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**The Impact of Workshops on Seven EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices  
concerning L1 use in a Saudi Arabian University**

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## **Abstract**

This study addresses a gap in the literature illustrating the effect of workshops on teachers' beliefs and practices about the use of L1 in Saudi Arabia. Responding to the growing interest in the pedagogy of foreign language teaching worldwide, this study contributes to knowledge regarding how non-native English speaking teachers implement L1 in their teaching, and the extent to which systematic engagement with professional development workshops has the potential to influence their beliefs and practices.

The research examines the effect of workshops on the employment of Arabic (L1) in foreign English (L2) classrooms, and on the beliefs and practices of seven female in-service teachers working at an English Institute in a Saudi university. Data was collected using a survey, one-to-one interviews, and classroom observations, conducted before and after the workshops. The findings revealed that before the workshops, all seven teachers shared the assumption that L1 is necessary to compensate for students' lack of proficiency in L2, especially when teaching lower level students. However, they felt conflicted about their use of L1. They considered it undesirable yet at the same time deemed it unavoidable. After attending the workshops, six of the participants still regarded their use of L1 unacceptable and four continued to express guilt about not using enough L2. In the post-treatment observations, it was noted that the percentage of the teachers' L1 use had fallen. Attending the workshops had heightened their awareness about their beliefs and practices and prompted them to reflect on how they might use L1 for teaching in a principled way. All seven teachers reported their beliefs had principally originated from their personal L2 teaching experiences. The data analysis indicates that teachers' stated beliefs were not always congruent with their practices.

Arguably, any change in teachers' beliefs and practices is highly individual and coloured by multiple factors related to their background, education, experience, personality, and the educational policy of the English Institute at which they are employed. Moreover, this study shows that even though beliefs are deeply rooted,



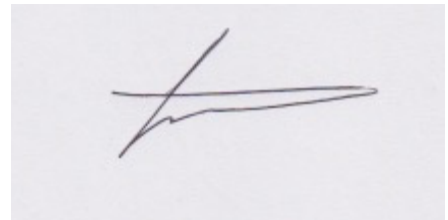
raising awareness can assist teachers to reflect on those beliefs, thereby altering practices. These findings might benefit designers of in-service programmes promotion of teachers' professional growth in the domain of language teacher education.

## **Declaration**

I declare that the work submitted is my own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to other work of others. It has not been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification.

Sarah Baeshin

2016

A handwritten signature in dark ink, consisting of a stylized 'S' followed by a horizontal line and a small flourish.

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# Table of Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1	INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.2	STUDY RATIONALE .....	1
1.3	BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY .....	2
1.4	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY .....	5
1.5	AIMS OF THE STUDY .....	5
1.6	CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY .....	6
1.6.1	<i>Education in KSA: An Overview.....</i>	<i>7</i>
1.6.2	<i>Female education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA): an overview.....</i>	<i>7</i>
1.6.3	<i>Status of English in Saudi schools and universities.....</i>	<i>9</i>
1.6.4	<i>EFL teaching .....</i>	<i>10</i>
1.6.5	<i>EFL Teachers.....</i>	<i>12</i>
1.6.6	<i>The Saudi University: an overview.....</i>	<i>15</i>
1.6.7	<i>English Language Institute (ELI) .....</i>	<i>15</i>
1.7	SUMMARY .....	16
1.8	OUTLINE OF THESIS.....	17
<b>2</b>	<b>THEORY AND PRACTICE REGARDING CS IN THE CLASSROOM .....</b>	<b>20</b>
2.1	INTRODUCTION .....	20
2.2	DEFINITION OF CODE SWITCHING (CS) .....	20
2.2.1	<i>Naturalistic and classroom CS and L1 use.....</i>	<i>24</i>
2.3	POLICIES IN SOME ARAB COUNTRIES AND NORTH AFRICA.....	27
2.3.1	<i>Policies in some East Asian countries.....</i>	<i>31</i>
2.4	THEORY: MACARO'S POSITIONS RELATIVE TO CS.....	33
2.4.1	<i>The Virtual Position.....</i>	<i>36</i>
2.4.2	<i>Practice: L2 Teaching methodologies supporting exclusive use of L2 in classrooms.....</i>	<i>47</i>
2.4.3	<i>The Maximal position.....</i>	<i>49</i>
2.4.4	<i>Teaching methods support maximising L1 in classrooms.....</i>	<i>52</i>
2.4.5	<i>The Optimal position.....</i>	<i>53</i>
2.4.6	<i>Some guidelines for optimal L1 use.....</i>	<i>54</i>
2.4.7	<i>Teaching methods supporting L1 use.....</i>	<i>57</i>
2.4.8	<i>Post-methods era .....</i>	<i>60</i>
2.4.9	<i>Empirical evidence about L1 use in language classrooms .....</i>	<i>61</i>
2.4.10	<i>Call for maximal L1 use.....</i>	<i>62</i>
2.4.11	<i>Evidence on the benefit or deficit of teachers' CS.....</i>	<i>65</i>
2.5	VARIATIONS IN THE QUANTITY OF CS ACROSS STUDIES .....	69
2.6	CLASSIFICATIONS OF CS FUNCTIONS.....	70
2.7	THE CLASSIFICATIONS USED IN THE CURRENT STUDY.....	75
2.7.1	<i>Pedagogical functions.....</i>	<i>75</i>
2.7.2	<i>Classroom management.....</i>	<i>75</i>
2.7.3	<i>Affective and interpersonal.....</i>	<i>76</i>
2.8	STUDIES ABOUT THE FUNCTIONS OF L1 IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS.....	77
2.8.1	<i>Non-Arabic contexts.....</i>	<i>80</i>
2.8.2	<i>Studies in the Arabic Context .....</i>	<i>83</i>
2.8.3	<i>Studies in Saudi Arabia .....</i>	<i>84</i>
2.9	CONCLUSION.....	86
<b>3</b>	<b>TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND EDUCATION PROGRAMMES.....</b>	<b>88</b>
3.1	INTRODUCTION .....	88

3.2	BELIEF.....	88
3.3	A BRIEF HISTORY OF TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND TRAINING PROGRAMMES.....	90
3.4	TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND COGNITION .....	93
3.5	BROADENING THE BOUNDARIES OF LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION.....	95
3.6	LANGUAGE TEACHER REFLECTION .....	98
3.7	FACTORS SHAPING TEACHERS' BELIEFS .....	100
3.7.1	<i>Teachers' experiences as learners.....</i>	<i>101</i>
3.7.2	<i>Teaching experiences.....</i>	<i>101</i>
3.7.3	<i>Education programmes.....</i>	<i>103</i>
3.8	IMPACT OF EDUCATION PROGRAMMES ON PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS.....	105
3.8.1	<i>Studies reporting some change in teachers' beliefs.....</i>	<i>105</i>
3.8.2	<i>Studies reported both stability and change in teachers' beliefs.....</i>	<i>107</i>
3.8.3	<i>Group discussions have a positive impact on beliefs.....</i>	<i>108</i>
3.9	IMPACT OF EDUCATION PROGRAMMES ON IN-SERVICE L2 TEACHERS' BELIEFS.....	109
3.9.1	<i>Studies reported both stability and change in teachers' beliefs.....</i>	<i>109</i>
3.9.2	<i>Studies reported some changes to teachers' beliefs.....</i>	<i>110</i>
3.9.3	<i>Stability in teachers' beliefs.....</i>	<i>112</i>
3.9.4	<i>Teachers' beliefs are central when designing education programmes.....</i>	<i>113</i>
3.10	IMPACT OF L2 TEACHERS' BELIEFS ON THEIR PRACTICES.....	115
3.11	SUMMARY .....	118
<b>4</b>	<b>METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>120</b>
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	120
4.2	THE AIM OF THE STUDY.....	120
4.3	THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	121
4.4	RESEARCH PARADIGMS.....	122
4.4.1	<i>Post positivist paradigm.....</i>	<i>122</i>
4.4.2	<i>Constructivist paradigm.....</i>	<i>123</i>
4.4.3	<i>Pragmatic paradigm.....</i>	<i>124</i>
4.5	METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH: CASE STUDY .....	125
4.6	MIXED METHODS RESEARCH .....	127
4.6.1	<i>Rationale behind mixing both methods.....</i>	<i>128</i>
4.6.2	<i>Description of the explanatory sequential design.....</i>	<i>129</i>
4.7	PROCEDURE .....	130
4.7.1	<i>Quantitative phase.....</i>	<i>130</i>
4.7.2	<i>Qualitative phase.....</i>	<i>131</i>
4.8	SAMPLING.....	134
4.8.1	<i>The quantitative phase of sampling .....</i>	<i>134</i>
4.8.2	<i>Sub-sampling in the qualitative phase .....</i>	<i>134</i>
4.9	PARTICIPANTS.....	135
4.10	DATA COLLECTION TOOLS .....	136
4.10.1	<i>Stage one: the quantitative stage - Questionnaire.....</i>	<i>136</i>
4.11	STAGE TWO: THE QUALITATIVE STAGE: WORKSHOPS .....	142
4.11.1	<i>Number of groups and participants.....</i>	<i>143</i>
4.11.2	<i>Procedure .....</i>	<i>143</i>
4.11.3	<i>Some disadvantages of group discussions.....</i>	<i>145</i>
4.12	ONE-TO-ONE INTERVIEWS.....	146
4.12.1	<i>Piloting the interviews.....</i>	<i>147</i>
4.12.2	<i>Procedure .....</i>	<i>148</i>
4.12.3	<i>Some disadvantages of interviews.....</i>	<i>148</i>
4.13	OBSERVATIONS.....	151
4.13.1	<i>Piloting the observation.....</i>	<i>152</i>

4.13.2	<i>Rationale behind choosing semi-structured observations.....</i>	153
4.13.3	<i>The use of checklist and notes.....</i>	153
4.13.4	<i>Some disadvantages of observations.....</i>	154
4.14	AUDIO RECORDINGS.....	156
4.15	DATA ANALYSIS.....	157
4.15.1	<i>Quantitative phase.....</i>	157
4.15.2	<i>Coding procedures in the second phase.....</i>	158
4.16	VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS.....	164
4.16.1	<i>Reliability.....</i>	164
4.16.2	<i>Validity.....</i>	167
4.17	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	170
4.18	SUMMARY.....	172
<b>5</b>	<b>PHASE ONE: BACKGROUND SURVEY .....</b>	<b>173</b>
	<b>DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS FROM 67 PARTICIPANTS.....</b>	<b>173</b>
5.1	INTRODUCTION .....	173
5.2	RESULTS OF THE TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE .....	175
5.2.1	<i>Teachers' beliefs about their own use of L1.....</i>	175
5.3	DISCUSSION OF TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THEIR OWN USE OF L1 .....	182
5.3.1	<i>Teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic .....</i>	186
5.4	DISCUSSION OF TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THE STUDENTS' USE OF ARABIC.....	190
5.5	COMPARISONS OF TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THEMSELVES AND THEIR STUDENTS.....	192
5.6	PART TWO: QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE.....	194
5.6.1	<i>The first open question.....</i>	195
5.6.2	<i>The second open question.....</i>	198
5.6.3	<i>The third open question.....</i>	202
5.7	SUMMARY .....	203
<b>6</b>	<b>RESULTS: PRE-TREATMENT.....</b>	<b>205</b>
6.1	INTRODUCTION .....	205
6.2	CROSS-THEMATIC ANALYSIS.....	207
6.2.1	<i>Theme one: Teachers' beliefs about their L1 use .....</i>	207
6.2.2	<i>Theme two: Teachers' beliefs about the students' use of L1 .....</i>	224
6.2.3	<i>Theme three: Factors potentially influencing teachers' beliefs.....</i>	227
6.2.4	<i>Theme four: Teachers' techniques to convey L2 message.....</i>	232
6.3	SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS .....	236
<b>7</b>	<b>RESULTS OF THE TREATMENT.....</b>	<b>239</b>
7.1	INTRODUCTION .....	239
7.2	SUMMARY OF THE PRE-INTERVIEWS.....	240
7.3	THE FIRST WORKSHOP: FUNCTIONS OF CS .....	242
7.3.1	<i>Question 1: What do you feel about using Arabic when Teaching English?.....</i>	243
7.3.2	<i>Question 2: What do you feel about teaching in English as often as possible?</i> <i>244</i>	
7.3.3	<i>Question 1: Do you think that you use Arabic for the same functions</i> <i>mentioned in the articles? .....</i>	245
7.3.4	<i>Question 2: Are there other functions for using Arabic in the L2 classroom,</i> <i>beside the ones mentioned in the articles? .....</i>	247
7.3.5	<i>Question 3: In Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005) study, one teacher code</i> <i>switched to Turkish to ensure that her students understood her instructions. Do you</i> <i>agree with the teacher's use of L1? Why/why not? .....</i>	248

7.3.6	Question 4: Do you agree with Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009) that code switching was not a consequence of insufficient English language competence on the part of the teachers?.....	249
7.3.7	Comparisons of teachers' beliefs before and after the first workshop.....	249
7.4	THE SECOND WORKSHOP DISCUSSION: TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS USING L1 IN EFL CLASSROOMS.....	251
7.4.1	Question 1: Do you think that using Arabic could be an obstacle to teaching English? Why or why not? .....	251
7.4.2	Question 2: What do you think the policy regarding the use of Arabic should be? .....	252
7.4.3	Question 3: How do your students react to your use of Arabic in the classroom?.....	253
7.4.4	Question 4: How do your students react to your use of English in the classroom?.....	254
7.4.5	Question 1: both studies were carried out at school level: do you think that university instructors may have different attitudes from schoolteachers? Why/why not? .....	255
7.4.6	Question 2: In Macaro's study, three positions were mentioned. Which position do you follow and why?.....	257
7.4.7	Question 3: In your opinion, do you think teachers' beliefs are worth exploring? Why?.....	259
7.4.8	Question 4: Which factor has more influence on teachers' attitudes: training programmes, past experiences or policy? Why?.....	261
7.4.9	Question 5: Have your beliefs been influenced by the articles? Why or why not? .....	263
7.4.10	Comparisons of teachers' beliefs before and after the second workshop ...	263
7.5	THE THIRD WORKSHOP: L1 VERSUS L2 GLOSSES.....	264
7.5.1	Question 1: Do you think learners should have access to L1 glosses or L2 glosses? Why or why not?.....	265
7.5.2	Question 2: Do you think that L1 or L2 glosses may help to increase learners' comprehension?.....	266
7.5.3	Discussing the conclusions of the first article in workshop 3.....	267
7.5.4	Discussing the conclusion of the second article in workshop 3.....	269
7.5.5	Question 1: In your opinion, are L1 or L2 glosses more beneficial for your students?.....	270
7.5.6	Question 2: Do you think the students' level may affect choice of gloss' type? .....	271
7.5.7	Comparisons of teachers' beliefs before and after the third workshop.....	273
7.6	THE FOURTH WORKSHOP: IMPACT OF L1 ON VOCABULARY LEARNING.....	273
7.6.1	Question 1: Do you think that the lowest proficiency students benefit most from explanations in Arabic or in English?.....	274
7.6.2	Question 2: Do you think that your students retrieve the meaning of L2 words in Arabic or English?.....	275
7.6.3	Discussing the first article's conclusion in the fourth workshop.....	276
7.6.4	Question 1: Do you think that the "keyword method" can be beneficial to your students?.....	278
7.6.5	Question 2: Do you think that mixing Arabic and English during classroom interaction has a negative or a positive effect on your students? .....	279
7.7	COMPARISONS OF TEACHERS' BELIEFS AFTER THE FOURTH WORKSHOP .....	280
7.8	SUMMARY OF ALL THE TREATMENTS .....	281
<b>8</b>	<b>RESULTS: POST-TREATMENT .....</b>	<b>283</b>

8.1	INTRODUCTION .....	283
8.2	TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THEIR OWN L1 USE.....	283
8.2.1	<i>What teachers believe leads them to use L1 .....</i>	<i>284</i>
8.2.2	<i>Teachers' interpretation of the term "principled" L1 use .....</i>	<i>286</i>
8.2.3	<i>What teachers believe to be the function of L1 use.....</i>	<i>287</i>
8.2.4	<i>Classroom management.....</i>	<i>292</i>
8.2.5	<i>Affective and Interpersonal functions.....</i>	<i>296</i>
8.2.6	<i>Teachers' negative beliefs regarding the use of L1.....</i>	<i>300</i>
8.3	THEME TWO: TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THE STUDENTS' USE OF L1 .....	305
8.4	THEME THREE: FACTORS POTENTIALLY INFLUENCING TEACHERS' BELIEFS.....	308
8.4.1	<i>Teaching experience.....</i>	<i>308</i>
8.4.2	<i>Associated sense of guilt.....</i>	<i>309</i>
8.4.3	<i>The institute policy.....</i>	<i>310</i>
8.4.4	<i>Workshops.....</i>	<i>311</i>
8.5	THEME FOUR: TEACHERS' TECHNIQUES TO CONVEY L2 MESSAGE.....	314
8.6	THE AMOUNT OF L1 USE OBSERVED AMONG THE SEVEN TEACHERS.....	316
8.7	COMPARISONS ACROSS THE SEVEN TEACHERS .....	321
8.7.1	<i>Pedagogical Functions .....</i>	<i>321</i>
8.7.2	<i>Classroom management.....</i>	<i>323</i>
8.7.3	<i>Affective and Interpersonal.....</i>	<i>324</i>
8.7.4	<i>Idiosyncratic L1 use.....</i>	<i>325</i>
8.8	VARIABILITY IN ARABIC USE.....	325
8.9	TRACING TEACHERS' BELIEFS BEFORE AND AFTER ATTENDANCE AT WORKSHOPS .....	326
8.10	NATURE OF INTERACTION IN THE CLASSROOM OBSERVED.....	328
<b>9</b>	<b>DISCUSSION.....</b>	<b>330</b>
9.1	INTRODUCTION .....	330
9.2	POSSIBLE IMPACT OF WORKSHOPS ON NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS' USE OF ARABIC IN CLASSROOMS: THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES (RQS, 1 & 2) .....	330
9.2.1	<i>Process of reflection among the seven teachers.....</i>	<i>332</i>
9.3	THE EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES CORRELATED (RQ 3) .....	336
9.4	TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THEIR USE OF ARABIC IN THE (ELI) (RQ4) .....	338
9.4.1	<i>Factors affecting teachers' L1 use.....</i>	<i>340</i>
<b>10</b>	<b>CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>349</b>
10.1	INTRODUCTION .....	349
10.2	REVISITING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	349
10.2.1	<i>RQ4. What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)? .....</i>	<i>349</i>
10.2.2	<i>RQ5. What are teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom? .....</i>	<i>351</i>
10.2.3	<i>RQ1. To what extent, if any, do the non-native English teachers' beliefs differ before and after attending the workshops? .....</i>	<i>353</i>
10.2.4	<i>RQ2.To what extent, if any, do workshops have an impact on non-native English teachers' use of Arabic (L1) in the foreign language classrooms? .....</i>	<i>354</i>
10.2.5	<i>RQ 3. What is the relationship between non-native English teachers' beliefs about their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classroom?.....</i>	<i>354</i>
10.3	CONCLUDING SUMMARY .....	355
10.4	SOME LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY .....	356
10.5	RECOMMENDATION FOR ELI OFFICIALS.....	357
10.6	IMPLICATIONS FOR ELI TEACHERS.....	358
10.7	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH .....	359



<b>11 REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>361</b>
<b>APPENDICES.....</b>	<b>392</b>
<b>APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE PILOTING .....</b>	<b>392</b>
<b>APPENDIX 2: TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE .....</b>	<b>398</b>
<b>APPENDIX 3: OUTLINE OF THE WORKSHOPS PRESENTATIONS .....</b>	<b>402</b>
<b>APPENDIX 4: WORKSHOP ONE.....</b>	<b>420</b>
<b>APPENDIX 5: WORKSHOP 2 .....</b>	<b>423</b>
<b>APPENDIX 6: WORKSHOP 3 .....</b>	<b>427</b>
<b>APPENDIX 7: WORKSHOP 4 .....</b>	<b>432</b>
<b>APPENDIX 8: PRE-INTERVIEWS QUESTIONS.....</b>	<b>436</b>
<b>APPENDIX 9: POST-INTERVIEW QUESTIONS .....</b>	<b>437</b>
<b>APPENDIX 10: PILOTING INTERVIEWS .....</b>	<b>438</b>
<b>APPENDIX 11: OBSERVATIONAL CHECKLIST: TARGET LANGUAGE LOGS (BEGINNERS AND EXPERIENCED) (ADAPTED FROM MACARO, 1997: 210-11) ...</b>	<b>439</b>
<b>12 APPENDIX 12: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST (ADAPTED FROM MACARO, 1997: 210-11) .....</b>	<b>441</b>
<b>APPENDIX 13: RATIONALE FOR USING PARAMETRIC TESTS.....</b>	<b>443</b>
<b>APPENDIX 14: MIND MAP 1 .....</b>	<b>447</b>
<b>APPENDIX 15: MIND MAP 2 .....</b>	<b>448</b>
<b>APPENDIX 16: MIND MAP 3 .....</b>	<b>449</b>
<b>APPENDIX 17: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (VICE-DEAN) .....</b>	<b>450</b>
<b>APPENDIX 18: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (TEACHERS).....</b>	<b>452</b>
<b>APPENDIX 19: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (STUDENTS).....</b>	<b>454</b>
<b>APPENDIX 20: SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT OF PRE-INTERVIEW .....</b>	<b>456</b>
<b>APPENDIX 21: SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT OF PRE-OBSERVATION .....</b>	<b>467</b>
<b>APPENDIX 22: PACING GUIDE SAMPLE.....</b>	<b>474</b>
<b>APPENDIX 23: SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT OF WORKSHOP 1 .....</b>	<b>495</b>
<b>APPENDIX 24: SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT OF POST-INTERVIEW .....</b>	<b>504</b>
<b>APPENDIX 25: SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT OF POST-OBSERVATION.....</b>	<b>510</b>

## List of Tables

Table 2:1 Functional classifications of code switching .....	73
Table 2:2: Functions of L1 in the UK & Australia .....	80
Table 2:3: Functions of L1 in East Asia.....	81
Table 2:4: Functions of L1 in Turkey & Cyprus.....	82
Table 2:5: Functions of L1 in Iran .....	83
Table 2:6: Functions of L1 in Arabic countries .....	83
Table 2:7: Functions of L1 in the Saudi Context .....	85
Table 4:1 Research questions and methods .....	121
Table 4:2 Research Plan.....	133
Table 4:3 Profile of participants.....	136
Table 4:4 Examples of code emerged from my data.....	161
Table 4:5 Examples of the categories that emerged from the analyses .....	162
Table 4:6 Reliability analysis of the questionnaire scales .....	166
Table 5:1 Research Questions and Data Collection Methods.....	173
Table 5:2 Descriptive Analysis of Teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic for Pedagogical functions .....	176
Table 5:3 Descriptive Analysis of Teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic for Classroom management functions .....	178
Table 5:4 Descriptive Analysis of Teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic for Affective & Interpersonal Functions.....	180
Table 5:5 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic for Curriculum Access .....	187
Table 5:6 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic used for Task management.....	188
Table 5:7 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic for Affective and interpersonal functions .....	189
Table 6:1 Summary of the teachers' responses to the closed questions .....	206
Table 6:2 Summary of the teachers' responses to open questions.....	207
Table 7:1 Summary of pre-interview findings .....	241
Table 8:1 Teachers' beliefs and behaviour regarding the use of Arabic for pedagogical functions, pre- and post-treatment .....	288
Table 8:2 Teachers' beliefs and behaviour pre- and post-treatment regarding the use of Arabic for classroom management .....	292
Table 8:3 Teachers' beliefs and behaviour regarding the use of Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions pre- and post-treatment.....	296
Table 8:4 Teachers' beliefs pre and post-treatment regarding use of Arabic by students.....	305
Table 8:5 Instances of teachers CS in both observations.....	317

## List of Figures

Figure 4:1The Explanatory Sequential Design, adapted from Ivankova and Stick (2007, p. 98) .....	130
Figure 4:2 Example from observation of the colour coding and clustering of codes in the text .....	159
Figure 4:3 Diagrammatic representation of the stages undertaken for analysis (adapted from Saldaña, 2009) .....	163
Figure 5:1 Percentage of agreement and disagreement across the three categories..	183
Figure 5:2 Percentage of teachers' beliefs about the students' L1 use across the three categories.....	190
Figure 8:1 Frequencies of teachers' L1 use in the first observation .....	322
Figure 8:2 Frequencies of teachers' L1 use in the second observation.....	323

## **Abbreviations**

CIH Comprehensible Input Hypothesis

CLL Community Language Learning

CLT Communicative Language Teaching

CPD Continuous Professional Development

CPH Critical Period Hypothesis

CS Code Switching

EL Embedded Language

ELI English Language Institute

ESL English as a Second Language

FL Foreign Language

GTM Grammar Translation Method

I Interviewer

IRF Initiation, Response, Feedback

L1 First language, Mother tongue, Own language

L2 Second language, Target language

MLF Matrix Language Framework

ML Matrix Language

NS Native Speakers

NNS Non-Native Speakers

S(s) Student(s)

SL Second Language

T Teacher

TBL Task Based Learning

TESOL Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages



# **1 Introduction and Context**

## **1.1 Introduction**

This study describes and interrogates the development of the beliefs and practices of in-service teachers over a three-month period, before and after their attendance at professional development workshops. Specifically, it examines what teachers believe about their own use of L1 when teaching an L2, and how they feel about their students' L1 use.

This introductory chapter situates the present study and provides an outline of the thesis. To achieve this, I first explain how my interest in the topic developed. Then I set out the background to the study, its significance, the research aims and the educational context. Finally, I provide a brief description of each of the following chapters.

## **1.2 Study rationale**

My interest in this particular topic was initially stimulated when I held an English teaching position at an English Language Institute (ELI) at a Saudi university. Based on my discussions with fellow teachers, and working with them, I became aware that many English language teachers at the institute felt uneasy about using Arabic in the classroom, despite acknowledging its usefulness. Similar to the strict regulations about L1 use in many contexts, such as China (Jingxia, 2010), in New Zealand (Kim & Elder, 2008), England (Macaro, 2001), and Taiwan (Raschka, Sercombe, & Chi-Ling, 2009), the ELI where I worked in Saudi Arabia has an official regulation prohibiting the use of L1 in the classroom. Over the six years I taught there, I began to wonder whether teachers at the ELI restrict their use of Arabic, and then feel guilty when they do use it. Certainly, similar feelings of unease among teachers concerning L1 use have been observed by other researchers (e.g. Al-Abdan, 1993; Al-Nofaie, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Mitchell, 1988). Many teachers have been led to believe in training that the inclusion of L1 could be perceived as

indicating a lack of linguistic knowledge of L2, and an inability to deliver instructions in L2 (e.g. Al-Shidhani, 2009).

I have also long been interested in the multitude of factors that appear to shape teachers' beliefs, and consequently influence their decisions in the classroom. The resistance to change the nature of one's educational beliefs is a frequent theme that emerges in this context. It is widely recognised that teachers' beliefs are shaped and influenced by numerous factors, including their schooling, prior L2 learning experience, teaching experience, and to a lesser extent the education programmes they have completed (Borg, 2003; Kagan, 1992; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001). It has further been suggested that what teachers experience as learners shapes their cognition about learning and teaching, continuing to impact on their practices throughout their careers (Borg, 2003; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Nespor, 1987). Macaro and Mutton (2002) argue that changes in teachers' practices might proceed from the teachers' themselves, rather than from external factors such as training programmes. Nevertheless, the relationship between beliefs and practices is complex, and programmes to bring about changes in beliefs and practices need not necessarily seek to effect radical or major changes (Graden, 1996; Li & Walsh, 2011). Indeed, they may not change teachers' beliefs at all, but generally as a minimum, they do allow teachers to become more aware of their beliefs, and better able to link their beliefs and actual practices (Borg, 2011).

It is likely that the use of Arabic by most teachers at the ELI originated primarily from their personal beliefs and experiences. Exploring teachers' beliefs is of paramount importance to learner outcomes, because teachers shape the learning process and influence their students' achievements.

### **1.3 Background to the study**

In foreign language teaching and learning, the role of L1 in the classroom has been a point of controversy, differentiating between teaching methodologies. One of the main criticisms of using L1 in instruction is that it impedes L2 learning (e.g.

Chambers, 1991; Chaudron, 1984) and prevents “meaningful interaction” in L2 (Polio & Duff, 1994). Many methods have ignored, opposed, or even denied the benefits of code switching (CS) in L2 teaching and learning. Certainly, the exponents of the exclusive use of L2 often view CS as evidence of the teachers’ gap in language proficiency and linguistic knowledge. However, this view has been challenged over the years. Many empirical studies have shown L1 can be an invaluable tool for both teachers and students in the language classroom (Al-Shidhani, 2009; Hobbs, Matsuo, & Payne, 2010; Jingxia, 2010; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Liu, Ahn, Beak, & Han, 2004; Macaro, 2001; Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Raschka, Sercombe, & Chi-Ling, 2009; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005). Furthermore, the exclusive use of L2 is rarely adopted in actual teaching and learning settings.

When reviewing the literature, and examining teachers’ beliefs about L1 and L2 in the south of England, Macaro (2001) identified three positions. First, the virtual position that perceives no pedagogical value in the use of L1. Then, the maximal position, which sees no pedagogical value in the use of L1, but accepts that teachers use it as a last resort (Macaro, 2001). The third position, which Macaro (2001) terms the optimal position, perceives some pedagogical value in L1 use. Proponents of this position believe that L1 can enhance learning (Macaro, 2001, p. 535). It is important to note that none of the three positions advocates excessive use of L1 during lessons. Meiring and Norman (2002), who appear to advocate optimal L1 use, argue that the value of L1 should not be overlooked. They assert that comparing between L1 and L2 is an important strategy for learners when developing language awareness, as it helps them to make sense of the learning process (Meiring & Norman, 2002). The proponents of the monolingual principle, on the other hand, assume that exclusive use of the L2 is the best way to achieve competence (Chambers, 1991; Crichton, 2009; Polio & Duff, 1994). The current study explores which of the set of beliefs outlined by Macaro (2001) is most relevant to the ELI context.

The research described herein focused on teachers’ beliefs about their own and their students’ L1 use. Considerable prior research, in different teaching



contexts, has focused on the quantity of L1 instances in the classroom, teachers and/or students' attitudes towards L1, and the functions of CS in the classroom. Some work has also addressed the question of whether pre- and in-service teachers change their beliefs after attending education programmes. Studies such as Borg (2011), Freeman (1993), Lamb (1995), Lamie (2004), Macaro and Mutton (2002) Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) Scott and Rodgers (1995) examined the influence of education programmes on in-service teachers' beliefs. Conclusions reached in these studies about the impact of education programmes vary, and therefore the effect of education programmes on in-service teachers' beliefs is considered "incipient" and requiring further investigation (Borg, 2011).

In the global context, two studies, carried out by Scott and Rodgers (1995) and Peacock (2001), shared some similarities with the present study. Their studies, however, did not discuss whether attending workshops or focus groups affected teachers' actual practices. Scott and Rodgers (1995) explored the effect of the workshops on the teachers' beliefs, reporting that teachers' participation in the workshops was successful in changing many of their previous conceptions about teaching writing in L2. Peacock (2001) explored the effect of focus groups on teachers' beliefs about L2 learning, which makes his work somewhat relevant to the present study. The major difference was that he compared the beliefs of trainees with the beliefs of experienced ESL teachers over a three-year period, unlike the present study, which assessed the beliefs and practices of seven experienced in-service teachers over a three-month period. Peacock (2001) reported that teachers' participation in focus group discussions was a more successful indicator of shifts in attitude than attendance at an education programme. However, Peacock's study did not discuss if the intervention affected their actual practices. Therefore, the question remains regarding whether workshops or focus groups have an impact on teachers' practices. Elsewhere, it is argued that research into teacher development gives teachers the opportunity to examine their own theories, and builds awareness of the psychological, experiential, and contextual factors, which inform their practices (Borg, 1999a, p. 163).

#### **1.4 Significance of the study**

There has been minimal research in the Saudi context focusing on the quantity of L1 instances in the classroom, teachers' attitudes toward L1, or the functions of teachers' CS inside the classroom (e.g. Al-Abdan, 1993; Al Makoshi, 2014; Al-Nofaie, 2010; Alshammari, 2011). Nor have native Arabic teachers' beliefs and practices about L1 use been well researched in Saudi Arabia. The current study differs in two ways from preceding research conducted in the Saudi context in the area of teachers' L1 use in the classroom, and in the area of teachers' beliefs and practices. Firstly, this is one of the first studies to use a mixed methods approach to examine teachers' beliefs and compare them with their actual practices in the EFL classroom. Only one study, carried out by Machaal (2012), has used a mixed methods approach to investigate teachers' use of L1 in Saudi EFL classrooms. Secondly, in Saudi Arabia there has surprisingly been no research into the impact of intervention on the beliefs of in-service teachers about L1 use. The complex relationship between what teachers think and what they do, led me to design a study using more than one method to capture the complexity of teachers' behaviour. In this respect, the current study, by filling both theoretical and empirical gaps, was intended to provide a more thorough insight into teachers' beliefs and practices in the Saudi context. In a broader sense, this research will contribute to knowledge in this under-researched field, to benefit English language programmes in Arabic speaking contexts, to help raise awareness and facilitate bilingual communication in the EFL classroom. Graden (1996, p. 387) argues that the discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and actual classroom practice should be addressed by teacher educators, so that teachers can be equipped with reconciled beliefs and practices in order to deliver more "effective" instructions.

#### **1.5 Aims of the study**

Knowing that there has not been any substantial body of work exploring the effect of workshops on in-service teachers' beliefs and practices in Saudi Arabia, the primary aim of the present study was to explore whether systematic engagement with research and training as a form of professional development affects teachers' beliefs about their L1 use and their practices. The study offers coherent insight into teachers'

beliefs and practices at the ELI. Furthermore, it adds to the literature that describes how non-native English speaking teachers implement L1 in their pedagogy. Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions:

***Main research questions:***

1. To what extent, if any, do non-native English teachers' beliefs differ before and after attending workshops?
2. To what extent, if any, do workshops have an impact on non-native English teachers' use of Arabic (L1) in foreign language classrooms?
3. What is the relationship between non-native English teachers' beliefs about their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classroom?

***Background research questions:***

4. What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?
5. What are teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the foreign language classroom?

The discussion of the two background questions provided the reader with essential knowledge to understand teachers' beliefs about L1 use at the ELI, and helped with the selection of the subsample for the second phase of the study.

## **1.6 Contextual background to the study**

This section provides essential background to the research, first by presenting an overview of the education system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA); it is followed by a section on female education specifically. Then, I introduce the status of English in Saudi schools and universities, before discussing the roles of EFL teachers and EFL teaching. In the final section, I introduce the ELI: the research context in which the data was collected.

Understanding the context of the study is of vital importance because it sheds light on why teachers hold certain beliefs about the use of Arabic (L1), and why they do or do not employ Arabic in their practice. Understanding the specific context should help the reader to understand the beliefs and behaviour of the individuals

under investigation, especially as little is known about the Saudi Arabian educational context outside Saudi Arabia.

### **1.6.1 Education in KSA: An Overview**

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is located in Western Asia and has a population of approximately 27 million people. KSA was established in 1932, by King Abdulaziz Al Saud. Arabic is its official language and Islam is the official religion. The roots of education in KSA are its Islamic heritage. Islam began fourteen centuries ago at the time of Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him); he urged his followers “to seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave” (Al-Johani, 2009, p. 8).

According to the Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia (2012), Saudi Arabia today invests an enormous portion of its budget, about £37bn in 2015 (Foreign & Commonwealth Office. UK Trade & Investment, 2015), in developing education standards at all levels. The literacy rate in the Kingdom has risen from 35% forty years ago, to 96%. In 2006, King Abdullah established the King Abdullah Scholarship Program for citizens wishing to study abroad. The Saudi government has since provided scholarships to more than 130,000 students, who attend schools and universities in more than 20 countries (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2012).

### **1.6.2 Female education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA): an overview**

As all participants in this study are female teachers, background information describing the approach to female education in KSA is pertinent. Formerly, prior to the advent of formal education in 1960, females in KSA had limited access to education (Hamdan, 2005). Typically, women were denied schooling in accordance with traditional moral values, combined with ignorance, and “what many believe to be the misinterpretation of Islamic teaching” (Al-Johani, 2009, p. 14). Although according to Islam, both males and females should seek an education, few women were tutored before the mid-twentieth century, and those who were, were educated in private. Typically, those females who received tutoring in writing and reading of the Qur’an were taught pronunciation, reading, and the meaning of the Qur’an in their homes (Al-Johani, 2009). Additionally, they were taught general reading skills and

mathematics; meaning, private education was of pivotal importance in the absence of any formal government education establishment (Al-Johani, 2009, p. 15). Unfortunately, this informal education of girls was forced to stop at puberty, “when strict seclusion at home began and veiling in public became mandatory” (Altorki, 1986, p. 19).

The first steps toward providing formal schooling for all girls in KSA began (Al-Johani, 2009) when King Faisal’s wife, Iffat Al Thunayan, established the first girls’ school in 1956 (Hamdan, 2005). At this time, the official opening of female schools was opposed fervently by society, as non-religious education at that time was considered “useless”, and even, according to some conservative religious scholars, “dangerous” (Hamdan, 2005, p. 50). Attempting to initiate such a transformation in KSA’s conservative society was a difficult task. The advent of women’s education was not an attempt to change the patriarchal nature of Saudi society, as women in every field were considered naturally subordinate to men (Hamdan, 2005, p. 48). I believe that the customs and traditions of Saudi Arabian society have more control over people than religion, despite many Western scholars’ mistakenly speculating that Islam’s ideologies are behind the opposition to girls’ education. The opposite is true in fact; Islam promotes education for both genders, and moreover Qur’anic verses encourage all people to use their intellect to obtain knowledge (Hamdan, 2005).

As with other areas of Saudi society, the concept of gender segregation is central to the structuring and delivery of girls’ education. However, this segregation does not result in a poorer quality education (Huyette, 1985, p. 118). Although both genders are segregated, the system for female education is similar to that of males in terms of the stages of schooling and the number of years spent in each stage, but with minor variations in the curricula (Al-Johani, 2009). The female sections in all schools at all stages, in colleges and universities are run by female administrations. At the level of higher education, some female students are required to access male instructors for certain courses. In such cases, closed-circuit television is utilised (Al Salloom, 1995, p. 20); telephones are also used to communicate with male professors

to avoid face-to-face contact.

Some positive changes began to appear in the early 2000s, when a Saudi woman, Al-Jawhara Al Saud, was the first woman to be appointed to the post of assistant undersecretary of Education Affairs. This appointment was the highest ever attained by a woman in Saudi Arabia (Hamdan, 2005). The status of women has since been changing for the better, as the Ministry of Education has sent many talented women abroad to continue their studies, and continues to do so to the present day.

### **1.6.3 Status of English in Saudi schools and universities**

One of the main factors that influences teachers' use of L1 is students' level of proficiency in the L2 (see Chapter 2, section 2.8); thus it is important to understand perceptions of L2 among learners. English teaching in Saudi Arabia is directed and developed by the Ministry of Education. It is the only foreign language taught in public schools (Al-Johani, 2009). In the early 2000s, the Saudi government initiated some reforms in the educational structure to meet the growing professional need for English. Initially, in public schools, English was taught in the seventh grade (first intermediate). In 2003/2004, English became a compulsory subject introduced in the sixth grade to government students. Currently, the Ministry of Education is planning to introduce it at grade four; aiming to accomplish more "fruitful" outcomes (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

In private schools, two tracks are offered: Arabic and English. On the Arabic track, English teaching starts in the pre-school years. Private schools are permitted to select their own English books (Abdan, 1991), but from the sixth grade, the English books prescribed by the Ministry of Education must be used. For this reason, private schools usually offer additional, English classes for reinforcement, using imported books, to teach their students advanced English classes. The English track is characterised by early immersion programmes, wherein all subjects are taught in English starting from kindergarten. It has become a trend and a sign of social prestige for privileged members of the upper middle and upper classes of Saudi

society to place their children in private and international schools where English is the medium of instruction, to maximise their exposure to the foreign language.

At tertiary level, English is the medium of instruction in medicine, sciences, computing, and engineering and, to a lesser degree, in other subjects (Alshumaimeri, 2001). English language proficiency is an essential prerequisite to being accepted on to many majors, especially medicine. This emphasis on learning English in private and international schools has encouraged the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education also to legalise private higher education institutions. In Jeddah for example, several private higher education institutions have been established offering English-medium education: Effat University (1999), Dar Al Hikma (1999), and The College of Business Administration (2000). Admission is subject to passing standardised tests (TOEFL, IELTS, etc.).

#### **1.6.4 EFL teaching**

In general, in the KSA schools context, teachers' emphasis in foreign language learning centres very much on grammar rules. The teaching environment is very traditional, and priority is given to teacher-centred grammar explanations and the use of Arabic in the classroom (Al-Johani, 2009; Al-Seghayer, 2005). The survival of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) explains why teachers find it acceptable to use Arabic in the classroom. Assalahi (2013) points out that in Saudi Arabia, the slow changes in EFL teaching methodology can be attributed to teachers' preference for devoting the majority of their lessons to teaching grammar: "no matter how hard I tried to train, observe and discuss implementation of CLA (*Communicative Language Approach*), teachers were less responsive and more stubborn to change" (Assalahi, 2013, p. 591). Assalahi (2013) focused on the tension between beliefs about teaching grammar and four teachers' reported practices in public schools in Saudi Arabia. The analysis of the interview data in the study revealed the prevalence of explicit grammar among the four participants. One teacher reportedly stated, "I don't concentrate on the meaning at all. The most important thing is the form" (Assalahi, 2013, p. 394). The structure of the lessons was consistent among three of the teachers; i.e. the lessons started with rules illustrated

on the board, use of colours, clarification of the rules, use of L1 (Arabic), repetition drills and chunks of L2 (Assalahi, 2013, p. 594).

The EFL textbooks used fail to meet learners' needs (Rahman & Alhosaini, 2013), and many are culturally biased despite the claims of their authors. As many of the textbooks are inappropriate for Arab culture, learners can feel alienated and thus develop negative attitudes towards learning English (Fareh, 2010). Furthermore, many topics discussed in the lessons are irrelevant to the learners, which can cause them to lose interest. To be more precise, some activities are designed for learners of different social and cultural backgrounds, and are neither favoured by teachers nor encouraged within the education system in Saudi Arabia. Another challenge is the level of the teaching materials. They are often above the level of the learners, which can frustrate them and reduce their motivation (Fareh, 2010, p. 3603).

Regrettably, in terms of the Ministry's objectives, learners' proficiency and competence in English remain unsatisfactory. Students lack the opportunity to interact and voice their ideas in the classroom, as their participation is controlled by their teachers (Al-Johani, 2009). Students' low proficiency in the English language is mainly attributed to the teaching methods used and poor teacher preparation (Al-Seghayer, 2005). This has created negative attitudes and a lack of motivation towards learning the English language among students. Al-Seghayer (2005, p. 137-39) criticises Saudi universities for lacking adequate training programmes for English teachers, and for instead focusing on teaching English literature and linguistics.

Many educators have concluded that the beliefs and practices of English teachers in KSA account "for the lack of language proficiency of intermediate and secondary students in English" (Al-Johani, 2009, p. 19). While explaining the lesson, teachers do not attempt to provide examples from the real world, and do not tolerate mistakes. Learners' errors are immediately corrected and learners who suggest new ideas are criticised (Al-Johani, 2009, p. 19). However, I believe it is biased to blame one particular problem for unsatisfactory results of EFL teaching. Offering a broader understanding, Fareh (2010, p. 3601-03) attributed students' low English language



proficiency in the Arab World (e.g. Saudi Arabia, and UAE) to factors including:

- 1- Improperly trained teachers or inadequate teaching methodology;
- 2- Teacher-centred rather than learner-centred activities;
- 3- Learners' aptitude, initial preparedness and motivation;
- 4- Lack of emphasis on skills development - emphasis is on rote learning instead;
- 5- Textbooks and teaching materials; and
- 6- Assessment methods.

Another challenge is that English exposure is minimal inside the classroom. This can be attributed to teachers' excessive use of Arabic and undesirable teaching practices. More precisely, teachers speak much more than their students do during lessons. Fareh (2010) argues that this could be attributed to the large class sizes, which mean that teachers cannot reasonably involve all learners in oral interactions. Despite the Ministry of Education's claims that they aim to promote learners' critical thinking and creativity, such attempts at promotion are rarely witnessed (Fareh, 2010, p. 3604).

#### **1.6.5 EFL Teachers**

Many of the EFL teachers working in the Arab World hold Bachelor's degrees, yet the majority are not trained to be teachers. It has been observed that many teachers lack professional training and classroom experience (Rahman & Alhosaini, 2013). As, Fareh (2010) argues that most EFL teachers are not qualified to teach because their undergraduate degrees lack components on teaching English. Fareh further attributes the prevalence of the Grammar Translation Method among most EFL teachers and the high percentage of Arabic (L1) use inside the classroom to teachers' lack of EFL training. Due to their insufficient pedagogical preparation, teachers choose to teach the language in discrete parts rather than developing integrated skills (Fareh, 2010, p. 3603).

In the case of Saudi teachers, the majority are graduates from Saudi universities, holding Bachelor's degrees in Literature, English Language, Translation, or Applied Linguistics. Novice English teachers are not routinely offered crucial courses in educational psychology, evaluation, school administration, and curriculum studies (Al-Hazmi, 2003, p. 342). Furthermore, the English language programmes in Saudi Arabia place great emphasis on literature (e.g. fiction, drama, and poetry), linguistics (e.g. morphology, syntax, semantics, and applied linguistics), conversation, writing, translation, and grammar. Very few programmes offer courses on teaching methodologies.

In the 1990s, opportunities for professional development were limited for EFL teachers in KSA, and they did not receive in-service training on a regular basis. Such programmes were only provided after key changes were introduced to English language programmes (Emara, 1994). To address this problem, and to meet the growing need for English teachers, the Ministry of Education established teacher-training colleges in the major cities of Jeddah, Riyadh, and Dammam. In addition, the Ministry of Education collaborated with the British Council and the US Embassy to train Saudi English teachers and acquaint them with modern teaching methods, to help them develop effective teaching skills (Al Hazmi, 2003, p. 342).

Today, teaching courses in Saudi Arabia are largely purely theoretical and do not provide an opportunity for practice (Al-Johani, 2009). Al-Johani (2009) adds that while some programmes do not necessitate a teaching practicum period before graduation, others do; however, where it exists the practicum is limited to a three-month period. Although the Saudi Arabian government allocates funds to teacher training, many Saudi teachers appear uninterested in attending education programmes, because they fear it is "an academic embarrassment to take part in any training program" (Khan, 2011, p.119).

Understanding the need to develop education in schools, King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz established the King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Public Education Development Project in 2014 to raise the standard of education in KSA. The project

was called “Tatweer” which means “development”. The government collaborated with the Centre for British Teachers (CfBT)<sup>1</sup> education trust to provide training for teachers. This programme offered videos focused on topics that include the following (CfBT, 2015, p. 2):

1. Sharing lesson objectives and outcomes;
2. Lesson episodes;
3. Cooperative learning (group work);
4. Classroom setup;
5. Behaviour management;
6. Assessment for learning, such as questioning and effective feedback; and
7. Effective teaching techniques to promote active learning in the classroom.

To advance teachers’ knowledge and skills, the Ministry of Education has been sending teachers abroad since the early 2000s to learn and develop their teaching skills. For example, in 2015 the Ministry sent over 25,000 teachers abroad for a year. The countries chosen were Singapore, the US, Canada, the UK, Australia, Finland, and New Zealand. The project’s key objectives were to improve educational services and improve professional human resources, and to develop the education sector in KSA (Al-Sulami, 2015). The project focused on building language skills, and field based training.

Intensive exploration of studies in the Saudi Arabian context revealed a lack of literature on in-service training for teachers in general and language teachers in particular. This intensive exploration also revealed a shortage of empirical studies in the Saudi Arabian context. The only reliable sources were three studies by Emara (1994), Al-Saadat (2006) and Al-Johani (2009). Al-Saadat’s (2006) study, for example, included 60 EFL male teachers who responded to a questionnaire about language teachers’ need for training in language testing. The teachers in his study were from intermediate and secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. In total, 65.7% of the

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<sup>1</sup> An education development trust that is based in the UK that was established in 1968. CfBT works with governments around the world to deliver education and consultancy services to schools.

teachers responded that training in language testing was delivered through lectures, and just 34.3% of the teachers reported training was delivered through demonstrations and examples. Language skills, vocabulary, and structure received greatest attention during the training. 20.2% of the teachers reported that testing reading dominated, followed by testing writing (16.9%), and testing listening (16.9%). Al-Saadat criticised the training scheme for relying on lectures, which deprived teachers from the practical applications of language testing.

#### **1.6.6 The Saudi University: an overview**

The Saudi University was established in 1967 in the city of Jeddah as a private university. It was converted to a government university in 1974. It is now managed by the Ministry of Education. In accordance with Islamic law, the university has separate campuses for male and female students. Its emblem consists of an open book carrying a Qur'anic verse (Read! In the name of your Lord...) to symbolise its role in supporting Islamic regulations and traditions.

English language is essential for students, especially for those who aim to pursue higher education and gain a Master's or a PhD degree. Therefore, at this university, over the past few decades, the delivery of English content has increased substantially in recognition of the language's economic importance. Currently, English is used as the medium of instruction for medicine, dentistry, pharmacology, engineering, science, and applied medical sciences. Furthermore, recently, the Business College has introduced English as the medium of instruction.

#### **1.6.7 English Language Institute (ELI)**

This study was carried out in the female section of the ELI where I work. One advantage of being part of the institute is that I know a great deal about the institute and the teachers, and as an insider, I did not need to spend time familiarising myself with the place or the staff members.

At ELI, English is introduced as a core subject for all first year students. The four language skills are emphasised when teaching English: listening, speaking,

writing, and reading. The students come from Arabic speaking homes, and their ages range from 17 to 19 years. The majority of these students previously attended government schools, which means they have poor command of the English language. Regarding the teachers, there are around 220 in the institute. The teachers range from those who are monolingual speakers of English to those who are bilingual speakers of both Arabic and English, and they vary in their teaching experience and training. This mix brings diversity into the classrooms.

Regarding ELI policy, teachers are required to deliver instructions in English. According to the ELI policy, teachers can only be considered “true professionals” if they teach in English, and successful implementation of the policy depends upon using only English in the classroom, as stated in the teachers’ guide (2009/10, p. 7):

As true professionals, The ELI expects its staff members to act in complete compliance with the rules and regulations laid down by the institute...Since English is the medium of instruction at the ELI, it is strongly urged that the same is put into practice in letter and spirit.

ELI policy makers espouse the notion that “effective” L2 teaching and learning can only take place if English is used exclusively, and students thereby exposed to the maximum amount of English possible. The policy includes strict, and strong words, such as “reject” and “refrain”; these words are used to underline the prohibition on Arabic use inside the classroom. According to the Teachers’ guide (2009/10, p. 7), the ELI “rejects” the use of any vernacular including Arabic inside the classroom, and all teachers are expected to “refrain” from such practice.

## **1.7 Summary**

This chapter has highlighted how Islam is incorporated as a basic component into all levels of education in KSA. This strong religious ideology affects the goals, fundamentals, and objectives of Saudi education. A problem arises, however, in that within the Saudi community people are more affected by traditions and customs than religion, something that caused education, especially women’s education, to lag

behind in its infancy. The status of English in KSA is that of a foreign language, and therefore students lack adequate exposure to English outside the classroom. Despite the large amount of time dedicated to English classes, English teachers are often criticised for relying on the Grammar Translation Method and the Audio-lingual Approach in teaching. These methods influence their teaching, placing a heavy emphasis and focus on form rather than meaning, espousing memorisation and repetition of patterns in English, and exhibiting low tolerance for students' errors. As a result, the system fails in two aspects. Firstly, it has failed to produce teachers who are equipped with the latest teaching methodologies and expertise to teach English. Secondly, it has failed to produce learners who can carry out simple conversations or comprehend basic oral or written messages. Besides the problem of inadequate teacher preparation programmes, Saudi teachers themselves seem reluctant to change their beliefs about English teaching, as shown in Assalahi's (2013) study. This could be because they lack training, or because the programmes they can access do not encourage teachers to reflect on and develop their personal beliefs (discussed in Chapter 3, sections 3.8 & 3.9).

Teachers at the ELI are required to adhere to the institute's policy to deliver instructions in English only. However, a key feature of the ELI where the study took place is the range of teachers' nationalities, which brings diversity to the classroom. However, this diversity might create conflict among teachers regarding the use of Arabic. It might also make teachers more reluctant to participate in the current study. It was speculated that even the teachers who agreed to participate would be reluctant to express their beliefs about Arabic use.

## **1.8 Outline of thesis**

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter One has discussed the educational background of the study. Chapter Two presents various definitions of CS in both social and classroom contexts. It then discusses a coherent set of beliefs including the virtual, maximal and optimal positions (Macaro, 2001). The fourth section presents the literature supporting and opposing L1 use in the classroom. The final section introduces the functional classifications of code switching (CS) in the

L2 classroom.

Chapter Three discusses teachers' beliefs. It first presents a brief historical overview of teachers' beliefs and then explores the factors that shape teachers' beliefs and cognition. It also highlights the fundamental role that teachers' beliefs play in their practices, and the complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and their behaviour. I also review some studies that have investigated the potential influence of educational programmes on teachers' beliefs, with particular reference to studies conducted on in-service teachers, as they are the focus of the current study.

Chapter Four discusses the research paradigm adopted for this study, leading to an overview of the mixed methods approach. This chapter discusses the data collection tools and piloting of each tool. It is followed by a discussion of the data analysis, and the validity and reliability of the research instruments. Finally, I discuss the ethical considerations that influenced the study. A concise exposition of the limitations and constraints placed upon the study is given throughout the chapter.

Chapter Five includes two sections, quantitative and qualitative analyses, and presents the findings from the teachers' questionnaires collected from 67 participants. In the first section, the data is examined and analysed quantitatively to collate numerical information about how teachers perceive the use of Arabic at the ELI. The second section introduces the findings from the open questions in the questionnaire. The aim of both the quantitative and qualitative parts of the analysis is to answer the two background questions.

Chapter Six discusses the findings according to the themes that emerged from the pre-treatment interviews, the observations and the questionnaire results, which involved seven participants. The analysis presented in this chapter draws attention to and evaluates instances of CS among the observed teachers.

Chapter Seven presents the research findings from the four workshop presentations. This chapter is essentially a treatment chapter, but some extracts from

the discussions with the teachers are also included as data from the post-treatment chapter. The analysis focuses on the teachers' beliefs regarding the functions of L1 use in the classroom, teachers' attitudes in other contexts, using L1 and L2 glosses in reading, and the impact of vocabulary learning on teachers' beliefs. This chapter presents the participants' answers to the questions.

Chapter Eight discusses the findings from the post interviews, observations, and questionnaire. The aim is to understand whether the teachers' beliefs and practices were altered by the treatment, by describing the degree to which attendance at the workshops influenced them. This chapter introduces and discusses four themes, accompanied by examples from the three data collection methods, and recording the amount of L1 used by teachers. It then discusses the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and practices, the development of their beliefs and practices, and the nature of interaction in classroom.

Chapter Nine presents the discussion of the findings in relation to the research questions and literature.

Chapter Ten returns to the research questions and discusses the main findings of the study. It addresses some of the limitations of the study, followed by a discussion of the possible implications for teachers and programme designers, and puts forward some recommendations relevant to L2 teaching in Saudi Arabia. Finally, I offer some suggestions for further research.



## **2 Theory and Practice regarding CS in the Classroom**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Chapter One discussed the context of the study and how teachers' ideas about L2 learning and teaching still centre very much on grammar rules. This issue sparked an interest in the beliefs and practices surrounding L1 use, the specific focal points of the study. Thus, the first section of this chapter presents various definitions and arguments regarding CS in both social and classroom contexts. It then discusses the policy of English language teaching in the Middle East and some East Asian countries, followed by a discussion of Macaro's virtual, maximal and optimal positions (Macaro, 2001). The fourth section presents some empirical studies on CS. The fifth and sixth sections introduce the quantity and functional classifications of CS in the L2 classroom, followed by empirical studies on the functions of CS in both Non-Arabic and Arabic contexts, with special reference to the Saudi Arabian context. The review of previous studies in the Saudi context is important, because this study investigated teachers' beliefs and practices about CS at a Saudi English institute.

### **2.2 Definition of code switching (CS)**

This section introduces a variety of definitions of CS currently in use among researchers. In bilingual interactions outside the classroom, CS is a common feature. Although many researchers have adopted different perspectives when defining CS, they all agree that it involves using two or more languages or dialects. Primarily, these definitions involve the idea of bilingual or multilingual speakers using two or more languages within a single discourse (Milroy & Muysken, 1995). That is, a switch can occur between turns taken, or in utterances in a single turn. Myers-Scotton (2001, p. 23) defined classic CS as "the alternation between two varieties in the same constituent by speakers who have sufficient proficiency in the two varieties to produce monolingual well-formed utterances in either variety". This suggests that speakers who switch between two languages have proficient access to grammar knowledge in both languages. Myers-Scotton's classic definition has been criticised

as too imprecise (MacSwan, 2014), and a more exacting definition was provided by Jake, Myers-Scotton, and Gross (2002). In their Uniform Structure Principle, they posited that although the Matrix Language (ML) (discussed below) could switch across subsequent Projection of Complementizers (CPs) or in sentences containing more than one clause, it did not change in a specific CP (Jake, Myers-Scotton & Gross, 2002). Based on these principles the ML provides the framework for the Embedded Language (EL), and EL items are added to the dominant language (ML).

Empirical research has shown an orderliness to CS; it is not random but arises at particular moments in an utterance (e.g. Auer, 1984; Azuma, 2001; Gafaranga 2007; Grosjean, 1982; Sankoff & Poplack, 1981) adhering to grammatical, lexical and social norms, even though at times a speaker might choose to ignore this (Tian & Macaro, 2012). Researchers have explored CS from a grammatical perspective (see Myers-Scotton, 1993a, 2001, Poplack, 1981, and Sebba, 1998), while others examine it from a socio-functional perspective, wherein CS is affected by social norms (see Auer, 1984, Gumperz, 1982, and Myers-Scotton, 1993b, 2001, 2006). From a naturalistic perspective Gumperz (1982) and Myers-Scotton (2001, 2006) evaluated CS from a socio-functional stance as well as a grammatical one, arguing it helped to show the cultural hierarchy of the speakers or topic of conversation.

Gumperz (1982), similar to Poplack (2007), defined CS as the interchange between two or more languages with differing grammatical systems and rules; as such, CS is bound by the syntactical and grammatical conventions of each (Gumperz, 1977). In other words, certain items within a speech act cannot be switched, such as a preposition from a phrasal verb. Switching can take place at any point inside the main or subordinate clause and the utterance will still be considered grammatical in both standard L1 and L2 (Poplack, 2007). This indicates that CS is a “distinctive feature of bilingual behaviour” (Li Wei & Martin, 2009, p. 117), and that it is not random.

Poplack (1981) classified CS structurally. She distinguished between three types of CS: tag, inter-sentential, intra-sentential switching. Tag switching (e.g. you

know, I mean, right, etc.) is simple and does not require mastery of the languages involved, since the risk of violating grammatical rules is minimal. Inter-sentential switching is the second type of CS, which takes place at the phrase or sentence level and between sentences. Intra-sentential is the third and most complex form of CS. The complexity of this type of switching lies in the high probability of syntactic rules violation. Furthermore, it requires high command of both languages' grammars.

Myers-Scotton introduced the Matrix Language Framework (MLF) theory or model of CS in 1993; this was another grammatically based theory. The model contains two key elements, the Morpheme Order Principle and the System Order Principle. It was devised to elucidate use of intra-sentential CS. The language, which is dominant, is the ML and the subordinate language is the EL. The ML might be the L1, or the language from which most of the words or morphemes come from (Myers-Scotton, 1993a). According to Myers-Scotton (1993), the relationship between the ML and EL is unequal.

The rigidity of her model has evoked much criticism. For example, Jacobson (2001, p. 62) argued that the Matrix Model failed to account for patterns of equal relationship, in which both languages share equal status "without any one showing superordination with respect to the other". Myers-Scotton (2006) recognised the same limitation, in that this model can only claim to be used to explain classic CS, where the speaker has a proficient grasp of the grammar of both the ML and EL. Only one of the languages is dominant, and thus provides the framework for the EL. MacSwan (2014) also criticised the 1993 model, arguing that the principles used elucidate on the discrete languages rather than on how they interact. He also raised the issue that mechanisms are described ambiguously, which results in difficulties using the model empirically, although he concedes these were addressed in part by Jake, Myers-Scotton and Gross in 2002. The MLF model was expanded in 2000 and developed into the 4-M model, which Myers-Scotton argued is a morpheme classification system, rather than a revision of the MLF of 1993.

Although this model is well known in the field, the two constraints (free morpheme and equivalence) she applied in it have been criticised for their lack of restriction, as so many exceptions occur. Researchers such as MacSwan (2014) have also criticised the idea of having any constraints, or a ML at all. He argues that while such models may provide an adequate empirical description of the linguistic aspects of CS, they fail to provide an explanation; rather, they inform us of what is evident. It is worth noting that Myers-Scotton (2006) has argued in her work since 2005, that MacSwan (2014) failed to address the function of the EL in the bilingual clause, remaining in fact “silent” on the matter (p. 209).

Myers-Scotton (1993b) also looked at CS from a socio-functional perspective, introducing the Markedness model in 1993, which is operationalised within her MLF model. Marked language refers to language used to position one’s self in relation to other speakers. The unmarked language is the language that aligns itself with the “status quo of the community” (Levine, 2011, p.52) and as such is not controversial. Myers-Scotton argues that a person’s choice of language is rational and based on the speakers’ relationships with one another within the context and the conversation itself. The speakers that are CS are selecting language on an individual level, but at the same time are engaged in group behaviour, as they are aware that whatever they say will be understood dependent on how it is perceived by their listeners. Furthermore, a “social message” (Myers-Scotton, 2002, p.205) is conveyed, meaning that streams in one language can be considered as marked or unmarked choices when compared to those marked in the other language.

There was some criticism of the early form of the model, in that it maybe ambiguous as to which language is the marked or unmarked in a bilingual interaction, as such data is qualitative and therefore could be subjectively interpreted (Myers-Scotton, 2002). In response to this, she introduced frequency counts to identify which choices are marked (less used) and unmarked (more frequently used) (Myers-Scotton, 2002).

If Myers-Scotton's Markedness model were applied to the classroom setting, then any evaluation of an instructor's CS would need to consider that some language choices may be more culturally appropriate depending on the situation and classroom environment. Generally, the Markedness model lends itself well to the Saudi context, as KSA is a country where society places importance on socio-cultural beliefs and values (AlMulhim, 2014). For example, many greetings have religious connotations and a hierarchical relationship between, students, teachers and the institution itself must be maintained. It is important to consider the cultural factors in play when analysing CS in this context (AlMulhim, 2014).

### **2.1.1 Naturalistic and classroom CS and L1 use**

When scrutinising the literature, it was found that in some research papers in second or foreign language settings, the term CS is used (e.g. Butzkamm, 1998; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005), while in others the phrase 'L1 use' is used (e.g. Sali, 2014; Storch & Wiggleworth, 2003) to refer to when L1 is adopted for specific functions, such as to avoid breakdowns in communication and to facilitate lesson organisation. The ambiguity in the use of both terms suggests both can be used interchangeably to fulfil similar functions. CS is understood as an "umbrella term" that encapsulates various bilingual behaviours (Milroy & Muysken, 1995). Therefore, all usage of L1 is CS when the speakers are bilingual (or multilingual), but not all CS is use of L1, as the ML does not have to be the L1 and could switch between more than one language.

When distinguishing between L1 use and CS, it is important to establish that CS is a discourse strategy used by bilinguals who manifest high levels of proficiency in both languages. As Bullock and Toribio (2009, p.7) specify, a bilingual is "an individual who has native-like control of two (or more) languages". Although native-like assumption among bilinguals is questionable when applying the concept to language classrooms, CS takes place when teachers or students with high proficiency in L2 use it during their L2 speech. Arguably low level students also use simple forms of CS, such as tag switching, in which they insert constituents almost anywhere within the sentence "without fear of violating grammatical rule" (Poplack,

1980, p. 589), and with no requirement for mastery of the L2. For the purposes of this study, I will use the term CS for L1 use in the classroom.

In naturalistic discourse, Macaro (2005, p. 63) argues that CS occurs because it is either easier or more fitting linguistically or culturally (echoing models previously discussed) for the speaker to switch between languages while conversing, rather than remaining in one language. Macaro asserts that CS is considered an “asset” and a “valuable” strategy that augments the other communication strategies that bilinguals possess. In the language classroom, CS can be defined as alternation between L1 and L2 as a means of communication (Jingxia, 2010). However, in the past this was regarded by many as neither an asset nor valuable, and has often been couched in negative terms and referred to as using L1 as a last resort (Macaro, 2005), which in contrast to CS arguably involves no systematic constraints (Ferguson, 2009; Tian & Macaro, 2012). In classroom discourse, and along with other researchers (e.g. Ferguson 2003, 2009), Macaro even made a point of not collocating L1 with “recourse to” (2005, p.67) or “resort to” (2010, p.45). Macaro now uses CS to refer to this alternation between languages. He argues that such a negative stance towards CS in the classroom can appear astonishing, as in language teaching and learning modern teachers strive to create an L2 language classroom that represents the world outside the classroom, where many bilinguals switch between two languages (Macaro, 2005) (or indeed that should be the aim (Lee, 2012)). Levine (2011) argues that while it is too simplistic to presume that all classroom discourse will be monolingual, it is also too simplistic to equate the classroom to a multilingual situation outside it.

While it might be too simplistic to view the classroom solely as a social setting or bilingual community (Levine, 2011), an increasing number of studies have explored the classroom, considering it a microcosm of bilingual communities (Lee, 2012) sharing some aspects of them. Others have argued that the classroom is a social entity, wherein students and teachers are part of the same language or bilingual community (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Lee, 2012). AlMulhim (2014, p. 15) suggests that the classroom is a social context that cannot be isolated from the impact of

culture and society. For example, learners construct their social identities in their selection of language similar to the way speakers do when CS in the world outside the classroom (Fuller, 2009). However, in reference to the debates above, it is questionable whether the classroom can be considered a bilingual community when the students within it are not proficient in the L2. However, Liebscher and O’Cain (2005) argue that if we are to visualise the classroom as a bilingual community of practice, then it follows that students, no matter their proficiency, can seek to be bilingual learners. This notion of a bilingual community of practice will be defined later in this chapter.

There has been debate over whether we can equate CS in the classroom with CS in naturalistic discourse (Lee, 2012; Tian & Macaro, 2012). Tian and Macaro (2012) argue that classroom CS can be comparable to some extent, as teacher CS is naturalistic and an example of natural human behaviour, revealing evidence of proficient bilingualism (Tian & Macaro, 2012). According to Lee (2012), research has provided evidence from some studies (e.g. Canagarajah, 1995; Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi, & Bunyi, 1992) that there are some principles in play during CS, ensuring that both teachers and students are guided by changes between different sets of identities, and that relationships can switch from formal to social “frames” (Lee, 2012). This does to a degree reflect patterns of discourse that can be found in bilingual communities, as speakers will negotiate and position themselves with reference to the other speaker/s and the wider community (Lee, 2012; Myers-Scotton, 2006). The findings of Dailey-O’Cain and Liebscher (2009), in their study of two German language classes, indicated that learners use CS in the classroom in the same manner as bilinguals do, and that this was not modelled on the teacher; however, they concede that more research is required to ascertain how the principles of CS were acquired. Furthermore, Tian and Macaro (2012) concur with Van Lier (1996) that communication is not required to emulate naturalistic discourse for it to be considered authentic, and that the functions of CS in the classroom are both communicative and pedagogical. Finally, even if some variances exist between a bilingual community and the language classroom, classroom discourse and CS

within it might have the right to be perceived as possessing an “authentic value” in the classroom (Lee, 2012, p.150).

Previously, I mentioned the idea of a bilingual community of practice proposed by Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain (2005). If the classroom is to become a bilingual community of practice<sup>2</sup>, then CS has to be accepted and both students and teachers need to be aware of how the community functions and operates. Levine (2011, p.121) takes this further arguing that a “principled approach” to selecting a code should be embedded in the curriculum and central to learning and teaching. In many institutions around the world, there is a policy of L2 use only (discussed below), yet as Levine (2011, p.186) proposes, both teachers and policy makers should begin to perceive of students as “aspiring bilinguals”, rather than ineffective and imperfect monolingual speakers of the languages they are being taught.

### **2.3 Policies in some Arab countries and North Africa**

The process of internationalisation in the Middle Eastern economy has led to a shift in the policy towards learning English. At the 2011 annual conference of the European Association for International Education (EAIE), Arab policy makers, academics and Ministers recognised that their countries should become more “outward” looking, by accentuating partnerships between the “Arab Spring” and European universities, to improve higher education in the emerging democracies in this transitional period (Bhandari & El-Amine, 2012, p. 4). This shift is significant, as it means that on a broad-spectrum, the new generation will not only learn English at a younger age (presumably that does not necessarily imply a better command of English), but the status of English in higher education and the workplace will be promoted. Nunan (2003) raises some concerns that introducing English at a younger

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<sup>2</sup> Communities of practice are created by people who are involved in a collective learning process in a mutual domain of endeavour such as group of learners seeking to define their identities (Wenger, 2011). Members in a community of practice participate in collective discussions and activities, share information, and assist each other (Wenger, 2011). They also build relations that allow them to learn from each other. Communities expand their practice through a range of activities such as solving problems, seeking information, mapping knowledge and identifying gaps (Wenger, 2011, p. 1-3).



age can affect individuals' national identities. Nonetheless, this concern appears to have been “muted” with little influence over the burgeoning requirement for English language (Nunan, 2003).

In the area of language teaching methodologies, there has been no conclusive move towards the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom, and a lack of explicit policy prevails regarding English language teaching in the Middle East. Despite borrowing policies emphasising the Communicative Approach, especially in the Middle East, North Africa, and other Asian countries, foreign language teachers in KSA still rely heavily on Grammar-translation and Audio-lingual methods. In these countries, the primary objective of government policy is to develop communicative competence among learners aiming for the active creation and production of the L2 to attain language fluency (Al-Issa, 2014).

This shift raises concerns at the practical level. For example, whether CLT promotion is implemented properly by teachers and whether they are competent enough to promote real L2 language, to enable their learners to communicate with native speakers in real life circumstances. Language teachers might experience pressure when attempting to implement CLT methodological guidelines, pushing them out of their comfort zones, by urging them to abandon their typical routines in favour of new ones. They might not be able to identify with the concepts underlying CLT, whether from lack training, or because the approach simply conflicts with their beliefs.

When English was recognised as influential in expediting the Arabian Gulf region's<sup>3</sup> transformation to “modernization” (Karmani, 2005), unsurprisingly a veritable flood of teacher trainers, ESL instructors, and language ELT textbook publishers, targeted the countries in it. As the ELT industry is deeply-rooted in the heart of English-speaking countries (Karmani, 2005), the GCC governments poured native ELT experts into the region to design English language and ELT education

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<sup>3</sup> The Gulf cooperation council (GCC) is composed of Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, and Oman.

policies and plan textbooks and materials (Al-Issa, 2011, p. 63-4), as if the native Arab populations had “virtually no idea at all” (Karmani, 2005, p. 93).

More recently, the “English-only education” preference in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) has created an enormous market for English language teaching, especially in English for academic purposes (Phan Le & Barnawi, 2015). Because of this English requirement, some of the international centres for learning, such as Lincoln College International, Algonquin College, Niagara College, and Laureate, “sub-contracted independent” local and international language schools and centres, have started to provide English courses on their campuses (Phan Le & Barnawi, 2015, p. 556). This “whole-hearted” support of English in KSA has caused continuing debates in the local and global media that throw doubt on the ideological, cultural, sociocultural, economic and political bearings of English, and of the internationalisation of higher education regulated by government policies on education in particular and society in general (Phan Le & Barnawi 2015, p. 557).

To accommodate the shift toward globalization, the UAE has also embraced global English within a policy of dualistic approach, which while not plainly indicated in language policy documents, is progressed through practice (Clarke, 2007, p. 384). Karmani (2005) points out that, in a society without considerable governmental accountability and weak linkages between society and state and few opportunities for the public to participate in policymaking, decisions about language education policy and planning are “hit-and-miss affairs” (Karmani, 2005, p. 90). In Qatar, there also appears to be a lack of explicit policy on English language teaching. In a document on “Curriculum Standards for the State of Qatar” “English: Grades K to 12” developed by the Centre for British Teachers (cfBT) (this organisation is introduced in Chapter 1, section 1.6.5), states that teaching standards are left to schools to decide: “There are no prescribed teaching methods”. It also up to teachers to select suitable methods in accordance with their schools’ policies (IBE, UNESCO, 2004, p. 11). In 1998, the Ministry of Education in Oman introduced an educational reform that encompassed introducing English in the first grade (Al-Zedjali & Etherton, 2009). Similar to the situation in other GCC countries, there does not seem

to be a national policy regarding ELT policy. It appears that decisions made relating to the medium of instruction are left to schools or teachers. It can be inferred from Al-Zedjali and Etherton's (2009, p.153) report on English teaching in the Integrated Curriculum Project in Oman on literacy development in literacy from grade 1, that L1 is not prohibited in some classes:

Although it is expected that there will be some developmental confusion between Arabic and English (...) based on classroom observation and feedback from teachers, is that children seem to 'code-switch' effectively in relation to reading and writing in English and Arabic.

The linguistic situation in Tunisia and North Africa can be encapsulated in two words: diverse and the complex (Battenburg, 1997, p. 117). The policies in these countries do not overtly prohibit L1 use in classroom, but emphasise CLT as the main approach to teaching foreign and second languages. Despite the efforts toward Arabisation in Arab North African countries, the foreign language (French) in government schools continued to preserve its position (Aouina, 2013; Battenburg, 1997). In public schools in Morocco, French commences in the third grade, while in Algeria it commences in the fourth grade (United Nations Development Programme, 2003). In 2002, a report issued by the Ministry of Education and Training in Tunisia emphasised that its main approach is "a communicative interactive approach to teaching English" (p. 23). The study of English in Tunisia evolves from a club option in fifth grade to a compulsory subject in sixth grade (Boussabah, 2007). There was a gap with language used and language preference, because although French is used more English is preferred (Boussabah, 2007). Two decades ago, Battenburg (1997) predicted that this rivalry between French and English in some Arab and African countries would continue.

In Iran, the education system is highly centralised, as the ELT syllabi, curricula, and materials are created by the Curriculum Development Centre of the Ministry of Education and Training (Jamshidifard, 2011). After the founding of Islamic Republic of Iran in 1979, there was a negative attitude toward English, as the language is associated with the USA or the "Great Satan" (Borjian, 2010, p. 58). In

the early 1980s, a cultural revolution steered the education system towards “purifying” the education system of Western ideologies, injecting Islamic religious ideas, culture, and philosophy (Jamshidifard, 2011). Advocates of Islamic education fear the secular education created by a modern Western scientific approach fosters empiricism and generates scepticism about the need to reason in terms of religion (Riaz, 2000). This created a heated debate about English teaching, which was eventually resolved by reaching a consensus that English should continue to be taught as a subject in sixth grade; later this was delayed to seventh grade. During this time, educators in Iran aspired to create an “indigenized” and “home-grown” model of English not influenced by the English speaking nations; i.e. one that fosters Islamic ideology (Borjian, 2010, p. 58). In order to achieve this goal, English experts were expelled, foreign and private-run English Institutes shut down, socio-cultural aspects of the language eliminated, and local English textbooks adopted. Although this climate changed with the institution of private schools in 1991, which imported English materials from abroad, state schools have continued to promote the ideology of indigenised English teaching, which goes against the wishes of the people, who aspire to understand the culture of the L2 language. As Borjian (2010, p. 61) argues, this curricula only satisfies the ideological desires of the country’s politicians.

### **2.3.1 Policies in some East Asian countries**

Countries such as Taiwan, China, Korea, and Japan have introduced the English language as a compulsory subject at elementary and/or secondary school levels, directing particular attention toward enhancing oral skills in English (Su, 2016). The general trend in Taiwan does not seem to embrace centralised control of foreign language education. In 2002, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan embraced English as the official foreign language in parts of its higher education curriculum. An English only policy is not only encouraged but also imposed in these institutions; as Chen (2010) notes: “Although the Government took the approach of making this English-only use optional, and the implementation was quite decentralized”. Despite teachers and learners in such contexts sharing the same L1, the L2 only policy rejects the option of diversity in classroom instruction (Lee, 2012).

A more centralised approach to L2 teaching is found in China. During his exploration of the impact of English on educational policies and practices in major countries in the Asia-Pacific region, Nunan (2003) reported that despite China's centralised approach to education, it is not easy to get an exact picture of the situation there, due to the size and diversity of practices throughout the country. It is difficult to determine the degree to which the reality of the classroom reflects official policy. In a tertiary foreign language teaching context, the official attitude towards classroom CS is "undetermined or hazy" (Cheng, 2013). Explicit and thorough suggestions are scarce when describing the relationship between Chinese and English concerning the choice of classroom medium of instruction. The Teaching Curriculum for English Majors at Elementary Level (1996) demands that language classes should be instructed in English from the outset, to strengthen pupils' sense of English, or create the optimal English learning atmosphere. Although the Teaching Curriculum highlights the probability that the use of English does not "reject the possible functions of the L1, no further explanations were made on it" (Cheng, 2013, p. 1279). The curriculum does however emphasise the importance of developing college students' communicative abilities (Cheng, 2013).

A more explicit policy about L1 use is embraced by South Korea, as the Ministry of Education (MoE) has initiated a national policy there, entitled 'Teaching English in English' (TEE) policy. The main goal of English education in South Korea is simply to advance learners' ability to communicate in English (Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 42, cited in Dailey, 2010, p. 5). The TEE policy was introduced by the MOE in 2001, reflecting South Korea's aspiration to provide a more Communicative Approach to help students develop their communicative competence (Dailey, 2010). However, the policy ignores the fact that numerous English teachers do not have proficiency in English; hence, they lack the confidence to conduct the lessons in it (Nunan, 2003). By establishing the policy, the MOE was indirectly acknowledging that 40 years of teaching English through Korean had not produced competent language learners (Lee, 2014).

The curricula at school level in Japan is supervised largely by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Science and Technology (MEXT); hence, teachers have experienced limited control over foreign language teaching curricula (Butler & Iino, 2004). Although national guidelines do not suggest explicit requirements regarding foreign language, several four-year universities have demanded that students enrol in two foreign languages classes, one of which is commonly English (Butler & Iino, 2004). In response to the continuous criticisms of English teaching in Japan; i.e. that practices merely focused on “juken eigo” (English learned for the sake of entrance examinations) and were thus failing to meet the nation’s needs in light of globalization, MEXT proposed the 2003 Action Plan. One of its main goals is to develop Japanese communicative abilities in English by requiring that English be taught using English as the medium of instruction (Butler & Iino, 2004). Nunan (2003) argues that in the Asian countries he examined, English has had a substantial effect on policy. Governments and ministries of education in the region now suggest, “younger is better” when it comes to learning foreign languages, “despite its controversial nature in the professional literature” (Nunan, 2003, p. 605).

## **2.4 Theory: Macaro’s positions relative to CS**

To understand the origin of teachers’ beliefs about CS to L1 fully, it is important to understand the intricacies and arguments put forward by researchers debating it. The debate over CS and L2 use in language learning proceeds from different theoretical positions and teaching methods and reveals why or why not language teachers integrate CS into their practices.

By reviewing the literature on CS and L2 in classrooms and investigating teachers’ beliefs regarding CS in Communicative foreign language classrooms in southern England, Macaro (2001) identified three positions on CS and L2. On one extreme, there is the virtual position (discussed in section 2.4.1), which perceives no pedagogical value in the use of CS and purports that it can be excluded entirely from L2 classrooms (Macaro, 2001, 2012). This position is prevalent in immersion

settings and those where students have multiple L1s. The virtual position stresses the need to immerse learners fully in the L2. It is however difficult to maintain the L2 only position in cases where learners share the same L1 and a similar educational background with their teachers. When implementing this position in the EFL classroom in my context in Saudi Arabia, where students are native speakers of Arabic with limited acquaintance with CLT, and little exposure to English outside the classroom, the virtual position is challenging and highly unnatural.

The maximal position (discussed in section 2.4.3) is the second proposed by Macaro (2001). Proponents of this position argue there is no pedagogical value in the use of CS, and in an ideal teaching environment or conditions, it would not be necessary to use it. However, as this ‘ideal’ classroom does not exist, teachers feel they must resort to L1 (Macaro, 2001, p. 535). The maximal position or “near-exclusive” use of L2 (Viakinnou-Brinson et al., 2012) largely supports L2 with interspersed CS. CS can only be used when it is necessary for disciplinary purposes to manage learners’ behaviours. In order to achieve the policy goal of maximising L2 in the classroom, Liu et al. (2004) believe that 50% of English (L2) as a starting point appears to be “reasonable”, unless empirical research suggests otherwise. Taking into consideration the reality of context and teachers’ “unique situations”, Liu et al. (2004, p. 633) believe this percentage can only be “gradually” increased. However, it is worth noting that they do not suggest excluding CS from the classroom. Macaro (2009, p. 38) claims that the maximal position has no theoretical underpinning. He further argues that there is no evidence to establish whether comparable language acquisition occurs if the L2 used is 75% in one situation while 85% in another. With maximum use theory, the L2 would be used 100% of the time by teachers; however, it is not possible to test this theory, and if teachers exclude CS completely then they cannot be certain that their learners would have acquired more with, for example, 5% CS (Macaro, 2009).

