuesdays and Thursdays from 8:30 a.m. to 10:30 a.m. Pretests were

not administered at the beginning of the class since it was foreseen that some students would arrive late because they only attended these classes in the mornings and some of them lived somewhat far from the university. So in the first 20-25 minutes, the reading activity of the previous unit or functional language of the unit was given to learners. Immediately after, the pretests were handed out with 8 minutes to complete them. Then the lesson started. Both groups received each lesson in English, but the experimental group received an additional explanation of grammar by codeswitching with the use of the sandwich technique. At the end of the lesson, the posttests were administered. The same amount of time as the pretest was given to the posttest.

4.2.8 Conclusion.

In previous sections of this study, I described the procedures followed to collect the data. I started by specifying and defining the variables so that I could select an appropriate instrument. Due to guidelines from the master's program to ensure research validity and reliability, I selected, after authorization from the publisher in Ecuador, the grammar exercises from the quizzes, tests, and workbook of an internationally recognized course book. I explained how I handled the data collected: I standardized the scores over 10 points and explained how I selected and used the correct statistic for inferential analysis. I described the participants in detail and how they were invited and selected to participate in the study.

Chapter 5: Presentation of Findings

5.1. Introduction

In this section, the results of the data analysis are presented through both narrative and the use of figures. I attempted to present concise data obtained from the scores of pretests, posttests, and delayed tests. Larson-Hall (2012) recommends using a boxplot to display the range of the scores of the groups compared; therefore, I employed IBM SPSS version 23 to obtain the boxplots. Although this software indicated some outliers in the graphs, they were not removed from the calculations because the conclusions arrived at from the inferential statistical analysis did not change when outliers were removed.

5.2. Findings

5.2.1. Analysis by session.

5.2.1.1 Pretest analysis by session: control group vs experimental group.

Figure 5.1 Pretest analysis: control group vs experimental group, session 1

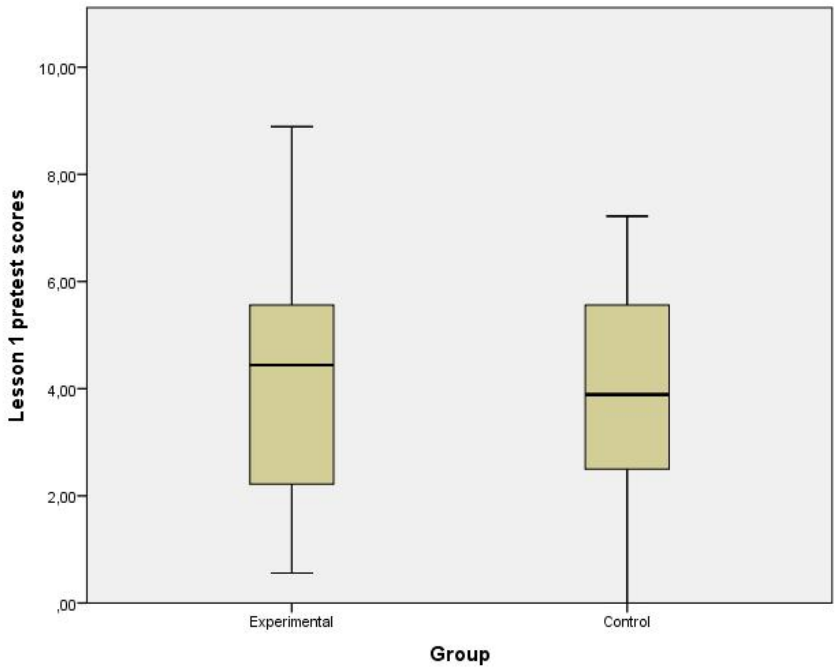


Figure 5.1 shows that in the first session of the control group, 50% of pretest scores ranged from 2.36 to 5.56. The median was 3.89. The minimum score obtained was 0 and the maximum score was 7.22. As for the pretest scores of the experimental group, 50% of them ranged from 2.22 and 5.56. The minimum score was 0.56. The median was 4.44. The maximum value was 8.89. A t-test not assuming homogenous variances was calculated for comparison of the pretest scores between the control group (M = 3.95, SD = 2.09) and the experimental group (M = 4.11, SD = 2.10) at the specified .05 level. The results indicated that there was no significant difference, t (41.02) = 0.27, p = .792, d = 0.08, 95% CI [-1.08, 1.40].

Figure 5.2 Pretest analysis: control group vs experimental group, session 2

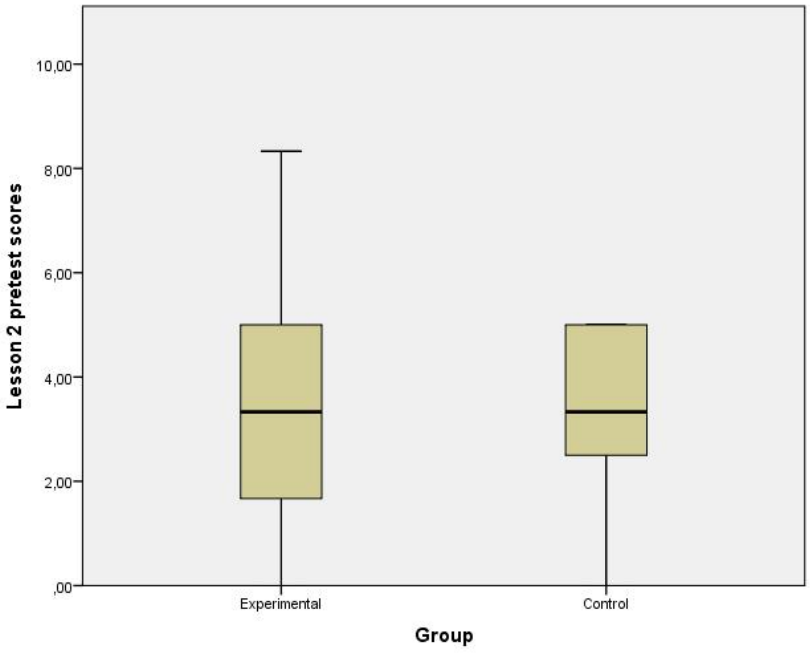


Figure 5.2 corresponds to session 2 and it illustrates that in the control group, half of pretest scores ranged from 2.09 to 5.00. The median was 3.33. The lowest score obtained was 0.00 and the highest score was 5.00. With respect to the pretest scores of the experimental group, 50% ranged from 1.67 to 5.00. The lowest value obtained was 0.00. The median was 3.33. The highest score was 8.33. A t-test not assuming homogenous variances was calculated for comparison of the pretest scores between the control group (M = 3.23, SD = 1.87) and the experimental group (M = 3.43, SD = 2.6) at the specified .05 level. The results indicated that there was no significant difference, $t(29.08) = 0.26$, $p = .798$, $d = 0.09$, 95% CI [-1.40, 1.81].

Figure 5.3 Pretest analysis: control group vs experimental group, session 3

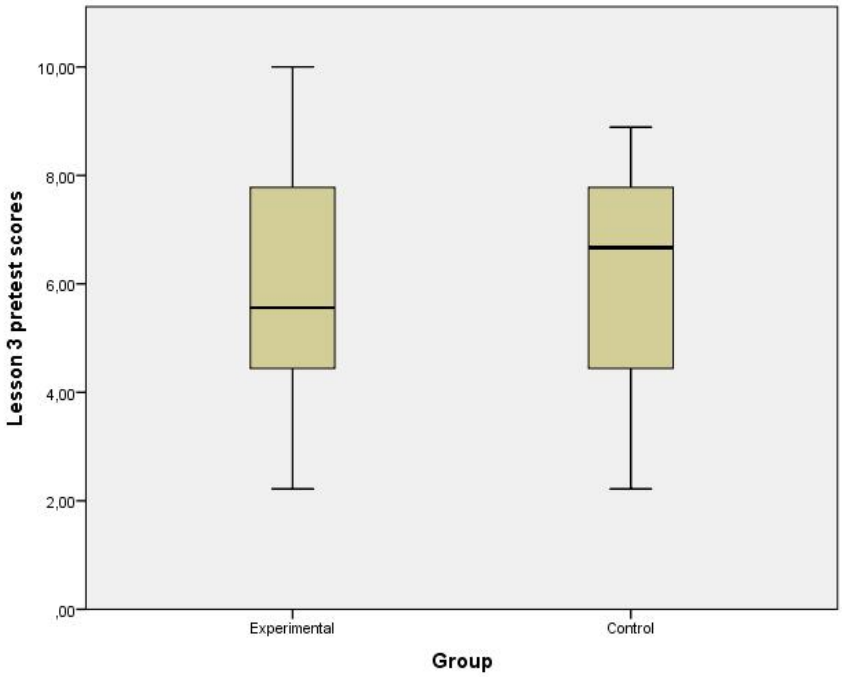
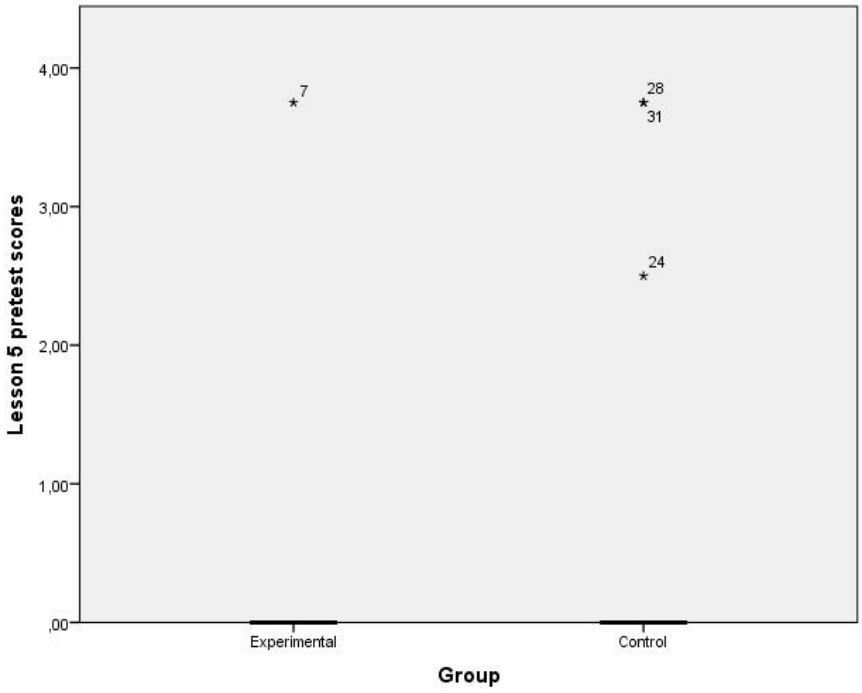


Figure 5.3 shows that in session 3 in the control group, 50% of pretest scores ranged from 4.16 to 7.78. The median was 6.67. The minimum scored obtained was 2.22 and the maximum score was 8.89. As for the pretest scores of the experimental group, 50% of them ranged from 4.44 to 7.78. The median was 5.56. The maximum value was 10.0. The minimum value was 2.22. A t-test not assuming homogenous variances was calculated for comparison of the pretest scores between the control group (M = 5.74, SD = 2.33) and the experimental group (M = 5.93, SD = 1.9) at the specified .05 level. The results indicated that there was no significant difference, t (32.90) = 0.27, p = .789, d = 0.08, 95% CI [-1.21, 1.59].

Figure 5.4 Pretest analysis: control group vs experimental group, session 5



In figure 5.4, corresponding to session 5, it is illustrated that in both groups most of the scores were 0. In the control group, there was only one score above 0, which was 3.75. Similarly, in the experimental group there were only three scores above zero. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean pretest score of the control group (M = 0.63, SD = 1.37) and the mean pretest score of the experimental group (M = 0.23, SD = 0.94) at the specified .05 level in the t-test not assuming equal variances, $t(26.53) = -0.94$, $p = .355$, $d = 0.33$, 95% CI [-1.24, 0.46].

Figure 5.5 Pretest analysis: control group vs experimental group, session 6

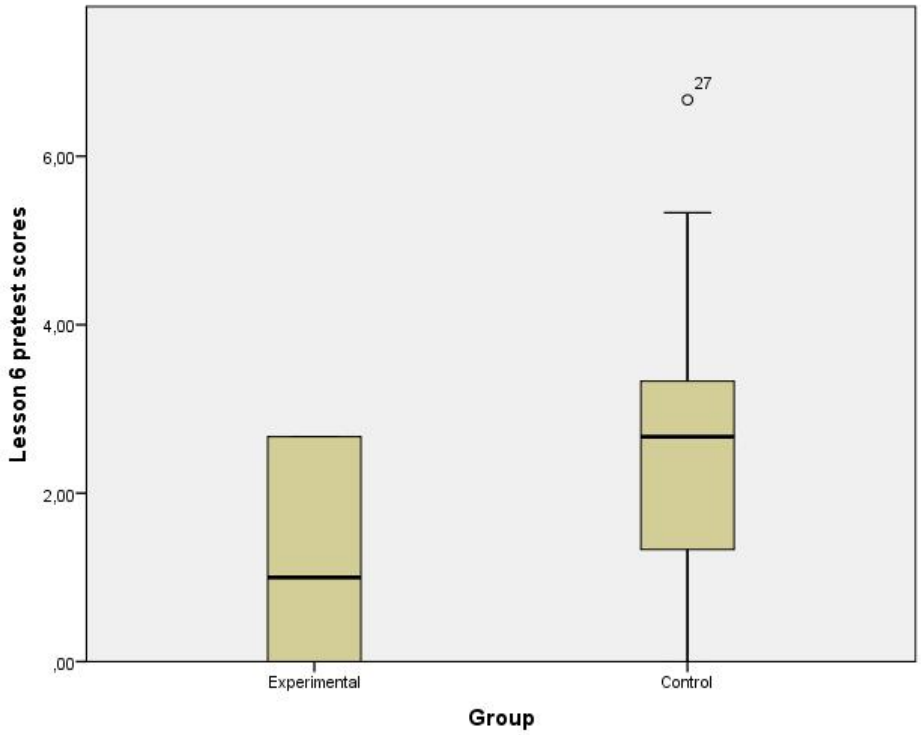


Figure 5.5 illustrates that in session 6, in the control group, 50% of pretest scores were between 1.33 and 3.33. The median was 2.67. The lowest score obtained was 0.00 and the highest score was 6.67. As for the pretest scores of the experimental group, 50% of them ranged from 0.00 to 2.67, the lowest pretest score was 0, the median was 1.00, and the highest score was 2.67. A t-test not assuming homogenous variances was calculated for comparison of the pretest scores between the control group (M = 2.46, SD = 1.82) and the experimental group (M = 1.24, SD = 1.11) at the specified .05 level. The results indicated that there was a significant difference, $t(25.18) = -2.25$, $p = .034$, $d = 0.8$, 95% CI [-2.33, -0.10].

Figure 5.6 Pretest analysis: control group vs experimental group, session 7

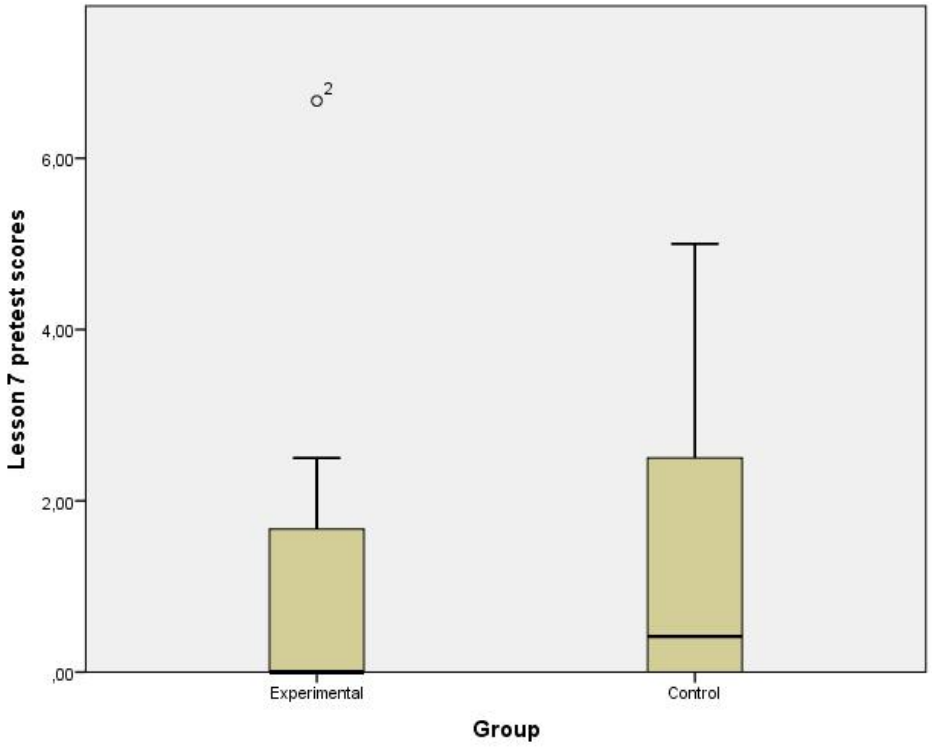
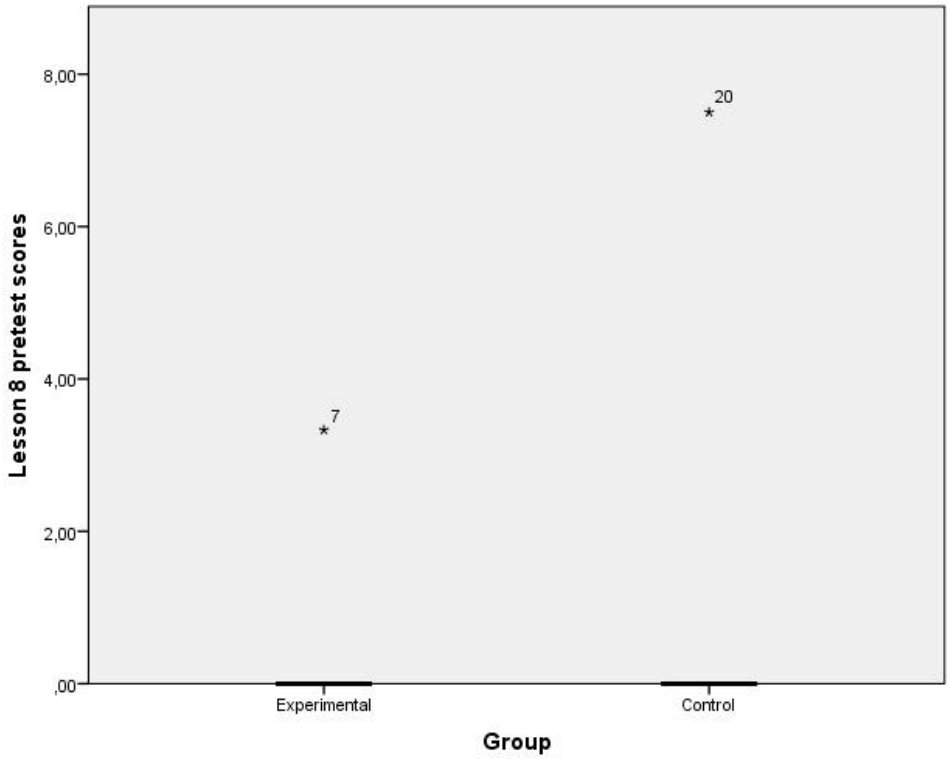


Figure 5.6 displays the pretest scores in session 7. In the control group, 75% of pretest scores ranged from 0 to 2.50. The median was 0.42. The highest score was 5.00 and the lowest score was 0.00. In the experimental group, 50% of pretest scores were between 0.00 and 1.67. The lowest pretest score was 0.00 and the highest was 6.67. The median was 0.00. There was no statistically significant difference at the .05 level of the pretest scores between the control group (M = 1.18, SD = 1.61) and the experimental group (M = 1.29, SD = 2.02) after running a t-test not assuming homogenous variances, $t(19.12) = 0.14$, $p = .888$, $d = 0.06$, 95% CI [-1.49, 1.71].

Figure 5.7 Pretest analysis: control group vs experimental group, session 8



According to Figure 5.7, which displays the pretest scores of the control and experimental groups in session 8, most of the scores were 0. In the experimental group, there was only one score above zero: 3.3. In the control group the only score different from zero was 7.50. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean pretest score of the control group (M = 0.54, SD = 2.00) and the mean pretest score of the experimental group (M = 0.37, SD = 1.11) at the specified .05 level after running a t-test not assuming equal variances, $t(20.71) = -0.26$, p = .802, d = 0.10, 95% CI [-1.52, 1.19].

5.2.1.2 Pretest-Posttest analysis by session: control group

Figure 5.8 Pretest-posttest analysis in the control group in session 1

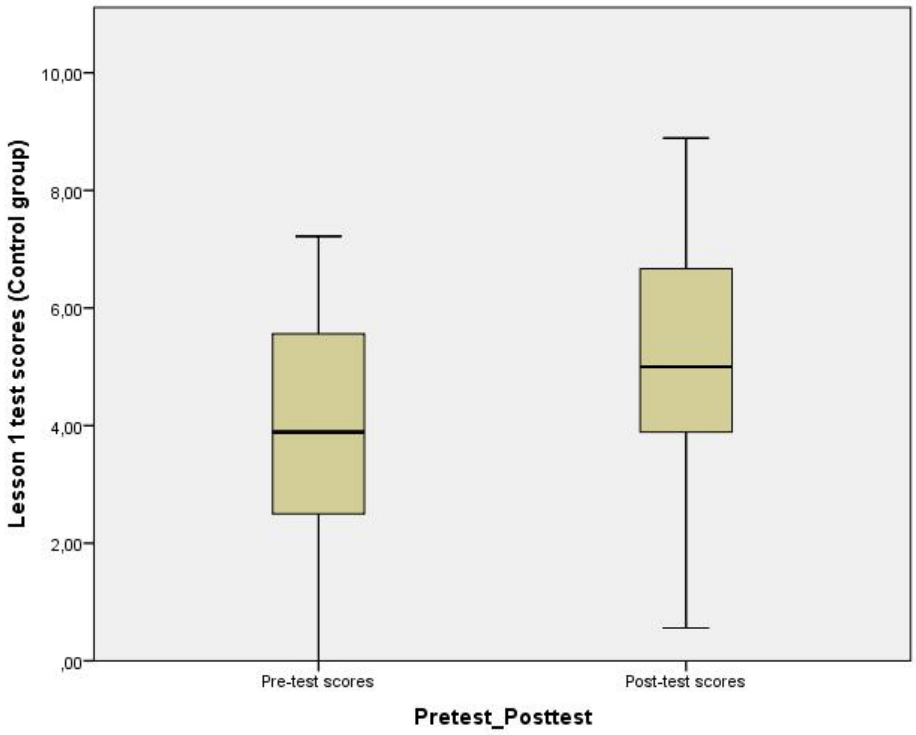


Figure 5.8 shows that in the first session of the control group, 50% of pretest scores ranged from 2.36 to 5.56. The median was 3.89. The minimum score obtained was 0 and the maximum score was 7.22. As for the posttest scores of the control group, 50% of them ranged from 3.89 to 6.67. The median was 5.0. The maximum value was 8.89 and the minimum value was 0.56. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -4.07$, $p < .001$.

Figure 5.9 Pretest-posttest analysis in the control group in session 2

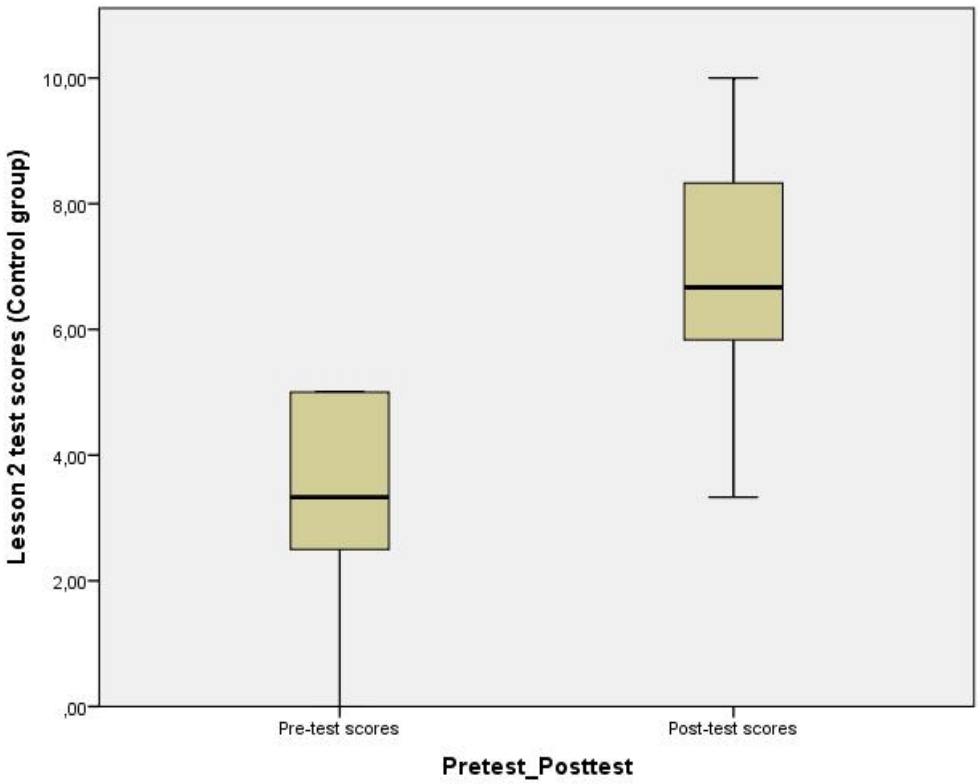
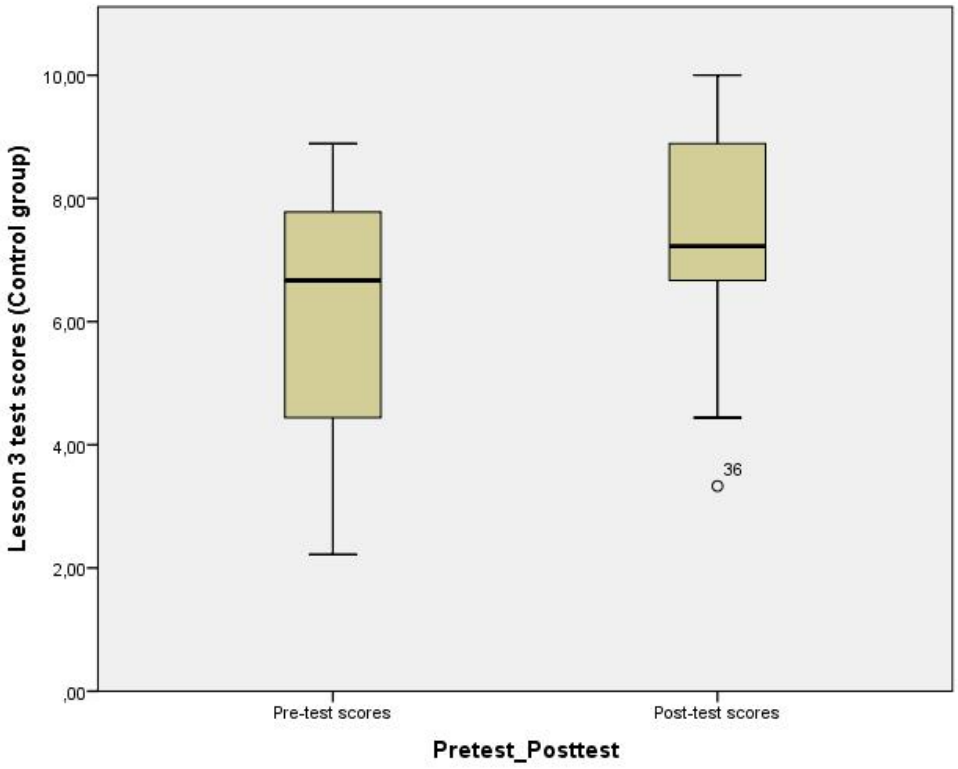


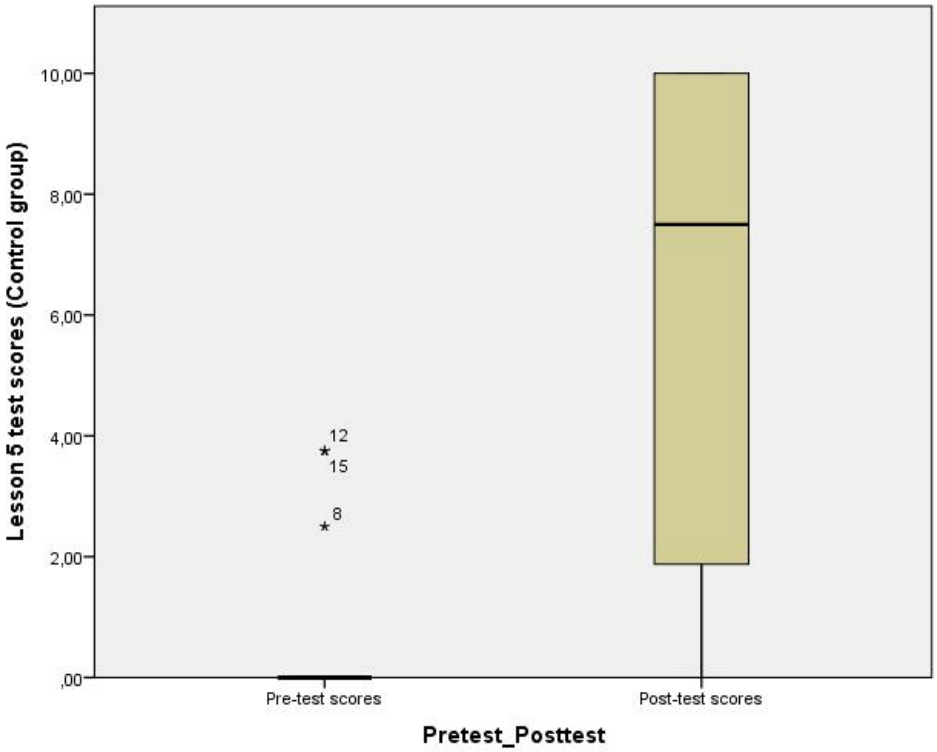
Figure 5.9 illustrates that in session 2, 50% of pretest scores were between 2.09 and 5.00. The median was 3.33. The lowest score obtained was 0.00 and the highest score was 5.00. As for the posttest scores of the control group, 50% of them ranged from 5.42 to 8.33. The median was 6.67. The highest score was 10.00 and the lowest score was 3.33. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.43$, $p = .001$.

Figure 5.10 Pretest-posttest analysis in the control group in session 3



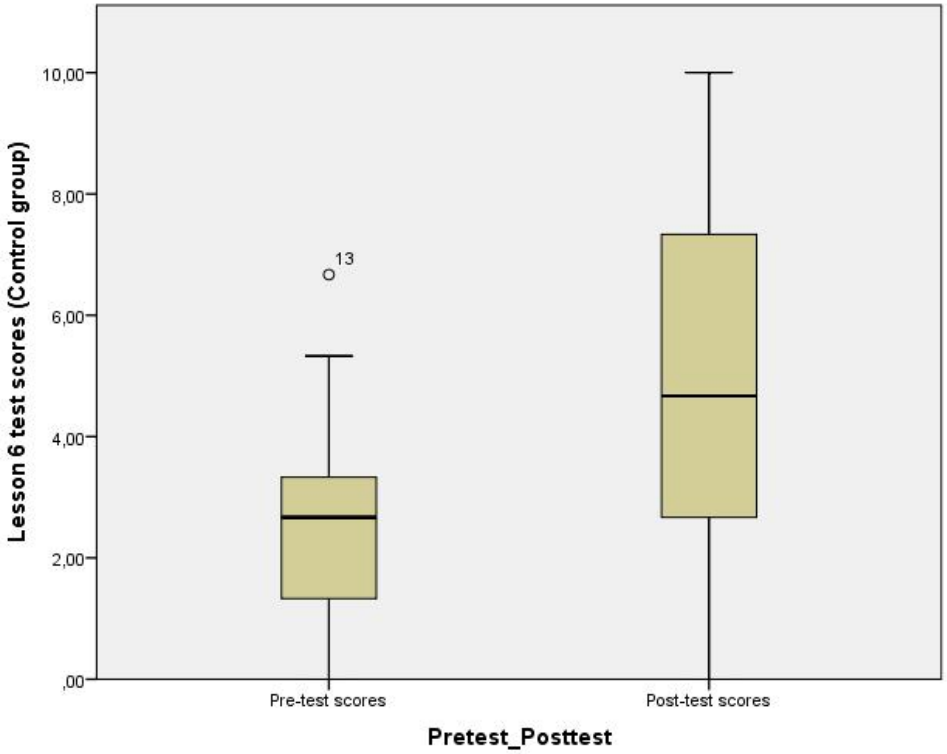
As shown in Figure 5.10, in session 3, the lowest pretest score was 2.22, half of pretest scores ranged from 4.16 to 7.78, the median was 6.67, and the highest score was 8.89. The lowest posttest score was 3.33, half of posttest scores were between 6.39 and 9.17, the median was 7.23, and the highest score was 10.00. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.05$, $p = .002$.

Figure 5.11 Pretest-posttest analysis in the control group in session 5



As can be seen in Figure 5.11, in session 5, most of the pretest scores were zero. The rest of the scores were 2.50 with two scores of 3.75. In contrast, the posttest scores ranged from zero (the lowest posttest score) to 10.00 (the highest post-test score). Fifty percent of posttest scores were in the range between 1.56 and 10.00 with the median of 7.50. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.19$, $p = .001$.

Figure 5.12 Pretest-posttest analysis in control group in session 6



From Figure 5.12 above we can see that in session 6, the lowest pretest score was 0.00, 50% of pretest scores showed a range between 1.33 and 3.33, the median is 2.67, and the highest score was 6.67. The lowest posttest score was 0.00, 50% of posttest scores were between 2.67 and 7.67, the median was 4.67, and the highest score was 10.00. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.08$, $p = .002$.

Figure 5.13 Pretest-posttest analysis in the control group in session 7

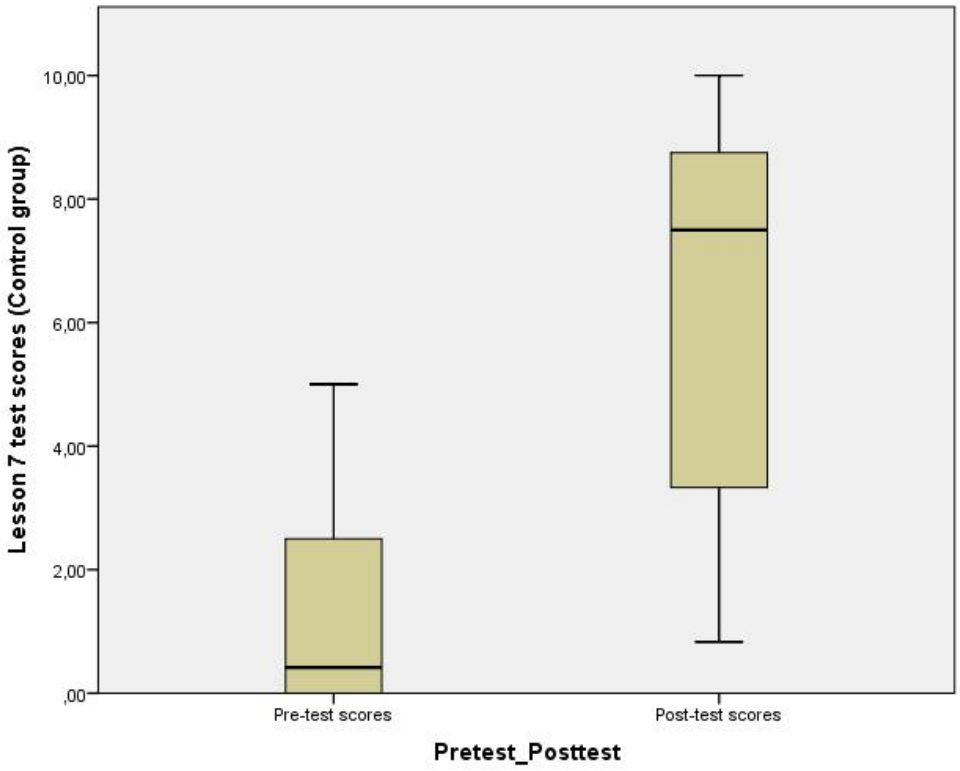
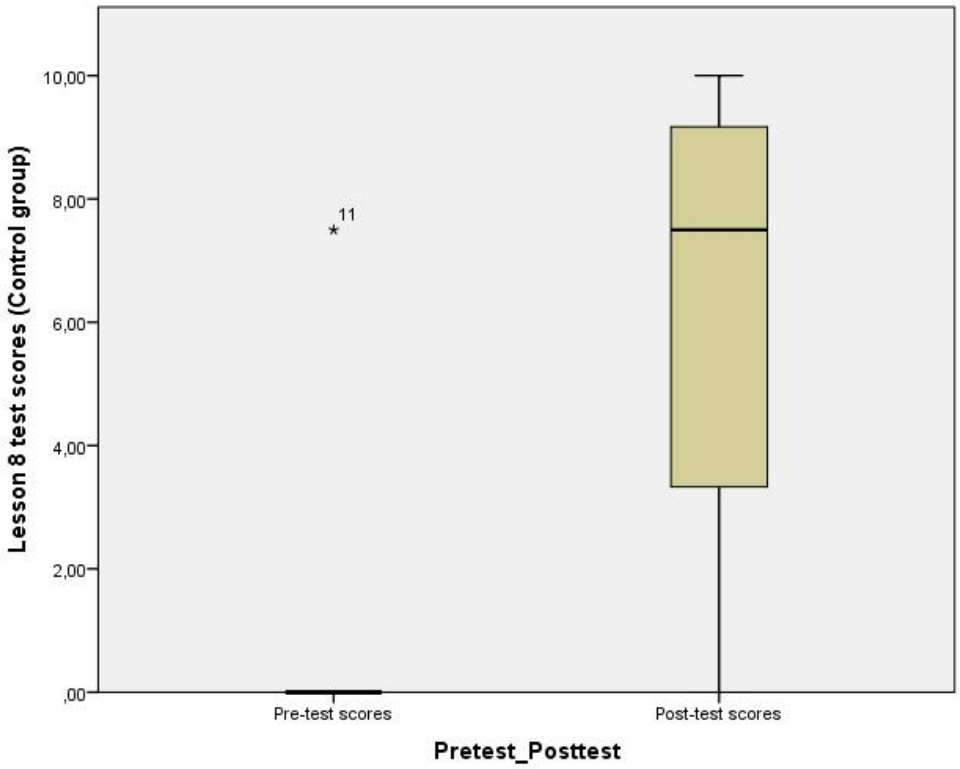


Figure 5.13 illustrates that in session 7, 75% of scores in the pretest were between 0.00 and 2.50. The median was 0.42. The highest score was 5. After the treatment, the posttest scores showed a range from 0.83 (the lowest posttest score) to 10.00 (the highest post-test score). Half of posttest scores were in the range between 3.33 and 8.96 with the median of 7.50. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores Z = -3.06, p = .002.

Figure 5.14 Pretest-posttest analysis in the control group in session 8



As shown in Figure 5.14, in session 8, most of the pretest scores were 0. The only score above 0 was 7.50. The posttest scores ranged from 0.00 (the lowest posttest score) to 10.00 (the highest post-test score). Fifty percent of posttest scores were between 3.33 and 9.17 with a median of 7.50. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores Z = -2.94, p = .003.

5.2.1.3. Pretest-Posttest analysis by session: experimental group

Figure 5.15 Pretest-posttest analysis in the experimental group in session 1

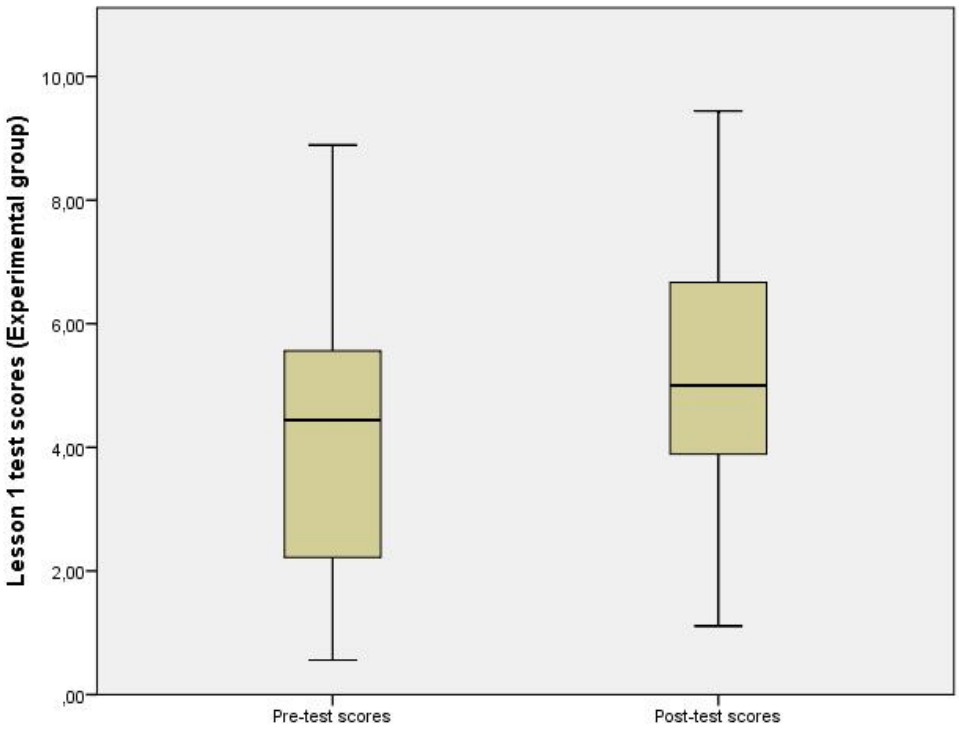
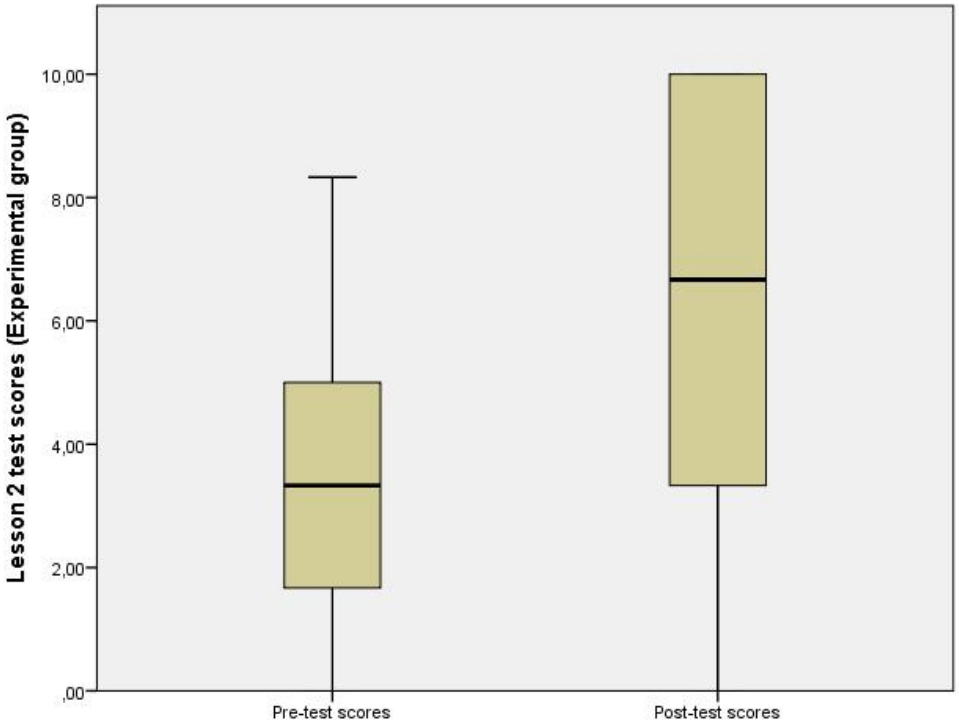


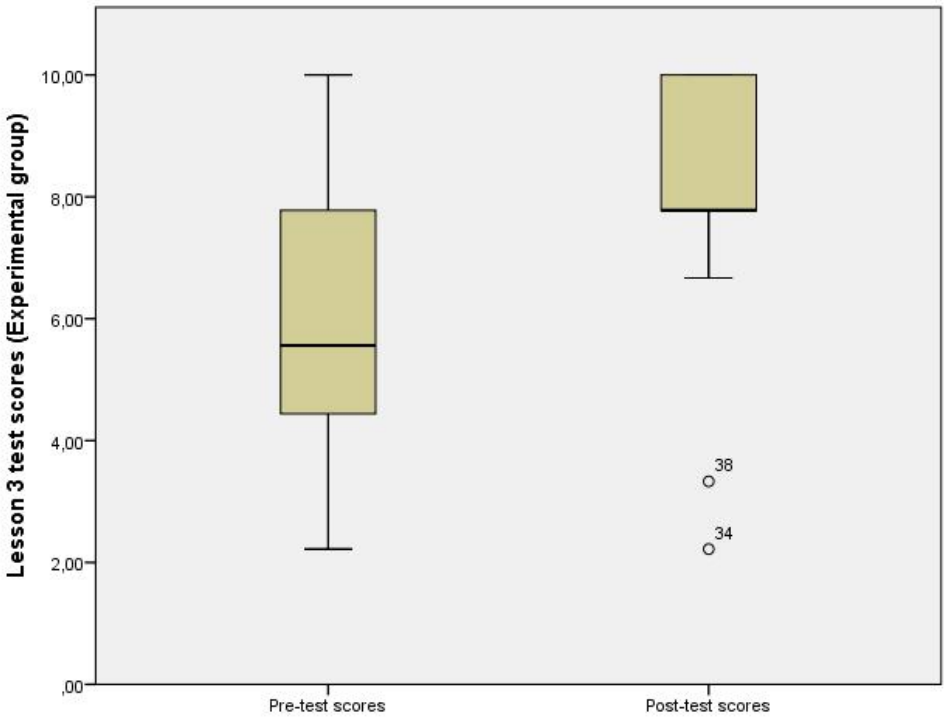
Figure 5.15 illustrates that in session 1, 50% of pretest scores of the experimental group were between 2.22 and 5.56. The median was 4.44. The lowest score obtained was 0.56 and the highest score was 8.89. As for the posttest scores of the experimental group, 50% of them ranged from 3.89 to 6.67. The median was 5.00. The highest score was 9.44 and the lowest score was 1.11. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -2.91$, $p = .004$.

Figure 5.16 Pretest-posttest analysis in the experimental group in session 2



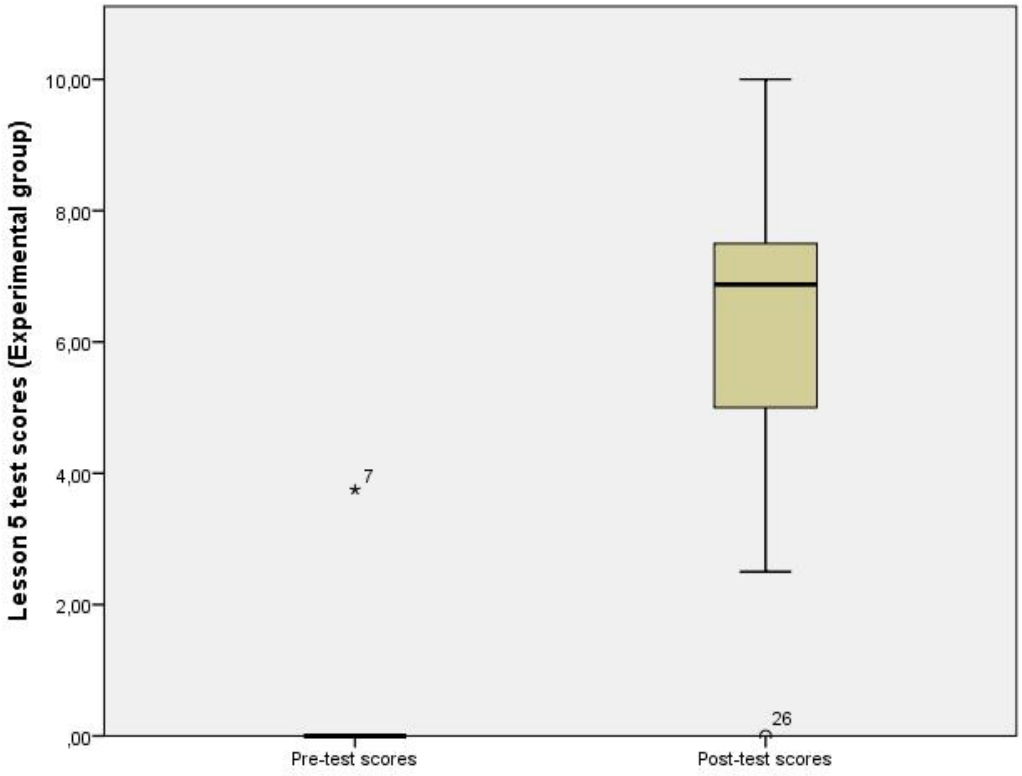
As can be seen in Figure 5.16, in session 2, the pretest scores of the experimental group ranged from 0.00 (the lowest score) to 8.33 (the highest score). Fifty percent of pretest scores were between 1.67 and 5.00, with a median of 3.33. After the treatment, the posttest scores showed a range from 0.00 (the lowest posttest score) to 10.00 (the highest post-test score). Half of posttest scores were in the range between 3.33 and 10.00 with a median of 6.67. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.04$, $p = .002$.