In contrast to these two positions, the third perceives some pedagogical value in CS; Macaro (2001, p. 535) refers to this as the optimal position (discussed in section 2.4.5), which advocates incorporating learners’ L1 into L2 instruction.

Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009, p.183), in synthesising the collection of studies in their volume, suggest the definition below for optimal CS:

Optimal L1 use in communicative and immersion second and foreign language classrooms realises the benefits of the learner's first language as a cognitive and meta-cognitive tool, as a strategic organizer, and as a scaffold for language development. In addition, the first language helps learners navigate a bilingual identity and thereby learn to function as a bilingual (...)

Thus, pedagogically judicious CS use should support learners' development of their communicative competence. Proponents of this position believe utilising the learners' L1 in the language learning process can enhance this (Macaro, 2001, p. 535); thus it deserves space in the foreign language environment. Macaro (2009, p. 38–9) develops this argument by highlighting that teachers' optimal CS involves making a judgement about possible detrimental results when failing to attract learners' attention to aspects of their L1 or when failing to draw comparisons between the L1 and L2. Particularly significant in this regard is the suggestion that optimal CS is only pertinent in communicative classrooms. Teachers should make principled decisions about their use of CS, weighing situations where CS is apparently needed to determine how much information would be lost if CS was avoided. Teachers should be aware that avoiding CS at all costs could have an adverse effect, as in some circumstances, monolingual input could be problematic for learners to comprehend. In his view, the virtual and maximal positions support the monolingual approach, and should not be blindly followed before being validated as more effective than the bilingual (optimal) approach (Lee, 2012).

The optimal position calls for the predominance of the L2 classroom with principled use of CS to aid comprehension. The optimal position permits some CS without disproportionate use or total evasion. While researchers (such as Edstrom, 2006; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009) recognise that CS deserves a space in the classroom, they also acknowledge the importance of maximising use of L2. However, they do not suggest how much CS would qualify as the maximum deemed acceptable. The concept has been rather ambiguous. Levine



(2003, p. 344) argues, that with the minimal empirical evidence available, proponents of each position have failed to defend their respective positions, as their arguments are largely based on “intuitions about best practices, anecdotal evidence, and personal classroom experience”. Therefore, before providing guidelines for best practice or informing policy on L2 pedagogy, Lee and Macaro (2013, p. 897) call for additional research evidence to allow proposals to be drawn up regarding the use of CS in foreign language classrooms. (Proposed guidelines for optimal CS are discussed in section 2.4.6).

### **2.4.1 The Virtual Position**

Proponents of the virtual position view the classroom as a “virtual reality” mirroring the first language learners’ environment (Hall & Cook, 2012). They argue that the L2 should be exclusively used to avoid interference from L1, increase fluency, and achieve competence in L2.

Supporters of the virtual position regard exclusive L2 use as best practice because they claim that it increases fluency and assists communication in the L2. For example, Crichton (2009, p. 24) favours L2 use, describing teachers’ roles as “examples of best practice” when engaged in L2 teaching. Crichton further calls for the opportunity to expose students to “real language”, to increase students’ awareness of the L2 and to develop their ability to comprehend everyday dialogues (Crichton, 2009, p. 26). However, if teachers are not sufficiently proficient in the L2 the language taught might become simplified and not represent a best-case example of real language. Furthermore, her argument can be contested, as some teachers in her study showed some sensitivity to the students’ level of proficiency. Those teachers translated and rephrased L2 words that the students had failed to comprehend (Crichton, 2009). However, it should be noted that there is a scarcity of empirical evidence illustrating the relationship between principled CS and improved language learning. Alongside other studies in the language classroom, Tian and Macaro (2012) acknowledged some benefits to using CS for communication, although the merit of using this strategy longer term is still contested.

Another virtual proponent is Chambers (1991), who believes that genuine communication requires exclusive use of L2. She recommends designing classroom activities that “allow pupils to speak to each other genuinely” (Chambers, 1991, p. 27). Although the proponents of the monolingual principle assume L2 use is the best way to achieve competence in L2, this assumption has been challenged. Macaro (2005) suggests L1 language use may help reduce the demand on working memory from cognitive load and promote cognitive processing. In Scott and Fuente’s (2008) study of college students learning French and Spanish, it was found that English (L1) played a useful role when students were performing tasks. The students were randomly divided into two groups: group one was allowed to use L1, whereas group two was instructed to use L2. The authors discovered some differences between the two groups. Group one was able to engage in smooth interaction, whereas group two’s interaction was stilted, including many pauses. Additionally, the students in group two were less successful at collaborating to perform tasks and expressed their frustration in some cases, such as when “explaining a grammar rule... I don’t think I can do that in Spanish” (Scott & Fuente, 2008, p. 108).

Indeed, Scott and Fuente (2008) concluded that using L2 exclusively can inhibit students’ collaborative interaction and impede their “natural” learning strategies, whilst L1 can aid cognition and support collaborative interaction. Their finding was later corroborated by DiCamilla and Antón (2012) who examined the roles of L1 and L2 among Spanish learners, with differing levels of language proficiency, performing a writing task. The first-year students who had limited ability in the L2 could not perform or complete the task without using L1, while the L2 played a much greater role in the interactions of the more advanced students. The first-year students relied almost completely on their L1 because they were faced with the challenge of creating content and solving lexical and grammatical tasks. DiCamilla and Antón (2012) found that L1 assisted learners in fulfilling metalinguistic functions, such as solving grammatical and lexical problems, assessing L2 forms and comprehending the meaning of L2 utterances.

Exponents of L2 use can forget that competence in L2 cannot be achieved where the affective barrier is high. For instance, some students in Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney's (2008, p. 264) study indicated that L1 use can alleviate negative feelings such as frustration, pressure, and confusion. Concerning doubts about insufficient language input, research suggest mere comprehensible input is far from sufficient to assure learners' interlanguage development. Support for this is provided by Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002), who reported on the use of English (L1) in French classrooms among teachers at an Australian university. They found that CS helped to modify the input, by simplifying speech and thereby assisting the students to attain higher levels of proficiency.

The ideology of monolingual learning is deeply rooted (Gafaranga, 2009). Indeed, Phillipson (1997) even alleges that the L2 only policy is a form of "linguistic imperialism", which overlooks the native context completely ignoring students' L1. Although recently this assumption has been challenged widely, the superiority of monolingual teaching was widespread in the literature from the late nineteenth century to the late twentieth century (Hall & Cook, 2012). This led policy makers in many contexts to consider use of L1 an undesirable practice, despite the value attached to CS and the fact that it requires high bilingual competence (Ferguson, 2003). For example, in the form of a national policy that mandates teaching English through English (TETE) in primary schools. Proponents of this position (e.g. Duff & Polio, 1990; Polio & Duff, 1994) aim to develop language competence similar to that of native speakers of the L2. Polio and Duff (1994, p. 323) believe teachers' use of L1 limits learners' exposure to meaningful interactions in the L2. According to them, the development of competence in the L2 is tied to exclusive use of L2.

However, a strict monolingual policy is not feasible in reality as bilingual teachers find it more beneficial to bend rules to meet students' needs, as demonstrated in many studies (e.g. Kang, 2008; Raschka, Sercombe, & Chi-Ling, 2009; Tsagari & Diakou, 2015) (discussed in section 2.8). In addition, abiding by the L2 policy might do more harm than good, as highlighted by the teachers in Kang's (2008) study.

The reason for this strong opposition to CS is influenced by five main factors. It is grounded in certain theoretical perspectives, including the Input Hypothesis, Behaviourism (see section 2.4.1.1), and Language compartmentalisation (see section 2.4.1.3). The notion of the superiority of native speakers (see section 2.4.1.2), and the association of translation with GTM, are alternative reasons given for opposing the inclusion of learners' L1 in classrooms (Atkinson, 1987).

#### **2.4.1.1 The influence of the Input Hypothesis and the Interactionists**

Proponents' rationale for supporting the "monolingual principle" is that the classroom is the only opportunity students receive for exposure to their L2 in the limited time available (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). With the appearance of the discipline of Second Language Acquisition in the 1970s and 1980s, which became the leading body of academic theory influencing L2 teaching, the acknowledgement of a role for learners' L1 was removed (Hall & Cook, 2012). This rationale is supported by interactionist researchers who claim that the acquisition of the L2 (which is English in many studies) is possible through pre-modified input, teachers' negative feedback, comprehensible input, and negotiation of meaning to facilitate language acquisition (Gass & Torres, 2005; Long, 1996; Mackey, 1999; Pica, Young & Doughty, 1987). An embedded assumption in this research tradition is that L2 input and output are essential to facilitate learners' acquisition, and hence learners' L1 is irrelevant. This leads to the belief that teachers should maximise the quantity of L2 input and interaction, and that the L1 should be excluded.

Krashen in his (1981, 1982) Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (CIH) claimed that learners acquire languages more effectively after exposure to comprehensible L2 input. They expressed the view that second language acquisition in adults is similar to the process of first language acquisition in children. This view was later challenged by Cook (2001), and is discussed later in this section. The hypothesis behind the naturalistic view of learning demands that it take place through natural communication, which means lone L2 use. Krashen's theory, however, has been challenged in a number of studies, which have demonstrated that it is not

pedagogically sound (e.g. Scott & Fuente, 2008; Seng & Hashim, 2006; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

According to Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009, p. 2), some educators believe that L1 should be avoided to prevent its interference with L2 acquisition. This idea of keeping the L1 and L2 separate to avoid negative transfer (Corder, 1981) was supported by Krashen (1982, p. 27), who stated that interference emerges as a result of differences between the rules governing the L1 and the L2. However, his idea is challenged as empirical evidence demonstrates that learners automatically make comparisons between their L1 and L2. Seng and Hashim (2006), for example, reported that when reading texts tertiary ESL students switched back and forth between Bahasa Melayu (L1) and English (L2), at both syntactic and semantic levels, which helped to raise their awareness of the differences between the L1 and L2. A similar finding was reported by Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) who observed that one teacher compared English (L1) and French (L2) forms, helping to demonstrate the differences between both languages' phonetic systems.

Another naturalistic proponent was Long (1983) who appears to agree with Krashen that comprehensible input is essential for acquisition, although Long also emphasised the importance of "modified input", in which two way exchanges are better than one way input. Long (1983) does not necessarily agree that the Input Hypothesis is sufficient in itself to explain second language acquisition. In his opinion, extensive attention should be directed toward learners' interactions, so that they can fully comprehend the nature of the input in the second language acquisition. Nonetheless, similar to Krashen (1981, 1982), Long's (1983) Interaction Hypothesis gives no room for L1, as he stresses the use of L2 to ensure successful L2 acquisition, as native speakers have to address non-native speakers using their L2. Swain (1985, 1995) extends this notion to include Comprehensible Output, which requires learners to produce language that helps them test their hypotheses regarding the L2. Swain (2000, p. 99) argues that output is more helpful than the input, since it triggers deeper language learning processing. However, Swain's (1985, 1995) Output Hypothesis ignores the role of L1 in facilitating interaction.

Negotiation of meaning (Long, 1883) and forced L2 production “output” (Swain, 1993) are critical in language learning, but most importantly, this negotiation should provide space for the learners’ L1. Eldridge’s (1996) study reveals it is inaccurate to assume that better competence in L2 means less use of L1. He further argues that disallowing L1 can affect motivation and confidence negatively, consequently slowing down linguistic development (Eldridge, 1996, p. 304-10). Furthermore, L1 cannot be excluded from learners’ minds, observing that even for advanced learners, as Macaro (2005, p. 68) suggests: “the language of thought for all but the most advanced L2 learners is inevitably his/her L1”. In fact, as Auerbach (1993, p. 1) proposes, the use of learners’ L1 as a linguistic resource is beneficial on all levels. Besides, some inclusion of L1 is not an obstacle to language learning; rather it is viewed as a linguistic and cognitive resource, scaffolding the development of L2 learning (Butzkamm, 1998; Eldridge, 1996; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Despite the view that even advanced students think in L1, teachers nevertheless resist the idea of including some L1 at advanced levels. For example, Bensen and Çavuşoğlu (2013), in their study on teachers’ CS in Cyprus, found teachers shared the view that L1 should not be used with high level students. Teachers’ rationale for excluding L2 at higher levels was that advanced students were better able to understand simple L2, and therefore teachers did not need to give instructions or clarify the meaning in L1. However, those teachers appear to have overlooked the reality that in advanced classes, L2 information is far from simple and some new words, especially abstract ones are quite challenging in terms of explaining ideas in L2.

Cook (2008) notes that there is no strong rationale behind banning L1 in the classroom. According to Cook, opinions that call for avoiding L1 in language classrooms rely on two assumptions: firstly, that the process of L2 learning is similar to L1 acquisition, and secondly, that language compartmentalisation occurs, separating L1 from L2. The naturalistic view that assumes adults learning a second language are similar to children acquiring their L1 is also challenged by Cook (2001). Cook (2008) notes there is no strong rationale behind banning L1 in classrooms. Cook (2001, p. 406) argues that this argument is “not convincing”

because language learning in adults differs from language learning in children. Bley-Vroman (1990, p. 4) presents some differences between L1 acquisition in children and L2 learning in adults. The adult learners, unlike child learners, have thorough knowledge of a previous language and have cognitive problem-solving skills (Bley-Vroman, 1990; Cook, 2001; Dodson, 1967). Unlike children learning their L1, adult learners already know key concepts in their L1, and when they engage in learning an L2, they reformulate known concepts (Hawkins, 1987). Bley-Vroman (1990) adds that the innate system that guides acquisition in children may no longer, or may only partially, operate in adulthood, which explains the difficulties experienced by learners learning a second language after the critical period<sup>4</sup>. Moreover, adult learners may reach a stage of language fossilisation, whereby the learners' language stabilises and ceases to develop. A further problem for adult learners is insufficient input and exposure to the L2 (Bley-Vroman, 1990; Hawkins, 1987), especially when they learn it in a country where the language is not spoken. Children learning their L1, on the other hand, have more time devoted to practising the language than adult learners of L2 (Hawkins, 1987). Therefore, learners' success or failure to learn L2 should not be compared to native speaker standards but rather to that of other L2 users (Cook, 2001).

One of the limitations of the conducted research is that it was conducted in a western rather than a cross-cultural educational context (Mitchell & Myles, 2004), where teachers are native English speakers. Macaro (2010) has also pointed out that interactionist research was carried out almost exclusively in L2 settings. Therefore, the position of learners' L1 in acquisition, according to this hypothesis, is "unclear". It is of great importance to explore the L1 in contexts where the L2 is considered a foreign language. In the present context, English is considered a foreign language and native speakers of English are considered outsiders in terms of the Arabic language, culture, and teachers' beliefs. Therefore, it is not practical to enforce monolingual teaching. Classroom instructions should take into account the need to

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<sup>4</sup> Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) "is a theory that stipulates that for a specific behaviour to develop, the organism must be exposed to the relevant input within a specific and definable time frame" (Macaro, Vanderplank, & Murphy, 2010, p. 54).

offer elements of familiarity to assist the students' perceptions of reality (Widdowson, 1994). In the present study, English bilingual teachers who are non-native speakers are the experts.

#### **2.4.1.2 Superiority of the Native speaker**

Another assumption, which is integral to the monolingual assumption relates to sociolinguistic matters. It has long been argued that a negative attitude is associated with the ideology of the superiority of the native speaker (e.g. Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Hall & Cook, 2012). This proposition is further supported by Littlewood and Yu (2011) who contend that the covert reason behind the "English only" attitude stems from western methodological traditions designed to protect the native-speaker teacher's status, thereby supporting neo-colonial control.

The notion of the superiority of monolingual teaching has dominated theories of language teaching and Second Language Acquisition since the late nineteenth century (Hall & Cook, 2012). This ideological control was imposed on teachers ignoring the important resources that bilingual teachers and students possess. In Britain, for example, the English native speaker was seen as a model for learners to imitate. British norms and language were established as universal standards (Auerbach, 1993). In the USA, native speakers of English were also seen as vehicles to impose and convey cultural values (Auerbach, 1993, p. 26). This monolingual assumption proves problematic as Skutnabb-Kangas (1995) points out, because bilingualism has a negative connotation. For example, in the USA, it was associated with being deprived, unintelligent and uneducated (Auerbach, 1993, p. 42).

Auerbach (1993) argues that the negative attitude towards CS from teachers on the micro level is associated with the attitudes toward language within society and among policy makers on the macro level. In other words, negative attitudes toward CS outside the classroom influence what happens inside the classrooms (Ferguson, 2003). This set of beliefs has had negative consequences for non-native speaker teachers. The native speaker norm has burdened non-native teachers, making them reluctant to use their L1, while others CS but feel it is wrong. As Jenkins (2000, p. 9)



highlights: “The perpetuation of the native/non-native dichotomy causes negative perceptions and self-perceptions of ‘non-native’ teachers and a lack of confidence in and of ‘non-native’ theory builders”. Mitchell (1988) attributes this to the work of methodologists who induced a sense of guilt in teachers. At the micro level, many ESL teachers still insist on using English (L2) only (e.g. Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Macaro, 2001) because policy makers still disapprove of CS in their L2 classrooms, neglecting the fact that mixing both codes can serve as the normal bilingual medium for instruction. Policy makers, however, should not ignore the fact that teachers’ own experiences mitigate the influence of such policies. Thus, it may not be appropriate or practical to dictate to teachers to exclude L2 as:

It is currently well known that teachers will not automatically change their practices once they are told about any new idea or familiarized with it. The main determinant of teacher behavior is said to be his/her theory-in-action or personal practical theory. (EL-Okda, 2005, p. 38)

Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain (2009) postulate that the origins of negative beliefs among researchers are not always a result of theory or research. Specifically, there is no practical justification for banning L1, as pointed out by Hall and Cook (2012, p. 274): “The fact that confidence in monolingual teaching has survived such changes suggests that its origins lie less in theoretical than the practical sphere”. Indeed, the authors suggest that, despite the development in language theories in the twentieth century, the monolingual assumption that stems from theory rather than practice has endured. The negative view of L1 has had a great impact on language policies. Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain, (2009) suggest that official policies, that prohibit L1 use in some language learning contexts, may be one source of these negative beliefs. Further, that the strong rationale behind supporting exclusive L2 use may be due to the success of immersion programmes developed in Canada since 1965 where teachers and students use French (L2) exclusively (Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, (2009). It is possible that proponents of L2 use might regard it as an ideal model to follow.

In opposition to the monolingual principle, numerous studies have demonstrated that L1 is inevitable in language classrooms. The monolingual ideology has been contested, especially in contexts where the typology of the L1 and L2 differ (i.e. Arabic and English, Chinese and English), adding an additional obstacle to using only L2. In Jingxia (2010), 70% of the teachers claimed that the distance between Chinese (L1) and English (L2) was a reason for the code switches, as the discrepancies between the two language systems are extensive. Additionally, it appears more reasonable to anticipate and permit some CS to naturally emerging L1 in SL and FL contexts where teachers are themselves multilingual speakers (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009), especially when teachers share the learners' L1.

Hall and Cook (2012, p. 372) highlight that this “monolingual assumption” has caused three undesirable consequences. First, it has had a “devastating” influence on the status of non-native English speaker teachers. This claim was preceded by evidence from Kang's (2008, p. 219) study, in which one teacher reported that her use of Korean (L1) to give detailed instructions regarding a complex task was due to her “less than native-speaker proficiency” in English (L2). It has been argued that the monolingual assumption also accepts that learners' should be striving to attain native speaker fluency. One of the main reasons, however, for not assuming the native speaker is the best model, is that a native speaker is not always an ideal or desirable model. It is not always the case that the English of native speakers is comprehensible, eloquent or literate (Hall & Cook, 2012; Widdowson, 1994). Impeding the development of bilingual identities is the third undesirable influence of this assumption (Hall & Cook, 2012).

The fact that English has become an international language places the notion of the “ownership” of language into critical question (Widdowson, 1994). Widdowson claims that native speakers of English in countries such as England and the USA have no custody over English and have no right to pass judgement on non-native speakers of English. Hall and Cook (2012) state that key factors that have influenced the advocacy of bilingual teaching include the belief that learners' need to preserve their linguistic and cultural identities while speaking English. In addition,

the widespread locations of non-native teachers worldwide enable them “to know what is appropriate in contexts of language use, and so to define possible target objectives” (Widdowson, 1994, p. 387). However, even today, the status of native speakers remains higher, because in general it is native speakers who dictate how non-native teachers should teach L2. Native speakers write many of the L2 textbooks (including plenty of textbooks that are used in Saudi Arabia), which include, according to them, the best teaching methods, and the best teaching. However, many of these books ignore the cultural aspect of learners and their contexts (Widdowson, 1994, p. 388).

#### **2.4.1.3 Language compartmentalisation**

According to Cook (2001, 2008), opinions that call for avoiding L1 in language classrooms rely on two assumptions: the first being that the process of L2 learning is similar to L1 acquisition, as discussed earlier, and the second that language compartmentalisation occurs, which considers L1 to be separate from the L2.

The second assumption underlying the opposition to L1 use is that both processes are inherently separate. This is embedded in the assumptions of the Audio-Lingual and Direct Methods (discussed in section 2.4.2), which consider L1 and L2 to be two separate processes. Cook (2008, p. 182) argues that assuming that both processes are separate is not justified, as they are taking place in the same mind, and it is difficult for the L2 learner to separate them. This assumes that coordinate bilingualism is the only way to learn the L2 with the exclusion of compound bilinguals<sup>5</sup> (Cook, 2008, p. 182). However, there is no evidence that both languages can be separated and, in practice, both are “interwoven” (Cook, 2008, p. 182).

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<sup>5</sup> The advocacy for treating the two languages as separate systems is embedded in direct and audio-lingual methods. They indicate that second language learning is coordinate. In the 1950s, two types of bilingualism in language teaching appeared: coordinate and compound bilingualism. While in compound bilingualism both L1 and L2 are linked, in coordinate bilingualism L1 and L2 are separated (Stern, 1992). To support coordinate bilingualism, the intralingual strategy was employed in immersion classrooms, advocating the sole use of the L2 and forbidding the use of translation (Stern, 1992).

Additional arguments suggesting learners' L1 is a cognitive tool to facilitate learning were provided by Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005). Students' L1 use in their study was an important recourse as it acted as a "backup" when the students failed to recall words (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005). Further evidence was provided by Meiring and Norman (2002), who found that the comparison between L1 and L2 is considered one resource among many other strategies that learners need to employ in the classroom to help them develop language awareness and "make sense of the learning process" (Meiring & Norman, 2002, p. 29-30). Even when teachers initiate turns in L2, learners may respond in their L1. One of the learners in Li and Walsh's (2011) study initiated a response in L1 even though the teacher asked the questions in L2. These findings support Cook's (2001) argument that L1 and L2 meanings do not exist separately in learners' minds. Even if L1 is banished from the classroom, it cannot be banished from learners' minds (Butzkamm, 1998).

#### **2.4.2 Practice: L2 Teaching methodologies supporting exclusive use of L2 in classrooms**

In foreign language teaching and learning, the role of L1 has been a controversial issue. Teaching methodologies have adopted different attitudes toward the use of L1. However, many methods have either ignored, opposed, or even denied the benefits of this practice. Cook (2008) argues that most teaching methods from the Direct Method to the Audiolingual Method have tried to avoid the use of students' L1 in the classroom. L1 was viewed as a source of interference in Behaviourist theory and the naturalistic view ignored the influence of L1 by assuming that L2 is implicitly acquired rather than explicitly learnt.

In the 1880s, the inadequacy of the Grammar Translation Method (1790-1990) led to the development of the Reform Movement in the late nineteenth century, which aimed to develop new language teaching principles (Hall & Cook, 2012).

The main aim of newer methods for teaching modern languages has been to establish meaning through association within the L2 rather than with the L1

(Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Gouin (1831-1896), who was considered one of the first reformers, drew attention to children learning their L1 (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Other reformers, such as Sauveur (1826-1907), also advocated natural principles of language learning, emphasising the similarity between L1 acquisition by children and L2 learning by adults. This interest in natural language learning principles provided a theoretical foundation for the principled approach to language teaching, which led to what was termed natural methods (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) and ultimately to the emergence of the Direct Method (Dodson, 1967) by the end of the nineteenth century.

The Direct Method (1910-1950) is based on naturalistic principles (Howatt, 2004), assuming that learners acquire their L2 in the same way that children acquire their L1. It fosters the idea of avoiding the use of the L1 in language teaching (Harbord, 1992, p. 350) by emphasising that the L2 is learnt without comparing and contrasting it with the learner's L1 (Macaro, 1997). Larsen-Freeman (1986) writes that the Direct Method acquired its name because meaning was thought to be “connected directly” to the L2 without the use of translation. The Direct Method considers L1 and L2 as two separate processes, indicating that the language process is coordinate. It perceived the L1 as a hindrance to L2 learning (Dodson, 1967). Dodson (1967, p. 91) even refers to the Direct Method as “destroying the bridge” to true bilingualism.

The extreme form of this method, promoting a “no translation” principle (Howatt, 2004; Larsen-Freeman, 1986) was reflected in the teaching methods used at Berlitz schools. The promotion of the monolingual principle in Berlitz schools became a model that was later followed by other schools (Hall & Cook, 2012), but it was only successful with motivated learners in private schools (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). It was a widespread failure in public schools where students were less motivated and where teachers were often non-native speakers of the L2 (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). In the late 1940s and 1950s, many of the Direct Method techniques were adapted and integrated into the Audiolingual method (Macaro, Vanderplank, & Murphy, 2010).

Audiolingualism (1950-1970), which reached its peak in the 1960s, also rejected the use of L1 in L2 learning (Cook, 2008). It was developed in the USA during the Second World War to meet military personnel's need to learn a foreign language in a short time (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The method developed from the Direct Method, but was also influenced by structural linguistics and the Behaviourist Theory of learning (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). Behaviourists viewed language learning as a process of developing habits with stimuli that learners respond to (Mohamed, 2007). Only correct responses were rewarded by the repetitive use of a stimulus and incorrect responses were not tolerated through negative feedback. Applying this to language learning, the L2 was viewed as a new system that differed from the L1 system. It viewed good habits as responses related to the L2, while bad habits were responses related to the L1, and old habits could interfere with the new habits resulting in errors. The problem that arose was that when learning an L1, learners formulate a certain set of responses. These habits then have to be replaced when learning the L2. The L1 was therefore perceived negatively as a source of interference, which occurs when learners transfer the L1 habits to L2 patterns.

Behaviourist theory shares with the Direct Method, the belief that the L1 and the L2 should be kept separate to avoid interference from the learners' L1 (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). This shows the Audiolingual method also supported coordinate bilingualism, which views L1 and L2 as two separate processes (Stern, 1992). Thus, the learner is not allowed to use her/his L1, and translation should be avoided (Brooks, 1960).

### **2.4.3 The Maximal position**

Proponents of this position, such as Halliwell and Jones (1991), believe that the language classroom should be taught in L2, and L1, and can only be used as the last resort. They claim that teaching in L2 gives learners a better chance to learn "effectively" (Halliwell & Jones, 1991, p. 36). They also argue that learners do not need to understand every word that the teachers say and there are other sources of meaning, such as mimes, gestures, intonation, body language, and facial expressions

(Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Macdonald, 1993). Hence, L2 can be acquired without explicit teaching (Halliwell & Jones, 1991, p. 9). However, this assumption regarding the effectiveness of instructions in L2 has been challenged. For example, Graden's (1996) study demonstrated that instructions are more "effective" when delivered using some L1. Halliwell and Jones argue that teachers need to prepare students to understand and speak in L2 from the outset, although they concede that teachers might have to resort to the students' L1 as a last resort for clarifying homework instructions or explaining difficult words. The dilemma is that their strong advocacy of remaining in the L2 is not always feasible, as demonstrated in many studies (e.g. Kang, 2008; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Su, 2006). One teacher in Kang's (2008, p. 223) study reported, "I ... if I perceive their inability to understand my TL inputs... I rush to give them L1 translations".

Proponents of L2 do not appear to consider the students' affective factors. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), for example, note that 81% of the students were happy when allowed to use their L1 in the classroom, and 70% of the learners favoured the teachers' use of Arabic (L1) in Al-Nofaie (2010). Preventing students from using their L1 can create anxiety among learners, which might have a devastating effect on L2 learning. Levine (2003) in an Internet survey found that around 40% of students agreed that generally using solely L2 causes anxiety in classrooms. Proponents of the L2 also appear to ignore the importance of motivation in L2 learning. Immersing the learners in an L2 environment and depriving them from referring to their L1 may be a source of demotivation, as demonstrated, by Stables and Wikeley's (1999, p. 30) study, in which pupils aged 14 and 15 in the West of England were asked about their attitudes towards learning modern languages. The researchers found that immersing learners, especially beginners, in predominantly L2 environments could have a "deleterious" effect on learners' motivation and involvement in L2 learning. Further evidence was provided by Graden's (1996) study, in which he compared the beliefs and practices of six secondary foreign language teachers about effective reading instruction. Teachers in his study expressed frustration with students' low motivation and lack of preparedness, which led the teachers to alter their teaching plans to accommodate the students' needs.

Similar to Halliwell and Jones (1991), Macdonald (1993) argues that when learners succeed in communicating through L2, even if it is limited, this helps them to gain confidence, enhance communication, and, consequently, increases motivation. Her claim, however, has not been justified. In Kim and Elder's (2008) research, they observed CS by native speaker teachers teaching an L2 in New Zealand secondary schools. One teacher in their study mentioned that using students' L1 (English) helped to retain their motivation.

Proponents of the maximal approach may view L1 as an easy option. Macdonald (1993, p. 6) believes that translation is "an easy way out" and that students will stop making an effort to listen if used, but that it can be used briefly as a last resort. Duff and Polio (1990) echo this sentiment in their study of 13 university foreign language teachers. They highlighted the importance of reducing L2-L1 translation and making the input more comprehensible by using verbal and non-verbal modifications. Verbal modifications include repeating utterances, slowing down speech, and paraphrasing. The non-verbal modifications made included the use of pictures and gestures (Duff & Polio, 1990). Duff and Polio (1994) recommend giving learners opportunities to produce comprehensible output.

It is worth considering that students' language level of proficiency can affect teachers' L1 use, as one teacher in Kang's (2008, p. 219) study reported, students' low level of proficiency in L2 (English) made it impossible to understand her "English-only inputs on certain occasions". Another example was from Graden's (1996) study, which compared the beliefs and practices of six secondary foreign language teachers regarding effective reading instruction. While all six teachers were unanimous in preferring the use of L2 for reading instruction, they were observed compromising this belief because their students did not perform according to expectations.



#### **2.4.4 Teaching methods support maximising L1 in classrooms**

Since the mid-1970s there has been a shift toward teaching through communication (Cook, 2008), as this became a mainstream method in the 1980s (Nunan, 2009). Proponents of the Communicative Language teaching (CLT) approach put great emphasis on learning and communication by interacting in the L2 (Nunan, 1991). Language teaching emphasised the importance of focusing on communication to develop learners' fluency and focus on meaning rather than accuracy (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The diluted version of the Communicative Approach stresses the importance of learning the language and then using it, while the more stringent version emphasises that language is learnt by using it.

The approach considers the knowledge required to use the language in different situations. CLT emphasises engaging learners in activities in which language is used to carry out meaningful tasks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Specifically, communicative competence is believed to be increased using the L2. Learner errors when employing this method are tolerated, as accuracy is perceived as complementary.

There are many models of what a CLT syllabus might look like and its principles can be applied and interpreted in different ways (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This might lead to insufficient opportunities for authentic communication in L2 if teachers misuse or misunderstand its principles (Alsaeid, 2011). Another issue with CLT is that it cannot always be used in other countries where Western methods are difficult to apply. For example, Hu (2005) argues that CLT cannot be applied in China where the education system is centrally controlled, and teachers do not have the autonomy to develop their own teaching methodologies. Another problem with implementing CLT is that the majority of teachers, according to Hu (2005), are not trained to use it in their classroom. Khamkhien (2010) also argues that promoting CLT is not appropriate in Thailand because it fails to create opportunities for authentic interaction in the L2. This is due to teachers' lack of familiarity with the CLT method. The failure to implement learner centred methods might arise from teachers needing to work harder than when employing teacher centred methods

(Alsaeid, 2011). For example, implementing CLT properly requires teachers to have competence, linguistic knowledge, time and enthusiasm to apply it in the classroom (Alsaeid, 2011).

Macaro (1997) suggests that, in CLT, the status of L1 lies along a continuum. At one end, the virtual position of L2 use is supported. Although Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that CLT allow some “judicious” L1 use and that translation may be used when needed, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) argue that L1 status in CLT is not clearly stated. Macaro, Vanderplank, and Murphy (2010), on the other hand, suggest that CLT aims to avoid using the L1 for language comparison.

Another variant of the communicative style is the Task Based Learning Method (TBL) (1990s). This emphasises the task as the core unit of instruction in L2 teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), as learners work in pairs or groups. TBL follows the traditional view of intentionally minimising L1 use (Cook, 2008). Learners are expected to comprehend, produce, and interact in the L2 during the communicative task (Nunan, 1989). However, learners can use the L1 as a last resort to gloss words or explain difficult procedural instructions, as Prabhu (1987) noted in his study.

#### **2.4.5 The Optimal position**

The third position associates L1 use with some pedagogical value. A growing body of research has recently shown support for including some L1 in L2 classrooms (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013; Macaro, 2009; Turnbull & Dailey- O’Cain, 2009), although a formula for optimal use has not been found yet (Macaro, 2009, p. 28). Support for this position emerged in many empirical studies (e.g., Al-Shidhani, 2009; Hobbs, Matsuo, & Payne, 2010; Levine, 2003; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005; Yao, 2011). These studies showed that CS to L1 serves as a useful pedagogical tool, assisting classroom management, and affective and interpersonal functions (discussed in sections 2.6 & 2.7). Some other studies (e.g. Kang, 2008; Mitchell, 1988; Su, 2006) present teachers’ attitudes toward CS, showing it is still used even when the context supports exclusive use of L2. Macaro (2001) also argues that no study has yet

confirmed the relationship between the exclusion of L1 and improved learning. Stern (1992) expresses similar views when advocating the use of some translation in the early stages of language learning; this is then gradually reduced as the language learner advances, helping the learner attain proficiency in L2. He proposes that the content and objectives of language courses determine the use of translation. According to Stern, it is important to consider that if the aim is to teach translation, then L1 can be pursued, but if the goal is to teach communicative skills then L2 should be used. Stern (1992) also notes that explanations in L2 do not guarantee comprehension.

This proposition to employ the “judicious” use of L1 is further supported by many researchers, as they believe it can provide important cognitive support for L2 learners (e.g. Antón & Dicamilla, 1999; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). According to Swain and Lapkin (2000), L1 is a communicative tool that aids the negotiation of meaning and therefore comprehension in L2, especially among lower-achieving students who need the L1 to accomplish tasks successfully. Swain and Lapkin however supported systematic use of L1. Similarly, Kern’s (1994) study, which examined students in college French classrooms, found L1 use had a number of benefits, including reducing working memory constraints, easing affective barriers, conserving meaning in long-term memory, and making meaning at the phrase and discourse levels more comprehensible. In a similar vein, Cook (2001) calls for the “systematic” use of L1 inside classrooms. Cook argues that it can link L1 and L2 knowledge in the learners’ minds and help them carry out learning tasks. He backs up his argument by providing evidence from studies in vocabulary (Beauvillain & Grainger, 1987), phonology (Obler, 1982), syntax (Cook, 1994), and pragmatics (Locastro, 1987).

#### **2.4.6 Some guidelines for optimal L1 use**

The review of research on CS in second language acquisition revealed that many researchers call for its judicious use, proposing different guidelines based on their empirical research. They have adopted various theoretical frameworks regarding CS in the classroom. While for example Macaro (2001) and Atkinson (1987) are

concerned with the appropriate amount of CS, Cook (2001) is most concerned with the most appropriate functions for optimal use of CS.

According to Macaro (2005, p. 81), the principled use of CS can be achieved by using L2 “predominantly” and CS should either facilitate interaction or improve L2 learning or both. He further suggests a threshold of 10-15% teacher usage of CS in L2 classrooms; above this percentage, the purpose of principled CS use changes and L2 learning might be negatively affected. A slightly lower percentage is proposed by Atkinson (1987), for whom a suitable percentage of CS use in L2 classrooms is about 5%. These suggested ratios give some room for CS in the L2 classroom, especially for teachers teaching students in the early stages of acquiring the language. Arguably, teachers should have the authority to judge what the best ratio for CS to L2 exclusivity is for their own students.

Four guidelines for the teachers’ systematic use of CS, were suggested by Cook (2001, p. 418). The first guideline relates to the efficacy of CS. It is cited when teachers provide explanations and instructions in the L1 “where the cost of L2 is too great”, if the switch were not to take place. The second guideline relates to the learning of the L2, where teachers aim to link L1 and L2 knowledge in the learners’ minds (this was also suggested by Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). Cook’s third suggestion is natural L1 dialogue, whereby students and teachers are engaged in genuine collaborative dialogues when carrying out the learning tasks to foster L2 learning. However, this third suggestion is contested in contexts similar to the present study where the IRF sequence is prevalent, making it extremely challenging for teachers to engage students in genuine communication. The fourth guideline is of relevance to the outside world, where teachers develop some L2 activities involving CS to help learners use it later in real life. It could be said that real life might signify their career, which means that students who can operate within two language systems might increase their chances of having successful careers. It has also been argued the amount of CS used should depend on the aims of the L2 course.

In order to optimise CS in the second language classroom, Tian and Macaro (2012, p. 383) recommend that teachers should create a communicative classroom, where the pedagogical goal is to communicate meaning through L2. In addition, classroom interaction should illustrate that the matrix or predominant language is L2, but that teachers and learners respect most of the norms from the “naturalistic environment”. They further add that teachers should make a conscious decision to avoid frequent CS when providing meaning for unfamiliar words (Tian & Macaro, 2012). Based on Vygotsky’s theoretical perspective, Swain and Lapkin (2013) further suggest that students should be allowed to use their L1 when working on complex ideas to mediate their thinking and understanding. However, they recommend that as students’ L2 proficiency develops, students should gradually be encouraged to mediate their understanding through L2. Teachers should also make expectations about L1-L2 use clear to students, to create a comfortable environment in the classroom (Swain & Lapkin, 2013). Further, explicit expectations are also pertinent to inaugurating an L2 environment in the classroom. As it is not logical to make students forget about knowledge already attained, the L1 can be usefully employed to clarify L1-L2 linguistic comparisons, or to deliver the meaning of abstract words to mediate L2 development (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2013). According to Mcmillan and Turnbull (2009), CS to L1 can be perceived as principled when used with words that have no L1 cognates, or which are not readily explained by paraphrasing or through pictures or gestures. Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012) on the other hand suggest that teachers should avoid frequent one-to-one translations, which might encourage students to rely overly on translation and impede their use of other cognitive strategies, such as working hard to think about and solve problems in L2.

Arriving however at definitive principles can be challenging, as teaching English to students whose L1 is Arabic, where the two languages have different alphabets and are not related, is not the same as teaching English to French students. One should also consider the dynamics of the contexts in which the L2 is taught. There are no established principles for an appropriate proportion of teachers’ CS, but it is highly problematic to establish a prescribed amount of L2 (Edstrom, 2006;

McMillan & Rivers, 2011). It should depend as Hall and Cook (2012, p. 294) recommend “on the teacher’s and learners’ perceptions of its legitimacy, value and appropriate classroom functions”, as the use of CS is intrinsically linked to its functions; therefore, it might be more acceptable to use it in some situations than in others (Edstrom, 2006). What an optimal amount of CS might be, is, however, bound by many factors including the context, age of learners, students’, and teachers’ level of proficiency in L2, teachers’ teaching methods, teachers’ beliefs about this practice, and associated policies.

Tian and Macaro (2012) argue that research on CS in the language classroom should be carried out in an educational context where the emphasis is on meaning and the communication of meaning. They appear to imply that principled CS can only be employed in CLT environments; however, this does not consider other contexts such as that of the present study, where language classrooms are still dominated by teachers, and the IRF sequence remains prevalent as the main form of communication between teachers and students. If principled use can only be applied in communicative classrooms, then the present context cannot be claimed to be an ideal environment to apply principled CS. It is not always easy to introduce methods or approaches to countries such as in the present context where they have different educational traditions from the countries where the CLT or other approaches were developed. This raises the question of whether there is an alternative model that can be applied in contexts such as the present one to achieve ideal use of L1.

#### **2.4.7 Teaching methods supporting L1 use**

The literature reveals there are teaching methods that support the use of L1 use such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), which relies heavily on grammar explanation and translation rather than focusing on fluency (Cook, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012). This is based on the belief that learners can learn modern languages the same way Latin and Greek were learnt (Macaro, 1997). Words in the L2 are compared and contrasted with words in L1. The learners can then translate some exercises into L2. Once learners master L2, they are asked to translate chunks of L2 from the classical texts into L1. Translation enabled them to comprehend the

classics and read the literature in the L2 (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Macaro, 1997). Despite the fact that it is not perceived as an effective teaching tool (Hawkins, 1987), and despite the negative reputation it received (Cook, 2008), the GTM is still applied “in watered-down forms” (Macaro, 2005, p. 66).

In addition to the GMT, the New Concurrent Method is available as an option linking L1 and L2. The New Concurrent Method allows the controlled use of CS to L1 (Cook, 2008). The method was developed by Jacobson in 1981, aiming to incorporate CS that existed in the community for teaching to support learning (Faltis, 1990). In this method, the teacher speaks in one language and then translates what has been said into the other language (Butzkamm, 1998). The teacher is then allowed to switch to L1 at certain points to praise or discipline, or determine when students are distracted (Cook, 2008). The four main criteria required for classroom CS are:

- 1- Both languages are to be used for equal amounts of time;
- 2- The teaching of content is not to be interrupted;
- 3- The decision to switch between the two languages is in response to a consciously identified cue; and
- 4- The switch must relate to specific learning adjective (Jacobson, 1983, p. 120 as cited in Faltis, 1990, p. 47).

This method indicates heavy reliance on direct translation, as well as the teacher centred approach to language teaching. This reliance on teachers’ input could be insufficient for L2 acquisition, because of the absence of two-way interaction between teachers and students. It shares with GTM, the feature of relying on the learners’ L1 as the medium of instruction. Adhering to the third criterion indicates that only inter rather intra sentential CS is allowed in the classroom. Jacobson seems to contradict himself, because the second criterion requires that the teacher remains in full control, which violates the core concept integrated into this approach, which is that CS inside the classroom must resemble the patterns in the outside community. Therefore, CS is not used as a normal or authentic means of communication in which both L1 and L2 are used concurrently.

Butzkamm (1998, p. 82) believes that this method has proven to be a “failure”, because it prompts students to pay attention to the message uttered in their L1 and not pay attention to the L2. Butzkamm also briefly mentioned that this method or “technique” was used with minority students learning subject matter through the L2 (English).

Community Language Learning (CLL) also allows some translation (Cook, 2008), especially in the early stages, on the grounds that learning a new language can be “threatening” so that teachers should recognise their learners’ limitations and avoid overwhelming them (Larsen-freeman, 1986, p. 96- 100). Curran developed CLL in 1972 (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), by applying psychological counselling techniques to language learning, referred to as counselling learning. The techniques were intended to reduce the affective factors in second language learning by drawing on the counselling metaphor and referring to the teacher as a counsellor and the learners as clients. CLL bears some resemblance to the natural approach, in which learners are not expected to speak until they attain some level of comprehension. Another language teaching tradition with which CLL is associated with was what Mackey (1972) refers to as “language alternation” in which the message is first presented in the L1 and then translated in the L2. The teacher records the conversations and translations so the students can practice them (Cook, 2008). At the end of the session, the learners inductively seek information about the L2 (Brown, 2000). As the learners gain greater proficiency in the L2, the teacher provides less translation.

Another method that links L1 and L2 is Dodson’s Bilingual Method (Stern, 1992), which was developed by Dodson in 1967. In this method, the teacher interprets an L2 sentence in L1 and then the students repeat it. According to Dodson (1967), this method utilises L1 in second language classrooms to achieve mastery of the L2. The main aim of this method is to encourage learners to build up their oral and written proficiency to “achieve true bilingualism” (Dodson, 1967, p. 66). He describes it as the ability to switch efficiently from one language to the other. Like the New Concurrent Method, translation is used to deliver meaning and consists of



entire sentences. In addition, teachers initiate the translation of L2 sentence into the L1.

It can be concluded that the role of L1 in language teaching and learning differs among different methods and approaches. The oldest method, which is GMT, places great emphasis on translating from L2 into L1, and the language that is used in the classroom is mostly the learners' L1 (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). CLL also places some emphasis on using translation, especially in the early stages. Unlike the GTM, which relies on teaching grammatical rules explicitly to enable students to appreciate literature, CLL emphasises communication, integrating culture and language (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The GMT, the New Concurrent Method, the Bilingual Method, and CLL deliberately utilise L1 in the language classroom. They seem to advocate compound bilingualism, which allows translations from and into the L2 (Stern, 1992).

In contrast, the Direct Method and Audiolingual Method adopt an extreme virtual position that allows no translation, and supports intralingual strategies. The CLT and TBL method lie on the continuum between the limited use of L1 and the exclusive use of L2.

#### **2.4.8 Post-methods era**

Since teachers appear to be central to decision making processes in the post-method era; their L1 use could be included or excluded according to their beliefs, teaching styles, backgrounds, and the context in which they teach.

In the 1990s, there was criticism of the notion of method. The 20<sup>th</sup> century was further characterised as the era of the rise and fall of the diversity of language teaching approaches and methods ranging from Audio-lingual Method to CLT, and while some achieved widespread recognition, others declined shortly after they came into existence (Liu, 2004). The solution to overcome the deficiency in one method was seen in the adoption of new teaching approaches and methods (Richards &

Rodgers, 2001). Nunan (1991, p. 228) summed this up, thus: “It has been realised that there never was and probably never will be a method for all”.

This widespread dissatisfaction in the 1990s led to a shift from the traditional concept of method toward what Kumaravadivelu (1994) called the “postmethod condition”, in which the relationship between theorists and the teachers or practitioners of the methods was refigured, by empowering teachers and students to be more autonomous and reflective. Rather than subscribing to a single set of theoretical principles and to a single set of procedures, teachers using the post-method condition developed an approach in line with contextual factors.

Despite the claims of the post-methodists, the notion of method did not appear to disappear completely, in the teachers’ minds at least. Teachers in Bell’s (2007) study expressed the need to be exposed to all methods to provide a foundation for their own teaching. After interviewing thirty teachers in an MA programme in the USA, Bell (2007) concluded that methods are still used by teachers who appear to find them beneficial while recognising the need to adapt them. Bell’s finding reinforces Richards and Rodgers’ (2001) argument that approaches and methods play a significant role in the development of language teaching, and therefore they will continue to be useful, especially for student teachers wishing to familiarise themselves with the strategies and techniques for presenting the lesson. As this post method era allows teachers to develop their personal approach to teaching, it entails teachers to decide whether to include or exclude the L1 from their daily practices.

After tracing views of the role of L1 in L2 learning, as discussed by language learning theorists, and the role of L1 in relation to L2 teaching methods, the next section presents evidence of the benefits or deficits of CS, followed by a discussion of the functions of CS.

#### **2.4.9 Empirical evidence about L1 use in language classrooms**

As sustained debate continued for decades regarding whether to include or exclude L1 in the foreign and second language classrooms, researchers became

increasingly interested in the field of English language teaching. However, the focus of this debate has been altered in recent years, and the extent to which L1 should be implemented as an effective technique in classrooms to enhance learning is now a priority. To be more precise, the more plausible question has become: what does the principled use of L1 mean in different educational contexts (see Section 2.4.6 for a discussion of principled use)? The effectiveness of teachers' use of the learners' L1 is currently a key area for empirical researchers (Lee & Macaro, 2013).

#### **2.4.10 Call for maximal L1 use**

Given the official pedagogical policy to maximise use of English in the L2 classroom, Liu, Ahn, Beak, and Han (2004) investigated teachers' CS among 13 high school teachers and students. The discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices confirmed the results of other studies (e.g. Kang, 2008). Unexpectedly, teachers' L2 use was rather lower than the researchers anticipated; 32% on average. By audio-recording classroom discourse, data analysis revealed that teachers switched to Korean mostly in an apparently unprincipled way as a scaffolding technique, most often to explain grammar, vocabulary, and background information. The researchers suggested that teachers switched to Korean when faced with students' lack of comprehension. The researchers indicated that perhaps because of the students' low proficiency in L2, the teachers may have preferred CS (the same results were confirmed in numerous studies, e.g. Kang, 2008; Su, 2006), as more effective than modified L2 input strategies. CS to Korean was used less when it came to greetings and classroom management. The survey results revealed teachers' CS was more directed by teachers' beliefs and the teaching context than the curriculum guidelines. This appears to reflect a belief in the teacher as the facilitator of knowledge (Pedersen & Liu, 2003), whose obligation is to make L2 accessible to students. The switches appeared to be triggered by four factors: the teachers' proficiency in the L2 (one teacher noted that her "broken English" might affect her students' learning). The second reason they believed to be related to students' difficulty understanding spoken English. These reasons were also cited in other studies (Mitchell, 1988; Franklin, 1990; Macaro, 2001). The other two reasons, the national examination and time constraints, appeared to suggest the teachers CS to L1

was to some extent unprincipled, because they do not help students' progress in their L2. The study also emphasises the teachers' own attitudes and beliefs about maintaining an interactive flow as more prominent than following curriculum guidelines. Although Liu et al.'s (2004) study investigated how teachers' language use affected the students' immediate language choice, their study lacks evidence of the link between teachers' CS and students' learning. According to the authors, determining optimal L1 and L2 use in classroom remains a challenge.

Several empirical studies in immersion settings have offered promising results for teaching primarily in the L1. In an immersion setting, where the monolingual approach has been supported by the official policy, McMillan and Turnbull (2009) demonstrated that judicious L1 holds the potential to enhance students' L2 comprehension and production. McMillan and Turnbull (2009) investigated two immersion teachers' beliefs about CS in Grade 7 and late French immersion in Canada. McMillan and Turnbull highlight that both teachers had internalised beliefs about CS, which had been affected by their personalities, backgrounds and schooling years, and preferred learning styles. In agreement with Ministerial guidelines, the first teacher Frank reported that the L1 did not have a place in his classroom, corresponding with what Macaro (2001) refers to as the virtual position. Frank did not do translation activities, as he believed that L1 causes interference with L2 (English). The teacher managed to conduct almost the entire class using L2 using occasional L1-L2 words and cognates to maximise exposure to the L2. He avoided making comparisons between L1 and L2 structures. This teacher acknowledged that students may sometimes need to use L1 to complete their work, and therefore he accepted students use certain amounts of L1 amongst themselves as "natural" and "unavoidable". However, he had high expectations ultimately for almost complete L2 use on the students' part. In contrast with Frank, the other teacher, Pierre, used many translations, especially at the beginning of the programme to ensure comprehension. His maxim was to provide rich exposure to the L2 and L1 where needed, in order to ensure comprehension and scaffold L2 production (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009, p. 24). Pierre aspired not to cause frustration among his students. Therefore, he deliberately decided to reduce L1 gradually to very little.

McMillan and Turnbull concluded their study with a call to reconsider L2 only policies, suggesting further research that will help teachers improve their own strategies to develop students' exposure to L2, and construct personalised strategies to L1 and L2 use that are pedagogically principled, rather than blindly following official policy, as teachers can act as "bilingual dictionaries" to react to their students' needs (Butzkamm, 1998).

McMillan and Rivers (2011) is one of few studies that investigated teachers' beliefs regarding using only L2 (English) in the classroom. A survey of 29 native-English speaker teachers' beliefs at a Japanese university were explored revealing that teachers have mixed attitudes toward L2 only policies. A significant number of teachers showed support for the L1, to enhance communication, cognition (e.g. cross language comparison), and affective and interpersonal functions (e.g. build rapport, add humour) in the classroom. Some believed that principled L1 was compatible with CLT. Thirteen teachers on the other hand believed that the L2 only environment resulted in more negotiation in the L2 and increased exposure to the L2. Similar to the teacher in McMillan and Turnbull's (2009) study, some teachers in McMillan and Rivers' (2011) study embraced the "virtual position" (Macaro, 2001), as they believed that the classroom should follow the policy prescribed by the university. In general, teachers believe that use of the L1 can be counterproductive in L2 classroom in that it does not support L2 acquisition. McMillan and Rivers (2011, p. 258) concluded, a "one size fits all" policy perceives any amount of L1 as bad practice, but the L1 should not be considered as an all or nothing at all option. They suggest that teachers could follow an "English-mainly" rule, allowing students' selective L1 choices or L2 only depending on the tasks they are involved in. Similar to McMillan and Turnbull (2009), McMillan and Rivers (2011) call to develop teachers' personalised approaches to CS in order to maximise L2 comprehension and production. One of the limitations in the study is that the data came from one data source: a survey. Not exploring Japanese teachers' beliefs, or those who share the same L1 with students was another limitation. The Japanese EFL classroom however was explored by Edstrom (2006), who aimed to match her perception as the researcher with her students. Similar to McMillan and Rivers (2011), Edstrom (2006)

called for maximal L2 use in the EFL classroom, and considered her infrequent use of L2 as a sign of laziness, despite the fact, as suggested by Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2009, p.142-43), CS can enhance learning, and help learners attain the goal of “aspiring bilingualism, in that it allows learners to interact as a fluent bilingual speakers do”.

In general, there is a paucity of empirical research demonstrating the efficacy of either a CS or L2 only approach to learners' linguistic development, as research into CS in the classroom inclines to be descriptive rather than design interventionist (Lin, 2013). Therefore, a call for more experimental design research to provide evidence regarding how the L1 could aid learners' acquisition in the long term has been proposed by many researchers (e.g. Ferguson, 2009, Tain & Macaro, 2012). Such research might present justifications for incorporating or not incorporating learners' L1 into teachers' talk. Such evidence would also raise the status of non-native English teachers whose status had been diminished by many factors, starting from the research tradition of the interactionists (discussed earlier in section 2.4.1.1) to the promotion of native speaker norms (discussed earlier in section 2.4.1.2), to the untested benefits of monolingual instructions.

#### **2.4.11 Evidence on the benefit or deficit of teachers' CS**

One promising area that may pave alternative route to monolingual ideology is focus-on-form research. This challenged the ideology behind the maximal position that encouraged adherence to the L2; assuming that it will produce better input and that the result has no theoretical foundation (see Lee & Macaro, 2013; Tian & Macaro, 2012). These studies also illustrate that using the L2 assisted students' vocabulary learning, and that learners appreciated the bilingual approach to learning, adding weight to the validity of bilingual approach.

Examples of experimental studies collecting evidence on the influence of CS switching on vocabulary acquisition were reported by Macaro (2009), who presented the findings of two studies on the effect of teacher CS on students' vocabulary acquisition in reading classes. The sample for the first study consisted of 159

Chinese learners of English, aged 16, who were randomly assigned to two different conditions: CS versus paraphrasing. The teacher in the first condition provided an L1 equivalent of words that she recognised her students were unfamiliar with, as determined in a pre-test of vocabulary knowledge. The same teacher in the second condition provided students with L2 definitions of the same unfamiliar words. Both types of information were provided to the third control group. In both the immediate and delayed post-tests, there were no significant differences found between the three groups. Macaro (2009, p. 43) proposed that there appeared to be “no harm” in providing L1 equivalents in reading activities in terms of vocabulary acquisition, and he hypothesised that providing L1 vocabulary equivalents reduces learners’ cognitive load.

Continuing with the experimental approach to challenging the virtual hegemony, Tian and Macaro (2012) provided an experimental design study in the lexical focus-on-form context. They examined the effects of teacher CS on second language vocabulary acquisition during listening comprehension activities. They stratified 80 first-year students of English at a Chinese university according to their L2 proficiency and performance on vocabulary tests. They compared these with 37 students in a control group who had not received any lexical focus-on-form treatments. The students were allocated into three groups: non-code switching (NCS), code switching (CS) and control conditions (CONT). The first group received vocabulary explanations in L2. The second group was exposed to brief L1 switching by teachers, and the CONT group did not receive any lexical focus on form (incidental learning). They reported preliminary evidence that teacher CS may be “superior to” L2 only instruction, as lexical focus on form assists in enhanced vocabulary learning when compared to incidental exposure. The data also showed that even students who were exposed to L2 only conditions tended to recall in Chinese. Although the benefits were not sustained long term, the students who received L1 equivalents benefited more when compared to those who were exposed to L2 only conditions. This result was confirmed by Lee and Macaro (2013). Tian and Macaro (2012) posed a very important suggestion, that principled CS merits on the long term needs further examination.

Another form-focused investigation in a communicative context was conducted by Viakinnou-Brinson, Herron, Cole, and Haight (2012). They investigated the relative effect of teacher CS on grammar. Their study is considered significant, due to its contribution to the debate on classroom research on L2 only instructions. Viakinnou-Brinson et al. set out to examine whether grammar should be taught applying L1-L2 or L2 only explanations in relation to ten grammatical structures. The participants in their study comprised 63 US college students enrolled on a French elementary course. All the students were taught both conditions as each one received four targeted grammar structures in the L2 only condition and four grammar structures in the L1/L2 condition, as provided by one instructor. When retested on the grammar structures at the end of the semester, they found the students in the French only condition performed better than when exposed to mixed instruction in the L1/L2. This finding might indicate that even students with limited proficiency in L2 could benefit from L2 instruction. Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012, p. 85) argue that L2 only instruction may have prompted students to utilise their cognitive strategies (e.g. figure things out, forced to think in French). The results of their study, however, need to be viewed with some caution, as the effect of L2 instruction could be a short-term effect. In addition, the research design, and learners' level of proficiency might have affected the results.

Adding to the ongoing debate on the optimality of CS in the L2 classroom, further empirical support for CS was furnished by Lee and Macaro (2013) in their quantitative exploration of 729 students (sixth graders (n=443)) and Korean college freshmen (n=286)) learning English in Korea. A context in which policy makers demanded maximisation of L2 in the classroom. After each of four sessions, specific target English words in a reading text were explained verbally by teachers, even when the students did not ask, either in English (for the group in English only condition) or in Korean (the group in CS condition). In general, the findings suggested that CS benefitted vocabulary learning and retention for both groups. In terms of immediate recall for both groups, providing L1 equivalents was more effective than giving L2 only information. In terms of retention, the young learners'



gains were higher from CS instruction than those of adult learners were. Their findings indicate that teachers' principled choices about optimal CS should consider the learners' ages. It might be that younger learners would benefit more from CS than adult learners, especially in terms of long term retention. Their study, alongside that of Tian and Macaro (2012), contributes to the ongoing debate on the optimality of CS in the L2 classroom, although the findings of both studies do not present conclusive evidence that CS aids language learning in the long term more effectively than providing an L2 only pedagogy.

The results of previous studies confirm that lexical focus-on-form improves vocabulary acquisition more than incidental learning alone. More significantly, the results afford preliminary evidence that teacher CS to L1 may be superior to providing L2 information only, and that allowing principled L1 use in the communicative L2 classroom might reduce learners' cognitive load, freeing up "processing capacity to focus on the meaning of the text as a whole" (Macaro, 2009, p. 43).

Arguably, glossing is also one of the areas of research that might serve to demonstrate the efficacy of integrating learners' L1 or L2 into second language vocabulary acquisition. Although a number of studies have explored the effect of the use of L1 glosses (Jacobs, Dufon, & Hong, 1994; Miyasako, 2002; Yoshii, 2006), the findings are inconclusive. Seemingly, these inclusive results may be due to the research design. Jacobs et al. (1994) and Yoshii (2006) reported that learners benefit from glosses, whether the gloss is an L1 or an L2; this might suggest that it is unnecessary to use L1 glosses, especially with higher proficiency learners. Although Jacobs et al.'s (1994) called for the maximisation of L2 glosses, their study did not support such strong claims. Yoshii (2006) argues that in terms of enhancing vocabulary learning, both L1 and L2 were effective. In contrast, Miyasako (2002) reported the advantages of L2 over L1 glosses, especially for higher-proficiency learners. Miyasako found the L2 glosses group outperformed their counterparts who were provided with L1 glosses. However, additional research is needed to explore the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses in the short and long terms, specifically to

examine which gloss type is more effective for learners at different proficiency levels.

## **2.5 Variations in the quantity of CS across studies**

Researchers have attempted to quantify acceptable L1 use. For instance, studies carried out by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) showed high frequencies of L1, whereas, Macaro's (2001) study showed lower frequencies of L1 use. These studies in general quantified the use of L1 and L2 in two ways: counting words in both languages (e.g. Duff & Polio, 1990; Macaro, 2001) or time spent producing words in each language (e.g. Liu et al., 2004; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002). Duff and Polio (1990), who used 15-second sampling,<sup>6</sup> reported wide variability in the level of L1 use: from 90% in the highest case to 0%, with an average of about 27.8%. In a similar context, a lower percentage of L1 use was reported by Macaro (2001). A recording of a 5-second sampling procedure<sup>7</sup> revealed that L1 use ranged between 0% and 15.2% of the lesson. In a similar context, a high percentage of L1 use was reported by Hobbs et al. (2010). They reported that non-native teachers (NNS) employed the L1 around 70% to 75% of the time, which was a dramatic contrast to the 20% proposed by NS. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) reported a low percentage of teachers' L1 use, ranging from 0% to 18.15%. They believed that this was due to the participants' high levels of proficiency in L2. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) also reported that average L1 use is about 20% in secondary groups and up to 40% in intermediate groups. These studies illustrate that L1 varies from one level to another, and/or between lessons within the same setting, and/or across lessons. The main common variables influencing L1/L2 use that were mentioned in the previous studies included students' proficiency level, teachers' own beliefs about L1 use, the training programme, and national or departmental policy. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) contributed an additional reason; stating that non-native speakers of L2, who share their L1 with the learners tend to rely more on L1 during the lessons than native speaker teachers of the L2.

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<sup>6</sup> They used a digital watch that stopped every 15 second.

<sup>7</sup> He used the audio-recorded bleep that played every 5 seconds.

These results however need to be interpreted with caution, due to the different methods used to estimate the amount of L1 used in classrooms. It was expected that a higher quantity of L1 would be used in such cases, because the teachers in Macaro's (2001) study worked with students with lower socio economic backgrounds. This relatively smaller percentage could be attributed to the fact that the researcher was also the teachers' supervisor. Furthermore, there were also potential influences from factors, aside from participation in the programme, such as the students themselves, the study context, and the education programme itself. The variations noted in the context, include differing levels of teachers' L1, because FL teachers work in different institutions under different conditions, teaching different types of lessons and skills, using different research tools and instruments and different methods of quantification.

Tain and Macaro (2012, p. 271) argue there is a "lack of guiding principle". Furthermore, some studies do not specify a "general pedagogical approach". Some of the researchers responsible for measuring the amount of L1 use in classrooms did not inform us whether the pedagogical approach in this setting communicated meaning, or whether the teacher compared L1 and L2 "grammatically and lexically". Tian and Macaro (2012, p. 371) further claim there is "little value in measuring the amount of L1 use during grammar translation lessons".

## **2.6 Classifications of CS functions**

Edstrom (2006) points out that although the results of empirical studies have indicated considerable variation in terms of the quantities of CS used, and although they have diverse labels, the functions of CS are relatively similar across different contexts. A multitude of studies has attempted to classify the functions of CS (e.g. De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Duff & Polio, 1990, Macaro, 1997; Potowski, 2009). Some have concentrated on teachers' CS, while others have targeted students' CS. However, an absence of "guiding principles" (Tian & Macaro, 2012, p. 370) is evident in research attempting to identify the functions of L1 use. The research suggests, as Ferguson (2009, p. 231) notes, a lack of "agreed taxonomy of pedagogical functions" and the list is "open-ended". The reason for this is the

difficulty of allocating distinct precise meanings to each switch. Different researchers have used different classifications codifying the functions of CS (Jingxia, 2010; Potowski, 2009). In addition, it is an extremely difficult task to decide with confidence on the functions of CS, as it makes it extremely difficult to compare data without inconsistencies arising in the CS functions across different studies (Potowski, 2009). Those researchers who have attempted to quantify or label functions have focused on how teachers' CS might facilitate immediate production, rather than on how interactions in L1 can assist second language learning in the long term (Ferguson, 2009). It could be claimed that teachers' use of CS is beneficial, but its usefulness might vary depending on the level of development of the learner's interlanguage and the discrepancy between the L1 and L2 language systems (Duff & Polio, 1990).

Reviewing the literature regarding the different classifications proposed by different researchers assisted the design of the questionnaire developed for the present study. The literature is classified into three categories in Table 2.1: pedagogical, classroom management, and affective and interpersonal functions. Here the pedagogical function is similar to Potowski's (2009, p. 97) 'on task' category. It refers to items pertaining to the delivery of EFL materials, such as clarifying or checking instructions or comprehension, and translating items. In contrast classroom management, refers to items that involve organising the students and classroom, such as organising pair/group work, dealing with latecomers, or disciplining students and seating arrangements or items that are not academic related but enable students to complete what they are working on. If a purely communicative classroom was being observed in this study, and this was a stronger version of communicative language teaching, then the distinction between these two categories might not have been justified. In such an approach, the communicative aspects of 'language functions', which pertain to classroom management, inform the aim as well as the method for teaching the language, as they are central to the pedagogical functions (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011) (Nature of interaction at ELI is discussed in Chapter 8, section 8.10).

Interpersonal affective and interpersonal functions are similar to Potowski's (2009, p. 97) 'off task' categories and involve discourse that might help to build rapport or add humour, etc. There is also evidence of overlap in this functional category.

Although researchers did not follow the functional classifications of CS, the current thesis uses three classifications inspired by the literature. Although the study focused on teachers' CS, the learners' CS is also reported; this permits comparisons between teachers' beliefs about their students' L1 use, what was observed, and the literature. After presenting different classifications, the key limitations are discussed.

Table 2:1 Functional classifications of code switching

	<b>Pedagogical Functions</b>	<b>Classroom Management Functions</b>	<b>Affective and Interpersonal functions</b>
<b>Teachers' CS</b>			
Ferguson (2003, 2009)	CS for curriculum access	CS for classroom management	CS interpersonal relations
Probyn (2009)	Cognitive reasons		Affective goals
Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999)	Topic switching, Repetitive functions e.g. when teachers convey the same message in both languages for clarity		Affective functions, e.g. spontaneous expression of emotions, Linguistic insecurity, Socialising functions e.g. when teachers turn to the students' L1 to signal friendship and solidarity
<b>Learners' use of L1</b>			
Eldridge (1996)	Equivalence: this is the use of or elicitation of an equivalent item in the other code, Metalanguage, Reiteration	Floor holding, Alignment and misalignment: this function relates to social roles the speakers adopt to signal change of footing (Goffman's (1974) term) and to negotiate different roles	Conflict control to mitigate a face-threatening act,  Group membership
Swain and Lapkin (2000)	Moving the task along, Sequencing: e.g. understanding pieces of information; developing an understanding of the story, Vocabulary search	Focusing attention	Interpersonal interaction: e.g. disagreement
Moodley (2007)	Seeking clarification and providing explanation, Elaboration to expand an idea, Reiteration, CS for expressing candidates answers and point of view	For group management and influencing peer behaviour,  For claiming the floor	

As depicted in Table 2.1, several classifications of the functions for classroom CS have been proposed. The classifications proposed by several authors consist of similar or overlapping functions but use different terms. Thus, it is difficult to classify switches to discrete types, since they can overlap; one switch can fulfil more than one function. For example, what Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) refer to as ‘affective and socialising’ functions can overlap. In addition, equivalence, metalanguage explanations, and reiteration (Eldridge, 1996) can all fall under one category, pedagogical functions. In Swain and Lapkin’s classification (2000), vocabulary search, explanation, and retrieval of grammatical information functions, are subcategories of the ‘focusing attention’ category. In my opinion, it might be better to place these under the ‘moving the task along’ category. Additionally, Swain and Lapkin’s classification falls short when accounting for switches like floor claiming, or alignment and misalignment with the teacher or group focus, while Probyn’s (2009) classification fails to account for switches related to interpersonal relations, such as negotiating different identities. On the other hand, Moodley’s (2007) classification is considerably more detailed. For instance, seeking clarification, elaboration, and reiteration all usually falls under the pedagogical functions category. Moodley’s classification has also fallen short when accounting for switches regarding personal interactions.

A multitude of studies discuss the functions of L1, but as the present study is concerned with teachers’ CS, Ferguson’s (2003, 2009) functions were adopted, as he proposed a comprehensive classification. However, functions from Probyn (2009), and Mattsson and Burenhult (1999), have been adapted to provide a more comprehensive classification system that accounts for the majority of switches. This division was used in the questionnaire developed for the present study.

- 1- Pedagogical functions;
- 2- Classroom management: adapted from Ferguson (2003, 2009); and
- 3- Affective and interpersonal functions including switches: adapted from Ferguson (2003, 2009), Mattsson and Burenhult (1999), and Probyn (2009).

## **2.7 The classifications used in the current study**

### **2.7.1 Pedagogical functions**

The term pedagogical functions is similar to the term “curriculum access” used by Ferguson (2003) in his review paper about L1 use in some post-colonial contexts. According to him, it means helping learners to comprehend the subject matter of the lesson (Ferguson, 2003, p. 39). The term “curriculum access” was also used in Üstünel and Seedhouse’s (2005) study in Turkey. In the present study, I did not adopt the exact term “curriculum access” in the strict sense. Ferguson’s category was expanded to include switches beyond helping learners to understand the subject matter such as explaining difficult vocabulary, clarifying grammar, eliciting responses from learners, assigning tasks, and clarifying task instructions. Therefore, this category was called pedagogical as a comprehensive term to include all the previous functions.

### **2.7.2 Classroom management**

This category is concerned with the teachers’ use of L1 to guide students’ behaviour and monitor classroom activities, in a way to help utilise the classroom time available for them and make the most of L2 learning. According to Ferguson (2003), classroom management means using the L1 to motivate, praise, discipline, or shift attention from the lesson towards off lesson activities, attend to latecomers, and attract learners’ attention. In the present study, two categories were removed from Ferguson’s traditional definition. In the present study, it means using the L1 to manage students’ behaviour (e.g. “stop side talk”, “no more noise”, “you join the other group”), indicate topic switches, and assign tasks to students. This can mean providing instructions on how to perform the task, attract students’ attention to keep them focussed, and highlight important information to emphasise the importance of information. These categories sometimes overlap. Attracting students’ attention overlaps with highlighting new information, as the purpose in both cases is to make the student attentive. However, attracting students’ attention is more about monitoring students’ behaviours (e.g. “pay attention”, or “look at the board”). As students are more mature than school pupils, in the present study I was more



concerned about organising classroom tasks and activities than student behaviour. Praising and motivating students were placed under the affective functions (explained below).

### **2.7.3 Affective and interpersonal**

This category included L1 uses that contributed to both affective and interpersonal aspects of the teachers' input in their classroom. Using Arabic for interpersonal purposes refer to humanistic dimension of L2 learning and teaching and the negotiation of different identities (Ferguson, 2003, p. 43). The affective input refers to using the L1 to achieve humanistic goals such building rapport with students, increasing motivation, joking with students to help them build more positive attitudes towards L2 learning (adapted from Mattsson & Burenhult, 1999; Probyn, 2009). Ferguson (2003, p. 43) explains affective as using L1 to create a less formal atmosphere, and as means to build rapport and foster student participation. Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999, p. 61) in their study described the affective function as communication that is related to feelings and emotions in the classroom. According to Probyn (2009, p. 128-32), on the other hand, affective has a broader meaning. According to her, this function is related to engaging learners, managing the classroom, and adding humour.

In the current study, CS to Arabic for interpersonal and affective functions emphasise that the classroom is not only a space for formal learning but also an affective and social environment in its own right (Yao, 2011). If we agree that the humanistic dimension is important in L2 teaching, then the use of L1 could be critical in ensuring that L2 learning is a pleasant experience for the learners. In the current study, affective means that teachers use L1 for reasons related to feelings, solidarity, humour, and face saving. Not finding the right word in L2 was placed under this category because it is related to teachers' confidence.

Keeping students interested was also included under the affective category to keep the students interested in learning L2 in general and listening to the teacher during the lesson more specifically. Some L1 should be used to make learning more pleasant, and connected with students' needs. This increases the probabilities of

converting input into intake, which in turn improves students' L2 knowledge (Mohamed, 2009).

As the focus of the present study is on teachers' beliefs about L1, the following sections present some studies regarding teachers' beliefs about L1 use, and the functions of the L1 in language classrooms. The first section will review CS in the non-Arabic context, while the second section will review empirical studies carried out in the Arabic context, with special reference to Saudi Arabia.

## **2.8 Studies about the functions of L1 in foreign language classrooms**

The literature illustrated several factors that are likely to have been responsible for the teachers' use of L1 in classrooms, which prompt the teachers to sometimes disregard the official monolingual policies (e.g. Bensen & Çavuşoğlu, 2013; Cheng, 2013; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014). This might indicate that teachers base their beliefs on their own assumptions, rather than on national policy.

Studies in both the non-Arabic and Arabic contexts offered evidence that CS is also employed by teachers for five reasons. Students' low levels of proficiency and the fear of leaving weaker students behind is one factor leading teachers to use L1 (e.g. Franklin, 1990; Jingxia, 2010; Liu et al., 2004; Mitchell, 1988; Sali, 2014). For example, one of the teachers involved in Mitchell's (1988, p. 31) project expressed the need to use L1 to enable the class to follow them: "I certainly don't speak French all the time. The kids would be absolutely lost if I did that". Similarly, one teacher in Franklin's (1990) study found it impossible to remain in L2. A similar attitude was reported by Macaro (2001, p. 539), who found that one of the interviewed student teachers expressed her fear of "losing the class" when trying to adhere to L2 only. In Jingxia's (2010) study, 85% of the teachers indicated that the students' level of proficiency led them to switch to Chinese (L1).

Teachers' confidence is another factor that results in teachers using learners' L1. Many teachers lack confidence about their L2 (Al-Shidhani, 2009; Franklin, 1990; Jingxia, 2010; Liu et al., 2004; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). In Liu et al.'s (2004, p. 628) study of South Korean teachers, the teachers expressed anxiety about

their lack of oral proficiency in L2, and one added that his: “broken English” might affect students’ learning. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) reported the views and practices of ten L2 in-service teachers of Japanese involved in implementing CLT at ten Australian state high schools. Some teachers in this study were worried about the learners’ proficiency in L2, as one stated: “I am insecure of my own Japanese” (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999, p. 503). Similar views were also expressed in Al-Shidhani’s (2009) study, which found that some teachers suffered from what Merritt (1992) terms “linguistic insecurity”, i.e. a lack of confidence about their L2.

The efficiency of use of L1 in terms of time is a third factor that leads teachers to CS with their learners’ L1 (e.g. Al-Abdan, 1993; Alshammari, 2011; Assalahi, 2013; Cheng, 2013; Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Mitchell, 1988; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014; Su, 2006; Tsagari & Diakou, 2015). For example, in Mitchell’s (1988, p. 31) project, one of the interviewed teachers used L1 “for speed of communication”. Likewise, a teacher in Bensen and Çavuşoğlu’s (2013, p. 77) study found it more convenient to CS to L1 when the Turkish (L1) word was shorter than its equivalent in English (L2). Lack of sufficient time also affects the pressure placed on the syllabus. Samar and Moradkhani (2014) argue that teachers are required to follow the syllabus and cover predetermined materials over a certain period. As a result, teachers might feel pressured to use the L1 to save time, as sometimes provision of an explanation in L2 is time consuming.

Activity type could be the fourth reason for teachers’ CS (e.g. Alrabah, Wu, Alotaibi, & Aldaihani, 2016; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002). For example, Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) explored the use of English (L1) in French classes among teachers, and reported that the activity type influenced the use of L1; for example, the amount of L1 used to explain grammar was 55.5%, compared to listening at 0%.

Teachers’ background is the fifth factor leading to CS as pointed out by Hobbs et al. (2010) in their comparative study. They observed the practices of two NS of Japanese and one NNS of British origin who was a competent speaker of

Japanese. There was a difference between the NS and NNS teachers of Japanese in terms of the amount of L1 used in classrooms. The Japanese teachers used the learners' L1 more frequently than the NNS teachers of Japanese. Both groups of teachers emphasised the need to use English to help their students understand. On the other hand, the teacher of British origin tended to use pictures and miming when introducing new vocabulary, to avoid the use of the learners' L1 (English).

A growing body of research suggests teachers' ability to CS to L1, whether in learner-centred or teacher-centred classrooms, is an invaluable tool that serves diverse purposes, from pedagogical functions (e.g. Assalahi, 2013; Franklin, 1990; Hobbs et al., 2010; Kang, 2008; Li & Walsh, 2011; Mitchell, 1988), to classroom management (e.g. Al-Shidhani, 2009; Bensen & Çavuşoğlu, 2013; Jingxia, 2010; Raschka, Sercombe & Chi-Ling, 2009; Sali, 2014, Yao, 2011), to affective and interpersonal functions (e.g. Cheng, 2013; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005) (see tables in sections 2.8.1 & 2.8.2).

When reviewing the literature, regardless of the students' levels, teachers' backgrounds, and the contexts (Arabic or non-Arabic), it was apparent that the most frequent reason for CS to L1 was to serve pedagogical functions, such as to explain grammar, followed by checking students' comprehension, and then eliciting student responses. Less L1 was reported or/and observed when comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 forms, and when providing background information. In relation to classroom management, teachers reported or/observed using L1 to discipline students, including explaining or correcting unsatisfactory behaviour, or managing activities, followed by providing task instructions. In terms of affective and interpersonal functions, it was reported or/and observed that L1 was mainly used to establish rapport with students, and reduce tension in the classroom (telling jokes, praise). For convenience, studies in both non-Arabic and Arabic contexts on the functions of CS and the factors are tabulated in Tables 2.2-2.7 (sections 2.8.1 & 2.8.2).