Figure 5.17 Pretest-posttest analysis in the experimental group in session 3



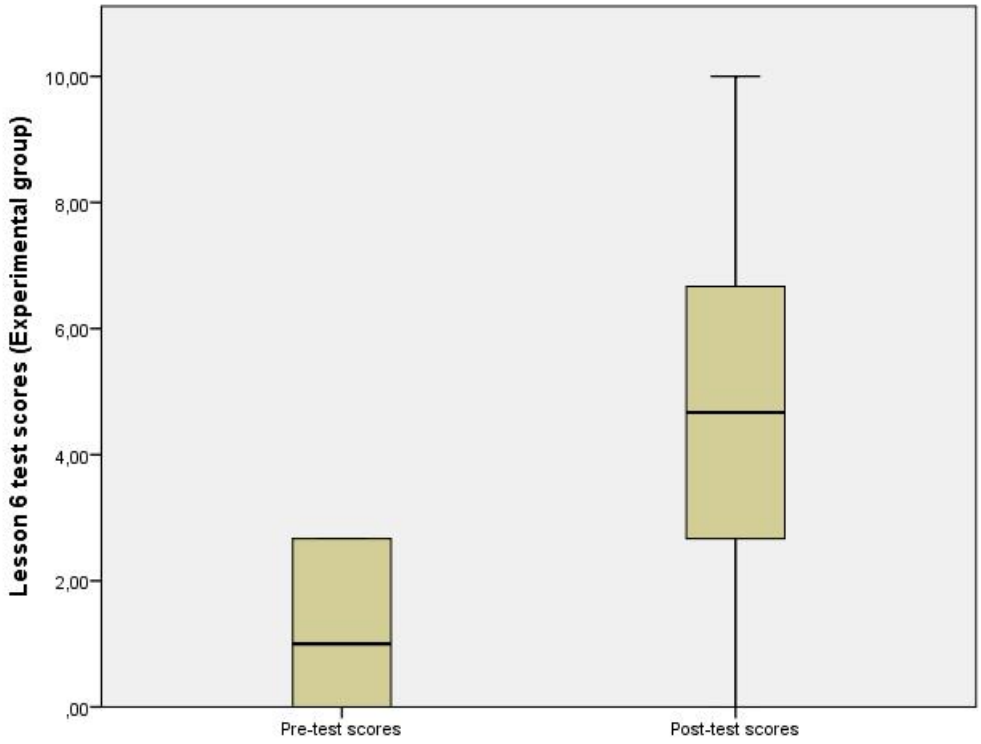
From Figure 5.17 above we can see that in session 3 of the experimental group, the lowest pretest score was 2.22, 50% of pretest scores showed a range between 4.44 and 7.78, the median was 5.56, and the highest score is 10.0. The lowest posttest score was 2.22, 50% of posttest scores were between 7.78 and 10.0, the median was 7.78, and the highest score was 10.00. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.49$, $p < .001$.

Figure 5.18 Pretest-posttest analysis in the experimental group in session 5



As shown in Figure 5.18, in session 5 of the experimental group, there was only one pretest score above zero: 3.75. The rest of the scores were 0.00. With respect to the experimental group posttest scores, the lowest score was 0.00, half of the scores were between 5.00 and 7.50, the median was 6.88, and the highest score was 10.00. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.43$, $p = .001$.

Figure 5.19 Pretest-posttest analysis in the experimental group in session 6



In Figure 5.19 we can see that in session 6 of the experimental group, the lowest pretest score was 0.00, 75% of pretest scores showed a range between zero and 2.50, the median was 1.00, and the highest score was 2.67. The lowest posttest score of the experimental group was 0.00, 50% of posttest scores were between 2.50 and 6.84, the median was 4.67, and the highest score was 10.00. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -3.19$, $p = .001$.

Figure 5.20 Pretest-posttest analysis in the experimental group in session 7

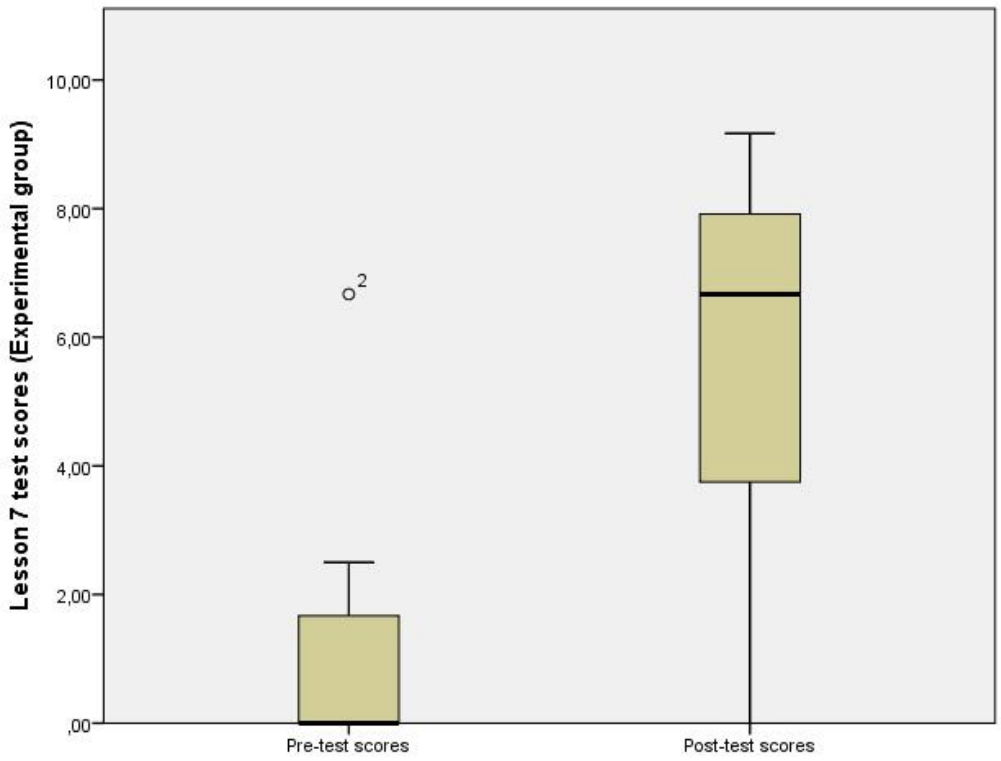
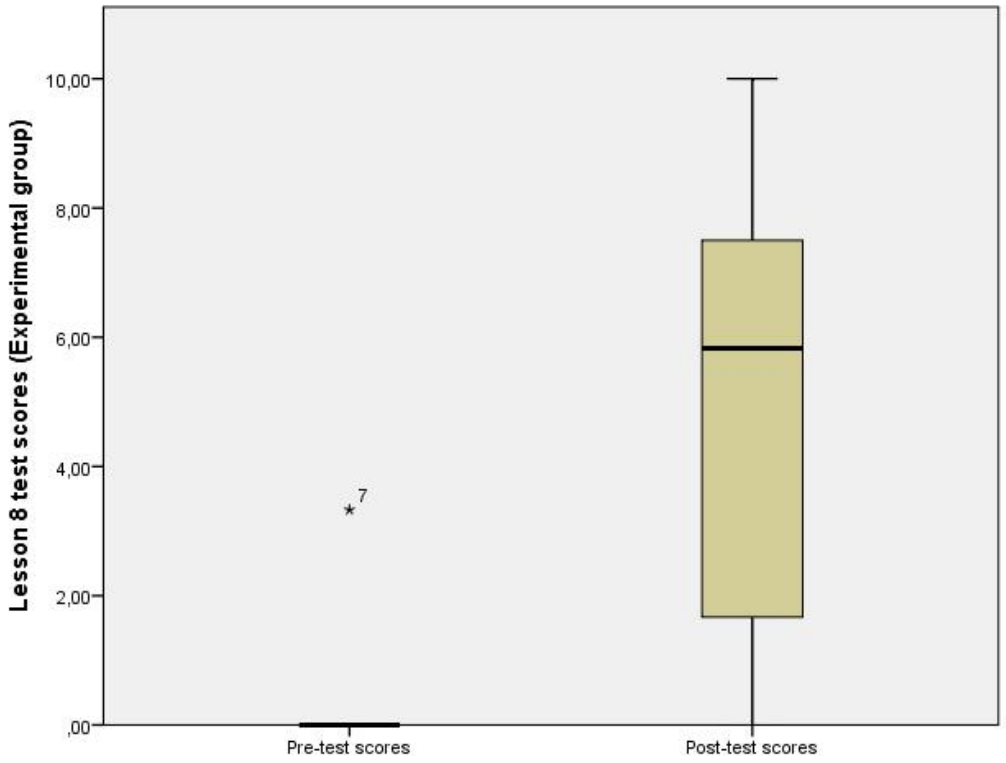


Figure 5.20 illustrates that in session 7 of the experimental group, 75% of scores were between 0.00 and 1.67. The highest score was 6.67. After the treatment, the posttest scores showed a range from 0.00 (the lowest posttest score) to 9.17 (the highest post-test score). Half of posttest scores were in the range between 3.33 and 8.33 with a median of 6.67. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -2.72$, $p = .007$.

Figure 5.21 Pretest-posttest analysis in the experimental group in session 8



As can be seen in Figure 5.21, which displays the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental group in session 8, the highest pretest score was 3.33. The rest of the pretest scores were 0.00. With respect to the posttest scores, the lowest score was 0.00, 50% of the scores were between 1.67 and 7.50, the median was 5.83, and the highest score was 10.00. A Wilcoxon signed-ranks test indicated that the posttest scores were statistically significantly higher than pretest scores, $Z = -2.37$, $p = .018$.

5.2.1.4 Posttest analysis by session: control group vs experimental group

Figure 5.22 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, session 1

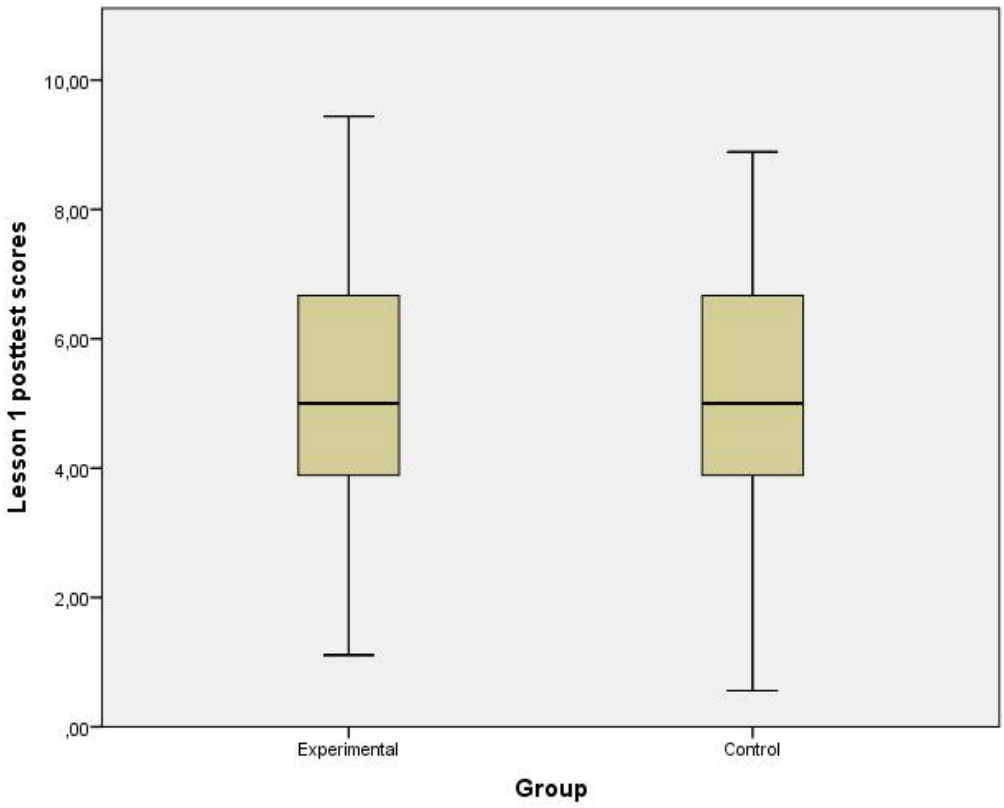
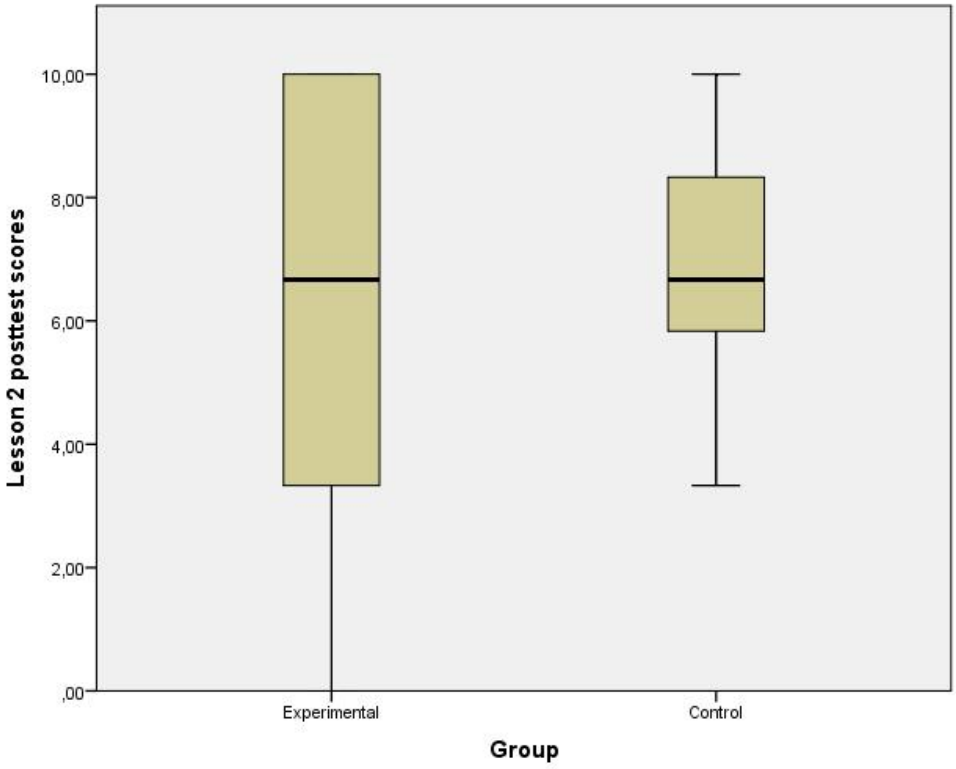


Figure 5.22 illustrates that in session 1, the lowest posttest score of the control group is 0.56 and the highest score was 8.89. Fifty percent of posttest scores were between 3.89 and 6.67. The median was 5.0. With respect to the experimental group posttest scores, the lowest score was 1.11 and the highest score was 9.44. Half of the posttest scores were between 3.89 and 6.67. The median was 5.00. There was not a statistically significant difference between the means posttest score of the control group (M = 5.24, SD = 1.99) and means posttest score of the experimental group (M = 5.39, SD = 2.31) at the specified .05 level after calculating t-test not assuming homogenous variances, $t(37.16) = 0.24$, $p = .815$, $d = 0.07$, 95% CI [-1.14, 1.44].

Figure 5.23 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, session 2



As can be seen in Figure 5.23, in session 2, the lowest posttest score of the control group was 3.33 and the highest score was 10.0, half of pretest scores of the control group ranged from 5.42 to 8.33. The median was 6.67. The minimum score obtained in the experimental group was 0.00 and the maximum score was 10.00. Seventy-five percent of the experimental group posttest scores ranged from 3.33 and 10.0. The median was 6.67. A t-test not assuming homogenous variances was calculated for comparison of the pretest scores between the control group (M = 6.98, SD = 1.95) and the experimental group (M = 6.27, SD = 3.66) at the specified .05 level. The results indicated that there was no significant difference, $t(24.69) = -0.70$, $p = .492$, $d = 0.24$, 95% CI [-2.79, 1.38].

Figure 5.24 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, session 3

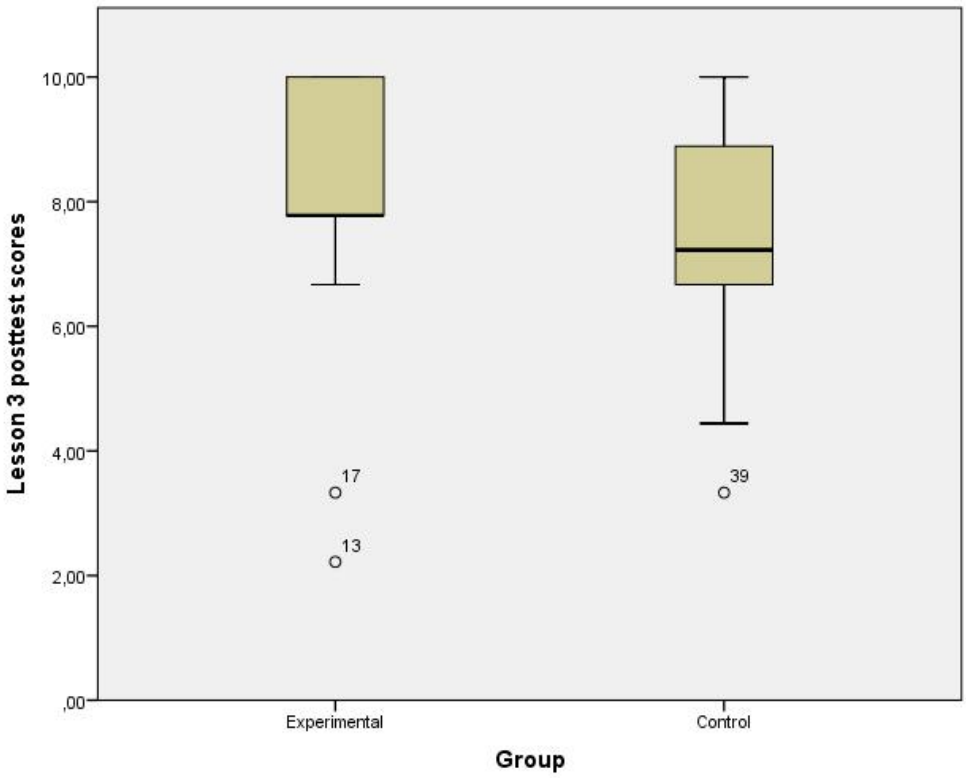


Figure 5.24 shows the posttests scores of the control and experimental groups in session 3. In the control group, 3.33 represented the minimum score and 10.00 the maximum score. Fifty percent of posttest scores varied from 6.39 to 9.17. The median was 7.23. In regard to the experimental group posttest scores, 2.22 represented the minimum score, 10.0 represents the maximum score, the median was 7.78 points, and 85% of scores vary from 7.78 to 10.0. No statistically significant difference was found in the posttest scores at the .05 level between the control group (M = 7.41, SD = 2.09) and the experimental group (M = 8.04, SD = 2.08) after calculating the t-test for unequal variances, $t(36.03) = 0.95$, $p = .349$, $d = 0.31$, 95% CI [-0.72, 1.99].

Figure 5.25 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, session 5

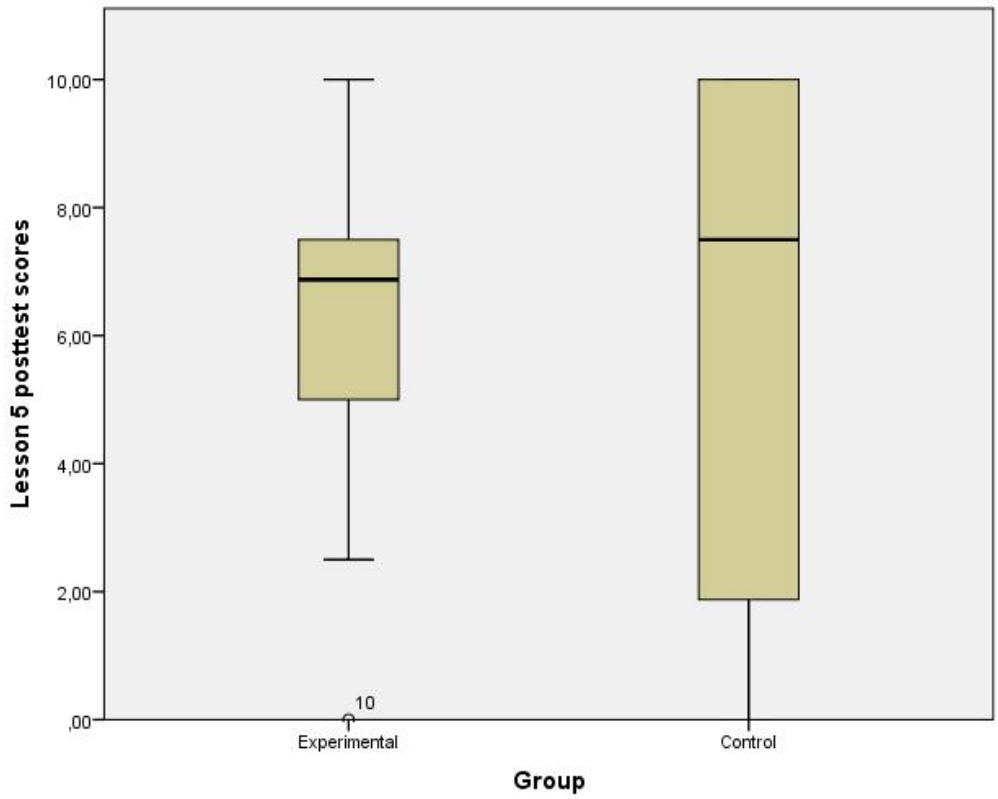
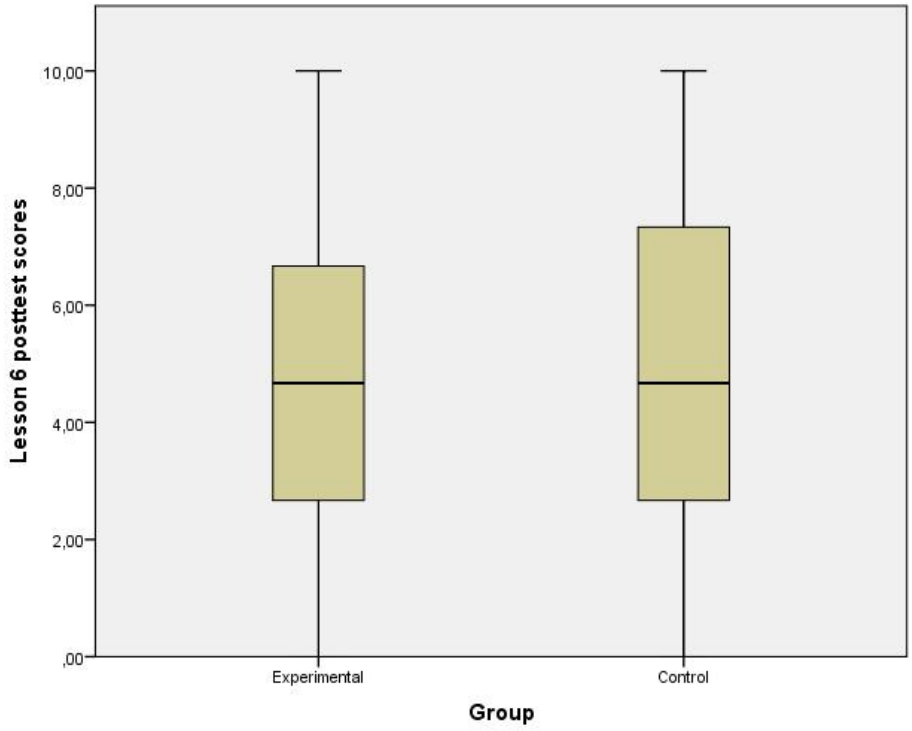


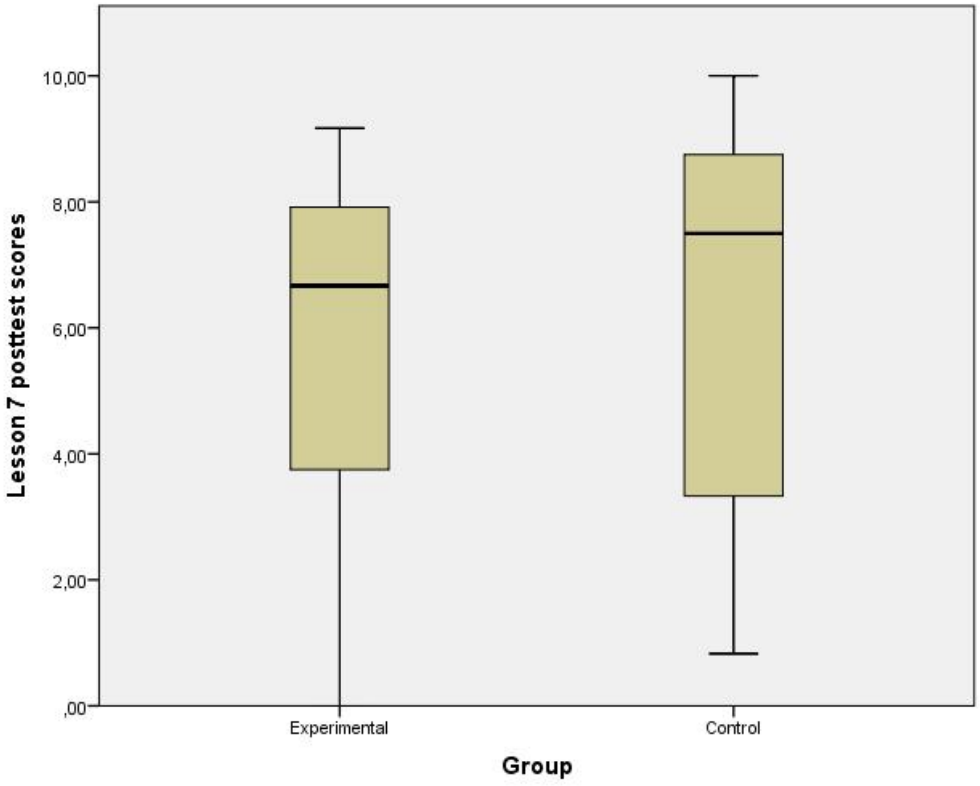
Figure 5.25 displays the posttests scores of the control and experimental groups in session 5 in a boxplot. In the control group, 0.00 represented the lowest score and 10.00 the highest score. Half of posttest scores varied from 0.00 to 10.0. The median was 7.50. In regard with the experimental group posttest scores, 0.00 represents the lowest score, 10.0 represented the highest score, the median was 6.88 points, and 50% of scores varied from 5.00 to 7.50. No statistically significant difference was found at the .05 level in the posttest scores between the control group (M = 6.17, SD = 4.02) and the experimental group (M = 6.17, SD = 2.60) after calculating the t-test for non-homogenous variances, $t(25.70) = 0.00$, $p = 1.0$, $d = 0.00$, 95% CI [-2.46, 2.46].

Figure 5.26 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, session 6



As shown in Figure 5.26, in session 6, zero represented the minimum posttest score of the control group while 10.00 represented the maximum posttest score. Fifty percent of the control group posttest scores ranged from 2.67 to 7.00. The median was 4.67. As with the experimental group posttest scores, the lowest score was zero, the highest score was 10.0, the median was 4.67 points, and 50% of scores are located between 2.84 and 6.50. No statistically significant difference was found in the posttest scores at the .05 level between the control group (M = 5.00, SD = 2.78) and the experimental group (M = 4.67, SD = 2.83) after calculating the t-test not assuming homogenous variances, $t(27.33) = -0.33$, $p = .747$, $d = 0.12$, 95% CI [-2.44, 1.77].

Figure 5.27 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, session 7



As illustrated in Figure 5.27, in session 7, 0.83 represented the lowest posttest score of the control group and 10.00 represented the highest posttest score. Half of the control group posttest scores were located between 3.33 points and 8.54 points. The median was 7.50. With regard to the experimental group posttest scores, the minimum score was zero, the maximum score was 9.17, the median was 6.67 points, and half of scores varied from 3.75 and 7.92. After calculating the t-test for non-homogenous variances, no statistically significant difference was found in the posttest scores at the .05 level between the control group (M = 6.39, SD = 3.24) and the experimental group (M = 5.61, SD = 3.12), t(20.94) = -0.59, p = .563, d = 0.25, 95% CI [-3.54, 1.98].

Figure 5.28 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, session 8

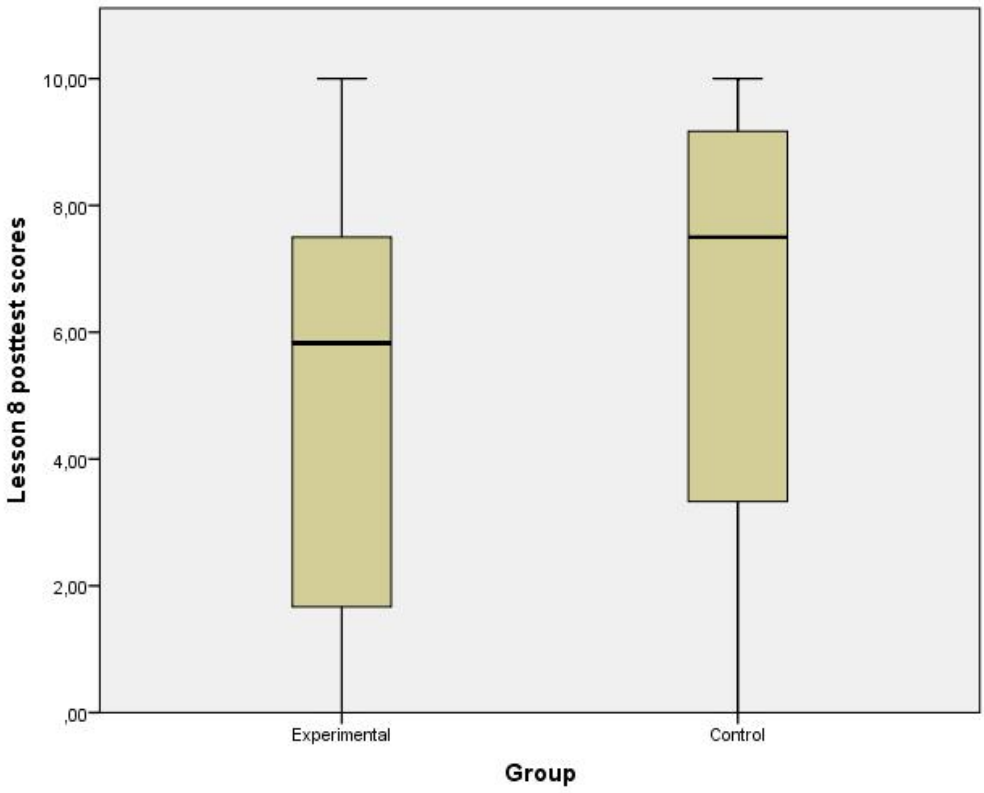


Figure 5.28 illustrates the posttests scores of the control and experimental groups in session 8 in a boxplot. In the control group, zero represented the lowest score and 10.00 the highest score. Half of posttest scores varied from 3.54 to 9.17. The median was 7.50 points. As with the experimental group posttest scores, zero represented the lowest score, 10.0 represented the highest score, the median score was 5.83, and 50% of scores varied from 1.67 to 7.50. The comparison between the control group posttest scores (M = 6.37, SD = 3.53) and the experimental group posttest scores (M = 4.72, SD = 3.89) by calculating the t-test not assuming homogenous variances showed no statistically significant difference at a .05 value, $t(15.98) = -1.03$, $p = .319$, $d = 0.45$, 95% CI [-5.04, 1.75].

5.2.2 Analysis of combined sessions.

In this section I provide an analysis of all sessions combined. Since there is not a single final test that includes all the grammar taught in the four weeks, I averaged all pretest scores and all posttest scores of each participant from all classes. Hence, each score represents the mean score of the pretests (or posttests) taken by a given participant for the four weeks. This way I obtained the combined-sessions pretest scores of the control group, the combined-sessions pretest scores of the experimental group, the combined-sessions posttest scores of the control group, and the combined-sessions posttest scores of the experimental group.

5.2.2.1 Pretest analysis of combined sessions: control group vs experimental group.

Figure 5.29 Pretest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, combined sessions

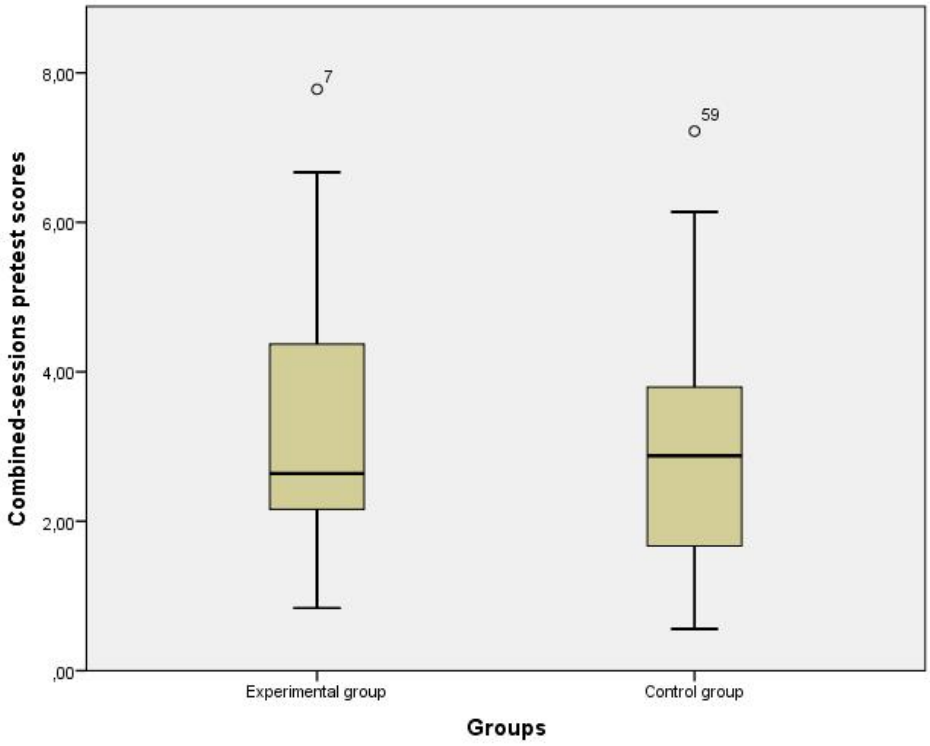


Figure 5.29 shows that the lowest combined-sessions pretest score of the control group was 0.56, the highest score was 7.22, the median was 2.88, and half of these scores were between 1.67 and 3.78. The lowest combined-sessions pretest score of the experimental group was 0.84, the highest score was 7.78, the median was 2.64, and half of these scores were between 2.16 and 4.37. The comparison between the combined-sessions mean score of control group (M = 3.00, SD = 1.63) and the combined-sessions mean score of experimental group posttest scores (M = 3.30, SD = 1.86) by calculating the t-test assuming non-homogenous variances showed no significant difference at an alpha value of .05, $t(52.17) = 0.64$, $p = .527$, $d = 0.17$, 95% CI [-0.63, 1.22].

5.2.2.2 Pretest-posttest analysis of combined sessions: control group.

Figure 5.30 Pretest-posttest scores comparison, control group, combined sessions

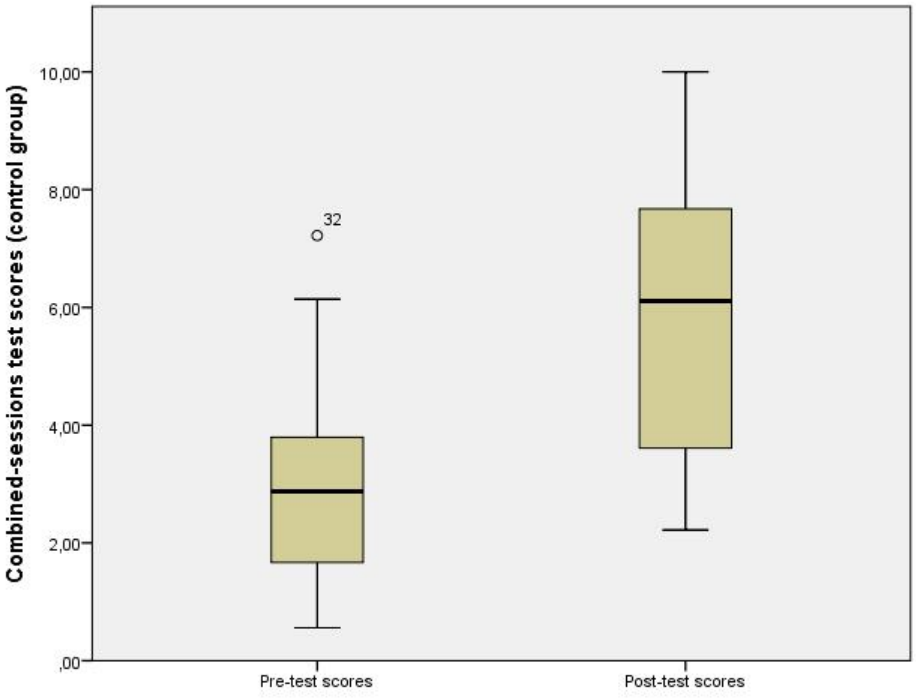


Figure 5.30 illustrates that the lowest combined-sessions pretest score of the control group was 0.56, the highest score was 7.22, the median was 2.88, and half of these scores were between 1.67 and 3.78. The lowest combined-sessions posttest score of the control group was 2.22, the highest score was 10.0, the median was 6.11, and half of these scores were between 3.75 and 7.67. A Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test indicated that post-test scores were statistically significantly higher than pre-test scores $Z = -4.77$, $p < .001$.

5.2.2.3 Pretest-posttest analysis of combined sessions: experimental group.

Figure 5.31 Pretest-posttest scores comparison, experimental group, combined sessions

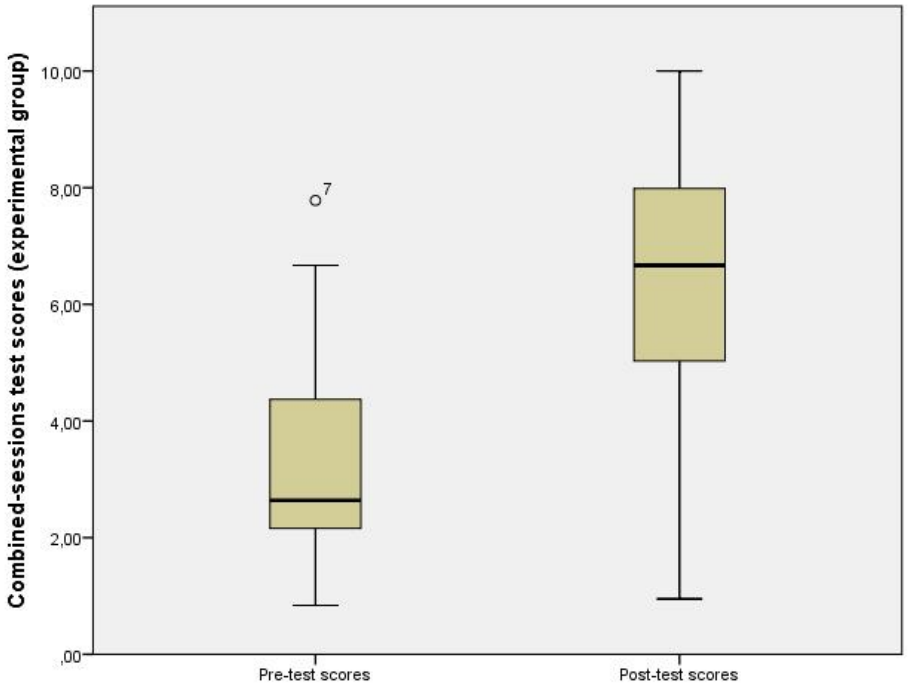


Figure 5.31 shows that the lowest combined-sessions pretest score of the experimental group was 0.84, the highest score was 7.78, the median was 2.64, and half of these scores were between 2.16 and 4.37. The lowest combined-sessions posttest score of the experimental group was 0.95, the highest score was 10.0, the

median was 6.67, and half of these scores were between 5.03 and 7.99. A Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test indicated that post-test scores were statistically significantly higher than pre-test scores $Z = -4.35$, $p < .001$.

5.2.2.4 Posttest analysis of combined sessions: control group vs experimental group.

Figure 5.32 Posttest scores comparison, control group vs experimental group, combined sessions

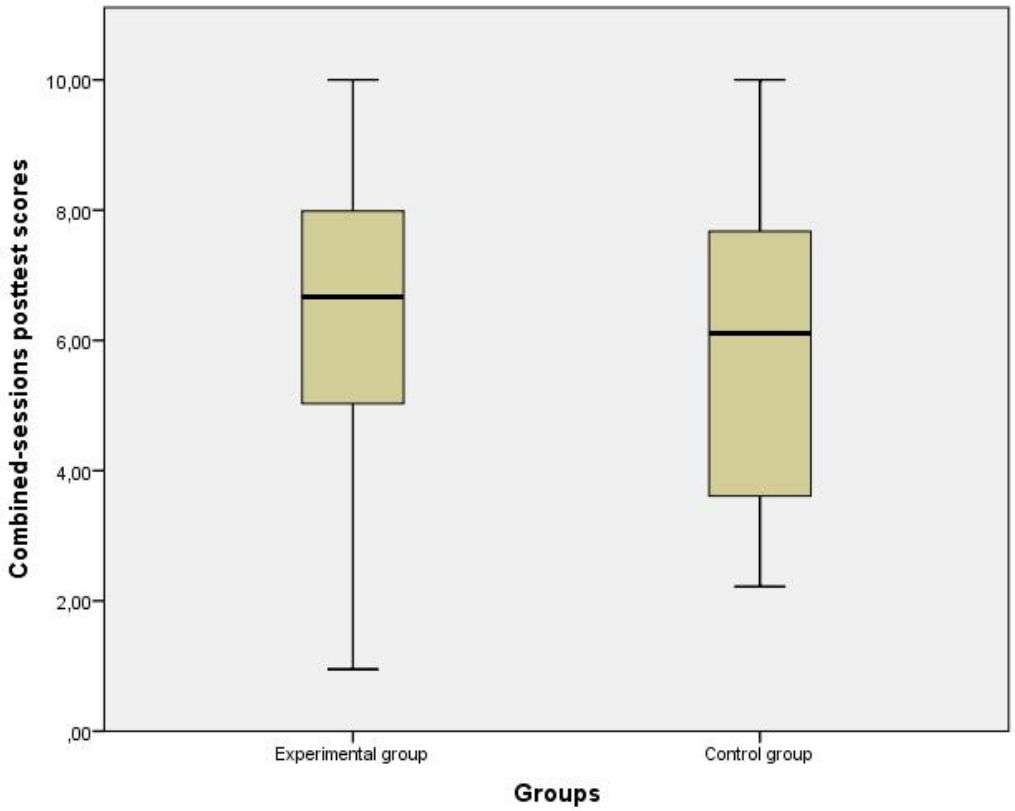


Figure 5.32 illustrates that the lowest combined-sessions posttest score of the control group was 2.22, the highest score was 10.0, the median was 6.11, and half of these scores were between 3.75 and 7.67. The lowest combined-sessions posttest score of the experimental group was 0.95, the highest score was 10.0, the median was 6.67, and half of these scores were between 5.03 and 7.99. The comparison between the combined-sessions mean score of control group posttest scores ($M = 5.80$, $SD =$

2.18) and the combined-sessions mean score of experimental group posttest scores (*M* = 6.25, *SD* = 2.43) by calculating the t-test not assuming homogenous variances showed no significant difference at an alpha value of .05, $t(52.84) = 0.74$, $p = .461$, $d = 0.20$, 95% CI [-0.77, 1.67].

5.2.3 Analysis of delayed tests

Figure 5.33 Delayed test analysis, control group vs experimental group, session 9

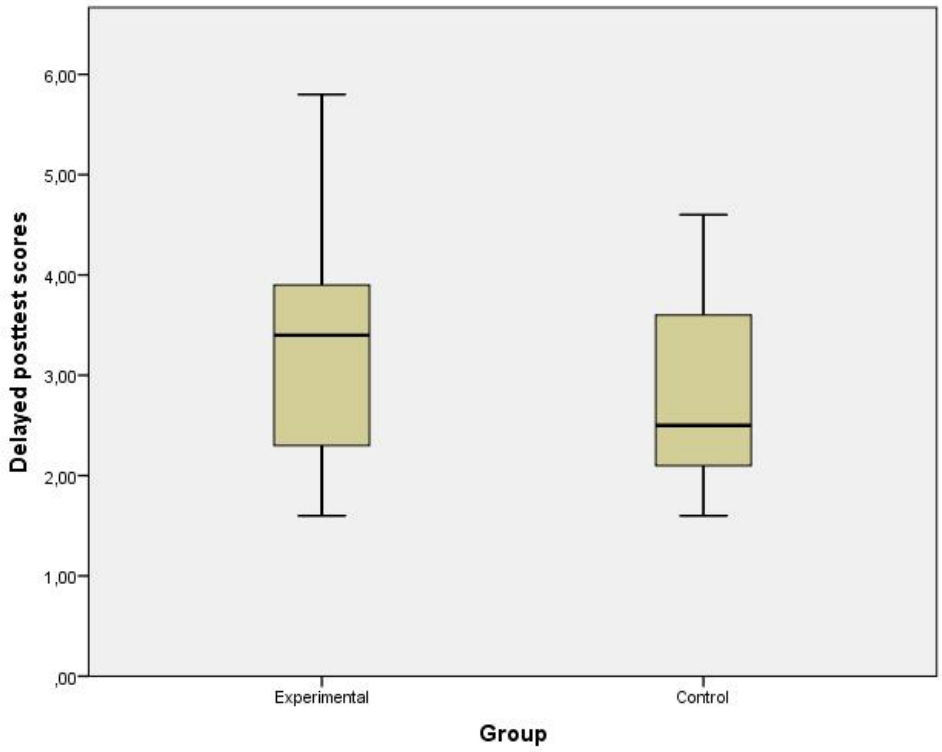


Figure 5.33 shows the delayed test scores of the control and experimental groups in session 9 in a boxplot. In the control group, 1.60 represented the minimum score and 4.60 the maximum score. Half of posttest scores were located between 2.15 and 3.50. The median was 2.50 points. In respect to the experimental group delayed test scores, 1.60 represented the lowest score, 5.80 represented the highest score, the median score was 3.40, and 50% of scores varied from 2.30 to 3.90. The comparison

between the control group delayed test scores (M = 2.83, SD = 1.01) and the experimental group delayed test scores (M = 3.31, SD = 1.31) by calculating the t-test assuming non-homogenous variances indicates no statistically significant difference at a .05 value, $t(18.78) = 0.97$, $p = .344$, $d = 0.41$, 95% CI [-0.55, 1.50].

Chapter 6: Discussion of Findings

6.1 Introduction

The present study was designed to compare the grammar test scores between a group of learners of English who received instruction in L2 only and a group of learners of English who received additional grammar instruction in the L1. The level of proficiency of the learners was pre-A1 of the CEFR. In this section, the results will be discussed in relation to the research questions and drawing upon the theoretical framework and previous studies.

6.2 Discussion

The first question in this study sought to determine whether pre-A1 learners of English who receive grammar instruction using the L1 will perform better on grammar posttests than the same type of learners who receive grammar instruction in L2-only. Surprisingly, the results from the posttest analysis of each session revealed that there was no difference in the mean scores of the grammar posttests between the control group and the experimental group. In the same vein, the posttest analysis of the combined sessions (sessions 1 to 8 combined) showed that no difference was found between the combined-sessions posttest mean scores (i.e., the mean of the posttest scores from all sessions in a group) from both groups. Therefore, L1 grammar instruction produced a similar effect to L2 grammar instruction in the short term.

These results are difficult to compare with others since this study employed the PPP approach and the structures taught were the ones provided in the corresponding lessons of the course book. However, they are similar in that they used the L1 as a tool to teach grammar. The results of this study contrast with the studies

of Sheen (1996) and Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996), which found that the use of the L1 to compare differences between the L1 and L2 increased the performance of the experimental group as compared with the control group. In Ahmadi's (2016) study, the use of the L1 to make a contrastive analysis between the L1 and L2 resulted in superior performance in the experimental group in translation tasks, but no difference was found between the experimental and control groups in the grammatical judgment test. In addition, the methods for teaching grammar in our study were different from the studies mentioned above. This study made use of codeswitching to teach grammar while the studies aforementioned employed contrastive analysis. In CFFI, learners are provided with explicit instruction on the differences between the L1 and the L2. The codeswitching used here provided learners with explanations of rules, meanings of forms, and use. Thus, these results may show that using codeswitching to teach grammar may not be as effective as CFFI since the former does not draw participants' attention to L2 forms as intensively and extensively as the latter.

It is possible too, that participants from the experimental group became confused when the L1 explanation was given. After providing explanations for English possessive adjectives through the use of drawings in which people tell others their names, I codeswitched and provided the translations of *his*, *her*, and *their*. I noted confusion on some of the participants' faces. After asking those participants concept questions, they demonstrated how to use those words. However, it cannot be known whether the participants recurred to their declarative or procedural memory when completing the grammar test since they had received both implicit and explicit instruction. A similar explanation was provided by Ahmadi (2016), who believed that reasoning processes involved in the contrastive analysis of the progressive structures

confused her participants, who did not perform as well as participants from the control group did.