### 2.8.1 Non-Arabic contexts

Table 2:2: Functions of L1 in the UK & Australia

Study	L2 teaching Context	Instruments	Functions of L1 use by teachers	Comments
Mitchell (1988)	Scotland Secondary	Interviews	<b>Pedagogical:</b> explain grammar, provide translations, run tests <b>Classroom management:</b> give activity instructions	Mitchell (1988, p. 28) noted that teachers attributed their low use of L2 to personal issues such as lack of fluency in the L2 and “laziness” to make the L2 the norm for communication
Franklin (1990)	Scotland Secondary	Questionnaire	<b>Pedagogical:</b> 88% thought easier to explain grammar in L1 <b>Classroom management:</b> 45% thought it better to discipline students in L1 <b>Interpersonal:</b> carry out informal talks with pupils	Although 90% of teachers were aware of the importance of teaching in L2, L1 was still used Franklin concluded that the teachers were unable to implement the CLT that supported L2 use of in classroom
Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010)	UK Secondary schools	Interviews Classroom Observations	<b>Pedagogical:</b> Japanese teachers used learners’ L1 to increase comprehension, provide translations, check comprehension, elicit response, answer questions Teacher of British origin used pictures and miming when introducing new vocabulary <b>Classroom management:</b> give instructions <b>Affective:</b> offer praise	The Native Japanese teachers used the learners’ L1 more frequently than the NNS teachers of Japanese
Liu, Ahn, Beak, & Han (2004)	South Korea High school	Questionnaire Videotaped & Audiotaped lessons (Provided by teachers)	<b>Pedagogical:</b> explain grammar, provide translations, provide instructional comments, give background information, check comprehension, highlight important information <b>Classroom management:</b> manage students’ behaviour (e.g. ask them to stop working on activities) <b>Affective &amp; Interpersonal:</b> compliments, jokes, greeting, personal talks <b>Unprincipled L1 use:</b> (e.g. repetition of Right)	Two teachers did not feel “pressured” to follow the curriculum guidelines that supported maximal use of English (L2) because they believed the guidelines were not helpful (Liu et al., 2004, p. 629)

Table 2:3: Functions of L1 in East Asia

Study	L2 teaching Context	Instruments	Functions of L1 use by teachers	Comments
Kang (2008)	Fifth Grade Elementary school in Seoul, Korea	Interviews Observations	<b>Classroom management:</b> discipline pupils (e.g. warning them not to chat with friends), give tasks instructions	The teacher's reported that when she sensed her students unable to understand her L2, she immediately provides L1 translations
Cheng (2013)	China College	Questionnaire Interviews	<b>Pedagogical:</b> explain grammar, check comprehension <b>Classroom management:</b> highlight important information <b>Affective:</b> build rapport with students	Teachers were reluctant to acknowledge the benefits of L1 in L2 teaching Reasons for using L1 include: beliefs about teaching (44%), teachers' foreign language proficiency (66%), students' ability (94%), teaching methods used (22%), department or school policy (38%), lesson content (56%), students' behaviour and attitudes (38%)
Jingxia (2010)	China	Questionnaire Audiotaped lessons by teachers	<b>Pedagogical:</b> give grammatical instructions, provide translations, provide background information, check comprehension	Departmental policy, teachers' attitudes toward CS to L1, and teachers' proficiency in L2, affected teachers' switches to L1
Yao (2011)	China Secondary	Interviews Questionnaire	<b>Pedagogical:</b> explain grammar, elicit response, prepare students for examinations, clarify cultural points <b>Classroom management:</b> attract attention, clarify instructions, discipline <b>Affective:</b> encourage students, tell jokes	80% of the teachers agreed that they expressed themselves better in L1, 73.1% disagreed that use of L1 was a sign of deficiency

Table 2:4: Functions of L1 in Turkey & Cyprus

Study	L2 teaching Context	Instruments	Functions of L1 use by teachers	Comments
Bensen & Çavuşoğlu (2013)	North Cyprus	Classroom Observations Interviews	<b>Pedagogical:</b> explain grammar, reiteration <b>Classroom management:</b> mark a topic switch, address late arrivals	The researchers believe in maximising L2 use inside the classroom as it is the only place where students are exposed to L2
Sali (2014)	Turkey Secondary	Interviews Classroom Observations	<b>Pedagogical:</b> explain grammar, elicit response, revision <b>Classroom management:</b> give instructions <b>Affective:</b> establish rapport	The researcher recommended that carrying out workshops as part of teachers' training would be beneficial to raise their awareness about the principled L1 use in language classroom
Tsagari & Diakou (2015)	Cyprus Secondary	Student Questionnaire Teacher Interviews	<b>Pedagogical:</b> provide translations <b>Classroom management:</b> Discipline students <b>Interpersonal:</b> provide Advice	Teachers' use of L1 was based on personal beliefs rather than the Ministry's monolingual policy

Table 2:5: Functions of L1 in Iran

Study	L2 teaching Context	Instruments	Functions of L1 use by teachers	Comments
Samar & Moradkhani (2014)	Iran Language Institute	Stimulated- recall interviews Video recording of classroom (Without the presence of researchers)	<b>Pedagogical:</b> (24.13%) Increase comprehension (15.51%) Check comprehension (13.79%) Compare/ contrast between L1 & L2 <b>Affective:</b> (12.06%) build rapport, reduce tension	The study revealed that teachers code switched to L1 despite the institutional policy that advocated minimal use of L1

## 2.8.2 Studies in the Arabic Context

### 2.8.2.1 Studies in Arab Countries

Table 2:6: Functions of L1 in Arabic countries

Study	L2 teaching Context	Instruments	Functions of L1 use by teachers	Comments
Kharma & Hajjaj (1989)	Gulf region Beginners & Intermediate	Classroom Observations Teachers' questionnaire Learners' questionnaire Interviews (teachers & supervisors)	<b>Pedagogical:</b> (71%) provide translations, (66%) explain grammar, (63%) explain difficult questions <b>Classroom management:</b> (64%) discipline students: explain "wrong behaviour" <b>Interpersonal:</b> greetings	The majority of teachers were in favour of the use of L1 as a means to aid teaching and learning,  93% of teachers switched to L1
Al-Shidhani (2009)	Oman Grades ranged from 1 to 12	Questionnaire	<b>Pedagogical:</b> clarify abstract ideas, provide translations, explain grammar <b>Classroom management:</b> discipline students, focus students' attention <b>Affective:</b> friendly talks with students	Only 29% of the teachers agreed to allow learners to use Arabic in classroom
Alrabah, Wu, Alotaibi, & Aldaihanin (2016)	Kuwait Language centre College level	Interviews Questionnaire	<b>Pedagogical:</b> provide translations, compare L1 and L2 grammatical rules, explain reading passages, give feedback (e.g. correct errors) <b>Classroom management:</b> provide instructions during (tasks & tests), discipline students, take attendance, mark topic switch <b>Affective:</b> reduce tension, create more "relaxed environment"	Teachers' had negative attitude towards L1 use There was Discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and practices



### **2.8.3 Studies in Saudi Arabia**

Few field studies have been conducted in Saudi Arabia concerning teachers' beliefs about L1. One of the earliest studies that sought to investigate the use of L1 (Arabic) in the Saudi Arabian context was carried out by Al-Abdan (1993). Various reasons were given by teachers for needing to use Arabic in English classes: teaching aids were not available, monolingual teaching requires considerable effort, and insufficient time was allocated to English in public schools. It is possible that the teachers in his study did not favour L1 use, but felt it was necessary because of the constraints they faced; unlike Alshammari (2011) and Al-Nofaie (2010) who found both teachers and students had positive attitudes toward the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms. The variation in the findings could be attributed to the students' levels. While Al-Abdan explored schoolteachers' attitudes, Alshammari (2011) and Al-Nofaie (2010) explored college teachers' attitudes. It could be that the college teachers had more positive attitudes towards CS than schoolteachers did.

A study by Machaal (2012) investigated EFL teachers' and students' attitudes towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms. He reported that Arabic speaking teachers whose teaching experience was limited did not favour its use, while both Arabic speaking and non-Arabic speaking teachers with substantial experience supported the principled use of Arabic in L2 classes. However, the researcher did not explore what teachers' meant by the principled use of L1. Machaal (2012) assumed that teachers' relatively high agreement and willingness to include Arabic in EFL classrooms might be because they were aware of their students' pedagogical needs. Machaal suggested that the policy of teaching English in a preparatory programme should not prohibit the principled use of Arabic, especially with students whose level of proficiency in English is low.

Table 2:7: Functions of L1 in the Saudi Context

Study	L2 teaching Context	Instruments	Functions of L1 use by teachers	Comments
Al-Abdan (1993)	Saudi Arabia Male Intermediate public	Questionnaire	<b>Pedagogical:</b> provide instructions, clarify abstract words, explain grammar, provide translations	75% of L2 teachers used Arabic for around 10% of class time
Alshammari (2011)	Two technical colleges Madinah	Questionnaires	<b>Pedagogical:</b> (51%) explain difficult concepts, (25.7%) provide translations <b>Classroom management:</b> (7.3%) provide instructions	
Machaal (2012)	Tertiary	Students' Questionnaire Teachers' Interviews Observations	<b>Pedagogical:</b> provide translations, facilitate comprehension, clarify abstract concepts	Findings indicated that 77% of the teachers held positive attitudes towards Arabic use in EFL classrooms, They believed that L1 made the input more comprehensible, Students used bilingual dictionaries on mobile phones

## 2.9 Conclusion

The studies reviewed illustrate that complete exclusion of L1 from the L2 teaching context is seldom maintained. Even in contexts that actively promote CLT, L1 is used, and the virtual position is challenged by factors such as the teachers' beliefs and the teaching context. Other factors influencing teachers' CS are their low confidence in L2, a fear of losing the attention of the class, time management concerns, activity type, and the teacher's backgrounds. These findings appear to go against the virtual principle, which aims to exclude exposure to the L1 in foreign language classrooms.

The focus in this chapter has been on the functions, quantity, and attitudes regarding L1 use. On the one hand, studies that quantified L1 failed to reach a consensus about the appropriate amount of L1 in the foreign classroom. On the other hand, studies that looked at the functions, aiming to answer the question of why teachers switch during lessons, did not reach a consensus either. Instead, we were provided with long lists of functions without being informed about the most appropriate number, the most useful functions and in what ways they could be used. The empirical evidence had not illustrated that L1 use has a positive effect on the learning outcome. It was demonstrated that L1 helps to avoid a breakdown in communication in L2, albeit there is still no evidence regarding the extent to which L1 is useful in aiding communication. Inconsistencies in findings and a lack of empirical evidence may be behind the resistance among policy makers to take into account the role of L1 in the L2 classroom.

The literature survey also reveals that studies in the Saudi context, with the exception of that of Machaal (2012), relied heavily on questionnaires as the main method for collecting data when capturing CS in the classroom. This methodological defect renders the validity of the findings doubtful. Reliability analysis was not performed to determine whether questionnaire items were internally consistent, which questions the reliability of their analyses and findings. Furthermore, the classrooms were not observed, leading to a questioning of the credibility of the findings, as the participants' responses on the questionnaires did not always precisely

reflect their classroom practices. Therefore, the current study aimed to contribute to filling the gaps using triangulation to explore the teachers' CS before and after the workshops. It was further suggested that the audio recorded workshops and interviews with the teachers provided a fair representation of their perspectives regarding the phenomenon. In addition, the audio recordings of the classrooms captured the discourse between the teachers and the students. My presence during the lessons, and the use of a checklist and some notes, might have compensated for the potential lack of visual clues obtained from the video recordings. It was hoped that by utilising more than one method to capture teachers' CS it would be possible to attain a better understanding of this phenomenon in Saudi Arabia

A key claim to emerge from the literature review was that teachers' personal beliefs about L2 teaching are derived principally from their personal experiences, and only minimally from teacher education programmes or in-service training (Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Peacock, 2001; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). This assertion is discussed thoroughly in the following chapter.

### **3 Teachers' Beliefs and Education Programmes**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This study examines the potential impact of workshops on in-service teachers' beliefs and practices concerning L1 use in classrooms. It is theoretically grounded in two domains of enquiry; i.e. teachers' cognition and teachers' education. In order to locate the present study within the existing body of literature, several areas of research within both domains are discussed. This chapter illuminates the role of teachers' cognition in their decision-making about CS. Arguably, the impact of language teacher cognition on teachers' CS is a relatively unexplored area of research (Samar & Moradkhani, 2014); therefore, in Chapter Three, I argue that teachers' beliefs are central within teacher education. Specifically, I argue there is a need for further research into how workshops could potentially affect non-native English teachers' beliefs and practices regarding CS when working in the foreign context.

This chapter presents the concept of beliefs in general, and teachers' beliefs in particular. Then, it provides a brief chronological overview of teachers' beliefs, exploring teachers' beliefs and cognition and the factors shaping teachers' beliefs. It also highlights the fundamental role teachers' beliefs play on their practices, and the complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and behaviours. It reviews some studies that investigate the potential influence of educational programmes on teachers' beliefs concerning both pre-service and in-service teachers, with particular reference to studies conducted with in-service teachers, as they are the focus of the current study.

#### **3.2 Belief**

The definition of belief differs according to the researcher's field and agenda, but most importantly, what makes it difficult to describe is the intricate and hidden nature of beliefs. Beliefs are usually understood as "mental constructions" (Sigel,

1985, p. 351), which cannot be accessed or observed directly, but only inferred from what one says or does (Rokeach, 1968, p. 113). Pajares (1992), in his comprehensive review of teachers' beliefs argued that researchers should be careful and thoughtful when defining this construct. According to Borg (2001, 2011), belief generally refers to a proposition that is held consciously or unconsciously; it guides individual's views and actions, and is usually difficult to change. Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding and Cuthbert (1988, p. 54) define belief as an attitude that is "consistently applied to an activity", implying our beliefs impact our thoughts and behaviour. Their definition also implies that belief and attitude are interrelated. Pajares (1992, p. 319) claims that attitudes are: "clusters of beliefs around a particular object or situation form attitudes that become action agendas", suggesting that beliefs and attitude are connected. He also suggests that beliefs are fundamental in forming and developing attitudes, and that the latter in turn guide one's behaviour. Applying this concept to the language classroom, teachers who have stronger negative beliefs about the use of L1 in the classroom will consequently view it unfavourably. However, both have cognitive components, and belief is an internal feeling about someone or something expressed through attitude.

The different beliefs that an individual holds vary in complexity and intensity, according to their significance as Pajares (1992) observes. Beliefs are also crucial as they influence how individuals describe a phenomena and make sense of their world (Borg, 2001; Pajares, 1992); they affect how new information is understood, and determine whether to accept or reject it (Borg, 2001).

Common to the various definitions of beliefs, is the suggestion that beliefs guide attitudes, behaviours, and affect the way in which one perceives reality. However, whether beliefs are conscious or subconscious, teachers might hold beliefs that are not reflected in their teaching. For example, teachers might express positive beliefs about the value of L2 only in the classroom but fail to comply with this belief always, because of multiple factors relating to themselves, their students, or the context.

### **3.3 A brief history of teachers' beliefs and training programmes**

Studies of teachers' beliefs have developed over the past 30 years into a major area of inquiry in the domains of teaching and teacher education (Phipps, 2009). Researchers became more interested in teacher cognition due to the growing influence of cognitive psychology and constructivism in education in the 1970s. This led to a paradigm shift. More attention was directed towards investigating teachers as professionals who make active decisions in their classrooms, and examining teachers' thoughts as they guide classroom practices (Fang, 1996). Due to their interest in the domain of teacher cognition, Clark and Paterson (1986) were among the first to draw attention to the paradigm shift (Fang, 1996; Phipps, 2009).

Prior to 1975, the dominant research paradigm concerned the relationship between teachers' classroom behaviour, students' classroom behaviour, and student achievement; consequently teacher training focused on desirable behaviours intended to result in the highest possible learner achievements (Fang, 1996; Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001). This approach was called the process-product approach (Phipps, 2009), and the line of reasoning employed was relatively straightforward (Verloop et al., 2001). The majority of the studies focused on teachers' decision making, including how teachers organise activities, manage the classroom, and allocate turns, and there was little emphasis place on the knowledge that informs teachers' decisions (Fang, 1996, p. 50). Moreover, it was assumed that the relationship between teachers' actions and their observable effects was unidirectional and linear (Fang, 1996).

The knowledge base was compartmentalised, conceptualised as comprising two separate components: language on the one hand and teaching on the other (Graves, 2009). Knowledge of language denotes proficiency in L2 and knowledge of the structure, while knowledge of teaching was developed by attending training in teaching skills and studying language-teaching methods (Graves, 2009). However, limited attention was directed toward the teaching context (Graves, 2009). The main aims were expressed as being to transmit knowledge about language, methodology,

learning theories and L2 culture on the one hand, and to train L2 teachers to use skills on the other (Graves, 2009).

In the 1980s, the conceptualisation of teaching changed, because research began into teacher cognition, specifically considering how teachers learn to teach (Graves, 2009). Researchers shifted from studying teachers' behaviours into studying the cognitions and beliefs behind these behaviours, highlighting the interaction between beliefs and behaviours (Verloop et al., 2001). The study of teachers' cognition received widespread attention, in the education literature and in the area of reading and literacy more specifically, after Jackson's attempt in 1968 to understand and describe how teachers' thinking underlies their behaviour (Fang, 1996). This led to a paradigm shift, as additional attention was directed toward investigating teachers as professionals making active decisions in classrooms and on examining how teachers' thoughts guide their classroom practice (Fang, 1996).

Attention was progressively more directed toward understanding context as a basis for learning, rather than merely a place of application (Freeman, 2009, p. 14). In the 1990s, the scope of second language teacher education broadened from what teachers need to learn to include how teachers learn (Freeman, 2009). Over time, attention has shifted from language transmission or what teachers should know, to what teachers already know and what they actually do in classrooms (Graves, 2009). Today, teacher educators know that teachers must first recognise their existing beliefs and knowledge (tacit pedagogic knowledge) about teaching before they can transform them (Golombek, 2009; Graves, 2009). The touchstone for teacher educators has become the conceptualisation of L2 teachers as creators of knowledge, able to make judgements about the best ways to teach their students in relation to a given context (Johnson, 2009). However, the challenge has been to understand the complex relationship between what teachers have learned and how they apply that knowledge in practice (Freeman, 2009).

It is clear that new perspectives on professional development acknowledge teachers as reflective practitioners with a sound foundation of knowledge and a



capacity to develop new knowledge based on prior knowledge (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 14). Continuous professional development (CPD) can be defined thus: “as a long term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession” (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 12), one that serves interrelated purposes associated with the workplace, teachers and, directly or indirectly, students (Day, 1991). Professional development might include formal experiences, such as attending workshops, and informal experiences such as reading publications (Day, 1991).

Teachers are able to participate in the social practices linked to L2 learning and teaching, and practitioner knowledge is associated with practices that develop in response to the issues that emerge during practice (Graves, 2009). In order to expand the scope of second language teacher education, Freeman (2009, p. 15-16) suggests that three key elements should be considered:

- 1- Substance: what second language teacher education is about and what participants are supposed to learn through particular activities or designs;
- 2- Engagement: how professional learning is supposed to develop in the short and long terms; and
- 3- Influence or outcome: how the design of a particular second language teacher education programme is judged. Alternatively, in a broader sense, what the efficacy of the design described is.

It could be asserted that second language teacher education is important to teachers' careers. It is necessary for new teachers with insufficient knowledge or skills, and it is valuable to keep experienced teachers informed.

In summary, the main theme that arises from research in mainstream and language education concerns what teachers think, and how their behaviour is guided by beliefs that are subconscious, individualistic, and subjective (Borg, 2003; Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Phipps, 2009). This has stimulated interest in how teachers' prior beliefs influence their teaching practices, and teacher education; as will be

discussed in the remainder of the chapter. Firstly, I explore the proliferation of the terms used to refer to teachers' cognition.

### **3.4 Teachers' beliefs and cognition**

Teachers' cognition can be viewed as a broader construct that encompasses belief as a part of it. Borg (2003) refers to the unobservable cognitive aspects of teaching and what teachers think, believe and know, as "teacher cognition", a factor that has an important bearing on classroom practices (Borg, 1999a). He argues that schooling, mainly teachers' language education, teachers' training, and classroom experiences have a powerful effect on how teachers' cognition develops.

As with the diverse definitions of beliefs (as discussed earlier in section 3.2), a similar diversity also affects the variety of terms used to describe cognition. Borg (2003), in his extensive review of teacher cognition, drawn from the field of SL and FL teaching, listed 17 different labels used to describe teachers' cognition, including pedagogic principles, conceptions of practice, theoretical beliefs, and practical knowledge. His results clearly reveal the broad variety of terms discussed in the literature referring to teachers' cognition. Borg (2003), however, argues that this diversity is superficial, as the overlap is considerable. Therefore, he applies the term cognition as an inclusive term to refer to the complexity of teachers' minds.

Teachers' beliefs have also been described as an unobservable subconscious (Donaghue, 2003, p. 345), "mental state" (Borg, 2001, p. 186), wherein the hidden "must be inferred" (Pajares, 1992, p. 315); but most importantly, teachers' beliefs must be "uncovered" before development can take place (Donaghue, 2003, p. 344). Teachers' personal theories about teaching and learning have a considerable effect on their behaviours in classroom. Teachers' beliefs are relevant to their pedagogic beliefs about areas such as teaching, learning, and learners (Borg, 2001; Gatbonton, 1999).

In a similar vein, Ernest (1989) referred to teachers' beliefs as a set of ideas upon which teachers "model" their behaviour. These beliefs affect how teachers

select learning tasks, deal with errors, and accept students' ideas. Their definitions suggest teachers hold a complex set of pedagogical beliefs about learning and teaching, which control how they deal with students, materials, tasks, and activities in classrooms. Pajares (1992) makes an important distinction between teachers' general beliefs and teachers' educational beliefs. He points out that teachers' educational beliefs are components of the teachers' broader belief system, but that one should distinguish between them. Pajares (1992, p. 316) also suggests that educational beliefs are a broad concept, encompassing other specific beliefs including:

- 1- Beliefs about confidence to influence students; performance (teacher efficacy);
- 2- Nature of knowledge (epistemological beliefs);
- 3- Causes of teachers' or students' performance (attributions, locus of control, motivation);
- 4- Perceptions of self and feelings of self-worth (self-concept, self-esteem);
- 5- Confidence to perform specific tasks (self-efficacy); and
- 6- Educational beliefs about specific subjects or disciplines (reading instruction, the nature of reading, whole language).

Lamki (2009) claims that the distinction above, suggested by Pajares (1992), does not imply that each specific belief functions in isolation. In fact, they might all share common features, causing them to interact together (Lamki, 2009).

Irrespective of the diversity outlined above, when defining teachers' beliefs the important point is that they influence learning and teaching (Fang, 1996). For the purpose of this study, I use Borg's (2001, 2011) and Ernest's (1989) definitions, which establish that a belief is a proposition held consciously or unconsciously, that informs and guides individual's views and actions, and is difficult to change. Beliefs can either relate to teachers' theories about learning and teaching in reference to a specific subject area, or focus on teacher's expectations about students' performances (Fang, 1996). Here I am chiefly concerned with teachers' beliefs about

L1 use in classroom. Below I present contemporary views on teachers' cognition followed by a section on the four main factors shaping teachers' beliefs.

### **3.5 Broadening the boundaries of language teacher cognition**

Many contemporary studies suggest the boundary of language teacher cognition is narrow (e.g. Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, Farrell, 2013). However, understanding of this area is already in the process of expanding (Crookes, 2015) to encompass not only teachers' beliefs about thinking and knowledge, but also to include aspects such as identity and emotion (Borg, 2012). A typical area of inquiry into language teacher cognition focused on two objectives: identifying a range of cognition regarding the beliefs and knowledge language teachers hold, and explicating the relationship between teachers' cognition and practices (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). However, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) suggest that attention should shift toward investigating influences on learners in different unique contexts. Kubanyiova and Feryok argue that in order to understand the complexities of language teacher cognition they may need to expand beyond the narrow view deployed in psychological approaches to language teacher cognition. They postulate that empirical research into teacher cognition has thus far been unable to provide evidence about how language teacher programmes should progress toward making a difference in students' language learning in a variety of linguistic and socio-political contexts.

Kubanyiova, (2012, p. 190-91) suggests that teacher cognition and practices need to be understood within unique "communities" and "ecosystems". Crookes (2015) advanced this argument, by proposing considering teacher cognition as part of the social ecosystem, when employing recent manifestations of social learning theory. In this regard, individuals learn through progressively "legitimate peripheral" involvement within a group (Crookes, 2015, p. 493). Crookes further argues that when applying this theoretical perspective, the balance between individual and social perceptions and the role played by power, should not be overlooked. He emphasises the importance of bringing both a psychological and social development perspective into play, as lifelong development has become central. In line with Farrell (2013),

Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) adumbrate the importance of linking teacher cognition to teacher development and students' learning, to correspond with the change in the socioeconomic, linguistic, and cultural realities of language classrooms worldwide. They explain that beliefs and practices are difficult to resolve, not only because they are complex in nature, but also because they are sensitive to diverse contexts of teacher cognition in relation to the research context. When individuals are embedded in culture, they learn through their engagement with reality (Crookes, 2015). Therefore, it is critical that research into language teacher cognition include reflections on context and their role as "actors of telling", and how these factors combine to influence students' learning and enact a change in students' classrooms experiences (Kubanyiova, 2016; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, pp. 439-42).

An example of an attempt to address the link between teachers' cognition, actual practices, and students' approach to learning was given by Kubanyiova (2015). She examined how teacher's practices in teacher led classroom discourse (TLD) helped to facilitate or hinder students' L2 learning in a state secondary classroom in Slovakia. Kubanyiova illustrated how a teacher's image of their desired "future self" plays a role in how they navigate interactions in the classroom and develop or inhibit opportunities for students to learn in EFL classrooms. Kubanyiova (2012, 2016) drew on the physiological theory of possible selves, put forward by Markus and Nurius (1986). This theory argues that a change in ones' behaviour and cognition can occur when individuals' vision of themselves in terms of their future "ideal self" aligns with the vision imposed from the outside: the "ought to self" (Kubanyiova, 2016, p. 45). The ideal self does not only constitutes forthcoming career ambitions but also includes teachers' internalised images of themselves; describing how they approach teaching and influence and what they do in the classroom (Kubanyiova, 2016, p. 121-22). Her proposed model, which is called the Possible Language Teacher Self, comprises a significant imagined aspect that functions as a motivation for change and development.

Her conceptual framework offers a fresh view of language teacher education research, because teachers' fears about the future and their prospective goals remain

largely unexplored. According to the theory put forward, teachers participating in an in-service professional development workshop will change their teaching practices if their visions of the kind of teachers they wish to become in the future match the images disseminated in the workshop (Arshavskaya, 2014). Kubanyiova (2016, p. 49) maintains that only deep self-regulated reflection, which incorporates the systematic processing of input, is likely to cause a conceptual change. According to her, in depth cognitive engagement can work as a mediator or “prerequisite” for conceptual change, although it does not necessarily guarantee change. In addition, in depth involvement with the message of reform depends on the extent to which the education content taps into teachers’ imagined future, ideal/ought to be, or feared (teacher vision of adverse consequences) self.

Kubanyiova (2016, p. 58-62) further points out that conceptual change can only be triggered when teachers engage with education content in an “intentional self-directed systematic” way, to effect a conceptual change, and experience “dissonance emotions”, which proceed from an inconsistency between actual and ideal/ought to be selves. Nonetheless, failing to assess learning capabilities, and failing to adjust one’s affective and cognitive resources, might only lead to a superficial change in beliefs (Kubanyionva, 2016, p. 58). In particular, Kubanyiova (2015, p. 99) observes that teachers’ discursive behaviours are driven by dynamic interaction between pedagogical, identity relevant, and social pursuits. Desired future self-guides are linked with emotions, and contain moral aspects that provide clues to teachers’ broader values, relating to the learning environment they aim to create for their students and the purpose of language education. Her study demonstrated how a language teacher’s desired future self can be shaped by past experiences, and enforced by the broader teaching contexts and certain interactional incidents (Kubanyiova, 2015). According to Kubanyiova, (2016), social contexts are very powerful, as they can either facilitate or constrain the process of teacher transformation

### **3.6 Language teacher reflection**

In professions such as teaching, the idea of engaging in reflective practices has been considered central to teachers' thinking, such that reflection is often the goal of training programmes (Boud & Walker, 1998). In language teacher education however, reflection on social relevance is usually assumed but rarely openly debated (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 441). Calderhead (1981) maintains that reflection is not only influenced by educational context but also by the nature of tasks. Moon (1999, p. 597) defines reflection as "a form of mental processing with a purpose and/or anticipated outcome that is applied to relatively complex or unstructured ideas for which there is no obvious solution". This definition emphasises the "purposeful critical analysis of knowledge and experiences in order to achieve deeper meaning and understanding" (Mann, Gordon, & Macleod, 2007, p. 2009). Reflection suggests, "something is believed or disbelieved because of some evidence proof or grounds for that belief" (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000, p. 39). When engaging in any form of reflection, willingness to explore discrepancies, uncertainties, and dissatisfaction is considered essential (Boud & Walker, 1998). Reflection might trigger conflict within teachers' selves. In the teacher cognition literature, conflict is discussed in terms of cognitive and affective dissonance (Svalberg, 2015); both are "not necessarily independent of each other" (Svalberg, 2015, p. 534). Kubanyiova (2012) discusses cognitive dissonance in terms of the tension between the desired self and actual self (Svalberg, 2015). This cognitive conflict can cause affective tension, which might either facilitate or hinder engagement with tasks (Svalberg, 2012). It has been challenging to incorporate notions regarding reflection in teaching contexts, which were not formerly "conductive to the questioning of experience" (Boud & Walker, 1998).

Reflection typically takes place at more than one level. The lowest level includes rigid and subjective thoughts, while the higher level includes acknowledgment of the "subjectivity of knowledge" and the relativity of truth (Körkkö, Kyrö-Ämmälä, & Turunen, 2016, p. 200); the highest level includes questioning of beliefs and the meaning of cultural and social values in educational practice (Körkkö, Kyrö-Ämmälä, & Turunen, 2016). Models of reflection are usually rooted in both theory

and empirical data, and most models describe reflection as triggered by the “awareness of a need or disruption in practice” (Mann, Gordon, & Macleod, 2007, p. 597). Hatton and Smith, for example (1995), proposed a four level framework of reflectivity in pre-service teachers’ journal writing. The first, superficial, level is descriptive writing, which they considered not reflective at all, as it simply reports a situation or event. The second level is descriptive reflection, which provides reasons, often based on personal judgement, but does not include teachers’ interpretations of readings. The third level is dialogic reflection, which includes engaging in reflective dialogues with oneself. This level includes the exploration of possible factors. The fourth level is critical, and includes giving reasons for the decisions teachers make, taking into account the broader political, historical, and social context behind their reasoning.

It appears that the fourth more analytical level is the most difficult to attain, as it requires concentrated focus and more in depth reflection on practice, creating links with the wider context. This broader context influences and permeates all aspects of learning (Boud & Walker, 1998). Individuals and institutions do not function independently of their context, as this affects teachers’ and learners’ daily interactions, the processes involved, and the learning outcomes (Boud & Walker, 1998). However, conversely it could be a challenging task, especially for pre-service teachers, to attain higher levels of reflexivity, because when beliefs are deep-rooted, pre-service teachers might struggle with the notion of reflection, not extending beyond initial levels of reflectivity (Hatton & Smith, 1995). When prompting pre-service teachers to acknowledge their beliefs, educational programmes can provide teachers with experiences that can help to promote cognitive change (Yost, Sentner, Forlenza-Bailey, 2000, p. 42). Among the strategies that assist in the development of reflective abilities are peer collaboration and seminar instructions (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000). Through self-reflection, teachers learn to relate their experiences to their beliefs, knowledge and emotions (Farrell, 2011).

Farrell (2013) indicates that teaching experience does not necessarily mean that teachers are experts; to become such, they need to reflect on their practices in an



active and conscious way. By exploring the experiences of three experienced ESL teachers in depth over a two-year period, he found that participation in teacher reflection groups aided the development of self-awareness, and rendered explicit the tacit knowledge that the teachers had gained through years of experience. Farrell found five main interlinked characteristics, which he called the Taxonomy of ESL Teacher Expertise, and which emerged from discussion groups (2013, p. 1074-79):

1. Knowledge of learners, learning and teaching: includes knowledge of the institution's policies and how to fit into instruction, sensitivity to students' moods, needs motivation, context, and learners' autonomy;
2. Engage in critical reflections: includes reflection on beliefs, values and practices;
3. Access prior experiences: includes making judgments about the self and others' past experiences, integrating knowledge from different sources, and a wide repertoire of strategies and routines;
4. Informed lesson planning: includes awareness of the bigger picture, flexibility to change to accommodate students' needs, anticipating events before they occur, attentiveness to students' responses; and
5. Active student involvement: includes caring, involvement with students inside and outside the classroom: "socializing".

This taxonomy, as suggested by Farrell is not discrete in nature, as the items overlap and build upon each other. All the characteristics suggest that teachers are considered experts, not only by years of experience, but also by critically reflecting on their beliefs to ensure their awareness, and that of those who genuinely care about the students and involve them in the process of reflection. Reflection, as Farrell (2013, p. 1072) notes, is the main element connected with understanding the concept of teacher expertise, "because it can act as tool to bring this usually unarticulated concept to level of awareness".

### **3.7 Factors shaping teachers' beliefs**

A growing body of literature has highlighted a number of factors that have been found to influence the development of teachers' beliefs. The four main factors

are years in school, L2 learning experience, teaching experience, and to a lesser extent, educational programmes (e.g. Florio-Ruane & Lensmire, 1990; Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Verloop et al., 2001).

### **3.7.1 Teachers' experiences as learners**

It has been suggested that what teachers experience as learners, while observing their own teachers' classroom practices, comprises what Lortie (1975) terms an "apprenticeship of observation", which shapes their cognition about learning and teaching, continuing to impact on teachers' practices throughout their careers (Borg, 2003; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Nespor, 1987). Teachers' beliefs are formed and powerfully influenced during the school years, which makes them resistant to change, especially when new information presents challenges affecting prior beliefs (Florio-Ruane & Lensmire, 1990). Even during training programmes, prior beliefs continue to influence how student teachers construct and approach knowledge (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992).

Teachers' experiences of language learners is another source of their beliefs. In her investigation of pre-service EFL teachers learning and teaching in Greece, Mattheoudakis (2007) found that student teachers come to education programmes with mutual preconceptions about language learning and teaching that stem from their experiences as L2 learners.

### **3.7.2 Teaching experiences**

A further factor that shapes teachers' beliefs is their teaching experiences. Studies of in-service teachers have demonstrated that teachers base their teaching on those routines they have practiced in their classrooms and found successful over the years. Various studies have examined the impact of teachers' experiences on classroom interaction (e.g. Crookes & Arkaki, 1999; Farrell & Lim, 2005). Over a three-month period, Crookes and Arkaki's (1999) study demonstrated that teaching experiences and collaboration with colleagues were chief sources of teachers' beliefs. They examined the origins of the beliefs of 19 ESL teachers attending an intensive English programme in the Western United States. The interviews revealed

the primary source of beliefs for both the experienced and less experienced teachers was teaching experience. The teachers reported that they accrued knowledge and information through trial and error; as one teacher remarked: “As you have more practice, then you know in the classroom what will work and what will not work” (Crookes & Arkaki, 1999, p. 16). Similar findings were reported by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999, p. 510); a teacher in their study reported that he learnt by: “trying something. And if it doesn’t work, you change it”.

When the teachers were asked about the possibility of consulting sources outside their personal repertoires, some of them rejected the idea that, as one teacher stated simply: “what I feel has worked for me through the years is what I sort of stick to” (Crookes & Arkaki, 1999, p. 16). A number of teachers appeared to utilise ideas and techniques that worked for either themselves or their colleagues, stressing the effectiveness and credibility of their ideas. Many of the participants in their study observed that they felt teachers expressed opinions that are more reliable about what constitutes good teaching than researchers. Teachers described researchers as “living in ivory towers” (Crookes & Arkaki, 1999, p. 16). It is likely that Crookes and Arkaki (1999) carried out their research at a time when research was largely carried out by theorists, who were regarded as experts. The second source of teaching ideas cited was informal consultations with colleagues, as teachers in a given context share the same work conditions and encounter similar difficulties.

Many teachers in the study expressed a preference for informal chats with colleagues over attendance at formal workshops and conferences, as they regarded the former as a convenient and invaluable source of information about teaching, especially in cases where older teachers support newer ones. Notably, Crookes and Arkaki (1999) did not specify the exact number of participants who emphasised resources in their professional contexts, such as prior teaching experience, and informal chats with colleagues, as more effective than other approaches to shaping their beliefs. Their ambiguous description of the data included imprecise terms such as “several” and “a number” of participants, so it is unclear to what extent these resources were more influential than others in shaping beliefs.

Based on my experience as an insider, I detected a similarity between the teachers' beliefs reported by Crookes and Arkaki (1999) and the teachers in my own context. That is, teachers, especially the less experienced ones, appear to respect the advice provided by their senior colleagues regarding the best ways to teach English. A central debate within the English Institute among colleagues concerns the efficacy of L1 use in teaching, and the advice that one would usually receive from senior colleagues is the total exclusion of the L1 at all costs. This advice could result from their educational backgrounds, where emphasis was placed on drilling memorisation, and the repetition of L2 patterns.

### **3.7.3 Education programmes**

The fourth source, which to a lesser extent might have some impact on teachers' beliefs, is education programmes (as discussed in sections 3.8 and 3.9). Studies in different contexts have reported inconclusive findings concerning the ability of programmes to affect teachers' beliefs. Mattheoudakis' (2007) study provides evidence that the majority of student teachers' beliefs had changed, but that this change required time (3 years full time training); the change was noticeable in the third year of the education programme. For example, at the beginning of the programme, 67% of the student teachers supported the primacy of their knowing about L2 grammar; although by the end of the programme the percentage of agreement had fallen to 44%.

A less positive finding was reported by Peacock (2001). In his longitudinal study, he examined 146 trainee ESL teachers studying at the City University of Hong Kong. Over a three-year period, Peacock investigated changes in the teacher's beliefs about L2 learning. The trainees' beliefs were then compared with experienced ESL teachers' beliefs. The three main differences between the trainees' beliefs and those of the experienced teachers were apparent from three statements: 1) Learning L2 is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary; 2) learning L2 is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules; and 3) people who speak more than one language well are very intelligent (Peacock, 2001, p. 184). For each statement, a much higher

percentage of first year trainees than experienced teachers agreed with the statements. For example, only 18% of experienced teachers agreed with the first statement, compared to 43% of first year trainees. Peacock noted that education had limited effect on the some of the trainees' beliefs, as only a few trainees changed their beliefs over the course of the programme. For example, 43% of the first year trainees agreed with the first statement, compared to slightly higher percentage 46% of the third year trainees. Peacock's study revealed that the trainees' beliefs mismatched those of the experienced teachers throughout the duration of the programme. It is possible that the programmes they attended did not help trainees to reflect on their experiences as learners. This process would have encouraged them to confirm and/or revise their previous beliefs about language learning and teaching.

The contrast in findings between Mattheoudakis' (2007) and Peacock's (2001) studies might reflect cultural differences. The nature of the education system, the degree of emphasis placed on language learning and teaching, and the type of education programmes themselves are all potential factors leading to conflicting findings. The changes in the student teachers' beliefs reported in Mattheoudakis' study are not necessarily sustainable. In other words, the teachers might revert to their previous beliefs, especially as the educational reality in Greece, as described by the researcher, is very conventional, as students are considered passive recipients of knowledge with heavy emphasis placed on theories. Moreover, the student teachers in Greece are not normally exposed to sufficient quantities of experiential learning or reflective activities. The lack of modification of beliefs noted in Peacock's (2001) study, on the other hand, supports Borg's (2003) claim that while education programmes shape student teachers' cognition, programmes that ignore pre-existing beliefs, might have less influence. Peacock described education programmes as ignoring pre-existing beliefs. This might indicate that teachers would be likely to fall back on their usual practices as discussed by Freeman (1991, p. 19), as education programmes that rely on knowledge transmission are not expected to impact student teachers' behaviour.

As the primary focus of the study, as described in this thesis, is on the effect of workshops as a form of professional development on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding L1 use, additional discussions about the effect of both pre and in-service teachers' programmes on teachers' beliefs and practices are presented below.

### **3.8 Impact of education programmes on pre-service teachers' beliefs**

In order to understand the origin of in-service teachers' beliefs, I maintain that it is important to shed light on those of pre-service teachers, as this provides a comprehensive insight into the process by which teachers develop beliefs. There has been much debate on the influence of education programmes on pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs. Thus, the majority of the research on the effect of teachers' education on language teachers' beliefs has been carried out in pre-service contexts. The outcomes of not taking into consideration teachers' beliefs when introducing education programmes and courses have been discussed in a growing number of studies in different contexts and disciplines. Studies such as those by Bramald, Hardman and Leat (1995), Kagan (1992), Nettle (1998), and Peacock (2001), report consistent beliefs among student teachers in pre and post-education programmes. In contrast, some studies, such as that by Bramald et al. (1995), Mattheoudakis (2007), Nettle (1998), and Yuan and Lee (2014) report changes to student teachers' beliefs during language programmes.

#### **3.8.1 Studies reporting some change in teachers' beliefs**

Mattheoudakis (2007) reported some developments in student teachers' beliefs during the course of an educational programme. However, student teachers' engagement in teaching practices, as part of their training appears to have little effect on the development of beliefs. This lack of impact could be because the student teachers in the study were not given opportunities to be innovative or to deviate from the conventional methodology they had been taught (Mattheoudakis, 2007, p. 1282). Another constraint affecting the study was classroom realities. During their teaching practices, the student teachers faced classroom realities that did not necessarily align with their expectations and previous experiences; this meant that they needed to review both their traditional beliefs and the theoretical knowledge they had acquired

during their educational courses (Mattheoudakis, 2007). When conducting their teaching sessions, the student teachers went through a process of restructuring knowledge when faced with classroom realities. From such circumstances, both development and relative stability are predicted (Mattheoudakis, 2007).

It is possible that prior to classroom interactions, teachers go through a process of thoughts about language learning that guide their beliefs and influence their actions in the classroom. During the process of teacher development, not all the ideas presented to the teachers are practiced in the classroom. However, while Mattheoudakis (2007) found that changes in beliefs were associated with educational courses rather than teaching practice, Bramald et al. (1995) and Nettle (1998) noticed some changes in the beliefs of some student teachers after they engaged in teaching practice.

This stability or change could be attributed to the original beliefs that student teachers' bring with them to their courses. Mattheoudakis (2007) claims that stability might nonetheless be perceived as an initial indication of change, as argued by Nettle (1998). It might also be indicative of student teachers efforts to stabilise pre-existing beliefs and present reality. Similar claims were discussed by Donaghue (2003), who found that much of the content presented in education programmes was not transferred to classroom. Donaghue (2003) attributed lack of take-up to three key reasons: context, understanding, and time factors. Donaghue (2003) pointed out that differences in context resulted in the participants filtering out much of the input they received. Therefore, it is important that participants be encouraged to understand the theory behind the ideas presented to them. Finally, participants usually need time to adapt and assimilate new ideas into their personal theories. Donaghue's (2003) pilot study included five groups of five to eight teachers participating in a two-week development programme on teaching methodology. After the course, the teachers were invited to answer a questionnaire. Although 84% of the respondents commented that the course prompted them to reflect on their beliefs about their approaches to teaching, some of them observed that they did not understand how to apply the theories in practice. These results suggest programmes could be helpful in

providing an insight into teachers' beliefs, but such programmes should allow teachers, especially pre-service ones to test their previous theories alongside the new theories presented to them.

### **3.8.2 Studies reported both stability and change in teachers' beliefs**

Other studies have led to mixed results (e.g. Bramald et al., 1995; Nettle, 1998). In a study carried out by Bramald et al. (1995), evidence of both stability and change in student teachers' beliefs were reported. Bramald et al. (1995) examined 162 student teachers completing a pre-service training course in England. The sample included groups from seven departments; including English, and Modern Foreign Languages. They administered three questionnaires over a period of three months, with the aim of studying student teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching, to discover whether there were likely to be any changes in their beliefs between the beginning and the end of the course. They suggested that student teachers' ideas about learning and teaching developed from their educational experience rather than from the course, which also affected their teaching practices.

The majority of the student teachers showed no significant changes. Follow up interviews with ten participants revealed a variety of reasons for change or lack of change in beliefs. For example, two of the English student teachers believed classroom practice was a more powerful agent affecting their beliefs than the course itself. Both showed a pragmatic approach to teaching, based on practice rather than theories that might not be applicable in classroom. This result supports Kagan's (1992) claims that teachers appear to obtain the majority of their beliefs from their practices as teachers. Bramald et al.'s (1995) result indicates a link between teachers' beliefs and their experiences in classrooms. Therefore, their knowledge becomes richer as their experiences in the classrooms develop, leading to the construction of a system of beliefs that restrains teachers' views, behaviours and judgments (Kagan, 1992).

In a different context from those of the above studies, a more recent study carried out in China demonstrated developments in pre-service teachers' beliefs that



supported the findings of Bramald et al. (1995) and Nettle (1998). Yuan and Lee stressed the importance of social learning, such as attending book clubs, to help reconstruct teachers' beliefs about language teaching. They examined changes in three pre-service teachers during the teaching practicum. They used data from stimulated recall interviews, teachers' written reflections, and classroom observations to investigate changes in beliefs and to shed light on several socio-cultural factors that can affect beliefs. New information consistent with their prior beliefs strengthened them; for example, one teacher watching the mentor using CLT when teaching, felt her beliefs about the approach had been confirmed. This teacher also decided to integrate traditional and modern methods into her teaching in order to maximise the advantages of both. Other teachers however rejected some of their former beliefs. Specifically, some revised their perceptions that teachers should not make mistakes, and became more open to self-criticism. Yuan and Lee (2014) concluded that allowing teachers to participate in various social learning activities, such as book clubs, classroom observations, and teaching reforms, provides them with ample learning experience. However, they were generally sceptical about the sustainability of student teachers' beliefs in the long term, as they become real language teachers, as more contextual constraints might arise. Yuan and Lee's (2014) findings also support Crookes and Arkaki's (1999) findings, which report that engaging teachers in social activities helps them share ideas with other colleagues, which can enrich their experiences.

### **3.8.3 Group discussions have a positive impact on beliefs**

It appears that teachers prefer to develop their ideas about teaching from more practical sources, such as their colleagues, as these ideas have been proven to work in reality. This was evident in the work of Crookes and Arkaki (1999) (as discussed in section 3.7.2) and that of Yuan and Lee (2014).

The positive impact of discussion groups on teachers' beliefs has also been discussed in other studies (e.g. Peacock, 2001; Scott & Rodgers, 1995). Peacock (2001), for example, noted that education had minimal effect on some of the trainees' beliefs, as few changed their beliefs during the programme. Therefore,

Peacock (2001) referred the trainees to conduct additional readings about the benefits of the Communicative Approach in ESL. He also held discussion groups to discuss this approach. The readings were reported as useful because they provided evidence from previous literature, and the discussion groups yielded positive results because they enhanced their “appreciation” of the CLT benefits (Peacock, 2001, p.188). These results inspired the design of the current study, by suggesting that workshops can function as effective practical professional development courses that provide insight into L1 and L2 use in the classroom, allowing teachers to reflect on their beliefs and practices.

### **3.9 Impact of education programmes on in-service L2 teachers’ beliefs**

There has been little research investigating the impact of education programmes on the beliefs of in-service teachers. Studies such as that by Borg (2011), Freeman (1993), Lamb (1995), Lamie (2004), Macaro and Mutton (2002), Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), Scott and Rodgers (1995), examined the influence of education programmes on in-service teachers’ beliefs. Borg (2011) called for a further examination of the impact of education programmes, as their effect on in-service teachers’ beliefs is still little known.

#### **3.9.1 Studies reported both stability and change in teachers’ beliefs**

Indications of both stability and change in beliefs were reported in Freeman’s (1993) study in the USA, and Sato and Kleinsasser’s (1999) study in Australia. Freeman (1993) tracked four high school Spanish and French teachers’ beliefs about their practices over an 18-month period. The teachers articulated some new concepts after attending the programmes, and spoke in new ways about learning and teaching.

It is however possible that talking about concepts does not necessarily mean implementing them in the classroom in new ways. Freeman (1993) reported that, based on behavioural measures, the findings of the study were “inconclusive” because even though some aspects of the teachers’ practices changed, other routines remained unchanged. This supported Donaghue’s (2003, p. 345) claim that it is important to give teachers time to digest the new ideas presented to them, as teachers

“might become temporarily destabilized as their beliefs and assumptions are challenged and changed”.

The stability of old beliefs and resistance to new ideas was also reported in Sato and Kleinsasser's (1999) study. They reported that teachers' L2 methods were derived from their personal experiences rather than programmes or in-service training. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) examined the views and practices of ten second-language in-service teachers of Japanese, implementing CLT in ten state high schools in Australia. They noted that the teachers' views and actions were affected neither by the literature on CLT nor by their education. Instead, the teachers' personal views and experiences influenced their understanding of CLT. Lack of some teachers' uptake after the programmes highlighted a gap between theory and practice. It might be the case that the education programmes in both studies did not consider practical issues, such as the teachers' realisation about the materials presented, and the applicability of the activities.

### **3.9.2 Studies reported some changes to teachers' beliefs**

More positive conclusions about changes in beliefs were reported by Scott and Rodgers (1995) and Macaro and Mutton (2002). Scott and Rodgers (1995) investigated in-service teachers' conceptions of writing in a SL classroom. They conducted a nine-week workshop with 14 French and Spanish teachers working in a high school in the North of Florida. By using a pre-assessment survey, they found that 58.5% of the teachers' beliefs aligned with concepts presented in the workshop. The post-survey revealed an increase of 30.5% in teachers' desired responses, suggesting the possibility of change among experienced teachers. Similar results were also reported in a longitudinal study by Macaro and Mutton (2002), which took place in the south of England. They investigated the beliefs of three qualified French teachers and the factors influencing change and development. The teachers reported changes in their practices throughout the first year of the study. Their view of L2 use in the classroom also changed. Macaro and Mutton (2002, p. 30) argued that the change in the teachers' practices came from the teachers' themselves, rather than

from external factors, as the teachers mentioned their beliefs were not derived from their training year.

It is possible that the teachers were not fully aware of the extent to which training programmes influenced their pre-existing beliefs, or the extent of the uptake after the programmes, as time was required for the new ideas to settle. This argument supports Donaghue's (2003, p. 345) claim that difficulties in eliciting teachers' beliefs lie in the difference between teachers' "espoused theory", or what teachers claim to do, and "theory in action", or what they actually do in practice. Her claim suggests teachers are not always aware of their beliefs and practices. Scott and Rodgers (1995) reiterate a view postulated by others such as Crookes and Arkaki (1999), Peacock (2001), and Yuan and Lee (2014), which states that giving teachers opportunities to participate in discussions with their university colleagues helps them to reconstruct their beliefs. It could be said that there is also a need to shift the emphasis from the educator to the teachers, to allow the latter to become more involved in implementing educational programmes.

Supporting Scott and Roger's (1995) findings, subsequent studies by Lamie (2004) and Borg (2011) concluded that there are positive impacts from educational programmes on teachers' beliefs. Lamie (2004) examined the work of Japanese teachers of English participating in a teacher-training programme in Japan, which aimed to support curriculum innovation (a one-year course). By analysing teachers' attitudes, perceived methodology, and practice before and after the in-service training, the findings revealed changes towards implementing CLT in the classroom, suggesting the pivotal importance of training. This positive impact on teachers' performance was illustrated by one of the participants, who claimed to use additional activities involving flash cards and pair/group activities (Lamie, 2004, p. 133).

In an entirely different context, Borg (2011) reported similar results, observing that the education programme had an effect on the teachers' beliefs, as it allowed them to become more aware of them. Borg (2011) carried out a longitudinal study (eight weeks course) in the UK to investigate the effect of an in-service teacher

education programme on the beliefs of six English language teachers. Borg noted the programme allowed teachers to strengthen and extend their beliefs, and to link beliefs and practice. The teachers were able to articulate their beliefs explicitly, and develop their practices in the classroom. However, a long process is required before practical effects can be observed, as tensions between established and new ideas might take time to resolve (see section 3.9.4).

### **3.9.3 Stability in teachers' beliefs**

A less positive impact from teacher education on the beliefs of in-service teachers was reported by Lamb (1995). He explored the impact of a short INSET training course (two-weeks) on the beliefs and practices of 16 English language lecturers in an Indonesian university teaching reading skills to undergraduates. The rationale behind the teaching approach employed on the course was explained and an additional explanation as to how to implement the approach was given to enable the participants to fully comprehend and accept the new ideas they presented. After the course, the participants articulated that they would try to apply some of their ideas in the classroom setting. However, when Lamb returned to the participants a year after training, he found many felt confused and frustrated due to their inability to apply the new ideas they had learnt, as they were facing some constraints. By interviewing and observing some of the participants, four key findings were revealed; these are encapsulated below:

- 1- The teachers forgot most of the ideas in the course;
- 2- Some ideas were not comprehended sufficiently to influence their teaching;
- 3- Some teachers had interpreted the terms they had been introduced to on the course quite differently, based on how they were explained. For instance, one teacher claimed to be using the Communicative Approach in the classroom, simply because the students read texts aloud; and
- 4- Some of the new ideas did not work well in practice as they were rejected by the teachers (Lamb, 1995, p 75)

Lamb (1995, p. 78-9) concluded that plenty of “original input” had been “lost”, as what the teachers took up was understood to suit their own beliefs. These less positive results could be attributed to the fact that the study was conducted in the 1990s, when teachers were not involved in the planning and implementation of education programmes. It is also possible that the course was not practical enough, and therefore the teachers did not know how to implement the course materials in practice.

#### **3.9.4 Teachers’ beliefs are central when designing education programmes**

The studies discussed demonstrate the importance of studying teachers’ beliefs and their impact on the acceptance of new ideas, and subsequently their practices. Participants in teacher development courses might be unable to adopt new techniques unless they match their belief systems. It should be taken into consideration that teachers’ beliefs are crucial for establishing successful professional development courses (Fetters, Czerniak, Fish & Shawberry, 2002). Fetters et al. (2003) in their study of schoolteachers’ beliefs, and the challenges they faced once they started to implement a new science curriculum in the USA, concluded that teachers should be empowered to reflect on their beliefs. The researchers appeared to suggest that a top down system that imposes change on teachers would not be effective, as teachers should be considered “a true partner in managing complex change” (Fetters et al., 2003, p. 127). They added that teachers must “make sense of, interpret, and implement” what has been introduced in training courses (Fetters et al., 2003, p. 127). The researchers further suggested that with continuous teachers’ reflections upon their beliefs, and through variety of methods such as focus groups, questionnaires and essays, change is more likely to take place.

As teachers’ beliefs are “tacit” and they are usually unaware of them (Kagan, 1992, p. 66), Fetters et al. (2003) claimed that changes to trainees’ learning only occur when teachers become aware of their personal beliefs and are able to discuss them explicitly. Handal and Herrington (2003) discussed a similar view in their paper on the impact of mathematics teachers’ beliefs on curriculum reform. They concluded that innovations would only succeed if teachers’ beliefs are considered

and challenged: “teachers’ attitudes, feelings, and perceptions must be recognised well before the launching of any innovation” (Handal & Herrington, 2003, p. 65). A similar view was echoed by Donaghue (2003). To sustain the cycle of reflection, it is vital to incorporate awareness-raising activities into the course to bring out participants’ underlying theories, to integrate them into the course, to challenge them, and then facilitate change (Donaghue, 2003).

Change can be immediate or it might be delayed. Freeman (1989) argues that change does not indicate doing something in a different way; triggering change in teachers’ awareness can be an indication of change. Freeman further argues that change does not have to be immediate, as some changes occur over time when something triggers them, and the role of the educator is to initiate the process of change. The internal changes to teachers’ beliefs cannot be measured by trainers and can only be inferred from teachers’ behaviours (Freeman, 1989), or what they articulate. In this study, the workshops were based on a specific aspect of teachers’ beliefs. The intervention directed teachers’ awareness to their code switches to L1 in the classroom through a sequence of workshops over a four-week period. By observing their classrooms and interviewing the teachers to share their personal experiences about their L1 use, it was possible to initiate a process of reflection.

The volume of research into the extent to which attending workshops impacts in-service teachers beliefs about L1 use, is limited especially in foreign contexts. A large body of research has explored the beliefs of pre-service teachers, but there have been a limited number of studies on NNS in-service teachers in FL contexts. In response to this gap, the present study explores this issue in the context of an English foreign language institute given the concern with the impact on the use of L1 in classroom. In addition, the majority of the studies were conducted in contexts where English is taught as a second language, and most focused on native-English speaking teachers. Lack of attention to non-native speaking teachers might lead to a lack of understanding of current practices when teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), thus the failure to develop EFL teachers from those countries (Li & Walsh, 2011). To fill this gap, the focus of the present study is on the foreign

language context in which the classroom is the only or primary source of exposure to the L2 (Littlewood & Yu, 2011).

### **3.10 Impact of L2 teachers' beliefs on their practices**

As beliefs versus practices are central to the present study, it was necessary shed light on the debate concerning this complex relationship. There has been a growing body of research within TESOL that suggests teachers' beliefs about language teaching affect their practices in the classroom (e.g. Borg, 2013; Farrell, 2003; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Golombek, 1998; Li & Walsh, 2011; Pajares, 1992). This proposition is further supported by Kagan (1992), who argues that teachers' beliefs play a significant role in the nature of classroom interactions. Borg (1999b) gave an example of a teacher who was willing to integrate some elements of the GTM into CLT because he had successfully learnt foreign languages by applying this method. Another teacher in the same study, who had been trained not to talk explicitly about grammar, had learnt from experience that students preferred to be taught explicitly, thus he had amended his view.

The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, the change and the causality is difficult to explain. It is not always possible to infer teachers' beliefs from observing their behaviours, because teachers might follow similar practices for different reasons (Kagan, 1992). Some studies suggest that teachers' beliefs influence their practices, while in other cases the opposite is true. Guskey (1986) for example favours the latter position. He argues that it is inaccurate to assume that changes in teachers' beliefs will necessarily lead to changes in their classroom practices. Guskey (1986) proposed a different model to bring about change. He believes changes in practices precede changes in beliefs, arguing that changes to teachers' beliefs might take place only after changes in the students' learning outcomes are evident, which results from specific changes in teachers' practices. Thus, the change in belief is contingent on gaining evidence of change in students' learning outcomes (Guskey, 1986). A contrasting view suggests that changes in teachers' beliefs might lead to changes in their practices (e.g. Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001). Supporting this view, Golombek (1998) suggests that, after



examining the practices of two in-service ESL teachers, teachers' personal practical knowledge (knowledge of self, of context, of instruction, and of subject matter) affects their practices. A similar view was expressed by Donaghue (2003) who argues that teachers' beliefs influence their uptake of different approaches and techniques, and in turn influence teacher development. It is possible that both views are true. Teachers' beliefs might trigger a change in practices and the opposite could be the case. Views differ according to the teachers and the situations.

A discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and practices has also been demonstrated in many contexts. The inconsistency encountered is expected as many contextual factors might constrain teachers' abilities to give instructions that align with their personal beliefs (Borg, 1999b, 2003; Fang, 1996). The problems that arise might be attributed to teachers' inability to apply ideas because of the syllabus, examinations and other practical constraints (Lamb, 1995) such as textbooks, schools type, class size, examination structures (Lamie, 2004), the school administration, and indirect factors such as the parents (Farrell & Lim, 2005). For example, language teachers in Saudi Arabia at the secondary levels in state schools have to deal with inadequate textbooks, a scarcity of instructional materials, and congested schedules (Al- Nafisah, 2001). In addition, overcrowded classrooms and time constraints limit their ability to maximise L2 exposure in classroom.

One of the main research questions in the present study was about the relationship between teachers' beliefs regarding their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classrooms. Studies by Farrell and Lim (2005), and Li and Walsh (2011) suggest there is some relevance from this. Both studies explored and compared the beliefs and classroom practices of L2 teachers; the former focused on contexts where English is a SL, while the latter focused on contexts where English is considered a FL. Farrell and Lim (2005) examined the beliefs and practices of two experienced English teachers in Singapore. Their study discussed beliefs about teaching grammar at the school level. Farrell and Lim (2005, p. 8) suggested that: "teachers' beliefs are the best indicators of the type of instructional decisions they made during their teaching". They suggested sometimes teachers' practices do not

reflect their personal beliefs, and that this divergence between beliefs and practices could be attributed to time constraints, and teachers' "reverence" for conventional approaches to teaching grammar. One teacher remarked that she preferred to teach grammar following the deductive approach rather than the inductive approach, because she felt that the former was more "straightforward", thus took less time to apply (Farrell & Lim, 2005, p. 9-10).

Another study that bore some relevance was carried out by Li and Walsh (2011), who demonstrated that variations in teaching experiences strongly determined teachers' beliefs. Li and Walsh (2011) explored the pedagogical beliefs and classroom practices of two teachers, one experienced, and one novice, in a secondary school in China. When analysing interviews and classroom interactions, they found the relationship between beliefs and practices was neither straightforward nor linear. The reason for the complex relationship that emerged related to contextual factors. For the novice teachers, factors causing problems included: pupils' attitudes, anticipated pupils' language level, the importance of examinations, and the teachers' understanding about English learning. The novice teachers believed in the primacy of vocabulary in language learning and teaching as the teacher stated: "knowing, the meaning, pronunciation, and form of new words" (Li & Walsh, 2011, p. 52). The teacher dedicated a considerable proportion of the lesson to explaining new words. Whereas, the experienced teacher believed in "oral communication". Through the process of observation, the researchers found the experienced teacher attached importance to conversing with students in a controlled way, using the initiation/response/feedback (IRF) sequence, which suggested that IRF is the key to learning for the experienced teacher.

Their finding was relevant to the present study, as the IRF pattern is common among teachers in the Saudi context, demonstrating that communication is controlled by teachers. However, Li and Walsh's (2011) sample size is too small, and they provided no defence for this. The small sample size raises questions about whether their sample had achieved data saturation, and whether one can explore such a complex issue and build a theory based on two participants.

Sometimes teachers are unaware of their own practices until asked about them by researchers or interviewers (Farrell & Lim, 2005); therefore, awareness-raising activities such as videotaped lessons and questionnaires might prompt teachers to address their practices (Lamb, 1995). In general, teachers tend to retain practices that work with students and attain desired learning outcomes, while abandoning those that do not work (Guskey, 1986, p. 7). Richards, Gallo and Renandya (2001), for instance, conducted a study exploring SL teachers' beliefs about the processes of learning and teaching; noting how they conceptualised their teaching development, and the sources of change. The majority of the teachers who completed the questionnaire were from Southeast Asian countries. The teachers themselves reported that, in-service courses (49%), seminars and conferences (42%), and students' feedback (41%), were the major sources leading to change. In addition, Richards et al. (2001, p. 10) found that collaboration (32%) was another factor compelling teachers to engage in reflection and consider change. Richards et al. (2001) concluded that changes to teachers' practices tend to arise from the outcome of changes in their beliefs, and this change was caused by both the personal factors and professional contexts in which they work. However, one of the main limitations in their study was a lack of triangulation, as their data came from a single source and the respondents' answers were not verified through other methods, such as classroom observations.

### **3.11 Summary**

Up to this point in the thesis, I have demonstrated key issues, which constitute the main elements of the present study in relation to areas informing teachers' beliefs. I have highlighted the fundamental role teachers' beliefs play in their practices and the complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and their behaviours. I have reviewed studies investigating the influence of education programmes, with particular reference to studies conducted on in-service teachers, as they are the focus of the current study. I further demonstrated the importance of teachers' beliefs shaping L2 learning and teaching, and have also demonstrated that beliefs are formed long before pre-service training programmes commence, which

might explain why teachers' beliefs are difficult to modify. In short, beliefs are subconscious, highly complex, dynamic, and very personal. Teachers do not always teach according to their personal beliefs, for a plethora of reasons related to the teachers themselves, the students, and their teaching contexts.

Consistency in the beliefs held by student teachers in pre and post-education programmes was reported in various studies, as discussed above. Generally, beliefs are fairly stable, as research has shown this is true when measured over periods ranging from two weeks to three years. However, despite the lack of research into the impact of language education programmes on in-service teachers' beliefs and practices, there is some evidence, as demonstrated in the studies above, concerning the potential impact of some programmes on beliefs and practice. In order to trigger change, these programmes should be practically oriented as teachers' might feel theories will not always work in practice.

Caution must be exercised when investigating beliefs and practices, as what is understood to denote evidence of a change in belief is open to debate. For example, interview or questionnaire data alone might be inadequate to capture the complex relationship between beliefs and practices. The three distinctive features of this study are that it was conducted in a foreign context, that it is an in-service teacher education study, and that it utilised more than one method with the aim of providing an in depth understanding of the complexity of teacher' beliefs and practices, as is discussed thoroughly in the next chapter. I am well aware that there must be numerous in-service training workshops taking place worldwide, but the details of very few have been published for a wider audience.

## **4 Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the theoretical justification for the research methods employed in this study, and explains the study design in terms of its aims, the study participants, the data collection, and the analysis. It begins by outlining the research questions. It then presents positivist and constructivist paradigms, followed by a discussion of the research paradigm adopted for the study. It then elaborates on the case study as a research approach, leading to an overview of the characteristics, problems, and benefits of the mixed methods research. There follows an outline of the sample population, and a description of the stages in the research process. Then, it discusses the data collection tools along with the process for piloting each tool. This is followed by a discussion of the data analysis for both the qualitative and the quantitative data. I also present the validity and reliability of the research instruments, and the ethical considerations that influenced the study. The limitations and constraints placed upon the study are discussed throughout the chapter.

### **4.2 The aim of the study**

The primary aim of this study is to describe the extent (if any) to which attendance at workshops influences teachers' subsequent beliefs and practices. The study did not set out to test pre-existing theories, through for example the use of a particular hypothesis or experiment. In fact, the study was designed to be inductive and to build theory rather than to be deductive. The questionnaire provided insight into teachers' beliefs about teachers' L1 use at the English Institute, and guided the selection of subsamples for the second stage of the study (see section 4.8). The interviews provided an in depth understanding of the teachers' beliefs about the use of Arabic. They also offered insight into teachers' beliefs before and after the treatment. The classroom observations on the other hand give first hand evidence with which to understand teachers' actual use of Arabic, helping to compare teachers' practices before and after the treatment. The three tools supported comparisons between teachers and practices, both before and after the treatment. The workshops helped to understand how beliefs can be re-constructed through active

collaboration. Although the word intervention is normally associated with experimental studies, in this study qualitative methods were given priority; therefore, more qualitative language is used when discussing the methodology and findings. The five research questions the study aimed to answer are presented in Table 4.1 below.

### 4.3 The research questions

Table 4:1 Research questions and methods

Research Questions	Questionnaire	Semi-structured Interviews	Semi-structured Classroom Observations	Workshops <sup>8</sup>
<b>Main questions: 1, 2, &amp; 3</b> 1- To what extent if any did the non-native English teachers' beliefs differ before, during, and after attending the workshops?	✓	✓		✓
2- To what extent if any did the workshops have an impact on the non-native English teachers' use of Arabic (L1) in the foreign language classroom?			✓	✓
3- What is the relationship between the non-native English teachers' beliefs about their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classroom?	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Background questions: 4 &amp; 5</b> 4- What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?	✓	✓		✓
5- What are teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?	✓	✓		✓

<sup>8</sup> The four boxes were ticked because the workshops could have an incidental effect on teachers' beliefs and practices. They also provided actual data and assessed in answering the research questions.

#### **4.4 Research Paradigms**

There are different ways of looking at and interpreting social reality (Mack, 2010). Ontological assumptions relate to expectations about the nature of reality and the nature of things, which then affect epistemological assumptions, which inform ways to inquire into the nature of reality and the nature of things (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 21). The philosophical assumptions of the researcher are crucial, because they are inextricably intertwined with the research s/he conducts (Mack, 2010). The paradigm the researcher chooses influences how knowledge is perceived and interpreted (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). A paradigm or its synonymous term “worldview” can be defined as a “set of generalizations, beliefs, and values of a community of specialists” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 39). The main three paradigms that predominate are post-positivism, constructivism, and pragmatism. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p. 41) argue that these paradigms differ in terms of the ontology, epistemology, the role of values in research (axiology), the research process (methodology), and the research language (rhetoric). Grix (2004, p. 57) suggests researchers need to have a good understanding of philosophical underpinnings because they inform the choice of research question, methodology and methods.

I can infer that selecting a particular methodology reflects the different philosophical positions the researcher holds regarding the nature of reality and epistemological stances. Therefore, before choosing a particular methodology, the researcher should have a philosophical stance in mind. Before discussing pragmatism, which is the philosophical paradigm adopted in the current study, I briefly differentiate between two classical paradigms: the post positivist and the constructivist.

##### **4.4.1 Post positivist paradigm**

The post positivist paradigm mainly adopts an objectivist ontology; it rests on hypothesis testing and empirical epistemology, which is sometimes referred to as the “scientific method” (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006, p. 2; Mertens, 2005, p. 8). Post positivists perceive reality as singular, and tend to reject or fail to reject hypotheses

(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Researchers following this paradigm aim to be detached from the context under study. This approach is based on an empiricist assumption, in which knowledge is derived from experience. The researcher has to discover singular and universal truths that can be applied to other situations and groups irrespective of context (Croker, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2006). Their aim is to formulate hypotheses, in order to make predictions about future generalisations of findings to other contexts (Cohen et al., 2011; Croker, 2009). Regarding epistemology, the researcher is expected to be distant and impartial, objectively collecting and analysing data (discussed in section 5.4.2) as he/she aims to be unbiased (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The researcher might choose to be completely uninvolved with the participants in order not to jeopardise their objectivity (Bryman, 2008). The deductive approach is used when researchers test a particular theory (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), referring to the type of reasoning usually applied to “the relationship between theory and research in which the latter is conducted with reference to hypotheses and ideas inferred from the former” (Bryman, 2008, p. 693).

#### **4.4.2 Constructivist paradigm**

A constructivist or anti-positivist (subjectivist) paradigm on the other hand mainly adopts subjective socially constructed ontology, which rests on multiple realities and relies on participants’ views to understand the situation under study (Creswell, 2003). Constructivists believe that reality is neither universal nor agreed upon, and truth is not universal (Croker, 2009; Mertens, 2005). Researchers following this paradigm believe they cannot be detached from the context under study, and that their interpretations of social reality come from the individuals’ construction of it (Esterberg, 2001). Researchers following this paradigm are usually located close to their participants, as data is collected by visiting the participants’ sites and building closer relationships with them (Bryman, 2008). In a constructivist paradigm, individuals and events are regarded as unique and not generalisable (Cohen et al., 2011). However, constructivist researchers are criticised for being biased with regard to interpretations and findings.



The researcher is more subjective in the sense that he/she is more involved in research, and this does not involve testing a hypothesis (Mack, 2010). However, I would contend that subjectivism is not absent in quantitative research either.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argue that there is no value-free research, and such claim disregards the fact that quantitative research process are carried out by human beings who are members of different social groups. Moreover, these researchers are involved in selecting a study, developing instruments, choosing specific tests, interpreting data and, drawing conclusions. This means no study can be claimed to be fully objective (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Regardless of the paradigmatic differences between the two approaches, quantitative and qualitative researchers address research questions using empirical observations (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Constructivists apply an inductive approach, as the research starts with the participants' perceptions to construct patterns and generate theories (Cohen & Manion, 1994; Creswell, 2003). The inductive approach refers to a mode of logical inference whereby general rules or hypotheses are generated from research (e.g. literature, observations, results and data analysis) (Bryman, 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

#### **4.4.3 Pragmatic paradigm**

Having considered the above two paradigms, this study follows the pragmatist paradigm, in which both quantitative and qualitative approaches are combined (discussed in section 5.6). The study is not restricted to a certain method, as it triangulated more than one method to answer the research questions. Pragmatism is pluralistic in nature and places strong emphasis on what works (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013). This indicates the researcher's primary focus is the research questions (Creswell, 2003); as these are "central", suggesting data collection and analysis have been selected to provide insight into questions that have no "philosophical loyalty" to any paradigm (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006, p. 4). Pragmatists in general, view reality as singular or multiple, and researchers may employ both deductive and inductive reasoning by blending both quantitative and qualitative data (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Although pragmatism is usually

associated with mixed methods research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), it can be aligned philosophically with any paradigm (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

#### **4.5 Methodological approach: case study**

There are various definitions and no clear consensus about what comprises a case study. I could not find a unified definition for a case study, as each researcher defines it according to her/his perspective and domain. Chapelle and Duff (2003, p. 164) provided a specific definition for case studies with regard to the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL): “a case typically refers to a person, either a learner or a teacher, or an entity, such as a school, a university, a classroom, or a program”. Chapelle and Duff (2003, p. 164) noted that the emphasis, in case study research in TESOL, shifted from the acquisition of distinct linguistic elements to issues such as teachers’ professional development, teachers’ and learners’ identities, and skills development and its impact on learners. Yin (1994, p. 13) defined a case study as “an in depth inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context”. Stake (1998, p. 86-7) considered the main characteristics of a case study to be that it achieves a “strong naturalistic, holistic, cultural” understanding of a specific case, which might then be simple or complex. Meanwhile, Hood (2009) argues that case studies are often considered a research method rather than a research focus, and therefore providing a definition for them can be “elusive”. Hamilton and Corbett-Whittier (2013) consider the case study as an approach to research that plays an important role in educational research in terms of enhancing a researcher’s understanding of individuals, contexts and communities.

The term case study has different meanings to different researchers, but I would agree with Yin (1994), that a case study is an in depth investigation of certain phenomenon. I further agree with Stake (1998), that it provides a holistic understanding of the phenomenon under study. In my opinion, a case study can be described as an approach consolidating both quantitative and qualitative methods of data from multiple perspectives, involving the development of a theory, and collecting and analysing data by means of triangulation, leading to in-depth understanding of teachers’ beliefs and practices in an English Institute.

A case study allows the researcher to obtain an in-depth understanding of a target phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2007, p.155), because its aim is to give insight into the complexity of beliefs, attitudes, and relationships within a “bounded unit”, employing different methods of data collection (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013, p. 10). Whilst Hamilton and Corbett-Whittier (2013) describe the case study as a bounded unit, Yin (2009, p. 18) argues the boundary between the phenomenon and its context is not clear, as the case study investigates phenomena in depth within a unique context. It is important to set the case study within contextual conditions that are “highly pertinent” to the phenomenon under study. Similarly, Hood (2009) claims that the boundaries of a case might not be clear, as they are influenced by the scope of a researcher’s personal interests.

This study can be described as an instrumental case study, as its aim is to shed light on a particular problem, issue, or theory (Stake, 1995). Its focus was on an aspect of the case rather than the entire case; i.e. seven teachers working at the institute. This form of case study is commonly used to investigate aspects of learning and teaching or personal and professional issues (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013, p. 13). This project, particularly the second phase, provided an in-depth examination of the beliefs and practices of seven teachers’ CS to Arabic at the English Institute. It could be said that there has been a trend toward using the case study in TESOL, and applied linguistics (Hood, 2009). Hood explains that this trend recognises that quantitative methods cannot always answer complex questions.

The ability to incorporate multiple methods of data collection is one of the more important features of the case study (Dörnyei, 2007). Hood (2009) argues that researchers attempt to understand the world not only in terms of the generalisations provided by quantitative methods, but also through close and rich analyses, as a case study can offer the researcher a rich understanding of particular phenomenon. Similarly, Yin (2009) argues that quantitative methods, such as surveys, are limited when investigating the context of particular phenomenon, and therefore would benefit from multiple sources of evidence to gather stronger and richer evidence than

could be achieved using a single method. The current research encourages understanding of the situation that exists among teachers in classrooms, the aim being to capture the dynamic and complex interactions of the teachers and students in the classroom.

The case study has long been an object of criticism. Bryman (2004), for example, argues that it has limited external validity because the findings from a case study are not usually generalisable (Yin, 2009), as each study is context bound, and that context is unique. Thus, a case may be inconsistent with other case studies or incapable of demonstrating a positivist view of reliability (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 293). On the other hand, exponents of case studies argue that the aim of case study design is not generalising findings to other populations beyond the case investigated (e.g. Bryman, 2004). Yin (2009) for example claims that a case study opts for “analytical” rather than “statistical” generalisations, which might help other researchers to understand similar phenomena, cases, or situations (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 294). Nonetheless, it is suggested that the results of the current case study may be of significance to foreign language teachers of English at other universities working in an Arabic context. The rationale supporting this suggestion is that the research questions posed in this study could be applied to teachers working in similar contexts.

#### **4.6 Mixed methods research**

This study could be described as employing a mixed methods research. It adopts the ontological perspective that a phenomenon is complex and that using a single method would give partial results and an “incomplete understanding”, resting on the epistemology that a combination of methods are required to fully understand a phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 116). It contributes to our knowledge of CS by enhancing our understanding of in what way, if any, teachers’ beliefs changed over the semester as a result of attending the workshops.

There were conflicting views among methodologists regarding mixing both methods. While some researchers claimed that both methods can be combined in a single study (e.g. Bryman, 2008; Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011) to enhance “the scope, depth, and power” of the research (Punch, 2009, p. 295), other methodologists were sceptical about its efficacy. Scepticism among purist methodologists with regard to mixing both methods stems from the differences in assumptions between both paradigms, and the difficulties encountered when mixing different sets of data in a single study, especially when researchers are untrained. Silverman (2005, p. 122) for example argues that adopting multiple methods to investigate a certain phenomenon, hoping to get “the whole picture”, can lead to under-analysed data, especially when the researcher is a novice. In a similar vein, Morgan (1998) argues that combining both methods could be technically challenging; although it is appealing to think that combining both methods could maximise the strength of the study, in practice, “this goal has proven to be elusive” (p. 362). Morgan adds that that combining both methods is difficult, because of the conflict between the positivist and constructivist paradigms, which could lead to the violation of paradigmatic assumptions.

#### **4.6.1 Rationale behind mixing both methods**

Despite the scepticism about employing both methods, the rationale for mixing both types of data in this study is that it suited the research questions and the context. It made it possible to provide a good understanding of the use of Arabic in the institute from the teachers’ perspectives, and to provide a richer understanding of the research question (Bryman, Becker & Sempik, 2008; Bryman, 2006; Cohen et al., 2011), by bringing more comprehensive data to bear to increase the validity of the results (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). The strongest reason for combining both methods was the complexity of the many factors influencing teachers’ beliefs. Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003, p. 379) directed: “researchers undertaking mixed methods techniques should seek to defend explicitly the approaches they are employing”. I argue that the research questions and the context in this study were best addressed by mixing both qualitative and quantitative methods, the results of which were then triangulated and analysed. While questionnaires provide a broad

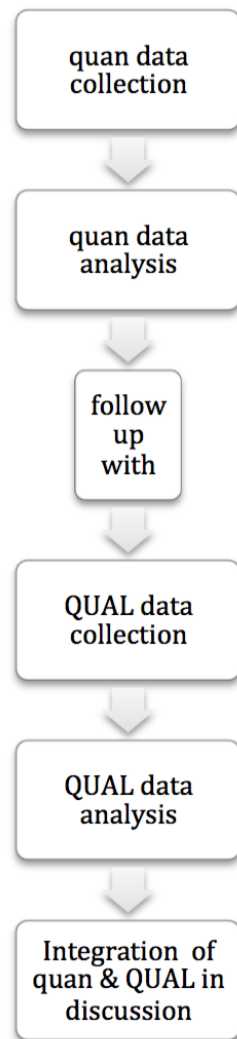
picture of practices across the institution, interviews offer in-depth explanations of phenomena.

Both triangulation and mixed methods seems to overlap; this involves using multiple sources to confirm findings. However, mixed methods is a broader concept; as it can be considered an approach to conducting research that integrates both quantitative and qualitative data when collecting and analysing data. One of the benefits of following such an approach is the possibility of triangulation, which includes several aspects such as theories, methods, and researchers. Triangulation (or convergent design) is used to increase the internal validity of a study strategically (Merriam, 2009), and can involve collecting both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently in a single phase (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Triangulation is defined as the use of more than one method of data collection to study human behaviour (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 195), and “methodological triangulation” involves mixing more than one method (Denzin, 1970) for data collection and analysis to provide a holistic view of the use of Arabic at the English Institute. Triangulation can assist the researcher in generating a more valid and reliable construction of reality (Golafshani, 2003), attempting to “explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 195).

#### **4.6.2 Description of the explanatory sequential design**

This study employed an explanatory sequential design (see figure 4.1) proposed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, 2011). As illustrated in the figure below, the data collection began by collecting and analysing quantitative data, but this was not prioritised in the study (it is denoted using lower case (quant)). The first phase was followed by subsequent qualitative data collection and analysis. The upper case (QUAL) conveys the intention to emphasise that the predominant disposition was toward employing qualitative methods. The last stage of the design shows the two data sets are ultimately merged to corroborate the findings obtained with each method.

Figure 4:1 The Explanatory Sequential Design, adapted from Ivankova and Stick (2007, p. 98)<sup>9</sup>



## 4.7 Procedure

### 4.7.1 Quantitative phase

At the beginning of the 2013 term (January 26<sup>th</sup>), I proceeded with the data collection, which lasted for over a period of four months (see research plan Table 4.2). In the first phase, I carried out a quantitative exploration of the phenomenon by administering an online closed questionnaire via an email attachment to all the faculty members ( $n = 220$ ) in the English Institute, to explore their beliefs about their

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<sup>9</sup> “quan” stand for quantitative, “Qual” stands for qualitative, the arrow stands for sequential, lower case letters denote lower priority, and upper case letters denote higher priority.

own use and their students' use of Arabic in the English classroom. A call for participants was made by The Head of the Regular Students' Affair in emails to all the EFL teachers. This appeal requested they help their colleague collect data for her PhD studies; however, only eight teachers filled out the questionnaire in the first week.

Eventually, 71 teachers returned the questionnaire, and 67 of these were usable. This response rate was low. It was predicted initially that around 110 out of the 220 teachers would return the questionnaire. Four were excluded because the responses were frivolous or incomplete. One was incomplete, in another, the respondent showed a lack of interest by ticking the "neither agree nor disagree" option all the way through the first part of the questionnaire. On two questionnaires, the respondents wrote: "I don't speak Arabic" at the top of the first page and left the questionnaire blank. It might be that they felt that the topic did not apply to them. Thus, just 31% of the population responded to the questionnaire, and many teachers claimed they had lost it; this lack of reliability prevented me from asking them to fill out the questionnaire again.

I presumed that this low response rate was due to a lack of interest from the teachers or because they felt threatened by the topic. Many teachers refused to complete the questionnaire claiming that they do not use Arabic inside their classrooms, abiding by the strict policy at the institute that prohibits the use of the L1 when teaching L2 (the policy is discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.2.3.3). Some of the other teachers were reluctant to answer because they expressed a dislike for the limitations of the questionnaire, because it used the Likert scale.

#### **4.7.2 Qualitative phase**

In this phase, twelve teachers were initially recruited, but five teachers later stopped responding to my calls and text messages. Even though they were informed at the outset that the workshops would be scheduled at convenient times, some teachers subsequently insisted that the workshops would interfere with their busy schedules. As the policy of the institute prohibits the use of L1 in classroom, I



presume that some teachers were reluctant to voice their true opinions or reveal their actual practices. Eventually, seven teachers were interested in contributing to the project and attending all four workshops. This adequate sample was appropriate, as it expanded teachers' opportunities to speak, leading to sustained dynamic discussions and preventing potential disruptive side talk (see Table 4.2 below for the research plan).

Table 4:2 Research plan

The English Institute Timetable	Total Response	Task Name	Start date	End Date
<b>PHASE ONE</b>				
Module 3 (In Semester 2)	8	Administered hard copies of questionnaire to teachers  Head of the Regular Students' Affair sent an online copy to teachers	January 26	February 1
		Re-sent online questionnaire	2 February	8 February
	12	Conducted first set of observations	10 February	18 February
<b>PHASE TWO</b>				
Cross Checking week (Exam moderation)	71	Administered more hard & soft copies of questionnaire	23 February	27 February
		Prepared for interviews	23 February	27 February
End of module 3	9	Conducted first set of interviews	2 March	13 March
Mid-term vacation		Prepared for workshops	14 March	31 March
Module 4 (In Semester 2)	5	Conducted first workshop: group A	1 April	1 April
	3	Conducted first workshop: group B	2 April	2 April
	5	Conducted second workshop: group A	8 April	8 April
	2	Conducted second workshop: group B	9 April	9 April
Cross checking week (Exam moderation)			13 April	17 April
	5	Conducted third workshop: group A	22 April	22 April
	3	Conducted third workshop: group B	23 April	23 April
	4	Conducted fourth workshop: group A	30 April	30 April
	3	Conducted fourth workshop: group B	1 May	1 May
	7	Administered questionnaire	4 May	7 May
	7	Conducted second set of Observations	4 May	7 May
	7	Conducted second set of interviews	4 May	7 May
	7	Collected questionnaire	11 May	14 May

## **4.8 Sampling**

### **4.8.1 The quantitative phase of sampling**

The English Institute has three branches located across three different campuses. All the data collection was carried out at the main campus. Although simple random sampling would have been more appropriate for the quantitative phase, as this type of probability sampling seeks representativeness of the wider population (Teddlie & Yu, 2007; Cohen et al., 2011), since this study was largely qualitative in nature and the quantitative stage was a starting point, this type of sampling was not used. Therefore, I opted for convenience sampling in the first phase. Convenience sampling allows the selection of participants who are available and easily accessible (Merriam, 2009), which suited the researcher's circumstances. This does, however, limit the ability to generalise beyond the institution, "As it does not represent any group apart from itself, it does not seek to generalize about the wider population, for a convenience sample that is irrelevant" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 165).