An additional possible explanation could be that the participants had a higher level of proficiency. However, all participants took a valid test that placed them at levels 1A or 1B. Therefore, they could be considered homogeneous in terms of proficiency. In addition, although most of the participants (47 out of 71) were placed at level 1B but received instruction for students at level 1A, the pretest analysis of each session revealed no difference in the mean scores between control group and experimental group, except for session 6 in which the mean scores of the control group were significantly higher than the experimental group. However, in the pretest analysis of the combined sessions (analysis of all sessions, from 1 to 8 combined), no significant difference was found in the combined-sessions pretest mean scores (i.e., the mean of the pretest scores from all sessions in a group) between both groups. In other words, the participants from both groups had the same general level of knowledge before instruction during the experiment.

Ahmadi (2016) suggested that other learner differences could have affected the results in her study, in particular, the participants' learning styles. She argued that some in the experimental group might have had a preference for a holistic learning style, which was not the most suitable strategy to deal with the analytical processes involved in comparing the L1 and the L2 and making translations. We might surmise that this was not the case in our study. First, the participants' differences were distributed between the control and experimental group by random allocation. Second, both groups were provided with implicit and explicit instruction of grammar and no translation exercises were given. However, more emphasis and time were

devoted to explicit grammar instruction, and holistic style learners may not have had enough instruction. In addition, it is possible that learners who attended the sessions had diverse learning styles since they continued attending classes despite the pressures from their pre-university assignments. This might reflect that some of them did not have serious difficulties in their pre-university course due to their learning habits and styles, which would in contrast with the majority of students from the pre-university course. This possible characteristic of some learners may have caused their performance to be unaffected by the type of grammar instruction.

Another participants' characteristic that could have affected the results was motivation. In contrast with classes in which the participants are not assigned to either a control group or an experimental group because they are students enrolled in a formal educational institution and such allocations are not logistically feasible, the participants in our study voluntarily elected to attend the research sessions in their available time despite the fact that they also had homework from their pre-university courses. Thus, it is possible that the participants were intrinsically motivated to learn English. This could have rendered the type of grammar instruction less significant, since participants would direct their efforts and attention to learning as much English as possible whether instruction was delivered completely in the L2 or with codeswitching. On the other hand, there is also the possibility that, because participants were not engaged in formal English classes, but attended voluntarily, they perceived no negative consequence in their lives (such as passing or failing a course) if they scored low on the tests, and therefore did not devote their best efforts.

Another possible explanation of the results is that learners from the experimental group did not learn as expected because they were not at the appropriate

developmental sequence that precedes the teaching of the new structures, as the teachability hypothesis predicts (Pienemann, 1984; as cited in Ur, 2011). In addition, the goal of using the L1 was to provide learners with an understanding of the form, meaning, and use of the grammar item. Understanding does not lead to acquisition. According to the skill theory (Johnson, 1996; Dekeyser, 1998, 2007; as cited in Ur, 2011), the provision of practice would allow learners to make progress in their L2 development. Unfortunately, participants from both groups did not have enough practice after the sessions in the form of homework. The reason was that it was not possible to control for the use of dictionaries by participants from the control group. Therefore, this lack of additional exposure and practice outside the classroom may have prevented learners from being ready for learning the new structures and the potential benefit of L1 grammar instruction never occurred.

In addition, it may be the case that both methods of instruction were effective. The monolingual approach may produce the same results in L2 grammar learning as a bilingual approach that makes use of codeswitching techniques. Perhaps the material and teaching pedagogy contributed to the success of L2-only teaching. The activities included in the course book may have been sufficiently meaningful and communicative and thus conducive to grammar learning for these particular participants. It also may be the case that the lessons were appropriately planned and delivered due to the training and experience of the teacher (the researcher) in teaching monolingually in the L2. By using various L2 monolingual approaches and techniques to teach grammar such as implicit and explicit teaching, dialogues, consciousness-raising (highlighting the target structures), use of charts, and drawings, the teacher may have helped participants learn the target structures as well as if they

were taught in their L1. The teacher is also a native speaker of Spanish and has gone through the same English language learning pathway, and this could have contributed to the way lessons were prepared and taught. The control group's learning achievement is corroborated by the results of the pretest/posttest analysis, which shows that posttest scores considerably increased in each session in relation to pretest scores.

The second question in this study sought to determine whether pre-A1 learners of English who receive grammar instruction in their L1 will perform better on delayed grammar posttests than the same type of learners who receive grammar instruction in L2-only. Similar to the immediate posttest analysis of each session and combined sessions, the results from the delayed test analysis indicate that there was no difference in the mean scores of the delayed grammar tests between the control group and the experimental group. Hence, grammar instruction in the L1 produced a similar effect to grammar instruction in L2-only in the mid-term.

This outcome is difficult to compare with that of Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996). In their study, they administered a posttest three months after instruction. Their results revealed that learners who received Contrastive Linguistic Input (CLI) performed better on the delayed task than learners who received only comprehensible input implicitly. In our study, the delayed test was administered two weeks after instruction, that is, it measured a mid-term effect. However, a comparison can be made with the results of the study of Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996), in which not only were immediate and delayed posttest scores from the experimental group superior to the control one, but also the immediate and delayed posttest scores of the experimental group were similar to each other. This leads to the assumption that the

mid-term scores in their study could have been similar to both the immediate and delayed posttests. Thus, the results of our study may be different from that of Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996) since the immediate and 2-week posttest scores of the experimental group were significantly different from each other.

A possible explanation of this result might be, first, the lack of feedback on the immediate posttests, and second, the lack of exposure and practice outside the classroom. Due to limitations explained in the methodology section above, it was expected that some participants would not arrive in class on time, as indeed happened. When the initial reading activity was over, there was not sufficient time to provide participants feedback on their previous posttests since the pretest for the next lesson had to be administered; otherwise, there would not have enough time for the treatment and posttests to be administered in about 1 hour and thirty minutes. In addition, as explained before, no homework was assigned in order to limit the use of bilingual dictionaries by the control group in their homes. This prevented both groups from additional input and output opportunities that might have produced a mid-term effect in the acquisition of L2 forms.

The results suggest some pedagogical implications that will inform teachers and stakeholders. Teachers may not feel embarrassed when using the L1 in a judicious way as explained here. They would have available a wider range of activities to incorporate in the classroom that make use of the L1 such as contrastive analysis of the L1 and L2, bilingual translations, bilingual semi-communicative drills, and others. Teachers could be confident that their teaching practices are based on theoretical developments and scientific research and will be able to discuss them with other practitioners, parents, and the community.

In addition, the findings have socio-cultural implications. The native language of the learners would be valued and be regarded, not as interference, but as a mediating tool in the performance of L2 learning tasks. The inclusion of the learners' own language will also reaffirm their identities and facilitate their development towards a multicultural and multicompetent individual. Codeswitching will no longer be seen as an aberration but as a normal practice of bi/multilingual speakers.

Finally, the outcomes of this study possess implications for the design of guidelines and policies for educational institutions. Principals, administrators, and government officials need not prohibit the L1 in the L2 classroom but may promote a pedagogy that maximizes L2 use in which codeswitching is simply a complementary instrument in such attainment. However, it will be up to them to decide which bilingual approach among the ones explained above will be implemented in their educational institutions or systems.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Summary of the Findings and Relationship to Questions

The findings of this investigation show that the immediate and mid-term effect of teaching pre-A1 learners English grammar through the use of the learners' L1 has no superior effect on grammar tests as compared with a pedagogy that makes exclusive use of the L2. The results of this research also suggest that using the L1 to teach L2 grammar has no detrimental effect, and thus, such practice should not be excluded from the L2 classroom. However, this does not mean that the L1 should be used arbitrarily, but rather along with the L2 in a variety of bilingual techniques in order to promote maximal exposure to and production of the L2. The results also suggest that it may not always be necessary to use bilingual techniques for L2 instruction, especially as students make progress in their learning.

7.2 Limitations of the Study

This study explored the research questions in a classroom context and used pedagogical materials accordingly. However, an experimental design was adopted in which there was a selection of participants by their level of proficiency (pre-A1 learners), random allocation of participants to control and experimental groups, control for instruction, a single teacher, and valid and reliable tests.

The major limitation of this study was the sample size, which was affected by the increase of participant mortality throughout the study. The participants were not taken from intact classes. Instead, they voluntarily participated by signing the IFC. They were students enrolled in the pre-university courses from the afternoon and evening shift. So, according to the IFC, they could stop attending sessions whenever

they wished and without penalty. The pressure of passing the pre-university course may have caused several participants to drop out of the experiment.

Another limitation, derived from the previous one, is that participants were not selected from intact classes. Perhaps participants did not put as much effort in obtaining good scores as if they were in an official English language class at the university, which they would have to pass in order to be promoted to the next term. In addition, although I attempted to provide typical classroom conditions as much as possible, there were aspects that could not be replicated such as the practice of activities that make use of the four skills, the provision of feedback on tests, and the assignment of homework.

Caution should be taken when extrapolating the results to other contexts and types of learners as well as to other types of language structures. All participants were high school graduates that had passed the exam to be considered for admission to higher education. There is the possibility that they were intrinsically motivated to learn English and had at their disposal a variety of learning styles. The majority had attended state high schools for six years and their level of proficiency was at the pre-A1 level of the CEFR. Lastly, it should also be noted that the grammatical items taught corresponded to the early stages of language learning and the results may not be generalized to more complex structures.

7.3 Future Directions and Further Areas for Research

This study was one of a few that have attempted to determine whether there exists an effect between grammar instruction that makes use of the L1 and learning of new structures. The investigation took place in a classroom context within a communicative approach that maximized the use of the L2. The findings indicated

that both a monolingual approach and a bilingual approach to grammar teaching produced similar results. Pedagogical and socio-cultural implications have been suggested as well as implications for the design of educational guidelines and policies.

Further research should replicate the study with a larger sample and at the beginning of the term to find out if similar results are obtained. It would also be of interest to ascertain the long-term effects of bilingual instruction through longitudinal studies. A mixed-method approach could also provide insights regarding the learners' mental processes and opinions during bilingual and monolingual instruction of grammar. Another possible area of future research could investigate the effect of bilingual grammar instruction on the accuracy of oral production. Finally, further research could focus on young learners that have never received a foreign language lesson.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Pretests and Posttests

Unit 1. Lesson A. **Student's code number: _____** **Date: _____**

Complete the sentences. Use *am*, *is*, or *are*, and *her, his, my, our, your,* or *their*. Use capital letters where needed.

1. Hector _____(1) an actor. _____(2) last name _____(3) Keyes.
2. Al and Yuka _____(4) classmates. _____(5) last names _____(6) Smith and Tanaka.
3. Ms. Cho _____(7) a teacher. I _____(8) in _____(9) class.
4. We _____(10) students. _____(11) names _____(12) Ed and Ava.
5. I _____(13) Matt. _____(14) last name _____(15) Simon.
6. Hi! You _____(16) in my class. What _____(17) _____(18) name?

B _____ / 18 points (1 point each)

Unit 1. Lesson C. **Student's code number: _____** **Date: _____**

Look at the pictures and the example. Write *yes / no* questions with *be*. Then answer the questions with a short answer and a statement.

1. Mike / an actor

_____(1)?
_____(2).
_____(3).

2. Carol / an actress

_____(1)?
_____(2).
_____(3).

3. you / a teacher

_____(4)?
_____(5).
_____(6).

_____/ 9 points (1 point each)

Unit 2. Lesson A. **Group # ____** **Pre-test ☐** **Post-test ☐**

Student's code number: _ _ _ _ **Date: _____**

A **Read the example. Rewrite each sentence with *we*, *you*, or *they* and the correct nationality. Use contractions.**

1. Pedro and Celia are from Chile. *They're Chilean.*
2. Victor and I are from Brazil. _____
3. Nikos and Anna are from Greece. _____
4. You and Omar are from Turkey. _____
5. Keiko and I are from Japan. _____
6. Kate and Mike are from Britain. _____

_____ / 10 points (2 points each)

B **Match the questions and answers.**

1. Where are you from? ____	a. Ace1@cup.org
2. What's your nationality? ____	b. Thailand.
3. What's your number? ____	c. Thai.
4. What's your email? ____	d. 777-555-1232.

_____ / 4 points (1 point each)

Unit 2. Lesson C. **Group # ____** **Pre-test ☐** **Post-test ☐**

Student's code number: _ _ _ _ **Date: _____**

A **Complete each conversation with the correct question from the box.**

How old are they?	Who are they?
How old is your daughter?	Who's that?

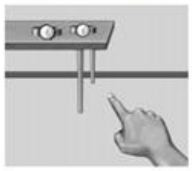
1. **A.** _____
   B. They're my parents.
2. **A:** _____
   B: They're 55 and 54.
3. **A:** _____
   B: That's my husband.
4. **A:** _____
   B: She's 14 years old.

_____ / 4 points (1 point each)

Unit 3. Lesson A. **Group # ____** **Pre-test ☐** **Post-test ☐**

Student's code number: _ _ _ _ **Date: _____**

A **Look at the pictures. Complete the conversations. Use *this, that, these, those,* and the correct present forms of be.**

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

1. **A:** What _____(1)_____? **B:** _____(2)_____.

2. **A:** What _____(3)_____? **B:** _____(4)_____.

3. **A:** What _____(5)_____? **B:** _____(6)_____.

4. _____ / 12 points (2 points each)

Unit 3. Lesson C. **Group #____** **Pre-test ☐** **Post-test ☐**

Student's code number: _ _ _ _ **Date: _____**

A **Look at the pictures. Complete the questions with *Whose*. Then check (✓) all the possible answers.**

Sam

1. _____ this?

- ☐ It's Sam's.
- ☐ It's his.
- ☐ They're his.
- ☐ It's his sweater.
- ☐ It's hers.
- ☐ It's our sweater.

Jenny

2. _____ those?

- ☐ They're theirs.
- ☐ It's hers.
- ☐ They're hers.
- ☐ It's her.
- ☐ They're yours.
- ☐ They're Jenny's.

Bill and Meg

3. _____ these?

- ☐ They're ours.
- ☐ They're our bags.
- ☐ They're theirs.
- ☐ They're their bags.
- ☐ They're Bill and Meg's bags.
- ☐ They're Bill and Meg's.

me

4. _____ that?

- ☐ It's not my coat.
- ☐ It's not me.
- ☐ It's not mine.
- ☐ It's not my scarf.
- ☐ It's not ours.
- ☐ It's ours.

_____/ 15 points (1 point each)

Unit 4. Lesson A. Group # ____ Pre-test ☐ Post-test ☐

Student's code number: _ _ _ _ Date: _____

A Complete the text with the simple present form of the verbs in parenthesis.

I _____ (1) (not / have) a car.
I _____ (2) (take) the train to work.
My wife _____ (3) (not / take) the train. Her friend _____ (4) (have) a car, and she _____ (5) (drive) to work. So my wife _____ (6) (go) to work in her friend's car.

Our children Amanda and Brett _____ (7) (take) the bus to school. And they _____ (8) (ride) their bikes to their friends' houses. Our daughter Lisa _____ (9) (walk) to school.

Our son Jerry is 24, and he _____ (10) (not / go) to school. He _____ (11) (have) a motorcycle, and he _____ (12) (ride) it to work.

_____/ 12 points (1 point each)

Unit 4. Lesson C. Group # ____ Pre-test ☐ Post-test ☐

Student's code number: _____ Date: _____

A Look at the pictures. Write *yes / no* questions with *do* or *does*. Then answer the questions with a short answer.

7:00

1. he / get up / 7:00

A: _____?

B: _____.

Sunday evenings

2. they / read the news / Sunday evenings

A: _____?

B: _____.

morning

3. she / go to school / afternoon

A: _____?

B: _____.

midnight

4. he / cook dinner / midnight

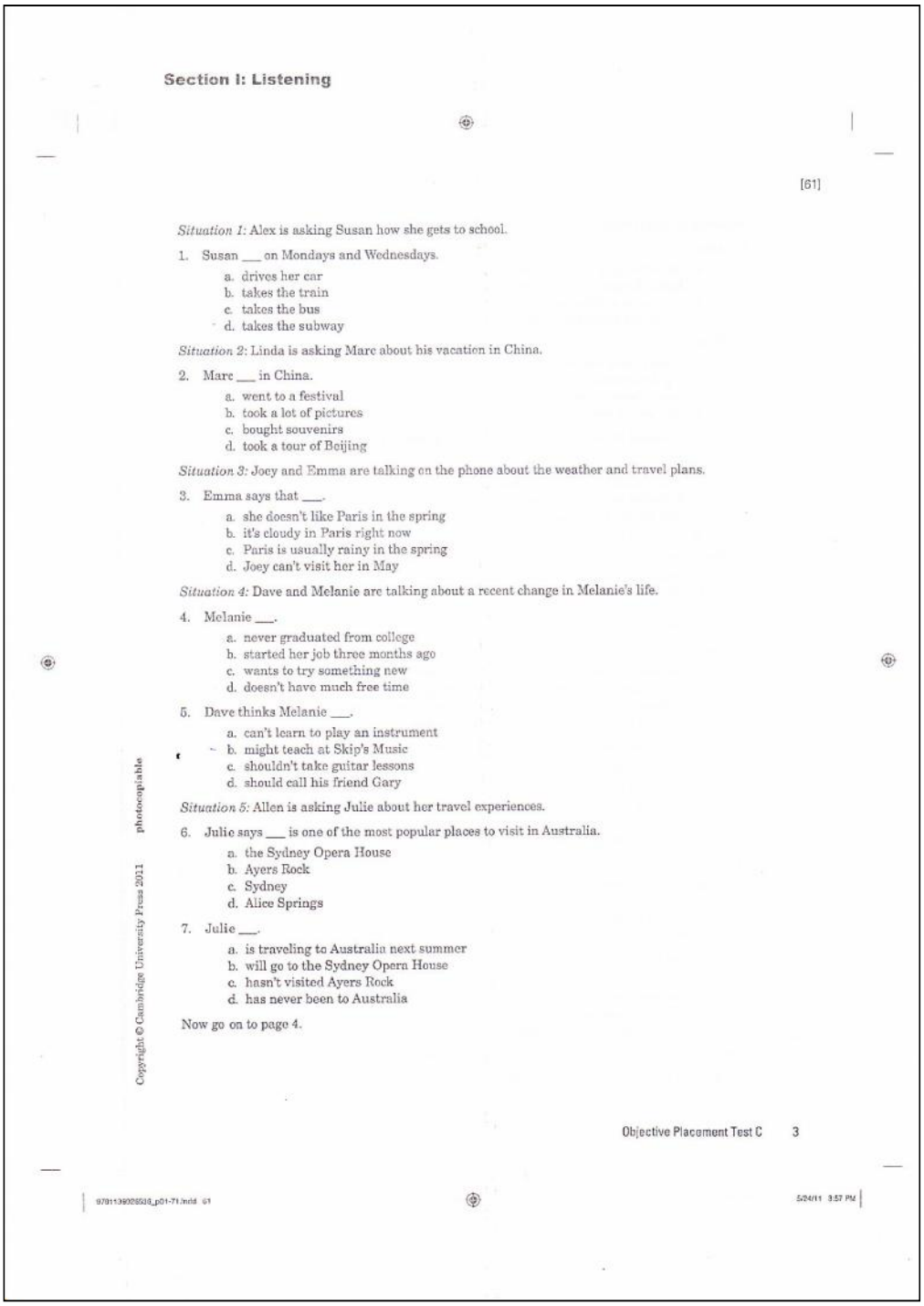
A: _____?

B: _____.

_____/12 points (2 points each question, 1 point each short answer)

Appendix B

The Placement Test



Section I: Listening

[61]

Situation 1: Alex is asking Susan how she gets to school.

1. Susan ___ on Mondays and Wednesdays.
   a. drives her car
   b. takes the train
   c. takes the bus
   d. takes the subway

Situation 2: Linda is asking Marc about his vacation in China.

2. Marc ___ in China.
   a. went to a festival
   b. took a lot of pictures
   c. bought souvenirs
   d. took a tour of Beijing

Situation 3: Joey and Emma are talking on the phone about the weather and travel plans.

3. Emma says that ___.
   a. she doesn't like Paris in the spring
   b. it's cloudy in Paris right now
   c. Paris is usually rainy in the spring
   d. Joey can't visit her in May

Situation 4: Dave and Melanie are talking about a recent change in Melanie's life.

4. Melanie ___.
   a. never graduated from college
   b. started her job three months ago
   c. wants to try something new
   d. doesn't have much free time

5. Dave thinks Melanie ___.
   a. can't learn to play an instrument
   b. might teach at Skip's Music
   c. shouldn't take guitar lessons
   d. should call his friend Gary

Situation 5: Allen is asking Julie about her travel experiences.

6. Julie says ___ is one of the most popular places to visit in Australia.
   a. the Sydney Opera House
   b. Ayers Rock
   c. Sydney
   d. Alice Springs

7. Julie ___.
   a. is traveling to Australia next summer
   b. will go to the Sydney Opera House
   c. hasn't visited Ayers Rock
   d. has never been to Australia

Now go on to page 4.

Situation 6: Kyle is talking to Sarah about his brother Alec.

8. Alec ___.
   a. contacted Kyle about a problem
   b. hasn't dropped by for two weeks
   c. is going to watch a movie
   d. is worried about his friend

9. Kyle ___.
   a. doesn't think Alec is busy
   b. has done something to upset Alec
   c. doesn't want to talk to Alec
   d. may go to a movie with Alec

Situation 7: Michael is telling Paula about something that happened to him.

10. Michael ___.
    a. didn't bring his glasses on vacation
    b. drove the car that they had rented
    c. took a tour of local sights
    d. didn't get much time to relax

11. Keith was ___.
    a. upset
    b. relaxed
    c. unfortunate
    d. flexible

12. Paula says that ___.
    a. Michael and Keith should have relaxed more
    b. Keith should have been upset about driving
    c. Michael and Keith could have taken a tour of the local sights
    d. Michael should have put his glasses in his bag

Situation 8: John and Lara are talking about a concert.

13. Lara didn't go to the concert because ___.
    a. she didn't have any tickets
    b. it rained the day of the concert
    c. she attended a family party
    d. her friend Maggie wanted the tickets

14. John ___.
    a. is going to next week's concert
    b. heard good things about the concert
    c. will be getting concert tickets
    d. saw the concert last Sunday

15. One of the band members ___.
    a. won't be playing next week
    b. was seriously injured
    c. fell down because of the rain
    d. was not taken to the hospital

This is the end of the Listening section of Objective Placement Test C.

Now go on to page 5 and begin the Reading section.

Section II: Reading

In this section, you will read some passages and answer questions about them. Choose the word or words that best complete the sentence. For each item, fill in your answer on the answer sheet. You will have 15 minutes to complete this section.

Passage 1: What Do You Do After School?

MICHELLE: I have classes Monday through Friday. On Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, I always work at the mall in the afternoon. Then on Monday and Wednesday, I often eat dinner with my parents at home and study at night. But on Friday, I eat out with friends and then hang out at a club. On Tuesday and Thursday, I usually go swimming after school and eat dinner at home.

16. Michelle ___ on Friday.
    a. eats dinner at home
    b. hangs out at a club
    c. goes swimming
    d. studies in the evening

Passage 2: An Email, Subject: Vacation in Ecuador!

Dear Carrie,

I am on vacation with my friend Ken in Ecuador. Last week, we took a tour of the Galápagos Islands. We saw many interesting animals. It was great! This week, we are in Quito. Our hotel is in Old Town. Yesterday, we walked around the city and took some pictures. We went to a music festival and listened to a band play Sanjuanito music. It was fun. Last night, we ate some *ceviche*. It was delicious! Tomorrow, we are going to visit the museums in Old Town. Next week, we are going to shop in the famous markets in Otavalo. I am going to buy a souvenir for you. I love vacations!

Allen

17. Allen ___.
    a. is going to visit the markets in Otavalo
    b. is staying at a friend's house in Quito
    c. is visiting the Galápagos Islands now
    d. didn't take any pictures of Quito

Passage 3: How Can You Get Enough Sleep?

Sleep is very important for good health. Doctor Todd Simon says that most Americans don't get enough sleep. They only get about six hours of sleep every night, but they need seven or eight hours. Dr. Simon told us how he gets enough sleep. He said, "I don't usually stay out late. I don't read, watch TV, or use electronics, such as my computer or cell phone, right before bedtime. I never drink coffee at night. I go to bed at the same time almost every night. At about 11:00 p.m., I turn off the lights and relax. I sleep for seven or eight hours every night. I'm a healthy person, and I have a lot of energy. I think this is because I have good sleeping habits."

18. The article says that Dr. Simon ___.
    a. thinks six hours is enough sleep for good health
    b. goes to bed at a different time every night
    c. thinks that he has good sleeping habits
    d. usually reads a book before he goes to bed

Now go on to page 6.