The major reason for selecting a single campus was easy access, because I am part of the faculty staff, and the vice dean in the main campus offered full support to me throughout the whole study. Additionally, I did not have access to the other branches because they were overseen by different vice-deans in the female sections. The two main criteria for selecting the sample:

- 1- Exclude teachers on scholarships as they would not be available to take part in the second qualitative phase; and
- 2- Since the institute recruits teachers from diverse backgrounds, the questionnaire was sent to both Saudi and non-Saudi teachers to capture the diversity of opinions in the institute.

### **4.8.2 Sub-sampling in the qualitative phase**

The teachers, who were recruited in the second phase of the project completed the questionnaire, as they were representative of the first major sample. The sampling technique was characterised by elements of purposive sampling. In purposive sampling, cases are chosen based on their association with research

questions (Teddlie & Yu, 2007), rather than choosing them randomly (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), because the emphasis is on the depth of information generated by the participants (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). This type of sampling was the most suitable type available to the researcher. The participants were appropriate for the study as they all shared a degree of commonality, sharing the same profession (teaching English) and place of employment (English Institute). Saudi nationals and non-Saudi nationals were included to reflect the wide range nationalities among the institute teachers. Sharing a broad degree of familiarity with the researcher made the teachers more inclined to tell the truth and to disclose their opinions unreservedly when discussing their beliefs with other participants. All the participants participated in the study on a voluntarily basis.

#### **4.9 Participants**

The participants' ages ranged from 23 to over 37. I decided that it was culturally inappropriate to ask them their exact age. Five teachers had master's degrees and two had bachelor degrees. Five teachers had completed full-time teacher training courses. Their backgrounds were in literature, language teaching, and linguistics. Although I recruited Saudi and non-Saudi teachers, this was not of relevance as a study variable, as all were treated the same. Table 4.3 below includes some demographic information about the seven participants.

Table 4:3 Profile of participants

Name & Nationality	L1	Years of teaching	Highest qualification	Degree	Country of highest Qual.	Training	Age Catg.
Ayisha Egyptian	Arabic	23	Bachelors	Literature	Egypt	Part-time Short course	Over 37
Karima Saudi	Arabic	7	Masters	Language teaching & Literature	UK	Degree by Girls College of Education in Jeddah	28-32
Rana Saudi	Arabic	6	Masters	Linguistics	Saudi Arabia	No training	33-37
Lama Saudi	Arabic	5	Bachelors	Literature	Saudi Arabia	Short Course	23-27
Tala Indian	Urdu	17	Masters	Language teaching & Literature	India	CELTA Provided by Cambridge	Over 37
Maysa Saudi	Arabic	6	Masters	Linguistics Language teaching & Literature	Canada	Full-time Short course	23-27
Sally Saudi	Arabic	7	Masters	Linguistics Language teaching & Literature	Saudi Arabia	Full-time Short course from Oxford Uni.	28-32

#### 4.10 Data Collection tools

##### 4.10.1 Stage one: the quantitative stage - Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to answer four research questions:

- RQ1. To what extent if any did the non-native English teachers' beliefs differ before, during, and after attending the workshops?
- RQ2. What is the relationship between the non-native English teachers' beliefs about their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classroom?
- RQ3. What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?

RQ4. What are teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?

A questionnaire affords the researcher many advantages. It is a method widely used to deliver a numeric description of attitudes, trends, or opinions among a population by investigating a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). The interviewer effect is limited in self-completion questionnaires, since the interviewer is not present (Bryman, 2004). Teachers might be expected to feel at ease answering questions and not feel forced to give answers (Nortier, 2008). For example, Munn and Drever (1990) pointed out three additional advantages when using questionnaires. They highlighted that questionnaires are time efficient, assure anonymity, and that questions are standardised. They are time efficient in that respondents can complete them in their own time. They can also be time efficient as they can be used to reach a larger number of potential participants in a relatively short time (Drever, 1990). Absence of the researcher ensures anonymity. Questionnaires are completed anonymously thus ensuring more frank responses from respondents (Drever, 1990). For this reason, in the questionnaires, all statements and questions are standardised, i.e. presented in the same order to all respondents.

#### **4.10.1.1 Some disadvantages of self-completion questionnaire**

However, as a research instrument, questionnaires have some limitations. Some of these limitations are related to the methods used to administer them, the quality of data generated from questionnaires, or the respondents themselves. These problems, however, as shown in the following section, were addressed by piloting the questionnaire, and by conducting interviews with seven teachers to clarify their opinions and allow for further discussions.

The method used to administer questionnaires affects the response rate. The way of administering the questionnaire in this study was online. Bryman (2008) specifies that online surveys commonly have a low response rate and require respondents to be intrinsically motivated to answer the questions. In my research context, I did not anticipate a high response rate from the teachers. As the teachers

were very busy, they lacked the motivation to respond. The standard teaching load for some full-time faculty members was just 18 or 20 hours per week. I had imagined that discussing the rationale of my study before administering the questionnaire might have increased their willingness to cooperate, but it did not seem to help.

The second main limitation is the quality of data generated from questionnaires. Questionnaires can attract superficial and relatively brief engagement from participants (Dörnyei, 2007). In fact, it did not matter that the teachers were only briefly engaged in the first phase, as the aim was to collect some general information about the teachers and their beliefs about CS. I believe that the questionnaire served the objectives of the study by providing background information about CS.

Another disadvantage relates to the respondents' nature and understanding of the questionnaire. There is a tendency for respondents to skip some questions, which could result in missing data for some variables (Bryman, 2004). In my study context, some teachers failed to answer the open-ended questions. This might be because open questions are time consuming, as teachers need to consciously think and explain the reasons behind their own and the students' CS. The respondents might also need to add more information than is allowed for in the questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2011). The respondents might also have no scope to clarify the meaning of the statements made (Munn & Drever, 1990). In general, therefore, it is anticipated that respondents might vary in their interpretation of the closed questions (Bryman, 2008), thereby jeopardising the validity of the questionnaire. Therefore, in the piloting stage, as discussed below, I aimed to check the clarity of the wording and the appropriacy of the length of the questionnaire.

To overcome the limitations that arose, the questionnaires were followed up by interviews to gather comprehensive insights from the teachers. In addition, the classrooms were observed to compare the teachers' responses with their actual practices. To check the reliability of the questionnaire (see section 4.16.1), the

coefficient alpha was used to check the internal consistency of the instrument (Punch, 2009).

#### **4.10.1.2 Piloting the questionnaire**

The questionnaire was piloted with five colleagues working at the English Institute, to ensure any necessary adjustments had been made before distribution to the target population (Cohen et al., 2011). It is recommended that in initial piloting, three to four trusted colleagues should be requested to deliver feedback (Dörnyei, 2007). These colleagues were lecturers at the ELI, all of whom are currently PhD students. They offered to assist in the piloting stage at a time of their convenience. I chose these colleagues as potential participants sharing similar characteristics with the subjects recruited and included in the main study. Their suggestions were acted upon and the amended questionnaire distributed to other respondents to gather further feedback. In December 2012, I contacted a colleague to help me administer the questionnaire to all the faculty members at the English department where she works. After this, I then sent the questionnaire as an email link to English teachers working at two different Saudi universities. In total, 41 returned the questionnaire. Piloting helped me eliminate unclear and redundant phrases, because there was no chance to negotiate or clarify the meaning of the questions (Munn & Drever, 1990) (details are presented in Appendix 1).

#### **4.10.1.3 Layout and design of questionnaire**

The questionnaire (see Appendix 2) provided a brief explanation of the purpose of the study, aiming to elicit teachers' beliefs about their own and their students' use of Arabic in the classroom. The participants were assured that their responses would be handled with confidentiality. Prior to completing the survey, brief and clear instructions were given on how to answer the questions. The respondents were informed that a summary of the findings in English would be provided once the study was completed.

##### **4.10.1.3.1 Closed questions**

The questionnaire was divided into three parts. The first part (statements 1-16) (see Appendix 2) examined teachers' beliefs about their CS in the EFL



classroom, using a five-point Likert (agree/disagree) scale. The statements were coded (t1, t2, and so on). T stands for teacher; for example, statement 1: “I believe that using Arabic helps my students understand new vocabulary”, was coded as t1.

The five-point Likert scale (always/never) was used in the second part (statements 18- 30) to examine teachers’ beliefs about students’ CS in the classroom. The statements in this part were coded as (s18, s19, and so on). S denotes student. The score of 1 represents strong agreement with the statement or extensive usage of Arabic. At the opposite end of the scale, a score of 5 represents strong disagreement or no usage of Arabic. This pattern was followed for all 29 statements on the questionnaire.

Employment of the Likert-scale was appropriate for this study, as it measures questions about beliefs regarding teachers’ level of agreement about the use of L1 in their classrooms. It is a rating scale questionnaire, giving a selection of responses to a given statement or a question (Cohen et al., 2011). The literature shows that a broad range of tools, including Likert-scale questionnaires, was used to examine beliefs (e.g. Lamki, 2009); suggesting this scale is appropriate when investigating teachers’ beliefs.

Alternative scales that are also frequently used to investigate beliefs and attitudes were not employed in the current study, for example, descriptions such as: “very often”, “fairly often” were not used, to avoid confusion, because they are interpreted differently by participants (Friedman and Amoo, 1999, p. 3). I also considered that the meaning of the adverb “often” is somewhat vague. The “semantic differential scale” was not appropriate for this study. Osgood et al. (1957, cited in Cohen et al., 2011, p. 387), notes that this rating scale is most appropriate across three contexts: evaluative (e.g. good-bad); potency (e.g. large-small), and activity (e.g. quick-slow). The semantic deferential scale may be ideal for measuring the frequency of CS, but the focus was not on measuring the frequency of CS inside classrooms. However, both the semantic differential and the Likert scales can be viewed as vague as Cohen et al. (2011, p. 387) note: “there is no assumption of equal

intervals between the categories.” For example, one may not be able to infer whether the intensity of feeling between “agree” and “strongly agree” matches the intensity of feeling between “disagree” and “strongly disagree”.

Finally, “multiple-choice items” were included in the latter part of the questionnaire (questions 32-39) to collect personal information, including the teachers’ ages, highest qualifications, countries of qualifications obtained, majors, years of teaching experience, and training (see Appendix 2 and Table 4.3 above). Dichotomous questions requiring Yes/ No answers were included in the latter part to ask teachers about their previous training. This order was retained after piloting revealing it as acceptable.

#### **4.10.1.3.2 Open questions**

There were three open questions in the questionnaire, allowing the participants to elaborate on and explain their personal responses. The end of each section included one open question requiring a free response. These questions were not included in the quantitative data analysis and were analysed qualitatively. The first one was: ‘What is the origin of your beliefs about the use of Arabic in the classroom?’ The second question was: ‘what do you believe are the factors that influence students’ use of Arabic in the classroom?’ And the third question was: ‘what is the policy about using Arabic in English classroom in your institute?’

#### **4.10.1.4 The models followed to develop the questionnaire**

The questionnaire is a widely used tool in studies that have examined CS in second and foreign language contexts, and I considered adapting from various questionnaires, while meeting the following criteria:

- 1- Selecting questionnaires focused on attitudes or beliefs;
- 2- Excluding questionnaires focusing on students’ beliefs or attitudes, as the objective was to uncover teachers’ beliefs;
- 3- Ensuring acceptable reliability for the instrument;
- 4- Excluding questionnaires discussing L2 use, as the focus was on L1 use; and

- 5- Selecting questionnaires focused on why teachers and students use the L1 and for what functions.

I developed the questionnaire according to Ferguson's (2003, 2009) classification of functions of CS (discussed in Chapter 2, sections 2.6 & 2.7). Chiefly, many of the statements were adapted from Yao's (2011) questionnaire. However, the statements were later amended and modified in the piloting stage to suit the purpose of the study. Although Alshammari (2011) conducted his study in the Saudi Arabian context, his questionnaire was not adopted because the reliability of the instrument was not checked (details of these studies were discussed in Chapter 2 section 2.8).

#### **4.11 Stage two: the qualitative stage: Workshops**

The four workshops were mainly considered as treatments, to raise teachers' awareness of L1 use in the language classroom. They were not originally intended to answer any research question. However, after transcribing the workshop data, some parts of the discussions were used as data. I carried out eight workshops with two groups of teachers. These workshops were considered non-experimental interventions, as there was no control groups. There was also an attempt to determine if presenting teachers with research findings brought about a change in their beliefs and practices surrounding CS in classroom.

The treatment provided insight into how beliefs could be potentially modified over the semester as a result of workshop participation. The discussions provided a collective view of the topic, creating opportunities to raise new issues and elicit unexpected perspectives regarding L1 practice. In addition, the discussions helped me to compare the participants' views, and showed me how participating in discussions might influence or otherwise teachers' beliefs and practices. However, I was conscious that the participants would only express their professed L1 use. They shared homogeneous backgrounds but not beliefs; homogeneous in the sense that they all shared the same profession. All the participants were English language teachers. The range of teachers' opinions was important to the workshops, because

each teacher had a different experience, contributing different insight to the arguments and enriching the data. Discussions in which the participants agree about everything were discouraged, as they cause the data to lack “richness” (Barbour, 2007, p. 59).

To ensure the researcher showed no bias towards or against the use of L1, the pilot study was carried out with three participants all of whom are colleagues of the researcher. They were originally lecturers at the English Institute, and are currently PhD students.

#### **4.11.1 Number of groups and participants**

Seven teachers working at the ELI were divided into two workshops as shown in Table 4.2. The rationale behind dividing them was that it was challenging to find a time that suited them all. Most of the time, the second workshop consisted of only two teachers. I felt that working with two participants was not problematic because the teachers had sufficient experience and a genuine interest in the topic, which led them to speak at length about it in discussions.

The limited number of participants in the workshops made it easier for the researcher to identify individual voices and request further clarification and explanations. In addition, it encouraged participation in the discussions, because some individuals felt more confident and more comfortable about talking in a small group. The participants in the two mini workshops had a range of experiences and much information to share about CS to L1 in the classroom.

#### **4.11.2 Procedure**

In the actual study, informal permission from two professors was obtained to use their classrooms during the midday break (12:00 -1:00 p.m.). The duration of the meetings ranged between 38 and 44 minutes, as the teachers requested they leave early in order to rest and to prepare for the subsequent classes. Four workshops were carried out at different points during the second semester (January-March) of the academic year 2013 (see Table 4.2 in section 4.7.2).

The teachers were invited to consider the issue of CS in the foreign language classroom, as it is a subject of considerable debate among researchers. In each session, just two articles were presented to avoid the teachers experiencing fatigue, and to give them sufficient time to discuss their views. Since the teachers had heavy teaching loads, they were not required to do any reading in advance. Instead, they were exposed to the researcher's synthesis of the articles, followed by a researcher led discussion about each article in an attempt to scaffold reflective thinking.

The first slide for each PowerPoint presentation included preliminary questions to discuss. These questions related to the topic to be presented. During the sessions, I presented two empirical studies about CS in the classroom across different multilingual settings. The teachers were then given an opportunity to comment and discuss their attitudes toward the empirical studies. Afterwards, the researcher introduced some questions related to the articles to ascertain whether the presentations helped the teachers reflect on their beliefs (See Appendix 3 for an outline of the workshops presentations). As they were aware that they were not required to prepare for the sessions, the teachers attended four successive workshops. One topic was discussed at each workshop in the order presented below:

- 1- Functions of code-switching;
- 2- Teachers' attitudes towards the L1 in the EFL classroom;
- 3- L1 versus L2 glosses; and
- 4- The impact of L1 on vocabulary learning.

The reason for choosing these topics was they had been widely discussed in the literature. Since the focus of my study was on language classrooms, the articles selected discussed CS in the language classroom. The articles also revealed that the use of CS has always been present regardless of stated policies and the teaching approaches used. The articles were selected from a variety of different contexts, aiming to raise the teachers' awareness that this practice was not bounded by context.

In order to create a balance, and to avoid influencing the teachers' beliefs in a positive or a negative way about this practice, I presented one article that supported CS and another article that was against it (See Appendix 3). It was challenging to find two contrasting views on the topic, and this limited my choices of articles. Influential researchers who had been highly cited were selected in both cases. Furthermore, I chose the articles that would help me to answer the researcher questions.

#### **4.11.3 Some disadvantages of group discussions**

Although the workshops provided an insight into how opinions are formed, peer group responses might have influenced the participants' answers. In the course of such a discussion, participants might change their minds about the topic under discussion (Barbour, 2007) due to the influence of their peers. Another issue raised was the possibility that one or two voices might dominate the group. Thus, from the first session onwards, all the participants were given equal opportunities to express their opinions. The technique that I used with those teachers who tended to be quiet was to ask them questions directly.

Another limitation affecting the workshops was that the teachers' responses could be prejudiced by their own interests and preconceptions notions. The teachers might also not be genuinely interested in the project or genuinely engaged in the discussions. However, in the present study, only those teachers who were genuinely interested in topic remained until the end of the project.

It was also challenging to control the issue of "no shows" and to persuade participants attend the sessions on time (Bryman, 2008, p. 479-488; Krueger, 1994, p. 89-90). Working with teachers can be challenging, as they are usually very busy and have different beliefs, styles, and professional experiences. For these reasons, it can be challenging to sustain their motivation and willingness to continue participating (Barbour, 2007). Luckily, all my participants attended the scheduled discussions. In order to solve the potential "no show" problem, I over recruited teachers on the basis that one or more teachers might not attend. As I am a member

of the teaching faculty, this encouraged my colleagues to come to the discussions. Additionally, beverages and some snacks were made available at each session to encourage attendance, which was appreciated.

#### **4.12 One-to-one interviews**

I carried out semi-structured interviews (see research plan table in section 4.7.2) to answer the following research questions:

- RQ1. To what extent if any did the non-native English teachers' beliefs differ before, during, and after attending the workshops?
- RQ2. What is the relationship between the non-native English teachers' beliefs about their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classroom?
- RQ3. What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?
- RQ4. What are teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?

Some of the questions cannot be answered solely through observations. I needed to know the teachers' views about their use of Arabic, their beliefs about the ELI policy, their awareness of the strategies they were using to convey meaning to students, and the effect of discussions on their beliefs and practices. Therefore, I conducted semi-structured interviews on two occasions, after observing their classrooms before and after the workshops.

Interviews give in depth insight into individuals' perceptions, beliefs, experiences, and motivations (Richards, 2009). Face-to-face and semi-structured interviews were conducted to deliver in-depth understanding (Drever, 1995; Esterberg, 2001) of the teachers' beliefs about their own and students' L1 use, by seeking explanations and exploring each participant's viewpoints.

The process of semi-structured interviews is flexible and the interviewees' perspectives are important for understanding and explaining patterns, events, and

forms of behaviour (Bryman, 2008). Semi-structured interviews can cover information about the participants' circumstances, opinions and find out about their experiences and motivations (Drever, 1995; Esterberg, 2001).

I had some prepared questions to ask, and the process was fixed to some extent (See Appendices 8 & 9), as with semi-structured interviews, the interviewer decides on a general structure in advance, outlining questions to be asked and data to be covered (Drever, 1995). The teachers discussed their beliefs concerning different issues, such as the obstacles they face during L2 teaching. The teachers elaborated on the need to develop teacher practices and for the provision of additional training. Seeking their views on Arabic use, helped to uncover their concerns and discover issues that would not have been revealed without interviews, such as the origin of their beliefs, and the techniques they use in classrooms to elicit responses from students.

Unstructured interviews were deliberately not employed in this study. Although unstructured interviews allow maximum flexibility to elicit interviewees' stories, they lack explicit direction (Dörnyei, 2007; Esterberg, 2001). Bryman (2008) notes that if the researcher has a clear focus, it is likely that semi-structured interviews will be most applicable. Similarly, the structured interview was avoided, for the reason that it would not fulfil the requirements set out in the second phase of the study, which involved eliciting rich data from participants.

#### **4.12.1 Piloting the interviews**

In order to reduce bias and increase the reliability of the interview data, the questions were piloted to formulate clear questions. During the piloting stage, some questions were altered and the some wording amended to make the questions clearer and easier to comprehend. The interviews were piloted with five colleagues who were not involved in the main study, to evaluate how the interviews would work and how long they would take to conduct (Drever, 1995). These five colleagues were lecturers at the ELI who are currently also PhD students. The interview guide was



planned based on information obtained from the literature and during informal discussions with colleagues.

In the first set of interviews (see Appendix 10), the first question “What is your policy about the use of Arabic in your classes?” was eliminated, as it had already been included in the questionnaire. In addition, the second question “Do you think that using Arabic is a sign of less or more creative teaching?” was eliminated as the pilot group thought it was unclear. The wording of the fifth question “Do you think that using Arabic can make your students more or less interested in learning English?” was altered as the teachers considered it a leading question. It was changed to “do you think using Arabic affects your students’ attitudes towards learning English?”

#### **4.12.2 Procedure**

A series of 14 one-to-one interviews were conducted. As an integral part of the research design, the first set of interviews took place before the workshops and the follow up interviews were conducted after the workshops.

To put the teachers at their ease, each teacher was asked which language they preferred to use during the interview before the recording commenced. The participants were provided with a spoken and written rationale for the research (Bryman, 2004). They were assured that the dialogues were between peers. This emphasis on equality is believed to have reduced tension and anxiety among participants. Each interview lasted between 20 to 30 minutes, and the interviews were arranged according to the teachers’ schedules. My participants chose the time, the location, and the length of the interviews. Some teachers were willing to give me 30 minutes of their time but other participants requested a shorter interview.

#### **4.12.3 Some disadvantages of interviews**

Being an insider can be a limitation when conducting research. Two different arguments have been put forward on this issue. Munn and Drever (1990) argue that being a teacher-researcher collecting information from people s/he knows may lead

participants to be less frank in interviews, whereas Bryman (2004) claims that too much rapport can cause participants to give answers deliberately intended to please the interviewer. It might be true that to some extent being a teacher researcher or an insider inhibits participants from voicing their true opinions on some occasions. I also observed that some of the participants, especially the non-Saudi teachers were completely opposed to the use of Arabic. This might be because they did not speak Arabic as a first language, or because they were on annual contracts and were anxious about losing their jobs. In addition, many teachers appeared to feel guilty about CS, as they perhaps did not want to be judged by the researcher as lacking competence. However, I was to some degree still being viewed as a colleague by many teachers. I argue that being an insider and building strong relationships with participants was generally a strength leading them to be more honest. Another advantage of being an insider was that it relaxed my participants and was useful for encouraging them to attend the workshops. I also informed them beforehand informally that the information they might share would be invaluable to my research.

Using group discussions as the basis for data collection involves some risk of bias as complete objectivity is not possible. Specifically, the researcher can find it difficult to separate his or her stance as a social scientist from that of the participants' (Bryman, 2004). Moreover, the researcher's persona and history cannot be excluded from discussion (Barbour, 2007; Vaughn, Shay Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996). The researcher, however, can compensate for this by monitoring his or her verbal and non-verbal responses (Vaughn et al., 1996). The researcher had to be careful not to exert "too much influence over the participants and thereby inhibiting the participants' free expression" (Vaughn et al., 1996, p. 90). I acknowledge that the researcher's influence on the study cannot be denied. Undoubtedly, the researcher can have a positive impact when directing discussions, probing for responses to enhance understanding, and when discouraging some responses to avoid deviation from the research focus (Vaughn et al., 1996).

Qualitative research cannot be immune from subjectivity, since the researcher makes an active contribution to the generated data (Barbour, 2007) by determining

the way in which the data is collected, which affects the outcome (Punch, 2009). Having recognised these limitations, to avoid bias during the discussions, I refrained from voicing my opinion about CS in classroom. Bias based on favouring CS might lead participants to adopt that stance, thinking that it is the best practice. I also gave each participant equal opportunity to discuss her personal beliefs about L1, without judging them as being good or bad. In addition, during the piloting stage, I also took into account these limitations to minimise the possibility of bias.

It has been suggested that recruiting an outside moderator to run discussions used as a basis for data collection can minimise the possibility of “moderator contamination” (Vaughn et al., 1996, p. 89). However, I believe that outside researchers also bring certain perspectives to a project. Moreover, I accept that “fully-objective” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 16) and “position-free” research is an impossibility (Punch, 2009, p. 45). Furthermore, an outsider researcher might have limited understanding of the project and the context, and might not have sufficient interest in the research, which could jeopardise the quality of the data.

Certainly, both positions have their advantages and disadvantages. Recognising the strengths and weaknesses of the researcher’s position can, however, help maximise the advantages and minimise the disadvantages (Punch, 2009). In this research, the researcher’s knowledge of the context brought an insider’s understanding (Punch, 2009) of the institute, the teachers, and the classroom contexts. Punch adds that such an understanding can bring depth and enrich a study, especially during the interpretation of the results. In these discussions, I performed two functions, one as the workshop leader when introducing the articles, and the other as a researcher, noting down their reactions. My awareness of the danger of insider bias enabled me to take steps to minimise it.

I acknowledge that on a few occasions subjectivity surfaced during the interviews, but Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 205) argue that leading questions may play a positive role. Some use of leading questions helps the interviewer to gather information that the interviewee might otherwise conceal

(Kvale, 1996). In my case, this approach was only used when the participants could not find the right words to express themselves, and to check on what the participants had already said previously on different occasions, or when the participants tended to be silent, only providing yes or no answers.

#### **4.13 Observations**

The observations were carried out in order to answer two of the research questions:

- RQ1. To what extent, if any, do workshops have an impact on the non-native English teachers' use of Arabic (L1) in the foreign language classroom?
- RQ2. What is the relationship between non-native English teachers' beliefs about their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classroom?

Observation requires “the conscious noticing and detailed examination of participants' behaviour in a naturalistic setting” (Cowie, 2009, p. 166). In the present study, seven teachers were observed, on two separate occasions. The first observation took place in weeks three and four, before running the workshops, and the second observation took place in week 15 toward the end of the second semester (see Table 4.2 section 4.7.2), in order to compare whether attendance at the workshops had an impact on teachers' practices inside the classroom.

Observations are helpful for providing first hand data. They provide understanding of the general atmosphere in a class and the interaction that takes place, helping me to relate what the teachers discussed in the interviews and workshops with what they actually did. As highlighted by Dörnyei (2007), and Simpson and Tuson (1995), observations differ from questionnaires and interviews, because the researcher can obtain direct information regarding what people are doing, rather than relying on self-reported responses to discover the things that participants might not discuss freely in interviews (Cohen et al., 2011; Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, the researcher can allegedly obtain a more “objective account” of a phenomenon rather than relying on “second-hand” data (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 185).

Observations can be more objective than other qualitative methods, in the sense that they allow researchers to observe directly, without needing to rely on the participants (Dörnyei, 2007). Cohen et al. (2011), on the other hand, discuss different aspects of objectivity. According to them, observations are more objective, because they provide the researcher with an opportunity to discover features of reality that the participants are unwilling to discuss or unable to express. I believe even though observations are more objective than questionnaires and interviews, they are still subjective, as what is recorded is largely based on the observers' goals and interests. In addition, the presence of the observer can be perceived as a threat and invasion of both teachers and students' personal space, consequently affecting the objectivity of the method (as discussed below).

#### **4.13.1 Piloting the observation**

The piloting took place in the second week of January 2013, to test the possibility of making audio recordings while conducting the observation in the main study. In the pilot stage, I aimed to find out about the use of Arabic by teachers, the students' reaction to my presence inside the classroom, and to practise filling in the observational checklist adapted from Macaro's study (1997, p. 210-11). One teacher was happy to let me come into her class, but video recording was not allowed. I observed her classroom for 45 minutes.

This teacher was teaching 15 students from level three. I noticed during my visit that she used Arabic intermittently throughout the whole class (45 minutes), especially when explaining vocabulary meaning and grammar. I found that some of the students were quite happy to participate and only a few were shy or suspicious of my presence. My visit to the class gave me a broad impression of the factors that might lead to teachers using Arabic. In addition, I was able to make a preliminary comparison between the teacher's responses to the questionnaire and her use of Arabic inside the classroom.

#### **4.13.2 Rationale behind choosing semi-structured observations**

Classroom observation styles range from unstructured to structured. In the case of structured observations, the researcher must set a clear focus and explicit criteria for the observation, determining precisely what they should be looking for and recording. The criteria set are usually included in observational schedules, to systematically record participants' behaviour (Bryman, 2008). Conversely, in unstructured observations, the researcher does not use an observation schedule and tends to record as much as possible to develop understanding of the participants' behaviour (Cohen et al., 2011). For this study, I carried out a semi-structured observation, involving the use of checklists and field notes.

Semi-structured observation is less systematic; the researcher has a plan and gathers data to produce a clear picture (Cohen et al., 2011). I employed this approach because it provides an overall impression of the participants' context, and their behaviour, which could not be provided by structured observation alone.

#### **4.13.3 The use of checklist and notes**

For a semi-structured observation, the researcher uses a checklist, or schedule, in conjunction with notes to record unplanned or emergent issues (O'Leary, 2004). A schedule provides the observer with very similar accounts of the same events across observed cases (Simpson & Tuson, 1995). As the primary focus of this study was the teachers not the students, each time the teacher uses Arabic, a check mark was entered in front of the related statement. The aim was to compare the frequency of L1 use among teachers at the beginning and end of the semester. The observational schedule used for this study was adapted from Macaro (1997, p. 210-211) (see Appendix 11). Punch (2009) argues that using an already existing research instrument enables comparison of the study results with previous ones if the same instrument is used.

Four statements were added to Macaro's (1997) checklist at the piloting stage; checking students' comprehension, eliciting responses from students, greeting in the L1 for religious and cultural identity, and checking attendance. For

convenience, statement three in Macaro's checklist: When giving directions or changing the focus of the lesson (e.g. 'close books', "now let's do a listening" is called topic switch. During the first set of observations, I learned that teachers switched to L1 for other purposes. Therefore, three additional statements were added, reiteration, attracting students' attention, and highlighting important information (see Appendix 12).

In the current study, brief field notes were used in conjunction with the audio recording and checklist, because it was impossible to record the teachers' conversation solely by using field notes. Use of three instruments provided comprehensive data and increased the capacity for analysis (Cohen et al., 2011) (audio recording discussed in section 4.14). These brief notes included some information, from my perspective as an observer, relating to the teachers' reactions to their students' CS, the students' CS, and the general behaviour of students. I took notes about logistics also, including, regarding classroom layout, the date, time, duration of the lesson, the topic of the lesson, the number of students and the skill being taught. The number of seats and their arrangements were also included. Notes helped me to recall incidents enabling me to put some of them into a wider context when analysing the data.

#### **4.13.4 Some disadvantages of observations**

Similar to other qualitative methods, observations can be subject to bias (Cohen et al., 2011), because the researcher relies on his or her senses in order to collect data (O'Leary, 2004). As a researcher, I was a part of the study; however, I strived to be partial as far as possible throughout the entire process. I cannot deny that my background might have shaped and influenced my understanding of L1 use, the teachers, the context under study and the process of collecting data is usually affected by the researcher's experiences, interests, historical biases, and expectations (O'Leary, 2004). In qualitative research, the researcher inevitably becomes part of the participant's world, with the result that it is quite challenging to avoid being affected by it. I was aware of this potential bias, and so aimed to avoid it as much as possible when observing and interpreting participants' actions and dialogues. I

believe that when the researcher is aware of bias, he/she can deliver a better presentation of the phenomenon under investigation.

Observational research is especially susceptible to observer bias, because the researcher might omit to report important events, or record what s/he thought took place rather than what actually happened (Simpson & Tuson, 1995). In observations, what is considered as evidence can be unclear, because it depends on where, when and how long researchers spend observing (Cohen et al., 2011), because individuals differ in how they perceive the world, and their expectations vary. Individuals also tend to see and hear what they expect to hear and see. Therefore, being objective, especially when choosing to be immersed in a research setting, is somewhat challenging (O'Leary, 2004).

The presence of an observer or the "observer paradox" (Labov, 1972), might also influence the behaviour of those being observed (Davies, 2005). It can be invoked by observation, meaning the talk is no longer natural (Bryman, 2008; Nortier, 2008). Even if the researcher attempts to keep a low profile, s/he will still be considered an intruder and disruption will be inevitable (Dörnyei, 2007). It is considered "the most intrusive of all techniques for gathering data" as participants may become nervous knowing that they will be observed (Simpson & Tuson, 1995, p. 55-56).

In order to become as unobtrusive as possible I decided to take on the role of a non-participant observer, even though Nortier (2008) encourages participant observation. Participation observation is a feature of ethnographic fieldwork. It means that the observer tries to examine a group not only from the outside but also from the inside. In participant observation, the researcher aims to interact with participants and to take a full or partial role in activities (Cowie, 2009). I was aware that my presence had to some extent intruded into the teachers' private space, and that being a participant observer might influence practices in the classroom being observed. Hence, I became a non-participant observer to avoid disrupting classroom events as much as possible. The focus of the observation was on the teachers'



switches to Arabic in the English classroom. I assured the teachers that my presence was not comparable with inspection visits from their supervisors. They were reassured that I was not there to evaluate their teaching practices.

Being an insider is a double-edged sword; it could be viewed as a benefit or a drawback. Nortier (2008, p. 40) stresses that it is better if the observer is known by the person or the group observed, and even better if she or he is a member of that group. In my case, I am an insider to the community and the institution. I share the same culture, religion, language, and profession as the teachers. This facilitated access to the research site and eased the process of gaining the participants' trust in a relatively short period. However, being assigned a single role, the researcher role, the teachers still viewed me as a colleague, and that might have affected their behaviour and responses. Cohen et al. (2011) argued that role conflict is predicted in qualitative studies, and thus, one should attempt to choose a role that provides access, simultaneously, to remain neutral. In my case, I was unable to adopt the role of a friend or a teacher to avoid being partial or being on anyone's side. I strived to create the proper distance in order not to interfere with the research outcomes or objectives.

#### **4.14 Audio Recordings**

Audio-recordings were less intrusive and more convenient to use in this particular context, even though video-recordings have many advantages, such as providing "a wealth of contextual information" (Ten Have, 2007, p. 72). However, the video recording was not used in the present study for ethical reasons (discussed below under the ethical section). During the observations, two Philips digital voice tracers were used to record what took place in the classrooms. One was placed on the teacher's desk and the other on a seat at the back of the classroom to capture the teacher student interaction. This device was chosen for its ability to capture voices and for its small size, to avoid disrupting normal classroom interaction. One-to-one interviews and workshops were also recorded, in order avoid distorting what the participants said and to avoid omitting important information (Bryman, 2004; Dörnyei, 2007; Drever, 1995).

## **4.15 Data Analysis**

### **4.15.1 Quantitative phase**

The study employed two approaches to data analysis: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative data was gathered using questionnaires and an observation checklist, and qualitatively through interviews, workshops, and observations.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the questionnaire responses, and to find out the frequencies with which the teachers' CS in the classroom. All the statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS programme. Then, basic statistical comparisons were run between the answers provided by the 67 teachers in the first phase to check whether statistically significant differences between the respondents occur regarding age, years of experience, country of qualification, qualification, training and duration of training. These variables were included in the third section of the questionnaire to obtain an overview of teachers' backgrounds. Where statistical differences arose, it was intended to explore these in depth in the second phase of the study, to assess why such difference might occur and how they affected the teachers' CS.

The first method used to check for statistical significance was the independent-samples t-test, which was employed in order to determine the possible relationships between teachers' beliefs and the demographic data provided (rationale for using parametric tests is in Appendix 13). Items assessed with this test have a significant value of  $p = 0.05$  or less (whether the equal variances are assumed or not assumed, according to Levine's test variance quality) (Pallant, 2013, p. 250), where they are regarded as significant results and therefore worthy of further exploration. An Independent-Samples T-test was employed in order to determine the possible relationships between teachers' beliefs and years spent teaching. Categorical variables consisting of two groups were compared. The comparisons undertaken revealed a statistically significant difference with a  $p$  value of less than 0.05.

### **Teachers' years of experience**

An Independent Samples T-test was conducted to identify whether there is a significant difference in the mean for teachers' beliefs scores for the two groups: teachers with less than 10 years of experience (2-9 years) ( $M = 79.18$ ,  $SD = 2.70$ ), and groups with more than 10 years' experience (10-35 years) ( $M = 94.12$ ,  $SD = 2.87$ ). The difference was significant  $t(62) = -3.78$ ,  $p = 0.00$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . This result reveals teachers' beliefs might be influenced by the length of their experience. Teachers who have spent longer teaching believe in using more Arabic than teachers with fewer years' experience.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of teachers' degrees, countries where degrees were obtained, specialities, and course types, on their beliefs about CS in the classroom. This test was used to compare the mean scores for more than two groups, involving "one independent variable which has number of levels" (Pallant, 2013, p. 258). If the significant value (Sig.) for Levine's test for homogeneity of variances is equal to or less than 0.05, this indicates a significance difference among the mean scores of the dependent variables for the three groups (Pallant, 2013). As the results for the ANOVA did not reveal any significance, they were moved to Appendix 13.

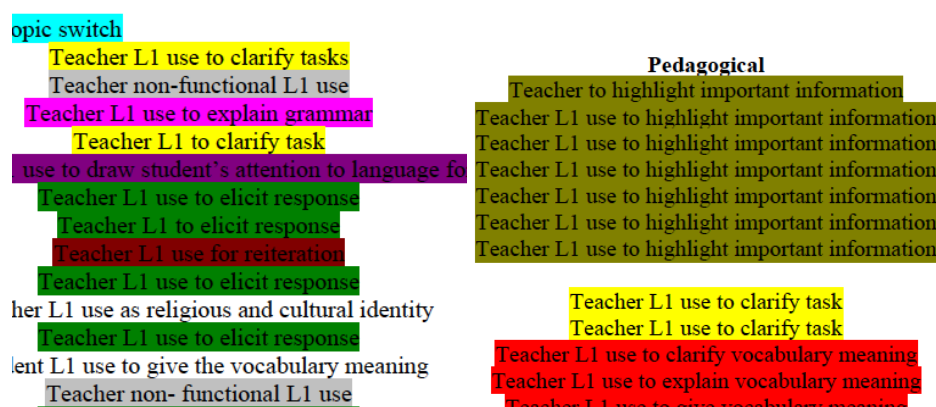
#### **4.15.2 Coding procedures in the second phase**

The qualitative data from eight workshops, fourteen observations and one-to-one interviews were transcribed and coded manually in Microsoft Word. The length of the lessons varied between 55 to 145 minutes. For the sake of consistency, only the first 55 minutes of the observations were coded. Arabic utterances were written in bold, followed by the English translation between brackets. Each utterance in Arabic was coded according to its function. This enabled the counting of the different functions of Arabic utterances and the comparison of the results between the first and second sets of observations. The audio recordings were not fully transcribed. As the focus is on the use of L1, only the L1 utterances by the teachers and their students were transcribed. Additionally, a few lines were transcribed before and after the switch occurred in order to appreciate the context and get an idea of the

functions in place. The focus of the study is on teacher talk. Nevertheless, the students' talk was considered important, because it guided data interpretation and analysis, and clarified teachers' CS to L1. This helped to clarify the picture regarding L1 situations.

To quantify switches to the L1, utterances were first classified as either teacher or student(s). Second, teachers' utterances were classified into four main categories: pedagogical, classroom management, affective and interpersonal functions, and idiosyncratic L1 use. Third, I calculated the number of occurrences of L1 manually, by grouping similar categories together and highlighting them with different colours (see figure 4.2). Then, the percentage in each category was calculated using Microsoft Excel.

Figure 4:2 Example from observation of the colour coding and clustering of codes in the text



Although there are different ways to quantify L1 use in classrooms, such as by time intervals (e.g. Duff & Polio, 1990; Lo & Macaro, 2012; Macaro, 2001), word count (e.g. Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han, 2004; Rolin Ianzitie & Brownlie, 2001), or turn analysis (e.g. Lo & Macaro, 2012; Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), this was believed to be the most suitable unit of analysis for the study, as the main purpose was not to quantify the L1 or calculate the duration of each use. The aim was to explore the possible functions of the L1 rather than the length of time it takes to utter in comparison with L2 words, or how many L1 words were used versus L2

words. Arguably, one of the limitations of the analysis was that the total number of Arabic and English words in the lessons was not counted; however, this approach was not judged to serve the purpose of the study. Once the data had been collected, I compared teachers' claims about the possible functions of their CS in the interviews with their actual CS in the classroom by comparing transcriptions from both tools. The entire recordings were carefully listened to twice to ensure all the L1 utterances were captured.

An example of instances analysis is illustrated in the following excerpt from the pre-treatment observation:

Maysa: The second part is about people in your family **annas elli fi al-a'ela** (people in your family). OK? Do you remember when we asked who is a lonely child **meen waheed fi eltou?** (Who's the lonely child in her family?) Who has more brothers? **Meen kan endu akhwan aktar** (who has more brothers). Who has more sisters? OK do you remember we stopped here **waggafan hena** (we stopped here). Ok this is the listening **sah?** (Right?)

In this excerpt, there are five instances (an instance can be a word or a phrase) of teacher's CS within one turn. The first four switches to the L1 (in bold) were considered instances 1, 2, 3, and 4, and were coded as: teacher CS for reiteration to emphasize and enhance understanding. The final switch in the same turn was considered the fifth instance and was coded as the teacher's use of L1 as a discourse marker to check comprehension.

I reviewed the transcriptions of the qualitative data and the notes to develop a general understanding of the data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This helped me to organise the data and form codes and themes for the database. Coding is the procedure of "grouping evidence and labelling ideas" to gain broader perspectives (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Depending on the objectives of the researcher, codes might be based on pre-established constructs or issues frequently mentioned in a text (Attride-Stirling, 2001). In the present study, some themes were generated from previous literature, such as pedagogical L1 use, and the associated sense of

guilt, while other themes emerged during the analysis, such as teachers' use of techniques to convey the L2 message. I highlighted all the extracts of relevance and ones that provided insight into the research questions. There have been arguments made that engaging with the literature in the early stages might lead to a narrowing of one's vision; thus, leading the researcher to focus on some aspects of the data at the expense of other potentially important aspects (Braun & Clarke, 2008). I believe that early reading of the literature increased comprehensible engagement with the data set.

In this study, thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data. This is a commonly employed qualitative analytic method (Roulston, 2001), which helps identify, analyse, and report themes or patterns within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2008; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). The data set was first transcribed then coded, as the first steps toward a rigorous and comprehensive analysis. The coding was carried out in four cycles. In the first coding cycle, I described the participants' responses in the interviews using a descriptive code, which highlighted the main idea conveyed in the extract (Saldaña, 2008), as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4:4 Examples of code emerged from my data

Teacher	Data extract	Codes
Ayisha	"I'm trying. I'm trying... I'm doing my best to reach this aim but sometimes other circumstances force me <b>not to reach my aim like the schedule, the pacing guide, the exam time a lot of assessments</b> ... you find <b>terrible students ... very low-level students</b> " (Interview 1)	Problems with schedules, pacing guide, exams, assessment, students
Tala	" <b>There's a time constraint.</b> That's why we don't indulge in a lot of extra discussions apart from teaching" (Interview 1)	Problems with time
Sally	" <b>There were students who were struggling. So for them I would repeat it again in Arabic,</b> but for those who want me to speak in English and make English my first option, I respected their wishes, but you know it's a little bit... not a little bit... <b>It consumes a lot of time because you are like answering two different groups</b> " (Interview 2)	Problem with students Respecting students' wishes Problems with time

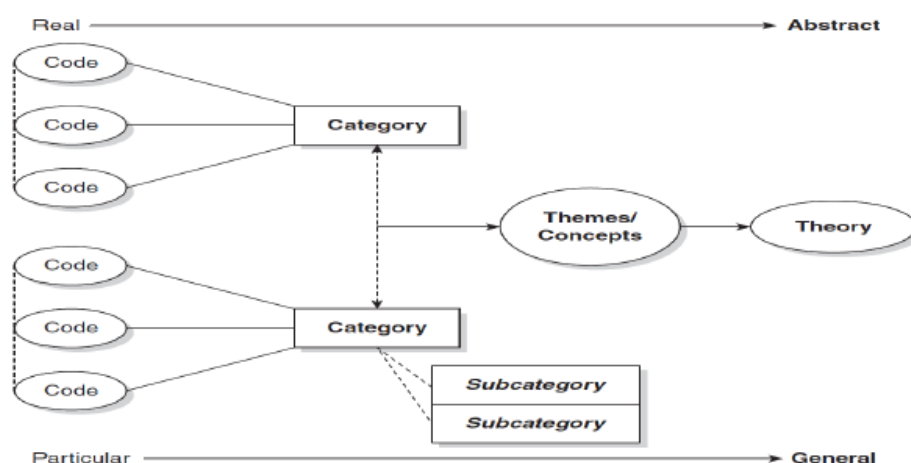
In the second cycle, the data was synthesised by developing codes and grouping all similar codes generated from different teachers together, to find patterns across all the qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2008), including the interviews, observations, workshop discussions, and open questions on the questionnaire (see Table 4.5).

Table 4:5 Examples of the categories that emerged from the analyses

Teacher	Data extract	Codes	Subcategory	Categories
Ayisha	... other circumstances force me <b>not to reach my aim like the schedule,</b>	Tight schedules	Constraints related to context	Obstacles facing teachers
Ayisha	<b>the pacing guide,</b>	Pacing guide problem		
Ayisha	<b>the exam time</b>	The problem of exam		
Ayisha	<b>a lot of assessments</b>	The problem of assessments		
Tala	<b>There's a time constraint.</b>	Time problem		
Sally	<b>It consumes a lot of time</b>			
Ayisha	...you find <b>terrible students ... very low-level students.</b>	Low proficiency students	Constraints related to students	
Sally	<b>There were students who were struggling. So for them I would repeat it again in Arabic.</b>			

Similar codes were clustered together to form categories to facilitate analysis following Saldaña's (2009) framework (see Figure 4.3).

Figure 4:3 Diagrammatic representation of the stages undertaken for analysis (adapted from Saldaña, 2009)



I found that many codes were used repetitively throughout the data, such as L1 prohibition in the classroom, teachers feeling guilty, and L1 use to teach grammar. Some codes were even used more than once in a single unit, as shown in Sally’s extract in Table 4 above. I looked for recurrent themes across the data, to determine what the significant themes from the study were.

As there were no specific or precise procedures to follow, codifying the data was challenging and frustrating at some points. I had to “deal with ambiguity” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 29), because it took several weeks to find the right codes for some portions of the transcripts. For example, I was not confident at first about whether to code the last sentence in the extract below as: teacher should avoid L1, teacher’s L1 use hinders L2 learning, or as an effect of the workshop, because the issue of maximising L2 use was mentioned in the third workshop.

**Ayisha: My students come from an Arabic country and they don’t get to practise English outside the classroom. Even at schools the governmental schools, English is not well practiced, except in classes. I think there are no activities to enhance their practice of English. So if they find that university instructors use the L1 most of the time then they won’t learn** (Interview 2)



In the third cycle, I reread the coded data to refine the coding and the categories; this involved also combining and creating new ones. The judging and counting of themes was guided by the research questions. In addition, prevalence of themes was crucial, as thematic analysis is a flexible method, and there is no right or wrong ways for determining prevalence (Braun & Clarke, 2008). In this study, prevalence was determined by the frequency of occurrence across the seven teachers and across the data sets: workshops, interviews, observations, and questionnaire. I recoded many responses and filtered numerous codes. At this stage, similarities and differences between sets of data were emerging and some categories were becoming apparent by revisiting the interview, observation, and workshop data.

In the fourth cycle, the codes were further modified and filtered to generate more solid categories and themes. Some categories and sub-codes were rearranged into different categories. Saldaña (2009, p. 21) suggests that there would be no standardised number of themes to achieve, instead recommending that they should be “held to a minimum” to make the analysis more coherent. As the process is more recursive (Braun & Clarke, 2008) and reflexive (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006), I went back and forth throughout the phases to modify the themes. The themes that were generated, and their subcategories, continuously evolved (see Appendices 14 & 15), as I worked on writing the findings chapters until they were finalised (see Appendix 16).

#### **4.16 Validity and Reliability of the research instruments**

##### **4.16.1 Reliability**

In quantitative research, reliability means “consistency” (Punch, 2009). The two main aspects of consistency are stability or consistency of measurements over time (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 41-42) and “internal consistency” (Punch, 2009, p. 244-5). Consistency over time refers to: if the same instrument was given at a different time to the same sample, under the same circumstances, to what extent would it produce the same results? (Punch, 2009, p. 244). I believe that consistency over time was not applicable to the present study, as in fact I specifically examined changes in beliefs before and after the treatment. Internal consistency on the hand is

concerned with the question over the extent to which items are moving in the same direction, or are consistent with one another (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 41-42). For the questionnaire, a number of steps were taken to ensure reliability through careful piloting. During piloting, as mentioned in the questionnaire section, I removed or changed all the words and statements believed to be ambiguous by the people involved in the piloting.

A reliability analysis was performed to determine if questionnaire items were internally consistent. In order to measure whether items that comprise the multi-item scale correlate well (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011), Cronbach's *alpha* was used. First, a reliability analysis was run to check the Cronbach's *alpha* Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficient for the two parts, including teachers' beliefs about their CS and their perceptions of their students' CS in the classroom, to check the internal consistency of the items in both parts. Furthermore, based on a *post hoc* item analysis, statement 9 was excluded from further analysis because it exerted negative influence on the reliability of the measurement (discussed below). Cronbach's *alpha* was 0.88 and 0.91 respectively. The Cronbach's *alpha* for both parts combined was 0.92. This value of Alpha is closer to 1, which indicates that the reliability of the questionnaire is very high (Arthur, Waring, Coe, & Hedges, 2012; Field, 2009); hence, the items are all measuring the same thing. This indicates that the reliability of the internal consistency is adequate. Bryman and Cramer (1990, p. 72) and Bryman (2008, p. 151) suggest that the reliability level should be 0.8 or above to be acceptable, although Berthoud (2000, p. 169) suggests that the minimum value of alpha should be 0.6, which he refers to as "good". Berthoud cited an example of an index of ill health derived from the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) that had an Alpha level of 0.77, which he referred to as "very good". Table 4.6 below provides a summary of the overall subscale of internal reliability and results.

Table 4:6 Reliability analysis of the questionnaire scales

	<b>Cronbach's <i>Alpha</i></b>
<b>Questionnaire- Part 1</b>	
(Subscale 1) pedagogical functions	0.77
(Subscale 2) classroom management functions	0.73
(Subscale 3) affective & socialising functions	0.69
<b>Questionnaire- Part 2</b>	
(Subscale 1) pedagogical functions	0.76
(Subscale 2) classroom management functions	0.74
(Subscale 3) affective & socialising functions	0.83
<b>Questionnaire- Part 1 &amp; 2</b>	
All the statements (1-16 & 18-30)	0.91
Statements in the first part (1-16)	0.88
Statements in the second part (18-30)	0.91

### **Excluding statement 9 from further quantitative analysis**

Statement 9 highlights teachers' feelings about the use of Arabic: "I feel guilty if I use Arabic in the classroom." Based on a *post hoc* item analysis, statement 9 was excluded from further analysis, since it affected the reliability of the measurement. This statement had a value of (-0.13), which meant that it did not correlate with the overall score for the questionnaire. The item correlations should be above 0.3 (Field, 2009). If the value is less than 0.3, then this indicates a low correlation between the item and the overall scale (Field, 678, p. 2009). Therefore, statement 9 was dropped from further quantitative analysis, considering that it affected the overall reliability of the measurement. However, the sense of guilt about using Arabic in the classroom had been mentioned in previous literature. Therefore, to help understand the qualitative data better, and to link the study with previous literature, in the subsequent chapters this item was analysed qualitatively.

Some strategies were used to enhance reliability, including using more than one method for collecting data, using direct quotes from participants, and tape recording interviews, observations and workshops.

Although I understand the personalised nature of the interviews and the workshops and that the precise form of the questions asked differed from one respondent or one group to another, the wording of the questions were not changed for all participants, as advised by Oppenheim (1992, p. 147). The order of the main questions was the same for all participants, although some questions differed for each participant. Not changing the wording of the main questions was one way to increase reliability, as some bias might occur due to changes in the wording and the sequence of questions. The interview schedules were evaluated carefully in the piloting stage to enhance reliability (Silverman, 1993). However, the issue of leading questions could not be avoided at some points during the discussions.

To ensure intra-rater reliability, the researcher reread the whole interviews, workshops, and observation transcripts to revise the codes after a certain time frame had elapsed since the initial coding. At this later stage, all of the categories and codes were re-evaluated and finalised.

#### **4.16.2 Validity**

The concept of validity has traditionally been discussed in reference to quantitative research; however, in mixed methods research this concept “has yet to be delineated” (Dellinger & Leech, 2007, p. 315). It still needs to be further addressed in mixed methods research, as Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p. 190) posed some questions addressing validity from a pragmatist perspective:

- How should validity be conceptualized in mixed methods research?
- What does mixed methods validity look like from pragmatic viewpoint?
- How does this viewpoint differ from post positivist, constructivist, and emancipatory perspectives?

The questions they pose suggest the concept of validity is not easy to assess in mixed methods research. Validity however is a requirement for educational research whether qualitative or quantitative (Cohen et al., 2011). Validity is “concerned with integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research” (Bryman, 2004, p. 28) and refers to the degree to which an instrument “establishes what it is intended to establish” (Davies, 2005, p. 137). It refers to whether outcomes precisely reflect the reality of the participants’ perceptions. The researcher in quantitative research is interested in two main issues regarding validity: 1) quality of the scores from an instrument; and 2) conclusions that can be inferred from the results of the quantitative analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 210). It is important to consider internal, external, content, criteria, and ecological validity when conducting research.

Internal validity seeks to demonstrate the accuracy of findings about a phenomena being explored (Cohen et al., 2011), to discern how credible the findings are (Bryman, 2004, p. 28-30). I attempted to ensure credibility in this study by providing as much evidence as possible using triangulation to explore the phenomenon. Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that one way of addressing credibility in a naturalistic enquiry is by using triangulation (discussed in criterion validity). I believe that audio recorded workshops and interviews with teachers provide a fair representation of their views of the phenomenon. In addition, the audio recordings in the classrooms captured the discourse between the teachers and the students. My presence during lessons, and the use of a checklist and some notes, might compensate for the potential lack of visual clues in the video recordings. In general, the data collection methods employed in this thesis shed light on of the teachers’ beliefs and practices.

External validity is concerned with the degree to which the results of a study can be generalised to other persons or contexts (Dellinger & Leech, 2007). However, generalisation was not the aim of this study. The second qualitative phase had limited external validity, because the findings might not be generalizable, as each study is context bound, and its context is unique. Bryman (2004) argues that surveys can be

used to enhance the external validity of findings. Nevertheless, the aim of the survey conducted for the present study was not generalisable beyond the context under study. Its aim was to provide background information about teachers' beliefs about their CS, their beliefs about their students' CS, and their beliefs about the policy at the ELI. However, I believe that the results of the study may be still applicable to teachers working in similar contexts, since the research questions were relevant to foreign language teachers using students' L1 in classroom.

Content validity refers to "how judges assess whether the items or questions are representative of possible items" (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011, p. 210). In order to assess appropriateness of items, the piloting stage was included, to improve the content validity of the questionnaire used in this research.

Criterion validity concerns "whether the scores relate to some external standard, such as scores on similar instrument" (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011, p. 210). In the present study, criterion validity was tested with triangulation, by comparing and contrasting the results obtained from the questionnaire, workshops, interviews, and observations. Many researchers (e.g. Bryman, 2008; Denzin, 1989; Patton, 2001) suggest the use of triangulation of methodologies and sources to enhance validity and reliability and cross check findings.

Ecological validity is concerned "with the question of whether social scientific findings are applicable to people's everyday natural social settings" (Bryman, 2004, p. 29). When planning the observations, I was aware that the observer effect was one of the factors that might affect the ecological validity of the results, and therefore, as discussed earlier, I decided to become a non-participant observer, and informed the teachers that I was not there to evaluate their teaching practices.

In order to minimise threats to validity from the mixed explanatory design model, as highlighted by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), the teachers who were selected in the qualitative follow up phase were a subsample of the participants in the

quantitative first phase. In the analysis stage, important results from the quantitative phase were followed up with further in depth exploration. In the findings chapter, the order of the interpretation fitted the design of the study. In addition, both sets of data: the quantitative and qualitative data, were thoroughly interpreted to answer the research questions.

#### **4.17 Ethical considerations**

Before gaining entry to the classrooms, permission was taken from the vice dean of the institution of the female section. Gaining official permission is usually the first step to consider when deciding to research a specific community (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). An email was sent to the vice dean prior to the data collection phase, in order to gain access to the research site.

After obtaining permission (see Appendix 17), other consent forms was handed to the teachers and students who agreed to participate in the study (see Appendices 18 & 19). They were notified that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any point (Cohen et al., 2011; Kvale, 2007). They were further informed that their involvement in the research aimed to improve the quality of the teaching at the ELI. The teachers were also assured that the study would not cause them any harm (Cohen et al., 2011), because one of the key principles in research is to keep participant's identities private (Bryman, 2008). They were informed that they would not be identifiable from the data, and that it would be anonymised (Bryman, 2004). They were assured that only a professional audience (my supervisors) would be granted access to the data, and that the information would not be shared with other staff members.

Informed consent was obtained by asking the teachers to sign written forms before starting the recordings. I also obtained written permissions from every student before recording in the classrooms. Students' written consent was provided in both English and Arabic, to guarantee participants' rights during the data collection (Creswell, 2009). All participants were notified that they could refuse to answer any of the questions (Bryman, 2008) posed in the questionnaire, interviews and

workshops. The survey distributed to the teachers was anonymous. The consent forms included the right of the participants to access the transcriptions (Kvale, 2007) of the interviews, workshops, and observations in which they were involved.

Cohen et al. (2011) argue that the researcher should provide as much information as possible about the nature, goal, and the methods employed in the research, as long as that information does not prejudice the results (Kvale, 2007). Dörnyei (2007, p. 65) also points that the topic of how much information to share with the participants can be an ethical issue. He adds that it is a dilemma to decide how much information to share with participants to avoid response bias or withdrawal from the study. In my study, the participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' beliefs about their own use, and the students' use, of L1 in their classrooms. They were not given sufficient information to establish whether I believed CS is good or bad practice, in order not influence their responses.

Video recording was not used as it was judged that it might cause discomfort to the participants and increase their self-consciousness, and that it may also then prove difficult to anonymise the data (Barbour, 2007; Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, the participants in the present study were more accustomed to the presence of audio recording equipment. In Saudi Arabia, in order to protect identities and conform to strict traditions, participants have the right to decline having their images recorded. Many Muslim women refuse to allow their pictures to be taken, as a way to protect their honour, modesty and religious identity. The teachers and students in the present study affirmed that video recording was not an option.

Kvale (2007, p. 30) argued that researchers have to pay attention to both micro and macro ethics when conducting interviews or group discussions. Micro-ethics pose potential consequences for individual participants, whereas macro-ethics relate to broader social consequences. Throughout the study, I was sensitive to the fact that what I was investigating could be perceived as problematic. For example, the researcher anticipated, that discussing the use of Arabic and its use inside the



classroom might lead to conflict with the authorities, since the policy of the institution prohibits the use of L1 in teaching English. Thus, I was careful to avoid expressing either a negative or a positive view regarding L1 use.

Finally, I followed the code of good practice for research set out by the School of Humanities and Social Science at the University of Edinburgh ([http://www.ed.ac.uk/polopoly\\_fs/1.17134!/fileManager/ethicsframework.pdf](http://www.ed.ac.uk/polopoly_fs/1.17134!/fileManager/ethicsframework.pdf)), and the British Association of Applied Linguistics ([http://www.baal.org.uk/dox/goodpractice\\_full.pdf](http://www.baal.org.uk/dox/goodpractice_full.pdf)).

#### **4.18 Summary**

This chapter explained the design of the research. It began by presenting the aims of the study and the research questions. This was followed by a discussion of the research paradigms and the methodological approaches employed. Then, it presented the procedure followed in the research and the sampling procedures applied in both the quantitative and qualitative phases. It also provided a detailed discussion of the data collection tools, describing the piloting of each research instrument. Then, it described how the data was analysed, and outlined considerations of validity and reliability in mixed method research. Finally, it presented the ethical principles adhered to in the present study. The next chapter presents the findings and discussion from the first phase, in light of the theoretical realisations discussed in the literature review chapters.

## 5 Phase One: Background Survey

### Discussion and Findings from 67 Participants

#### 5.1 Introduction

In the first phase of the present study, I carried out a quantitative and qualitative exploration of L1 use, administering an online questionnaire (See Appendix 2) as an email attachment to all the faculty members in the ELI to explore their beliefs about their own use and their students' use of Arabic in English classrooms. The questionnaire provided insight into teachers' beliefs about L1 use at the ELI and guided the selection of a subsample group of respondents for the second stage of the study, as representative of the first sample. The aim was to answer the two background questions:

Table 5:1 Research questions and data collection methods

Research Questions	Questionnaire	Rationale of Questionnaire	Semi-structured interviews	Semi-structured observations
1- What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?	✓	1) Information about the teachers' & students' L1 use from the teachers' perspectives	✓	
2- What are teachers' perceptions of their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?	✓	2) Select a subsample for the following phase	✓	

As mentioned previously, reviewing the literature to assess the different functional classifications of CS proposed by different researchers assisted the author when designing the questionnaire developed for the present study. The first part of the questionnaire, which includes statements about teachers' beliefs about their own L1 use, and the second part, which includes statements about the students' L1 use from the teachers' perspectives, were divided into three categories:

- 1- Pedagogical functions;
- 2- Classroom management: adapted from Ferguson (2003, 2009); and
- 3- Affective and Interpersonal functions: adapted from Ferguson (2003, 2009), Mattsson and Burenhult (1999), and Probyn (2009).

The researcher chose to use the three functions synthesized from the literature review regarding functions (see Chapter 2.6, Table 2.1). The researcher was aware that the functions might overlap, and would then not be considered discrete. As discussed in Chapter 2 there is variation in how the researchers classified the functions and in what they contain, largely because a single CS can serve more than one function simultaneously (Ferguson, 2009, p. 231). (The nature of interaction in the ELI classroom is discussed in Chapter 8, section 8.10).

In the first part of this chapter, the percentages of agreement and disagreement regarding CS among teachers and students is presented to provide numerical background data to reveal how the teachers perceive CS at the ELI. The analysis for each part of the questionnaire is presented separately. Firstly, the teachers' beliefs about their CS is discussed. Secondly, the teachers' beliefs about their students' CS is presented. Finally, the last section compares teachers' beliefs about themselves and their students.

## **5.2 Results of the teacher questionnaire**

### **5.2.1 Teachers' beliefs about their own use of L1**

In order to answer the first research question: “what are teachers’ beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?”, the SPSS programme was used to align the percentages of agreement and disagreement over the use of L1. The first part of the questionnaire concerned teachers’ beliefs about the use of Arabic in the EFL classroom.

Part one of the questionnaire included statements belonging to three categories:

- 1- Statements: 1, 2, 6, 11, 3, 14, 15 cover the use of L1 for pedagogical functions;
- 2- Statements: 4, 8, 12 cover the use of L1 for classroom management functions; and
- 3- Statements: 3, 5, 7, 10, 16 cover the use of L1 for affective and interpersonal functions.

The teachers were asked to respond to the questions using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree; the frequency of responses was calculated according to percentages.

#### **5.2.1.1 Pedagogical Functions**

The term pedagogical functions is similar to the term “curriculum access” used by Ferguson (2003, 2009). For a further discussion of the terms, see Chapter 2, sections 2.6 and 2.7.

This part of the questionnaire aimed to investigate teachers’ beliefs about whether CS to Arabic would help students access the curriculum or understand the lesson. Numerous studies, as discussed in the literature review (see section 2.8), have demonstrated that teachers’ believe that L1 plays an important role in conveying the L2 message, especially for students with low proficiency in the L2. Table 5.2 below shows the teachers’ responses concerning their beliefs about the benefits of using Arabic for pedagogical functions.

Table 5:2 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic for pedagogical functions

Questionnaire Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neither agree nor Disagree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Pedagogical functions</b>										
1- I believe that using Arabic helps my students understand new vocabulary	7	11 %	17	26 %	14	21%	23	35%	5	8%
2- I believe that it is helpful to use Arabic when my students fail to understand my questions	2	3%	18	27%	12	18%	28	42%	6	9%
6- I believe that using Arabic helps students understand difficult concepts	5	8%	10	15%	10	15%	37	56%	4	6%
11- I think that using Arabic helps my students understand grammar	14	21%	11	16%	13	20%	24	36%	5	8%
13- I believe that my use of Arabic helps students to participate more in class	14	21%	20	30%	19	28%	10	15%	3	5%
14- I think that Arabic is helpful when I give feedback to students	11	16%	30	45%	12	18 %	11	16 %	3	5%
15- I think that using Arabic helps clarify tasks' instructions	7	10%	23	34%	10	15 %	21	31 %	6	9%

When discussing pedagogical functions, a data analysis revealed that teachers do not always perceive Arabic as a favourable tool for use in language classrooms when faced with a lack of comprehension or when explaining difficult concepts (see Table 5.2). Half of the teachers (51%) did not favour use of Arabic when students failed to understand questions in the L2, whereas 30% agreed with the statement: "I believe that it is helpful to use Arabic when my students fail to understand my questions". Using Arabic to explain concepts was another disputed area, as more than half of the teachers (61%) disagreed and around one fifth (23%) agreed with the statement "I believe that using Arabic helps students understand difficult concepts". It was expected to find more support for this purpose, as difficult concepts involve a

high degree of abstraction, and it might be a waste of time to use L2 only. It would also be possible to attribute this negative view to their reluctance to appear unprofessional, even though the survey was anonymous. One of the possible reasons for their disagreement about this statement and the previous one about vocabulary: “I believe that using Arabic helps my students understand new vocabulary”, is that they did not understand the difference between “new vocabulary” and “difficult concepts”. They might consider both phrases convey similar meanings. Teachers’ opinions, however, were divided about using Arabic when teaching grammar. Forty-three per cent of the respondents did not favour Arabic use, while 37% agreed with the statement: “I think that using Arabic helps my students understand grammar”. In the current study, it is likely that adding the word beginner or weak to statement 11: “I think that using Arabic helps my students understand grammar” might lead teachers to respond differently.

The teachers in the present study showed a higher preference for Arabic use to increase participation and provide feedback. At least half the respondents (51%) agreed that students’ participation increased when teachers used Arabic, while only one fifth (20%) of the teachers disagreed with the statement: “I believe that my use of Arabic helps students to participate more in class”. Using Arabic to deliver feedback was one of the most common uses expressed by teachers. More than half the respondents (61%) believed that they used Arabic to comment on the students’ responses, whereas only one-fifth (21%) disagreed with the statement: “I think that Arabic is helpful when I give feedback to students”. Support for L1 use for feedback could be attributed to teachers’ awareness of the importance of maximising student-teacher interaction to avoid breakdowns in communication.

In general, lack of support for utilising L1 for pedagogical functions could be attributed to the awareness among teachers that L2 is the medium to provide modified input, as they were not convinced about the validity of L1 in classroom. It might also indicate that the teachers were not always conscious of their L1 use. Indeed, Polio and Duff (1994) reported that the teachers they studied were not aware of the degree to which they used L1. It could be said that to teach the L2 effectively

teachers' might need to become more aware of their use of L1 as a resource, to aid L2 learning, and hence to be in a better position to use L1 in a systematic way in the classroom (Ferguson, 2003, 2009).

### 5.2.1.2 Classroom management functions

This category concerns teachers' CS to L1 to guide students' behaviour and monitor classroom activities. For further discussion of the terms used, see Chapter 2, sections 2.6 and 2.7. Table 5.3 below shows the responses from the teachers when they were asked about their beliefs concerning using Arabic for management functions.

Table 5:3 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic for classroom management functions

Questionnaire Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neither agree nor Disagree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Classroom management</b>										
4- I think Arabic is helpful to assign tasks to students	11	16%	32	48 %	13	19%	10	15%	1	2%
8- I believe that using Arabic helps discipline my students (e.g. ask them to stop side talks)	14	21%	26	39%	16	24%	8	12%	3	4%
12- I find Arabic helps attract and keep my students' attention	14	21%	24	36%	13	19%	12	18%	3	5%

With regard to the statements concerning classroom management functions, teachers appeared to favour using Arabic for this purpose (see Table 5.3). More than half the respondents (64%) favoured using Arabic when assigning tasks to students, while only 17% expressed disagreement with the statement: I think "Arabic is helpful to assign tasks to students". Using Arabic to discipline students was also viewed positively by the teachers. A relatively high percentage of the respondents (60%) believed that Arabic could be beneficial when they needed to discipline students, whereas only 16% disagreed with the statement: "I believe that using

Arabic helps discipline my students (e.g. ask them to stop side talks)”. Attracting and keeping students’ attention was another common area of Arabic usage. More than half the respondents (57%) believed that Arabic is helpful for attracting students’ attention, while almost one third (23%) expressed disagreement with the statement: “I find Arabic helps attract and keep my students’ attention”.

The results suggest the teachers in general favoured using Arabic for classroom management tasks. Teachers’ perceive L1 as a tool that can enhance the organisational aspects of teaching. It appears that teachers were more likely to CS to Arabic when assigning tasks, disciplining, and attracting students’ attention. One possible explanation for prioritising L1 as a tool for classroom management is that teachers’ ideas about successful L1 teaching centre around controlling classroom activities and students’ behaviour.

#### **5.2.1.3 Affective and interpersonal functions**

The affective and interpersonal category included L1 uses contributing to both affective and interpersonal aspects of the teachers’ input in their classroom. For further discussion of the terms used, see Chapter 2, sections 2.6 and 2.7. In the current study, failure to find the right word in L2 was added in this category, because it relates to teachers’ confidence. The original wording of statement 7: “I believe that using Arabic is helpful when I cannot find the right word in English” was: “I believe I use Arabic when I lack confidence in L2”, but the previous statement was rejected as potentially to face threatening. Table 5.4 below shows teacher’s beliefs about affective and interpersonal functions.



Table 5:4 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic for affective & interpersonal functions

Questionnaire Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neither agree nor Disagree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Affective &amp; Interpersonal functions</b>										
3- I think Arabic helps to praise my students	25	37%	22	33%	10	15 %	7	10%	3	5%
5- I believe using Arabic helps to build up the students' confidence	13	20%	19	29%	17	26 %	16	24%	1	1 %
7- I believe that using Arabic is helpful when I do not find the right word in English	7	11%	9	14%	20	30 %	24	36%	6	9%
9- I feel guilty if I use Arabic in the classroom	5	8%	9	13%	19	28%	23	34%	11	16%
10- I believe that Arabic is helpful when I sense that my students are losing interest	8	12%	27	40%	12	18 %	18	27%	2	3%
16- I think that Arabic is helpful when I discuss cultural topics with my students	9	13%	29	43%	12	18 %	14	21 %	3	5%

With regard to the use of Arabic for affective and interpersonal reasons, the results suggest teachers favoured the use of Arabic for this purpose (see Table 5.4). The majority of the respondents (70%) believed in the use of Arabic to praise their students, while only 15% disagreed with the statement: "I think Arabic helps to praise my students". Almost half the respondents (49%) agreed that Arabic helps to build their students' confidence, while a lower percentage (25%) disagreed with the

statement: “I believe using Arabic helps to build up the students’ confidence”. Many teachers (45%), however, did not believe that they used Arabic when they do not find the right word in English, while a lower percentage (25%) agreed with the statement. This statement is placed under the affective category, because it aims to understand teachers’ beliefs about the proficiency in English of teachers who CS from English to Arabic. It is likely that some teachers might be reluctant to admit to switching to Arabic, as it could be viewed as an indication of a deficiency in English. It was also likely that the teachers’ interpretation of the statement might have been “I am not competent in English”. Thus, it was impossible to ascertain the teachers’ interpretations of the statement.

Using Arabic to maintain their students’ interest was one of the reasons most commonly reported by the teachers. Half of the respondents (52%) stated that they use Arabic to keep their students interested in the lesson, whereas a lower percentage (30%) disagreed with the statement: “I believe that Arabic is helpful when I sense that my students are losing interest”. This suggests the teachers perceive the classroom as an affective environment, in which they can create less distance from their students enhancing their involvement in the lesson. Arabic was also favoured by the teachers when discussing cultural topics. Fifty-six per cent believed that they use Arabic to discuss cultural issues with their students, while a smaller percentage (26%) disagreed with the statement: “I think that Arabic is helpful when I discuss cultural topics with my students”.

Cultural topics was categorised under the interpersonal and affective categories because this meant using L1 to comment on or discuss topics related to the L1 culture. It is believed that both the teachers and students were more comfortable about using their L1 to discuss their indigenous culture. The aim was not to contrast the L1 with L2 cultural processes. In addition, moving this statement from this category affected the internal reliability of the questionnaire. I regret however not making the statement more specific by adding “L1 culture”.

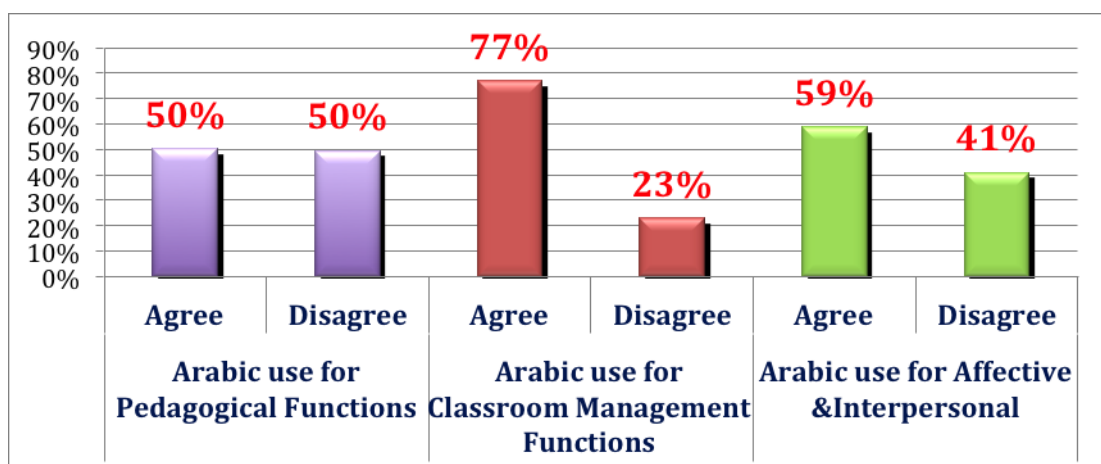
The results suggest teachers favour using Arabic mostly when praising their students and discussing cultural topics. Contrary to the commonly held view, teachers believed that they use it less to build students' confidence than they do to maintain interest in the lesson. However, it appears that the teachers did not believe that they used Arabic when they failed to find the right words in English. This maybe because they felt that the students would become dependent on Arabic, and they did not want to be judged as lacking competence, or be subjected to criticism from the researcher.

### **5.3 Discussion of teachers' beliefs about their own use of L1**

In answer to the first background question, "what are the teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?" the answers varied. When comparing the teachers' beliefs across the three categories, teachers were found to display a higher preference for Arabic use for classroom management (77%), followed by affective and interpersonal functions (59%), and then pedagogical functions (50%). This indicated that the teachers were more certain about the benefits of Arabic for managing the classroom, but less certain when it came to pedagogical functions, such as explaining grammatical points. It could be that teachers were not aware of their actual use of Arabic.

With regard to subcategories, the teachers believed that Arabic was mainly used when praising the students (70%) (interpersonal and affective), assigning tasks to students (64%) (classroom management), providing feedback (61%) (Pedagogical), and disciplining students (60%) (classroom management) (see Figure 5.1).

Figure 5:1 Percentage of agreement and disagreement across the three categories



The overall results contrasted with many other studies, which have concluded that CS is useful for establishing pedagogical functions. For example, Yao (2011) found that just over two-thirds of the teachers in his study believed switching to Chinese (L1) might enhance understanding. In the current study, using Arabic to explain concepts was an unfavourable area. Despite the similarity of the context, this finding also appeared to contradict that of Alshammari (2011), who reported that half of the teachers in his study believed Arabic (L1) would be useful to clarify difficult concepts or ideas.

When it came to Management functions, namely discipline, the results in the current study corroborated Yao's findings (2011). Both the teachers in this study and Yao's viewed use of CS to discipline students positively. This result was not surprising, because of the similarities between the two cultures. In both Arabic and Chinese cultures the notion of respecting one's elders in society is endorsed. Teachers are perceived as authority figures, who should be respected at all times. Teachers are responsible for controlling the classroom, managing participation, and asking questions.

In terms of Interpersonal and Affective functions, there were again differences from other studies. The majority of the respondents in this study believed in using Arabic to praise their students. However, this belief was not in line

with Franklin (1990), and Cheng (2013). A small minority of the teachers in Franklin's (1990) study believed that English (L1) was helpful for conducting interpersonal functions such as informal chats with pupils, while only a quarter of the teachers in Cheng's (2013) sample believed that using Chinese to establish a rapport with pupils was beneficial. These different results suggest that beliefs about L1 depend on teachers and classroom circumstances. Another possible explanation for the variations observed is that some studies included different categories under this function, such as using L1 for informal chats with pupils in Franklin (1990) and peer influence in Cheng (2013). This indicates that the interpretation of affective is broad. In general, teachers' beliefs appear to be underpinned by a fundamental conviction that learning can be enhanced when teachers engage learners affectively in the learning process.

The difference between the findings of the current study and previous studies could be attributed to the level of the students. Yao (2011) investigated L1 use among high school students. It might be the case that schoolteachers believe in more L1 use than university teachers. Another possible explanation for the variation between the current study and Yao's (2011) is the differences in the questionnaire design. He started statements with the word "teachers" such as "teachers who switch codes from English to Chinese can better..." (p. 27), while in the current study the first person "I" was used for all statements. Possibly, personalising the statements might have made the teachers feel too intimidated to voice their true opinions, because in Saudi culture individualism is not promoted. Individuals perceive themselves as part of a society that rules and controls their behaviour. In the ELI, the general rule is to follow a monolingual approach, and teachers might feel obliged to abide by this policy. It is likely that if the statements had been less personal, the teachers would have been more encouraged to agree with them. However, when wording the questionnaire, I was trying to make the items appear as unthreatening as possible. Thus, the teachers were not requested to report to what extent they actually used L1 in the classroom, but rather whether they thought they used it for specific functions.

A further difference between the current study findings and Alshammari's (2011) research is that his sample consisted of Saudi male teachers only, while the current study involved female teachers from different backgrounds (although they were mainly Saudi nationals). Males in Saudi society are raised to be figures of authority, and their social roles in society are reflected in their beliefs about CS in the classroom. It might therefore be the case that male teachers are more confident about voicing their true opinions about CS than the female Saudi teachers for this reason.

In general, these differences could also be attributed to differences in contexts, student numbers, teachers, sample size, the design of the studies, the questions asked, and the duration of the studies. Firstly, the teachers' beliefs were influenced by the school policy, the nature of the interactions inside the classroom, the type of lessons, the skills taught, class size, pressure from examinations, and the school curriculum. Secondly, the teachers' beliefs could be influenced by the students' level of proficiency, their level of motivation, behaviour and reaction to L2 use. Thirdly, variations in teachers' beliefs could be attributed to their different experiences, their proficiency in L2, and their level of confidence in using L2. It might further be attributed to the nature of the teachers in the current study, in that they might be more confident and proficient in the L2. Another reason might be that Alshammari (2011) and Yao (2011) investigated the beliefs of schoolteachers. But in addition, included a more homogenous sample as the teachers shared the same cultural and linguistic background as their students.

As facilitators of learning, it was expected that the teachers would report more use of Arabic, especially when explaining grammar and difficult vocabulary or concepts to assist students to better understand the English information. Their answers, however, suggested that Arabic was not always perceived as necessary to fulfil basic functions. Whether the teachers perceived it positively or negatively, the results suggest that Arabic was used by the teachers to fulfil certain functions more than others. Teachers prioritised the interpersonal and affective aspects of teaching, acknowledging the role of Arabic input as a facilitator of English learning. Their

answers suggest that they hoped their students would develop more positive attitudes toward learning English. Mohamed (2009) points out that teachers should make the learning process more enjoyable and be supportive to enhance the intake of input and develop students' L2 knowledge.

It is worth noting that since the questionnaire did not link learners' levels to use of L1, it was impossible to judge what level of proficiency the teachers were anticipating their learners would have when completing the questionnaire. Had the teachers been thinking of low proficiency students, this might lead them to misjudge what might be possible with more advanced students.

### **5.3.1 Teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic**

In order to answer the second research question, "what are the teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?" the percentage of agreement and disagreement about the use of Arabic was calculated. In the second section, the same three categories were used, as in the first part of the questionnaire:

- 1- Statements: 18, 21, and 23 covering the use of L1 for pedagogical functions;
- 2- Statements: 19, 20, 29, and 30 covering the use of L1 for classroom management functions; and
- 3- Statements: 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28 covering the use of L1 for affective and interpersonal functions.

The teachers were asked to respond to the questions using a five-point Likert-Scale ranging from Always to Never, and the frequency of responses was calculated in percentages. Tables 5.5 to 5.7 illustrate the wide range of percentages associated with teachers' beliefs about their students' Cs in classroom. This section illustrates the functions for which Arabic is used or avoided by students, from their teachers' perspectives.

### 5.3.1.1 Curriculum access

This category is termed curriculum access rather than pedagogical functions, as the students are not responsible for teaching but only for accessing the curriculum and their learning. Regarding the curriculum access category, the data analysis revealed the teachers' differed in their beliefs concerning their students' use of Arabic (see Table 5.5).

Table 5:5 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic for curriculum access

Questionnaire Items	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Curriculum Access</b>										
18- My students use Arabic to translate difficult words	0	0%	4	6%	22	33%	20	30%	21	31 %
21- My students use Arabic in pair/group work activities	4	6%	11	16 %	24	36%	18	27%	10	15 %
23- My students use Arabic to translate grammatical points	5	8%	15	22 %	19	28%	21	31%	7	10 %

Of the respondents, a high percentage (61%) believed their students do not use Arabic to translate difficult words, while only 6% believed that their students use it for this purpose. Teachers' opinions were divided regarding their students' use of Arabic in pair or group work. In total, 42% believed that their students used Arabic, while the relatively lower percentage of 36% believed that their students "sometimes" used Arabic for this purpose. Teachers' opinions in the current study were also divided regarding their students' use of Arabic to translate grammatical points. While 41% of the teachers believed their students do not use Arabic for this purpose, 30% believed they do, and 28% believed that students "sometimes" do so (see Table 5.6 below).

### 5.3.1.2 Task management

This category was altered from classroom management to task management, as the students are not responsible for managing the class, but only for managing



their own responsibilities pertaining to the tasks. When expressing their beliefs about the students' use of Arabic for task management, different views emerged among the teachers (see Table 5.6).

Table 5:6 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic used for task management

Questionnaire Items	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Task management</b>										
19- My students use Arabic to discuss tasks' instructions	1	2%	11	17%	22	33%	20	30%	12	18%
20- My students use Arabic to discuss assignment instructions	2	3%	9	13%	23	34%	22	33%	11	16%
29- My students use Arabic to comment on their classmates' responses	3	5%	13	19%	33	49%	13	19%	5	8%
30- My students use Arabic to attract my attention	15	22%	21	31%	23	34%	4	6%	4	6%

The teachers did not seem to believe that their students use Arabic to discuss task instructions. While almost half of the teachers (49%) reported that their students do not tend to use Arabic for this reason, only 18% reported that their students do so. It was also found that teachers did not believe students use Arabic to discuss assignment instructions. Nearly half of the teachers (49%) reported their students do not use Arabic to fulfil this function, whereas only 16% of teachers reported that they do. With regard to students' use of Arabic to comment on their classmates' responses, teachers' opinions clustered around the middle category. Almost half the teachers (49%) reported that their students "sometimes" use Arabic for this purpose. When focusing on their students' use of Arabic to attract their attention, more than half of the teachers (53%) reported that their students use Arabic in this case, while only 12% reported that students do not.

### 5.3.1.3 Affective and interpersonal functions

With regard to students' use of Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions, the teachers' opinions differed (see Table 5.7).

Table 5:7 Descriptive analysis of teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions

Questionnaire Items	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Affective &amp; Interpersonal Functions</b>										
22- My students use Arabic when they fail to express themselves in English	1	2%	10	15%	14	21%	20	31%	20	31 %
24- Students prefer to use Arabic to discuss cultural topics	4	6%	13	19%	27	40%	15	22%	8	12%
25- My students prefer to use Arabic because it makes them feel more confident	6	9%	9	14%	23	34%	17	26%	11	17%
26- My students tend to use Arabic to give excuses for not doing homework	5	8%	14	21%	23	34%	15	22%	10	15%
27- My students feel more motivated when they use Arabic	9	14%	13	20%	26	39%	16	24%	2	3%
28- Students prefer to use Arabic because of their low-proficiency in English	1	2%	1	2 %	15	22%	27	40%	23	34%

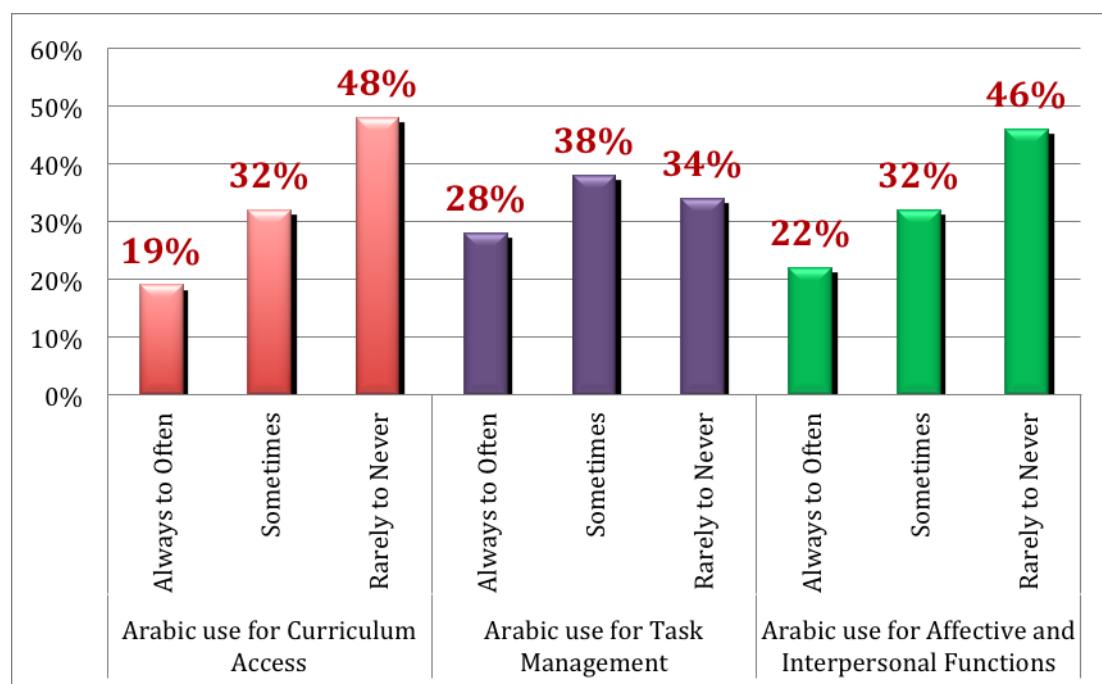
Unexpectedly it was found that a high percentage of teachers (61%) reported their students do not use Arabic when they fail to express themselves in English, and only 17% believed that their students use Arabic for this purpose. Contrary to the literature, 75% of the teachers did not believe that students prefer to use Arabic to

compensate for their low proficiency in English, while only a very low percentage (3%) reported their students use Arabic to compensate for their low proficiency in English. Concerning teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic for discussing cultural topics and giving excuses for not doing assignments, the teachers did not show a higher preference for one category over another. Teachers' responses were also divided with regard to the students' use of Arabic to increase confidence and motivation.

#### 5.4 Discussion of teachers' beliefs about the students' use of Arabic

In answer to the second research question, "what are the teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?", when comparing the teachers' beliefs about students across the three categories, it was not possible to identify which functional category they felt their students used CS for (see Figure 5.2).

Figure 5:2 Percentage of teachers' beliefs about the students' L1 use across the three categories



Almost half the teachers believed that their students tend not to use Arabic for curriculum access (48%), while a relatively lower percentage believed that students tend not to use Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions (46%). As

the L1 is perceived as the language for establishing less distant and less formal teacher-student relationships (Ferguson, 2003), it was predicted that teachers would show a higher level of agreement for students' use of Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions. The percentages given in the current study do not necessarily indicate the teachers disagree over the students' use of Arabic. Rather, they might imply that teachers rarely, or never, consciously consider why their students' use L1. With regard to task management function, the teachers did not show preference for any category.

Teachers believed that the main reason why students use Arabic is to attract their attention (54%). It was interesting to see observe that a considerable number of the participants did not attribute students' use of Arabic to a lack of proficiency in English (75%), or the inability to express themselves in English (62%). It was also surprising to find that the teachers did not believe their students used Arabic to translate difficult words (61%). Surprisingly, the teachers were either unable or unwilling to report with any accuracy on their students' use of Arabic. It was likely that teachers believed in maximising the students' L2 output because their exposure to English outside the classroom was minimal. This sentiment has been echoed by other teachers in Arabic contexts (e.g. Alrabah et al, 2016; Al-Shidhani, 2009). Al-Shidhani (2009) reported that 64.7% of the teachers believed that students' use of Arabic (L1) had a negative effect on their English (L2) learning. Moreover, more than half the teachers in his study believed that students should not be allowed to use Arabic in the classroom. Al-Nofaie (2010) argues that this negative view might be attributed to the fact that teachers tend not to receive sufficient guidance on the systematic use of L1 in EFL classrooms.

The results of this study did not support Al-Shidhani's (2011) findings, as 83% of the teachers in his study believed students routinely translate L2 into L1. It could be that teachers in his study understood the importance of the role of L1 for young learners to ensure maximum understanding among them. In the current study, teachers' opinions were divided regarding their students' use of Arabic in pair or group work. The only possible explanation for that is some teachers might not allow

students to use L1 in group work, to give them an opportunity to practise L2. It could be that the teachers were attempting to show through their responses that they were managing their students' behaviour and learning activities effectively.

It could be that the teachers did not know why their students use L1, or when they do. There is an overall inclination toward the belief that students do not tend to use Arabic for curriculum access. In addition, their responses might be unreliable, because they only offer their personal impressions of their students' feelings and motivations.

### **5.5 Comparisons of teachers' beliefs about themselves and their students**

As shown in Figures 5.1 and 5.2, tentative comparisons can be drawn across the three categories. The teachers believed Arabic was useful on the whole for pedagogical reasons, however, they stated that their students did not use it much for curriculum access, which is the student equivalent. That was because the teachers were the ones teaching the L1; they were both the source of information and the learning facilitators. Therefore, they believed that using Arabic was useful for mediating information and assisting comprehension of the L2 among their students. The majority of teachers also believed that using Arabic for classroom management was generally useful, although most of them thought their students rarely or never used it for task management, which is the student equivalent of classroom management. This result is unsurprising because of the power imbalance; i.e. the teachers were the ones managing classroom tasks and disciplining students. This might also imply a fundamental belief that learning is improved when teachers are in control of classroom activities and can effectively manage their students' behaviour. It was also judged likely that the students might not have a sufficiently adequate knowledge of English to comprehend complex instructions, and thus their use of Arabic was necessary.

With regard to affective and interpersonal functions overall, despite more than half the teachers believing Arabic was useful, there was a range of responses regarding how much they felt their students used them. It was expected there would

be a higher response rate to increase the students' confidence and make them more motivated to learn the L2. This might be because the students were not accustomed to showing their feelings to their teachers in class, because of the power imbalance. Another possibility is that the teachers were not reporting the students' actual L1 use, because they might believe that this would make them look less proficient. They might also believe that they should show the researcher they were applying CLT in the classroom, which is a practice that does not support L1 use.

Data analysis of the two parts revealed some similarities and differences in the teachers' responses. The teachers' responses appeared to match when using Arabic for vocabulary, and grammar. Sixty-one per cent of the teachers believed their students tend not to use Arabic to translate difficult words, in comparison to 42% (which, though a lower percentage, is relatively high), who disagree with the statement that using Arabic helped students understand new vocabulary. The teachers' responses to the statements about using Arabic for grammar showed they have similar opinions about both themselves and the students. Forty-one per cent of the teachers believed that students tended not to use Arabic to translate grammatical points, and a similar percentage (43%) of teachers expressed disagreement with the statement that their use of Arabic helped their students understand grammar. Their aversion toward using Arabic for grammar might have originated from the belief that the best method for learning and teaching of grammar should be carried out in English.

The teachers' responses, however, were mismatched when it came to students' usage of Arabic for task instructions, cultural topics, and to boost confidence. While 49% of the teachers believed students tend not to use Arabic to discuss task instructions, more than half (64%) agreed that Arabic is helpful when assigning tasks to students. Forty-two per cent of the teachers did not believe that students use Arabic because it made them feel more confident, in comparison to 48% who agreed that their use of Arabic helped to build their students' confidence. Another surprising result was that 40% of the teachers believed their students "sometimes" used Arabic to discuss cultural topics, in comparison to 57% of

teachers who believed that they use Arabic for the same purpose. Teachers might not be aware that their students usually need sufficient vocabulary to discuss any topic including culture, and that therefore using Arabic would be an advantage, by providing more opportunities to express aspects of culture in their own language. It is likely that the teachers were not aware of the tension between their beliefs about ideal learning and their perceptions of students' preferences. Another possibility is that the teachers provided the responses they thought would be anticipated from professional English teachers, rather than those that corresponded to their actual practices.

In summary, the answers of teachers on the first and the second parts of the questionnaire showed the teachers believed it was useful to use Arabic to some degree in the classroom, recognising why their students used it. Teachers held a strong belief that Arabic was useful for classroom management; whereas, according to the teachers, the students did not tend to use it for curriculum access or affective and interpersonal functions. A lower percentage of teachers believed students did not use Arabic for task management. The questions that then present themselves are: What are the factors that shape teachers' beliefs? And, to what extent do these beliefs match actual practices? These are answered in the following chapters. Unfortunately, I did not inquire as to what teachers believe their students want from them. In the next section the analysis of the three open questions are presented and discussed.

## **5.6 Part Two: Qualitative Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire**

This section presents the findings obtained from the open questions in the questionnaire. These questions helped to illuminate teachers' beliefs about CS in the classroom. This chapter is intended to provide background to the study. The data is analysed in more breadth and depth in the following three chapters.

The questionnaire included three open questions and the findings are described according to the questions posed. The aim of the qualitative part of the questionnaire analysis is to add some depth to the answers provided in the quantitative portions, and to answer the two background questions:

- 1- What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?
- 2- What are teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?

In this section, each question is analysed separately. First, the teachers' beliefs about their own use of Arabic is discussed. Second, the teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic are presented. Then, teachers' responses to the third question concerning the ELI policy are discussed. It is worth noting here that the majority of the teachers' responses to the open questions were brief.

### **5.6.1 The first open question**

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the teachers' responses. Regarding the first question, 'what is the origin of your belief about the use of Arabic in classroom?', the teachers' responses were grouped into two major categories of factors potentially influencing teachers' beliefs: 1) teaching experiences, and 2) personal and learning experiences.

#### **5.6.1.1 Teaching experiences**

A total of 52 out of the 67 teachers who completed the questionnaires answered this question. However, when reporting the data, it is important to note that it is possible that some of the teachers misinterpreted the questions. They might have thought that I was inquiring into how the length of their experience corresponded with their teaching proficiency, and this might have been perceived as threatening by the new teachers. Under half, 28 of the teachers believed that their beliefs about Arabic use originated from their experiences as English teachers. Many studies demonstrated that teaching experiences and collaboration with colleagues were the chief sources of teachers' beliefs (e.g. Crookes & Arkaki, 1999; Farrell & Lim, 2005). One teacher in the present study reported that she tended to use Arabic in her classroom. This teacher did not espouse the ELI policy that prohibits the use of L1: "I broke this rule a few times and found that students started to become more accustomed to speaking Arabic to me as opposed to their normal routine of sticking



to English”. Her answer suggested that her personal belief about teaching was more important to her than the institutional policy. Another teacher opposed use of L1 as, according to her, it could affect students’ confidence and interest in speaking and learning the L2: “throughout my years of teaching English as a foreign language I noticed that using Arabic makes the students lose interest in communicating in the target language. It makes them less confident about using English in daily conversations”. This teacher, however, remained neutral in respect of statement 5: “I believe using Arabic helps to build up the student’s confidence”.

#### **5.6.1.2 Teachers’ personal and learning experiences**

Regarding the second theme, several factors were identified from the open questions as responsible for the teachers’ beliefs about the L1, including schools, postgraduate studies, training courses, and journals. The teachers’ responses suggested that their beliefs about the L1 and L2 use in the classroom were determined for the most part by their experiences as students.

Fifteen out of the 52 teachers reported their background education was the main source of their beliefs. It has been suggested that what teachers experience as learners, while observing their own teachers practices, shapes their core beliefs about learning and teaching, and continues to influence their practices throughout their careers (Borg, 2003; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Nespor, 1987).

In the present study, some examples of teachers’ answers were “Experience as a student”, “Previous education in school”, and “Previous studies”. The limitations of the questionnaire method prevented further probing into their responses to ascertain whether they meant their experiences as learners in general, or L2 learners specifically. Ten teachers wrote that their previous experiences as students influenced their beliefs. However, I was not confident about whether they meant at school or tertiary level education. Teacher training was one of the last significant factors apparently influencing teachers’ beliefs. Seven teachers reported attending training courses, such as workshops that informed them about teaching methodologies, and were important in influencing their beliefs. They did not specify,

however, whether they meant pre- or in-service training. Their answers were in contrast with the teachers' responses in Crookes and Arkaki's (1999) study as many teachers in their study expressed a preference for informal chats with colleagues over attending formal workshops and conferences. One possible explanation for this variation is the context and the teachers' experience. The teachers in their context reported they had a less than positive experience on the training programme they attended.

In contrast, another teacher was against L1 use. Studying for a Masters abroad informed her belief about the L1 use. From studying abroad, she learned that using the L1 could "affect students' progress and inhibit them from practising the language". Furthermore, the teachers' beliefs were also informed by reading about the L1 in journals and research papers, as eight teachers wrote that reading was an important factor in shaping their beliefs about L1 use. This suggests that individual factors, such as teachers' willingness to discover new ideas, as presented in the literature, shaped their beliefs. These responses suggest that their beliefs were formed a long time prior to teaching, which might make it difficult for teachers participating in in-service development programs to modify their beliefs, as discussed in many earlier studies (e.g. Kagan, 1992; Nettle, 1998; Peacock, 2001).

The least commonly reported factors shaping teachers' beliefs were informal discussions with colleagues, especially senior ones, students' feedback, and personal experiences with their own children. Either one or two teachers provided these responses. While the majority of the teachers believed their core beliefs were derived from their experiences as learners, only one teacher reported that training had an impact on her beliefs. The teachers' views echoed the work of Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), who found that teachers' L2 teaching derived from their personal experiences rather than programmes or in-service training. In the current study, it was apparent that the benefits from training were likely to be subconscious. It was also found that the teachers' responses were brief, which might indicate they answered the open questions hastily, without giving them much thought or consideration.

It was found that seven teachers reported that they did not believe in the efficacy of using Arabic when teaching English. Their responses revealed they were more inclined to associate CS to Arabic with low proficiency and negative outcomes. Their responses were in line with the literature, which suggests that teachers should maximise the use of L2 in language classrooms (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). Examples of teachers' responses included: "I prefer not to use Arabic in classroom", and "I'm totally against the use of the mother tongue in the classes". The reasons that the teachers gave for their responses were as follows: 1) it is a sign of the teachers' lack of confidence in English; 2) the aim of the courses is not to teach translation; 3) Arabic could have a negative impact on the learning outcomes; 4) the need to maximise students' exposure to rich English input; and 5) students must be given opportunities to practise English.

The first question elicited teachers' beliefs about their own L1 use, whereas the main concern of the second question was the teachers' beliefs about the students' L1 use.

### **5.6.2 The second open question**

Regarding their beliefs about the factors that influence students' use of L1 in the classroom, the teachers' answers were grouped into four major categories: 1) students' low proficiency in L2; 2) affective factors; 3) students' background education; and 4) lack of practice outside the L2 classroom.

#### **5.6.2.1 Students' low proficiency in L2**

The majority of the teachers (51 out of 67) answered the second question. Some of the teachers might have omitted to do so because they did not know why their students used L1. Just under half, 32 teachers considered that their students' use of Arabic was mainly attributable to their low proficiency in English. The diverse levels of L2 proficiency among students emerged as the chief challenge facing FL teachers in other studies (e.g. Kang, 2008; Macaro, 2001; Su, 2006). Teachers in the present study believed students found it difficult to communicate: "They don't find the right words to express themselves". The question that comes to mind here is

whether the teachers were referring to the relative low proficiency of students at lower or/and higher levels. The teachers also cited the students' limited L2 lexical repertoire: "They have limited vocabulary to express themselves which forces them to use some Arabic to communicate". This response supports the finding of Setati et al. (2002), whose study of English teachers highlighted that students resorted to their L1 (such as Tsonga and TshiVenda) when failing to utter sentences in English, because of their low proficiency in English. Similarly, the teachers in the present study believed that the students' low proficiency in the L2 hindered their ability to participate in the classroom.

Some of the students were reportedly even inclined to rely on excessive translation from English to Arabic to assist comprehension: "Some students tend to translate every word into Arabic to make sure they understand grammar and vocabulary". I am not confident, however, about whether the teacher was referring here to internal or verbalised translations. The reason they provided in the open question matched their response to statement 18: "My students use Arabic to translate difficult words". The teachers, however, believed that their students rely excessively on translation, suggesting they were at beginner levels. It was also likely that students were over-using Arabic in the classroom because this practice had been prevalent in their schooling years. It could be that their schoolteachers had never trained them to communicate with their teachers and classmates in L2. It could also be argued that the tendency to translate every L2 word could be attributed to affective factors, as the learners were reluctant to make mistakes in front of their peers. Students naturally feel more comfortable speaking in the language they have mastered.

Interestingly, the teachers' responses in the closed question contradicted their responses in the open question, which supported the claim that teachers' beliefs are often unconscious (Borg, 2015; Pajares, 1992). Although more than three quarters (75%) of the teachers did not agree with statement 28 ("students prefer to use Arabic because of their low-proficiency in English"), 62% attributed students' use of Arabic to their low proficiency in English. The teachers' responses to the open question also

showed contradictions, as the majority of the teachers (60%) did not agree with statement 22: “My students use Arabic when they fail to express themselves in English”. In addition, in response to the closed question, 75% of the teachers did not acknowledge that their students prefer to use Arabic to compensate for their low proficiency in English. The 67 teachers’ responses to the questionnaire in general were full of contradictions, pointing to an overall lack of awareness about what they actually did in class.

#### **5.6.2.2 Affective factors**

The second group of common factors informing the students’ Arabic use were affective factors. Twenty-two out of the 51 teachers believed that students used the L1 for affective reasons, including lack of confidence in L2, anxiety, humour, motivation to learn L2, and saving face. The teachers believed that students felt more confident when expressing themselves in Arabic: “I think it’s because they feel confident when they try to use their mother tongue especially when they fail to understand English vocabulary or grammar structures”. Interestingly, their responses to the open question did not match their responses to the closed questions. Forty-one per cent of the teachers expressed disagreement with statement 25 (“My students tend to use Arabic to give excuses for doing homework”), while 47% believed their students “sometimes” use Arabic.

Another reason suggested by teachers was that some students attempt to add humour and attract their classmates’ attention by speaking in Arabic during the lesson: “Sometimes to be funny and get their classmates’ attention”. The level of motivation to learn English was another factor influencing the students’ quantity of Arabic use in the classroom: “Interest and motivation to learn the target language affect students’ use of their first language”. Additionally, the teachers wrote that saving face was likely to prompt students to resort to Arabic to avoid humiliation: “Some students might be afraid of embarrassing themselves in front of their classmates if they misuse the language”.

Surprisingly, the analysis of the closed questions revealed that teachers believed that they use more Arabic than their students for affective and interpersonal reasons. It had been anticipated that the use of Arabic for affective purposes would have been most apparent among students themselves, especially as they had low proficiency in English. The teachers' responses to the open and closed questions were contradictory. This suggests the teachers were not aware of their beliefs, and that the questionnaire led them to consider previously unexplored core beliefs about themselves and their students. These comparisons between their own and their students' use of Arabic might have triggered a slight increase in the teachers' awareness and stimulated them to recall their own and their students' selection of Arabic in the classroom. Their responses appear to support Farrell and Lim's (2005) claim that teachers are sometimes not aware of their own beliefs until asked about them by the researchers. The teachers' responses were also in line with traditional and contemporary thinking about the complexity of teachers' beliefs (e.g. Borg, 2015; Pajares, 1992; Phipps, 2009).

#### **5.6.2.3 Students' background education**

The third theme that emerged from teachers' responses to the second question concerned the students' background education. Seven teachers reported that many of their students had not been exposed to sufficient English input during their school years. The students were neither given opportunities to practise English, nor equipped with the skill of inferring meaning from context: "[They have the] habit inculcated from previous learning experiences, [and] no clear strategy in inferring meaning from context". In secondary schools, the expectation of L1 output was prevalent among students in English lessons: "I think the way they were taught English in secondary schools affects them a lot. They have been used to using Arabic in English lessons". The teachers also commented that students are not trained to speak or listen to as much English at school level as they are at tertiary level.

#### **5.6.2.4 Lack of practice outside L2 classroom**

Eight of the 51 teachers believed lack of practice was another factor influencing students to use additional Arabic inside the classroom. This provided

more evidence of their contradictory responses. Although they reported in the closed questions that students did not use L1 in the classroom, in the open questions they agreed that students do actually use it.

In many Arab countries, students are mostly monolingual and not exposed to English input outside the classroom. This prevents students from practising their English outside the formal setting. It is worth noting, however, that some families today in Jeddah are choosing to raise their children bilingually, which suggests the lack of exposure to English outside the classroom will be a lesser problem for many students from the younger generations.

In the present study, one teacher wrote, “This is largely because of the fact that Arabic is the first language here and is most widely used”. Another teacher similarly believed that students found it “easier to communicate in Arabic” because they were brought up in an Arabic environment: “[the problem is] the lack of any other environments where they can practise English”. A similar concern was raised by a teacher in Duff and Polio’s (1990) study, who believed in providing students with L2 interactional activities because of too few opportunities to practise outside the classroom. The teachers in the present study did not mention how they would solve the issue of students’ lack of exposure to English. They just attributed the problems they encountered to schoolteachers and the monolingual environment. The teachers did not suggest potential solutions, such as introducing interesting off task projects to encourage students to practise their oral and written English outside the classroom.

### **5.6.3 The third open question**

The third question was: ‘What is the policy about using Arabic in English classrooms in your institute?’. Analysis of teachers’ responses to this question yielded two main categories: 1) L1 is prohibited in classrooms, and 2) L1 should be minimised in classrooms. The ELI published a handbook for teachers, which included a section about the policy of L1 use. The section clearly states that L1 is prohibited in the classroom (as discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.2.3.3).

#### **5.6.3.1 L1 is prohibited in classrooms**

A total of 48 out of the 67 teachers answered the second question. Twenty-eight teachers stated that L1 is prohibited at the ELI: “It’s obvious that using Arabic in the English classroom is prohibited. Not allowed”. The teachers believed that the institute policy required them to deliver classroom instructions using solely English: “Using Arabic is forbidden in our institute. All instructions have been given in English”. Another group of teachers believed the ELI’s policy requires limited use of Arabic in the classroom.

#### **5.6.3.2 L1 should be minimised in classrooms**

Ten teachers reported that the ELI policy requires minimum use of English during the lesson, and that it can be used when necessary: “Using the minimum amount of Arabic that only facilitates language teaching when required”. Similarly, one teacher believed that the policy required limited Arabic use and that the amount of Arabic should vary according to the level of the students. This teacher appeared to suggest that Arabic was allowed with lower level students, but must be minimised as the students proceeded to higher levels.

### **5.7 Summary**

According to the questionnaire data reported in this chapter, the teachers’ beliefs about CS originated from three main factors: their experiences as L2 teachers, their educational background, and their personal experiences. Most teachers believed that the ELI policy prohibits the use of L1 in teaching. Nevertheless, many felt compelled to resort to L1, chiefly because of their students’ lack of proficiency in the L2. According to the teachers, lack of exposure to the L2 outside the classroom, and lack of L2 practice inside the classroom result in students using L1 in the classroom. The teachers who answered the questionnaire can be understood to fall into one of four groups. Some might have carefully considered L1 use and sincerely believed that it should or should not be used in classroom. Their answers might well be based on their own teaching experiences, and they may have conducted lessons using some or no L1. Other teachers might have simply chosen to give certain answers because



they know L1 is prohibited by the ELI. Other teachers might have been disinterested in the topic, and chosen to select their responses haphazardly. Generally speaking, teachers' answers to the closed and open questions appeared contradictory, which raises questions over whether teachers are aware of their own beliefs.

The following chapter includes findings from the main phase of the present study. I carried out an in depth exploration of the phenomenon, conducting interviews, observations, questionnaires and workshops. The focus was on seven faculty members at the English Institute.

## **6 Results: Pre-Treatment**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The findings chapters pertaining to the second phase of the research are divided into three chapters: pre-treatment, treatment, and post-treatment. This chapter presents the findings from the pre-treatment interviews, the questionnaire, and the observations. An understanding of the complex relationship between what teachers say they do and what they actually do in classrooms emerges here, when analysing teachers' practices and stated beliefs in the Saudi context. Understanding the context of the study where learning and teaching take place was of vital importance, because it explains why teachers did or did not hold certain beliefs about the use of Arabic and why they did or did not employ Arabic in their practices.

In this chapter, the analyses presented in this chapter highlight instances of switches to Arabic, focusing on seven teachers from the ELI. While teachers expressed negative attitudes about using Arabic, in reality most employed it to varying degrees and for a variety of purposes. In this chapter, the themes arising from data analysis, accompanied by examples from the three data collection methods are discussed thoroughly.

The analyses of the seven teachers yielded four key themes, in relation to participants' beliefs about using Arabic in teaching English. My central overarching theme is the teachers' beliefs and practices about L1 use; the four themes are linked to this central theme and are interrelated (see Appendix 16):

- 1- Teachers' beliefs about their own L1 use;
- 2- Teachers' beliefs about the students' use of L1;
- 3- Factors potentially influencing teachers' beliefs; and
- 4- Teachers' techniques to convey L2 message.

Before discussing the findings of the second phase of the study, a summary of the main findings of the first phase is presented in Tables 6.1 and 6.2, to allow a comparison of teachers' beliefs across both phases.

Table 6:1 Summary of the teachers' responses to the closed questions

<b>Function</b>	<b>Teachers' beliefs about their Arabic use</b>	<b>Teachers' beliefs about their students' Arabic use</b>
<b>Pedagogical functions</b>	1- Teachers did not favour it when students failed to understand their questions in English. 2- Teachers did not believe that they used Arabic to help students understand difficult concepts. 3- Teachers' opinions were divided concerning using Arabic in teaching grammar. 4- Teachers showed a higher preference for using Arabic to increase participation, and provide feedback.	1- High percentage believed that their students did not use Arabic to translate difficult words.  2- Teachers' opinions were divided concerning their students' use of Arabic in pair or group work, and in grammar translation.
<b>Classroom management</b>	Teachers favoured the use of Arabic to assign tasks, discipline, attract and keep students' attention, and keep students interested in the lessons.	Almost half of the teachers reported that their students did not tend to use Arabic to discuss task instructions or assignment instructions.
<b>Affective and Interpersonal functions</b>	Teachers favoured the use of Arabic affective and interpersonal functions to help build students' confidence, praise students, and discuss L1 cultural topics.	A high percentage of teachers reported that students did not use Arabic when they fail to express themselves in English, nor because of their low-level proficiency in English.

Table 6:2 Summary of the teachers' responses to open questions

<b>Statements</b>	<b>Main answers</b>
Origins of teachers' beliefs	1- The teachers believed that their beliefs about Arabic use originated from their experiences as English teachers. 2- Background education was the second most important source of their beliefs.
Factors influencing students' Arabic use	1- Teachers considered that their students' use of Arabic was mainly attributable to their low proficiency in English. 2- Teachers believed that students used Arabic for affective reasons, including lack of confidence in L2, anxiety, humour, motivation to learn L2, and saving face. <b>(Teachers' responses in the open and the closed questions appeared contradictory)</b> 3- Students' background education was the second most common reason for the students' use of Arabic.
Teachers' beliefs about the ELI policy	Many teachers believed that Arabic was prohibited

## 6.2 Cross-thematic analysis

In the present chapter, the findings are described according to themes that emerged from the interviews and the questionnaire, and are further considered in light of the observations made. Comparisons were made between all seven teachers, instead of dealing with each teacher individually, in order to avoid repetition. All seven teachers expressed overlapping beliefs about the use of L1 in their classrooms.

### 6.2.1 Theme one: Teachers' beliefs about their L1 use

The three sub-themes emerging from the interviews and questionnaire discussed under this heading are: 1) what teachers believe leads them to use L1; 2) what teachers believe to be the function of L1 use; and 3) teachers' negative beliefs regarding the use of L1. The findings from the observations are then drawn upon to consider the forms and functions the teachers' use of Arabic took, and how their actual use differed from their stated use.

#### 6.2.1.1 What teachers believe leads them to use L1

In the interviews, the most frequently recurring reason given by the seven teachers for using L1 in the classroom was that doing so was necessary for students

of lower level proficiency. This was evident in the responses in the interviews, as well as in the open questions in the questionnaire. All seven teachers stated that they varied the amount of Arabic they used in the classroom according to their students levels, as they felt it was necessary to use Arabic with low proficiency students, including both those who are weak and beginners; as Ayisha stated: “Beginners don’t have background. They don’t have enough vocabulary”. However, they seem to contradict themselves (as shown in Table 6.1). (See Appendix 20 for a sample transcript of pre-interview).

Another reason frequently given by the teachers in the present study for using L1 with lower proficiency learners was to prevent them falling behind. For example, Lama felt her low proficiency students remained more on track when she used L1, as they understood the lesson better:

Lama: I use it more with levels one and two. I feel disappointed when some of my are students lost. I don’t want that to happen in my class. Realising the weak students are lost, concerns me a lot a lot. So when I use some Arabic, they seem to be happier. (Interview 1)

As well as stating that L1 should be used with low proficiency students, the teachers specifically stated that it should not be used with higher proficiency students. The teachers in the current study felt they were compelled to use it in some cases, yet they all reported that with levels four or five, who are considered intermediate level students, they tried to refrain from using Arabic. For example:

Sally: ...with higher level, erm I don’t have the urgency to use Arabic. (Interview 1)

A further factor influencing teachers’ use of Arabic in the present study was time. The teachers reported that it was compulsory to use Arabic to use classroom time efficiently, and this was the most frequently used justification.

Maysa: If they don't get what I say, erm if they don't do the exercises, it means that they don't understand the rule. So I have no other option. I don't want to waste the class time. (Interview 1)

An additional time pressure reported by the teachers was that of the strict pacing guidelines (curriculum guidelines) prescribed by the ELI (see Appendix 22), which they felt bound to follow:

Ayisha: you find terrible students ... very low-level students. How can you manage? And you are forced by the pacing guide... You have things to finish, so you are forced to use Arabic. (Interview 1)

#### **6.2.1.2 What teachers believe to be the function of L1 use**

After examining the teachers' reasons, as stated in the interviews and questionnaire, for their switches to Arabic, their discourse was classified into four salient functions: a) pedagogical; b) classroom management; c) affective and interpersonal functions; and d) idiosyncratic L1 use (this function emerged during the observations).

##### **6.2.1.2.1 Pedagogical functions**

It was interesting to observe that teachers' responses to the closed questions did not match their responses in the interviews. The same questionnaire was administered to the seven participants twice; the first time was prior to the workshops, and the second time was after the workshops to allow a comparison. Below I present only the responses that differed before and after the workshops. In the pre-treatment interviews, the seven teachers reported Arabic was necessary to explain grammar, translate difficult English vocabulary, ensure comprehension, explain key concepts, and maintain students' engagement.

Karima and Maysa found using Arabic to explain vocabulary and grammar and to provide instructions helpful, as expressed below:

Karima: I could use it for words. For instance, vocabulary, sometimes in grammar, if I explain something, if I give instructions and the students can't understand then I can explain it in Arabic... If you use it specifically for some tasks. I think it's not harmful. In fact, I think it helps the students. (Interview 1)

Before attending the workshops, five teachers did not appear to have an opinion about the benefits of L1 for teaching vocabulary. For example, Maysa neither agreed nor disagreed with the first statement on the questionnaire: "I believe that using Arabic helps my students understand new vocabulary". Lama, on the other hand, agreed with the statement. It could be that the five teachers were unsure about the efficacy of CS for translating new or difficult L2 words. They might not be sure about how CS could help students progress in learning L2, or how it can increase production and comprehension.

In the case of statement 2: "I believe that it is helpful to use Arabic when my students fail to understand my questions", three teachers varied in their responses. Karima neither agreed nor disagreed about the benefits of Arabic as a communication strategy to ensure comprehension among students. Ayisha, on the other hand, disagreed with this statement, while Lama, left statement 2 blank. This could be because she felt she had no answer or preferred not to answer at all, or because she failed to notice the statement as she completed the rest of the questionnaire.

Some teachers, for example, Sally (Interview 1) believed that complicated concepts, such as capitalism and communism, were difficult to explain using only English, and thus attaining an understanding of such complicated concepts made it necessary for her to discuss them in the students' L1.

Interestingly, however, when answering the closed questions on the questionnaire, the teachers did not agree that they used Arabic to help students understand difficult concepts; while in the interviews they reported that Arabic was

invaluable for that reason. This is an indication that CS takes place below their level of consciousness.

According to the teachers, Arabic was also a technique for effective learning to keep the students interested and focused and to increase participation among students.

Rana Perhaps for example when you're explaining vocabulary, so it is used as a concept check question to see if they understand what you are talking about...To make them participate...to cooperate with you in the classroom. (Interview 1)

Maysa: by the end of the day, students lose concentration, so you have to use a little Arabic to deliver instructions, complicated instructions... (Interview 1)

Teachers' responses to the closed questionnaire in the first phase, matched their responses in the pre-treatment interview in regard to using Arabic to increase participation among students; four out of seven teachers reported they used Arabic for this purpose. As for statement 13 on the questionnaire, "I believe that my use of Arabic helps students to participate more in class", Lama, Maysa, Tala, and Ayisha neither agreed nor disagreed on CS to increase participation among students, whereas Karima disagreed.

In the closed questionnaire, the teachers agreed that they switched to Arabic to provide feedback, while in the interviews only Lama reported that she uses Arabic for this purpose. It is possible that the six teachers, even though they agreed to the statement: "I think that Arabic is helpful when I give feedback to students", did not use L1 in classroom to provide feedback.

It must be noted that four teachers at the pre-treatment stage appeared not to have an opinion concerning CS for teaching vocabulary or to encourage students' participation. This could be because they were not aware of their practices and



therefore, it was felt that attending successive workshops could be helpful for challenging teachers' assumptions and prompting them to reflect on their reported beliefs and actual practices (discussed in the post-treatment chapter).

#### **6.2.1.2.2 Classroom management**

This section continues to discuss what teachers believe to be the function of CS. All seven teachers' responses in the interviews varied regarding using Arabic to manage the classroom. The teachers stated in the interviews that they used Arabic to redirect their students' attention during the lesson.

As for statement 8, "I believe that using Arabic helps discipline my students (e.g. ask them to stop side talk)", Tala, Lama and Sally did not appear to have an opinion, choosing "Neither agree nor disagree" category. "Disciplinary technique", according to Rana, neither meant reprimanding students for disturbing the class nor arriving late (Interview 1).

Concerning statement 12 in the questionnaire, "I find Arabic helps attract and keep my students' attention", Rana, Sally, and Lama neither agreed nor disagreed that they use Arabic to attract students' attention, whereas Maysa and Karima disagreed statement. However, in the interview Lama stated:

Lama: Sometimes I get the students' attention when I use Arabic at the beginning of any class. Like for example when discussing what happened in yesterday's class. I get them to talk and discuss it with me in Arabic. (Interview 1)

In their responses to the questionnaire regarding CS for classroom management, the seven teachers varied in their views concerning the three statements under this heading. For statement 4, "I think Arabic is helpful when assigning tasks to students", while Ayisha and Karima neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, Lama believed that Arabic could be beneficial when assigning tasks to students.

In general, the 67 teachers' responses to the questionnaire in the previous phase revealed they favoured switching to Arabic for assigning tasks, disciplining students, and retaining their students' attention. It was interesting to see the discrepancy between what the teachers perceived they do and their actual practices. The seven teachers' responses to the questionnaire items suggested no general agreement or disagreement with regard to CS for classroom management. In addition, although the seven teachers in the interviews expressed that they only used Arabic to attract their students' attention, the observational data revealed they used more Arabic than they reported. The teachers employed Arabic to address individual students, to highlight important information, and to indicate a switch between topics (discussed later in the chapter).

The only classroom management function mentioned by the teachers in the pre-interview phase was attracting students' attention. It could be that they were not aware of their classroom practices, or were reluctant to acknowledge that L1 could be a tool to manage the classroom. Another possible explanation for this reluctance appears to have been their sense of guilt (discussed in section 6.2.3.4). A further implication that might be drawn from their answers was that the seven teachers did not believe it was acceptable for professional teachers to perform classroom management in L1. They might want to give the impression that they were managing classroom activities and students' behaviour well using only the L2.

#### **6.2.1.2.3 Interpersonal and affective functions**

The pre-treatment interview data revealed that the teachers believed that using Arabic was a desirable tool to enliven the classroom atmosphere and comfort students. Ayisha, for example, expressed a preference for telling jokes in Arabic or using funny words (Interview 1). Doing so could be attributed to students' lack of familiarity with the L2 vocabulary, which might also affect their comprehension of jokes delivered in L2.

All seven teachers stressed that they switched to Arabic to create less distance between themselves and their students; however, classroom observations revealed less Arabic usage than was indicated during the pre-interviews. In the questionnaire, the teachers differed in their beliefs concerning two statements. For statement 5, “I believe using Arabic helps to build up the students’ confidence”, before the workshops Maysa did not believe that the L1 could be useful to increase students’ confidence, whereas Rana agreed with the use of Arabic for this purpose. Ayisha on the other hand did not appear to have an opinion about this statement, choosing the “Neither agree nor disagree” category.

In the case of statement 16, “I think that Arabic is helpful when I discuss cultural topics with my students”, Rana and Lama agreed that CS could be useful when discussing issues related to the L1 culture. Sally on the other hand neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement.

The analysis of the teachers’ reported use of Arabic in the first and second pre-treatment phases revealed some contradictions. In the first phase, the teachers appeared to favour using Arabic to help build the students’ confidence, praise students, and discuss cultural topics. In the second pre-treatment phase, the seven teachers expressed strongly that they used Arabic to build rapport with their students, while when answering the questionnaire; they expressed varying beliefs concerning the use of Arabic to increase students’ confidence and to discuss topics related to culture. It appears that the teachers were relatively positive or uncertain about the benefits of Arabic for affective and interpersonal purposes. When comparing the pedagogical and classroom management categories, the observational data also revealed the teachers use less Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions.

Six teachers believed that using L1 was undesirable. Discussed below is the second category, which encompasses teachers’ negative beliefs regarding CS, under the first theme, and teachers’ beliefs about L1 use.

### **6.2.1.3 Teachers' negatives beliefs regarding L1 use**

Teachers appear to have negative beliefs about CS in the classroom. Even though analyses of the transcripts in the pre-interviews revealed that all seven teachers reported that they had to use Arabic for the above purposes, the teachers appeared critical of the use of Arabic, perceiving that the ideal lesson should be conducted in English. For example, in the pre-interviews, sentences such as “I have no other option” gave the impression that teachers perceive their use of Arabic negatively. They reiterated in the pre-treatment interviews that Arabic should be “very limited” (Ayisha, Interview1). The teachers' negative beliefs regarding using Arabic at this stage were evident in statements such as, “Arabic is not an option to use in class” (Maysa, Interview 1), and “Arabic is not allowed in my class” (Sally, Interview 1).

Nevertheless, although the teachers believed that best practice was to use English exclusively, as mentioned above they also stated that their students' low level of proficiency in L2 led them to switch to Arabic. According to the teachers, this could be attributed to a lack of exposure to L2 input and output outside the classroom; thus, the teachers believed that they should aim to maximise English use in the limited class time available. As Rana stated:

...if you're teaching beginners, low-level students who don't have enough English exposure, you must use Arabic on a regular basis. (Interview 1)

Their responses during the pre-treatment interviews matched their responses to the open question in the first phase. When the teachers in the current study were asked about their beliefs about the use of Arabic in teaching English in the interviews, six of them reported that Arabic should be used within limits. The meaning of limited use was apparently different among the seven teachers. Ayisha, for instance, expressed a strong view that Arabic was not a facilitator of English learning. “Limited” in her opinion meant excluding Arabic. She mentioned:

Mmm through my experience as a teacher, I think that using Arabic demotivates students. (Interview 1)

The idea that the quantity of the teacher's L1 could affect students' L1 was reiterated by other teachers. For example, Rana reported that teachers should be models for their students.

Rana: when they see you use Arabic, they'll use more Arabic. It depends on what you're using it for. If you're only using English, they'll only use English. (Interview 1)

Teachers in the current study believed that their use of Arabic could hinder their students' English learning, specifically, their students' linguistic development.

Rana: they want to practise the language, and if you use Arabic you're going back to the beginning you know and at that point, you should be progressing not falling back to phase 1 when you started, so it's very important that you give them more exposure to English. (Interview 1)

An interesting theme that emerged was expressed by Ayisha: "I'll change into an Arabic teacher not an English teacher (laugh). I'll change my career" (Interview 1). Her quote illustrates her opinion that the language of communication should be L2 only.

The teachers were not happy about their students' use of L1, as they said it would impair their fluency and linguistic competence. Five teachers reported that students' use of L1 could have a negative impact on their linguistic development. Ayisha, for instance stated that her students:

Become demotivated to use English, so their fluency becomes worse... I always ask my students to have conversations short conversations together about any topic. (Interview 1)

#### 6.2.1.4 Teachers' usage of Arabic in observations: forms and function

Analysis of the observational transcripts revealed that teachers appeared to switch to Arabic for more than one function. Arabic was chiefly used by teachers for pedagogical functions, to check comprehension, elicit responses, and explain grammar. In some instances, many switches served more than one function, possibly having different functional interpretations (See Appendix 21 for a sample transcript of the pre-observation stage).

Continuing the discussion of the theme, teachers' beliefs and practices about their Arabic use, the main reason teachers gave for using some Arabic words and phrases was for pedagogical purposes, in order to check comprehension, elicit responses, and explain grammar.

Checking comprehension appeared to be one main reason for teachers inserting some L1 phrases:

Rana: What time going to or will?

Students: you going to

Rana: what time? **Yinfa'a keda agool?** (*Is it correct to say?*) You going to?

Student: You are going to

Rana: What time are you going to? I cannot say say what time you going to?

I need the verb are. Any question about this exercise? **Fi ay soa'al?**

(*Any question?*) It's pretty simple right? So when you talk about any plan... (Observation 1)

In the excerpt above, the teacher used Arabic for more than one function. Rana and her students were completing some exercises about the future tenses "will" and "be going to". Rana in the third line switched to Arabic "**Yinfa'a keda agool?**" (*Is it correct to say?*) to elicit a response from the students. One of the students responded in the L2. In the subsequent turn Rana emphasised that the "going to" comprehension "**Fi ay soa'al?**" (*Any questions?*). Here she switched to Arabic

without attempting to ask them in L2, suggesting this is a technique she uses to ensure all her students have comprehended rule. She might have done this because she was running out of time or dealing with low proficiency students, although they were level 4 students, who are considered intermediate level.

The excerpt below illustrates that eliciting students' responses appeared to be one of the most frequent situations causing teachers to switch to Arabic. In observation 1, Lama asked the students about the meaning of the new word "army" in the L1 "**Ya'ani eish**" (*What does it mean*). They uttered an unintelligible word in Arabic. She then explained that soldiers work in the army, before switching instantly to providing an Arabic translation of the word, the army **aljaish** (*army*), without attempting to help her students guess the meaning themselves. This suggests she might have been running out of time or dealing with low proficiency students. Teacher centeredness could be exemplified in Lama's frequent use of "teacher echo" (Li and Walsh, 2011). In the extract below, she repeats the word 'army' five times in English and its translation once in Arabic.

Lama: yeah but where does he work? In the Army. **Ya'ani eish** (*What does it mean*) army? Army

Students: (unclear answer in Arabic)

Lama: The soldier works in the Army. The army **aljaish** (*army*). OK?  
(Observation 1)

Explaining grammatical terminologies was a further occasion when the teachers used Arabic. As shown in the excerpt below, Tala initiated a switch to Arabic to provide the meaning of "plural" in Arabic. She then reiterated the meaning in English and Arabic again, apparently to enhance comprehension, and to ensure all the students comprehended the meaning of the word.

Tala: Number two she?

Students: has got

Tala: correct and the stories?

Students: have

Tala: Have?

Students: appeared

Tala: Have appeared because stories are **jum'a** (*plural*) it's plural stories.

Story has appeared. Stories have appeared because stories are **jum'a** (*plural*) plural right? (Observation 1)

Although the three teachers in the present study did not see much value in using Arabic, except that it eased the classroom communication, their actual practices confirmed that they used Arabic for multiple purposes, i.e. for clarifying grammatical points, checking comprehension, and eliciting student responses. It was found that the student responses in the excerpts above were short and negotiation of meaning was absent between the teachers and their students.

#### **6.2.1.4.1 The observations: classroom management functions**

The teachers not only use L1 for pedagogical functions but also for classroom management purposes. Although six teachers reported that Arabic should be used within limits, the observational data, however, revealed that teachers used Arabic for varied purposes, which was not reported in the pre-treatment interviews. Addressing individual students, highlighting important information, and switching between topics were the chief occasions when teacher's switched to Arabic.

Addressing students took place in Arabic. The teachers inserted the prefixes "**Ha ya**" to address the students. In the extract below, Karima switched to the L1 in the first line to assign a student to answer. Karima first asked about the meaning of the word "external" and the students provided the meaning of the vocabulary item in their L1. Karima then provided positive feedback "very good" indicating that she accepted the students' use of L1 in her class.

Karima: What about picture 4? What does it say? **Ha ya** (both prefixes are used to address a person) Maha? Can you read it please?

Student: medicine



Karima: Yes can you read it?

Student: For external use only

Karima: For external use only. External means?

Students: **Khariji khariji** (*external*)

Karima: Yes very good. (Observation 1)

Signalling switches between topics was another reason why teachers switched to the L1. Rana for example switched to the L1 “**keda khallasna min al-vocabulary**” (*We are done with the vocabulary*), to indicate a switch from one activity to another. After completing the vocabulary activities, she asked her students to move to the grammar part in the lesson as shown below:

Rana: Did we do unit 7?

Students: just the (unclear answer in English)

Rana: OK.... unit 7 is not included. OK so that's fine. OK **keda khallasna min al-vocabulary** (*We are done with the vocabulary*). Is there anything in the grammar, which you found difficult? (Observation 1)

The teacher switched to Arabic in the form of a discourse marker here to mark a “frame shift” (Lin, 1996; Raschka et al., 2009). Our research found that in general, topic switching was mainly done in the L1, but this did not necessarily denote shifting from an informal to a formal component of the session or vice versa. Arabic did not always reflect a departure from formal instructions and statements. Thus, CS in the present study was used to move attention from one topic to another during the lesson to “mark out a mere topical digression” (Lin, 1996).

It was found that teachers appeared to use the L1 to highlight important information. The following excerpt illustrated this practice, as Lama emphasised the difference between the voiced and voiceless sounds at the end of some L2 words. Her switch to the L1 was arguably executed to make the students pay attention; especially as some sounds, such as [v] and [p], do not exist in Arabic.

Lama: This is [haz], B [hav], C [had], D [haf], E [has]. **Fi farq bayn** (*there is a difference between*) [haz] and [has] OK? And then [hat] with [t] sound all right? I'm going to do it again. (The teacher plays the recording again) (Observation1)

#### 6.2.1.4.2 The observations: affective and interpersonal functions

The analysis revealed a contradiction between teachers' reported use of Arabic and their actual practices. The teachers involved in the interviews strongly expressed a preference for using Arabic to build rapport with their students. Nevertheless, classroom the observation revealed that they used less Arabic for this purpose than they implied, and that used it for other purposes as well. The classroom observations indicated that teachers used Arabic to also discuss Arabic culture and add humour.

The teacher's switch to Arabic, as illustrated in the excerpt below, was for cultural reasons. Tala switched to Arabic to question whether the students wanted to remove their black "abayas" in class. An abaya is loose clothing worn by women in Saudi Arabia to cover their bodies. It is a recognised sign of Saudi culture. Some people consider it as a protection for women against sexual harassment and improper male-attention. As the word is part of the culture, Tala did not attempt to provide an English equivalent for it.

Tala: Can I help you? Anything? You want something? Please don't talk. OK? **Abaya** and yours too. I like colours I told you and you all look beautiful, wearing very nice colours. You can wear **abayas** when you go out. (Observation 1)

Some of the Arabic word insertion used elsewhere was included to add humour and build rapport with the students. Sally made an effort to add humour to make her students laugh. This was apparently an effective way to highlight that the

classroom is a place in which both teacher and students can create less distanced and formal relationships to humanise the classroom, as illustrated in the excerpt below.

Sally: Arwa and Hanan

Student 1: Have you ever written a poem before?

Student 2: Yes, I wrote a poem when I was 16.

Sally: When I was 16 OK. What was it about? What was it about Hanan?

(Students are laughing)

Sally: The poem, what was it about?

(One student burst out laughing)

Sally (laughing): Dahlia **ma sha'Allah alyoam marra mabsuta**

(*Dahlia feels very cheerful today*) (observation 1)

The teachers in the current study were to some extent aware of their own practices. In the pre-treatment interviews, they reported using L1 to build rapport with the students and add humour, as was evidenced in the pre-treatment observations.

#### **6.2.1.4.3 The observations: idiosyncratic L1 use**

The fourth salient category that triggered teachers' switches to the L1 was idiosyncratic L1 use. Switches to Arabic were considered idiosyncratic switches when teachers mixed both L1 and L2 words for no apparent reason. It means inserting some Arabic discourse markers and linking words or phrases for purposes not related to learning, where teachers use it unconsciously or naturally when speaking. In De La Campa and Nassaji (2009), it was considered a subcategory that comes under the category: Instructor as bilingual. This subcategory is called: arbitrary code-mixing. De La Campa and Nassaji (2009, p. 748) provided a similar definition to the one mentioned above "L1 utterances containing instances of the instructor mixing L1 and L2 words randomly". It could be said that these switches were not as random as De La Campa and Nassaji described them. They instead could be described as more natural and subconscious switches that do not violate the syntactic rules of either language. This mixed speech could be regarded as ordinary

or “unmarked behaviour” (Ferguson, 2003, p. 233) by most ELI teachers.

It has been noticed that such Arabic use could not be attributed to the students’ low proficiency in English. In addition, unconscious Arabic use neither served the objectives of the lessons nor contributed to the learning process. Teachers uttered some very simple words or phrases that could have been easily said in English: “OK”, “you don’t have to”, and “I think that”. Their idiosyncratic use of Arabic contradicted their reported beliefs of using Arabic in a limited way, for example, to explain difficult concepts and grammatical points, or built rapport with students.

Examples are illustrated in the excerpts below. Lama inserted L1 phrases into her L2 utterances, such as “**ya’ani mathalan** (*so for example*) your mum **mumkin tigullik** (*may tell mum* **mumkin tigullik aktar shay** (*may use mostly*))”. These phrases were simple enough for the teacher to have uttered in the L2. The reasons for the teacher’s switches to L1 could not be justified, as there were no apparent purposes informing them.

Lama: Like for example you should take a break. It’s advised.

Student: You should eat healthy food.

Lama: Yes, Excellent. You should eat healthy food. Ok so **ya’ani mathalan** (*so for example*) your mum **mumkin tigullik** (*may tell you*) your mum **mumkin tigullik aktar shay** (*may use mostly*) should OK? Because it’s best for you. It’s good for you. (Observation 1)

Another example of unprincipled switches is given in the excerpt below. Lama inserted the Arabic discourse marker “**tayeb**” (*OK*), “**ya’ani**” (*meaning*) and the conjunction “**walla**” (*or*), which could be easily uttered in English. It seemed that the teacher was unaware of her frequent switches to Arabic. The switch seemed to be unconscious and natural, denoting a feature of bilingual talk.

(The teacher was explaining an activity to another group of students)

Lama: What day? What day do you go?

Student: Friday

Lama: Friday. **Tayeb** (OK) Do you have to do it, **walla** (or) you don't have to do it? **Walla** (or) is it something optional? **Ya'ani mu lazem** (meaning you don't have to)

Students: No. (Observation 1)

At times there appeared to be a lack of consistency between what teachers say they do and what they actually do in classrooms. This mismatch between beliefs and practices might also be evident in their responses in the pre-treatment interviews and questionnaire. The teachers might not believe in using L1 for pedagogical functions but despite this they then use it in practice, apparently contradicting their beliefs. This inconsistency could also be due to the teachers' lack of awareness, or the students' low proficiency in L2. Teachers in the current study only taught levels three and four. One would expect that teachers would use less L1 with more advanced learners, as they are assumed to be more competent in L2. Their answers might well have been based on general teaching experience, of having conducted lessons using some L1. Since the teachers were observed only twice, there was no way of knowing whether teachers' behaviour in the two observations was typical or not.

## **6.2.2 Theme two: Teachers' beliefs about the students' use of L1**

In the interviews, the seven teachers reported that the main reason for the students' L1 usage was the lack of sufficient vocabulary to express themselves in L2, their low proficiency level, the need to save face, affective factors, and the teachers themselves. In the open questionnaire, they acknowledged students' L1 use for similar purposes as mentioned in the interviews. The teachers' beliefs, as reported in the interviews were congruent with their responses in the open questionnaire, but contradicted their responses in the closed questionnaire, as a high percentage believed their students did not tend to use Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions. The teachers might have been providing the answers they

felt would be expected of them here, rather than those that corresponded to actual classroom reality.

In response to the open question in the questionnaire about the factors influencing students' use of Arabic in classrooms, five teachers believed the students chiefly use L1 because of their limited vocabulary and low proficiency in the L2. Maysa, for example, wrote: "low proficiency-limited vocabulary". She expressed the same opinion in the interview.

Maysa: Like last class, we were talking about phobias and some students were trying to tell me about the type of phobias that they had, but they couldn't find the right terminologies... even with higher levels students, we turn to Arabic. Sometimes because the students cannot express themselves in English. (Interview 1)

It seems that, as the students' repertoire of vocabulary was low, Arabic was an important resource, as it acted as a "backup" when the students failed to recall words (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005).

Saving face was another reason the teachers believed their students used Arabic. The students in the current study might feel less confident about expressing their personal views in front of their peers because they feared making errors regarding pronunciation or word choice. Karima reported in the pre-treatment interview that her students used L1 because:

Karima: they can express themselves better in Arabic. And sometimes they are afraid to make mistakes in front of their classmates. (Interview 1)

Students' English usage might be expected to increase their affective barriers; especially, according to their teachers, if they had a weak command of English. In the teachers' opinion, this highly affective barrier might hinder learning.

Another view expressed by the teachers was that they themselves might influence the students' use of L1. They believed the students' use of Arabic increased when they knew the teacher shared their linguistic background. This suggests the teachers felt they ought to use more English with the students, to encourage them to use more English during their lessons. They believed that the students feel that it is mandatory to use English when they know the teacher will not speak Arabic with them.

Ayisha: When, when, they have a teacher a native speaker, they know that she doesn't speak Arabic, ... so they are forced to communicate with her in her language even if they make some mistakes but still use her own... (Interview 1)

A further opinion regarding the influence of teachers' use of L1 was also expressed by Ayisha. She believed students use L1 in the classroom because their secondary schoolteachers had allowed it. She commented that schoolteachers do not routinely encourage students to practise L2. She wrote: "I think the way they were taught in secondary schools affects them a lot. They were used to using Arabic in English lessons..."

Concerning topics related to L1 culture, it is possible that students' L1 usage was judged natural, as L1 is the language that reflects culture and identity. Teachers in the current study might aspire to expand on the use of L2 from experience, while recognising the importance of allowing students to use L1 as a source of support, group solidarity, and security. The concept of L1 usage fosters the notion that the seven teachers and their students embraced the same religion and belonged to the same community.

The question raised here is: What are the factors that could have shaped teachers' beliefs and made them assign a negative value to L1 use in classroom? The fourth theme, which discusses factors that potentially influence teachers' beliefs and practices, is presented next.

### **6.2.3 Theme three: Factors potentially influencing teachers' beliefs**

Four major categories of factors appear to have influenced teachers' beliefs and practices concerning Arabic usage. These are personal experience, educational background, ELI policy, and teachers' associated sense of guilt. These factors influence teachers to different degrees.

#### **6.2.3.1 Personal experience**

From the pre-treatment interviews, it emerged that the teachers were making a strong connection between their beliefs and personal experiences. All seven teachers appeared to have made a conscious decision to use more L2 during the lessons. Ayisha was an older member of staff, she stressed in the pre-interview that she was against the use of L1 in classrooms. She personally believed that she should not use L1 in teaching. Attending seminars and reading about the topic appeared to have had an important influence on her beliefs during her 25 years spent teaching.

Their responses in the interviews corroborated their answers to open questions in the first phase. The teachers reported that their beliefs were also informed by reading about the L1 in journals and research papers. In the current study, Sally indicated that there had been a political agenda behind the advocacy of L2 only in the classroom, which she felt was reflected in teachers' practices. She also noted growing support for L1 use, due to evidence from research publicised in the articles made accessible to teachers.

Sally: Recently I read somewhere that the ban of the native language in English classroom emerged during the imperialist period. In that time when English was spread around the world because of the British colonialism...but nowadays people are like more tolerant of the use of native language in English classroom... more accepting of it. (Interview 1)



### **6.2.3.2 Teachers' previous education**

The interviews revealed teachers' education might have some impact on their beliefs. Karima, for instance, stated that as an undergraduate student, her instructors placed great emphasis on using L2 inside the classroom. In college, her supervisor was strict about the use of L2 when teaching EFL. Karima mentioned that her beliefs changed after she studied for her Masters. From her responses in the pre-interview, it was apparent that studying abroad raised her awareness that this practice was widespread, and that it could benefit students.

Karima: When I started teaching, I was I was taught that using Arabic is a very wrong thing in class, but when I went to the UK to do my Master's degree to Leeds, I learned that it's OK to use Arabic or the mother tongue from time to time in class, and that some people are against it and others are for it, so it's a matter of opinion. But some studies have suggested that it helps. (Interview 1)

In the current study, at this stage it was speculated that workshops would help the teachers reflect on their practices and previously stated beliefs. It is important to bear in mind that changing teachers' beliefs would be a challenging task, especially in a society governed by customs and traditions (see Assalahi's (2013) argument in Chapter 1, section 1.6.4).

Another factor that might have some implicit influence on teachers' beliefs was the ELI guidelines about English use in classroom.

### **6.2.3.3 The institute policy: teachers' awareness of the policy**

On the subject of the medium of instruction in its classrooms, the ELI published a faculty handbook emphasising that only English should be used by language teachers:

English language is the language of instruction, and instructors are not allowed to use Arabic in the classroom under any circumstances. Students are not allowed to speak Arabic in class" (ELI, 2013-2014, p. 41), and that "Students

should be provided with the maximum possible range of opportunities to use the language. (ELI, 2013-2014, p. 41).

The language policy in the ELI requires teachers to use English to deliver lessons. However, there has been a general lack of interest among teachers in reading or abiding by the published policy.

In the pre-interviews, the teachers articulated that even when students had a problem comprehending lessons, the institute officials insisted that Arabic should be avoided. It appeared that this strict policy created pressure, and tension among English teachers, who might also themselves have found it difficult to keep to English. Ayisha, the Egyptian teacher, however, appeared to agree with the published policy.

Ayisha: Sometimes they go to officials here to complain about some teachers “this teacher doesn’t use Arabic and we don’t understand”. But, the officials tell them English native speakers don’t speak Arabic. You are studying English and you should be taught in English. (Interview 1)

The five Saudi teachers, on the other hand, were not aware of the institute’s published policy. Lack of awareness could be attributed to their having no interest in reading the ELI policy documents. When Karima was asked about it, she demonstrated a lack of awareness or interest in the published policy. She stated that her daily interaction with other colleagues revealed that there was general resistance to using Arabic inside the classrooms.

Karima: Mmm no I just think it’s a general belief here among us at the ELI and I don’t know what the policy is honestly. No one ever told us that we are not allowed to speak Arabic in class, but I think it’s a general belief among teachers that we shouldn’t speak or use the first language... (Interview 1)

Lama, too, expressed her lack of awareness of the published institute policy and her uncertainty about the official medium of instruction at the institute. Her perception about the policy from colleagues was that Arabic should not be used, yet it seemed that she was not concerned about reading it.

I: What is the policy about using Arabic in the institute?

Lama: No Arabic

I: They tell you not use Arabic

Lama: I heard

I: You heard from the authority or from your colleagues?

Lama: erm I attended one of the conferences... When I attend conferences, they say no Arabic. I... I didn't read the policy. Maybe it's written. (Interview 1)

It appears that the teachers were not concerned what the language policy in the institute was. Sally, for instance, stated that the policy did not play a role in her decision to use the L1 in the classroom. She believed that the guidelines could be modified by teachers. According to her, it was more important to react according to the "situation". Sally appeared to be more confident than Ayisha about making decisions to meet students' needs. She emphasised the importance of modifying the institute guidelines.

Sally stated: I'm totally aware of it but I still have my options. I can weigh up the situation and then decide upon it. (Interview 1)

In response to the open question about the ELI policy concerning Arabic use, Ayisha, Maysa and Lama stated that they believe Arabic is forbidden in the classroom. Ayisha, for example, wrote: "using Arabic is forbidden in our institute. All instructions have been given in English". Her answer suggests she espoused the ELI policy by delivering English only instructions. Tala, on the other hand, believed the ELI did not allow Arabic in classrooms, but noted that she did not feel pressured

to follow the policy: “we are not allowed to use it. Yet we do”. Karima’s answer was consistent with her response in the interview, where she wrote: “I don’t know”.

A possible explanation for why institute policy was not strictly adhered to by many teachers might be owing to the nature of the classroom interaction. It seems possible that the teachers need to resort to Arabic to enhance comprehension, facilitate communication, and manage their students’ behaviour. In classrooms, the teachers found it difficult to maintain interaction without referring to Arabic themselves, or allowing their students to respond in Arabic. Another explanation for why institute policy was followed by some teachers but not others is indicated by Ayisha’s case. She obeyed the official guidelines of the institute, recognising them as more powerful agents determining her practice; possibly, because as an expatriate teacher she was on an annual contract, and felt less secure than her Saudi colleagues, who have high job security.

There was some discrepancy between the answers in the questionnaire and those in some of the pre-interviews. Karima, Tala and Ayisha’s responses in the interviews matched their answers to the questionnaire, while Maysa, and Lama’s responses to the interviews contradicted their answers on the questionnaire. Rana and Sally did not answer the questions.

The teachers’ negative views about their use of L1 could be attributed to the sense of guilt associated with this practice. This is the fourth potential factor influencing teachers’ beliefs, and is discussed next.

#### **6.2.3.4 Teachers’ associated sense of guilt**

Data from the interviews and questionnaire revealed a sense of guilt about the use of Arabic that was prevalent among the five teachers. The main source of guilt reported by the teachers seemed to stem from their background education. They had a feeling about how much L1 it was proper and acceptable to use, and believed that some Arabic insertions would help students. Simultaneously, they knew that the authorities expected them to use English exclusively in the classroom. Their guilt

possibly arose from the desire to remain in English at all costs, but it did not necessarily mean that they were motivated to change their practices:

Rana: Sometimes I do tend to feel a little guilty when I use a little Arabic, but at the end when I think about it. I feel it's necessary to use Arabic from time to time... (Interview 1)

Among the seven teachers, two teachers indicated that they did not feel guilty about using Arabic. For example, although Karima previously felt had guilty about using her L1, her sense of guilt seemed to have lessened after she obtained her Master's degree. Sally, by contrast, commented:

Guilty? No not at all ... It should be used and teachers should not feel guilty at all. Because you're teaching a language but you're not taking away pride in your native language... (Interview 1)

It was noticed that the teachers' responses in the interviews were consistent with their responses to statement nine on the questionnaire, "I feel guilty if I use Arabic in the classroom". Karima and Sally did not feel guilty about this practice and disagreed with the statement, whereas Rana, Maysa, Ayisha and Lama agreed that they did feel guilty about this practice. Tala was the only teacher who neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. This might be because she was the only non-Arabic speaking teacher in the study.

The teachers reported that they conveyed L2 information using different techniques alongside the L1. Teacher techniques, the fourth theme derived from the data, is discussed next.

#### **6.2.4 Theme four: Teachers' techniques to convey L2 message**

This theme emerged as significant when I thoroughly scrutinised the data. It was not an area I had anticipated delving into when I began the study. Nonetheless, in both interviews the seven teachers raised this issue. Retrospectively, I found that it

was not possible to ignore this theme despite the fact that exploring teachers' techniques was originally beyond the scope of this study.

Teaching techniques are used by teachers to help learners access information. They differ between teachers, as each individual teacher employs a preferred technique to convey their message. Not all techniques necessarily improve learning, but might instead allow learners to comprehend information. Exploring teachers' techniques is important, since teachers are responsible for helping to develop students' different skills, so that they become confident learners, use additional L2, and attain more successful outcomes.

The interview data revealed that Ayisha and Tala favoured non-linguistic techniques to convey English information rather than Arabic. Ayisha (from Egypt) and Tala (from India) mentioned using non-linguistic techniques, such as miming, hand gestures (such as pointing to certain objects) and body language. Both teachers reported using a broad range of communication techniques. In the interviews, Ayisha mentioned that she had encouraged her students to engage in simple conversational exchanges to encourage them to use the L2. She explained that she would draw a heart in the air to explain the emotion "passion", or would act out the action of "smashing" in a sentence such as "the boy smashed the vase". They admitted, however, that these non-linguistic techniques had limitations. They were only able to communicate concrete vocabulary and concepts using them. In addition, they used them chiefly with beginners to clarify simple vocabulary, as Tala explained:

Tala: Simple words like: hey you look ravishing. I know very well that they don't know what ravishing means. So what's the point of saying this? So I say, hey you look very beautiful...And then your facial expression just has to match with what you're saying. (Interview 1)

Among the four Saudi teachers, only one teacher mentioned the use of non-linguistic techniques as a method to communicate new information to students. The

other three Saudi teachers only mentioned linguistic techniques, including paraphrasing, providing examples, and using Arabic.

The Egyptian teacher, Ayisha, reported using gestures and body language to convey meaning, particularly when she was faced with a lack of response from students. However, she failed to make them comprehend, “but still I... I... I... they were only watching TV. There was no response” (Interview 1), and therefore she had to resort to Arabic to improve the students’ comprehension.

Similarly, Tala stressed the value of miming as a non-linguistic technique in the pre-treatment interview, observing that it was accompanied by some linguistic techniques, such as giving examples, to “elicit the target language from the students” (Interview 1). She allowed some students to translate difficult information for the other students who did not understand.

Similar to Ayisha and Tala, one Saudi teacher mentioned using non-linguistic techniques, such as gestures, to increase comprehension among students. Even though Rana seemed to like the use of technology, she was aware that it had some limitations, as not every piece of information can be conveyed through technology: “you cannot use technology as much as you want to convey every message you want to say” (Interview 1). It is worth noting that every classroom in the university is equipped with a computer and connected to an overhead projector to facilitate teaching. The teachers at the ELI usually explain lessons on PowerPoint slides.

Playing games and watching videos were other techniques teachers used to support learning and keep the students interested, as Ayisha stated, “I let them play games, show them videos and let them give their comments, this comes from experience” (Interview 1).

The teachers also mentioned using the technique of rephrasing into simpler terms. Macaro (2001, p. 112) argued that aside from paraphrasing, techniques like

miming, gesturing, CS and translation do not result in much direct improvement in either language competence or the quality of the L2. They help, however, to improve the conversational quality. Paraphrasing or simplifying ideas can reinforce aspects of the language already known to the learner (Macaro, 2001, p. 112). Butzkamm (1998, p. 96), on the other hand, claims that using “clumsy paraphrasing” in the L2 causes less effective communication to take place, and that searching for the “mot just” is frequently done in the L1. Karima, for example, was keen on rephrasing the L2 message.

Karima: sometimes I re-explain the thing, the matter they didn’t understand in English. Sometimes I... I use other words. (Interview1)

The teachers expressed a preference for remaining in the L2 as much as possible. They believed that providing examples in the L2 was a successful technique most of the time.

Lama: I explain to them in English. I try so hard to explain in English. I give so many examples. The majority of the time, I can convey information in English and they know what I’m talking about. When they explain it in Arabic of course I accept it. (Interview 1)

Using L1 was another technique prevalent among the three Saudi teachers; however, they believed that the L1 should be used as a “second option”, especially when giving instructions. This was especially the case when students had failed to comprehend the meaning in the L2:

Maysa: And it’s usually the second option. For example, when I give an instruction, I say it in English. If they don’t get it, then I move to Arabic. It’s like plan B. (Interview 1)

In the pre-treatment interviews, employment of non-linguistic techniques was reported by the two non-Saudi and one Saudi teacher, whereas the other four Saudi



teachers focussed on the use of linguistic techniques to convey the L2 message. These techniques included paraphrasing, playing videos, providing examples and using the L1. Nonetheless, significant variance was noted between the three teachers' reported beliefs and their actual classroom practices. Classroom observations revealed that Lama, Maysa and Rana tended to use L1 in the classroom. They often explained grammar, translated new vocabulary, clarified instructions, and managed students' behaviours in Arabic. They tended to use L1 consistently as a first option to translate words or phrases that could be easily understood, to emphasise and enhance understanding among students. The observations revealed that they lacked other techniques for conveying meaning, aside from L1.

### **6.3 Summary of the results**

While the teachers emphasised the importance of using English exclusively in the classroom to enhance students' linguistic input, students' low levels of proficiency required the teachers to also use Arabic. This suggests that their beliefs were not always consistent with their actual practices. In addition, their responses in the interviews were not always consistent with their answers in the questionnaire. It is possible that they were not aware of the tension between what they reported and what they practiced.

Data analysis revealed that the teachers appear to employ Arabic for at least four purposes: pedagogical, classroom management, affective and interpersonal and idiosyncratic L1 use. Although five teachers held negative beliefs about L1, they observed that L1 cannot be completely excluded from language classrooms, as research does not support the position of total exclusion of L1.

When comparing the extent to which teachers' reported beliefs matched their classroom behaviour, it was found that in the pre-interviews, the seven teachers reported that Arabic was necessary to explain grammar, L2 vocabulary, give instructions, and clarify concepts. Meanwhile, the observation data revealed that their beliefs were to some extent matched their practice. The main reason for teachers using Arabic appeared to be for checking comprehension, then eliciting

responses, and less so for explaining grammar. Concerning the questionnaire items, there was no trend apparent in teachers' responses before they attended the workshops. Most teachers appeared not to have an opinion about L1 use for teaching vocabulary or encouraging participation.

Concerning classroom management, teachers stated in the pre-interview stages that they used L1 to redirect students' attention during the lesson. During classroom observations, however, it was noticed that they used it for other management purposes. Addressing individual students, highlighting important information, and switching between topics were among the chief reasons that teachers switched to Arabic. The teachers' response to the questionnaire items illustrated that the five teachers appeared not to have an opinion about using Arabic for classroom management.

Arabic was also used less to fulfil interpersonal and affective functions, despite the fact that the teachers, in the pre-treatment interviews, appeared to favour using L1 for this purpose. During the observations, it was noticed that L1 was used to add humour and to discuss the L1 culture with students. Their responses to the questionnaire items illustrated that teachers were relatively positive or uncertain about the benefits of using L1 for affective and interpersonal purposes.

Switches to Arabic were considered idiosyncratic when the teachers mixed both L1 and L2 words for no apparent reason. This might overlap with the affective switching to emphasise the message that the learners belong to the same or a similar group.

From the interviews, it was evident that the teachers were making strong connections between their beliefs and personal experiences. The teachers' education might have had some impact on their beliefs. There was also a general lack of interest in reading or following the policy among the five teachers. This might have been because of the nature of the classroom interaction, as the teachers needed to resort to the L1 to enhance comprehension, facilitate communication, and manage students' behaviour. In the classroom, it emerged that teachers found it difficult to

maintain interactions without referring to the L1 themselves, or when allowing their students to respond in the L1.

The next chapter explains and evaluates the questions that arose and which were discussed in the four successive workshops that the teachers attended.

## **7 Results of the Treatment**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter analyses the research findings from the four workshop presentations. Although this was essentially a treatment, the discussions were significant; thus, it was decided to include extracts from them as data to bolster the post-treatment chapter. Some of the participants' responses contributed useful evidence that assisted in answering the research questions. The presentations for workshops A and B were carried out over a four-week period, starting from April 2013, and continuing until May 2013. The analysis focused on the teachers' beliefs concerning the functions of Arabic use in the classroom, discovering teachers' attitudes in other contexts, using L1 and L2 glosses in reading, and discerning the impact of vocabulary learning on teachers' beliefs.

The aim behind the presentations was to discover the potential impact of exposure to discussions on teachers' beliefs and practices about Arabic use at the ELI, when different research articles from different contexts were presented. Farrell and Lim (2005, p. 8) argue teacher beliefs are "the best indicators of the type of instructional decisions they made during their teaching". Furthermore, a thorough exploration of beliefs could give teachers in the current study opportunities to reflect on their practices, which might then affect their beliefs (Farrell & Lim, 2005). However, they were not being asked to reflect on their teaching with a view to improvement.

The participants' heavy teaching loads and family obligations, which are inherent to Saudi culture, meant that the teachers lacked time. Therefore, as mentioned previously, the articles were presented in the workshops to encourage the teachers to attend, as this meant they did not need to prepare anything. It is challenging to provide evidence of, or measure reflections, as observed by Hatton and Smith (1995). Here the data is taken from the transcripts, and researcher bias must also be considered. The workshops took place over a period of a month, which many researchers argue is an insufficient timeframe for 'true' reflection (Freeman, 1989; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Mattheoudakis, 2007).

From experience, I know that teacher education in KSA does not comprise much reflective practice in the curriculum, as it is something that has to be learned rather than being something one is borne with. It is also unrealistic to expect too much critical reflection, as the effects of reflective practice take time to emerge (Freeman, 1989; Hatton & Smith, 1995 Mattheodakis, 2007). The purpose of the workshops was for the teachers to discuss their beliefs. They were not asked to reflect critically on their teaching practices; so any evidence of critical reflection reported was highlighted by the researcher rather than the teachers themselves. It may have been difficult for the teachers to critique their teaching practices in a group discussion, where they may have wished to avoid apparent weaknesses or the perception that their practices are unprofessional. A reflective journal might have aided critical reflection, but because of teacher workload and family constraints mentioned and the aims of the workshops this was not employed. Moreover, Hatton and Smith (1995) have raised concerns that such a tool would not reliably provide evidence of reflection.

This chapter presents the participants' answers to the questions raised during the presentations. A brief summary is provided to highlight the teachers' espoused beliefs as outlined in the pre-workshop interviews, to anchor the comparison between their responses following the workshops and what they had reported previously. Comparisons of the teachers' responses from the before and after the presentations can help to detect whether there was a marked increase in the teachers' awareness concerning the issues presented in the workshops. Comparisons can also help to see whether teachers were willing to reassess their beliefs and accept new ideas and to what extent they were reflected in practice. It was not expected that there would be evidence of much reflection at first, but that this would be an incremental process and not necessarily end when the workshops and interviews concluded. The teachers' responses for both groups were reported together to avoid repetition. The workshops were based on readings and so presented contrasting views (See Appendix 23 for a sample transcript from the workshops).

## **7.2 Summary of the pre-interviews**

In order to highlight the main findings from the pre-workshop interviews, the salient points are illustrated in the form of a table below. For a fuller discussion please see Chapter 6.

Table 7:1 Summary of pre-interview findings

Teacher	Does the students' level affect L1 use?	Main beliefs about CS	Techniques employed to convey message	Is CS a sign of a teacher's inability to teach?	Does CS affect students' attitudes towards learning L2	Are students allowed to use Arabic?	Factors that influence students use of Arabic
<b>Tala</b>	All agreed that they tended to use more L1 with lower level students	L1 for building rapport	Paraphrase, provide translations	No	Makes students more engaged in the lesson	Students should be allowed to use some L1	Being laughed at by classmates because of wrong pronunciation
<b>Aishya</b>		CS hinders L2 learning	Gestures, mime, and body language, play games, show videos	No	Demotivates students	Not allowed (warns about taking marks off if L1 is used)	Previous education as schoolteachers used to allow CS
<b>Karima</b>		L1 used in moderation to increase comprehension	Use bilingual dictionary, Ask one student to explain to the rest, provide equivalents (as a last resort)	No	Makes students more motivated and more engaged in the lesson	Students should be allowed to use some L1	Sharing the same L1 with students Teachers' backgrounds (NS or non-NS of English)
<b>Sally</b>		L1 used in moderation to increase comprehension	Simplify L2 message, provides translations (as a last resort)	No	Makes students feel more secure about their cultural and religious identities	Students should be encouraged to use more L2	Weak command of L2
<b>Rana</b>		L1 to discipline students and ease tension	Gestures, then provide translations (last resort)	No	Helps students to stay on track and be cooperative	Students should be allowed to use some L1	Group work, and activity type
<b>Maysa</b>		L1 to explain grammar	Provide examples, Provide translations (as a last resort)	No	Does not affect students' attitudes	Students should be allowed to use some L1	Weak command of L2
<b>Lama</b>		L1 to explain grammar	Paraphrase, provide translations (last resort)	No	Makes students more engaged in the lesson	Students should be allowed to use some L1	Lack of vocabulary repertoire

As evidenced in the table above there was a consensus among the teachers that they tended to use more CS with lower level students. There were some differences of opinion regarding their beliefs about what it might be used for, and these included pedagogical purposes, classroom management, and affective and interpersonal functions. For Aishya, L1 was judged an obstacle to learning the L2. Again when discussed as a teaching technique, the responses varied though using CS, to using it as a last resort once other methods had failed. It is worth noting that Aishya's responses suggested she never employs CS in the classroom. All the teachers opposed the proposition that using CS was a sign of poor teaching skills. Regarding the effect of using CS in the classroom on student motivation, the majority felt it helped engage them in the lesson; notably Tala who was not an Arabic native speaker differed in her view. Aishya was the only one who felt that L1 had a negative effect on students, while Maysa felt it had no impact. Aishya was the only teacher who opposed her students using CS. Although Sally believed students should be encouraged to use more of the L2. Finally, when asked about the main reasons for their students using CS in the classroom, four related it to not being able to function fully in the L2, whether because of a lack of vocabulary or poor pronunciation and a fear of being laughed at by their peers. However, Aishya ascribed it to prior educational experience in which CS was allowed. Karima reported that it was because of their shared language (teachers and students), and Rana believed that it depended on the type of activity being undertaken. This summary provides a basis for evaluating the impact of the workshops on teachers' beliefs.