Passage 4: Reggie's Restaurant Review: Debbie's Diner

Debbie's Diner is an old, traditional place in the downtown area. It has fantastic dinners and the most delicious desserts! It's a busy restaurant on a corner near the movie theaters. Last Saturday night, I saw a movie with my friends Kristin, Lisa, and Mark. Then we went to Debbie's Diner to have dessert. It was amazing! Kristin ate cheesecake, and I did, too. Lisa ate some fruit. Mark had the apple pie and some coffee. All of the food was delicious. The restaurant was very busy, but the waitresses were fast and friendly. The owner, Pete, was very nice, too. We had a great night. We may go again next week to try their homemade ice cream. You should try this excellent restaurant. You will love their desserts!

19. Reggie and his friends went to Debbie's Diner to ___.
    a. have dessert
    b. eat dinner
    c. drink some coffee
    d. try the ice cream

20. Kristin had ___.
    a. some coffee
    b. some fruit
    c. apple pie
    d. cheesecake

Passage 5: Life After College

My sister Kim is graduating from college next month. Right now, she is looking for a job as a nurse. She hopes to work for a hospital that helps children without much money. When she was a child, she used to feel sad when she heard about children who were sick and didn't get medical help because they didn't have enough money. One time when she was 10 years old, our family was watching the news on TV. Kim saw a report about a young boy who was very sick and had no doctor. She ran to her bedroom and cried. She really wants to help people who don't have enough money to see a doctor.

Now she is very passionate about her career, but she hasn't always been this way. For several years after high school, she had many different jobs. She wasn't very happy at those jobs, but she wasn't confident enough to do anything different in her life. Then one day, she got sick and went to the hospital. At the hospital, she met a very nice nurse. They became friends and talked often. Her friend helped her decide to go to college. When Kim took her first biology class, suddenly everything changed. She became a very serious student and decided to become a nurse. She is determined to find her dream job, and I think she will get it because she is intelligent and caring.

21. When Kim was 10 years old, she ___.
    a. worked at a hospital for sick children
    b. didn't have enough money to see a doctor
    c. didn't want to watch the news on TV
    d. saw a report about a young boy who was sick

22. Kim has ___.
    a. always been passionate about her jobs
    b. had many different jobs
    c. found her dream job
    d. already finished college

Now go on to page 7.

Passage 6: My Dream Home

If I could live anywhere I wanted, I would have a small apartment in downtown London. I have lived by myself in a neighborhood outside of London for two years, but I work downtown. I don't have a car, so I spend a lot of time taking public transportation going to and from my job. It would be more convenient to live closer to work. Being downtown would also be convenient because I could walk to the library, gym, or supermarket.

It would be great to live downtown because I am a young, single man who likes to go out a lot with my friends on the weekends. It's fashionable to live downtown, so a lot of young, single people live there. I could stay out late and go dancing at a club without worrying about how to get home. If I lived downtown, I could walk to the theater and see a play. I could easily go to an art or history museum downtown, too. Because I usually hang out with my friends at a restaurant or club, I don't entertain much at home. That means I wouldn't need to have a very big place. I also don't cook at home a lot, so it would be helpful to be close to many different restaurants. If I had a small apartment, I wouldn't spend much time cleaning it, either. Living in a small place downtown would definitely make my life easier!

23. The author wants to move because he ___.
    a. wants to be closer to public transportation
    b. would like to live near his job
    c. has lived by himself for two years
    d. wants to live in a better neighborhood

24. The author is a young man who ___.
    a. likes to entertain his friends at home
    b. doesn't like to go to museums
    c. likes to go to the theater to see plays
    d. would like a big apartment downtown

Now go on to page 8.

Passage 7: Kevin's Basketball Blog

I love watching basketball. Yesterday, at the last minute, my friend Joe invited me see the local basketball team, the Vipers, play. Joe is a real Vipers fan and goes to their games as often as he can. When they aren't playing in town, he watches their games at home on TV. Last night was the first time I saw a live basketball game that wasn't on TV. It was great!

The Vipers were playing the Hornets at the town stadium. The tickets cost $30, but I didn't care. I really enjoyed the game. If I watched the game on TV at home, I wouldn't have the same experience. It was more exciting at the stadium. Before we got there, Joe reminded me to expect a lot of noise, but I had no idea how noisy it would be. The fans were really enthusiastic, and it got pretty loud. Every time the Vipers scored, the fans played music and screamed.

Fortunately, the Vipers played extremely well and won the game by 26 points. We were really happy that the Vipers won, but it would have been great to see a more competitive game, with closer scores. It would have been more exciting! The Hornets just didn't play very well last night. For example, Johnson, one of the Hornets' players, tried to score several times, but he missed the basket every time. He's only been playing for one year, so he doesn't have a lot of experience. It was amazing to be in the stadium, but the game could have been better.

25. Joe ___.
    a. was invited by Kevin to go to a basketball game
    b. often goes to Vipers' games when they are in town
    c. saw his first live Vipers' game last night
    d. thinks the Hornets are a great team

26. Kevin says that ___.
    a. the stadium was much too noisy
    b. he didn't want to spend $30 for the ticket
    c. going to a live game was very exciting
    d. it was the same as seeing the game on TV

27. Kevin says that ___.
    a. the final score wasn't very close
    b. Johnson is an experienced player
    c. last night's game was very competitive
    d. the Hornets played extremely well

Now go on to page 9.

Passage 8: How Modern Technology Has Changed Education

New technologies developed over the last 20 or 30 years have changed the way people study and take classes. Traditionally, university students have always taken classes by registering for a class and then attending the class in a classroom. There, they listen to the professor, take notes, ask and answer questions, and have face-to-face discussions with classmates. Nowadays, however, more and more students are taking classes online. They don't go to a physical classroom. All of their interactions with the teacher and classmates take place online. As with most new things, there are good things about this style of education, but there are also problems.

On the good side, online classes make it possible for more people to study. It's cheaper and easier to take a class at home in front of the computer than to attend a traditional university class. Technology has made it easy to access and share information. Students can use the Internet to do research and write papers. More and more books and professional articles are now available online. When students need a library book, they can check online to see if it is available.

But, there are problems with online classes. Some people say that class discussions online are not as effective as those in a "real" classroom. Talking online is not the same as meeting face-to-face. Others say that there's almost too much information on the Internet – some of it good, but much of it not very reliable. Online classes may not offer students enough advice as they do research. In conclusion, online classes are convenient, but we need to make sure that the quality of education they offer is as good as that of a traditional class.

28. The main idea of the article is that ___.
    a. there are good and bad things about online classes
    b. online classes offer more people a chance to study
    c. online classes are not as good as traditional classes
    d. universities no longer need to offer traditional classes

29. The article says that nowadays students ___.
    a. don't have to use libraries for research anymore
    b. can access a lot of information on the Internet
    c. can't ask the teacher questions in an online class
    d. can find books but not professional articles online

30. According to the article, a possible problem with online classes is that ___.
    a. there's no opportunity for class discussions
    b. they are too expensive for most students
    c. they make it too convenient for people to study
    d. some information on the Internet isn't reliable

Now go on to page 10 and begin the Language Use section.

Section III: Language Use

In this section, you will answer questions about the use of English. Choose the word or words that best complete the sentence. For each item, fill in your answer on the answer sheet. You will have 10 minutes to complete this section.

31. My brother ___ early on weekdays.
    a. get up
    b. gets up
    c. don't get up
    d. not get up

32. ___ they eating out at the mall?
    a. Is
    b. Do
    c. Are
    d. Does

33. Melissa ___ the subway to work yesterday.
    a. took
    b. taking
    c. take
    d. takes

34. A: What ___ like?
    B: She is generous.
    a. does she look
    b. does she
    c. would she
    d. is she

35. There ___ dishes in the sink.
    a. aren't any
    b. 's some
    c. isn't any
    d. aren't some

36. I love summer. It's ___ spring.
    a. hotter that
    b. more hot that
    c. hotter than
    d. hot than

37. He ___ the museum on Oak Street.
    a. haven't visited
    b. has never visit
    c. 's never visited
    d. have not visit

Now go on to page 11.

38. A: I like hanging out with friends.
B: ___.
a. I am, too
b. Neither do I
c. Neither am I
d. I do, too

39. If she has a headache, she ___ a nap.
a. takes
b. took
c. has taken
d. was taking

40. His friends are people ___ to go dancing on weekends.
a. that likes
b. who like
c. who they like
d. which like

41. My family ___ camping last summer.
a. has gone
b. doesn't go
c. went
d. is going

42. A: How long ___ in his house?
B: ___ 2009.
a. does he live / For
b. has he lived / Since
c. has he lived / For
d. did he live / Since

43. If they ___ the bus, they ___ late for the party.
a. may take / will be
b. takes / might be
c. could take / are
d. take / will be

44. This purse ___ by a famous designer.
a. were created
b. created
c. was created
d. are created

45. A: Is she getting a visa to travel tomorrow?
B: No. She ___ to get one because she already has one.
a. doesn't have
b. had better not
c. ought
d. must not

Now to go on to page 12.

46. ___ your car recently?
    a. Will you drive
    b. Have you driven
    c. Do you drive
    d. Are you driving

47. If we ___ more money, we ___ a new car.
    a. would have / would buy
    b. will have / 'd buy
    c. have / buy
    d. had / would buy

48. Our teacher advised us ___ a dictionary during the exam.
    a. not use
    b. don't use
    c. not to use
    d. to use not

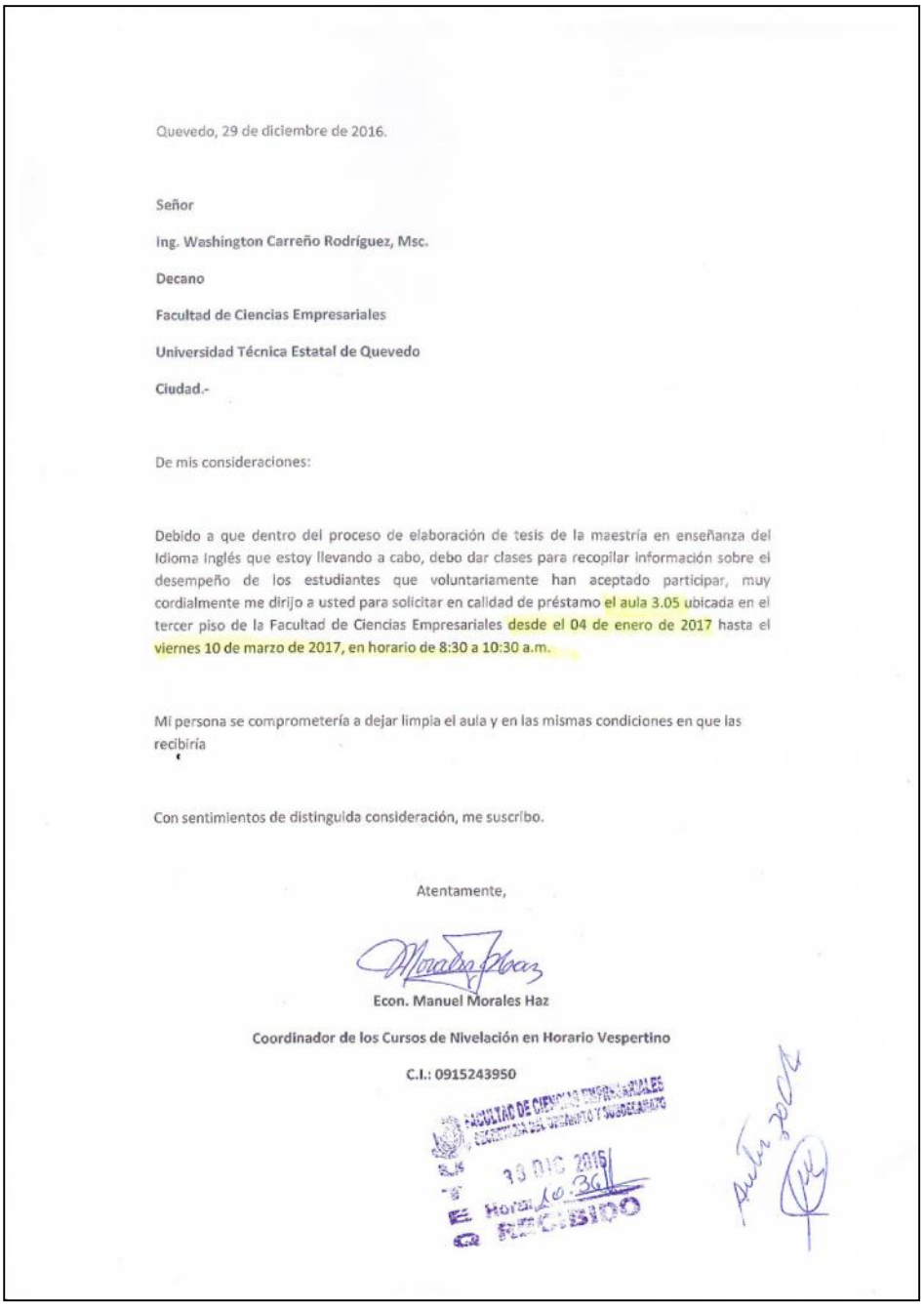
49. A: Oh, no! Where is my bag? It's not here!
    B: Maybe it's at home, or you ___ have lost it.
    a. should
    b. must not
    c. could
    d. might not

50. She is in a meeting this morning. She ___ calls this afternoon.
    a. will be taking
    b. has been taking
    c. doesn't take
    d. was taking

END OF TEST

Appendix C

Authorization from the Dean of the Business Faculty



Quevedo, 29 de diciembre de 2016.

Señor

Ing. Washington Carreño Rodríguez, Msc.

Decano

Facultad de Ciencias Empresariales

Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo

Ciudad.-

De mis consideraciones:

Debido a que dentro del proceso de elaboración de tesis de la maestría en enseñanza del Idioma Inglés que estoy llevando a cabo, debo dar clases para recopilar información sobre el desempeño de los estudiantes que voluntariamente han aceptado participar, muy cordialmente me dirijo a usted para solicitar en calidad de préstamo el aula 3.05 ubicada en el tercer piso de la Facultad de Ciencias Empresariales desde el 04 de enero de 2017 hasta el viernes 10 de marzo de 2017, en horario de 8:30 a 10:30 a.m.

Mi persona se comprometería a dejar limpia el aula y en las mismas condiciones en que las recibiría

Con sentimientos de distinguida consideración, me suscribo.

Atentamente,

Econ. Manuel Morales Haz

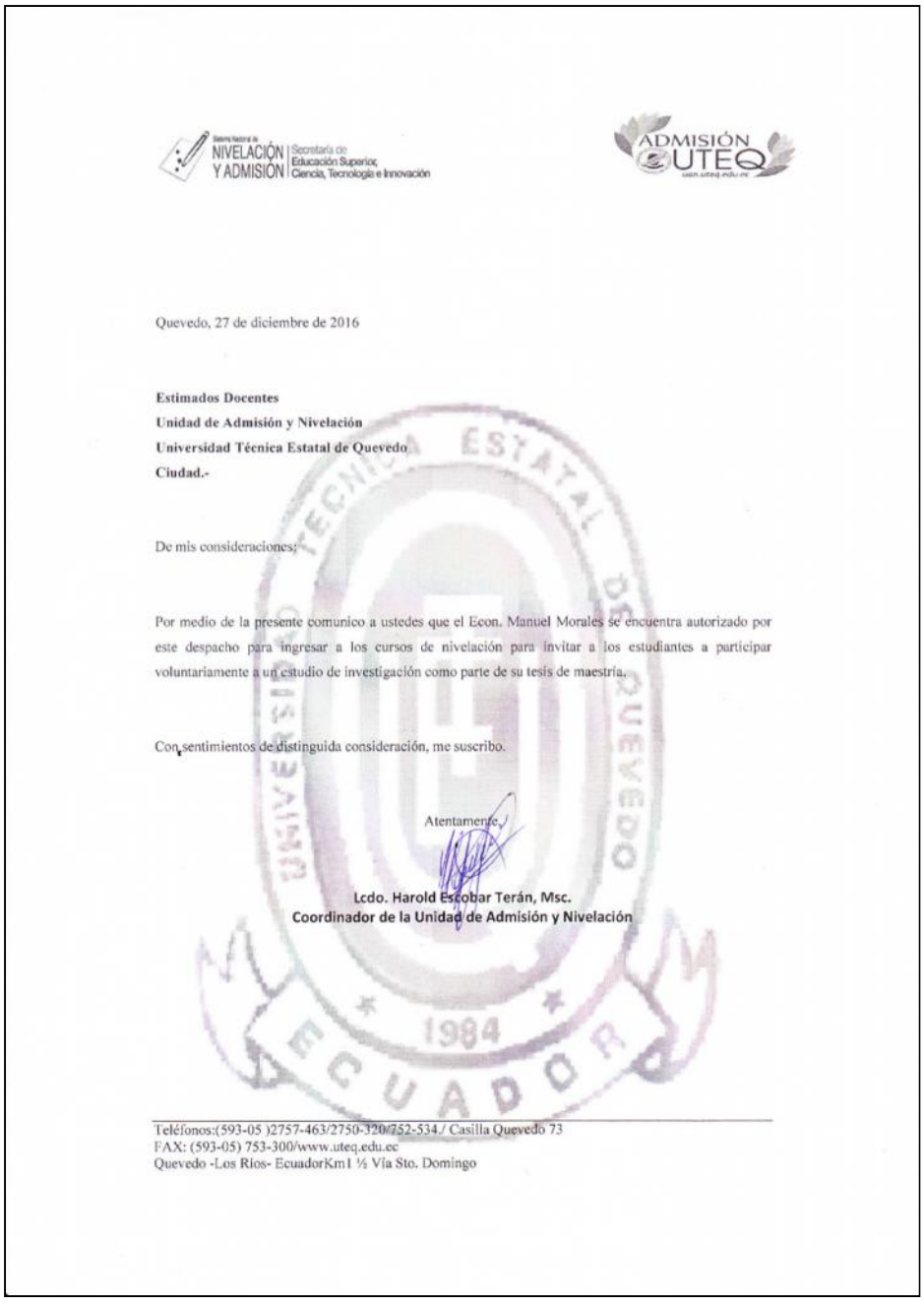
Coordinador de los Cursos de Nivelación en Horario Vespertino

C.I.: 0915243950

FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS EMPRESARIALES
SECRETARIA DEL DECANATO Y SUBDECANATO
30 DIC 2016
Horario 8:30
RECIBIDO

Appendix D

Authorization Letter from the Coordinator of the Pre-university Department



Sistema Nacional de NIVELACIÓN Y ADMISIÓN | Secretaría de Educación Superior, Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación

ADMISIÓN UTEQ

Quevedo, 27 de diciembre de 2016

Estimados Docentes
Unidad de Admisión y Nivelación
Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo
Ciudad.-

De mis consideraciones:

Por medio de la presente comunico a ustedes que el Econ. Manuel Morales se encuentra autorizado por este despacho para ingresar a los cursos de nivelación para invitar a los estudiantes a participar voluntariamente a un estudio de investigación como parte de su tesis de maestría.

Con sentimientos de distinguida consideración, me suscribo.

Atentamente,

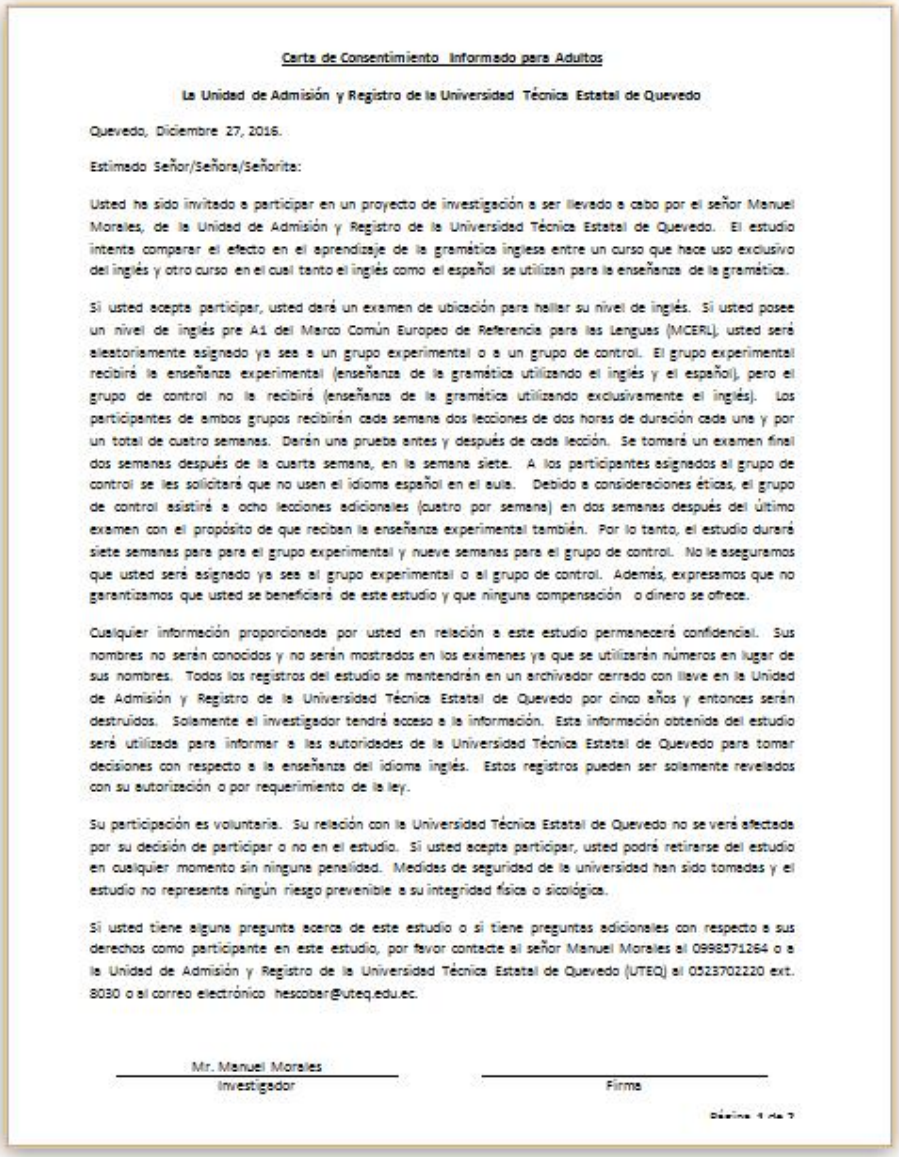
Lcdo. Harold Escobar Terán, Msc.
Coordinador de la Unidad de Admisión y Nivelación

UNIVERSIDAD TÉCNICA ESTATAL DE QUEVEDO
1984
ECUADOR

Teléfonos:(593-05)2757-463/2750-320/752-534./ Casilla Quevedo 73
FAX: (593-05) 753-300/www.uteq.edu.ec
Quevedo -Los Ríos- EcuadorKm1 ½ Vía Sto. Domingo

Appendix E

Informed Consent Forms



Carta de Consentimiento Informado para Adultos

La Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo

Quevedo, Diciembre 27, 2016.

Estimado Señor/Señora/Señorita:

Usted ha sido invitado a participar en un proyecto de investigación a ser llevado a cabo por el señor Manuel Morales, de la Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo. El estudio intenta comparar el efecto en el aprendizaje de la gramática inglesa entre un curso que hace uso exclusivo del inglés y otro curso en el cual tanto el inglés como el español se utilizan para la enseñanza de la gramática.

Si usted acepta participar, usted dará un examen de ubicación para hallar su nivel de inglés. Si usted posee un nivel de inglés pre A1 del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas (MCERL), usted será aleatoriamente asignado ya sea a un grupo experimental o a un grupo de control. El grupo experimental recibirá la enseñanza experimental (enseñanza de la gramática utilizando el inglés y el español), pero el grupo de control no la recibirá (enseñanza de la gramática utilizando exclusivamente el inglés). Los participantes de ambos grupos recibirán cada semana dos lecciones de dos horas de duración cada una y por un total de cuatro semanas. Darán una prueba antes y después de cada lección. Se tomará un examen final dos semanas después de la cuarta semana, en la semana siete. A los participantes asignados al grupo de control se les solicitará que no usen el idioma español en el aula. Debido a consideraciones éticas, el grupo de control asistirá a ocho lecciones adicionales (cuatro por semana) en dos semanas después del último examen con el propósito de que reciban la enseñanza experimental también. Por lo tanto, el estudio durará siete semanas para para el grupo experimental y nueve semanas para el grupo de control. No le aseguramos que usted será asignado ya sea al grupo experimental o al grupo de control. Además, expresamos que no garantizamos que usted se beneficiará de este estudio y que ninguna compensación o dinero se ofrece.