### **7.3 The first workshop: functions of CS**

In the first workshop, two articles about the functions of CS were presented (as discussed in the methodology section 4.11.2). The first article was by Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005), and described the relationship between pedagogical purpose and the choice of language to fulfil it. The second article was by Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009). It looked at the supposed functions of CS in the language classroom, considering to what degree they were a cause of disagreement (see Appendix 4 for PowerPoint slides). Some potential uses of L1 were presented, as

documented in two empirical studies. In order to avoid confusion, the teachers were given a simple definition of the term CS in relation to language teaching. They were informed that the issue of whether language teachers should use the L1 in teaching the L2 has always been controversial.

Before presenting the first article, the teachers were asked two preliminary questions about the functions of Arabic and English in their classrooms:

1. What do you feel about using Arabic when Teaching English?
2. What do you feel about teaching in English as much as possible?

### **7.3.1 Question 1: What do you feel about using Arabic when Teaching English?**

The teachers replied that the chief reason for their use of Arabic was their students' level of proficiency. This matched the responses from the first pre-workshop interview, where they were unanimous in their response that they used L1 more with lower level students. All the teachers reported that the amount of Arabic they use differs according to the level of their students. They emphasised that Arabic is necessary with lower levels, but that they should refrain from using it with more advanced students. Despite this, Ayisha was against this practice, as, according to her, it might increase the students' use of Arabic in classroom arguing:

Ayisha: I don't think it's good practice to use Arabic in teaching English as I told you before it makes students depend on Arabic mostly most of the time and they become reluctant to use the target language. (Workshop 1, Pre-discussion Group A)

Her colleagues on the other hand believed in controlled use of Arabic, particularly in the initial stages when teaching beginners. Apart from Aishya, again, the teachers reported that L1 use is essential to facilitate communication. For example, Sally and Lama both reported using it, implying it is necessary; thereby, mirroring their responses in the pre-workshop interviews, where they said they used



translation as a last resort. Rana believed in the limited use of Arabic to ensure comprehension among her students.

Sally: you would find yourself using Arabic whether you like or not to avoid breakdown in communication.

Lama: I have to maintain communication with my students. As I told you before it depends on the class I use it sometimes with weaker students.

Rana: as a concept check, to check their understanding, and whether they are following you, but not for the whole lesson. (Workshop 1, Pre-discussion Group A)

Tala agreed that Arabic should be used to build rapport with students in order to humanise the classroom atmosphere, echoing her response in the pre-workshop interview, where she said she used it to build rapport. As Tala was an Indian teacher, she had learned some Arabic vocabulary, in order to make them more interested in learning and “to make myself interesting to them because I’m using words in Arabic” (Workshop 1, Pre-discussion Group B).

### **7.3.2 Question 2: What do you feel about teaching in English as often as possible?**

They all agreed that maximising the use of English helped students learn the language. Ayisha for instance stated that the aim was to make students practice English by showing them correct English structures and making them repeat accurate utterances. This was in line with what she had said in the pre-workshop interviews in with regard to the use of and effect of CS in the classroom. Rana and Lama on the other hand, believed that Arabic could sometimes be used as a technique to convey meaning to students.

Ayisha: it’s better even if you find the students unable to say a sentence in English that you can help them put the words in the correct structure and show you show them how to say it in English and make them repeat it this way will help them learn.

Rana: well Arabic could be used as a strategy sometimes.

Lama: ...sometimes exactly. (Workshop 1, Pre-discussion Group A)

Tala stressed the importance of using simple English vocabulary with her students and avoiding complicated language, “I try to speak very simple language and speak slowly as well” (Workshop 1, Group B). However, she still reported using Arabic as a way to build rapport with her students: “once I feel that I have a bond with them I try to use English, but I don’t give up on using Arabic I can assure you of that” (Workshop 1, Group B).

After both articles on teachers’ CS (see Appendix 4) had been presented, the teachers were asked to consider the following questions:

1. Do you think that you use Arabic for the same functions as those mentioned in the articles?
2. Are there other functions for using Arabic in the L2 classroom, besides the ones mentioned in the articles?
3. Do you think that Arabic should be used to carry out L2 lessons?
4. Do you agree with Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009) that CS was not a consequence of insufficient English language competence on the part of the teachers?

### **7.3.3 Question 1: Do you think that you use Arabic for the same functions mentioned in the articles?**

The teachers were asked if they used Arabic for the same functions as those mentioned in the articles: curriculum access (pedagogical functions), classroom management, and interpersonal relations (affective and interpersonal functions). Six of the teachers strongly agreed with Üstüneland and Seedhouse (2005), that CS could be helpful for teaching grammar to increase comprehension, especially benefitting weak students. Karima reported that Arabic could be used to explain some grammatical rules in English that have corresponding rules in Arabic with weaker students, and her colleagues Lama and Rana agreed that L1 is inevitable in the classroom.

Karima: sometimes there're similarities for instance in grammar if you're explaining a grammatical rule and sometimes... not always... there are some rules similar to Arabic so I think if you use the Arabic word or remind them of the Arabic rule, that we have this in Arabic you can explain it to them then they can use it.

Lama: ...yeah exactly the best way especially with weak students we have to use some Arabic

Rana: I do use some Arabic for teaching grammar (Workshop 1, Group A)

Sally on the other hand was still completely against the use of Arabic for teaching grammar, despite the potential benefits of this presented in Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) article. She supported her view by highlighting the discrepancy between English and Arabic. Arabic and English do not belong to the same language family, and they share no common properties. There are grammatical rules in English that have no corresponding forms in Arabic, and thus according to her, it would not be possible to provide an Arabic equivalent for the English grammatical rules, as Sally explained: "I wouldn't recommend using Arabic in teaching grammar... we're talking about very distinct languages very distinct structures" (Workshop 1, Group A).

Rana disagreed with Sally, reporting that Arabic was necessary because there were some situations during the lessons when Rana sensed the use of Arabic was critical to explain complex grammatical rules. She gave an example of the past perfect as one of the difficult rules to grasp. Rana emphasised the need to provide an Arabic explanation to help students understand it:

Rana: I agree there are not equivalent or equal but it does help, it does help the students, especially if you introduce the rule for the first time, they have no idea of what this tense means like past perfect or whatever they don't know what this is, and if you just give them a similar example in Arabic or the closest example you can find, it does seem helpful. (Workshop1, Group A)

The Indian teacher, Tala expressed a preference for using Arabic for both affective and pedagogical purposes. She claimed to use her “limited knowledge” in Arabic to decrease the gap between herself and her students and to translate difficult vocabulary items: “... with my limited knowledge of Arabic I use it to build rapport and I use it with vocabulary” (Workshop 1, Group B).

#### **7.3.4 Question 2: Are there other functions for using Arabic in the L2 classroom, beside the ones mentioned in the articles?**

None of the teachers came up with anything different from the ideas presented in the articles. Three teachers believed that Arabic was beneficial for teaching vocabulary. Rana and Lama believed that they used it as a technique to translate difficult words. These teachers reported that they mainly use Arabic for pedagogical functions, in order to convey meaning and maintain smooth communication with students. Although in the pre-interviews, Rana had said she believed she used L1 mostly used for classroom management and affective and interpersonal functions (see Table 7.1).

Rana: ...Even with vocabulary, some words are very unfamiliar to students and I do try to translate sometimes at the end after using body language gestures and all these.

Ayisha: ...sometimes when teaching vocabulary if they don't know the exact meaning.

Lama: ...sometimes I translate it to them. (Workshop1, Group A)

Tala on the other hand, said she used it for off-task activities, again to build rapport with her students. Tala explained: “sometimes when I have conversations with students during the break” (Workshop1, Group B).

**7.3.5 Question 3: In Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005) study, one teacher code switched to Turkish to ensure that her students understood her instructions. Do you agree with the teacher's use of L1? Why/why not?**

Teachers in the current study had similar attitudes towards the use of Arabic for instructions however using a limited amount of Arabic and not giving instructions in Arabic to the whole class. Tala and Ayisha considered that a limited use of Arabic was important when giving instructions. The other five agreed with using it for one-to-one interaction rather than giving instructions to the whole class. Sally for example favoured the use of English for instructions. However, she would only provide individual instructions for those students who failed to comprehend, this echoed her response in the pre-workshop interview where she saw translation as a technique once other methods had been exhausted:

Sally: I personally I don't start with Arabic. For example, I assign tasks in English. Once they start working on the task and I notice that one of the students is not following, I will approach her speak to her in Arabic to ensure she understands" (Workshop 1, Group A).

Lama agreed with Sally's opinion that Arabic instructions should not be provided to the whole class. Karima also agreed with Lama and Sally with regard to providing one-to-one Arabic instructions. Lama reported that she usually explained the instructions in Arabic for one group of students, and that this group was expected to clarify the instructions for their classmates. Karima also mentioned using this technique in the pre-interviews (see Table 7.1).

Lama: you know what I do? When I assign a task if it's a group task I explain it to one group and let the group who understood the instructions to explain to the other groups.

Karima: sometimes if they don't understand my instructions, I let the student who understands the instruction to explain it to them (Workshop 1, Group A).

Tala on the other hand reported that she avoided using Arabic for instructions. She reported providing simple English instructions to avoid confusing her students: “I use very simple English and very limited words because the more I speak the more they get confused. If your instructions are too wordy then the students will not get them” (Workshop 1, Group B).

#### **7.3.6 Question 4: Do you agree with Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009) that code switching was not a consequence of insufficient English language competence on the part of the teachers?**

The teachers strongly agreed with the ideas about CS presented in the article, and felt that Arabic was not a sign of teachers’ incompetence or inability to conduct the entire lesson in English. They all agreed on this in the pre-workshop interviews. However, they still emphasised the need to use Arabic as a last resort despite the article, and this opinion was also evidenced in their pre-interview responses. The teachers appeared to be reassured to know that use of Arabic was a common practice among other language teachers and students.

Lama: it’s a relief to know that this practice is not wrong

Ayisha: ...yes when you feel that in other countries they have the same practice...

Lama: ...yeah the same..

Karima: ...just as Mrs. Ayisha said, we feel more relaxed knowing that it’s not just us...

Ayisha: Yes.

Rana: ...and it’s not just our students. Knowing that our students are not the problem! (Workshop1, Group A)

#### **7.3.7 Comparisons of teachers’ beliefs before and after the first workshop**

It was found that the teachers’ responses in the pre-treatment interviews matched their answers to the open questions in the questionnaire and the opinions they shared in the workshop. The data analysis revealed that in the opinion of the teachers, the reason for their use of Arabic was the students’ low level of proficiency,

but that they believed Arabic should be minimised in the classroom. Ayisha consistently expressed her lack of acceptance of the use of Arabic in the classroom; this was reported in both her interviews and the first workshop. Tala's response that Arabic should be used to build rapport with students in the interviews matched her responses in the workshop. Teachers' beliefs about the use of Arabic for grammar and vocabulary teaching matched their responses in the pre-treatment interviews. The pre-treatment classroom observations also revealed that the participants used Arabic to explain grammar.

Regarding the use of Arabic for vocabulary teaching, before attending the workshops, five teachers' responses to the questionnaire showed they did not have an opinion regarding the benefits of Arabic for teaching vocabulary, but that after attending the first workshop, Lama, Rana and Karima acknowledged Arabic could be helpful for vocabulary teaching. This indicated a shift away from belief in using CS as last resort. However, it is worth noting that in the second workshop they all claimed to support the maximal position, which, suggests there is no pedagogical value to CS.

Concerning teachers' associated sense of guilt, data analyses from the pre-treatment interviews and questionnaire revealed a sense of guilt about Arabic use was prevalent among five teachers, but that after the workshop, they reported that the presentation had alleviated this sense of guilt. All the teachers believed throughout all phases that Arabic was not a sign of teachers' linguistic incompetence in English. It is interesting to note that although the teachers expressed relief that the other teachers mentioned in the studies used CS in their classes, they continued to view it as a tool to be used once all other strategies had been exhausted. In response to the second article's premise that using CS was not attributable to the lack of ability of the teachers to conduct lessons in English but was a deliberate teaching strategy, the teachers simply agreed but without elaboration.

During the workshop discussions, they did say that the articles reminded them of how they used CS in the classroom, but there was not a lot of reflection

apparent in their responses; however, this is not necessarily surprising at this point in a workshop type intervention. They tended to describe what they did in the classroom, rather than to evaluate it. Their teacher education style may have influenced these attitudes, as the emphasis in KSA on teacher education and institute policy is L2 only; therefore, it may be too big a leap to begin considering CS as a potential tool rather than a last resort.

#### **7.4 The second workshop discussion: teachers' attitudes towards using L1 in EFL classrooms**

The theme of the second workshop was teachers' attitudes towards using the L1 in the EFL classroom (as discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.11.2). The first article was by Macaro (2001) and presented a case study of a group of trainee French teachers and their CS, looking at the amount of CS they used and two of the teachers' reflections on their practices. The second article was by Al-Nofaie (2010) and discussed the thoughts of teachers and students towards the use of CS in the classroom, (see Appendix 5, for PowerPoint slides). Before presenting the articles, the following questions were discussed:

1. Do you think that using Arabic can be an obstacle to teaching English? Why or why not?
2. What do you think the policy regarding the use of Arabic should be?
3. How do your students react to your use of Arabic in the classroom?
4. How do your students react to your use of English in the classroom?

##### **7.4.1 Question 1: Do you think that using Arabic could be an obstacle to teaching English? Why or why not?**

All seven teachers believed Arabic was not an obstacle if used in a principled manner. They all agreed that overuse of Arabic could hinder learning English. They acknowledged that Arabic was unavoidable in foreign language teaching, but that it should be kept to a minimum in order not to impede learning.

Karima: I think it can be an obstacle if you use it excessively, but if you use it in moderation... if you use it excessively because it's an English class, so most



of the speaking should be done in English so if you use overuse Arabic then it's not and English class anymore.

Sally: I agree

Sarah: You agree that it can be an obstacle if you overuse it?

Sally and Lama: Yeah. (Workshop 2, Group A)

Tala considered Arabic as a "*cushion*" (her own word) to sustain communication in the classroom, noting that it acted as a back up to "maintain connectivity". The use of Arabic to avoid a breakdown in the communication was also a topic introduced in the first workshop. Tala, Rana and Lama mentioned using Arabic to maintain communication, noting again that they saw it as a strategy to use once all others had been exhausted.

Tala: I don't know I don't think so but it depends on how you're using it, you should not use it basically don't give it so much of importance... while you're using it that people just find that you're actually using it as a kind of cushion to back up on. It's just as I said to carry on to maintain connectivity as long as that is concerned is OK. (Workshop 2, Group B)

#### **7.4.2 Question 2: What do you think the policy regarding the use of Arabic should be?**

All the teachers believed that Arabic should be limited. Tala felt that Arabic was inevitable and therefore could not be prohibited. However, although Tala believed that a limited quantity of Arabic was acceptable mainly as an affective tool to "reassure students", Lama was convinced that the percentage of L1 should be identified. Rana on the other hand believed CS should be applied to some skills, but she had not specified what "skills" she meant; moreover, there was not enough time to probe her about this. In the pre-workshop interviews she mentioned students who used CS during group work, but noted that this could be on task CS or off task chatting in Arabic when the teacher is engaged with another group.

Rana: Very limited just with some skills not all the skills you... During class time you should be speaking in English.

Lama: There should a percentage regarding the use of L1.

Sally: Of course they should make sure that teachers conduct classes in English. They make it clear that it's OK to use limited Arabic or a minimum amount of Arabic in 101 classes (*beginners*), otherwise in the higher classes, it shouldn't be encouraged. (Workshop 2, Group A)

The teachers were mostly concerned with their students' levels, and believed that it was necessary to conduct the initial stages with them. This suggested that students' levels of proficiency and comprehension were the chief factors teachers considered in relation to their use of Arabic inside the classroom. This was in line with their responses in the previous workshop.

#### **7.4.3 Question 3: How do your students react to your use of Arabic in the classroom?**

Rana, Maysa, Karima, and Lama agreed that the students were "happy" when some Arabic is used, particularly those with lower proficiency in English because Arabic aided comprehension. In addition, Karima claimed her use of Arabic for affective reasons increased confidence among the students. Lama and Rana however reported that more advanced students preferred teachers to maximise English use in the classroom:

Rana: ...depends on the students if they really need it, then they're happy about... I mean they want you to use Arabic. If they're advanced and they are pretty much fluent, they want you to use more English they are excited about using English they're ready to use it.

Maysa: I think the same.

Karima: They feel more confident more comfortable when you're using Arabic than English (...) I think they feel more confident more with the weaker students and as I said before the higher levels prefer English.

Lama: Some students prefer that the teacher speak a bit Arabic a little bit of L1 because they understand it well, but I think they're a bit more motivated to utter more English. (Workshop 2, Group A)

The Indian teacher, Tala, on the other hand reported that her students “enjoyed” her use of Arabic. They found it amusing that their teacher was speaking incorrect Arabic, it would make them laugh and enliven the classroom atmosphere: “my students they enjoy it (...) because of my pronunciation, my inaccuracies” (Workshop 2, Group B). Tala had spoken about her use of Arabic for affective functions in both the pre-workshop interviews and during the first workshop.

#### **7.4.4 Question 4: How do your students react to your use of English in the classroom?**

The fourth question was similar to the third one. The teachers were asked about their students' reaction to their use of English in classroom. Karima and Lama reported that their students typically showed “blank” faces whenever the teacher used English. Lama added that she could judge a lack of comprehension from the weak students, who frequently sat at the back of the class. Lama stressed the importance of using some Arabic for affective reason to motivate her students. Rana, however, believed in clarifying her lessons by telling some stories in English. She stated that telling stories made her students happier and encouraged them to become more engaged in the lesson. They also understood the stories:

Karima: Sometimes their faces are blank.

Lama: You can tell from their expressions, especially the weaker students and they usually sit at the back... I try to motivate them, the students who sit at the back, sometimes I say one word in Arabic to refresh them.

Rana: Like sometimes when you tell a story and you see them happy.

Sarah: Do they usually get the stories when you tell them in English?

Rana: Yeah they do. (Workshop 2, Group A).

Tala on the other hand explained that her students enjoyed her use of Arabic because of her lack of proficiency in the students' L1. She reported attempting to engage them in the class by becoming a model student for them. She makes mistakes in Arabic and then encourages the students to correct her language. It appears that her aim in this is to make them understand that it is acceptable to make mistakes, because it is one way to learn an L2.

Tala: ...they actually enjoy me using words like **khalas** (done or finish)... I want them to know that... see I'm learning it. I'm learning another language, so you can learn another language as well. (Workshop 2, Group B)

After presenting the two articles regarding the teachers' attitudes towards switching to Arabic (see Appendix 5), a further four questions were discussed with the teachers:

1. Both studies were carried out at school level: do you think that university instructors may have different attitudes from schoolteachers? Why/why not?
2. In Macaro's study, three positions were mentioned. Which position do you follow and why?
3. In your opinion, do you think teachers' beliefs are worth exploring? Why?
4. Which factor is more influential on teachers' attitudes: training programmes, teachers' experiences, or policy? Why?

#### **7.4.5 Question 1: both studies were carried out at school level: do you think that university instructors may have different attitudes from schoolteachers? Why/why not?**

The teachers did not always directly answer this question, and many just gave opinions about their beliefs regarding the use of CS at language institutions in general. Maysa, for example, stressed that Arabic should be used to maintain communication with students and to prepare them for exams. In her opinion, students were not trained to comprehend English without the assistance of Arabic, and they were not encouraged to think or produce English output. In addition, Sally, Lama

and Rana reported other external factors could have a major impact on students' lack of proficiency in English, such as institutional policies, teaching methodologies, type of curricula and the schooling system, which is based on rote memorisation, and where teachers may have a low proficiency in L2.

Sally: I'm sure there are excellent teachers in schools, but I'm aware that there are some who conduct the whole class in Arabic... I'm aware that in those classes Arabic is used excessively... but again it's not fair to blame only the teachers it could be the method, the curriculum. It could be the system it could be so many things... could be the school's policy could be so many things.

Lama: The public school system for teaching English. The teachers I don't [think] they are really efficient in their language. I think that the teachers use a lot of Arabic in schools.

Rana: Also the means of learning they rely on memorisation. (Workshop 2, Group A).

Karima added that the type of school the students attended might later influence their proficiency in English. Students who have graduated from public schools usually have a relatively lower command of English because they were introduced to it in seventh grade, and then only studied it for four to six hours per week. These students have never been exposed to sufficient English input in classroom to become fluent. On the other hand, students who have graduated from private schools have a better command of English, as they were taught under bilingual or immersion conditions.

Karima: and also I think the age is a factor too. In public schools they start learning English in the intermediate level (7<sup>th</sup> grade) so I think you'll find that students who go to private schools have better command of English. (Workshop 2, Group A)

Lama disagreed with Karima regarding the issue of age. She opined that learners' ages should not affect their mastery of the language. She commented

exposing learners to enough comprehensible English input would ensure mastery of the language:

Lama: I disagree with this because sometimes you can start to learn a language at any age and you can master the language in 2 or 3 years if you really focus if the curriculum is really good and also it's about the amount of time you spend to learn the language. (Workshop 2, Group A)

In response to this question, Tala reported that university students differ from school students; observing that as they advance they become increasingly mature and more appreciative of the opportunity to learn English. Her answer implicitly suggested that university instructors might have different attitudes because they are teaching older students. Tala strongly believed that university students were more “rigid” and not as easily conditioned as younger school students were. Therefore, schoolteachers would benefit from cooperating with university instructors:

Tala: Actually, we're dealing with adults. Students are older. Their ideas and beliefs become more rigid. Younger students can easily be conditioned...

Sarah: You mean more flexible than university students?

Tala: Ye...I believe students in schools can easily be conditioned I believe we have to work hand in hand - it's linked - once you teach in the university you're not cut off from what you've learned in the school level. (Workshop 2, Group B)

Tala however did not explicitly answer the first question. Although it concerned teachers' attitudes; her reply related to students' attitudes toward learning English. Due to time constraints, however, I moved on to the second question.

#### **7.4.6 Question 2: In Macaro's study, three positions were mentioned. Which position do you follow and why?**

The second question related to Macaro's (2001) model of beliefs. In Macaro's study, three positions were identified, and so the teachers were asked about

which of these they preferred to abide by: exclusive use of L2, L1 as a last resort, or using both L1 and L2 to enhance learning. They all concurred with the maximal position; i.e. that there is no pedagogical value to CS, despite having discussed the benefits of using it for pedagogical functions in the previous workshop and discussing its benefits from the perspective of affective factors. Thus, they contradicted themselves. They all further agreed that the students' level was an important factor determining when to use Arabic. Lama for example reported that she used both languages to motivate the students and persuade the weaker students to become involved in the lessons, which implies a preference for the optimal position. Maysa on the other hand strongly believed in using Arabic only as a last resort, even with her weakest students.

Sally: I said from the very beginning I said it depends on the level of the students.

Lama: My technique was to use Arabic sometimes to use more than last module and I found that the students actually were motivated and the weaker students became engaged in the class and they improved... it depends on the level of the students the teacher should adjust according to the level of her students to help them keep up with her.

Maysa: I think that Arabic is a last resort... yeah even if I have weak students I have to start with English first. (Workshop 2, Group B)

Despite the input from the two workshops discussing the advantages of some CS in the classroom, the teachers still appeared to view it as a last resort, to be employed only when all other strategies had failed. This lack of assimilation of the new ideas could be attributed to time factors (Donaghue, 2003), as the workshop sessions were in the early stages. Rana and Karima appeared to agree with Maysa that Arabic should only be used as the last option for affective functions in order to motivate students, increase participation among them, and reduce classroom tension. In addition, Karima emphasised that the amount of Arabic in her classroom varied according to the level of the students.

Despite these findings, the teachers in Workshop 2, Group A, were cognisant of the fact that excluding Arabic could make their students feel “lost”, “intimidated” about participating and even “unmotivated” to learn English, this once again in contradiction of their Maximal position. It is worth noting that although they discussed the ways they used CS in the classroom, they did not seem to engage with the idea of using it for certain activities; i.e. engaging in principled use of CS.

Rana: I use Arabic as a last resort. Sometimes I use it to motivate my students because I want them to feel more comfortable and start to interact in class, so I use it for two reasons to motivate my students and to make them comfortable.

Karima: I think that the amount of Arabic I use depends on the level of students (...) so I use it sometimes to motivate them to make them feel more comfortable in class and I feel sometimes if you speak to them in English continuously tend to get aaa...

Rana: Lost...

Karima: Lost and intimidated sometimes...

Lama: And unmotivated. (Workshop 2, Group A)

Conversely, Tala repeatedly stated that she used the students' L1 as a tool to elevate the classroom atmosphere and develop closer relationships with students: “to build rapport for them to accept me as one of them as simple as that” (Workshop 2, Group B).

#### **7.4.7 Question 3: In your opinion, do you think teachers' beliefs are worth exploring? Why?**

There was a consensus among the teachers regarding the importance of exploring teachers' beliefs. Rana strongly believed that teachers could be instrumental in helping to improve the quality of the curricula. Maysa stressed that a great deal can be learned from other teachers' experiences. In her opinion, the way to understand teachers' CS was by exploring their beliefs. Sally believed that learning from other teachers' experiences is an important professional development process. Sally added that teachers' beliefs, as well as their practices should be explored for



two reasons: exploring beliefs would help with revising theories and developing teaching practices.

Rana: Yeah it's worth it to improve the curricula to find solutions to improve the curricula.

Maysa: Yeah I think so - you can learn a lot from teachers.

Karima: I think so as well.

Maysa: When the teachers use L1 there is a justification behind it that is worth exploring.

Sally: Well I think especially in our field, like when there are discussions about teachers and teachers' practices on one side and theory makers on the other side, it should be open because like... It's a way to reform and revise the theories and from the views of the teachers, they can enhance teaching practices. (Workshop 2, Group A)

Tala highlighted the importance of observing teachers' classrooms to inform researchers of the teachers' beliefs and practices. Observations, according to her, are crucial for obtaining any answers the researcher might have in mind.

Tala: ...you must understand people that's the reason why attitudes are very important attitudes towards students attitudes towards teaching students... attitudes towards L1 or L2. I think you can only know it once you observe it... You can't just ask them to get an answer. You have to watch them to know ... the learning outcome can also be affected. (Workshop 2, Group B)

Although the two teachers' beliefs had been presented in Macaro's article, only one teacher, Lama (from Workshop 2, Group A) referred to the teachers in the study. She agreed with the views of the first teacher, who had supported the idea of maximal use of L2 in theory, but felt it was impossible to put it into practice. In Workshop 2, group B, Tala commented that the articles had made her think about what she was doing in class. The remaining teachers instead gave their own opinions about the importance of exploring teacher beliefs and drew on their own teaching

and learning experience as examples. This does not imply they were not reflecting because they did not refer back to the input, as the presentations may have prompted them revisit their experiences from a different perspective, or stimulated them to think about their own practices or beliefs. Furthermore, as discussed previously (Chapter 3, section 3.9.4), teachers are often only aware of their own beliefs when they are given an opportunity to discuss them (Fetters et al., 2003).

#### **7.4.8 Question 4: Which factor has more influence on teachers' attitudes: training programmes, past experiences or policy? Why?**

When teachers were asked about which factor had greatest influence on their beliefs, four reported that training programmes were the most influential of the options offered.

Sally: For me it would be the training programme.

Lama: The training programme.

Karima: I agree.

Rana: You should listen to others' opinions and their strategies. (Workshop 2, Group A)

Rana stressed that training programmes were the most influential factor, as training can apprise them of "other people's ideas and advice". Rana added that training programmes acquaint teachers with different "strategies" for language teaching. Sally, Lama, and Karima agreed with Rana about the importance of the influence of training programmes on beliefs. Lama emphasised that training was a way to "broaden" her knowledge of teaching English. In addition to the reasons provided by the teachers, it might be possible that their positive attitudes toward training programmes might have arisen from satisfactory experiences, or the more widely established benefits of such programmes. There was a consensus that these programmes provide opportunities to improve their knowledge and to enrich their experiences as teachers.

Ayisha, Maysa and Sally believed that their own experience could be more influential than other variables. However, Sally added that experience was not sufficient to confirm her beliefs about CS in the classroom. In addition, she expressed her opinion that beliefs based on personal experience are not enough to decide whether to follow institute policy. Sally appeared to agree with other teachers regarding the value of training, highlighting the need for training programmes to raise awareness about CS in classrooms and to inform teachers about appropriate ways to teach English.

Sally: so if you only rely on your experience then you wouldn't be sure if what you're doing is right or wrong...In the training programmes they'll tell you that people differ in their opinions so it opens the way for you. (Workshop 2, Group A)

Karima emphasised that teachers' beliefs about Arabic use arise from their previous education. Despite the fact that as an undergraduate student, her supervisors had placed great emphasis on using English inside classrooms, it was apparent that studying abroad had raised her awareness that this practice was widespread and could be beneficial to her students.

Karima: I graduated from the college of education and I was told that English is forbidden at all times and even when I went for training in public schools, the supervisor used to deduct marks if we spoke in Arabic; so after I went and got my Master's I found out that there are other opinions. (Workshop 2, Group A)

Rana and Tala reported that all of the factors mentioned had an impact on teachers' beliefs, suggesting it was hard for them to isolate one factor from another.

#### **7.4.9 Question 5: Have your beliefs been influenced by the articles? Why or why not?**

There were only a few responses given to this question. Lama reported that her belief was “partially” influenced by the articles. From the beginning, Lama had reported using CS, although she said she felt guilty about it. Lama added that one of the teachers in the study had felt forced to use the students’ L1, an admittance that might have made her feel less guilty about her own L1 use. Rana on the other hand assumed that other foreign language teachers’ views were similar to their own:

Lama: like for example the first teacher she had to use the students’ first language, although she was against, it definitely it depends on the level of students.

Rana: People are similar there are many approaches to teaching English... the perceptions [are] very close to what we are going through. (Workshop 2, Group A)

As this was the final question, I was not surprised about the relatively limited discussion; the teachers were constrained by prayer times and their teaching timetables. It was also only the second workshop, and so the teachers might have had insufficient time to reflect and alter beliefs that had occurred over time. Although, this was a question that I had hoped would provoke more insightful discussion, it was evident from the fact that the teachers were occasionally checking their watches, that they were becoming conscious of their other commitments by this point.

#### **7.4.10 Comparisons of teachers’ beliefs before and after the second workshop**

The data analyses revealed that teachers’ responses in the pre-treatment questionnaire matched the responses they gave in the second workshop, that external factors can have major impact on students’ lack of proficiency in English; i.e. the teaching methods and the schooling system based on rote memorisation.

It was found that teachers’ responses in the pre-treatment interviews matched their responses overall in the second workshop, specifically regarding the need to

keep Arabic use to a minimum in order not to hinder learning. Only Karima believed Arabic to be useful, especially when working to increase confidence among students.

Regarding the factors that might have influenced their beliefs in the pre-treatment interviews, the teachers made strong connections between their beliefs and their personal experiences and background education. The opinions of some changed from what they had shared in the pre-interviews, possibly because the workshops became more prominent within the discussion. However, they considered teachers' beliefs were worth exploring to help improve the quality of the curricula, and to learn from other teachers' experiences and to uncover evidence to justify CS in the classroom. Sally believed that exploring beliefs would be beneficial when revising theories and developing teaching practices, this is one of the initial stages of reflection (Hatton & Smith, 1995).

### **7.5 The third workshop: L1 versus L2 glosses**

In the third workshop, two articles were presented examining L1 versus L2 glosses. The first article was by Jacobs, Dufon, and Hong (1994), and studied the impact of glossing on recall and lexis, and learner preferences. The second was by Yoshii (2006), and looked at the efficacy of L1 and L2 glosses on vocabulary acquisition in a multimedia environment (See Appendix 6, for PowerPoint slides). Before presenting the two articles, the teachers discussed two questions. First, they were asked whether learners should be given the opportunity to access Arabic glosses or English glosses. Second, they were asked whether Arabic or English glosses might help increase learners' comprehension. This was the first workshop in which all the teachers seemed to engage in the subject matter and exhibit strong opinions. This could have been because it involved discussing something practical they had been used in their classes, ELI policy permitting, and because they had already been at two workshops, they were more comfortable reflecting and discussing with their peers.

### **7.5.1 Question 1: Do you think learners should have access to L1 glosses or L2 glosses? Why or why not?**

There was a consensus among teachers that learners should be exposed to English glosses. Karima and Ayisha emphasised the need to combine English glosses with pictures to clarify meaning especially for lower level students (levels 1 and 2), Sally, in contrast, reported that Arabic glosses were more effective when abstract concepts or complicated vocabulary had to be taught. Sally's answer showed an awareness that Arabic conveys meaning more effectively when teaching some words. This indicates a change in her beliefs, as in the previous workshop she had advocated the maximal position for L2, while here she was acknowledging there could be some pedagogical benefits to using Arabic in the classroom:

Karima: I think they should be in English. And the pictures will help with lower levels.

Ayisha: In English and it'll be even better if the glosses are supported with some pictures because we'll convey the meaning easily.

Maysa: I agree.

Sally: I say in English but like complicated words and concepts, or when referring to ideologies or cultural issues it should be fine to use Arabic.  
(Workshop 3, Group A)

Tala and Rana agreed that simplified glosses should be provided in English, as highlighted below. Tala added that Arabic definitions could be provided orally by the teacher to provide context. Rana strongly expressed the view that English definitions should be provided by the teachers to "expand" the students' vocabulary repertoires:

Tala: They should be in English.

Rana: English yeah.

Tala: Simplified form of English maybe... they can be given the context to explain the meaning further, with students I feel when it come to the textbook it should be in English. L1 can be used by teachers.

Rana: With vocabulary, if you give the definition in English then they'll be learning more words

Tala: exactly. (Workshop 3, Group B)

Overall, the teachers favoured using English glosses; the use of Arabic was once more seen as a last resort rather than a teaching strategy. Sally was the only teacher who appeared to be shifting her beliefs from the maximal position that she supported in the second workshop. It is unclear whether this was because of the articles presented, or because she was becoming aware of what she believed now she had been given a forum in which to articulate it (Fetters et al., 2003).

### **7.5.2 Question 2: Do you think that L1 or L2 glosses may help to increase learners' comprehension?**

As stated above, the teachers expressed a preference for English glosses to Arabic glosses. All the teachers agreed the glosses should be in English. Karima added that Arabic explanations could be provided orally by the teachers if the learners experienced some difficulties comprehending the English glosses, again echoing the idea of resorting to L1 only once other approaches had failed:

Ayisha: Glosses do increase comprehension, but not the L1 glosses they should be in L2.

Karima: I think that since it's an English class, so having L1 glosses defies the purpose... but then if the students have some questions then the teachers can explain it in L1, that'll be fine. So the glosses themselves should be in English.

Teachers: Yes (Workshop 3, Group A).

Similar sentiments were expressed by group B. Tala believed that glosses were a better option than consulting dictionaries, as the latter would interrupt the reading process: "because while reading a passage you don't want any interruption. It slows the pace of reading when they interrupt it by using dictionaries". Rana pointed out that glosses could be used as a time saving strategy.

Tala: L2 for sure.

Rana: L2.

Tala: Yes because while reading a passage you don't want any interruption. It slows the pace of reading when they interrupt it by using dictionaries.

Rana: It saves time. (Workshop 3, Group B)

It is worth noting that although the teachers preferred L2 glosses, they were also in favour of explaining vocabulary in L1 if the students did not understand. This could be attributable to the ELI policy of L2 use only, as there would be no record of Arabic use if oral, as only the L2 glosses would be printed.

### **7.5.3 Discussing the conclusions of the first article in workshop 3**

The teachers were asked about their opinions of the researchers' conclusions in the first study: "These findings should encourage L2 educators who use glossing to seek to maximise the percentage of L2 glosses" (Jacobs et al., 1994, p. 27).

The teachers varied in their responses. Ayisha and Karima agreed with Jacobs et al. (1994) that L2 glosses should be used. Ayisha, however, indicated that L1 glosses should be only used with beginner students, and should be minimised as they progress. Karima indicated her preference for simplified L2 glosses rather than 'resorting' to L1. Maysa agreed with Karima that L2 glosses should be simplified, and that students should not be encouraged to rely on L1 to comprehend difficult words. In contrast, Sally disagreed with the researchers, stating that their conclusion was not supported by the study they conducted, although she conceded the conclusions might be verified by other research. Sally was the only teacher who did not agree with the researchers, as she articulated that the significance of L2 glosses could only be traced over a longer time frame. She had also expressed agreement with the idea of using L1 glosses prior to the presentation:

Ayisha: I think they are correct, because if you give the students the meaning in their native language they will not learn... you should just use L2.

Karima: You could use simplified L2... a better option than using L1.



Maysa: ... I agree with Karima that it should be simplified.

Sally: Actually their conclusion is not supported by the study, but I would say even if that study didn't show the immediate significance I'm sure that it will emerge sometime later in their encounters with other texts. (Workshop 3, Group A)

Whatever their opinions, it was evident from the discussion that the teachers were reflecting on their own practices and articulating their personal beliefs regarding this usage. Listening to their peers seemed to reinforce their beliefs, whether that person agreed or disagreed with them.

The researchers also concluded that: "although the attitudes of students towards glossing are extremely positive, that may not be reason enough to maintain their use" (Jacobs et al., 1994, p. 27). Sally was the only teacher who agreed with this particular conclusion. She reported that glosses could "interrupt the process of reading" (Workshop 3, Group A). Sally strongly believed that students did not need to understand every word in a reading passage, as "Knowing the meaning of the word might not make them use other reading strategies to connect ideas and to think..." (Sally, Workshop 3, Group A), and therefore, they should be encouraged to use other strategies in order to guess the meaning, rather than complete reliance on glosses.

Her colleagues however disagreed with her. Ayisha stressed the importance of using glosses to facilitate comprehension, particularly when they were provided on the margins of the same page.

Ayisha: I disagree with you, while reading it's useful to know the meaning immediately on the spot and this will help students learn the word... it will be distracting to use the dictionary...

Lama: I agree with Ayisha.

Karima: I think that glosses are important, especially as our textbooks are combined, they teach reading, speaking, vocabulary so you have many skills in one lesson and we do have some exercises...

Maysa: I think if adding glosses is positive then why not... If glosses are helpful then why not? (Workshop 3, Group A)

In Ayisha's opinion, glosses would not interrupt the reading process, however, she considers dictionaries a source of interruption. Lama and Karima agreed with Ayisha on the importance of using glosses for reading. In addition, Maysa believed that glosses in general were useful to help students understand the meaning of new words, particularly as Karima stated that they saved time. The teachers considered the use of glosses another classroom teaching aid.

Rana and Tala also appeared to disagree with the researchers about the insignificance of glosses. They reported that the students should be provided with glosses and that the type of glosses selected should vary according to the students' levels of proficiency. However, they expressed a preference for L2 glosses over L1 glosses. Although they did not refer to this, it is worth noting that they both used CS when teaching more difficult vocabulary items, and were willing to establish whether glosses would replace this practice if made readily available.

Rana: I think it's subjective to the students and their need.

Tala: I feel that we should have glosses.

Rana: L2 yes.

Tala: Yeah. (Workshop 3, Group B)

#### **7.5.4 Discussing the conclusion of the second article in workshop 3**

After a general discussion of the second article, the conclusion was presented. The author of the second article concluded, "We did see some evidence for the strength of L1 in the interaction effects" and "L1 textual cues could be as effective as text-plus picture cues" (Yoshii, 2006, p. 96). Thus, Yoshii believed that there was some evidence that L1 glosses did assist the first treatment group, who recalled items

better in the recognition test. The learners in Yoshii's (2006) study were exposed to four types of glosses: L1 text-only glosses, L2 text-only glosses, L1 text plus pictorial cues glosses, and L2 text plus pictorial cues. Therefore, the teachers were asked whether they agreed with the researcher.

The teachers disagreed with Yoshii (2006) about the benefit of L1 glosses for all levels of students. They again stressed the importance of using L2 glosses. However, Rana opined that the type of gloss used should vary according to the students' levels of proficiency. She believed that beginner students should be provided with two type of glosses, as mentioned in Yoshii's (2006) study: L1 text-only glosses and L2 text plus pictorial cues. Rana added that as the students progress, the L1 glosses should be excluded; this aligns with opinions she has previously given regarding using more CS for lower level students.

Tala: I prefer L2.

Rana: I think depending on the level you can do both.

Rana: In the text for beginners only. Give both the L2 definition and image and L1 definition.

Tala: Makes sense yeah.

Rana: But as they progress you stop that. (Workshop 3, Group B)

After discussing the results of the second article, the teachers were asked to debate two further questions. They were asked whether L1 or L2 glosses were more beneficial for their students. The second question concerned selecting appropriate glosses according to the students' level of proficiency.

#### **7.5.5 Question 1: In your opinion, are L1 or L2 glosses more beneficial for your students?**

Karima appeared to be influenced by the researchers' findings that L2 glosses could stimulate learners by helping them to guess the meaning of difficult or new vocabulary items. Lama added that L2 glosses should be accompanied with pictures to improve students' comprehension. Ayisha agreed with Lama's view about the

importance of using pictures as a visual representation of words in the reading passages, as pictures could enhance the comprehension that words alone could not convey.

Karima: The researchers found out that students are going to do more thinking if the glosses are provided in L2, so just for that reason I think I would rather have them in L2. Because it's going to encourage them to think a little bit more than if they were in L1.

Lama: I think having that having pictures is more interesting, especially if the glosses are in L2.

Ayisha: Yeah L2 plus picture. (Workshop 3, Group A)

Maysa expressed a different view, indicating that both types of glosses could be beneficial for students, although she stressed a preference for simple L2 glosses. She pointed out that textbooks usually provide definitions that are too difficult, and so do not help students comprehend the meaning of words.

Maysa: I think both of them are beneficial, especially simplified L2 glosses, because some books give definitions that are more complicated than the word itself, so in this case they're not helpful. They shouldn't be complicated but simplified. (Workshop 3, Group A)

Similarly, Tala stressed the importance of using L2 and not L1 glosses. When asked to explain abstract words and concepts, Tala claimed that she preferred to use miming and acting to clarify meaning.

#### **7.5.6 Question 2: Do you think the students' level may affect choice of gloss' type?**

The learners in Yoshii's (2006) study were exposed to one of four types of glosses: L1 text-only glosses, L2 text-only glosses, L1 text plus pictorial cues in the glosses, or L2 text plus pictorial cues. Thus, the teachers were asked about whether the students' level might affect their choice of gloss.

Ayisha reported that selection of the type of gloss should vary according to the students' levels of proficiency. According to her, beginners should be provided with L2 glosses accompanied by pictures; whereas, more advanced students should be provided with "synonyms or antonyms", as they "already have a background in the language" (Ayisha, Workshop 3, Group A). This matched her previous beliefs about avoiding CS in the classroom, as she did not appear to be changing her beliefs, despite some of the articles presented during the workshops suggesting ways in which CS could be used as a tool in the classroom. Karima and Lama agreed with Sally that pictures would not be necessary in glosses for more advanced students.

Sally: I think pictures are better for beginners, but will be difficult to apply with advanced students as the learning passages are going to be advanced including difficult concepts and abstract ideas... it will be difficult to include pictures.

Karima: I agree.

Lama: I agree, definitely. (Workshop 3, Group A)

Rana expressed a preference for the fourth type, i.e. L2 gloss accompanied by pictures, to enhance comprehension of meaning. She believed that various techniques could be used when teaching, since people "learn through different styles" (Rana, Workshop 3, Group B).

Some of the teachers espoused the belief there was no pedagogical benefit to using L1, and had advocated the maximal position in the second workshop. Yet, when asked to discuss the glosses they seemed happy about the idea of using L1 glosses for students at lower levels, and in fact, some felt it would sometimes be necessary. This could either highlight the differences in what they said they believed and what they actually did or might do in the classroom, mirroring what Farrell and Lim (2005) suggested; which is that practices might not always follow what teachers say they believe. Or it could be that the teachers had been reflecting on the potential

value of using L1 as a teaching strategy due to the workshop input. It is not possible to ascribe the opinions expressed fully to either cause with the available evidence.

#### **7.5.7 Comparisons of teachers' beliefs before and after the third workshop**

After the first workshop, the teachers stressed the importance of maximising English in classroom, and at the start of the third workshop, there was consensus among the seven teachers that learners should be exposed to L2 glosses.

After the third presentation in the third workshop, the majority of the teachers reported that students should be provided with glosses and that the type of glosses selected should vary according their level of proficiency. Sally and Tala appeared to agree there was some efficacy to using L1 glosses, expressing a strong belief that L1 glosses would be more effective when teaching abstract concepts or difficult vocabulary. This view is in contrast to the maximal position they had established previously, and the first sign that some of their beliefs might be changing.

#### **7.6 The fourth workshop: impact of L1 on vocabulary learning**

The fourth workshop discussed the impact of L1 on vocabulary learning. The first article was by Tian and Macaro (2012), and elaborated on the impact of CS on vocabulary learning, and the second one, by Tabatabaei and Hossainzadeh Hejazi (2011), concerned keyword method instruction when promoting vocabulary acquisition (See Appendix 7 for PowerPoint slides).

Before presenting the articles, two questions were raised with the teachers for discussion. They were first asked whether the lowest proficiency students benefited the most from lexical information in Arabic or in English. Then, they were asked whether they think their students retrieve the meaning of English words using Arabic or in English.

### **7.6.1 Question 1: Do you think that the lowest proficiency students benefit most from explanations in Arabic or in English?**

While Lama and Maysa reported using Arabic with lower level students, Sally reported she only used Arabic as a second choice if her students failed to comprehend the message in English. In the pre-workshop interviews, she said she uses CS in moderation to aid comprehension, which does not necessarily conflict with her later statement; however, moderation can be understood variously. Again, it should be noted that in the second workshop all the teachers had advocated the maximal position. Despite the differences between some of the participants' beliefs and practices (apart from Aishya) noted through the other research methods, in the pre-workshop interviews and throughout the workshops they all implied they used CS routinely to fulfil certain functions when other strategies had failed. However, the first observation revealed that for Maysa, Rana and Lama it was a first option.

When they were asked whether they used Arabic with their more advanced students, the teachers claimed they did not. Maysa reported with firm conviction that she refrained from using Arabic with them: "no not even a letter". Her colleague Lama reported that it is more beneficial for the advanced students to use L2 only, to maximise their exposure to English.

Lama: it depends. With the low levels they need some Arabic.

Sally: Well again as I said before I'll try English first and if they didn't understand it then I switch to Arabic.

Maysa: I agree I would use it. (Workshop 4, Group A)

Rana and Tala emphasised that Arabic was necessary with lower levels, which contradicts the maximal position they had claimed to support. Ayisha on the other hand believed that Arabic should be restricted and that non-linguistic techniques be employed to communicate information to students. Ayisha expressed a strong belief that she would not use Arabic herself, but stated that she allowed her students to translate for their classmates. Her colleagues Rana and Tala claimed again that they used Arabic as a last resort.

Rana: For lower proficiency students it better to be in Arabic

Sarah: With the lowest proficiency?

Tala: The lowest proficiency yeah in Arabic

Tala: I try my best but if doesn't, then definitely, I'll switch to Arabic.

Ayisha: Yes I use acting, miming

Ayisha: To convey the meaning; but if we failed to do that then we can elicit a translation from those students who have a good background in English, so they can translate for their classmates.

Rana: I'll definitely try first to explain in English, but as a last solution, I would translate into Arabic. (Workshop 4, Group B)

The idea prevailed that Arabic use should only be seen as a last resort, and used with lower proficiency students. It is not clear, however, why the teachers believed that Arabic use has no pedagogical benefits in the sense of aiding L2 acquisition, when nearly all were willing to use it, even if only when all other methods had failed. The evidence suggests that Lama, Rana and Karima connected some value to using CS to teach vocabulary.

#### **7.6.2 Question 2: Do you think that your students retrieve the meaning of L2 words in Arabic or English?**

This question was related to the conclusion of the first article. When the teachers were asked whether their students retrieved the meaning of English words in Arabic or in English, they instantly replied that students tended to retrieve the meaning in Arabic, irrespective of their level. Sally mentioned that "most of the time" her students answered in English, but some of them responded in Arabic.

Lama: Arabic.

Sally: Arabic.

Maysa: Yeah, sometimes I can hear them.

Sally: Even the advanced students.

I: Even the advanced students tend to remember and say the words in Arabic.



Lama: All the time

Sally: Most of the time, although I find them trying to explain in English but some students use Arabic. (Workshop 4, Group B)

Ayisha commented that her students try to find an Arabic equivalent for every new English word they encounter. Rana expressed a similar view, while Karima mentioned the negative impact of Arabic on English writing, as it results in negative transference. She observed that her students have a tendency to use Arabic writing rules when forming English sentences. It seems surprising, therefore, to acknowledge this as a problem, as when I observed Karima, Rana, and Lama during both observations they seemed to ask students for Arabic equivalents systematically.

Ayisha: Yes, they depend on their L1. When they are exposed to a new word in English they try to find an equivalent in Arabic.

Rana: Pretty much through all levels you find that they depend on their mother language.

Karima: Definitely in Arabic... for example you can see that the sentence formation is in Arabic.

Tala: They try to retrieve words in Arabic. They always do. The moment I say rule they say **qawaneen** (rules). (Workshop 4, Group B)

The discussion reflected the findings reported in the first article by Tian and Macaro (2012), which notes that the students recall first in their L1.

### **7.6.3 Discussing the first article's conclusion in the fourth workshop**

After presenting the first article, subsequently, the intervention itself was described in detail. After this, the teachers discussed their opinions of the researchers' conclusions: "codeswitching has some benefits for vocabulary learning that becomes significant therefore when it is considered in relation to time taken up" (Tian & Macaro, 2012, p. 382). The conclusion suggested that Chinese was quicker for communicating and explaining meaning than using the L2. In addition, the

researchers concluded that: “our findings suggest some benefit for teacher codeswitching over remaining in the L2 ...” (Tian & Macaro, 2012, p.383).

The teachers’ varied in their perceptions of the quotations, but they did seem to engage with some of the issues raised. Lama agreed with the researchers that comprehensive explanations benefitted the students, whether they were delivered in L1 or L2. The teachers discussed the possibility of separating L1 and L2 in the learners’ minds. Sally mentioned that the learners described in the study tended to retrieve meaning in their L1 regardless of the language of instruction. Sally considered that it was impossible to separate the two languages in the learners’ minds, especially when they are the “early stages of language acquisition”. Lama however expressed a different opinion to Sally. She believed that with extensive exposure to L2, learners could reach a stage where they might be able to distinguish between and separate both languages, although as mentioned previously, in practice she was asking her students to translate the L2 into L1.

Maysa agreed with Sally that the languages were not separated in the learners’ minds, even in the case of advanced students. This was substantiated by Maysa’s reference to her experience as a student, showing that she was reflecting on her own beliefs and practices. She narrated her experience as a college student, when she used to translate all lectures, memorise, and retrieve them in Arabic. She commented that the Arabic facilitated not only her writing in the lectures but also saved her extra time when memorising the lectures. She did however believe that proficiency in English was the key to passing exams.

After presenting the two articles, two questions were discussed. The teachers were first asked whether it was practical to use the Keyword method<sup>10</sup> technique

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<sup>10</sup> This is a two-stage mnemonic procedure for learning a foreign vocabulary item. The learner must first acquire an association between the new foreign word and familiar English word that sounds like the foreign word or is a salient part of it. The learner then relates the keyword and the English equivalent, forming an interactive image between the two words. The keyword is the acoustically similar English word (Crutcher, 1990, p. 2; Pressley, Levin, & Delaney, 1982, p. 61).

with the students. The second question concerned using both languages when teaching. The teachers were asked whether mixing Arabic and English during classroom interaction had a negative or positive effect on their students.

#### **7.6.4 Question 1: Do you think that the “keyword method” can be beneficial to your students?**

Here the teachers differed in their opinions and there seemed to be little consensus. Lama and Maysa were not enthusiastic about using the Keyword method with their students, as they considered it “time consuming”. Maysa believed that exposure to English through reading and practice would have a more significant effect on vocabulary learning than the keyword method. In addition, Lama added that it was impractical to apply this method to all English words. Sally on the other hand expressed a different view. She considered it a tool to facilitate the process of learning new English lexical items. She expressed a belief that this method could improve processing information in the learners’ minds, and thereby enhance their recall. This is a shift away from the maximal position, with which she had aligned herself in the second workshop.

Lama: ...takes a lot of time.

Lama: You can hardly find such words.

Sally: Long way to explain.

Maysa: It’s exhausting for the teacher and it’s exhausting for the learners, because at the end of the process they won’t learn how to put these words in sentences or how to use them.

Sally: The keyword here is processing, ‘information processing’. The longer the deeper, the better students’ recall in the long term. Creating a connection in this study, the connections were created through sound, so the teacher could create a similar connection through other means (Workshop 4, Group A).

Before the fourth workshop, Ayisha had resisted the idea of using Arabic, but after attending the fourth session about the keyword method, she appeared eager to try it with her students, despite her agreement with the maximal position in the

second workshop; this indicates that she was reflecting on her own practices. Rana pointed out a pitfall of this method was that it could not be used with all English words. In addition, Karima believed that employing pictures was a more useful and more practical technique than the keyword method. Karima added that moderate use of Arabic could be employed to convey meaning effectively to students. A similar view was given by Tala, who mentioned that this method would help the students retain information, triggering the in depth processing of information by linking words in Arabic with words in English, according to the sound.

Ayisha: I think it will be beneficial. Linking the word to a word in the L1 according to the sound and if this words happens to have the same meaning as the target word it will help them learn the word in L2 and construct sentences.

Tala: Yeah once they learn to associate then the information is retained.

Rana: But you can't use it with every single word.

Karima: I think that using imagery, like the use of some pictures, is more useful than this key method. (Workshop 4, Group B)

#### **7.6.5 Question 2: Do you think that mixing Arabic and English during classroom interaction has a negative or a positive effect on your students?**

Sally and Maysa shared similar views, agreeing that it is neither negative nor harmful to use some Arabic in the classroom. Attending the workshop helped reinforce Sally's belief that limited Arabic was acceptable "OK", especially, as Maysa emphasised, with weak students.

Lama regarded using Arabic as unacceptable, even during the first class, despite everything she had said previously regarding CS. She strongly believed in using pictures to convey meaning where necessary. The workshop appeared to have raised her awareness that some information can be effectively illustrated through the use pictures. Lama expressed reluctance to use Arabic herself. She reported that she would show students a translation on her mobile phone rather than providing the meaning verbally. During her classroom observation, it became apparent that she

does use Arabic to translate new vocabulary (see Chapter 8 sections 8.6 and 8.7). Lama might have felt pressured to deny using L1, due to a deep-rooted sense of guilt that made her call for maximal use of English in the classroom.

Sally: It's OK to use Arabic, and studies that you have been reviewing in this sessions and the previous sessions confirmed my belief that there is no big harm in using Arabic or the mother language in classrooms.

Maysa: I don't think it's negative to use Arabic especially for those students who are weak.

Lama: The first time I don't think that you should use Arabic... the best way is to use pictures and if I don't have them I show them the translation of the word on my phone. I show it to them. (Workshop 4, Group A)

Time was a major concern for all the teachers. They reported that classroom timekeeping was crucial to them and the keyword method could jeopardise this. Rana mentioned the pacing guide as a key constraint facing the teachers. In their opinion, they had to keep up with the pacing guide, and therefore, Arabic was more useful for saving time.

Maysa reported the workshops were illuminating with regard to L1 use, and that she now felt more "tolerant" of Arabic. She added that exposure to similar information when studying for her Master's degree was not enough to make her change her belief. This suggested that the discussions were a more powerful agent of change than education alone.

## **7.7 Comparisons of teachers' beliefs after the fourth workshop**

Teachers' responses in the fourth workshop matched their responses in the previous ones about using Arabic with lower level students. All seven teachers denied using Arabic with more advanced students, and the pre-treatment classroom observations revealed Rana, Tala, and Lama use Arabic for pedagogical functions. This indicated that their responses in the workshop did not always match their practices.

It was interesting to note that after the third and fourth workshops, the teachers were engaging more directly with the ideas presented in the articles, and discussing new issues, such as the possibility of separating Arabic and English in the learners' minds, in depth language processing, the efficacy of glosses and pictures, and of the keyword method.

## **7.8 Summary of all the treatments**

The workshops encouraged critical thinking among the participants, prompting them to think about the advantages and disadvantages of using the students' L1 in the language classroom (see Chapter 9 section 9.2). The workshops appeared to help ease tension among Karima, Lama, Rana, and Ayisha. Rana for instance expressed her relief that the use of Arabic was not bound to their context or unique to their students. In addition, the presentations drew their attention to the fact that other teachers in different contexts encountered the same difficulties arising from limitations on students' language proficiency. This was the main constraint causing the teachers in the current study to use Arabic, even when they felt guilty for doing so. The workshops also drew their attention to other techniques that could be used to convey meaning to their students. In the third and fourth workshops they started to engage with these ideas, rather than merely describing what they did in the classroom. Their opinions were similar, and there was a consensus among them with regard to maximising the students' exposure to English. It is possible that this was an immediate reaction to the information presented in the workshops, and that the teachers might need more time to reflect on their beliefs and practices. In addition, discussing new ideas does not necessarily indicate a need to implement them in practices. The study was also limited to a four-month period, although the teachers were only observed once after the workshop concluded. Therefore, there was no possibility of verifying whether the teachers implemented the new ideas to which they had been exposed or not.

The teachers in the current study believed that teachers' beliefs in general should be explored, because they inform classroom practices, and how students are

educated. They emphasised that the workshops might lead to them using less Arabic in the classroom. As a result of this, the ELI might witness improvements. Their responses suggested two things. Firstly, that five teachers were strong proponents of the maximal position (Macaro, 2001), perceiving no pedagogical value in using Arabic in the classroom. Second, teachers were apparently suggesting Arabic use was a common practice among the ELI teachers even though policy prohibited it.

There are some salient points worth highlighting here. Throughout the workshop discussions there appeared to be some contradictions, notably in what Lama and Maysa said they believed with regard to CS use in the classroom. They had initially said they supported the maximal position, yet implied they used CS systematically for a variety of functions. Tala consistently mentioned using it to build rapport, which is unsurprising considering she was on a rolling yearly contract. Were she to receive too much negative feedback from students, her contract might not be renewed. As mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, the teachers were not asked to reflect on their teaching practices; however, it was evident that both Sally and Rana had started to think about their teaching and question it. Even Aishya, who continually supported the maximal position, both as a belief and in practice, had, by the final workshop started to think about whether options such as the keyword method might be of pedagogical value; she said she was interested in trying it.

In the following chapter, the results and discussions that arose from the post-treatment interviews, observations and questionnaire are interpreted and discussed. The amount of teachers' Arabic use before and after the treatment is also outlined. This is followed by a section on the nature of interaction at the English language classrooms.

## **8 Results: Post-treatment**

### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings from the post-treatment interviews, observations and questionnaire. The aim was to understand whether teachers' beliefs changed, by describing the extent to which attending the workshops influenced their beliefs and practices.

The analyses that took place in the pre- and post-classroom observations were qualitative and quantitative. The quantitative analysis compared the frequencies of Arabic use by the seven teachers before and after their attendance the workshops. The qualitative analysis aimed to examine the purposes of teachers' CS.

This chapter begins by discussing the four themes identified earlier, in relation to examples from the interviews, observations and the questionnaire where relevant:

- 1- Teachers' beliefs about their own L1 use;
- 2- Teachers' beliefs about the students' use of L1;
- 3- Factors potentially influencing teachers' beliefs; and
- 4- Teachers' techniques to convey the L2 message.

This was followed by a discussion of the amount of Arabic used by teachers in the observed lessons, and the variation in Arabic use across the teachers. The chapter then discusses the complex relationship between the teachers' beliefs and their practices, and the nature of interaction in the classroom.

### **8.2 Teachers' beliefs about their own L1 use**

The three sub-themes emerging from the interviews and questionnaire, as discussed under this heading, are: 1) what teachers believe leads them to use L1, 2) what teachers believe to be the function of L1 use, and 3) teachers' negative beliefs about the use of L1. The findings from the observations were then drawn upon to



consider the forms and functions the teachers' use of Arabic took, and how their actual use differed from their stated use.

### **8.2.1 What teachers believe leads them to use L1**

In the follow up interviews (See Appendix 24 for a sample transcript of the post-interview), after attending the workshops, the teachers continued to believe that Arabic should be restricted and only used with lower level students.

Ayisha: When I have beginner levels, I think that L1 can be used, but very limited. (Interview 2)

The teachers reiterated their pre-treatment views in the follow up interviews, observing that a lot of Arabic might be required to help the weaker students comprehend the lessons. All the teachers, except for Maysa, expressed this view with the same conviction as they had in the initial interviews. Maysa appeared convinced that she now uses less Arabic; however, the second observation revealed that she relied more on Arabic throughout the entire lesson than she had previously. Apart from Maysa, the teachers did not specify whether they used Arabic for grammar and vocabulary teaching, or speaking and listening lessons. In hindsight, the interviewer could have asked the participants to specify this; however, the focus was on the amount of Arabic spoken. According to the teachers, occasionally they found themselves relying on excessive translation with weaker students in order to convey the English message.

Karima: I find myself using less Arabic with high level students, but when I have weaker students sometimes I have to translate everything I say because I can tell from the look on their faces that they didn't understand... It really depends on the level... (Interview 2)

Use of Arabic to teach grammar was reported by one teacher. Maysa stated that in grammar lessons, explicit explication of English rules was done using Arabic, especially with weaker students. Maysa believed that Arabic increased

comprehension in grammar lessons, and helped her adhere to the pacing guide. She noted that some students had weak command of English at levels 1 and 2, and described problems she had commonly encountered when teaching “weak students”, going on to describe the techniques she used to deal with these problems, i.e. the use of Arabic. In the follow up interviews, teachers expressed a preference for sole use of English, but taking into consideration their students’ low proficiency level. They felt that they were forced to use Arabic “as a last resort”.

Sally: I’d like to aim for exclusive use of English but with the current situation with the students I think that’s sort of impossible and very very challenging ... I might settle for the use of Arabic as a last resort...It depends on the level of the students... (Interview 2)

Tala mentioned an interesting point, in that the students’ level of proficiency combined with their majors affected teachers’ Arabic usage. Tala also believed that the English level of Science students was better than that of “other students” (Interview 2). It is possible that she meant students from the Faculty of Arts and Humanities when referring to “other students”. This could be attributed to the medium of instruction on their courses, as Science students’ lectures and the textbooks are in English, whereas Arts students’ textbooks are in Arabic. Thus, this relationship between the language of the textbooks and their learners’ motivation to learn English is likely to have an effect on the English teachers’ Arabic usage. Specifically, they felt that they had to use less Arabic with science students whereas the amount increases with Art students.

The seven teachers clearly held varied interpretations of the notion ‘limited Arabic use’. During the workshops, the term “principled” Arabic use was put forward; accordingly, in the post-treatment interviews, the teachers were asked about their interpretations of this phrase.

### 8.2.2 Teachers' interpretation of the term “principled” L1 use

As discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2, sections 2.4.5, 2.4.6), CS is beneficial when systematically applied. Therefore, the principled use of L1 does not mean restricting the use of L1 to certain functions, it means using L1 to facilitate classroom interaction as required (Macaro, 2005).

During the post-treatment interviews, the teachers were asked about their understanding of “principled use of L1”, and despite discussing the term in the workshop, teachers' answers on this varied. The term “principled” according to the teachers means that Arabic should be minimised, controlled, and not used as the first option. Rana believed that Arabic should only be used to give instructions, while Maysa believed it should only be used with lower proficiency students. In fact, six teachers believed that maximising English encourages students to make more effort to learn.

Ayisha for instance preferred “not to use the L1 in class”, using Arabic in the classroom only as a last resort after exhausting all other techniques. According to Ayisha, not using Arabic in classroom, “encourages the students to exert more effort in order to understand the meaning in the foreign language” (Interview 2).

Meanwhile, both Lama and Sally characterised the principled use of L1 as an approach minimising use of Arabic in the classroom. Lama said: “less use of Arabic” (Interview 2), while Sally argued it should not be used as a first resort. Similarly, “controlling” the amount of Arabic was an idea voiced by Sally, whose interpretation of using Arabic in a “structured planned way” meant to “control the amount of L1 in terms of where and when and how” (Interview 2) it is used. Similar to Sally, Tala believed: “It shouldn't be used in giving instructions” (Interview 2). According to Tala, Arabic is a last resort option, once other techniques, such as miming to clarify difficult vocabulary, have failed. Although in the pre-treatment interview, Tala favoured using Arabic for affective functions, in the second interview she believed Arabic should be limited to pedagogical purposes. She mentioned in the interview that after attending the workshops she “would restrict it (*Arabic*) for sure” (Interview

2). Tala's views did not tally with Rana. Rana understood that principled L1 use was linked to providing classroom instructions, and to managing low proficiency students' behaviour; therefore it would be needed less when teaching proficient students.

Maysa held a different view from the other teachers. Although like Rana she believed that principled meant using Arabic with lower level students only, she disagreed with the word "principled" and preferred to describe her use of Arabic as "selective". For example, she argued, "it's not necessary to use Arabic with all the classes. Some classes need more Arabic than the others and some classes don't need Arabic at all" (Interview 2).

In the present study, Karima was the only teacher who considered CS beneficial. That is to say, the discussions during the workshops aided and affirmed her previous beliefs. Karima said she used it in moderation but:

Karima: ...my students when they don't know the meaning of a word, I think they use Arabic to make sure they have got the right meaning so they ask me in Arabic about the meaning I think they ask to make sure they get the right meaning. (Interview 2)

Teachers had diverse opinions about what constituted "principled" use of L1, ranging from: using Arabic as a last resort, limiting the amount of Arabic, using it to provide one-to-one instructions only, restricting it to lower level students, to using Arabic in "moderation" to enhance learning. While, six teachers were suspicious about the efficacy of Arabic use, they believed it was inevitable.

### **8.2.3 What teachers believe to be the function of L1 use**

This heading is the fourth category within the first theme: teachers' beliefs about their CS. The category perceived the functions of teachers' L1 use to include three subthemes: 1) pedagogical functions; 2) classroom management; and 3) interpersonal and affective functions.

### 8.2.3.1 Pedagogical functions

Table 8.1 below provides examples of pre- and post-treatment beliefs and behaviours, identified in the interviews/questionnaires and observed during the observations. The ticks denote teachers' use of L1 for a particular function.

Table 8.1 Teachers' beliefs and behaviour regarding the use of Arabic for pedagogical functions, pre- and post-treatment

and post-treatment							
	Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (Interviews)						
	Arabic should be minimised in the classroom	Can be used to check comprehension	Can be used to explain difficult concept	Can be used to elicit responses	Can be used to explain grammar	Can be used to translate vocabulary	Can be used to increase participation
Tala						✓	
Rana	Depends on the level	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Lama	Depends on the level		✓		✓	✓	
Sally	Depends on the level		✓				
Ayisha	For all levels				✓		
Maysa	Depends on the level				✓	✓	
Karima					✓	✓	
	Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (closed questionnaire)						
Tala			Neither agree or disagree		Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree
Rana							
Lama			Agree		Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree
Sally			Strongly disagree		Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree
Ayisha			Disagree		Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree
Maysa			Agree		Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree
Karima			Agree		Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree
	Teacher behaviour pre-treatment ( observations)						
	Arabic should be minimised in the	Can be used to check comprehension		Can be used to elicit responses	Can be used to explain grammar	Can be used to translate vocabulary	Can be used to increase participation

	classroom						
<b>Tala</b>		✓	✓	✓			
<b>Rana</b>		✓	✓	✓	✓		
<b>Lama</b>		✓	✓	✓	✓		
<b>Sally</b>							
<b>Ayisha</b>							
<b>Maysa</b>							
<b>Karima</b>							
<b>Teacher beliefs post- treatment (Interviews)</b>							
	Arabic should be minimised in the classroom	Can be used to check comprehension	Can be used to explain difficult concept	Can be used to elicit responses	Can be used to explain grammar	Can be used to translate vocabulary	Can be used to increase participation
<b>Tala</b>						✓	
<b>Rana</b>							
<b>Lama</b>							
<b>Sally</b>					✓	✓	
<b>Ayisha</b>							
<b>Maysa</b>					✓	✓	
<b>Karima</b>					✓	✓	
<b>Teacher beliefs post- treatment (closed questionnaire)</b>							
<b>Tala</b>			Neither agree or disagree		Disagree	Agree	Agree
<b>Rana</b>			Agree		Disagree	Agree	Disagree
<b>Lama</b>			Agree		Disagree	Disagree	Disagree
<b>Sally</b>			Agree		Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Ayisha</b>			Agree		Disagree	Disagree	Disagree
<b>Maysa</b>			Strongly Agree		Strongly Agree	Agree	Agree
<b>Karima</b>			Strongly Agree		Agree	Strongly Agree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Teacher behaviour post-treatment ( observations)</b>							
	Arabic should be minimised in the classroom	Is used to check comprehension	Is used to elicit responses	Is used to explain grammar	Is used to translate vocabulary	Is used to increase participation	
<b>Tala</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓			
<b>Rana</b>	✓						
<b>Lama</b>	✓		✓	✓	✓		
<b>Sally</b>	✓						
<b>Ayisha</b>	✓						
<b>Maysa</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
<b>Karima</b>							

After attending the workshops, it was interesting to find that Ayisha, Maysa, Tala, Rana, and Lama believed use of Arabic should be minimised in the classroom, just as they had in the pre-interviews.

The teachers reported that the main reasons for their switches to Arabic in the current study were to explain grammar, translate difficult vocabulary, and clarify task based instructions to lower level students (levels 1 and 2), considered as beginners. This indicates that L1 could not be excluded as a technique to assist language processing (Macaro, 2001).

Maysa: In my classes, I normally use it when I explain grammar with lower levels students because they don't understand English...I translate some vocabulary in Arabic... It's an English class but if the students don't understand something like if the instructions are unclear or if the grammatical rules are a bit difficult. (Interview 2)

Teachers in the pre- and post-treatment interviews reiterated their need to use Arabic for pedagogical reasons, including checking comprehension, eliciting students' responses, and explaining grammar. In the post interviews, six teachers reported that using it for similar pedagogical functions, but commented that the amount of Arabic should be decreased. This change might have been a result of their teaching different groups of students, or it could be attributed to the workshops that had convinced them to minimise the amount of Arabic used in the classroom (see section 8.4), although it was not the aim of the workshops to generate negative or positive attitudes toward the practice.

In the questionnaire regarding the use of Arabic for comprehension, statement 2: "I believe that it is helpful to use Arabic when my students fail to understand my questions", the three teachers responses varied. After the workshops, Karima and Lama became more positive about using Arabic to increase students' comprehension, as they both agreed with this statement. Ayisha, however, became less positive about Arabic use for this purpose. In fact, she became uncertain about

the value of Arabic as a tool to help students understand English questions, selecting the “Neither agree nor disagree” category.

Lama, Ayisha, Maysa, Tala, and Karima changed their views about three statements on the questionnaire. Regarding the first statement: “I believe that using Arabic helps my students understand new vocabulary”, after attending the workshops, Maysa changed her view about Arabic use for vocabulary teaching by agreeing with the statement after the workshops. This might be a result of the workshop as she had explained in the second interview: “They opened my eyes...I became more tolerant and not as negative as before about using Arabic. I think positively about Arabic”. The opposite was true for Lama, as when she completed the questionnaire the second time she disagreed with the use of Arabic for teaching vocabulary. Her less positive view could be attributed to the workshop, as she pointed out: “It really opened my eyes...I think that after attending the focus group sessions, I minimised the use of Arabic in my classes”. This indicates that each teacher interpreted the input differently.

Concerning statement 13: “I believe that my use of Arabic helps students to participate more in class”, Lama and Ayisha changed their views, disagreeing with the statement, whereas Maysa and Tala changed their views from neutral (see Table 8.1) to agreeing that the use of Arabic can increase students’ participation. As for Karima, after the workshops, she expressed no opinion about the use of Arabic for this purpose.

In summary, before and after attending the workshops, the teachers altered their opinions about the three statements regarding the benefits of their use of Arabic when teaching vocabulary, asking comprehension questions, and increasing participation.



## 8.2.4 Classroom management

Table 8.2 below provides a summary of teachers' beliefs and behaviours towards CS for classroom management pre- and post- treatment; highlighting more general and specific aspects.

Table 8:2 Teachers' beliefs and behaviour pre- and post-treatment regarding the use of Arabic for classroom management

	<b>Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (Interviews)</b>				
	Can be used for classroom management in general	Can be used for discipline	Can be used to highlight important information (Wasn't part of questionnaire)	Can be used for task instruction	Can be used to attract attention
<b>Tala</b>					
<b>Rana</b>	✓				✓
<b>Lama</b>	✓				✓
<b>Sally</b>	✓				✓
<b>Ayisha</b>	✓				✓
<b>Maysa</b>					
<b>Karima</b>					
	<b>Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (closed questionnaires)</b>				
<b>Tala</b>		Neither agree or disagree		Disagree	Agree
<b>Rana</b>		Strongly agree		Agree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Lama</b>		Neither agree or disagree		Agree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Sally</b>		Neither agree or disagree		Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Ayisha</b>		Disagree		Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Maysa</b>		Agree		Agree	Disagree
<b>Karima</b>		Neither agree or disagree		Neither agree or disagree	Disagree
	<b>Teacher behaviour pre-treatment (observations)</b>				
	Is used for classroom management in general	Is used for discipline	Is used to highlight important information (Emerged during observation)	Is used for task instruction	Is used to attract attention
<b>Tala</b>			✓		✓
<b>Rana</b>		✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Lama</b>			✓	✓	✓
<b>Sally</b>					

<b>Ayisha</b>					
<b>Maysa</b>					
<b>Karima</b>					✓
	<b>Teacher beliefs post- treatment (Interviews)</b>				
	Can be used for classroom management in general	Can be used for discipline	Can be used to highlight important information	Can be used for assigning tasks to students	Can be used to attract attention
<b>Tala</b>					
<b>Rana</b>					
<b>Lama</b>					
<b>Sally</b>					
<b>Ayisha</b>					
<b>Maysa</b>					
<b>Karima</b>	✓	✓			✓
	<b>Teacher beliefs post- treatment (closed questionnaires)</b>				
<b>Tala</b>		Agree		Disagree	Strongly agree
<b>Rana</b>		Agree		Agree	Disagree
<b>Lama</b>		Disagree		Disagree	Agree
<b>Sally</b>		Agree		Neither agree or disagree	Agree
<b>Ayisha</b>		Strongly disagree		Strongly disagree	Disagree
<b>Maysa</b>	✓	Strongly agree		Agree	Agree
<b>Karima</b>		Agree		Agree	Neither agree or disagree
	<b>Teacher behaviour post-treatment (observations)</b>				
	Is used for classroom management in general	Is used for discipline	Is used to highlight important information	Is used for task instruction	Is used to attract attention
<b>Tala</b>					
<b>Rana</b>			✓	✓	✓
<b>Lama</b>				✓	
<b>Sally</b>					
<b>Ayisha</b>					
<b>Maysa</b>				✓	✓
<b>Karima</b>		✓			

The belief that Arabic should not be used for classroom management was reported by six teachers in the post interviews (see Table 8.2). Analysis of the pre- and post-interviews indicated a change in the teachers' reported beliefs. In the pre-interviews, four teachers reported using Arabic for classroom management. In the post interviews, however, Karima was the only teacher who still felt that Arabic was

a useful tool for classroom management. A possible explanation for this might be that she advocated the use of both languages from the outset. From the extracts examined across the post interview data, it was apparent that only Karima still believed Arabic could be used to discipline students and capture their attention.

On the questionnaire, concerning the statement “I believe that using Arabic helps discipline my students (e.g. ask them to stop side talks)”, Tala and Sally favoured using Arabic to discipline students. Lama on the other hand appeared to be sceptical about the advantages of using Arabic for this purpose, disagreeing with the statement.

With regard to the use of Arabic for assigning tasks or task instruction, statement 4: “I think Arabic is helpful when assigning tasks to students”, three teachers changed their views (see Table 8.2.). Lama and Ayisha became more negative about the value of using Arabic for this purpose, both now disagreeing with the statement, whereas Karima, Maysa and Rana agreed with it. Rana and Maysa did not change their positive views about the efficacy of L1 for instruction, as from the start they agreed with the statement. The extent of their agreement or disagreement with this statement could result from a lacking of understanding about what “assigning task” is. They might have interpreted it as giving instructions about activities or explaining instructions to students.

In terms of statement 12: “I find Arabic helps attract and keep my students’ attention”, Rana, Sally and Lama, and Ayisha who had not previously had an opinion about statement 12 changed their views (see Table 8.2.). Sally and Lama agreed that Arabic could be used to attract students’ attention, whereas Rana and Ayisha believed that Arabic should not be used for this purpose. Maysa and Karima who disagreed with this statement before the workshops, agreed with using Arabic for this purpose after the workshops.

After attendance at the workshops, the reported beliefs of teachers concerning CS for classroom management changed. However, there was no trend identified in

their responses. Unlike the pre-questionnaire, where teachers seemed uncertain about the use of L1 for this purpose, it was noticed that after the workshops, teachers appeared to be more certain about what was meant by the use of Arabic for classroom management.

The teachers' responses in the post-interviews, with the exception of for Karima, did not accord with their responses in the post-questionnaire. While in the interviews, they expressed a lack of support for using Arabic for classroom management, in the questionnaire, all the teachers (except Karima), expressed doubt about using it for some functions, although they were supportive about its use for others.

## 8.2.5 Affective and Interpersonal functions

Table 8.3 summarises the Teachers' beliefs and behaviour regarding the use of Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions pre- and post- treatment.

Table 8:3 Teachers' beliefs and behaviour regarding the use of Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions pre- and post-treatment

	<b>Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (Interviews)</b>					
	Can be used to increase motivation	Can be used to make students more interested	Can be used to reduce stress (Telling jokes)	Can be used to improve relationships	Can be used to build confidence	Can be used to discuss cultural topics
<b>Tala</b>				✓		
<b>Rana</b>		✓	✓			✓
<b>Lama</b>		✓				
<b>Sally</b>						
<b>Ayisha</b>			✓			
<b>Maysa</b>						✓
<b>Karima</b>						
	<b>Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (closed questionnaires)</b>					
<b>Tala</b>		Agree			Agree	Disagree
<b>Rana</b>		Agree			Agree	Agree
<b>Lama</b>		Agree			Neither agree or disagree	Agree
<b>Sally</b>		Agree			Agree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Ayisha</b>		Disagree			Neither agree or disagree	Disagree
<b>Maysa</b>		Neither agree or disagree			Disagree	Strongly agree
<b>Karima</b>		Disagree			Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree
	<b>Teacher behaviour pre-treatment (observations)</b>					
	Is used to increase motivation	Is used to make students more interested	Is used to reduce stress (Telling jokes)	Is used to improve relationships	Is used to build confidence	Is used to discuss cultural topics
<b>Tala</b>			✓			✓
<b>Rana</b>						✓
<b>Lama</b>						✓
<b>Sally</b>			✓	✓		
<b>Ayisha</b>						

<b>Maysa</b>						
<b>Karima</b>						
<b>Teacher beliefs post- treatment (Interviews)</b>						
	Can be used to increase motivation	Can be used to make students more interested	Can be used to reduce stress (Telling jokes)	Can be used to improve relationships	Can be used to build confidence	Can be used to discuss cultural topics
<b>Tala</b>				✓		
<b>Rana</b>	✓		✓			✓
<b>Lama</b>						
<b>Sally</b>	✓			✓		
<b>Ayisha</b>						
<b>Maysa</b>	✓					
<b>Karima</b>						
<b>Teacher beliefs post- treatment (closed questionnaires)</b>						
<b>Tala</b>		Agree			Agree	Disagree
<b>Rana</b>		Agree			Neither agree or disagree	Disagree
<b>Lama</b>		Agree			Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Sally</b>		Agree			Strongly agree	Agree
<b>Ayisha</b>		Disagree			Disagree	Strongly disagree
<b>Maysa</b>		Neither agree or disagree			Agree	Agree
<b>Karima</b>		Neither agree or disagree			Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree
<b>Teacher behaviour post-treatment (observations)</b>						
	Is used to increase motivation	Is used to make students more interested	Is used to reduce stress (Telling jokes)	Is used to improve relationships	Is used to build confidence	Is used to discuss cultural topics
<b>Tala</b>						✓
<b>Rana</b>						
<b>Lama</b>						
<b>Sally</b>						
<b>Ayisha</b>						
<b>Maysa</b>						✓
<b>Karima</b>						

Sally, Rana Maysa, and Tala reported in the post-treatment interviews that conducting lessons purely in English might cause their students stress. They believed

that some Arabic could be useful to increase motivation, and to make learning more enjoyable and reduce students' tension.

Rana, for example, reported that Arabic made the students more relaxed. For her, using Arabic was a way of providing less formal and less distanced teacher-student relationships. It could be said that Arabic encouraged more personal and closer relationships, especially as the six teachers in the study shared the same L1 with the students. In the opinions of the teachers, when students felt that the teacher used Arabic to "sympathise" with them, they became more interested and more involved in the language lessons. For example, Rana used Arabic to inject humour (see below); although no doubt, she could have also used English for this.

Rana: Maybe to say funny things or jokes in the classroom, you can use a little Arabic to ease tension because students tend to be tense in language classroom ... so using little Arabic makes them feel that the teacher is sympathising with them and make them feel relaxed and comfortable. (Interview 2)

Rana's stated use of Arabic was similar to that reported by Sally, Rana and Tala, who reported that building rapport was the chief reason for using Arabic in the classroom. They favoured using it for affective reasons to humanise the classroom atmosphere.

Sally: I use it to build rapport with the students of course. (Interview 2)

Tala: I prefer to use it in a principled way to build rapport with students. If you feel the students are feeling bored and don't seem to be very interested. (Interview 2)

The teachers in the present study also incorporated some phrases, such as 'inshalla' (God Willing) and 'alhamdulillah' (thank God), from Arabic culture into their English speech. These expressions are used frequently by Muslim people to express gratitude and to praise Allah for his blessings, and would not be translated

into English as they are deeply entrenched in Arab and Muslim culture. Examples of these expressions could also be found in the interviews, observations, and workshop transcripts:

Maysa: This what I say to myself all the time ... Every module. But **‘alhamdulillah’** (thank God) for the last three modules as you have seen when you have attended that I don’t use Arabic... (Interview 2)

In the post questionnaire, five of the teachers’ beliefs about the two statements regarding affective and interpersonal functions appear to have changed after their attendance at the workshops. In the case of statement 5: “I believe using Arabic helps to build the students’ confidence”, the three teachers expressed different beliefs. The workshops appeared to influence Maysa, in that she felt Arabic could be helpful for building students’ confidence. However, the workshops appeared to have had a different effect on Ayisha, as she strongly disagreed with statement 5. Rana on the other hand had become uncertain, selecting “Neither agree nor disagree”. It is probable that they altered their views for reasons unrelated to the workshops, such as teaching different groups of students at the time they filled out the post-treatment questionnaire.

Concerning statement 16: “I think that Arabic is helpful when I discuss cultural topics with my students”, the workshops were likely to convince Sally that Arabic could be used for this purpose, whereas Lama changed her opinion, choosing the disagree category. After the workshops, Rana became uncertain about the benefits of Arabic for discussing cultural topics, selecting the “Neither agree nor disagree” category.

Despite the fact that the teachers expressed their support for using Arabic to reduce students’ stress in the post-interviews, the observation data revealed a significant drop in Arabic use for this purpose, indicating that some teachers’ reported beliefs were not congruent with their actual practices (discussed later in the



chapter). In addition, their responses in the post-interviews did not always align with their responses in the post-questionnaire. Although Rana expressed support for CS for affective and interpersonal functions in the post interviews, in the questionnaire she was more doubtful and less supportive regarding CS for this purpose.

#### **8.2.6 Teachers' negative beliefs regarding the use of L1**

In the follow up interviews, the resistance to using Arabic was prevalent among the teachers. They still believed that Arabic was a drawback to learning English. With the exception of Karima, who did not mention this aspect, the teachers still believed that using Arabic was an “easy” option for covering all the materials before the exams.

According to six teachers, it could hinder students' English learning. For example, Ayisha reported that using Arabic might deliver easy access for some teachers, although in the long term, it would not help students to achieve proficiency in English. Her colleague Karima explained this more fully. She believed that “excessive” use of Arabic could hinder English development. Although, it is likely that Karima meant some Arabic was not harmful it would have been interesting to learn what the teacher meant by “excessive”.

The opinions of the teachers were similar, in that they stated a little L1 is acceptable, but unsystematic use would hinder learning and development in the long-term. Attendance at the workshops did not appear to alter the six teachers' negative beliefs about Arabic. They believed that Arabic should be avoided for three chief reasons: 1) teachers' use of Arabic in the English classroom would demotivate students; 2) L1 would hinder English learning; and 3) teachers' Arabic use might encourage students to rely more on Arabic. The teachers did not however specify whether Arabic would hinder English fluency, linguistic or general development; had they done so, this would have given us a clearer insight into the drawbacks they perceived.

### 8.2.6.1 Teachers' usage of Arabic in observations: forms and function

The six teachers' responses in the post interviews aligned with their practices. In the post interviews, the six teachers reported that the amount of Arabic should be decreased. The observation transcripts revealed the six teachers minimised their L1 use, especially for affective and interpersonal functions (discussed in section 8.6). In the case of pedagogical functions, it appears that the L1 was used to elicit a response from students, to reiterate the L1 message, and to provide translations for grammatical points. These were the chief purposes triggering Lama and Maysa's switches to Arabic (See Appendix 25 for a sample transcript of post-observation).

In the excerpt below, Lama elicited students' responses by switching to Arabic: "**ya'ani eish** drawings"? (What do drawings mean?). The students in the following turn responded using the same language as a way to comply with the teacher's initiation in Arabic. Lama confirmed the student's answer in the feedback turn, parroting the student's response, "**rasem aw rasma** (drawings or a drawing) **rasma** (drawing)".

Lama: What is this?

(Short silence)

Lama: a? A picture of? Some drawings. Do you think they are drawings? They are drawings **ya'ani eish** drawings? (What do drawings mean?)

Student: **rasem** (drawings).

Lama: **rasem aw rasma** (drawings or a drawing) **rasma** (drawing) drawing. So where do you think this goes back to? Which age? Which year? Is it old or new? (Observation 2)

Reiteration of the English messages was prevalent in Maysa's discourse. In the excerpt below, the teacher repeated the English message in Arabic. She first introduced the phrase in English and then instantly translated it into Arabic. Her prompt translations of the English phrases perhaps aimed to fulfil the purpose of enhancing comprehension. The example illustrates that the use of reiteration occurs

during the teacher's extended talk, without the teacher's attempt to elicit meaning from the students, as shown below.

Maysa: The second part is about people in your family **annas elli fi al-a'ela** (people in your family). OK? Do you remember when we asked who is a lonely child **meen waheed fi eltou?** (Who's the lonely child in her family?) Who has more brothers? **Meen kan endu akhwan aktar** (who has more brothers). Who has more sisters? OK do you remember we stopped here **waggafan hena** (we stopped here). (Observation 2)

The desire to offer translations for grammatical points prompted the teachers to switch to Arabic. Maysa, in the first two lines in the excerpt below switched to Arabic to explain grammar points, continuing to explain the rule in Arabic. Even though these phrases were very simple, the teacher unconsciously uttered them in Arabic.

Maysa: "...Not, can't, haven't Ok? **Lamman tekoun al-jomal muthbata astakhdem** so (I use so with affirmative sentences) **wa lamman tekoun manfiya astakhdem?** (And with negative sentences I use?)

Students: Neither.

Maysa: **nafs attariga** (same way) OK? **Ya'ani laman agoul** (so when I say) I don't like sleeping **eish tekoun al-ejaba?** (What will be the answer?)

Students: Neither.

Maysa: Neither.

Students: Do I?

Maysa: Do...

Students: Do I...

Maysa: Neither do I. I cannot swim. (Observation 2)

The pre-treatment observation data revealed that the key reasons for teachers' switches were to elicit students' responses, check comprehension, and explain grammar, while in the post-treatment observation, eliciting responses from

students, reiteration, and providing translation for grammatical points were the chief factors triggering six of the teachers' switches to Arabic. In general, the percentage of the teachers' Arabic use dropped in the second observation after attendance at the workshops (discussed in section 8.6). Even though Ayisha, Maysa, Tala, Rana, and Lama were against using Arabic for pedagogical functions, the students' level had a considerable influence on teachers' practices, rather than their beliefs.

#### 8.2.6.2 Observations: classroom management

Six of the teachers' responses in the post-interview phase matched their actual practices. The belief that Arabic should not be used for classroom management was reported by six teachers in the post-interviews. The post-treatment observations also showed teachers minimised use of Arabic for classroom management. This change occurred after attending the workshops, but it is not possible fully to attribute the changes to the workshops, as a change in beliefs might not translate into a change in behaviour after such a short period.

The observational data revealed that less Arabic was generally employed by the teachers, except for Maysa. Below are two examples from Rana and Lama's classrooms. Arabic was used for two purposes: highlighting important information, and providing task related instructions.

Rana's use of Arabic to highlight important information is illustrated in the excerpt below. Rana uttered the word revision in Arabic "**muraja'a**" to attract her students' attention. Then she inserted "**muraja'a lilekhtibar annisfi yoam alkhamees**" (it's a revision for the mid-module exam on Thursday). She strongly encouraged the students to take the revision sheets placed on her desk. Her aim was to highlight the importance of the review papers and the importance of attendance after the break.

Rana: It's a revision for the mid-module **muraja'a** (revision). So you take one of these and you bring it after the break. We're going to do this. This is a revision **muraja'a lilekhtibar annisfi yoam alkhamees** (it's a revision for the

mid-module exam on Thursday). Make sure you come back after the break. Don't take it and go. We'll do this in class. (Observation 2)

The need to provide task instructions prompted the teachers' switches to Arabic. In the following excerpt, Lama instructs her students to follow the first example that was provided in the lesson. The task related to forming questions from affirmative sentences.

Lama: Now I want you to make similar questions from here. Where **taba'an kul wahda tekhtar** (Of course choose each one) for example where **ba'adean mathalan jawabaha** (For example it can be answered) or when the second when **endana** (we have): in the 10<sup>th</sup> century. **Fein zukirat** in the 10<sup>th</sup> century (Where was the 10<sup>th</sup> century mentioned?). Where is it? You have to look for it and then make a question. (Observation 2)

In summary, the post-treatment observations revealed that Rana, Lama, and Maysa used Arabic for classroom management. The chief triggers for switches to Arabic were the need to give instructions, attract students' attention, and to indicate a topic switch.

### 8.2.6.3 Observations: affective and interpersonal functions

There was a mismatch between the four teachers' beliefs and behaviours for this practice. Sally, Rana Maysa, and Tala believed Arabic could be useful to increase motivation, make learning more enjoyable and lower students' tension. However, the percentage in this category dropped from 10% in the pre-observation to (2%) in the post-observation (see section 8.6). This mismatch between practice and stated beliefs might be undertaken consciously in order to address factors such as classroom reality. It may be the case that the teachers became more conscious about their CS, which might then lead them to monitor their L1 usage throughout the lesson.

### 8.3 Theme two: Teachers' beliefs about the students' use of L1

The Table below provides a summary of the main beliefs and behaviour pre and post-treatment.

Table 8:4 Teachers' beliefs pre and post-treatment regarding use of Arabic by students

Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (Interviews)					
	Lack of English proficiency	Teacher's background	Lack of motivation	Lack of vocabulary	In pair/group work (Easy access)
<b>Tala</b>	✓	✓			✓
<b>Rana</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓	
<b>Lama</b>	✓	✓		✓	✓
<b>Sally</b>	✓				
<b>Ayisha</b>	✓	✓		✓	
<b>Maysa</b>	✓			✓	✓
<b>Karima</b>	✓	✓		✓	✓
Teacher beliefs pre- treatment (questionnaires)					
<b>Tala</b>	✓		✓		Often
<b>Rana</b>	✓				Sometimes
<b>Lama</b>	✓				Always
<b>Sally</b>	✓				Often
<b>Ayisha</b>	✓	✓			Sometimes
<b>Maysa</b>	✓				Rarely
<b>Karima</b>	✓			✓	Sometimes
Teacher beliefs post- treatment (Interviews)					
	Lack of English proficiency	Teacher's background	Lack of motivation	Lack of vocabulary	In pair/group work (Easy access)
<b>Tala</b>	✓	✓	✓		
<b>Rana</b>	✓				
<b>Lama</b>	✓	✓			
<b>Sally</b>	✓		✓		
<b>Ayisha</b>			✓		
<b>Maysa</b>	✓		✓		
<b>Karima</b>	✓				
Teacher beliefs post- treatment (questionnaires)					
<b>Tala</b>	✓				Sometimes
<b>Rana</b>	✓		✓		Sometimes
<b>Lama</b>	✓				Sometimes
<b>Sally</b>	✓		✓		Often
<b>Ayisha</b>	✓				Sometimes
<b>Maysa</b>	✓				Always
<b>Karima</b>	✓				Often

In the pre-treatment interviews, the lack of students' knowledge of English and teachers' backgrounds, were the main factors prompting students to use Arabic, according to their teachers. In the post-treatment questionnaires, responses still showed this as the dominant opinion.

In the post-treatment interviews, an additional reason was reported by teachers regarding the students' use of Arabic. They cited a lack of motivation to learn English. In the post-treatment questionnaire, Rana wrote "lack of self-confidence, unmotivated to use the language, lack of interest". The issue of students' lack of motivation was raised in the second workshop. Possibly, the teachers were comparing and linking their experiences with those of other teachers from different contexts mentioned in the literature. The workshops might have drawn their attention to the different reasons that would lead students to use Arabic in the classroom. There is also the possibility that this arose in the second workshop, as by then we had developed closer relationships, and thus it might have felt more comfortable to admit the students lacked motivation.

Sally and Rana also believed that affective factors play a role in students' use of Arabic. Interestingly, Maysa added an additional point, stating that Arabic was easier to access, and required "no mental process when using L1". Mental processing was introduced in the fourth workshop. It is likely that she meant Arabic did not trigger in depth mental processing in learners' minds. Maysa believed that students were not equipped with other strategies, aside from Arabic, to help them work out the meaning of new vocabulary, as she wrote, "lack of communication skills".

According to the teachers, the students appeared to dislike English classes because they found them difficult and their English grades affected their overall GPA.

Maysa: They don't care and they're not willing to learn. They say that they hate English ...they see it as an obstacle. It affects their GPA...Their fear that English might affect their GPA makes them not study. (Interview 2)

In the post-interviews, the teachers still expressed the importance of pushing the students to work harder by maximising English input and output inside the classroom. The teachers understood that their students had a relatively weak command of English; hence, they should be given greater opportunities to practise it.

Rana: It's an easier approach to use L1 but as educators we shouldn't go for the easier approach. I mean we want the students to work harder. We want them to learn more effectively. We don't want them just to finish the exams and forget the language they have learnt. (Interview 2)

In the pre- and post-interviews, the teachers' frequently reiterated the importance of assisting their students to practice English. The teachers felt that they should not aim for an "easier approach", encouraging the students to use more English simply to pass exams, but also to help them learn English. However, after the workshops they were more aware of the reasons why students use Arabic in the classroom. They were more aware that students, especially those with lower level proficiency resorted to Arabic to comprehend words or concepts that might limit their understanding. This raised awareness may have positive benefits for the classroom, as the teachers might be encouraged to adapt their delivery of the lessons to accommodate the weaker students, such as by checking instructions more carefully, or recycling the items taught to make sure everyone has understood.

After the workshops the beliefs of Sally, Lama, Maysa, and Ayisha concerning the students' use of Arabic appeared to change. Maysa and Sally appeared to be more aware of the students' Arabic use following the workshops. However, Ayisha appeared not to notice it. In fact the second time she completed the questionnaire she selected the "rarely" and "sometimes" categories, where she had previously ticked "always" or "often". That is, by the time of the post-questionnaire she believed students "rarely" use L1 to make themselves more confident and more motivated to learn L2. It is possible that because Ayisha had a negative belief about L1 from the start, she tended to choose these categories, or it could have been the



effect of the workshops. In the case of Karima, Rana and Tala; their beliefs remained relatively stable before and after the treatment. Maysa reported that the treatment had influenced her beliefs in a positive way, as she had become more aware of why her students used Arabic. She believed the students used Arabic to translate difficult words, translate grammatical points, discuss assignment instructions, and to build confidence. The opposite was true for Ayisha. After the treatment, Ayisha believed the students either “rarely” or “sometimes” used Arabic for the same purposes.

Maysa’s response indicated that the workshops drew her attention to the benefits of using the keyword method (see Chapter 7 section 7.6), particularly how it can be used to trigger deeper processing in the learners’ minds. This slight change in beliefs was an indication that workshops might play a role in influencing beliefs and practices.

#### **8.4 Theme three: factors potentially influencing teachers’ beliefs**

After the workshops, the teachers discussed the factors with the potential to affect their beliefs and practices. These factors were teaching experiences, teachers’ associated sense of guilt, ELI policy, and workshops. These factors influenced the teachers to varying degrees.

##### **8.4.1 Teaching experience**

All seven teachers believed their experiences as language teachers had had a great impact on their practices. For example, according to Maysa, her experience was more influential than attending the workshops.

I: Do you think that your beliefs have changed because of attending the workshops?

Maysa: Maybe the most influencing factor is experience.

I: Do you think that experience is more influential than workshops?

Maysa: Yeah.

I: Your past experience influences your decision whether to use or not to use Arabic in the class?

Maysa: Yeah I think that English should be used most of the time. (Interview 2)

Tala also reported that her experience as a language teacher had a greater impact on her beliefs concerning the use of L1 than attendance at the workshops:

I: Do you think that the main factor that influences your decision to use Arabic is the level of the students, and not because of attending the focus group discussions?

T: When I attended the focus groups, I actually agreed with what I was doing earlier.

Interviewer: And you didn't agree with things that you were not doing in your classes.

T: No not really, as I said that perhaps if I was using L1. Arabic is L2 for me

Interviewer: But if it were L1 or Urdu, would your attitude be different?

T: I wouldn't use it unless absolutely imperative. (Interview 2)

#### **8.4.2 Associated sense of guilt**

In the post-interviews, the teachers were asked whether they still felt guilty about CS after the workshop input. Rana and Ayisha stated that they still felt guilty, for example Rana indicated that she still felt guilty about this practice but felt that she was forced to use it "from time to time". She believed it was an "easier approach" to helping the students pass their exams than learning solely in English.

Lama and Maysa on the other hand were reassured to know that using Arabic use was a common practice:

Lama: You've presented some useful experiments about the use of L1 worldwide. So actually I felt a bit relieved that using Arabic in English classes it doesn't really affect the students' performance... (Interview 2)

Maysa: ... so it's kind of comforting to me I don't blame myself as much as I used to. (Interview 2)

However, Maysa, who at the outset felt guilty about using Arabic, did not seem to have an opinion after the workshops, selecting the “Neither agree nor disagree” option (statement 9) on the questionnaire. The workshops appear to have left her uncertain.

Sally and Karima on the other hand had never felt guilty about this practice, and the workshops reinforced this feeling. They also disagreed with statement 9 on the questionnaire: “I feel guilty if I use Arabic in the classroom”. Sally explained in the post interview that “they (*workshops*) confirmed my belief that it’s OK to use Arabic in English classroom (...) I wouldn’t feel guilty about it” (Interview2).

Rana, Ayisha, Maysa and Lama, reported that the workshops helped to ease their guilt about Arabic use. They reported that they blamed themselves less than previously, as they were reassured that Arabic could be useful for students. In the post-treatment interviews, they reiterated the same views. The responses to the questionnaires, however, showed that they still felt guilty, as they had agreed with statement 9. It appears that the workshops did not help ease this negative feeling, even though they reported in the workshops that they felt relieved to learn that CS in the language classroom was common among L2 teachers in other contexts. It is possible that these contradictory responses between the interviews and the questionnaire data arose because the teachers were making efforts to conform to the interviewer’s expectations. In addition, the teachers might have developed beliefs about the use of L1 throughout their lives as learners and teachers and then held on to them as truths; it is also probably that teachers were still reformulating and revisiting their feelings and beliefs following the workshop when the post-treatment interviews were conducted.

#### **8.4.3 The institute policy**

ELI policy was the fourth factor identified as having a potential influence on beliefs. Lack of awareness of institute policy was reported in both the pre- and post-treatment interviews. Teachers reiterated that they had not personally read the policy, but had been “told” Arabic is prohibited inside classrooms. Maysa, Sally, Tala, and

Lama believed that it is forbidden to use Arabic during teaching. Karima, Ayisha, and Rana reported that it is not permitted according to ELI policy.

Karima noticed that even native English language-speaking teachers were not following the institute guidelines. This indicated that both Saudi and non-Saudi teachers were not following the guidelines. This might suggest that students' level of proficiency and comprehension were the chief factors resulting in the use of Arabic inside classrooms. It also suggests that teachers strongly believed some Arabic could be beneficial to their students. Nevertheless, tension exists between the teachers and the institute, arising from the contradiction between the policy and the teachers' aspirations to increase comprehension among their students. The teachers' responses suggested their beliefs about Arabic were not closely linked to the institutional guidelines.

Karima: ... **I was told** that in the policy booklet it says we're not allowed to use it.

Interviewer: Is it a written policy?

Karima: **I was told but I didn't read** it myself.

Interviewer: So you don't think that the teachers are following the guidelines?

Karima: They **don't follow** it. I have an American friend who teaches here and she speaks a little bit of Arabic, and she told me that in the classroom sometimes she has to use her broken Arabic to explain things, so I don't think that the teachers are following the guidelines. (Interview 2)

The final factor to consider as possibly having affected teachers' beliefs is the workshops. The following section briefly discusses the potential impact of workshops on teachers' beliefs.

#### **8.4.4 Workshops**

In the post-treatment interviews, when the teachers were asked whether they were going to use more, less, or the same amount of Arabic in the classrooms after attending the workshops, Karima, Ayisha and Sally replied the amount of L1 would

remain the same, while Rana, Lama and Maysa reported they would use less L1 during classes.

Karima: I'm not going to change but I'm happy to know that this belief is not just in Saudi Arabia. It's circulating around the world.

I: The workshops enforced your beliefs about the use of Arabic?

Karima: Yes. (Interview 2)

Another teacher who decided to use less Arabic in the classrooms, had already decided to reduce the amount of Arabic she used "from the very beginning". According to Rana, it was a "conscious decision" to use less Arabic. Therefore, the workshops appear to have only reinforced beliefs that she had formed based on her prior experience. Despite this, the workshops improved her knowledge of other techniques to deliver English message. I would argue that this awareness could help inform her practices, and assist teachers to use Arabic in a judicious amount.

I: Have your beliefs about the use of Arabic in teaching English been influenced by attending the workshops?

Rana: ...I realised that it is a common approach that many teachers use. I felt that I wasn't doing something that is unfamiliar in the classroom because I was using L1. I reflected upon why I was using L1. I could try to use L2 more instead of relying on L1. It's a slightly more challenging approach but it's for the benefit of the students. (Interview 2)

Analysis of the development of the teachers' beliefs and practices before and after the workshops revealed each teacher is a unique individual. Each teacher has a unique nature and therefore the workshops influenced each one differently. Three of the teachers decided to use less L1 despite the fact it could be useful for students. They claimed that it was the effect of the workshops.

Lama: I think after the workshops, I'm going to use less Arabic.

I: Less Arabic.

Lama: Yes, I think the teacher should make more effort to conduct the class in English. She can use some pictures or any other techniques ... The workshops made me think a lot about it, but I don't know which one of them exactly. I think it has influenced my beliefs about teaching English; about using only English and less Arabic. (Interview 2)

When the teachers were asked about the origin of their beliefs concerning Arabic use, Maysa, Lama and Rana reported that personal experience, conducting research, and reading articles about the topic helped them to develop their practices. Sally and Ayisha's teaching experience was more of an influential factor in shaping their beliefs about Arabic, as Ayisha reported that her experiences as an EFL teacher have convinced her not to use Arabic. Specifically, she believed it had a negative effect on students' motivation to learn English:

Ayisha: I have been teaching English as a foreign language for 23 years. I have noticed that using Arabic in English classes gives the students the feeling of becoming more reluctant to learn English... (Interview 2)

Background education played an important role in Karima's decisions about Arabic use, as she wrote: "I learnt from my MA studies in Leeds that it's OK to use Arabic or L1 in class depending on the level and the skill".

Lama and Maysa reported that attending the workshops had some influence on their beliefs. The workshops introduced them to new ideas about how to use Arabic in the classroom. Lama wrote: "in Sarah's focus group I was exposed to some ideas that I didn't know before". They appeared to ease Maysa's sense of guilt about Arabic usage, and she wrote: "I also think that I became more tolerant about the use of Arabic in class after the focus groups and I feel less guilty". Tala was the only teacher to refrain from answering this question, and it was the only question she did not complete on the questionnaire.

## **8.5 Theme four: teachers' techniques to convey L2 message**

In the post-treatment interviews, the teachers continued to express their belief that they should not use Arabic themselves. Even though the teachers were resistant to changing their beliefs about Arabic, the workshops drew their attention toward the fact that some information could be illustrated using pictures for simple lexical items. This technique could be followed by translating information in English in cases where the students had failed to comprehend meaning. Using dictionaries was another technique the two teachers reported using. When the students encountered difficult vocabulary, then the teachers would sometimes ask them to search for meaning in their English dictionaries. As a last resort, one teacher allowed the students to translate.

Ayisha: If you have a word in English and you try to explain, to illustrate, and draw a picture, but if the students still cannot get the meaning, you can just elicit the translation from one of the students. (Interview 2)

The teachers believed that using Arabic could be a useful technique after exhausting other techniques, such as simplifying the L2 message. According to them, this was especially the case when the students failed to comprehend the meaning in English. Sally, for example, favoured the use of simplified terms as a technique to communicate new or difficult information.

Another interesting technique was to narrate similar stories to the ones mentioned in the lesson. Rana pointed out that telling students stories from the Quran with similar themes or vocabulary reinforced the information in students' minds. She gave an example of new vocabulary that she had encountered in the lesson. "Hoopoe" was new to students, so Rana decided to tell the story of the Prophet Solomon and the hoopoe bird. According to her, it was an interesting technique to attract students' attention and to facilitate comprehension of new vocabulary items in the lessons.

Rana: I would tell the stories in English (...)

Interviewer: Do they get the stories when you narrate them in English?

Rana: They do. I see them smiling.

Interviewer: Telling stories help to get their attention.

Rana: They do get the students' attention and that's important. (Interview 2)

Tala pointed out her use of films to provide insight into the difficult reading passages. The films helped the students, especially when working on comprehension tasks to understand and reduce the number of unknown elements, and enhance comprehension.

Tala: Today the reading passage that I was dealing with was very tough ....and required a lot of explanation, so I had to show them a film on TV first to tell them what exactly we were doing. (Interview 2)

Along with simplifying the L2 and showing videos, Tala reported another unusual technique.

Tala: I try to complete the sentences for them, something we should avoid doing as teachers it should be our last resort, but at times... It helps because I'm completing the sentence in English for them they learn what I said. (Interview 2)

In the post-treatment interviews, the teachers expressed a preference for eliciting translations from students rather than using Arabic themselves. Classroom observations illustrated that Karima and Ayisha were resisting using Arabic themselves, but that they allowed the students to translate into Arabic. They might have felt guilty about using Arabic in front of me. They preferred to elicit translations from students, which they believed was a more effective and more student centred method. Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005, p. 303) described teacher-induced CS as taking place when the teacher: "uses one language in his or her turn to encourage or "induce" learners to take a turn in the other language". In the current



study, inducing students to switch to Arabic meant that the teacher explicitly asked them to provide meaning in Arabic.

Classroom observations indicated Lama and Maysa's continual use of L1 to translate difficult vocabulary and grammar. They might have been using additional techniques, but not in the classes I observed. However, it should be noted that I only observed their classes twice. Even though they reported using Arabic "as the last resort" in the classes observed, they tended to use it as their first option.

Lama and Maysa's use of Arabic as the first option could be derived from their underestimation of the students' comprehension level. Indeed, it is reasonable to suppose that the teachers faced some contextual constraints, such as impending exams and the demand of the curriculum, as they were expected to cover a lot of information in a short period, as Maysa stated: "I have no other option. I don't want to waste the class time" (Interview 1).

## **8.6 The amount of L1 use observed among the seven teachers**

The purposes and frequencies with which the teachers used Arabic in both sets of observations, as well as the differences between the seven teachers are illustrated in Tables 8.5 and 8.6, and in Figures 8.1 and 8.2. After examining the teachers' Arabic usage patterns, as discussed in the literature review and pre-treatment chapters, their discourses were classified into four major functions: pedagogical, classroom management, interpersonal and affective functions, and idiosyncratic L1 use. Focusing on individuals enabled me to highlight the differences (where applicable) in each teacher's beliefs and practices before and after treatment. The first three categories were drawn from the literature and the final category emerged from the data.

Table 8: Instances of teachers CS in both observations

Functions of L1 in classroom	Ob 1	Ob2	Ayisha		Tala		Sally		Karima		Rana		Lama		Maysa	
			Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2
<b>Pedagogical functions</b>																
1- Clarify task instruction	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	4
% of L1 instances <sup>11</sup>	2.9%	4.8%											8%			8%
2- Provide translation	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	1	0	4
% of L1 instances	6%	6%												4%		8%
3-Reiteration	10	8	0	0	5	2	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	2		4
% of L1 instances	14%	10%			26%	25%					16%		4%	9%		8%
4 - Provide feedback	5	15	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	10	0	4
% of L1 instances	7%	18%			11%						12%	33%		44%		8%
5- Explain grammar	24	14	0	0	6	3	0	0	0	0	10	0	8	3	0	8
% of L1 instances	34%	17%			32%	38%					40%		31%	13%		16%
6- elicit response	16	19	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	9	6	0	12
% of L1 instances	23%	23%			16%	13%					16%		35%	26%		25%

<sup>11</sup> L1 instances (words and phrases) as a percentage of all instances of Arabic used within the pedagogical function category

7- Check comprehension	7	15	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	13
% of L1 instances	10%	18%			11%	25%					4%		15%			27%
8- Check attendance	2	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0
% of L1 instances	3%	4%			5%							67%	4%	4%		
<b>Sum of pedagogical</b>	70	83	0	0	19	8	0	0	0	0	25	3	26	23	0	49
Total % of pedagogical	58%	69%			27%	10%					36%	3%	37%	28%		59%
<b>Classroom management functions</b>			<b>Ayisha</b>		<b>Tala</b>		<b>Sally</b>		<b>Karima</b>		<b>Rana</b>		<b>Lama</b>		<b>Maysa</b>	
			Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2
1- Indicate a topic switch	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	4
% of L1 instances	18%	17%									28%		20%			22%
2- Assign tasks	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3- Attract students' attention	12	7	0	0	1	0	1	0	4	1	2	1	4	0	0	5
% of L1 instances	43%	30%			50%		100%		100%	100%	18%	33%	40%			28%
4- Give instructions	3	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	2	0	7
% of L1 instances	11%	42%									18%	33%	10%	100%		39%
5- Highlight important information	7	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	3	0	0	0
% of L1 instances	25%	4%			50%						27%	33%	30%			

6- Discipline students	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
% of L1 instances	4%	8%														
<b>Sum</b>	28	24	0	0	2	0	1	0	4	1	11	3	10	2	0	18
Total % of management	23%	20%			7%		33%		14%	4%	40%	13%	36%	8%		75%
<b>Affective &amp; Interpersonal functions</b>			<b>Ayisha</b>		<b>Tala</b>		<b>Sally</b>		<b>Karima</b>		<b>Rana</b>		<b>Lama</b>		<b>Maysa</b>	
			Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2	Ob1	Ob2
1- Reassure students	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
% of L1 instances	17%												67%			
2- Praise students	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
% of L1 instances	8%				20%											
3- Build rapport	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
% of L1 instances	8%						50%									
4- Add humour	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
% of L1 instances	25%				40%		50%									
5- Religious phrases & Cultural words	5	2	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
% of L1 instances	42%	100%	100%		40%	100%					100%		33%			100%
<b>Sum</b>	12	2	1	0	5	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	1
Total % of affective &	10%	2%	8%		42%		17%				8%		25%			50%

interpersonal																
<b>Idiosyncratic L1 use</b>	11	10	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	8	6	0	3
Total % of idiosyncratic	9%	8%			9%	10%					18%		73%	60%		30%
Total	121	119	1	0	27	10	3	0	4	1	39	6	47	31	0	71

Table 8.6: The sum and percentage of teachers' L1 use in both observations

	Ob1	Ob2	Ayisha		Tala		Sally		Karima		Rana		Lama		Maysa	
Sum of pedagogical	70	83	0	0	19	8	0	0	0	0	25	3	26	23	0	49
<b>Percentage of instances</b>	58%	70%	0	0	27%	10%	0	0	0	0	36%	3%	37%	28%	0	59%
Sum of classroom management	28	24	0	0	2	0	1	0	4	1	11	3	10	2	0	18
<b>Percentage of instances</b>	23%	20%	0	0	7%	0	33%	0	14%	4%	39%	13%	36%	8%	0	75%
Sum of Affective & interpersonal	12	2	1	0	5	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	1
<b>Percentage of instances</b>	10%	2%	8%		42%	50%	17%				8.3%		25%			50%
Sum of Idiosyncratic L1 use	11	10	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	8	6	0	3
<b>Percentage of instances</b>	9%	8%			9%	10%					18%		73%	60%		30%
Total L1 use	121	119	1	0	27	10	3	0	4	1	39	6	47	31	0	71
Average L1 use	17.3	17														
<b>Total Percentage of instances</b>			1%	0%	22%	8%	3%	0%	3%	1%	32%	5%	39%	26%	0%	60%

The small number of teachers and the differences between them, mean it is impossible to generalise about their Arabic use. In both observations, Ayisha, Sally, and Karima had very low Arabic usage, while Rana, Lama and Tala used some Arabic primarily for pedagogical purposes, although the amount of Arabic fell in the second observation. However, Maysa who used Arabic extensively in the second observation did not use Arabic at all in the first. It is worth taking into consideration that the observer's presence might have influenced the seven teachers' CS.

From the first set of observations (see Table 8.6), it was apparent that the teachers primarily used Arabic for pedagogical functions (58%), then classroom management (23%), then interpersonal functions (10%), and least for idiosyncratic reasons (9%). In the second set of observations, there was a slight drop in Arabic use in the classroom management category (20%) and a major drop in Arabic for interpersonal functions (2%). Meanwhile, the category of idiosyncratic L1 use, the percentage remained relatively stable (8%). In the pedagogical functions category, there was a slight increase in Arabic use (70%). This could be attributed to Maysa's excessive use of L1 in the second observation (60%). She mainly used the L1 to check students' comprehension, elicit responses, and explain grammar. In addition, she used Arabic to a lesser extent for clarifying task instructions, reiteration, and providing feedback to students.

## **8.7 Comparisons across the seven teachers**

### **8.7.1 Pedagogical Functions**

In the pre-treatment observations, the teachers used Arabic primarily to explain grammar and elicit responses from students. Of the seven teachers, Lama, Rana, and Tala used the most Arabic for pedagogical functions (37% and 32%, and 27% respectively) (see Table 8.6).

In the post-treatment observations, Ayisha never used Arabic. Rana and Tala's amount of Arabic fell significantly to (3% and 10% respectively), whereas Lama's amount of Arabic dropped slightly (28%).

In the case of Karima, even though she believed L1 reassured students and aided comprehension, her classroom observations revealed she did not use L1 for pedagogical functions.

Maysa's results were particularly interesting. In the first observation, I witnessed no instances of Arabic switches. However, in the second observation her amount of Arabic use was high (60%) (see Figures 8.1 and 8.2).

Figure 8:1 Frequencies of teachers' L1 use in the first observation

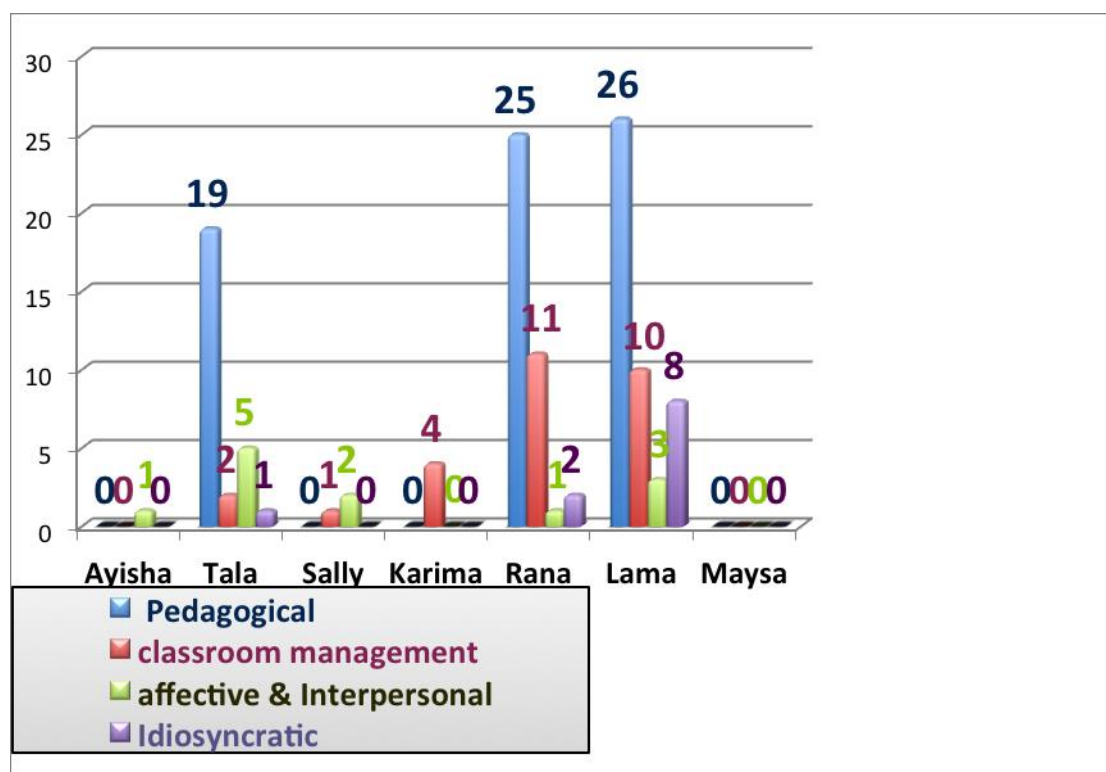
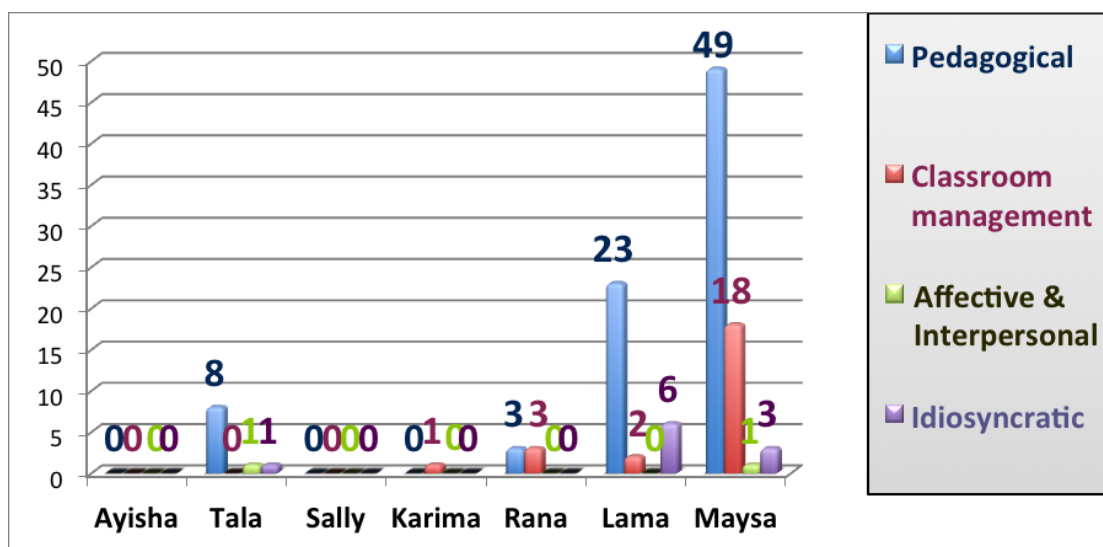


Figure 8:2 Frequencies of teachers' L1 use in the second observation



The highest amount of Arabic use during the post observation was recorded for Maysa and Lama. The four main reasons for their frequent switches were: eliciting responses, providing feedback, checking comprehension and explaining grammar. Although they reported in the interviews that they used Arabic “as the last resort”, in classrooms it appeared that both frequently use it as the first option in order to carry out these functions. It is likely that Arabic intruded into their discourse subconsciously, as the instances in which they used it did not appear systematic.

### 8.7.2 Classroom management

The pre-treatment observation data revealed that the teachers preferred to use Arabic occasionally in classroom to attract students' attention, highlight important information, and indicate topic switches. The teachers who used the most Arabic during the pre-treatment observations were Lama (37%) and Rana (36%) (see Table 8.6).

There were no instances of Arabic usage by Ayisha and Maysa for this purpose. However, attracting students' attention was the chief purpose for switching to Arabic for both and Lama and Karima. Additionally, highlighting important



information and indicating topic switches triggered Rana and Lama's switches to Arabic.

The classroom observations revealed, as illustrated in Figures 8.1 and 8.2, that the percentage of Arabic use for classroom management fell significantly in the post-treatment observations (20%). Rana and Lama's amount of Arabic dropped to (13% and 8% respectively). They switched to Arabic for classroom management purposes, despite the fact that in the post-interviews they reported they did not support Arabic use for this purpose. However, Karima's Arabic usage reduced, as she only switched to Arabic once to draw students' attention even though she expressed support for Arabic use in the pre- and post-interviews. Ayisha, and Tala, on the other hand refrained from using Arabic for classroom management.

In the case of Maysa, who expressed a strong opinion in the post-interviews about not using Arabic for this purpose, her amount of Arabic increased considerably in the second observation (75%). The chief triggers for switches to Arabic were to give instructions, draw students' attention, and indicate topic switches.

### **8.7.3 Affective and Interpersonal**

In the pre-treatment observations, this category included 10% of the teachers' total Arabic use in all four categories. The teachers inserted some religious phrases and cultural words during the lessons. This subcategory comprised nearly half of the total teachers' Arabic usage within the affective and interpersonal category (42%). This was followed by the subcategory: teachers' Arabic use to add humour. Tala was one of the teachers who used Arabic most for affective functions. This could be because she was a non-Arabic speaking teacher and sensed that inserting some Arabic would help comfort her students. She used Arabic chiefly to add humour, insert words related to Arabic culture, and used less Arabic to praise students.

Among the seven teachers, Tala used the most of Arabic (42%) for this purpose in the pre-treatment observation. Sally also used Arabic twice during the first observation to add humour and build rapport with her students (see Table 8.5).

The percentage for the interpersonal and affective categories dropped significantly in the post-treatment observation to (2%). It appeared that the majority of the teachers felt the urge to minimise Arabic use after attending the workshops, as five teachers refrained from using Arabic. Tala and Maysa were the only ones who used Arabic to insert religious phrases and words associated with the Arabic culture.

#### **8.7.4 Idiosyncratic L1 use**

Of the four categories, this category accounted for the lowest percentage of total Arabic use in the pre-treatment observations (9%). In the post-treatment observations, the percentage remained relatively stable (8%) (see Table 8.5).

No instances of idiosyncratic L1 use were noted during Ayisha's, Tala's, Sally's and Maysa's classroom observations. Lama on the other hand used a high percentage (72%) in the pre-treatment observation, although this fell slightly in the second observation (60%). Less Arabic use for this function was observed in Rana's classroom (18%) in the pre-treatment observation, and no instances of idiosyncratic L1 use occurred in the post-treatment observation. A lower percentage was also noted in Tala's classroom interactions. Tala used Arabic the least among the three teachers in the first and second observations (9% and 10% respectively) (see Table 8.6).

In the current study, attendance at the workshops might have made the teachers more resistant to using Arabic when teaching, as after the workshops, the teachers began to express their belief that Arabic should be used in a "principled way". This concept was introduced in the workshops, and it was likely that the teachers interpreted it as minimising Arabic for teaching.

#### **8.8 Variability in Arabic use**

The analyses showed the amount of L1 varied from one teacher to another, ranging from 0% to 39% in the first observation, and from 0% 60% in the second observation. The mean of teachers' use of the L1 was relatively low in the first set of

observations (17.3%), and remained stable in the second set of observations (17%). I assumed that the percentage would increase after attendance at the workshops, due to discussing some of the benefits of using the L1 in classroom in other contexts.

Due to the ongoing debate about using the L1 in the L2 classroom, a number of studies in different contexts were conducted to explore the extent to which L1 was used in the L2 classroom. The amount of L1 in the present study is considered a mid-way percentage, when compared to Duff and Polio's (1990) results. The authors reported wide variability in the amount of L1 use, ranging from 90% in the highest case to 0%, with an average of about 27.8%. In a similar context, a lower percentage of L1 use was reported by Macaro (2001). His study revealed L1 use ranged between 0% and 15.2% of the lesson. In a similar context, a high percentage of L1 was reported by Hobbs et al. (2010). They reported that NNS teachers employed the L1 around 70% to 75% of the time, which dramatically opposed NS use of only 20% of the time. These results however need to be interpreted with caution, due to the different methods used to estimate the amount of L1 in classrooms, and the variation across contexts.

A lower percentage of L1 use was reported in contexts that differed from previous studies, but which were similar to the present study. Al-Abdan (1993) found that 75% of English language teachers used the L1 for around 10% of class time. The amount of L1 in the present study could be considered higher than the percentage reported by Al-Abdan (1993), although both studies were carried out in similar settings.

## **8.9 Tracing teachers' beliefs before and after attendance at workshops**

Teachers in the present study upheld the notion that L2 was the only acceptable medium to use inside the classroom to deliver the lessons, despite sharing the same L1 as the students. In general, Ayisha, Lama, Maysa, Rana, and Tala believed that using Arabic might be considered an easy option; one that they believed in the long term would not help their students to achieve proficiency in L2. Ayisha's ideal language use could be seen as dramatically opposite to that of

Karima's, in that Ayisha initially appeared to support maximising L2 use in the classroom, but had no choice but to use some L1 as a last resort. Although, her idealised concept was to teach English through English without any Arabic; discussing the results of eight empirical studies in different contexts appeared to have made her more tolerant of CS to some extent.

The same was true for Rana and Lama. After the workshops, in the post-treatment observations, they appeared more accepting of some L1 use in the classroom. This might be because that they sensed it was more natural, as bilinguals, to employ some L1, or they perhaps they became more aware that attempting to remain in the L2 throughout the whole lesson was too ambitious in practice. Furthermore, Rana, Tala, and Lama appeared to have become more aware of their use of CS for pedagogical functions and therefore decided to use less Arabic after the workshops. Meanwhile, in her lessons, Sally appeared more willing to use some Arabic as an additional resource to accommodate students' needs. Unfortunately, I did not get the opportunity to observe her after the workshops, as she was not given any teaching hours, yet it is possible that she made a conscious decision to utilise Arabic following the sessions.

Contradictions were detected in Maysa's data, as her views were contradictory, even within the pre-interview. She expressed the need to maximise students' exposure to English, but in reality after the workshops it was clear that she found it difficult to use English throughout the class. It was found that L1 use dominated her lessons and that her CS to L1 occurred after a short period of L2 explanation; leading to questions regarding how effectively she was developing her learners' L2 skills. Maysa was under the impression that she used English throughout the whole lesson, as she explained in the post-treatment interview that she had made a conscious decision to use Arabic after the workshops. However, the transcript of her second lesson illustrated a need for greater use of Arabic due to unforeseen events, to accommodate her students' needs, and to follow the strict pacing guide. Although, Maysa taught level three students in the first and the second observations, it is possible her increased usage of Arabic was because she taught a different group

of students in the second observation. This discrepancy between her self-reported use of Arabic and her actual performance might indicate her lack of awareness about her own practice. Furthermore, this lack of awareness might have caused a mismatch, leading to unprincipled use of Arabic.

#### **8.10 Nature of interaction in the classroom observed**

It was observed that the classroom strategies the teachers used were to some extent teacher-centred. Not only did the teachers control all of the classroom activities, but they also spent much more time speaking than their students did. This might have been the effect of the presence of an observer in the classroom, however. Although the teachers allowed the students to work in pairs and groups, and although the textbook used and the ELI policy endorse a Communicative Approach, the type of interaction was not purely communicative. If it were purely communicative this could have justified merging the functional categories (pedagogical and classroom management) used to classify CS, as all the communication could be regarded as communicative in such a class. It appears that the teachers used a mixture of different methods, integrating some communicative activities with repetition, explicit grammar teaching, translation of words and phrases. Although the teachers aimed to encourage their students to use instructional activities, such as games and problem solving to help them acquire linguistic and communicative competence in L2, the students speaking time appeared to be limited, which could have in turn affected the quality of the teacher student interaction in English. Lama, Rana, and Maysa were not teaching in L2 all the time. They explicitly explained grammatical rules using a combination of L1 and L2 instructions. Ayisha, Karima, Tala, and Sally on the other hand provided more L2 input. They allowed their students to listen to and respond mostly in L2. The Arab teachers had the option to either modify the L2 message, or use L1 at any time. The latter would be a more natural strategy, especially as they share the same L1 with the students. This could also prove helpful because sometimes it is easier to provide an L1 equivalent instead of relying on L2 linguistic modification, especially when encountering difficult concepts or grammar.

The students in general were given limited opportunities to elaborate on their

answers in their response turns, and were not asked to negotiate their answers in L2. The students also tended to respond in the L1. This might be because they knew their teachers shared similar backgrounds with them and that some teachers' themselves relied on L1 for explanations, which could have made students believe that the L1 should be the primary language for communication. In general, the students did not seem to be given opportunities to arrive at meanings and understand new concepts themselves. Instead, the teachers provided explanations throughout the lesson. This point was raised by Lo and Macaro (2012) in their study of secondary schools in Hong Kong, where students were not given an opportunity to test the hypotheses they formulated in English (L2). Lo and Macaro argue (2012, p. 47) that lack of practice in L2 deprives learners from increasing their L2 competence at a "sufficiently fast rate". The drawback of relying on L1, is that learners stop processing information in the L2, as they know their teachers will always provide translations for L2 information (Ford, 2009). This then limits students' chances of developing the ability to practise the L1, or negotiate meaning in the L1 (Lo & Macaro, 2012). This is not to imply that the teachers who frequently switched to L1 are inferior to those who refrained or implemented L1 in a more controlled way.

## **9 Discussion**

### **9.1 Introduction**

This study investigated whether workshops could influence teachers' beliefs and practices. It also contributed to our understanding of non-native English teachers' beliefs about L1 use in a higher educational setting in Saudi Arabia, a context that has not been adequately researched. Furthermore, it illuminated the tension between beliefs, and the way in which workshops can influence teachers' reflections on their own beliefs and practices. In the quantitative chapter (Chapter 5), teachers' beliefs about their L1 use and their students' L1 use were discussed. In the qualitative chapters (6, 7, & 8), seven teachers' beliefs and practices before and after workshops were explored. In this chapter, the results are discussed according to the research questions.

### **9.2 Possible impact of workshops on non-native English teachers' use of Arabic in classrooms: the development of teachers' beliefs and practices (RQs, 1 & 2)**

The results of the current study contribute to existing literature about the potential for workshops to inform in-service teacher education, to influence beliefs and practices. The workshops had some impact on teachers' beliefs and practices, although that impact was not homogeneous. I presumed, because I looked at a group of teachers working in the same context, that I would find a general pattern emerging. However, each of them responded to the workshops differently, despite having taught the same curriculum within the same prescribed time frame, facing similar students in the same classroom conditions, and being confined by the same pacing guide.

The workshops gave the teachers an opportunity to explore empirical research in other contexts; this to some extent freed them theoretically from the constraints imposed on their own teaching context. Although I do not claim that workshops can alter prior beliefs, research on teacher development has shown that allowing teachers to examine their own theories and explore psychological, experiential, and contextual

factors, can later inform their practices (Borg, 1999a, p. 163). Although the workshops did not reveal a substantial change in teachers' beliefs and practices, they did help the teachers to re-evaluate their initial beliefs, by attempting to relate their beliefs and practices to the empirical studies presented to them. For Rana, Lama, and Maysa, the impact was more evident than for the other four teachers Ayisha, Sally, Tala and Karima. The lack of any shift in Karima and Ayisha's classroom practices does not necessarily mean their beliefs did not change. Sometimes people require time to make sense of, process and utilise new information presented to them (cf. Donaghue, 2003; Mattheoudakis, 2007). Borg (1999a) argues that when teachers reflect on what they do not do in their classroom, they may then start to increase instructional repertoires that they had formerly dismissed, conceivably without thorough reflection; i.e. teachers might start to consider alternatives.

For Lama, Rana, and Maysa, it appears that the workshop prompted deep reflection, tapping into their ideal language teacher selves, as they explored their goals and practices in relation to the workshop content (Kubanyiova, 2016). Although the workshops led to some dissonance with Lama, Rana, and Maysa, this is not necessarily an indication of systematic engagement in the content, as there is no indication that they would apply what had been presented to them. Although Kubanyiova (2016, p. 62) argues that if the educator fails to provoke a sense of dissonance then s/he might hinder conceptual change, she herself acknowledges that dissonance is only a requirement and there are other internal and external aspects (e.g. colleagues, students' expectations, time, resources) that teachers should perceive as sufficient to trigger change.

Furthermore, Kubanyiova (2016, p. 62) argues that lack of conceptual change occurs when teachers' selves are not implicated by the educational content, and in this case teachers do not experience dissonance or discrepancy. This was true to a great extent for Ayisha and Karima. It could be that when teachers are presented with new ideas that do not accord with their existing beliefs, and which in turn require radical change, they resist them. They might have felt their possible selves did not align with the content of some of the articles presented, which advocated L1 use for



communication. They might have felt that their former experiences, which had proven to them that not using L1 means they are better at teaching, made them less likely to engage in deep level cognitive reflection; hence, their beliefs and practices remained fairly stable.

It was found that the workshops provided opportunities for the teachers to re-evaluate ideas that were not part of their current thinking; this was evident in six ways.

- 1- Realising or labelling their positions regarding CS;
- 2- Re-evaluating existing beliefs;
- 3- Strengthening existing beliefs;
- 4- Adopting new ideas to integrate into their current thinking (e.g. in the post-treatment interviews, the teachers used terms and concepts that were introduced in the workshops);
- 5- Easing a sense of guilt (to some extent this applied for Maysa, Lama, Rana, Ayisha, and Karima); and
- 6- Providing concrete evidence about CS.

### **9.2.1 Process of reflection among the seven teachers**

Due to the fact that the teachers' background education, especially during their schooling years had been characterised by rote memorisation and drilling, it was assumed that the teachers would not be self-critical. It was also assumed that the teachers would remain at the descriptive first level of reflection (as discussed in Chapter 3, sections 3.5 and 3.6). The descriptive level appears to be the easier to negotiate and apply than dialogic and the critical reflection (as discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.6), because these demand more time to develop (Hattons & Smith, 1995). However, teachers in the current study exhibited knowledge of the students' backgrounds and the context, showing awareness of the dilemma they faced when not being able to run the classroom using L2 only. The teachers also showed they were true experts, demonstrating that they had the ability to make judgments based on their own previous experiences (Farrell, 2013) as EFL teachers.

When the writers' conclusions in the third workshop (see Chapter 7, sections 7.5.3 & 6.5.4) did not support the evidence provided in their research, the teachers voiced doubts appeared about the efficacy of their research. For example, in the third workshop, Sally seemed more confident about challenging the writers' conclusions about the use of glosses, although some of the time, the teachers appeared simply to agree with the researchers. However, the teachers proved to be confident about challenging the status quo and showed autonomy in decision-making in both the interviews and the workshops. This development of reflective thinking was fostered by group discussions, which encouraged them to learn from others' experiences. Mann, Gordon, and Macleod (2007) argue that group discussions are among the most influential factors supporting the development of reflection and reflective practices. Rana in the post-interview stated that after the workshop she had reflected on her own use of CS. Hatton and Smith (1995) suggest that engaging with another person is an important strategy to foster reflective thinking. The workshops in the current study enabled the teachers to talk with, question, and confront others to develop self-evaluation skills.

Here I question the extent to which, in the process of reflecting, the teachers were able to link their beliefs to genuine classroom interactions. Some teachers, as mentioned above, were not conscious of their own classroom practices, or sometimes went against their beliefs because of the diverse factors discussed previously. The desire to conduct an L1 free classroom was fundamental to their internalised image of a good L2 teacher (for six of the teachers), which shaped their behaviour in classroom. Their emphasis on maintaining an L2 only classroom reflected a desire to model and enact their images of an ideal language teacher self (Kubanyiova, 2015). However, in their minds, the benefits of L2 only do not override the fact that it is unachievable, as Maysa and Rana explained in the post-interviews.

Their responses showed that the reflections they engaged in were not limited to the first stage "descriptive"; the teachers were not simply describing their own experiences but also paying attention to their students' views and attitudes. The

teachers in this study were considered experts in terms of their knowledge of their learners, learning and teaching, and their ability to access prior experiences (Farrell, 2013). They reflected on their knowledge about their learners when discussing promoting learning, and suggested alternative methods to use with their students based on the workshop input. When making an instructional decision, Ayisha and Tala appeared to draw on a wide repertoire of strategies and routines gained from their teaching experiences (Farrell, 2013), and they were comfortable expressing the decisions they made.

The teachers evaluated themselves critically and showed insight into the reasons behind some of their actions, also proposing alternative teaching techniques as explained. Both Karima and Maysa in the post-interviews mentioned trying different techniques when their students failed to understand them.

The teachers' perceptions of teaching were not characterised by simplicity. This was evident in the workshops, and the extent to which they cared about their students. The teachers' acknowledged that they use more L1 than they would ideally wish to; they explained this inhibited their teaching, and that they were not able to produce the outcomes they initially expected to achieve in classroom. Maysa in the post-interview admitted that she deviated from her plans frequently. This is not necessarily negative, as it suggests the teachers are highly flexible and readily adapt to their students' needs. In addition, some important social and context related goals could have been in play.

During the workshops, especially the third and fourth ones, the teachers started to make connections between theory and practice. They reflected on the meaning of the keyword method and its applicability in the classroom, as well as the extent to which the method can help students. This concept had not been considered by them previously, but it became relevant through the medium of group discussion. Although the term keyword method had already been explained in the presentation, the concept created a cognitive conflict for Ayisha, prompting her to ask for repetition. Svalberg (2015) notes that cognitive conflict can occur when what is

being explained conflicts with prior knowledge, or when there is lack of prior knowledge. Teachers' attempts at resolution would be expected to prompt them to revise prior knowledge and develop new knowledge (Svalberg, 2015). The teachers in the current study became aware of gaps in their knowledge. While Sally in the fourth workshop regarded this a useful mechanism for learning, Maysa expressed a preference for incidental learning.

Their views expanded to encompass their students' learning, and the teachers also began to appreciate the significance of group collaboration in the teaching profession, including appreciation of the role of educators. They thought it was valuable to hear about other teachers' strategies and opinions. This was in line with studies conducted by Crookes and Arkaki (1999), and Yuan and Lee (2014), who carried out research with experienced and pre-service teachers respectively. Both studies reported that the teachers (in their studies) found collaboration and listening to their colleagues' ideas an enriching experience. The teachers in the present study also appraised the content of the workshops, and perceived it as positive to their professional development.

In the fourth workshop, the opportunity to question their methods and techniques denoted a predominantly higher level of reflection: "dialogic" (Hatton & Smith, 1995). Rana in the fourth workshop questioned whether the students were learning when CS was employed, acknowledging it was a time saver but asking whether it was good for the students. Rana's dialogic reflection included exploring reasons, stepping back and pondering (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 42). During the process of reflection, the teachers' beliefs about CS use expanded, and they began recognising themselves not only as teachers but also as carers; indeed, Tala in the second workshop noted that she used CS to maintain connectivity. Sally in the post-interview also realised that she used it to build rapport with her students. They may not have been aware of their own practices until they discussed them in the workshop, which is in line with conclusions drawn by Farrell and Lim (2005).

Farrell (2013) suggests that learners' involvement in reflection and decision-making are characteristic of teachers' expertise. However, the teachers in the current study did not raise topics such as learner autonomy and making students responsible for their own learning. In addition, they did not mention incorporating students' responses into their lessons planning. This might be because the discussion groups mainly concentrated on issues relating to CS, and not teachers' pedagogy or lesson planning.

### **9.3 The extent to which teachers' beliefs and practices correlated (RQ 3)**

There can be mismatches between what teachers report they do and what they actually do in the classroom (Borg, 2003). It is common for language teachers to either underestimate or under-report their use of CS (Hall & Cook, 2012). This departure from stated beliefs could be undertaken either unconsciously or consciously, in order to respond to syllabus requirements, examination periods, pacing guides, students' proficiency levels, and ELI policy. English teachers might not be fully aware of the extent to which they were employing Arabic in the classroom, and this lack of awareness could lead to inconsistencies between their stated beliefs and their actual practices (Polio & Duff, 1994). In the pre- and post-interviews, Ayisha, Sally, and Maysa reported that English should be the only medium of instruction, and that Arabic should be used purely as a last resort. Ayisha and Sally's stated beliefs about Arabic use were entirely congruent with their classroom practices. Conversely, Maysa's reported beliefs about the use of Arabic and her actual practice did not correlate closely, as her usage increased in the post-treatment observation.

The interview data revealed Karima was a strong advocate of the "optimal position" (Macaro, 2001). She reported in the interviews that Arabic use might increase comprehension among students and elevate the classroom atmosphere. Nevertheless, from the extracts examined across both observation data, it was found that Karima appeared to be one of the teachers who used Arabic less frequently. It was likely that her students had a good level of proficiency or high motivation to learn English. However, Karima's stated belief about Arabic use was not incongruent

with her classroom practice, if optimal use of Arabic meant it was not required at all. It could be that her optimal view of CS was to encourage translations from learners. Inducing translations from students was reported as a technique by Borg (1998). In his study of grammar teaching, a recurrent strategy employed by the teachers involved encouraging students to refer to their L1 (the students were of different European nationalities). According to the teacher in Borg's study, CS makes students aware that some grammatical rules exist in their native language in nearly exactly the same way as they do in the L2. In this case, CS is beneficial, as it acts as an "eye opener" for the students (Borg, 1998, p. 18).

From the extracts examined across the interview and observation data, it was apparent that Lama, Rana, and Tala's stated beliefs were incongruent with their classroom interactions with students. The teachers' care in the interviews could be attributed to their awareness that relying on Arabic was undesirable according to the institution's policy. Li and Walsh (2011, p. 52) argued that the relationships between "stated and enacted" beliefs are neither linear nor straightforward. It is likely that Maysa, Rana, and Lama hoped to deliver the lesson using English as the sole medium of instruction. It is not likely that the motives behind using Arabic proceeded from the students' inability to comprehend teachers' exclusive English input, because I observed that the same group of students, when taught by Ayisha who did not use Arabic in class. Thus, it could be attributed to other factors, such as time constraints that forced the teacher to react by using more Arabic with students, despite aiming to maximise English use in the limited class time available (Littlewood & Yu, 2009). Additionally, as the teachers were bilingual, they might have used Arabic as a strategy to maintain open communication with their students. This finding would then corroborate Borg's (2003) and Mattheoudakis' (2007) conclusions, that teachers might face classroom realities that constrain their abilities to give instructions that align with their personal beliefs.

There was also some discrepancy between the answers given in the questionnaire and those in the interviews and observations. These contradictory responses could have arisen because the teachers felt suspicious or uneasy when answering the

surveys. This was an issue raised by other researchers in the Saudi context, who reported that teachers might feel that their answers would be used against them (e.g. Al-Johani, 2009; Al-Mandil, 1999). Al-Johani (2009) also suggests that cultural issues, such as the way authority is perceived can also inform survey responses. Although the teachers in the current study were assured that their responses would be treated as confidential and be used only for research purposes, it is possible that they were still suspicious that their responses would be shared with the authorities in the female section of the ELI. Another possible explanation for the contradictions between the questionnaire and the interviews and the observations was that the teachers, especially those from Saudi Arabia, were raised in a collective society, and so their sense of individualism is low. It is possible that they reported what they felt was expected of them, not what they actually did in classroom. As Al-Johani (2009, p. 107) explains, “It was very important for the teachers to present themselves in a good and positive light and to conform to the group expectations”.

This discrepancy between beliefs and practices corresponds with previous research revealing incongruities and tensions among teachers themselves, and between teachers’ and policy makers. The discrepancy between teachers’ beliefs and practices has been reported in many contexts (e.g. Alrabah et al., 2016; Tsagari & Diakou, 2015). It has further been suggested that the top down model forces teachers to remain in the L2, as ignoring the students’ L1 is utterly impractical, especially when working with lower level students (e.g. Kang, 2008; Su, 2006).

#### **9.4 Teachers’ beliefs about their use of Arabic in the (ELI) (RQ4)**

Despite the teachers’ opinions that their Arabic use would encourage the students to use more Arabic, previous studies evaluating the relationship between the amount of teachers’ use of CS and its effect on students’ amount of CS delivered inconsistent findings. For instance, according to Macaro (2001, p. 544) some CS by teachers during the lesson does not appear to affect students’ amount of CS. In contrast, Thompson (2006) found a strong correlation between instructors’ amount of English (L1) and students’ English use. One possible explanation for the discrepancy between the two findings could be the age factor. While Macaro (2001) examined

learners of school age, Thompson examined learners at tertiary level. These findings are too limited to determine reliably whether the amount of teachers' use of CS affects students' CS.

Five of the teachers' in the current study expressed beliefs that appeared to echo Polio and Duff's (1994) views, which suggest a negative view of CS use endures to the present day, irrespective of the context. In contrast with Macaro (2001), Polio and Duff (1994) believe that CS should be excluded in language classrooms. Polio and Duff (1994, p. 323) wrote that teachers' use of CS: "reduces the amount of input presented to learners and, furthermore, offers little incentive for students to initiate meaningful interaction in the TL themselves". Polio and Duff further argued that learners' failure to develop competence in L2 is attributed to a lack of "meaningful interaction in FL during class time" (Polio & Duff, p. 313). According to them, meaningful means exclusive L2 input and output. Such a belief is in line with Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis, which allows no role for CS in the classroom.

However, Krashen's (1982) affective Filter hypothesis can be used as evidence to counter this argument. He suggests that teachers should create a low affective filter environment, to allow learners to be more open to comprehensible input. It may be the case that the option of linking meaningful interaction with exclusive L2 use has been exaggerated. It could further be argued that strictly maintaining an L2 only setting will inhibit meaningful interaction from taking place. Moreover, such an environment denies the merits of CS, as it can play an essential role in fostering learners' metalinguistic awareness. This was evident in Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling's (2009) study. Metalinguistic commentaries provided by teachers were discovered to be effective as tools for aiding comprehension. Evidence was also provided by García and Vázquez (2012), who showed that highlighting the differences between L1 and L2, aided learners' metalinguistic awareness. Teachers in their study were aware that cross-linguistic comparisons between L1 and L2 strengthened concepts, notions, and data storage. Similarly, for the participants in the present study, comparing Arabic and English could be valuable as a tool for



stimulating learning. Therefore, it is suggested that Polio and Duff's (1994) negative view about L1 was influenced principally by their research context. Specifically, their article was written when the communicative method was dominant (the late 1970s and the early 1980s), when students' L1 use was not permitted in EFL classrooms (Borg, 1998, p. 18).

#### **9.4.1 Factors affecting teachers' L1 use**

Many factors both internal and external affect teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. Data analyses revealed the following factors appear to influence teachers' language choice to different degrees:

- 1- Teacher related: background education, teaching experiences, personal experiences;
- 2- Learner related: low proficiency level, affective reasons; and
- 3- External factors: curriculum guidelines, examinations, available time, ELI policy.

##### **9.4.1.1 Factors related to teachers**

The teachers' responses in the pre- and post-interviews suggested that they were heavily guided by a combination of their previous education, teaching experience, and personal reading, which played a key role in shaping their beliefs about the value of Arabic. The post interviews and observations revealed the workshops were likely to have had some impact on some teachers' beliefs and practices, as some of them discussed using less Arabic when teaching and were openly discussing new ideas that had been introduced in the workshops (see section 9.2). It is worth repeating here that there was a balance between the materials presented advocating and criticising the use of CS.

The teachers' experiences as learners may shape their conceptualisations of L2 teaching and most probably will continue to have an important impact throughout their careers (Borg, 2003). This was very true for Karima, as she did not switch to Arabic as her supervisor in the undergraduate year had advised, despite her expressed intention to use it to explain grammar and translate difficult words. Her

belief was in agreement with results obtained by Bramald, Hardman and Leat (1995) and Numrich (1996). Bramald et al. (1995) suggest that student teachers' ideas about learning and teaching develop from their educational experience, especially when it has been positive (discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.7). In contrast, previous experience as an English learner did not appear to influence Maysa's beliefs. Despite her reliance on Arabic in her undergraduate years in the English department, she reiterated her lack of support for this practice in both interviews.

The teachers in this study were also profoundly influenced by their teaching experience, which appears to have had a strong and lasting impact on their practices. This finding is consistent with data obtained by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999). When discussing the views and practices of in-service teachers, they reported that teachers' L2 teaching was derived from their personal experiences rather than programmes or in-service training. That is not to say that the workshops or professional training in the current study suggest no benefit, as it can be beneficial to reinforce and validate beliefs that have been derived from experience. Teachers need to become more aware of their beliefs and their CS in the classroom, to help them make more careful decisions about when and how much L1 to use. Sally reported that engaging in additional reading about the first and second language acquisition had a significant impact on her belief. This result corroborated Assalahi's (2013) findings that a mixture of training, experience, critical reflection, and contextual factors are the sources informing teachers' practices. Sally's response also supported Peacock's results (2001); i.e. the student teachers in his study benefited from reading material more than from the education programmes they attended. Reading material had a positive effect on trainees' beliefs, because they suggested incontrovertible evidence from previous literature.

#### **9.4.1.2 Factors related to students**

In this study, the teachers strongly advocated maximising their students' exposure to L2 by providing sufficient amount of comprehensible input. In their opinions, as the classroom is the only setting where L2 is practiced, CS is not favoured but is inevitable, reinforcing Macaro's (2005, p. 68) view: "the majority of

bilingual teachers regard codeswitching as unfortunate and regrettable but necessary” and “that bilingual teachers believe that the L2 should be the predominant language of interaction in the classroom”. Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain (2009, p. 8) point out that despite the growing body of literature within the field of foreign language teaching, whether in primary, secondary or higher education, weakening the virtual position’s supremacy among researchers, it is apparent this position still maintains significant support. This view was reflected in their study, as six teachers were in general agreement with the basic assumption of CLT that L2 should be used as much as possible, and that there were risks associated with overusing CS. These risks included an overstated impression of the correspondence between L1 and L2 and learners’ subsequent failure to develop the ability to think in L2 (Bruen & Kelly, 2014). Despite the six teachers’ future goals being to maximise L2 in their lessons, drawing a distinction between ideal self and ought to self is not always a straightforward matter (Kubanyiova, 2016). Teachers declare that they regard ideal teaching to be an L1 free classroom, but this might not be a genuinely self-directed goal. This desire could refer to ought-to-self perceived responsibilities (Kubanyiova, 2016) arising from their learners’ or employers’ expectations that they use L2 only in the classroom.

According to the study findings, the perceived need to avoid leaving students behind led the English teachers to introduce Arabic into their classrooms. This finding is consistent with previous research conducted in different contexts (e.g. Bensen & Çavuşoğlu, 2013; Jingxia, 2010; Kang, 2008; Sharma, 2006). Lucas and Katz (1994) claim that if non-native students are denied access to their L1, they will fall behind in their academic development. The teachers in the current study appear to respect the bilingual reality of their particular context, and used CS when teaching English because they found it essential to do so. Macaro (2005) argues that teachers who choose to switch codes allow students to tap into a broader pool of language resources, and the students’ thinking in L1 may produce more elaborate content and greater risk-taking output than thinking in L2 alone would. Based on the findings in their study (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.11), Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012) provide a counter argument, as they found students’ performances where CS occurred was

lower than in L2 only settings. They claimed that this might have arisen because the L1-L2 instruction might have encouraged students to rely overly on translations. The only explanation for the contradictory views is that Macaro (2005) based his argument on focus-on-form vocabulary acquisition studies, in which he found that some CS may be beneficial for students on the short term, whereas Viakinnou-Brinson et al. (2012) investigated different aspect of focus-on-form acquisition.

The teachers in this study shared similar opinions regarding CS to L1 as potentially necessary for lower level students for several reasons, including for confidence building and clarification of meaning (Bensen & Çavuşoğlu, 2013). Despite the negative feelings associated with CS it appears that complete avoidance of CS, as advocated by approaches originating from the Direct Method, does not reflect classroom reality at the ELI. Their answers indicate that Arabic cannot be excluded in the language classroom, especially with students of low level proficiency whether in levels 1 or 4. The teachers in the current study used L1 even with students in levels 3 and 4, who would not be classified as beginners.

#### **9.4.1.3 External Factors**

Five teachers in the current study used L1 to the extent that they felt was suitable for their students, but this does not mean they used it appropriately at all times. The teachers felt bound to follow the curriculum guidelines. It could be said that the teachers in the current study, especially the Saudis were affected by the way they were brought up, which informed their assumptions about their responsibilities as teachers. Middle Eastern teachers are brought up in societies that believe in a single authority, which is usually male. As a sign of respect, this authority should not be questioned. This ideology is reflected in the educational setting, so when teachers are provided with pacing guides or teachers' books they might unconsciously feel obliged to follow them.

The above notwithstanding, the "One size fits all English only policy" (McMillan & Rivers, 2011) played a less important role than teaching experience in teachers' decisions about Arabic use. Teachers' CS use did not appear to be dictated

by ELI policy. Before and after the workshops, the teachers reported a lack of interest in following ELI guidelines, because they believed policy makers are too removed from daily classroom interaction. The teachers, however, argued that they should be the ones to decide what should happen in the classroom, based on their students' attitudes and motivation to learn English.

The discrepancy between official policies and classroom practices in the current study matched those observed in earlier studies, such as those of Raschka et al. (2009) and Su (2006). The literature has shown that the monolingual approach is largely impractical. Furthermore, when pressuring students to obey a monolingual language policy, successful engagement with tasks will be shut down and replaced by "safe", teacher fronted interaction patterns, which involve minimal authentic communication (Willians, 2011, p. 35). The discrepancy between policy and practice suggests that, across different contexts, classroom reality means power proceeds from the teacher not policy. More research however is necessary before policy makers and researchers can provide transparent and applicable proposals about the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms (Lee & Macaro, 2013).

Some of teachers' reasons for CS use were not systematic. The teachers remained convinced that their CS to L1 was driven by external factors, rather than their own proactive role as educators in control of their classes. This study suggests teachers may need to re-examine their unprincipled CS and make an effort to develop an alternative pedagogy, to allow more principled CS in the classroom. Moreover, in a setting where CS to L1 is driven by the need to keep up with the pacing guide, save time, or prepare students for examinations, then their switches might not be aiding students' learning; hence, teachers should adhere predominantly to teaching in L2. Possibly, knowing their methods ensure their students pass their examinations successfully might lead to complacency in FL teachers' minds. This might further lead them to use L1 to fulfil this temporary aim. Based on classroom observations, it was observed that some teachers were not even conscious about the proportion of CS they were using, although they reported in the interviews that they used it within limits. It should be highlighted that unplanned use of CS does not

measure up to Macaro's (2009, pp. 38-9) definition of the optimal position, which expects teachers to make a judgement on "the possible detrimental effects of not drawing" on learners' L1. Notions concerning the principled and optimal use of L1 may be theoretically plausible; however, it is difficult for many bilingual teachers to apply this to classroom interaction daily, because of the constraints mentioned.

One possible way to optimise CS, as Swain and Lapkin (2013) advise, is that teachers should make their expectations about L1-L2 use clear to students to create a comfortable environment in the classroom. Another possible way to optimise CS could be for teachers to consciously plan to use it when explaining difficult L2 lexical items (e.g. abstract words) with no L1 cognates, especially with words that are too difficult to explain by paraphrasing or those represented through pictures or gestures (Mcmillan & Turnbull, 2009). This suggestion is based on the assumption that banning CS from the Communicative Language classroom may deprive learners of cognitive and metacognitive opportunities, as some vocabulary items may be better internalised when providing corresponding L1 meanings, because they trigger deeper semantic processing than L2 definitions or paraphrasing (Macaro, 2009). We might be beginning to see the classroom as a bilingual community and students as aspiring bilinguals, but for this to be successful, a change in attitude is required to negotiate how much CS should be used and for what purpose (Levine, 2011) (Recommended guidelines for optimal L1 use are discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.4.6).

#### **9.4.1.4 Functions of L1 according to the teachers**

CS to Arabic is commonplace among some teachers; four out of seven of the teachers in this study used L1 during both observations, not only for pedagogical purposes, but also classroom management, and to a lesser extent for affective and interpersonal functions (as discussed in Chapter 8, sections 8.6 and 8.7). In the light of these findings, it appears that Turnbull's (2001, p. 537) point is true and applicable to the current situation at the ELI; i.e. there is no requirement to "license teachers to use the L1; many do so in any case".

Despite teachers using CS in the present study for a variety of reasons, they still felt guilty about CS. Similar feelings of guilt have been observed in many studies (e.g. Auerbach, 1993), and might indicate that teachers are aware they are not adopting CS because it is best practice, but because they feel they have no choice. Their guilt, and the need to justify their use of CS when asked reflects the maximal (Macaro, 2001) approach, whereby a teacher does not view CS as a valuable tool but as something used because of factors linked to either the teachers, learners, or context.

The teachers in the current study found Arabic helpful to explain vocabulary and grammar, and to provide instructions for carrying out difficult activities. This is in line with the several learning contexts identified by Macaro (2005), in which the L1 is used to provide complex procedural instructions, translations and explicit grammar structures. Macaro (2006) points out that CS is an important communication strategy for resolving breakdowns in classroom discourse. Karima and Maysa took a pragmatic approach to language teaching, by expressing the need to use L1 when explaining English instructions as a resource that can usefully aid language learning. Such justifications were reported in a similar context by Assalahi (2013) and Bensen and Çavuşoğlu (2013). The beliefs presented in my study might well have been based on the teachers' prior experiences of having used CS in their lessons. It is also probable that their choices were influenced by the difficulties associated with the activities themselves. It might be that teachers prefer to give instructions, especially homework instructions, using CS to avoid the possibility of confusion arising among students. Although teachers' opinions were divided on the closed questionnaire, in the first phase, concerning the use of Arabic to explain grammatical points, there was a consensus among the teachers in the pre-treatment interviews that they used Arabic for this purpose. Similarities in the results in different contexts reveal that despite context, FL teachers might speculate that CS use raises students' awareness of the similarities and differences between linguistic structures in both languages. Cook (2001) argues that employing CS to convey the meaning of a word or a sentence recognises that both languages are closely

connected in the mind. According to him, CS is an “efficient way” to make learners feel “natural” about using L2 inside the classroom (Cook, 2001, p. 414).

Regarding classroom management, unlike the teachers in Macaro’s (2001) and Sharma’s (2006) studies, the teachers in the present study used CS least for reprimanding students. This difference could be attributable to the age factor, as the teachers in the other studies were dealing with school level students, whereas the teachers in the present study were teaching tertiary level students.

Prior to the workshops, using CS for affective purposes was another main reason for teachers’ CS use, as L1 tends to be more powerful and influential for communicating emotions and breaking down barriers (AlMulhim, 2014). Teachers expressed a preference for telling jokes in Arabic to maintain a “non-threatening environment” (Raschka et al., 2009, p. 164). After the workshops, only one teacher, Karima, still reiterated that her students use CS for affective reasons. She wrote in the questionnaire that they feel more comfortable using Arabic, because they have mastered the language. Her response suggests she felt that optimal L1 use could be achieved by allowing students to use it to feel more confident, but that teachers should refrain from CS. In fact, CS might be viewed as a necessity when both teachers and students share the same L1. It can become a bridge to establish friendly relationships and make the classroom atmosphere more convivial. In addition, removing this practice could affect motivation and confidence negatively, consequently, slowing linguistic development (Eldridge, 1996).

The findings of this study provide some preliminary suggestions for judicious CS use, showing that teachers’ CS to L1 may be acceptable in circumstances where it can help ease learner tension and reduce cognitive burden, as suggested by Macaro (2005). CS is not only beneficial for beginner and intermediate learners; it can to some extent benefit advanced learners, by reducing the cognitive load demands on working memory when attempting to process texts. Moreover, it can provide rapid storage of an L1-L2 equivalent that they were not aware of previously. Wigglesworth (2003, p. 23) states that if L1 is completely prohibited from the classroom, it results



in “limiting language learning activities in their complexity”. More research however is needed to help teachers recognise the point at which limiting interaction in the L2 becomes counterproductive (Bruen & Kelly, 2014).

## **10 Conclusion**

### **10.1 Introduction**

In an attempt to compare teachers' beliefs and practices about their own L1 use before and after the workshops, this study contained two phases, posing five related questions. Phase one consisted of collecting data about teachers' beliefs about the functions of L1 in the classroom, origins of teachers' beliefs, the factors that potentially influence teachers' and students' L1 use, and the policy of the ELI, from a single source. Phase two, consisted of collecting multiple sources of data to explore the issues raised in depth and to compare seven teachers' beliefs and practices before and after professional development workshops to determine the extent to which they effectively raised the teachers' awareness and challenged their prior beliefs.

In this chapter, I revisit the research questions and discuss the main study findings. Subsequently, I address some limitations of the study, and discuss the possible implications for teachers and programme designers, putting forward some recommendations that are relevant to L2 teaching in Saudi Arabia. Finally, I offer some suggestions for further research.