Cualquier información proporcionada por usted en relación a este estudio permanecerá confidencial. Sus nombres no serán conocidos y no serán mostrados en los exámenes ya que se utilizarán números en lugar de sus nombres. Todos los registros del estudio se mantendrán en un archivador cerrado con llave en la Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo por cinco años y entonces serán destruidos. Solamente el investigador tendrá acceso a la información. Esta información obtenida del estudio será utilizada para informar a las autoridades de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo para tomar decisiones con respecto a la enseñanza del idioma inglés. Estos registros pueden ser solamente revelados con su autorización o por requerimiento de la ley.

Su participación es voluntaria. Su relación con la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo no se verá afectada por su decisión de participar o no en el estudio. Si usted acepta participar, usted podrá retirarse del estudio en cualquier momento sin ninguna penalidad. Medidas de seguridad de la universidad han sido tomadas y el estudio no representa ningún riesgo prevenible a su integridad física o sicológica.

Si usted tiene alguna pregunta acerca de este estudio o si tiene preguntas adicionales con respecto a sus derechos como participante en este estudio, por favor contacte al señor Manuel Morales al 0998571264 o a la Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo (UTEQ) al 0523702220 ext. 8030 o al correo electrónico hescobar@uteq.edu.ec.

Mr. Manuel Morales
Investigador

Firma

Página 1 de 2

Consentimiento del participante. Al firmar esta carta de consentimiento usted indica que ha leído y entendido la información anterior y que usted acepta participar en este estudio.

_____ _____

Nombres del Participante Firma

Edad: ____ Número de teléfono: _____ Fecha: _____

SELECCIÓN DEL HORARIO DE CLASES

Por favor escoja el horario que mejor le convenga.

Si usted escoge la opción A, significa que usted tiene tiempo disponible para tomar las clases ya sean los lunes y miércoles desde las 8:30 a.m. hasta las 10:30 a.m. o ya sean los martes y jueves desde las 8:30 a.m. hasta las 10:30 a.m. Posteriormente, usted será asignado al azar a uno de estos dos horarios.

Si usted escoge la opción B, significa que usted tiene tiempo disponible para tomar las clases ya sean los sábados y domingos desde las 8:00 a.m. hasta las 10:00 a.m. o ya sean los sábados y domingos desde las 10:00 a.m. hasta las 12:00 a.m. Posteriormente, usted será asignado al azar a uno de estos dos horarios.

Si usted no está disponible en una de las dos opciones, escoja la opción C.

Por favor, ponga un visto en uno de los casilleros de abajo.

✓	Opción	Horario de clases
☐	Opción A	Estoy disponible para asistir a cualquiera de los siguientes horarios: Lunes y Miércoles desde las 8:30 a.m. hasta las 10:30 a.m. o Martes y Jueves desde las 8:30 a.m. hasta las 10:30 a.m.
☐	Opción B	Estoy disponible para asistir a cualquiera de los siguientes horarios: Sábados y Domingos desde las 8:00 a.m. hasta las 10 a.m. o Sábados y Domingos desde las 10:00 a.m. hasta las 12 p.m.
☐	Opción C	No estoy disponible en ninguna de las dos opciones.

Carta de Consentimiento Informado para los representantes del menor

Quevedo, Diciembre 27, 2016.

Estimado Señor/Señora/Señorita:

Se invita a su representado(a) a participar en un proyecto de investigación a ser llevado a cabo por el señor Manuel Morales, de la Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo (UTEQ). El estudio intenta comparar el efecto en el aprendizaje de la gramática inglesa entre un curso que hace uso exclusivo del inglés y otro curso en el cual tanto el inglés como el español se utilizan para la enseñanza de la gramática.

Si usted autoriza a su representado(a) a participar, él(ella) dará un examen de ubicación para hallar su nivel de inglés. Si él(ella) posee un nivel de inglés pre A1 del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas (MCERL), él(ella) será aleatoriamente asignado(a) ya sea a un grupo experimental o a un grupo de control. El grupo experimental recibirá la enseñanza experimental (enseñanza de la gramática utilizando el inglés y el español), pero el grupo de control no la recibirá (enseñanza de la gramática utilizando exclusivamente el inglés). Los participantes de ambos grupos recibirán cada semana dos lecciones de dos horas de duración cada una y por un total de cuatro semanas. Darán una prueba antes y después de cada lección. Se tomará un examen final dos semanas después de la cuarta semana, en la semana siete. A los participantes asignados al grupo de control se les solicitará que no usen el idioma español en el aula. Debido a consideraciones éticas, el grupo de control asistirá a ocho lecciones adicionales (cuatro por semana) en dos semanas después del último examen con el propósito de que reciban la enseñanza experimental también. Por lo tanto, el estudio durará siete semanas para el grupo experimental y nueve semanas para el grupo de control. No le aseguramos que su representado(a) será asignado(a) al grupo experimental o al grupo de control. Además, expresamos que no garantizamos que usted o su representado(a) se beneficiará de este estudio y que ninguna compensación o dinero se ofrece.

Cualquier información proporcionada por usted o su representado(a) en relación a este estudio permanecerá confidencial. Los nombres de su representado(a) no serán conocidos y no serán mostrados en los exámenes ya que se utilizarán números en lugar de sus nombres. Todos los registros del estudio se mantendrán en un archivador cerrado con llave en la Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la UTEQ por cinco años y entonces serán destruidos. Solamente el investigador tendrá acceso a la información. Esta información obtenida del estudio será utilizada para informar a las autoridades de la UTEQ para tomar decisiones con respecto a la enseñanza del idioma inglés. Estos registros pueden ser solamente revelados con su autorización o por requerimiento de la ley.

La participación de su representado(a) es voluntaria. La relación de su representado(a) con la UTEQ no se verá afectada por su decisión de participar o no en el estudio. Si usted autoriza la participación de su representado(a), él(ella)podrá retirarse del estudio en cualquier momento sin ninguna penalidad. Medidas de seguridad de la universidad han sido tomadas y el estudio no representa ningún riesgo prevenible a la integridad física o sicológica de su representado(a).

Si usted tiene alguna pregunta acerca de este estudio o si tiene preguntas adicionales con respecto a los derechos de su representado(a) como participante en este estudio, por favor contacte al señor Manuel Morales al 0998571264 o a la Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo (UTEQ) al 0523702220 ext. 8030 o al correo electrónico hescobar@uteq.edu.ec.

Sr. Manuel Morales
Investigador

Firma

Consentimiento del padre/madre/representante del participante. Al firmar esta carta de consentimiento usted indica que ha leído y entendido la información anterior y que usted autoriza a su representado(a) a participar en este estudio.

_____ Nombres del Representante

_____ Firma

Número de teléfono: _____ Fecha: _____

Carta de Consentimiento para el Menor

Yo deseo participar en el estudio que se llama "El Efecto de Usar el L1 para Enseñar Gramática en la Clase de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera para Alumnos en un Nivel Pre A1 en una Universidad Ecuatoriana". Entiendo que el investigador de la Unidad de Admisión y Registro de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo busca encontrar la efectividad de dos formas de enseñar gramática inglesa. Una manera de enseñar gramática utilizaré el inglés y el español, y la otra manera de enseñar utilizaré solamente el inglés. Entiendo que daré un examen de ubicación, que daré un examen antes y después de cada lección, y que asistiré a clases entre siete y nueve semanas en la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo.

Se me solicitará que asista a clases y que me involucre en las lecciones del idioma inglés. Este estudio tendrá lugar en un aula de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo y tomará alrededor de nueve y diecisiete horas de mi tiempo. Entiendo que probablemente se me solicitará que no use el idioma español para nada en el aula de clases. Participaré porque quiero. Se me ha dicho que puedo retirarme del estudio en cualquier momento y que si no me gusta una pregunta no tengo que responderla. Nadie sabrá mis respuestas en los exámenes, incluyendo mis padres, representantes, compañeros de clases y otros participantes.

_____ Nombres del Menor de Edad

_____ Firma

Edad: ____ Número de teléfono: _____ Fecha: _____

SELECCIÓN DEL HORARIO DE CLASES

Por favor escoja el horario que mejor le convenga.

Si usted escoge la opción A, significa que usted tiene tiempo disponible para tomar las clases ya sea los lunes y miércoles desde las 8:30 a.m. hasta las 10:30 a.m. o ya sea los martes y jueves desde las 8:30 a.m hasta las 10:30 a.m. Posteriormente, usted será asignado al azar a uno de estos dos horarios.

Si usted escoge la opción B, significa que usted tiene tiempo disponible para tomar las clases ya sea los sábados y domingos desde las 8:00 a.m. hasta las 10:00 a.m. o ya sea los sábados y domingos desde las 10:00 a.m. hasta las 12:00 a.m. Posteriormente, usted será asignado al azar a uno de estos dos horarios.

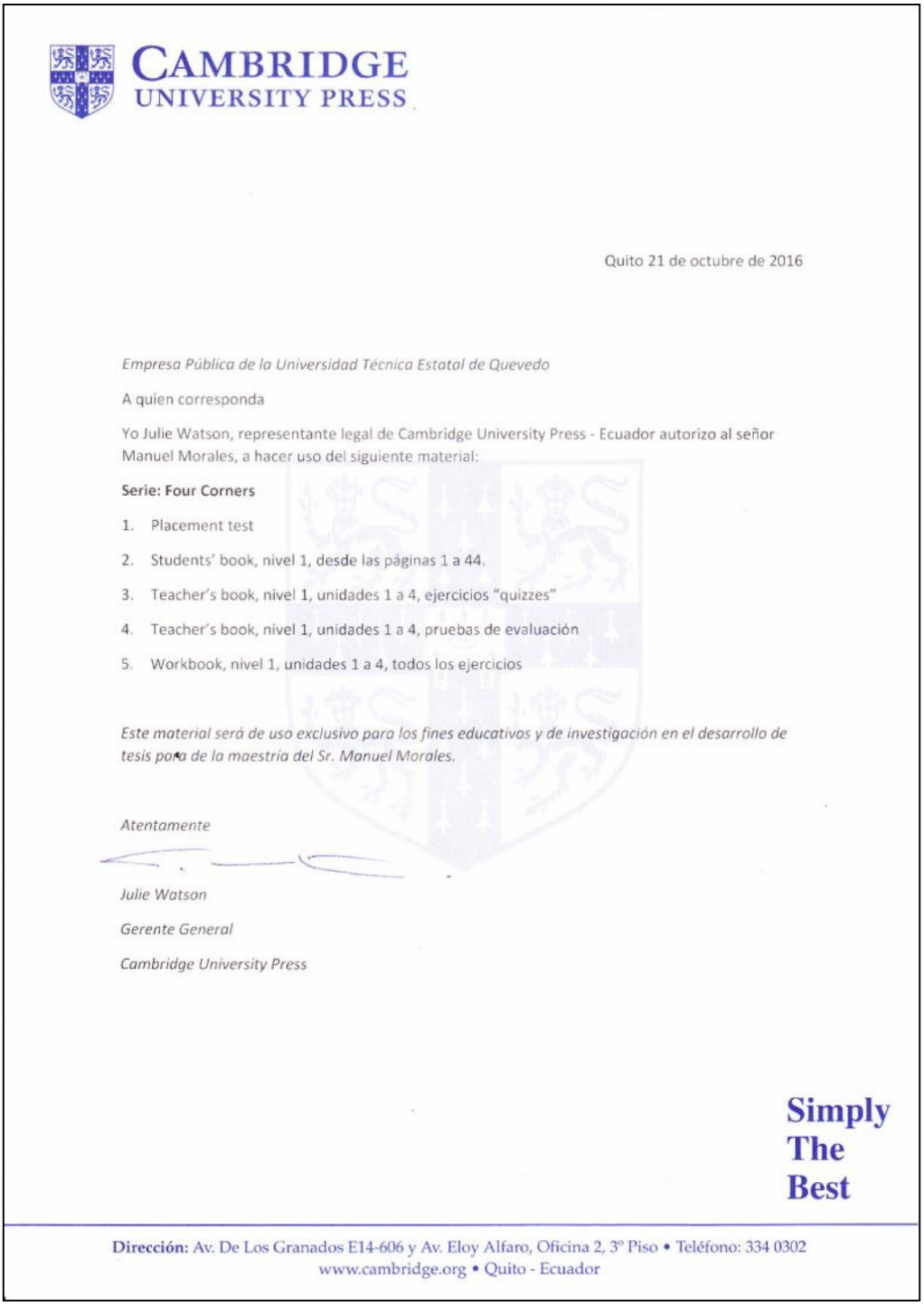
Si usted no está disponible en una de las dos opciones, escoja la opción C.

Por favor, ponga un visto en uno de los casilleros de abajo.

✓	Opción	Horario de clases
☐	Opción A	Estoy disponible para asistir a cualquiera de los siguientes horarios: Lunes y Miércoles desde las 8:30 a.m. hasta las 10:30 a.m. o Martes y Jueves desde las 8:30 a.m. hasta las 10:30 a.m.
☐	Opción B	Estoy disponible para asistir a cualquiera de los siguientes horarios: Sábados y Domingos desde las 8:00 a.m. hasta las 10 a.m. o Sábados y Domingos desde las 10:00 a.m. hasta las 12 p.m.
☐	Opción C	No estoy disponible en ninguna de las dos opciones.

Appendix F

Authorization Letter from Cambridge University Press Ecuador



CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

Quito 21 de octubre de 2016

Empresa Pública de la Universidad Técnica Estatal de Quevedo

A quien corresponda

Yo Julie Watson, representante legal de Cambridge University Press - Ecuador autorizo al señor Manuel Morales, a hacer uso del siguiente material:

Serie: Four Corners

1. Placement test
2. Students' book, nivel 1, desde las páginas 1 a 44.
3. Teacher's book, nivel 1, unidades 1 a 4, ejercicios "quizzes"
4. Teacher's book, nivel 1, unidades 1 a 4, pruebas de evaluación
5. Workbook, nivel 1, unidades 1 a 4, todos los ejercicios

Este material será de uso exclusivo para los fines educativos y de investigación en el desarrollo de tesis para de la maestría del Sr. Manuel Morales.

Atentamente

Julie Watson

Gerente General

Cambridge University Press

Simply The Best

Dirección: Av. De Los Granados E14-606 y Av. Eloy Alfaro, Oficina 2, 3° Piso • Teléfono: 334 0302
www.cambridge.org • Quito - Ecuador

Appendix G

Biodata Information Form

ENCUESTA

Nombres completos: _____ **Número de cédula:** _____

Lugar de nacimiento: _____ **Edad:** ____ **Curso de nivelación:** _____

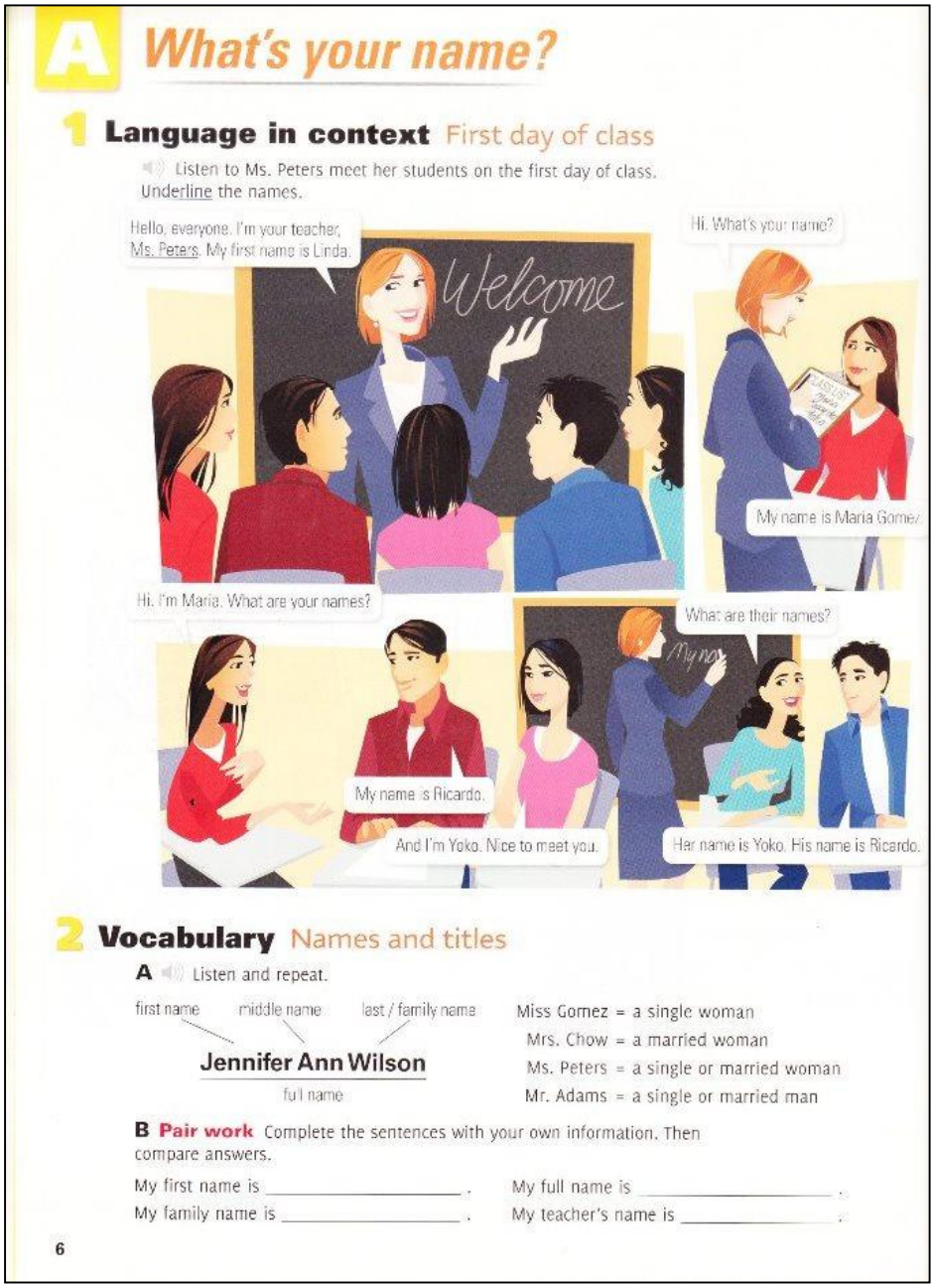
Estudios de Secundaria:

Educación		Nombre del Colegio	Fiscal/Particular	Ciudad
Básica	Octavo			
	Noveno			
	Décimo			
Bachillerato	Primero			
	Segundo			
	Tercero			

Número de teléfono: _____ **Correo electrónico:** _____

Appendix H

Class Material



A What's your name?

1 Language in context First day of class

Listen to Ms. Peters meet her students on the first day of class. Underline the names.

Hello, everyone. I'm your teacher, Ms. Peters. My first name is Linda.

Welcome

Hi. What's your name?

My name is Maria Gomez.

Hi. I'm Maria. What are your names?

My name is Ricardo.

And I'm Yoko. Nice to meet you.

What are their names?

Her name is Yoko. His name is Ricardo.

2 Vocabulary Names and titles

A Listen and repeat.

first name middle name last / family name

Jennifer Ann Wilson

full name

Miss Gomez = a single woman
Mrs. Chow = a married woman
Ms. Peters = a single or married woman
Mr. Adams = a single or married man

B Pair work Complete the sentences with your own information. Then compare answers.

My first name is _____.
My family name is _____.
My full name is _____.
My teacher's name is _____.

6

3 Grammar The verb *be*; possessive adjectives

What is (What's)	your name?	**My** name **is** Maria.
	his name?	**His** name **is** Ricardo.
	her name?	**Her** name **is** Yoko.
What are	your names?	**Our** names **are** Maria and Jason.
	their names?	**Their** names **are** Ricardo and Yoko.

A Circle the correct words. Then compare with a partner.

1. Maria is a student. **His** / (**Her**) last name is Gomez.
2. Ms. Peters **is** / **are** our teacher. **Her** / **Their** first name is Linda.
3. My name is Jason. What's **our** / **your** name?
4. Anna and Bruce **is** / **are** students. **Her** / **Their** teacher is Miss Brown.
5. Their first names **is** / **are** Yoko and Ricardo.
6. Hello, everyone. I'm Miss Diaz. What are **your** / **his** names?

B Complete the conversation with the correct words. Then practice in a group.

A: Hello. Welcome to English class.
What ___*is*___ your name, please?
B: _____ name is Pam.
A: And what's _____ last name, Pam?
B: My last name _____ Nelson.
A: OK. And _____ is *your* name?
C: Ji-ah. _____ family name is Lee.

4 Speaking My name is . . .

A Class activity Meet your classmates. Say your first and last name.

A: *Hello. My name is Oscar Martinez. What's your name?*
B: *Hi. My name is Susana Harris.*
A: *It's nice to meet you.*
B: *Nice to meet you, too.*

B Share your information.

A: *What's his name?*
B: *His name is Oscar Martinez. What's her name?*
A: *Sorry, I don't know.*

5 Keep talking!

Go to page 125 for more practice.

I can ask for and say names.

B How do you spell it?

1 The alphabet

A Listen and repeat.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z

B Pair work Say a letter. Your partner points to it. Take turns.

2 Interactions Spelling names

A Listen and practice.

Donald: Hello. My name is Donald Wang.
Clerk: How do you spell your first name?
Donald: D-O-N-A-L-D.
Clerk: And how do you spell your last name?
Donald: W-A-N-G.

Asking for spelling

How do you spell your first name?
How do you spell your last name?

B Pair work Practice the conversation again with these names.

John Evans Cindy Douglas Antonia Lopez Richard Wu

A: *Hello. My name is John Evans.*
B: *Hello, John. How do you spell your first name?*
A: *J-O-H-N.*
B: *And how do you spell . . . ?*

C Are you a student?

1 Vocabulary Interesting jobs

A Listen and repeat.

Gael García Bernal is an **actor**.
He's from Mexico.

Jeon Do-yeon is an **actress**.
She's from South Korea.

Alex Hornest is an **artist**.
He's from Brazil.

Brooklyn Decker is a **model**.
She's from the United States.

Lang Lang is a **musician**.
He's from China.

Diana Krall is a **singer**.
She's from Canada.

B **Pair work** Name other people for each job.

A: *Jet Li is an actor.*
B: *Yes. And Cate Blanchett is an actress.*

2 Conversation My friend the musician

Listen and practice.

Sandy: Hey, Jacob!
Jacob: Oh, hi, Sandy. How's it going?
Sandy: Good, thanks. This is my friend Kevin.
Jacob: Hi. Nice to meet you.
Kevin: Nice to meet you, Jacob.
Jacob: Are you a student here?
Kevin: No, I'm not. I'm a musician.
Sandy: Kevin is from England.
Jacob: Oh? Are you from London?
Kevin: No, I'm not. I'm from Liverpool.

10

Grammar Subject pronouns; *yes / no* questions with *be*

I'm a musician.

You're a student.

Kevin **is** from Liverpool.
He's from Liverpool.

Sandy **is** a student.
She's a student.

Liverpool **is** in England.
It's in England.

Am I in your class?
Yes, **you are**. No, **you're not**. / No, **you aren't**.

Are you from London?
Yes, **I am**. No, **I'm not**.

Is he a singer?
Yes, **he is**. No, **he's not**. / No, **he isn't**.

Is she from Canada?
Yes, **she is**. No, **she's not**. / No, **she isn't**.

Is your name John?
Yes, **it is**. No, **it's not**. / No, **it isn't**.

Contractions I'm = I am you're = you are he's = he is she's = she is it's = it is

A Match the questions and the answers. Then practice with a partner.

1. Is your first name Jacob? *d*
2. Are you from Liverpool? ____
3. Is she from the United States? ____
4. Is she a musician? ____
5. Is Will Smith an actor? ____
6. Is Caracas in Peru? ____

a. No, I'm not. I'm from London.
b. Yes, he is. He's a singer, too.
c. No, she's not. She's an artist.
d. Yes, it is. And my last name is King.
e. No, it's not. It's in Venezuela.
f. Yes, she is. She's from California.

B Complete the conversations with the correct words. Then practice with a partner.

1. A: *Is* your first name Don?
   B: No, _____ not. It's Jeff.
2. A: _____ you from Mexico?
   B: Yes, I _____. I'm from Mexico City.
3. A: _____ your teacher from England?
   B: No, she _____.
4. A: _____ you a model?
   B: No, _____ not. I'm a singer.

Pronunciation Contractions

Listen and repeat. Notice the reduction of contractions.

I am → I'm he is → he's it is → it's are not → aren't

you are → you're she is → she's is not → isn't

Speaking Ten questions

Group work Think of a famous person with a job from Exercise 1. Your group asks ten questions and guesses the name. Take turns.

A: *Is the person a man?*
B: *No, she's not.*
C: *Is she an actress?*

Keep talking!

Student A go to page 126 and Student B go to page 128 for more practice.

I can talk about where people are from and what they do.

D Names and jobs

1 Reading

A Look at the pictures. What are their names?

B Read the article. Are they all singers?

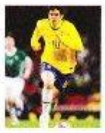
Famous Names

Actor **Tom Cruise** uses his middle name as his last name. His full name is Thomas Cruise Mapother. Tom is short for Thomas.

Zhang Ziyi is an actress from China. Zhang isn't her first name. It's her family name. In China, family names come first.

Shakira is a singer from Colombia. She uses only her first name. Her full name is Shakira Isabel Mebarak Ripoll.

Jay-Z is a hip-hop singer from the United States. Jay-Z is his nickname. His real name is Shawn Corey Carter.



Kaká is a soccer player from Brazil. His full name is Ricardo Izecson dos Santos Leite. Kaká is his nickname.

Madonna is not a nickname for this singer. It's her first name. Her full name is Madonna Louise Veronica Ciccone.

C Read the article again. Complete the sentences with the correct words.

1. Tom Cruise uses his ___*middle*___ name as his last name.
2. Shakira uses only her _____ name.
3. Ricardo Izecson dos Santos Leite's _____ is Kaká.
4. Ziyi is not Zhang Ziyi's _____ name.
5. Jay-Z's _____ name is Shawn Corey Carter.
6. Madonna Louise Veronica Ciccone is Madonna's _____ name.

D **Pair work** Tell your partner about another famous person's name.

"Rain is a singer, actor, and model from South Korea. Rain is his nickname. His real name is Jeong Ji-hoon."

12

A Where are you from?

1 Vocabulary Nationalities

A Complete the chart with the correct nationalities. Then listen and check your answers.

Mexican	American	South Korean	Chilean	Greek	Colombian
Spanish	Canadian	Brazilian	Saudi	Peruvian	Japanese
British	Chinese	Turkish	Thai	Ecuadorian	✓Australian

Country	Nationality	Country	Nationality
Australia	*Australian*	Japan	
Brazil		Mexico	
Britain		Peru	
Canada		Saudi Arabia	
Chile		South Korea	
China		Spain	
Colombia		Thailand	
Ecuador		Turkey	
Greece		the United States	

B Pair work Say a famous name. Your partner says his or her nationality. Take turns.

A: *Bill Gates.*
B: *He's from the United States. He's American.*

2 Language in context New neighbors

Listen to Brad and Emily Hill talk about their new neighbors. What are their names?

Brad: Who are they?
Emily: Oh, they're our new neighbors, Carlos and Claudia.
Brad: Are they musicians?
Emily: Yes, they are.

Brad: Where are they from?
Emily: They're from Brazil.
Brad: What city are they from?
Emily: They're from Manaus.

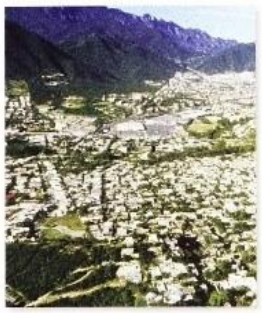
Grammar Plural subject pronouns; questions with *be*

Where are you and Sakura from?
We're from Japan.
What city are **you** from?
We're from Osaka.
Are you Japanese?
Yes, **we are**.
No, **we're not**. / No, **we aren't**.

Where are Carlos and Claudia from?
They're from Brazil.
What city are **they** from?
They're from Manaus.
Are they Brazilian?
Yes, **they are**.
No, **they're not**. / No, **they aren't**.

Contractions we're = we are they're = they are

Complete the conversations with the correct words.
Then practice with a partner.



1. A: Where are *you* from?
   B: We're from Mexico.
   A: Oh? _____ city are you from? Are you from Mexico City?
   B: No, we _____ not. _____ from Monterrey.
2. A: _____ Jim and Carly American?
   B: No, they _____. They _____ Canadian.
   A: What city in Canada are _____ from?
   B: They _____ from Toronto.

Pronunciation Word stress

A Listen and repeat. Notice the stressed syllables in the nationalities.

•	••	•••	••
Greek	**Br**itish	Bra**zi**lian	**Chi**nese

B Listen. Underline the stressed syllable in each nationality.

Japanese Australian Spanish Thai

Speaking That's not correct!

A Write three false sentences about people, countries, or nationalities.

1. *Toronto and Vancouver are in Greece.*
2. *Venus and Serena Williams are Ecuadorian.*
3. *Nicole Kidman and Russell Crowe are British.*

B Group work Share your sentences. Your group corrects them. Take turns.

A: *Toronto and Vancouver are in Greece.*
B: *No, they aren't. They're in Canada.*

Keep talking!

Go to page 127 for more practice.

I can ask for and say people's nationalities.

B What's your email address?

1 Numbers 0 to 10; phone numbers; email addresses

A Listen and repeat.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
zero	one	two	three	four	five	six	seven	eight	nine	ten

B Listen and repeat. Notice that people sometimes say "oh" for "zero" in phone numbers.

281-363-2301 = "two-eight-one, three-six-three, two-three-zero-one"
602-374-4188 = "six-oh-two, three-seven-four, four-one-eight-eight"

C Listen and repeat. Notice the way people say email addresses.

susan8k@cup.org = "susan-eight-K-at-C-U-P-dot-org"
jun_akita@email.com = "jun-underscore-akita-at-email-dot-com"

2 Interactions Phone numbers and email addresses

A Listen and practice.

Stacy: Hey, Emma. What's your phone number?
Emma: It's 309-403-8708.
Stacy: What's your email address?
Emma: It's emma@cup.org.
Stacy: Thanks!

B Listen to the expressions. Then practice the conversation again with the new expressions.

Asking for someone's phone number

What's your phone number?
What's your number?

Asking for someone's email address

What's your email address?
What's your email?

C Pair work Practice the conversation again with the information below.

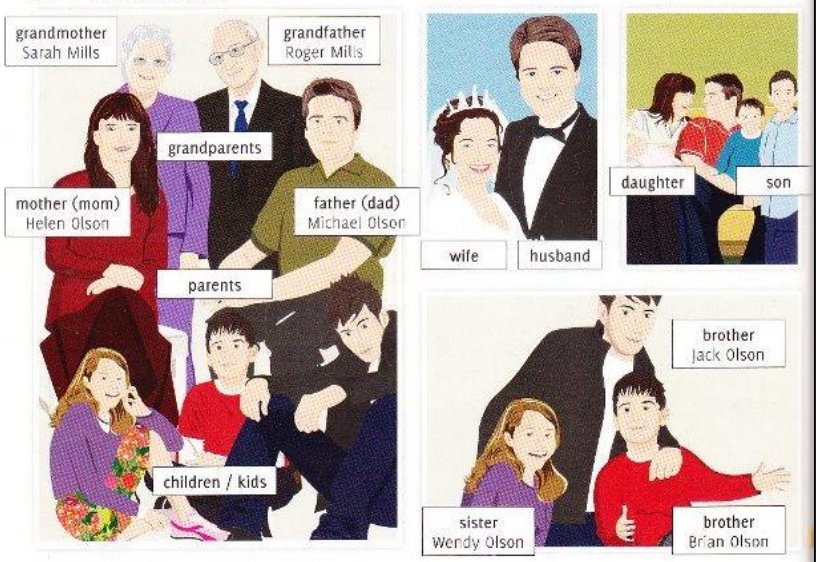
978-887-8045 ej5@cup.org
604-608-4864 emma_jones@email.com

18

C Family

1 Vocabulary Family members

A Listen and repeat.



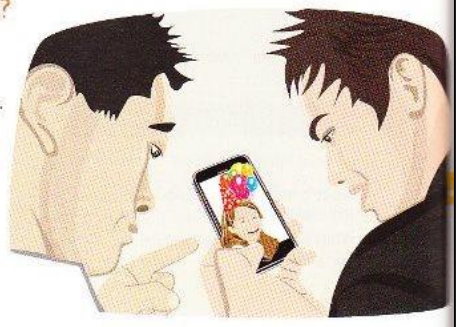
B Pair work Ask and answer the questions about the family in Part A.

1. Are Sarah and Roger Mills single?
2. Are Michael and Helen brother and sister?
3. Are Sarah and Roger grandparents?
4. Are Wendy and Jack parents?

2 Conversation Who's that?

Listen and practice.

Lance: Who's that?
Jack: That's my sister. Her name is Wendy.
Lance: How old is she?
Jack: She's seven.
Lance: Is she your only sister?
Jack: Yeah.
Lance: And who are they?
Jack: They're my grandparents.
Lance: Wow. They look young. And who's he?
Jack: That's me!



20

Grammar *Who* and *How old* with *be*

Who's that?
That's my sister.
How old is she?
She's seven (years old).

Who are they?
They're my grandparents.
How old are they?
They're 70 and 66.

A Read the answers. Write the questions. Then practice with a partner.

A: *Who's that?*
B: Oh, that's my brother Ignacio.
A: _____
B: He's ten years old.
A: _____
B: They're my sisters Lucia, Antonia, and Carmen.
A: _____
B: They're 19, 16, and 11.
A: And _____
B: That's my grandfather.
A: _____
B: He's 62.

B Pair work Ask and answer questions about the family in Exercise 1.

A: *Who's that?*
B: *That's Jack Olson.*

Numbers 11–101

11	eleven
12	twelve
13	thirteen
14	fourteen
15	fifteen
16	sixteen
17	seventeen
18	eighteen
19	nineteen
20	twenty
21	twenty-one
22	twenty-two
23	twenty-three
24	twenty-four
25	twenty-five
26	twenty-six
27	twenty-seven
28	twenty-eight
29	twenty-nine
30	thirty
40	forty
50	fifty
60	sixty
70	seventy
80	eighty
90	ninety
100	one hundred
101	one hundred (and) one

Speaking My family

A Complete the chart with information about three people in your family.

Family member	Name	How old . . . ?	Where . . . from?
1.			
2.			
3.			

B Pair work Tell your partner about your family. Ask and answer questions for more information.

A: *Keiko is my grandmother. She's 73.*
B: *Where is she from?*

Keep talking!

Go to page 129 for more practice.

I can identify family members and give their ages.

A Is this your notebook?

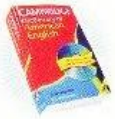
1 Vocabulary Everyday items

A Listen and repeat.


☐ a bag


☐ a book


☐ a cell phone


☐ a dictionary


☐ an eraser


☐ a key


☐ a laptop


☐ a notebook


☐ a pen


☐ sunglasses


☐ an umbrella

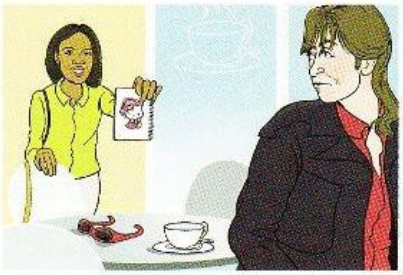

☐ a watch

B Pair work Check (✓) the things in your classroom. Then compare answers.

2 Language in context What are those?

Listen to four people talk about everyday items. Circle the items in the conversations.

Pete: Hey, Ling. What's that?
Ling: Oh, it's my dictionary.
Pete: It's nice. What are those?
Ling: They're my English books.



Susie: Are these your sunglasses?
Kyle: No, they're not.
Susie: Is this your notebook?
Kyle: Yes, it is. Thanks.

Grammar Demonstratives; articles *a* and *an*; plurals

What's **this**? What's **that**?

It's my dictionary.
Is **this** your dictionary?
Is **that** your dictionary?
Yes, **it is**. No, **it's not**.

What are **these**? What are **those**?

They're my English books.
Are **these** your English books?
Are **those** your English books?
Yes, **they are**. No, **they're not**.

Articles a *and* an

a + consonant sound **a bag**
an + vowel sound **an eraser**

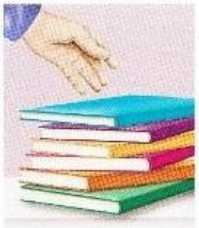
Plurals

a book → two book**s**
a watch → two watch**es**
a dictionary → two dictionar**ies**
Note: *Sunglasses* and *glasses* are always plural.

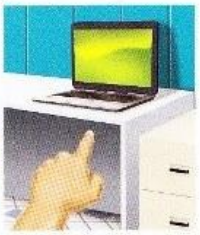
A Complete the conversations with the correct words. Then practice with a partner.

A: What*'s this*? B: *It's a watch.*

A: What _____? B: _____



A: What _____? B: _____



A: What _____? B: _____

B **Pair work** Ask and answer questions about everyday items in your classroom.

Pronunciation Plurals

Listen and repeat. Notice that some words have an extra syllable in their plural forms.

Same syllables	Extra syllables
eraser / erasers	actress / actress-es
key / keys	address / address-es
laptop / laptops	watch / watch-es

Speaking In my bag

Pair work Ask and answer 10 questions about the everyday items in your bags and in the classroom.

A: *Is this your English book?*
B: *No, it's not. It's my dictionary. What are those?*
A: *They're my keys.*

Keep talking!

Go to page 130 for more practice.

I can ask about and identify everyday items.

B What's this called in English?

1 Listening Around the classroom

A Listen to Bo and Marta ask about new words in English. Number the pictures from 1 to 5.



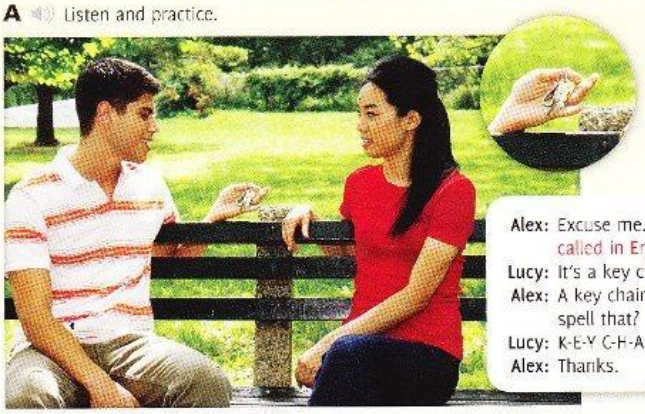


☐ an alarm clock ☐ a map ☐ a marker ☐ a poster [1] a remote contr

B What things in Part A are in your classroom?

2 Interactions Asking about new words

A Listen and practice.



Alex: Excuse me. What's this called in English?
Lucy: It's a key chain.
Alex: A key chain? How do you spell that?
Lucy: K-E-Y C-H-A-I-N.
Alex: Thanks.

B Listen to the expressions. Then practice the conversation again with the new expressions.

Asking what something is

What's this called in English?
What's the word for this in English?
How do you say this in English?

C Pair work Practice the conversation again with the things in Exercise 1.

A: *Excuse me. What's this called in English?*
B: *It's a map.*
A: *How do you spell that?*

28

C Clothing

1 Vocabulary Clothes and colors

A Listen and repeat.

B Pair work Describe a classmate's clothes, but don't say his or her name! Your partner guesses the name. Take turns.

A: *His shoes are brown. His T-shirt is red and green. His pants are gray.*
B: *Is it David?*

2 Conversation Whose bag is it?

Listen and practice.

Greg: Excuse me. I think that's my bag.
Laura: This bag?
Greg: Yes. I think it's mine.
Laura: It is? Oh, yes. This bag is black and yellow. Mine is black and green. I'm very sorry.
Greg: That's OK. Is that bag yours?
Laura: Yes, thank you.
Greg: You're welcome.

Grammar Possessive pronouns; *Whose*; *'s* and *s'*

It's my bag. → It's **mine**.
It's your jacket. → It's **yours**.
It's his coat. → It's **his**.
They're her shoes. → They're **hers**.
They're our clothes. → They're **ours**.
It's their bag. → It's **theirs**.

Whose bag is this?
It's Greg**'s** (bag).
Whose bag is that?
It's the student**'s** (bag).
Whose bags are those?
They're the students**'** (bags).

A Circle the correct words. Then practice with a partner.

1. Whose clothes are these? They're your / our / (ours).
2. Are these Greg's black shoes? Yes, they're his / hers / theirs.
3. Is this pink scarf Ana's? No, it's not his / hers / theirs.
4. Are these bags Greg and Ana's? Yes, they're his / hers / theirs.
5. Whose red socks are these? Are they yours? Yes, they're my / mine / yours.
6. Is that my sister's skirt? No, it's not mine / yours / hers.

B **Pair work** Ask and answer questions about the clothing in Exercise 1.

A: *Whose jeans are these?*
B: *They're Ana's. Whose T-shirt is this?*
A: *It's . . .*

Speaking Yes, it's mine.

Class activity Put three of your things on a table. Then take three other things and find their owners.

A: *Whose scarf is this?*
B: *I think it's Mary's.*
A: *Is this your scarf, Mary?*
C: *Yes, it's mine.*

Keep talking!

Student A go to page 131 and Student B go to page 132 for more practice.

I can talk about clothes and possessions.

D Favorite things

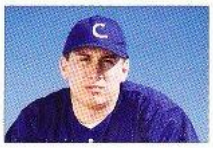
1 Reading

A Look at the pictures. What clothes and colors are they?

B Read the webpage. What countries are the people from?

What's your favorite item of clothing?

SEND US YOUR PICTURES!



This cap is my favorite. It's from my baseball team. Our team colors are blue and white.
– *Joe, the U.S.*

These boots are my favorite. I think they're from the 1970s. They're red. Red is my favorite color!
– *Ariela, Venezuela*

Here's a photo of my favorite pants. They're called *salwar*. These are men's pants, and they're from India.
– *Sadi, Canada*

This dress is my favorite item of clothing. It's called a *hanbok* in Korean. It's my mother's.
– *Bin-woo, South Korea*

Here's my favorite item of clothing. It's an old shirt. It's from London in the 1980s.
– *Ian, the U.K.*

This scarf is my favorite item of clothing. It's from Thailand. The blue color is nice.
– *Mariko, Japan*

C Read the webpage again. Answer the questions.

1. What's Joe's favorite thing? *His favorite thing is a baseball cap.*
2. What is Ariela's favorite color? _____
3. What are Sadi's pants called? _____
4. What's Bin-woo's favorite item of clothing? _____
5. Where is Ian's shirt from? _____
6. Where is Mariko's scarf from? _____

D Pair work What's your favorite item of clothing? Tell your partner.

"My favorite item of clothing is my blue sweatshirt."

32

A Getting around

1 Vocabulary Ways of getting around

A Listen and repeat.

drive a car

ride a bicycle / bike

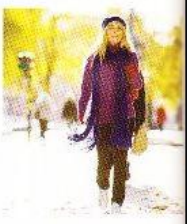
ride a motorcycle

take a taxi / cab

take the bus

take the subway

take the train



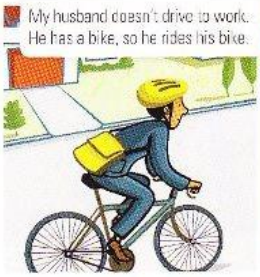
walk

B Listen to five ways of getting around. Number them from 1 to 5.

☐ a bicycle ☑ a bus ☐ a car ☐ a motorcycle ☐ a train

2 Language in context Going to work and school

A Listen to Mariela describe how she and her family get to work and school. Underline the ways they get around.



B What about you? Check (✓) the ways you get around.

☐ I drive. ☐ I take the bus. ☐ I ride a bike. ☐ I walk.

36

3 Grammar Simple present statements

Regular verbs

I **drive** to work.	I **don't take** the train.
You **take** a taxi.	You **don't take** the subway.
He **rides** a bike.	He **doesn't drive** to work.
She **drives**.	She **doesn't walk**.
We **take** the train.	We **don't take** a taxi.
They **walk** to school.	They **don't take** the bus.

Irregular verbs

I / you / we / they	*he / she / it*
I **have** a car.	She **has** a car.
You **don't have** a bike.	She **doesn't have** a bike.
We **go** to work.	He **goes** to work.
They **don't go** to school.	He **doesn't go** to school.

Contractions don't = do not doesn't = does not

A Complete the sentences with the simple present forms of the verbs. Then compare with a partner.

1. I ___take___ (take) the bus to school. I ___don't walk___ (not / walk).
2. Jonathan _____ (have) a car. He _____ (drive) to work.
3. My parents _____ (take) the train to work. They _____ (go) to the city.
4. My neighbor _____ (ride) a motorcycle to work.
5. Mei-li _____ (not / take) the bus. She _____ (walk).
6. We _____ (not / have) bicycles, and we _____ (not / drive).

B Pair work Make five sentences about how your family members and friends get to school or work. Tell your partner.

A: *My sister works in a big city. She takes the bus to work.*
B: *My best friend works in a big city, too. He doesn't take the bus. He drives.*

4 Speaking I take the bus.

A Write how you get to school or work in the chart. Add extra information, such as a bus number or a train number.

	Me	Name: _____	Name: _____	Name: _____
To school				
To work				
Extra information				

B Group work Find out how three of your classmates get to school or work. Complete the chart with their information.

A: *I take the bus to school. It's the number 16 bus. How about you?*
B: *I take the bus, too. I take the number 8 bus.*

C Group work Tell another group how your classmates get to school or work.

"Daniel takes the number 8 bus to school."

5 Keep talking!

Go to page 133 for more practice.

I can describe how people get around.

B What time is it?

1 Telling time

A Listen and repeat.

It's twelve o'clock.

It's noon.
It's twelve p.m.

It's midnight.
It's twelve a.m.

It's twelve-oh-five.
It's five after twelve.

It's twelve-fifteen.
It's a quarter after twelve.

It's twelve-thirty.
It's half past twelve.

It's twelve-forty.
It's twenty to one.

It's twelve forty-five.
It's a quarter to one.

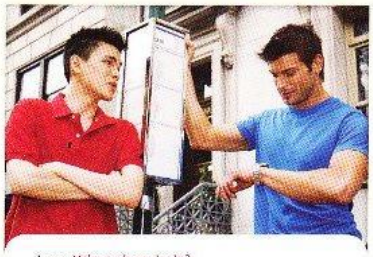
B Pair work Say the times in two ways.

9:45 7:30 6:03 1:15 11:40

a.m. = midnight to noon
p.m. = noon to midnight

2 Interactions Time

A Listen and practice.



Joe: What time is it?
Mike: It's 9:15. What time is the bus?
Joe: Nine-twenty. We're early.

Keisha: What's the time?
Emily: It's 9:35. What time is our class?
Keisha: It's at 9:30. We're late!

Asking the time

What time is it?
What's the time?

B Pair work Practice the conversations again with the times below.

4:15 / 4:45 6:20 / 7:00 10:05 / 10:00 5:45 / 5:30

38

C My routine

1 Vocabulary Days of the week and routines

A Listen and repeat.

Weekdays					The weekend	
Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday

B Listen and repeat.


get up


drink coffee


eat breakfast

read the news

go to school


exercise


cook dinner


study


watch TV


go to bed

C **Pair work** What is your routine on weekdays? on weekends? Tell your partner.

"I get up and eat breakfast on weekdays. I go to school. I study . . ."

2 Conversation Monday morning

Listen and practice.

Tom: It's Monday morning . . . again!
Liz: Do you get up early on weekdays?
Tom: Yes, I do. I get up at 5:30 a.m.
Liz: Wow! That *is* early!
Tom: And I study all morning and afternoon.
Liz: Do you study in the evenings, too?
Tom: No, I don't. I cook dinner, exercise, and go to bed late, after midnight.
Liz: That's not good. What about on weekends?
Tom: On weekends, I sleep!

40

3 Grammar Simple present *yes / no* questions

Do you **go** to school on Mondays?
Yes, I **do**. No, I **don't**.
Does Liz **exercise**?
Yes, she **does**. No, she **doesn't**.

Do you and your friends **watch** TV?
Yes, we **do**. No, we **don't**.
Do your friends **study**?
Yes, they **do**. No, they **don't**.

A Write *yes / no* questions with the information below. Then compare with a partner.

1. (you / get up / 7:00) *Do you get up at 7:00?*
2. (you / read the news / every day) _____
3. (your teacher / drink coffee / in class) _____
4. (your parents / watch TV / in the evening) _____
5. (your friend / exercise / on weekends) _____
6. (you and your friends / study / after midnight) _____

B Pair work Ask and answer the questions in Part A. Answer with your own information.

A: *Do you get up at 7:00?*
B: *No, I don't. I get up at 6:00 on weekdays and 9:30 on weekends.*

Time expressions
on Sunday(s)
on Sunday afternoon(s)
on weekdays
on the weekend
on weekends
in the morning(s)
in the afternoon(s)
in the evening(s)
at noon / midnight
at night
before 7:00
after midnight
every day

4 Speaking Routines

A Pair work Interview your partner. Check (✓) his or her answers.

Do you . . . ?	Yes	No
cook dinner on weekends	☐	☐
drink coffee after 7:00 p.m.	☐	☐
exercise every day	☐	☐
go to bed late on weekdays	☐	☐
get up early on weekdays	☐	☐
read the news in the evening	☐	☐

A: *Do you cook dinner on weekends?*
B: *No, I don't. I cook on weekdays!*

B Pair work Tell another classmate about your partner's routines.

A: *Does Rita cook dinner on weekends?*
B: *No, she doesn't. She cooks on weekdays!*

5 Keep talking!

Go to page 134 for more practice.

I can ask and answer questions about routines.