### **10.2 Revisiting the research questions**

Below, I elaborate on each finding in reference to the research questions. First, I refer to background research questions numbered 4 and 5, before moving on to discuss the responses to questions 1 to 3.

#### **10.2.1 RQ4. What are teachers' beliefs about their use of Arabic in the English Language Institute (ELI)?**

Concerning pedagogical functions, the data analysis revealed that teachers do not always perceive Arabic as a favourable tool in the language classroom. Although I was expecting more support for L1 use for explaining grammar, clarifying difficult concepts or vocabulary, and helping students to understand difficult questions, the teachers did not agree that it was appropriate to use Arabic for these purposes.

However, almost half the teachers showed positive attitudes towards using Arabic to provide feedback, and to increase participation among students. In the second phase, the teachers who switched to L1 were still reluctant to acknowledge its pedagogical benefits. The teachers' responses in the first phase sometimes appeared to contradict their responses in the second phase. The seven teachers reported in the pre- and post-treatment interviews that L1 was the only option for explaining grammar and difficult concepts, because the priority was to increase overall comprehension among students, to make it easier for them to concentrate on the lesson, unlike in the first phase when they denied using it for this purpose. Another major benefit was maintaining the smooth flow of the students-teacher interaction.

When discussing the use of L1 for classroom management, the teachers in the first phase of the study appeared to be more positive about using L2 for this purpose. In the pre-treatment interviews, the seven teachers expressed that they only used Arabic to attract their students' attention, while in the post-treatment interviews they appeared to be opposed to L1 use for classroom management in general.

In the affective and interpersonal category, the teachers acknowledged that L1 has a positive role in increasing students' interest in L2 learning. Praising students was placed first in this category, and discussing cultural topics second, as more than half of the teachers agreed that they used Arabic for these purposes. The analyses of the teachers' reported use of Arabic in the first and second phases were contradictory. In the second phase, the seven teachers in the interviews strongly expressed the view that they used Arabic to build rapport with their students; while in the questionnaire their beliefs varied concerning the use of Arabic for affective purposes.

Teachers were more disposed to acknowledge their use of L1 for managerial, and affective and interpersonal functions over pedagogical purposes. Their reluctance could be attributed to five reasons. First, it could be that teachers were not aware of their actual use of Arabic. Second, they may have been seeking to preserve their image as language teachers, avoiding any chance that their competence in

English would be doubted. This assumption was confirmed later in the pre-treatment interviews, when they expressed the belief that teachers' use of Arabic indicated that they did not possess the ability to convey the message in English. Third, it is probable that they wished to show they abide by the ELI policy, which prohibits L1 use. Fourth, it is possible that they were aspiring to be models for their students, and therefore were reluctant to agree on a pedagogically positive role for L1. The teachers' disagreement about their use of L1 for pedagogical purposes reflected the belief upheld by teachers at the ELI, that English should be taught using only English. Fifth, a sense of guilt appears to have been another reason behind some of the teachers' reluctance to acknowledge using L1 for pedagogical functions.

The main general finding about teachers' beliefs was that at least five teachers were constantly contradicting themselves in the first and second phases of the study. They tended to express either support or lack of support for L1 in the interviews, and then expressed different views in the questionnaire. This contradiction was also evident in their responses to the open and closed questionnaire.

The teachers reported in the workshops that they faced six main obstacles that prevented them from using L1 in a principled way: (i) students' proficiency level; (ii) lack of guidelines in the teachers' course books on how, when, and the amount of L1 to be used according to the level of students; (iii) "lazy" students who do not make enough effort to learn L2; (iv) schoolteachers who have not trained the students to listen and practice L2; (v) lack of focus group sessions where teachers can discuss obstacles facing themselves and their students; and (vi) a lack of focus groups proposing practical solutions to overcome these obstacles.

#### **10.2.2 RQ5. What are teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in the classroom?**

In the first phase, when comparing teachers' beliefs across the three categories, almost half stated that they believed students did not use Arabic for curriculum access, while a relatively lower percentage believed students did not use

Arabic for affective and interpersonal functions. With regard to task management functions, teachers did not show a preference for one category over another. These percentages do not necessarily indicate the teachers disagreed over the students' use of Arabic. Rather, it may imply that the teachers were rarely conscious about their students' use of L1. This result was unsurprising, because it may imply a belief that learning is improved when teachers are in control of classroom activities and can effectively manage their students' behaviour. It could be that teachers perceive themselves as the principal source of information and the facilitators of learning.

In the first phase, it was unexpectedly learned that a high percentage (more than three quarters) of teachers believed their students did not use Arabic because of their low-level of proficiency. Their responses in the closed questionnaire contradicted their responses in the open questionnaire and the interviews in the second phase of the study, where teachers considered that their students' use of L1 was mainly attributed to their low proficiency in L2. Generally, their weak command of the L2 was attributed to lack of exposure to English outside the classroom.

In the second phase, in the pre-treatment interviews, lack of students' knowledge of English and teachers' backgrounds, were the main factors cited as causing students to use Arabic, according to the teachers. In the post-treatment interviews, an additional reason reported by teachers in reference to the students' use of Arabic, was their lack of motivation to learn English. In the pre- and post-interviews the teachers felt that they should encourage students to use more English, not just to pass the exams, but also to help them learn English.

After the workshops, the teachers appeared to be become aware that students, especially those with lower level proficiency used Arabic to improve their comprehension of difficult concepts or words. According to the teachers, the students showed a preference for being taught in their L1, because it is a reflection of their culture.

### **10.2.3 RQ1. To what extent, if any, do the non-native English teachers' beliefs differ before and after attending the workshops?**

The input regarding teachers' beliefs might originate from a combination of factors, including learning experiences, and personal teaching practices. From the pre-interviews, it was apparent that the teachers were making strong connections between their beliefs and personal experiences. In the post-treatment interviews, the teachers believed that their experiences as a language teachers had notable impact on their practices.

With respect to teachers' shared beliefs about the role of CS in teaching English, they endorsed the belief that L1 is inevitable in English teaching experiences, but had conflicting beliefs about its efficiency for learners resulting from their understandings of the negative effect of L1 on L2 learning. They considered it an important resource to facilitate students' comprehension and avoid breakdowns in classroom interaction. However, they also showed contradictory feelings regarding CS. On one hand, they reported that L1 is needed, especially with weaker or beginner students, so they can keep up with the other students. On the other, they were concerned that CS might: 1) make students over reliant on teachers' constant clarifications in the L1, 2) demotivate them from learning the L2, 3) inhibit students' thinking in the L2, and 4) hinder their maximal exposure to L2 in the classroom, and in turn affect students' learning outcome.

Regarding the L1 policy at the ELI, the monolingual principle is embodied in the guidelines of the institute. However, in the pre- and post-interviews the teachers showed a lack of interest in following the policy, as demonstrated by the frequent use of L1 by some teachers, and by their allowing the students to respond in L1. I found that there was a contrast between the language medium required by the institution policy and actual classroom practice, which was not surprising. In practice, previous research has shown that there has always been a gap between policy and classroom practices. It appears that the ELI officials who assigned the policy are not aware that it is considered the norm to use both languages in the classroom. It could therefore be considered unreasonable to attempt to enforce a monolingual policy.

#### **10.2.4 RQ2.To what extent, if any, do workshops have an impact on non-native English teachers' use of Arabic (L1) in the foreign language classrooms?**

From the first set of observations, it was apparent that the teachers primarily used the L1 for pedagogical functions, then classroom management, and least for interpersonal functions. In the second set of observations, there was a slight drop in the use of L1 for classroom management category, and a major drop in L1 for affective and interpersonal functions. As for the category of pedagogical functions, there was a slight increase in L1 use. This is largely due to Maysa's frequent use of L1 in the second observation.

Although the teachers continued to believe they should not use L1 themselves, which was evident because of the decrease in the percentage of L1 use in the post-observation, four teachers in the study continued to use it during lessons after the workshops. This finding was not surprising, as CS is a common phenomenon among L2 teachers, especially bilingual ones. Many researchers have agreed on the usefulness of including L1 in the classroom to give learners full access to the curriculum and facilitate the learning process (e.g. Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2013).

#### **10.2.5 RQ 3. What is the relationship between non-native English teachers' beliefs about their use of L1 and their actual practices inside the classroom?**

The discrepancy between the amount of L1 reportedly used and the actual amount of L1 used by teachers demonstrates the complexity of teachers' behaviour. This inconsistency between some teacher's reported beliefs and actual practices was predictable. This study indicates that the relationship between beliefs and practices varied from consistent to inconsistent, again reinforcing the findings of other studies.

Multiple factors might be preventing some teachers from applying beliefs about L1 in practice, including the students' language proficiency, which supports Macaro's (2001, p. 535) finding that "learner ability was a major factor in how much

L1 was used”. A further reason could be teachers’ lack of training regarding pedagogical skills. Teachers claimed in both interviews that they used a variety of techniques, such as body language, paraphrasing, and helping students to infer meaning from texts. However, classroom observations revealed the absence of such techniques and the majority of teachers constantly translated difficult words relating to grammar and vocabulary. Contextual factors also appear to have had a fundamental effect on teachers’ personal theories about L1 use in the classroom, also influencing their classroom interactions. The complex situations the teachers’ face can limit their ability to fulfil their beliefs about optimal L1 use in the classroom and to provide instructions that align with such beliefs. Continuous self-reflection however about beliefs could be an initial step toward easing the tension between beliefs and classroom practices.

The teachers who used the L1 excessively should not be considered as lacking competence in L2. In addition, the teachers who remained in L2 and aimed to control the amount of L1 in their classroom were not superior to those who used more L1 in the classroom. It is important to remember that teachers hold various personal beliefs and negotiate obstacles with varying degrees of difficulties, and therefore, it would not be reasonable to judge their practices based on two observations.

### **10.3 Concluding summary**

The following are the main six conclusions reached, based on the results obtained from my data:

- 1- The students’ language level proficiency was the main justification for teachers’ switches to L1.
- 2- Teachers’ beliefs and practices are highly individual, and are coloured by a combination of factors related to their background, education, experience, and personality.
- 3- Teachers’ beliefs were not always congruent with their practices. The teachers who switched to L1 were still reluctant to acknowledge that doing so was beneficial and had pedagogical merit.



- 4- The workshops encouraged some teachers to reconsider their practices and initial beliefs about CS.
- 5- The workshops reinforced some teachers' practices and initial beliefs about CS.
- 6- The teachers discussed issues related to the workshops, which might be an indication that they were reflecting on their beliefs after the discussions. This was evident in the post-treatment interviews and on the open questionnaire.
- 7- The ELI policy did not influence teachers' decisions about CS in classroom.

#### **10.4 Some limitations of the study**

- 1- One of the limitations in the analysis was that the total amount of Arabic and English words in the lessons were not counted. Using a word count or timed-analysis would have given a more precise picture of the L1 use among teachers at the ELI.
- 2- Involving the teachers in reading the articles instead of only listening to the researchers' own accounts of the empirical evidence could have deepened the reflective process (Hatton & Smith, 1995). It could be that the teachers needed to be involved in more reflective group discussions, write journals, engage in stimulated recall interviews, and perform some research to be able to possess the five characteristics (discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.6), as suggested by Farrell (2013), to find a "balance" between them.
- 3- The results of the current study were based on a sample population of seven teachers at the ELI. Therefore, any generalisation of the findings is limited to populations with similar cultural backgrounds, contexts, and educational setting, but may not be applicable to teachers' in other contexts that have different linguistic or cultural backgrounds, or where L2 is considered a SL. Hence, a large-scale longitudinal study that traces the process of development of teachers' beliefs is recommended to validate the results.
- 4- The study focused on teachers' beliefs and practices before and after the workshops. Further longitudinal research in a similar context that closely investigates the process and the development of teachers' beliefs would be

beneficial. The duration could be extended to a year to three years to document any changes in beliefs and practices.

- 5- Despite the rich and contextualised picture of seven teachers' use of L1 at the ELI, the study did not focus on the learners' attitudes towards the teachers' L1 use. Learners' opinions would have provided a higher degree of relevance and appropriateness.
- 6- Although the workshops allowed teachers to discuss their beliefs about L1 with each other, a stimulated recall interview after the workshops, and the post-treatment observations, as a way to explore teachers' interactive cognition, would have given the teachers an opportunity to confront and challenge their beliefs and practices. This might have prompted teachers to link their beliefs with their practices as for example Bramald, Hardman, and Leat (1995), and Samar and Moradkhani, (2014) have shown how beneficial such an analysis could be. Using stimulated recall interviews utilising audio clips and observation transcripts would have been ideal, as it might have more deeply affected their beliefs and practices.
- 7- To counter the limitations presented through absence of video recording, I used some brief notes in conjunction with audio recorded interviews and observations. The decision not to include video recording was ethically based.
- 8- It would have been ideal to compare the beliefs and practices of teachers on the three campuses at the ELI to provide a more comprehensive study of whether beliefs or practices changed according to the setting. This was beyond my control, as it was not possible to gain access to the other two campuses.

### **10.5 Recommendation for ELI officials**

Without this analysis, I would not have been aware of some of the reasons teachers in the ELI use or avoid L1 in their classrooms. Additionally, I would have been unaware of whether teachers' beliefs in this particular context might be influenced by attending the discussions. My realisations may help inform in-service teacher development educators to promote teachers' professional growth.

Additionally, tension between beliefs and practices could be viewed as positive for in-service teachers' programmes. It would help designers of such programmes to shed light on the links between teachers' stated beliefs, and what they actually do in the classroom.

Additional recommendations are as follows:

- 1- Teachers could be more engaged in the selection of textbooks, evaluating problems and seeking solutions to the obstacles they face in teaching; this might make them more enthusiastic about teaching and more encouraged to select a variety of teaching activities to engage their students, to optimise learning. Currently textbooks and the pacing guide are imposed on them, even though they have the necessary knowledge to choose appropriate textbooks. I believe teachers should become the decision makers.
- 2- Designers of educational programmes should take into account teachers' views when deciding on the guidelines concerning the implementation of L1 in the classroom.
- 3- ELI officials should also hold workshops so that senior teachers can educate their colleagues about L1 use to enrich their colleagues' experiences.

#### **10.6 Implications for ELI teachers**

- 1- With respect to pedagogical implications, the findings of the current study suggest maximising the use of L2 is always tied to students and contexts.
- 2- Careful lesson planning taking into account the difficulties in the lessons, along with the proficiency of the students could help teachers make wiser use of L1.
- 3- It was shown in the study that students' responses were short and the default language was L1. Teachers should provide students with opportunities to negotiate meaning in both L1 and L2, and adopt more techniques, such as comprehension checks and confirmation checks (Long, 1983).
- 4- Teachers need to develop their understanding regarding the fact that some L1 use in the classroom can enhance communication, improve students' L2 knowledge, and benefit students' attitudes toward L2 learning.

## **10.7 Recommendations for future research**

- 1- The impact of pre-service teacher programmes on beliefs and practices is the most researched aspect of language teaching. More research is needed to explore the extent to which in-service teachers training can affect language teachers' beliefs and practices. Such work would contribute to a more holistic understanding of language teachers' beliefs and actual classroom practices.
- 2- The present study explored the relationship between beliefs, and practices and the impact of workshops on both. Further research is needed to look at the relationship between workshops and learning outcomes. Longitudinal observations of classes with students of different levels of proficiency, and teachers with different levels of teaching experience, would complement the findings of the present study. For example, a quantitative study would provide a statistical measure of the students' amount of L1 use, which could then be compared to the teachers' usage.
- 3- The teachers were interviewed and observed twice, and the interventions were only run over a period of one month. In this respect, further research should engage in-service teachers in workshops over longer period. These workshops should combine both theory and concrete evidence concerning L1 use, to allow teachers to examine their beliefs in greater depth and engage in deeper and more holistic investigations into this matter. For example, carrying out an experimental design study with a control group would complement the results of the current study.
- 4- Interestingly, the majority of teachers reported and actually used L1 to varying degrees, which questions the feasibility of the monolingual policy at the ELI since teachers' actual practices contradicted the educational policy. Future research could investigate whether the mismatch in beliefs and practices of L2 teachers occurs in other universities in Saudi Arabia.
- 5- This study did not focus on the relationship between the language of the textbook and motivation to learn English. This relationship would have influenced L1 usage by teachers. I suggest this area can be looked at in future studies.

- 6- Given the growing interest in the pedagogy of English FL teachers around the world, more attention should be paid to why and how non-native English speaking teachers implement L1 in their pedagogies in the Middle East, including Saudi Arabia.
- 7- As English teachers' beliefs about CS may not correspond to those of their students, future research could explore students' beliefs about L1 use in the classroom, to compare students' beliefs with those of their teachers.
- 8- Additional research might also utilise a think aloud technique, to uncover why they decide to use L1 and describe the mental processes they go through when producing L1 utterances.

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## **Appendices**

### **Appendix 1: Questionnaire piloting**

11 out of 28 statements were eliminated from part one, and 10 out of 23 statements were eliminated from part two as the respondents suggested that those statements caused confusion because they were similar in meaning. All the five colleagues argued that mixing statements about the use of L1 and L2 would be “redundant” and “confusing.” For example statements 13 and 15 discussed one of the classroom management functions of L1 and L2 statement: 13) ‘using Arabic helps discipline my students’ and statement: 15) ‘disciplining the students is better done in English’. As the study focused on the L1 use, the teachers recommended eliminating all the English-related statements.

There were also some changes of wording before sending the questionnaire to the target population. For instance, one teacher speculated about the meaning of “discipline” in statement 13 and suggested adding the word believe or think in order to be compatible with the other statements. Therefore, the statement was changed into: ‘I believe that using Arabic helps discipline my students (e.g. as them to stop side talks)’.

To enhance the clarity of meaning in the questionnaire, statement: 17 was eliminated: ‘I believe that Arabic can indicate the switch between different activities’. Two teachers believed that the statement was ambiguous.

In order to avoid confusion, statement: 28) ‘I do not feel guilty when I use Arabic in my class’, was changed into affirmative: ‘I feel guilty if I use Arabic in the classroom’.

The open question: 52) ‘how well you think your students understand you when you speak English?’ Was eliminated because the aim was to elicit responses about the L1. In order to achieve consistency, I decided to remove this item. Additionally, for some teachers the meaning of statement was ambiguous as one teacher wrote: “ I think you need to be more specific here. I don’t know what exactly you mean.”

In addition, the open question: 53) ‘when do you think that you tend to use / or not to use Arabic in the classroom was eliminated. Two teachers assumed that it was a leading question. The question was changed into: ‘where did you get your beliefs about the use of Arabic from?’ One open question was added regarding the teachers’ beliefs about their students’ use of L1: ‘what do you believe are the factors that influence students’ use of Arabic in the classroom?’.

### Questionnaire used in piloting stage

Dear Colleagues,

I would be grateful if you could participate in the following survey. It is conducted as part of my research project in the PhD programme. This questionnaire aims to find out your attitudes to your use and the students’ use of Arabic inside the English classrooms.

Participating in the study is voluntary. The results of this survey will be used for research purposes only. The responses will be handled with absolute confidentiality, and I shall send you a summary of the results once they are completed.

It only takes **10** minutes to fill out the questionnaire.

Please tick the **ONE** answer which best describes your beliefs to the given statements:

#### Part I: The teachers’ beliefs towards their own use of Arabic in the classrooms

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<b>Pedagogical Functions</b>					
1-I believe that using Arabic helps my students understand new vocabulary					
10- I think my students participate less when I use English to explain the lessons					
21- I think that using Arabic helps my students understand grammar					
7- I believe that English should be used to explain tasks’ instructions					
23- I believe that students participate more when I use Arabic					
16- I believe that using Arabic helps students understand difficult concepts					

**CONTINUED ON BACK**

15- I think that students understand new vocabulary when I explain it in English					
2- I believe that it is helpful to use Arabic when my students fail to understand my questions					
26- I think using Arabic helps clarifying the tasks' instructions					
11- I think I can use English to explain difficult concepts					
8- In my opinion, using English better explains grammar					
<b>Classroom management functions</b>					
22- I find Arabic helps catch my students' attention					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
18- I believe that using Arabic helps discipline my students					
5- I think Arabic is helpful when assigning tasks to students					
3- I think disciplining the students is better done in English					
9- I think English is helpful to get the students' attention					
<b>Affective and social functions</b>					
19- I feel guilty if I use Arabic in the classroom					
17- I believe that using Arabic is helpful when I do not find the right word in English					
24- I think that it is a good practice to praise my students in English					
20- I feel that I need to use Arabic when I sense that my students are losing interest					
25- I believe that using Arabic is helpful when giving personal advice to students					
4- I think it is a good practice to praise my students in Arabic					
27- I believe that I use Arabic when I discuss cultural topics with my students					
12- I think I can keep my students					

motivated by using English					
14- I think it helps my students to give them personal advice in English					
13- I believe using Arabic helps to build up the students' confidence					
6- I do not feel guilty when I use Arabic in my class					

**Part II: The teachers' beliefs towards their students' use of Arabic in classrooms**

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
<b>Pedagogical functions</b>					
29- My students use Arabic to translate difficult words					
30- My students use Arabic to discuss tasks' instructions					
40- My student use Arabic to translate grammatical points					
36- My students use Arabic to better discuss assignments					
41- My students tend to discuss difficult words in English					
42- My students tend to ask me questions in English					
46- My students use English to translate grammatical points					
35- My students tend to discuss tasks in English					
<b>Classroom management functions</b>					
51-My students use Arabic to get my attention					
47- My students tend to use Arabic to give excuses					
50- My students use Arabic to get their classmates' attention					
37- My students use Arabic to discipline their classmates					
34- My Students use English to give excuses					
44- My students use English to get my attention					
31- My Students use English to get					

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their classmates' attention					
<b>Affective and social functions</b>					
38- My students feel less motivated when they use English					
45- My students prefer to use Arabic because it makes them feel more confident					
43- Students prefer to use Arabic to discuss cultural topics					
32- Students feel less confident when they use English to express themselves					
33- Students prefer to use English to discuss cultural topics					
48- My students feel more motivated when they use Arabic					
49- Students prefer to use Arabic because of their low-proficiency in English					
39- My students use Arabic when they fail to express themselves in English					

**28- where did you get your beliefs about the use of Arabic?**

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 .....  
 .....

**52- What do you believe are the factors that influence students' use of Arabic in the classroom?**

.....  
 .....  
 .....

### **Part III: General Information**

**53- Age:** 23-27    28-32    33-37    over 37

**54- Qualification:**    Bachelors    Masters    PhD

**55- Country of qualification obtained:**

Bachelors .....

Masters .....

PhD .....

**56- Your background is in:**    a- linguistics    b- language teaching  
    c- literature    d- others .....

**57-** Teaching experience: ..... year (s)

**58-** Have you received any teacher training?

If YES **Please Go to 59**

If NO **Please Go to 60**

**59-** The training is certified by .....

Course type a- short course b- certificate c- diploma d- degree

c- others .....

Duration a- Full-time b- Part time

When? .....

**60-** What is the policy about using Arabic in English classrooms in your institute?

.....

.....

**\* If you're willing to give consent for me to use the data for research purposes, please sign here ..... Date .....**

**Thank you for filling the questionnaire**

**Consent form for the interviews and observations**

**\*If you are willing to participate in the second phase of my study, which includes: 2 one-to-one interviews, 5 Focus- group discussions and 2 observations please provide your name .....**

**Email**

**address**

.....

- From January to March, I will carry out **2** one-to-one interviews, with 8 of the teachers, that are 20 minutes long.
- Teachers who agree to take part in the interviews will also be kindly asked to join **5** group discussions that are 30 minutes long each (within the period January to March).
- I will also need to observe **2** classrooms for each teacher who agrees to take part in the interviews and the group discussions.
- Participants' responses will be handled with confidentiality and all participants will remain anonymous. Participation is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time during the interviews, observations, and focus group discussions. In addition, you are free to decline answering any question you do not wish to answer. You will not be identifiable in any report subsequently produced by the researcher.

**Thank you for your cooperation**

## Appendix 2: Teachers' Questionnaire

### Teachers' Beliefs about their Own Use and their Learners' Use of L1 in Foreign English Classrooms

Dear Colleagues,

I would be grateful if you could participate in the following survey. It is conducted as part of my research project in the PhD programme. This questionnaire aims to find out your attitudes toward your use and the students' use of Arabic inside the English classrooms.

Participating in the study is voluntary. The results of this survey will be used for research purposes only. The responses will be handled with absolute confidentiality, and I shall send you a summary of the results once they are completed. It only takes **10** minutes to fill out the questionnaire.

Please tick the **ONE** answer which best describes your beliefs to the given statements:

#### Part I: The teachers' beliefs about their own use of Arabic in the classrooms:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1- I believe that using Arabic helps my students understand new vocabulary					
2- I believe that it is helpful to use Arabic when my students fail to understand my questions					
3- I think Arabic helps to praise my students					
4- I think Arabic is helpful to assign tasks to students					
5- I believe using Arabic helps to build up the students' confidence					
6- I believe that using Arabic helps students to understand difficult concepts					
7- I believe that using Arabic is helpful when I do not find the right word in English					
8- I believe that using Arabic helps					

CONTINUED ON BACK

discipline my students (e.g. ask them to stop side talks)					
9- I feel guilty if I use Arabic in the classroom					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10- I believe that Arabic is helpful when I sense that my students are losing interest					
11- I think that using Arabic helps my students understand grammar					
12- I find Arabic helps attract and keep my students' attention					
13- I believe that my use of Arabic helps students to participate more in class					
14- I think that Arabic is helpful when I give feedback to students					
15- I think that using Arabic helps clarify tasks' instructions					
16- I think that Arabic is helpful when I discuss cultural topics with my students					

**17- What is the origin of your belief about the use of Arabic in classroom?**

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**Part II: The teachers' beliefs about their students' use of Arabic in classrooms:**

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
18- My students use Arabic to translate difficult words					
19- My students use Arabic to discuss tasks' instructions					
20- My students use Arabic to discuss assignment instructions					
21- My students use Arabic in pair/group work activities					
22- My students use Arabic when they fail to express themselves in English					
23- My student use Arabic					

to translate grammatical points					
24- Students use Arabic to discuss cultural topics					
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
25- My students use Arabic because it makes them feel more confident					
26- My students tend to use Arabic to give excuses for not doing homework					
27- My students feel more motivated when they use Arabic					
28- Students use Arabic because of their low-proficiency in English					
29- My students use Arabic to comment on their classmates' responses					
30- My students use Arabic to attract my attention					

**31- What do you believe are the factors that influence students' use of Arabic in the classroom?**

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 .....  
 .....  
 .....

**Part III: Some General Information about the teacher: •**

**32- Age:** 23-27    28-32    33-37    over 37

**33- Qualification:**    Bachelors    Masters    PhD

**34- Country of qualification obtained:**

Bachelors .....

Masters .....

PhD .....

**35- Your background is in:**    a- linguistics    b- language teaching

\_\_\_\_\_

**•IMPORTANT information on the back**

c- literature                      d- others .....

**36- Teaching experience:** ..... year (s)

**37- Have you received any teacher training?**

If YES Please Go to 38

If NO **Please Go to 40**

**38-** The training is certified by .....

**39- Course type**    a- short course    b-certificate    c- diploma    d- degree  
                                 c- others .....

Duration      a- Full-time      b- Part time  
When? .....

**40- What is the policy about using Arabic in English classrooms in your institute?**

.....

.....

## Consent Form for the Questionnaire

- I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project on the topic mentioned above to be conducted by Mrs. Sarah Baeshin.
- I have been told that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I also understand that my participation in this study is completely voluntary, and I may withdraw from it at any time without negative consequences. In addition, I am not obliged to discuss issues or answer questions that I do not wish to address or discuss. I will not be identified or identifiable in any report subsequently produced by the researcher.
- I have read and understand the above and consent to participate in this study. Moreover, I understand that I will be able to keep a copy of the informed consent form for my records.
- I am willing to give my consent for you to use the information that I have provided in this questionnaire in your research project

.....

.....

Participant's signature

Date \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you for you cooperation**

### **Appendix 3: Outline of the Workshops presentations**

#### **Workshop One**

In order to understand the effect of the treatment on beliefs and practices, it was necessary to provide a detailed explanation of the successive workshops that the teachers attended during April 2013, and the exposure to different issues regarding the L1 use in the foreign language classroom. The overarching theme of all the workshops was whether teachers should include or exclude the L1 in classroom. The teachers were invited to consider what other teachers across different contexts believe about the L1 inclusion or exclusion. Six empirical studies were summarized and discussed.

The first presentation was about the functions of code switching. Some potential uses of L1 as documented in two empirical studies were presented. Before presenting the two articles, the teachers were asked to discuss the following preliminary questions:

1. What do you feel about using Arabic in Teaching English?
2. What are the main factors that influence teachers to use Arabic in the classroom?
3. What do you feel about teaching in English as often as possible?
4. When do you think using Arabic can be helpful to students?
5. What do you think the policy regarding the use of Arabic should be?

The first article was by: Üstünel, E. and Seedhouse, P. (2005). What, in that language, right now? Code-switching and pedagogical focus. They explored teachers' code switching in six beginner English foreign Language classrooms at a Turkish university. The presentation is outlined in Table 1.

Table1: Outline of presentation 1, workshop 1

Students' L1	L2	Instruments	Policy	Functions of CS	Conclusion
Turkish	English	Observation video & audio recordings	Institutional policy in the university encouraged as much L2 as possible	<b>1.Pedagogical Functions</b> - Ensure that learners understand activity instructions -Encourage learners' participation - Translate into L1 for clarification - Give feedback <b>2- Classroom Management functions</b> -Discipline learners <b>3- Interpersonal relations functions</b> - Humanize classroom atmosphere - Negotiate different identities -Provide Turkish idioms -Comment on Turkish social events -Pass on personal information -Motivate and praise learners	CS in L2 classrooms is an: “interactional resource among the many used by both teachers and learners to carry out the institutional business of teaching and learning an L2” (Üstünel & Seedhouse, p. 322)



The second article was by: Raschka, C., Sercombe, P., and Chi-Ling, H. (2009). Conflicts and tensions in codeswitching in a Taiwanese EFL classroom (See Appendix 4 for PowerPoint slides). Teachers' CS by was observed in two EFL intermediate level commercial classrooms in Taipei, Taiwan. The second presentation is outlined in Table 2.

Table 2: Outline of presentation 2, workshop 1

Students' L1	L2	Instruments	Policy	Functions of CS	Conclusion
Manarin	English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Observations</li> <li>-Interviews with teachers &amp; students</li> <li>-Classroom recordings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- "English-only" is desirable by policy makers</li> <li>- One of the schools claimed to abide by the rule of the "English-only", while the other school claimed to teach by using L1</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Pedagogical functions</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Provide metalinguistic commentaries such as: evaluation, comments, grammatical explanations</li> </ul> </li> <li>- <b>Classroom Management</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Indicate topic switch</li> <li>- Attract students' attention</li> <li>- Admonish late arrivals</li> <li>- Assign tasks</li> </ul> </li> <li>- <b>Affective &amp; Interpersonal functions:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teachers started the lesson with L1 for affective and socialising reasons: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To establish solidarity with learners</li> <li>- To reduce the distance between teachers &amp; learners</li> <li>- To maintain a "non-threatening environment" (Raschka et al., 2009, 164)</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Raschka et al. (2009, 169) concluded that CS proved to be a widespread strategy in language classrooms even when the official policies attempt to eradicate it.</li> <li>- CS was a source of potential conflict between the institution and the teachers</li> <li>- CS was not consequence of teachers' insufficient L2 competence</li> </ul>

After presenting the two articles, four questions were discussed with the teachers. The teachers were encouraged to articulate their opinions about the conclusions of the empirical studies and were encouraged to express the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the researchers. The reason behind starting and ending the session with some questions was to compare teachers' beliefs' before and after presenting the empirical studies. The questions were as follow:

5. Do you think that you use Arabic for the same functions mentioned in the articles?
6. Are there other functions for using Arabic in the L2 classroom, beside the ones mentioned in the articles?
7. Do you think that Arabic should be used to carry out the L2 lessons?
8. Do you agree with Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009) that CS was not consequence of insufficient English language competence on the part of the teachers?

### **Workshop Two**

The theme of the second workshop was teachers' attitudes toward using the L1 in EFL classroom. Before presenting the articles the following questions were discussed:

5. Do you think that using Arabic can be an obstacle to teaching English? Why or why not?
6. What do you think the policy regarding the use of Arabic should be?
7. How do your students react to your use of Arabic in the classroom?
8. How do your students react to your use of English in the classroom?

In the second workshops, two articles about the teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 in EFL classrooms were presented. The first article was by: Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms: theories and decision making (see Appendix 5 for PowerPoint slides). He carried out a case study of six student teachers in secondary schools located in the south of England. Student teachers were not native speakers of French, but had excellent command of the language and students aged between 11 and 14. The presentation is outlined in Table 3.

Table 3: Outline of presentation 1, workshop 2

<b>Students' L1</b>	<b>L2</b>	<b>Instruments</b>	<b>Policy</b>	<b>Findings &amp; Conclusions</b>	<b>Students' L1</b>
English	French	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-14 Video recorded lessons</li> <li>-An audio-recorded interview within 10 days of the video-recordings (stimulus)</li> <li>-Another audio-recorded interview at the end of data collection to summarise changes in the student teachers' beliefs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-There was an official government policy of using L2 in teaching, which influenced the teacher's decision to remain in the L2</li> <li>-The National Curriculum for Modern Languages, in England and Wales, strongly argues that: "...the foreign language rather than English should be the medium in which classwork is conducted and managed" (Department of Education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Low percentage of L1 use that ranged from 0% to 15%</li> <li>-Utterance in the L1 can be delivered faster than utterance in the L2</li> <li>- Did not appear to be a link between the teachers' use of L1 and the students' amount of talk in the L1 or in the L2</li> <li>- Macaro (2001) concluded that the more use of the L2 does not mean better learning</li> </ul>	English

			and Science, 1988: 12, as cited in Macaro, 2001, p. 532)		
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Then Macaro's (2001) set of beliefs regarding the L1 use: the Virtual, Maximal and Optimal positions (discussed in Chapter 2 section 2.3) were discussed followed by presenting the contrasting beliefs of two student teachers in the study about the L1 use. The first teacher adopted the Maximal position, and the second teacher adopted the Optimal position which perceives "some pedagogical value in the L1 use" Macaro (2001, p. 535). The teachers' attitudes are presented in Table 4.

The teachers in the present study were not asked to adopt any of the three positions discussed but were asked about the most attainable and preferred position among them.

Table 4: Two Student Teachers' Beliefs

Student Teacher 1	Student Teacher 2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-She used to teach in a school with high levels of economic disadvantage</li> <li>-Pupils lacked motivation to learn a foreign language</li> <li>-The pupils' examination results were below the national average</li> <li>- She made a direct link between Communicative Language Teaching and sole use of L2: "not being given a chance to use the methodology"</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Teacher 2 was teaching in a school with an economic disadvantage</li> <li>-Pupils were motivated to learn a foreign language</li> <li>-Their results were above the national average</li> <li>-Teacher 2 used English L1 to increase her pupil's confidence: " I'm trying to encourage him... he sometimes lacks confidence..." (Macaro, 2001, p. 542)</li> </ul>

<p>(Macaro, 2001, p.539)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The National Curriculum was a more power agent influencing Teacher 1 adoption of the “maximalist position” which perceive no value in the use of L1 but can be chosen as the last resort. T1: “it’s the National Curriculum modern languages reasons for using the target language” (Macaro, 2001, p. 540).</li> <li>- The training programme also was an agent influencing the teacher’s decision not to use the L1: “its the PGGE (training programme) thing we mustn’t use the L1” (ibid., 540)</li> <li>-She attempted to remain in the L2 by using body language</li> <li>-When she was faced with lack of comprehension, she used to ask other pupils to expalin for their classmates</li> <li>- This teacher had to use the L1 after many attempts and blank looks from the pupils: “ He didn’t’t understand. I mean we’ve been doing this for quite a while now...” (ibid., p. 539)</li> <li>_L1 was also used to reprimand students: “ Nick! Chewing gum in the bin... (ibid., 539)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Teacher 2 supported bilingual learning</li> <li>-She resorted to L1 mainly to help mediate information, to promote understanding, to avoid breakdown and “lubricate” the interaction</li> <li>- She also used the L1 to provide procedural instructions for activities and homework: “ I believe that I will get maximum efficiency out of a long task if they understand what they’re doing” (Macaro, 2001, p. 543)</li> <li>- T2: “You could spend a lot of time trying to explain this in TL and you might not get there anyway” (ibid., 542)</li> <li>- The L1 was also used to motivate pupils to speak: “they were eager to speak ..I was just translating the procedure for them...” (Macaro, 2001, p. 542).</li> <li>- Her belief about CS was based on her own learning experiences and was more influential than the National Curriculum Guidelines</li> </ul>
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It was worth mentioning that the present study had some relationship to Macaro's (2001) study but the difference was that there the treatment was an embedded part of the PG student teachers training programme. In the present study, the treatment targeted in-service teachers. In Macaro's study, the student teachers were exposed to some theoretical and practical issues regarding the degree to which acquisition of L1 as young children is similar to learning L2. In the present study on the other hand, in order not to impose more burden on the teachers, they were not asked to consider theories. I did not want to inundate the teachers with theories that would discourage them from attending the subsequent workshops. They were only exposed to some empirical studies regarding teachers' code switching in EFL classrooms. Discussing the L1 or L2 use by different teachers in different contexts encouraged the teachers to reflect on their own beliefs and practices. Additionally, It was reassuring for the teachers to know that others were following similar practices and were faced with similar constraints irrespective of the context.

In Macaro's (2001) study, the review of the empirical study was done through both presentations and own reading, whereas in the current study the teachers were not asked to do any reading in advance.

In Macaro's (2001) study, the lessons were video recorded over two months period toward the end of the training programme. The audio-recorded interviews were carried out within ten days of the video recordings. Further interviews were conducted at the end of the training programme. In the current study on the other hand, two sets of observations and interviews were carried out. The estimated interval between the pre and post observation and interviews was two months. The first set was conducted before the treatment and the follow up was conducted after the treatment.

The second article was by: Al-Nofaie, H. (2010). The attitudes of teachers and students towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms in Saudi public schools- a case study. This study examined the attitudes of three Saudi teachers and 30 pupils towards the use of Arabic in language classrooms. She carried out her study in an intermediate female public school in Jeddah. The teachers' and pupils' reasons for using or avoiding the L1 was presented. An outline of the presentation is outlined in Table 5.

Table 5: Outline of presentation 2, workshop 2

Students' L1	L2	Instruments	Policy	Findings & Conclusions
Arabic	English	-Questionnaires to 30 students Interviews to 3 teachers & 2 groups of students (low & high proficiency) -Classroom Observations including 4 sessions	Teachers were strict about allowing their pupils to use Arabic  -Did not mention the school policy	-Both teachers and pupils had positive attitudes towards the use of Arabic inside the classes  -70% of pupils favoured the teachers' use of Arabic  -73% of pupils agreed that boring lessons become more boring if teachers used Arabic  - Use of Arabic was limited by both teachers and pupils as they were aware that excessive use may hinder learning English

After presenting the two articles about teachers' attitudes towards switching to Arabic, four questions were discussed with the teachers. As both studies were carried out at school levels, the teachers were asked whether university instructors might have different attitudes from school teachers.

5. Both studies were carried out at school levels, do you think that university instructors may have different attitudes from school teachers? Why or why not?
6. In Macaro's study, 3 positions were mentioned. Which position do you follow and why?
7. In your opinion, do you think teachers' beliefs are worth to be explored? Why?
8. Which factor is more influential on teachers' attitudes: training programmes, teachers' past experiences or the policy? Why?

### **Workshop Three**

Before presenting the two articles, teachers were provided with brief definitions of glosses and their benefits for students. In the third workshop, two articles about the L1 versus the L2 glosses were presented. The first article was by: Jacobs, G., Dufon, P., and Hong, F. (1994). L1 and L2 vocabulary glosses in L2 reading passages: their effectiveness for comprehension and vocabulary knowledge (see Appendix 6 for PowerPoint slides). Jacobs et al. (1994) examined whether glosses helped increase comprehension and whether L1 glosses were better for learners than L2 glosses. They also measured learners' attitudes toward glosses. The sample consisted of 85 students studying Spanish in a U.S. university. The presentation is outlined in Table 6.



Table 6: Outline of presentation 1, workshop 3

Students' L1	L2	Procedure	Materials	Results
Spanish	English	<p>Students were randomly divided into 3 groups:</p> <p>1-Some participants (the control group) received the text without glosses</p> <p>2-Some received English glosses (direct equivalents)</p> <p>3-Some received Spanish glosses (synonyms or explanations)</p> <p>-The researcher put 32 glosses in the margins of the text and then asked half of the students to carry out a recall protocol:</p> <p>1-Read the passage</p> <p>2-Hand in the passage</p> <p>3-Write in English as much as they recalled</p> <p>4- Translate 32 glosses from Spanish to English</p>	<p>-Authentic articles from Spanish periodicals</p> <p>-Two attachments accompanied the texts: one in Spanish and the other in English</p> <p>-The attachments included glosses of 32 words or phrases in the margin</p> <p>-Students were asked to translate glosses into English</p> <p>-Students were asked to fill out a questionnaire</p>	<p>1-There was no significant difference between the gloss group and no gloss group.</p> <p>2-No significant difference between scores of the Spanish gloss and English gloss groups</p> <p>3-Who benefited from glosses the most, but not significantly?</p> <p>Higher proficiency students, who had access to glosses, performed better in the recall comprehension task</p> <p>4-On the questionnaire, 47% students preferred English glosses, while 1% preferred Spanish glosses</p> <p>5-(52%) preferred Spanish glosses if they could understand them but English glosses if they couldn't</p>

		- 4 weeks later: half of the students were asked to translate the vocabulary list again		
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The second article was by: Yoshii, M. (2006). L1 and L2 glosses: their effects on incidental vocabulary learning. She examined the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses on incidental vocabulary learning in a multimedia environment. She included 195 students from two universities in Japan who were studying English as a foreign language. 130 students were freshmen, 29 sophomore, and three juniors. The article is summarized in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 7: Outline of presentation 2, workshop 3

<b>Students' L1</b>	<b>L2</b>	<b>Procedure</b>	<b>Treatment</b>	<b>Materials</b>
Japanese	English	Students were randomly divided into four groups and were exposed to four types of glosses: Group1 (n=47): read a story with L1 text-only glosses Group 2 (n=48): read it with L2 text-only glosses Group 3 (n=50) used L1 text +	1-production test: students were first asked to provide definitions in L1 to the 14 target words 2-recognition test: They had to choose the appropriate meaning out of four choices written in L2 3-questionnaire: students were asked to give their	-The text included 14 target words & 6 distracters (familiar words) -Once the students clicked on the word, the gloss appeared on the right side of the screen -The focus was on verb glosses

		<p>pictorial cues in the glosses</p> <p>Group 4 (n=50) used L2 text + pictorial cues</p> <p>-Yoshii measured the effect of those 4 types of glosses on the students' scores by performing immediate and delayed vocabulary tests</p> <p>One pretest: took place 2 weeks prior to treatment</p> <p>Two posttests: took place immediately after the treatment and the other 2 weeks later</p> <p>-The students didn't know they would be given a vocabulary test</p>	feedback	
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Table 8: The Results of The Second Article by Yoshii (2006)

The definition-supply Test	The Recognition Test
In terms of enhancing vocabulary learning: No significant differences between L1 and L2 text-only glosses	
Significant differences between text+ plus picture and text-only glosses Why? Learners relied on their memory without any hint to recall meanings Adding pictures helped in recalling and assessing memory	NO significant difference between text+ picture and text- only glosses Why? Multiple choices were available to learners Hints helped learners to recall meanings
Over time (2 weeks)	
The definition-supply Test	The Recognition Test
L2 + picture group had a significantly smaller decline rate than L1+ picture group Why? L2 textual information wasn't easily processed as that of L1 which helped to strengthen learning of words	L1 text only group remembered words better than other groups Why? The advantage of having stronger conceptual links in L1 than in L2

After discussing the results of the second article, teachers were asked to discuss tow questions. They were asked whether L1 or L2 glosses were more beneficial for their students. The second question concerned selecting the appropriate glosses according to the students' level of proficiency.

### Workshop Four

In the fourth workshop, the impact of L1 on vocabulary learning was discussed (see Appendix 7 for PowerPoint slides). The first article was by Tian, L., and Macaro, E. (2012). Comparing the effect of teacher codeswitching with English-only explanations on the vocabulary acquisition of Chinese university students. Tian and Macaro (2012) aimed to: 1) explore the benefits of intentional vocabulary learning (focus-on-form: where the teacher draws her students' attention to specific lexical items in the text or discourse; 2) explore the effect of teacher's code switching on students vocabulary learning. The researchers selected 117 first- year English language majors in Chinese universities, Shandong Province. Students were stratified into four proficiency levels. At outline of the presentation is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Outline of presentation 1, workshop 4

Students' L1	L2	Participants	Procedure	Results
Chinese	English	-Students were divided into 3 groups: 1-experimental (n=40): Non-code switching (NCS)who only Received vocabulary explanation in L2 (Lexical Focus-on-form) 2- experimental: (n=40) Code switching (CS) group	-The sessions were videotaped -The total number of the listening passages were 17 -Each text included 10 target words: concrete & abstract	-Lexical focus-on-form is beneficial for vocabulary acquisition: -In the long term: significant gains for both treatment groups over the control group -There was some benefit for teachers CS to Chinese

		<p>who received brief switches by the teacher to Chinese in relation to the L2 lexical item</p> <p>(Lexical Focus-on-form)</p> <p>2- control: (CONT) (n=37) group who did not receive vocabulary explanation</p> <p>(No lexical focus-on-form)</p>	<p>The study lasted for 9 week period:</p> <p>1-Students took a baseline proficiency test</p> <p>2-Vocabulary pretest was administered to all three groups</p> <p>3-The intervention began 1 week later</p> <p>4-The intervention lasted for 6 weeks</p>	<p>The L2 only information took longer to explain</p> <p>No negative effect from mixing codes during classroom interaction</p> <p>Students benefited from L1 lexical explanation regardless of their level of proficiency</p> <p>Students recalled in Chinese: Half of the English- only group tended to give Chinese equivalents rather than English definitions</p>
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The second article was by Tabatabaei, O., and Hossainzadeh Hejazi, N. (2011). Using similarity in form between L1-L2 vocabulary items (keyword method/linguistic mnemonics) in L2 vocabulary instruction. They explored the effect of keyword method instruction (discussed in the analysis chapter) on improving vocabulary learning among Iranian intermediate EFL learners, Najaf Abad Islamic Azad University. The teachers were provided with the meaning of the keyword method. The presentation is outlined in Table 10.

Table 10: Outline of presentation 2, workshop 4

Students' L1	L2	Participants	Procedure	Results
Persian	English	<p>-77 intermediate students: 39 females &amp; 38 males</p> <p>-Ages ranged from 18 to 24</p> <p>-Subjects were divided into 4 groups:</p> <p>1- two experimental groups including males and females</p> <p>2- two control groups including males and females</p>	<p>-Duration of the course was 3 sessions</p> <p>-Pretest: administered 1 week prior to the study</p> <p>-Vocabulary Immediate recall Posttest: to measure the short term effects of keyword method</p> <p>-Vocabulary delayed recall posttest (2 weeks later): to measure the long term effects of this method</p> <p>-Both groups (experimental &amp; control) had the same teacher and were taught the same sets of words</p>	<p>-The experimental groups (received the instruction through the keyword method) significantly outperformed the control group (received translation)</p> <p>-The superiority of keyword method over word lists memorization</p> <p>-The experimental groups' achievements did not change from immediate to delayed posttest because of the "depth of the information processing"</p>

Subsequently, the intervention was discussed in detail. After presenting the two articles, two questions were discussed. Teachers were asked whether it was practical to use the Keyword method technique with the students. The second question concerned using both languages in teaching. Teachers were asked whether mixing Arabic and English during classroom interaction had a negative or positive effect on their students.



## Appendix 4: Workshop One

10/02/2016

### Themes of Focus Group Discussions

1. Functions of CS
2. Teachers' attitudes towards CS
3. Quantities of L1 in the language classrooms
4. Impact of L1 on vocabulary
5. L1-L2 vocabulary glosses in reading

### Code Switching (CS) in the Language Classroom

- In the language classrooms, code switching can be defined as the: alternation between the first language and the target language as means of communication (Jingxia, 2010: 10)
- The issue whether language teachers should use the first language in teaching the target language has always been a controversial issue
- A number of studies have been undertaken to identify functions of classroom CS

### Some Articles on Functions Of Code Switching

Focus Group 1

### Why that, in that language, right now? Code-switching and pedagogical focus

- By Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005)
- They explored teachers' code switching in six beginner English foreign Language classrooms at a Turkish university.
- Teachers were native speakers of Turkish
- The first language was Turkish
- The target language was English

### Some Preliminary Questions

1. What do you feel about using Arabic in Teaching English?
2. What do you feel about teaching in English as often as possible?

### Instruments:

- They collected their data by - observation:
  - 100 learners, 6 whole lessons
  - reading, writing, grammar
- Video & audio recorded classroom interactions

### Policy:

- The institutional policy in the university encouraged as much as L2 uses as possible

### Functions of CS

They found that teachers' CS fell under the 3 categories identified by Ferguson (2003: 39):

#### 1- Pedagogical Functions

- CS for curriculum access (e.g. to help pupils understand the subject matter of their lesson)
- Teachers code-switched to ensure the learners understand the instructions for the activity
- encourage and elicit learner participation when teachers do not receive a reply from students
- Teachers translate into L1 for clarification

### Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) concluded:

CS in L2 classrooms is an: "interactional resource among the many used by both teachers and learners to carry out the institutional business of teaching and learning an L2" (Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005: 322)

#### 2- Classroom Management functions

- Discipline students and give feedback

### Conflicts and tensions in codeswitching in a Taiwanese EFL classroom

- By Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009)
- Teachers' CS was observed in 2 EFL intermediate level commercial classrooms in Taipei, Taiwan
- Included 2 Taiwanese teachers
- L1 was Mandarin
- L2 was English

#### 3- Interpersonal relations functions

- To humanize the affective climate of the classroom and negotiate different identities
- Provide Turkish idioms
- Comment on social events in Turkey
- Pass on personal information
- Motivate and praise pupils

### Instruments

- Data was collected by:
  - Observations of 2 classrooms over a 2 week period
  - Classroom recordings
  - Interviews with teachers and students

### Policy:

"*English-only*" rule is more desirable by the policy makers in Taiwan. One of the schools claimed to abide by the rule of the "English-only", while the other school claimed to teach by using the L1

### 1-Pedagogical functions



Most prevalent function

- Provide metalinguistic commentaries such as: evaluation, comments, grammatical explanations

### Raschka et al.(2009) concluded:

- Code switching is a widespread strategy in language classrooms even when the official policies attempt to eradicate it
- CS is a source of potential conflict between the institution and the teachers
- CS was not consequence of insufficient English language competence on the part of the teachers
- “True Immersion (“English Only”) is virtually impossible in EFL classroom..”,(Raschka et al., 2009: 169), especially if the teachers and learners share the same L1

### 2- Classroom Management

- The switches were triggered for class management
  - ❖ To highlight topic switch : openings → formal sections of the lesson
  - ❖ Ask for students' attention
  - ❖ Admonish their late arrivals
  - ❖ Assigning tasks to students

### What do you think?

1. Do you think that you use Arabic for the same functions mentioned in the articles?
2. Are there other functions for using Arabic in the L2 classroom, beside the ones mentioned in the articles?
3. In Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005) study, one teacher code switched to Turkish to ensure that her students understood her instructions. Do you agree with the teacher's use of L1? Why/why not?
4. Do you agree with Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009) that CS was not consequence of insufficient English language competence on the part of the teachers?
5. Have your beliefs been influenced by the articles? Why or why not?

### 3- Affective & Socialising functions:

- The teachers usually start the lesson (the opening sequence) with the L1 for affective and socialising reasons:
  - ❖ To establish solidarity with the students
  - ❖ To reduce the distance between the teachers and learners
  - ❖ To maintain a “non-threatening environment”

### References

- Ferguson, G. (2003). Classroom Code-Switching in Post-colonial Contexts: Functions, Attitudes, and Policies, in Makoni, S. and Meinhof, U. (eds). *AILA Review* (Vol.16). Amsterdam; Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Jingxia, L. (2010). Teachers' Code-Switching to the L1 in EFL Classroom. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, 3, 10-23.
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- Üstünel, E. and Seedhouse, P. (2005). Why that, in that language, right now? Code-switching and pedagogical focus. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15, 302-324.

## Appendix 5: Workshop 2

10/02/2016

### Teachers' Attitudes towards Using the L1 in EFL Classrooms

Focus Group 2

### Some Questions to Discuss

1. Do you think that using Arabic can be an obstacle to teaching English? why or why not?
2. What do you think the policy regarding the use of Arabic should be?
3. How do your students react to your use of Arabic in the classroom?
4. How do your students react to your use of English in the classroom?

### Analysing Student Teachers' Codeswitching in Foreign Language Classrooms: Theories and Decision Making

- By Macaro (2001)
- He carried out a case study of 6 student teachers in secondary schools located in the south of England
- Student teachers were not native speakers of French, but had excellent command of the language
- The first language (L1) was English
- The second language (L2) was French.

### Instruments:

- 14 Video recorded lessons of 6 teachers = good command of French
- Students aged between 11 & 14
- An audio-recorded interview within 10 days of the video-recordings ← stimulus
- Another audio-recorded interview at the end of data collection to summarise changes in the student teachers' beliefs

### Policy

- There was an official government policy of using L2 in teaching, which influenced the teacher's decision to remain in the L2
- The National Curriculum for Modern Languages, in England and Wales, strongly argues that: "...the foreign language rather than English should be the medium in which classwork is conducted and managed" (Department of Education and Science, 1988: 12, as cited in Macaro, 2001: 532)

### The 3 Theoretical Positions (Macaro, 2001):

Virtual Position	Maximal Position	Optimal Position
No pedagogical value	No pedagogical value	Some pedagogical value
Exclude L1	L1 as last resort	L1 may enhance learning

### Beliefs of 2 Student Teachers

#### Teacher 1:

- She used to teach in a school with high levels of economic disadvantage
- Pupils lacked motivation to learn a foreign language
- The pupils' examination results were below the national average
- Teacher 1 perceived the ideal teaching was through the exclusive use of L2.
- She made a direct link between Communicative Language Teaching and sole use of L2: "not being given a chance to use the methodology" (Macaro, 2001: 539)

#### Teacher 1

- The National Curriculum was a more power agent influencing Teacher 1 adoption of the "maximalist position" which perceive no value in the use of L1 but can be chosen as the last resort. T1: "it's the National Curriculum modern languages reasons for using the target language" (Macaro, 2001: 540).
- The training programme also was an agent influencing the teacher's decision not to use the L1: "its the PGCE (training programme) thing we mustn't use the L1" (ibid., 540)

#### Teacher 1:

- She attempted to remain in the L2 by using body language
- When she was faced with lack of comprehension, she used to ask other pupils to interpret for the rest
- However, this teacher had to use the L1 after many attempts and blank looks from the pupils: " He didn't understand.. I mean we've been doing this for quite a while now..." (2001: 539)
- L1 was also used to reprimand students: " Nick! Chewing gum in the bin..." (2001: 539)

#### The second teacher's belief about the L1

- Teacher 2 was teaching in a school with an economic disadvantage
- Students were motivated to learn a foreign language
- Their results were above the national average
- Teacher 2 used English L1 to boost her students' confidence: " I'm trying to encourage him... he sometimes lacks confidence..."

#### Teacher 2

- Teacher 2 supported bilingual learning
- She resorted to L1 mainly to help mediate information, to promote understanding, to avoid breakdown and "lubricate" the interaction
- She also used the L1 to provide procedural instructions for activities and homework: " I believe that I will get maximum efficiency out of a long task if they understand what they're doing" (Macaro, 2001: 543)
- T2: "You could spend a lot of time trying to explain this in TL and you might not get there anyway" (ibid., 542)

#### Teacher 2

- The L1 was also used to motivate student to speak: "they were eager to speak ..I was just translating the procedure for them..." (Macaro, 2001: 542).
- Her belief about code switching was based on her own learning experiences and was more influential than the National Curriculum Guidelines

### Findings:

- The 5-second sampling recorded low percentage of L1 use that ranged from 0% to 15%
- Utterance in the L1 can be delivered faster than utterance in the L2 that included repetition and many type of input modification techniques
- Does not appear to be a link between the teachers' use of L1 and the students' amount of talk in the L1 or in the L2
- Macaro (2001) concluded that the exclusive use of the target language does not mean better learning

### The Attitudes of Teachers and Students towards Using Arabic in EFL classrooms in Saudi Public Schools- A Case Study

- It was conducted by Nofaie (2010).
- A study examining the attitudes of 3 Saudi teachers and 30 students towards the use of Arabic in language classrooms
- She carried out her study in an intermediate female public school in Jeddah.
- The teachers and students were native speakers of Arabic
- The L1 was Arabic
- The L2 was English

### Instruments:

- Questionnaires → 30 students
- Interviews → 3 teachers & 2 groups of students (low & high proficiency)
- Classroom Observations including 4 sessions
- Skills: Listening, speaking, reading, writing, & grammar

### Policy:

Teachers in the study were strict about allowing their students to use Arabic

### Students' Reasons for Using or Avoiding Arabic

- To provide confidence
- To lead to better understanding
- To create the feeling of comfort
- Students avoided overusing Arabic to increase their opportunities to "practice" English
- Students overused Arabic in pairs and group work

### Teachers' Reasons for Using Arabic

- Teachers mainly used Arabic to clarify difficult items for weak learners, so they do not fall behind
- The learners' level:
  - The interviewed teachers agreed that beginners and low achieving students needed more explanation in Arabic to increase comprehension

### Findings:

- Both teachers and learners had positive attitudes towards the use of Arabic inside the classes
- 70% of the learners favoured the teachers' use of Arabic
- 73% students agreed that boring lessons become more boring if teachers used Arabic
- However, use of Arabic was limited by both teachers and students as they were aware that excessive use may hinder learning English

### Why did the teachers have strict policy about using Arabic?

1. Teachers in Saudi public schools do not receive any guidance on how to use Arabic 'effectively' and 'systematically' in EFL classrooms
2. Neither the teachers' books nor the course books include any helpful tips on the issue of employing Arabic
3. Books focus on grammar not communication

### Some Questions for Discussions

1. Both studies were carried out at school levels, do you think that university instructors may have different attitudes from school teachers? Why or why not?
2. In Macaro's study, 3 positions were mentioned. Which position do you follow and why?
3. In your opinion, do you think teachers' beliefs are worth to be explored? Why?
4. Which factor is more influential on teachers' attitudes: training programmes, teachers' past experiences or the policy? why?

### More Questions to Discuss

5. Does the principle of conducting the lesson in the target language mean that the language is constantly simplified?
6. Do you think that constant simplification of the language might affect the learners' motivation?
7. Do you agree that the L1 should be avoided at all costs?

### References

- Al- Nofaie, H. (2010). The Attitudes of Teachers and Students towards Using Arabic in EFL Classrooms in Saudi Public Schools - A case study. *Novitas-Royal (Research on Youth and Language)*, 4, 64 -95.
- Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing Student Teacher's Codeswitching in Foreign Language Classrooms: Theories and Decision Making, in *The Modern languages Journal*, 85, 531-548.

Thank You for Listening



## Appendix 6: Workshop 3

10/02/2016

### L1 Vs L2 Glosses

Focus Group 3

### Some Questions to Discuss

1. Do you think learners should have access to L1 glosses or L2 glosses? Why or why not?
2. Do you think that L1 or L2 glosses may help to increase learners' comprehension?

### What is a vocabulary Gloss?

- It is a short definition (Nation, 1983) or an explanation of the meaning of a word (Pak, 1986)
- Vocabulary Glosses are most often found in the right margin or at the bottom of the page (Jacobs, Dufon, and Fong, 1994)
- Glosses can be in multimedia forms: pictures, video, graphics and sounds (Lomicka, 1998; Yoshii, 2006)

### L1 and L2 Vocabulary Glosses in L2 Reading Passages: Their Effectiveness for Comprehension and Vocabulary Knowledge

- By Jacobs, Dufon, and Hong (1994)
- They examined whether
  1. Glosses help increase comprehension
  2. Whether L1 glosses are better for learners than L2 glosses
- They also measured learners' attitudes toward glosses

### Glosses Can be Useful

- Limit continual dictionary consultation that may interrupt L2 reading comprehension process (Lomicka, 1998: 41)
- They draw attention to words which can aid acquisition (Nation (2001)

### Participants

- The sample consisted of 85 students studying Spanish in a U.S. university
- The students' L1 was English
- L2 was Spanish



## Procedures

Students were randomly divided into 3 groups:

1. Some participants (the control group) received the text without glosses
2. Some received English glosses (direct equivalents)
3. Some received Spanish glosses (synonyms or explanations)

## Results

1. There was no significant difference between the gloss group and no gloss group.
2. No significant difference between scores of the Spanish gloss and English gloss groups
3. Who benefited from glosses the most, but not significantly?

Higher proficiency students, who had access to glosses, performed better in the recall comprehension task

## Procedures (continued)

The researcher put 32 glosses in the margins of the text and then asked half of the students to carry out a recall protocol:

- 1- Read the passage
  - 2- Hand in the passage
  - 3- Write in English as much as they recalled
  - 4- Translate 32 glosses from Spanish to English
- 4 weeks later: half of the students were asked to translate the vocabulary list again

## Results

4. On the questionnaire, 47% students preferred English glosses, while 1% preferred Spanish glosses
- 52% preferred Spanish glosses if they could understand them but English glosses if they couldn't

## Materials

- Authentic articles from Spanish periodicals
- 2 attachments accompanied the texts: one in Spanish and the other in English
- The attachments included glosses of 32 words or phrases in the margin
- Students were asked to translate glosses into English
- Students were asked to fill out a questionnaire

## Jacobs et al. (1994) Concluded

- "These findings should encourage L2 educators who use glossing to seek to maximize the percentage of L2 glosses" (ibid., 27)
- "Although the attitudes of students towards glossing are extremely positive, that may not be reason enough to maintain their use" (ibid., 27)

### L1 and L2 Glosses: Their Effects on Incidental Vocabulary Learning

- By Yoshii (2006)
- She examined the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses on incidental vocabulary learning in a multimedia environment

### Types of Glosses & Procedures

- Students were randomly divided into 4 groups & were exposed to the 4 types of glosses:

Group	Number	Gloss Type
1	47	read a story with L1 text-only glosses
2	48	read it with L2 text-only glosses
3	50	used L1 text + pictorial cues in the glosses
4	50	used L2 text + pictorial cues

### Incidental Vocabulary Learning

- Lexical items can be acquired incidentally from extensive exposure through reading or listening (Schmitt, 2008)
- However, exposure is not enough to help the students master the target language
- The use of glosses is one way to help the learners utilize information given to them

L1 Text only	L2 Text only	L1 plus Picture	L2 plus Picture
"Dash" 「早く急に走り出す」	"Dash" "To move very quickly"	"Dash" 「早く急に走り出す」 	"Dash" "To move very quickly" 

- Figure 1: Adapted from <http://www.lit.msu.edu/vol10num3/yoshii/default.h>

### Participants

- She included 195 students from 2 universities in Japan who were studying English as a foreign language
- 130 students were freshmen, 29 sophomore, and 3 juniors
- L1 was Japanese
- L2 was English

### Instruments

- Yoshii measured the effect of those 4 types of glosses on the students' scores by performing immediate and delayed vocabulary tests
- 1 pretest: took place 2 weeks prior to treatment
- 2 posttests: took place immediately after the treatment and the other 2 weeks later
- The students didn't know they would be given a vocabulary test

### Reading material & Target Words

- The text included 14 target words & 6 distracters (familiar words)
- Students clicked on a word → the gloss appeared on the right side of the screen
- The researcher focused on verbs glosses

### Definition-Supply Test

Directions: Please check any of these words you know. Please put [X] in the box. Please write the meanings either in English or your native language.

[ ]	sob	_____
[ ]	shiver	_____
[ ]	burst	_____
[ ]	grin	_____
[ ]	scumble	_____
[ ]	ponder	_____

Figure 2: Adapted from <http://www.llt.msu.edu/vol10num3/yoshii/default.h>

STORY: "A SCARY NIGHT"

It's a cold winter night. It's midnight, and it's very quiet. I'm still awake and studying. I have a test tomorrow. I need to read two chapters. I finish one chapter and I read the next chapter. It's too difficult. I can't pass the test. What do I do? Shall I keep studying? Can I take the test some other time? Shall I give up? I'm pondering many things. I think my head is going to burst.

Suddenly, some noise wakes me. Something happens on the ground. I look at the window. What? What is that? I see a light across the street. It's from a new house. It's strange. Mr. & Mrs. Smith are on vacation now. They asked me to look after the lawn for them while they're gone. Nobody should be there. Oh, I see the light again.

Then, it looks like me. Someone is burglarizing the house. I'm afraid. What do I do now? I have to call the police. I reach for the phone and call the police.

After ten minutes, the police arrive. They enter the house. As the police search the house, someone runs outside the house. The police shout, "Stop, right there!" But the man with a black mask runs into the woods near the house. Then, he sprints down the hill in the woods. The police finally catch him. The police take off the mask. He is my first.

Two policemen come to my apartment. The first one looks very serious. He doesn't know me. He just asks for my name. Then, he says, "Thank you for calling us about this problem." The other one is friendlier. He talks about a couple of things. He wants to know when I first saw the light. He asks some notes.

The policemen are gone, and everything is quiet now. What a strange night! I'm glad this is over, but I am still nervous a little. So I put some milk. This might help me. I can't study any longer and can't sleep right away.

I decide to read a book. I got it at a bookstore yesterday. The title is "American Short Stories." I look at the first chapter. And I gaze at the title. It says, "My Life as a Burglar" by A Man with a Black Mask.

### Word Recognition Test

Directions: Please match the English word with the correct meaning. Put [X] in the box.

1. ponder	[ ]	To study for a test
	[ ]	To think very carefully
	[ ]	To read something
	[ ]	To break open suddenly
2. shatter	[ ]	To surprise someone
	[ ]	To fall suddenly
	[ ]	To break something into pieces
	[ ]	To look outside
3. grin	[ ]	To cry loudly
	[ ]	To request information
	[ ]	To hide behind something
	[ ]	To have a big smile
4. gape	[ ]	To open the mouth wide in surprise
	[ ]	To get very angry
	[ ]	To laugh loudly
	[ ]	To shake from cold or fear

Figure 3: Adapted from <http://www.llt.msu.edu/vol10num3/yoshii/default.h>

### Procedures

- Production test
  - Students were first asked to provide definitions in L1 to the 14 target words
- Recognition test
  - They had to choose the appropriate meaning out of 4 choices written in L2
- Questionnaire
  - Students were asked to give their feedback

### Results

The definition-supply Test	The Recognition Test
In terms of enhancing vocabulary learning: No significant differences between L1 and L2 text-only glosses	
Significant differences between text+ picture and text-only glosses	NO significant difference between text+ picture and text- only glosses
Why?	Why?
Learners relied on their memory without any hint to recall meanings Adding pictures helped in recalling and assessing memory	Multiple choices were available to learners Hints helped learners to recall meanings

### Over Time (2 Weeks)

For the Definition- Supply Test	For the recognition Test
L2 + picture group had a significantly smaller decline rate than L1+ picture group	L1 text only group remembered words better than other groups
Why?	Why?
L2 textual information wasn't easily processed as that of L1 which helped to strengthen learning of words	The advantage of having stronger conceptual links in L1 than in L2

Thank You for Listening

### Yoshii (2006) Concluded

- "We did see some evidence for the strength of L1 in the interaction effects." (Yoshii, 2006: 96)
- "L1 textual cues could be as effective as text-plus picture cues." (ibid., 96)
- It does not matter whether the glosses are L1 translations or L2 descriptions, as long as the learners can understand the meaning (Jacobs et al., 1994; Yoshii, 2006)

### References

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- Pak, J. (1986). *The Effect of Vocabulary Glossing on ESL Reading Comprehension*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Hawai'i at Manoa.
- Yoshii, M. (2006). L1 and L2 Glosses: Their Effects on Incidental Vocabulary Learning. *Language Learning and Technology*, 10, 85-101.

### What do you think?

1. In your opinion, L1 or L2 glosses are more beneficial for your students?
2. Do you think the students' level may affect choice of gloss' type?
3. Have your beliefs been influenced by the articles? Why or why not?

## Appendix 7: Workshop 4

10/02/2016

### Impact of L1 on Vocabulary Learning

Focus Group 4

#### Some Questions to Discuss

1. Do you think that the lowest proficiency students benefit the most from lexical information in Arabic or in English?
2. Do you think that your students retrieve the meaning of L2 words in Arabic or English?

#### Comparing the Effect of Teacher Codeswitching with English-Only Explanations on the Vocabulary Acquisition of Chinese University Students

- By Tian & Macaro (2012)

- The aims were to:

1. Explore the benefits of intentional vocabulary learning.

Focus-on-Form → where the teacher draws her students' attention to specific lexical items in the text or discourse

2. Explore the effect of teacher's codeswitching on students vocabulary learning

#### Sample

- 117 First-year English Language majors in Chinese universities, Shandong Province
- Students were stratified into 4 proficiency levels

- L1 of the students was Chinese
- L2 of the students was English

#### Sample

Group	Number	condition
1 (Experimental)	40	Non-codeswitching (NCS) Received vocabulary explanation in L2 (Lexical Focus-on-form)
2 (Experimental)	40	Codeswitching (CS) Brief switches by the teacher to Chinese in relation to the L2 lexical item (Lexical Focus-on-form)
3 (Control)	37	Control (CONT) Did not receive vocabulary explanation (No lexical focus-on-form)

#### Procedure

- The sessions were videotaped
- The total number of the listening passages were 17
- Each text included 10 target words: concrete & abstract
- The study lasted for 9 week period:
  1. Students took a baseline proficiency test
  2. Vocabulary pretest was administered to all 3 groups
  3. The intervention began 1 week later
  4. The intervention lasted for 6 weeks

### Procedure

NCS Group	CS Group	CONT Group
6 sessions	6 sessions	6 sessions
6 posttests	6 posttest	No posttests

A delayed test for all groups

### The Intervention

- The focus was on listening
- For each session, the teacher carried out the following procedures:

NCS Group	CS Group	CONT Group
1- the teachers played the recorded text once 2- Then, students were asked to complete a multiple choice comprehension questions 3- Next, the teachers collected them immediately		
1-Teacher played the text again in segments 2- Vocabulary was written on the board 3-Explanation was provided in English	(same)  Equivalent was given in Chinese	1- Text was played again 2- Students discussed the listening

### Results

- Lexical focus-on-form is beneficial for vocabulary acquisition:
- In the long term; significant gains for both treatment groups over the control group
- There was some benefit for teachers CS to Chinese
- The L2 only information took longer to explain
- No negative effect from mixing codes during classroom interaction

### Results

- Students benefited from L1 lexical explanation regardless of their level of proficiency
- Students recalled in Chinese: Half of the English- only group tended to give Chinese equivalents rather than English definitions

### Tian & Macaro (2012) Concluded

- "Codeswitching has some benefits for vocabulary learning that becomes significant therefore when it is considered in relation to time taken up" (ibid., 382)
- "Our findings suggest some benefit for teacher codeswitching over remaining in the L2 ..." (ibid., 383)

### Using Similarity in Form Between L1-L2 Vocabulary Items (Keyword Method/Linguistic Mnemonics) in L2 Vocabulary Instruction

- By Tabatabaei & Hejazi (2011)
- Explore the effect of keyword method instruction on improving vocabulary learning among Iranian intermediate EFL learners, Najaf Abad Islamic Azad University
- The L1 was Persian
- The L2 was English

## Participants

- 77 intermediate students: 39 females & 38 males
- The ages ranged from 18 to 24
- The subjects were divided into 4 groups:

2 experimental groups

(male & female)

2 control groups

(male & female)

## Procedure

1. The duration of the course was 3 sessions
2. Pretest: administered 1 week prior to the study
3. Vocabulary Immediate recall Posttest: to measure the short term effects of keyword method
4. Vocabulary delayed recall posttest (2 weeks later): to measure the long term effects of this method
5. Both groups (experimental & control) had the same teacher and were taught the same sets of words

## Treatment

Experimental Groups	Control Groups
Received a sheet with 3 columns <b>Column 1</b> consisted of 10 English words <b>Column 2</b> contained the equivalence in Persian <b>Column 3</b> was left blank to be filled by learners Learners were required to find a link through the similarity of the form of those 2 columns They had to write a meaningful sentence in the third column	Received the same sets of words with only 2 columns <b>Column 1</b> consisted of 10 English words <b>Column 2</b> included the translation of words in Persian Students memorized words

## The Keyword Method

- The experimental groups learnt the English words through 2 phases:
- 1. **Phase one:**
  - Acoustic link phase: they learnt that (Experiment) sounds like the Persian word (key word)  
فرض اکس (key word)

## The Keyword Method

### 2. Phase two:

- Imagery phase: the learners created a mental image that associated the key word (فرض اکس) with the native language translation of the L1 word
- Students imagine (فرض اکس) (ازمایش) doing something together
  - This interactive image helped them to remember that (experiment) which sounds like the Persian word (اکس) means (ازمایش)

## Results

- The experimental groups (received the instruction through the keyword method) significantly outperformed the control group (received translation)
- The superiority of keyword method over word lists memorization

### Results

- The experimental groups' achievements did not change from immediate to delayed posttest because of the "depth of the information processing"



The students used: image in the mind + acoustic  
association of the words in their first language →  
manage more information in deeper level →  
better recall than the control group

### What Do You Think?

1. Do you think that mixing Arabic and English during classroom interaction have a negative or positive effect on your students?
2. Do you think that the "keyword method" can be beneficial to your students?

Thank You for Listening



## **Appendix 8: Pre-Interviews Questions**

- 1- What is your belief about the use of Arabic in teaching English?
  - 1a. If the answer is Yes: what do you think are the factors that influence the amount of Arabic used in your classes?
  - 1b. If the answer is No: why do you think that Arabic should not be used?
- 2- Do you think that using Arabic is a sign of teacher's inability to conduct the whole class or the whole lesson in English? Explain
- 3- Teachers believe that when the students know that Arabic is not allowed they are forced to use English. What do you think?
- 4- What techniques do you employ if your students fail to understand your questions?
- 5- Do you think that using Arabic can affect your students' attitudes towards learning English?
- 6- Do you allow your students to use Arabic? Why? Why not? How does it affect them (positive-negative way)
- 7- What are the factors that influence students to use Arabic in the classroom?

### **Appendix 9: Post-Interview Questions**

1. Have your belief, about the use of Arabic in teaching English, been influenced by attending the focus group discussions? Why or why not?
2. What do you think the principled use of Arabic mean?
3. In your classroom, which position are you going to follow: Arabic should be excluded, Arabic as the last resort, or use Arabic in a principled way? Or you have no position regarding the use of Arabic in the classroom?
4. What influence your decision to go into Arabic? (Pauses, blank faces, just a feeling ...)
5. Do you plan in advance that you are going to use more or less Arabic in your classes? (Beginners or repeaters, time constraint because of the module system, lack of student motivation)
6. After attending the FG, Are you going to use, the same, more or less Arabic than before with you students?
  - 6a- If the answer is Yes: for what purposes Arabic is going to be used? And why?
  - 6b- If the answer is No: Why do you discourage the use of Arabic in your classes?

(Because of attending the focus groups, past experience, or the policy?)
5. After attending the focus group discussions, are you going to allow your students to use the same, more, or less Arabic than before in the classroom? Why or why not?

## **Appendix 10: Piloting Interviews**

1. What is your policy about the use of Arabic in your classes?
2. Do you think the students' level affect the amount of Arabic used in your classes?
3. Some teachers at the ELI believe that the environment is a major factor that influences students' use of Arabic? In other words, when the students know that Arabic is not allowed then they are forced to use English. What do you think?
4. What techniques do you employ when your students fail to understand your questions?
5. Do you think that using Arabic can make your students more or less interested to learn English?
6. Do you allow your students to use Arabic? Why/why not?
7. Do you think the teacher's nationality is a factor that influences students' use of Arabic in the classroom?

**Appendix 11: Observational Checklist: Target Language Logs (beginners and Experienced) (Adapted from Macaro, 1997: 210-11)**

Instances of teacher reverting to English (tick boxes to indicate approximate number of instances)
when giving instructions for an activity or when giving clarification [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when giving instruction for an activity <i>which some pupils seemed not to understand</i> [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when giving directions or changing the focus of the lesson (e.g. 'close books', 'now let's do a listening') [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when making disciplinary/management interventions (e.g. 'stop talking'; 'don't tap that pencil', 'listen all of you' 'don't shout out') [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when talking on a one-to-one basis with a pupil <i>with</i> rest of class being able to hear (e.g. 'have you done your homework, Emma?' 'have you brought the worksheet, John?') [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when talking on a one-to-one basis with a pupil <i>without</i> rest of class ostensibly being able to hear (e.g. 'are you feeling OK?' 'how are you getting on with that?' 'if you don't stop that now you'll be in trouble') [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when praising, encouraging [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when correcting an oral response [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when commenting or giving feedback (e.g. on a listening) [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when confirming (e.g. parotting) [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when translating or asking for translation (e.g. comment est-ce qu'on dit <i>factory</i> ) [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when, in your judgement, the teacher did not know the L2 phrase or word [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when talking about the culture of the target country [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when teaching a more 'Language Awareness' part of the lesson [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]
when attempting to explain a grammatical point [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ] [ ]

<b>Description of School</b>	inner city	[ ]	[ ]
	small town	[ ]	[ ]
	suburban	[ ]	[ ]
	rural	[ ]	[ ]
	other	[ ]	[ ]

**Description of class**

Approximate number in class [ ]      mixed ability [ ]

year group [ ]      set: 1   2   3   4   5   6

other ability grouping: .....

general response of class: (e.g. cooperative)

.....

.....

Does **the teacher** describe himself/herself as fluent in the TL [ ] fairly fluent

[ ] not fluent [ ]

**Description of lesson**

length in mins [ ]      topic:

teacher centred	[ ]	oral presentation	[ ]	writing/reading alone	[ ]
pupil centred	[ ]	pair work	[ ]	writing/reading in groups	[ ]
about half of each	[ ]	group work	[ ]	listening to tape	[ ]
				listening to teacher	[ ]



## 12 Appendix 12: Observation Checklist (Adapted from Macaro, 1997: 210-11)

Sarah Baeshin, s0974026

11-12  
18-Feb. 2013

*The teacher uses only English to explain Grammar*

### Observation Checklist

Observational checklist: Target language logs (beginners and Experienced) (Adapted from Macaro, 1997: 210-11)

1 - Instances of teachers reverting to Arabic (L1) (enter a tick against each statement to indicate approximate number of instances:

Instances	Frequency	Notes
1- When giving instructions for an activity or when giving clarification		
2- When giving instructions for an activity which some learners seemed not to understand		
3- When giving directions or changing the focus of the lesson (e.g. 'close books', 'now let's do a listening') <i>(Topic Switch)</i>		
4- When correcting oral response		
5- When commenting or giving feedback)		
6- When confirming (e.g. parroting)		
7- When translating or asking for translation		
8- When attempting to explain a grammatical point		
9- When making disciplinary/ management interventions		

10- When talking on-one to-one basis with a learner with rest of class being able to hear		
11- When talking on one-to-one basis with a learner without rest of class ostensibly being able to hear		
12- When praising, encouraging		
13- When, in your judgment, the teacher did not know the L2 phrase or word		
14- When talking about the culture of the target country		
15- When teaching a more 'Language Awareness' part of the lesson		
Reiteration		
Draw Students' Attention		
Highlight important info		

## II -Description of class *Ceramman*

Approximate number in class *12*

Group level *4*

## III -Description of lesson

General response of class: (e.g. cooperative):

*not very responsive*

Length in mins	<i>60</i>	topic: <i>If conditional</i>
Teacher centered	<del><input checked="" type="checkbox"/></del>	Writing/reading alone <input type="checkbox"/>
Student centered	<input type="checkbox"/>	Writing/ reading in groups <input type="checkbox"/>
About half of each	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Listening to tape <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Pair work	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Listening to teacher <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Group work	<input type="checkbox"/>	

### **Appendix 13: Rationale for using parametric tests**

The distribution assumption is important to help select the appropriate statistical test. In this study parametric tests are employed because the data is parametric. Using parametric tests when the data is non-parametric could produce inaccurate output (Field, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011). In order to assess the normality of the data, three interrelated approaches are employed. First, since it provides a graphical representation of the data, the distribution of scores is checked visually by using the histogram. The histograms below (Figure 3) illustrate that the majority of the scores cluster around the centre of the distribution forming a bell-shaped curve. The second approach is to check the values of skewness and kurtosis in conjunction with the histograms and the Shapiro-Wilk test. In a normal distribution, the value of skewness and kurtosis should be equal to zero and “the further the value is from zero, the more likely it is that the data are not normally distributed” (Field, 2009: 138). In my data, as shown in the table below, the skew value is very close to zero and the kurtosis value is a little negative; the score of skewness is 0.3 and the score of the kurtosis is -0.6 (see Table 6). In order to test the normality of distribution, these values are converted to  $z$ -scores. According to Field (2009, p. 138), the  $z$ -score is a score, “from a distribution that has a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1”. The value of scores is considered significant when it is greater than 1.96 at  $p < .05$  (Field, 2009, p. 139). Field argues that the  $z$ -score is useful for two reasons (2009: 138):

- 1- We can compare skew and kurtosis values in different samples that used different measures
- 2- We can see how likely our values of skew and kurtosis are to occur

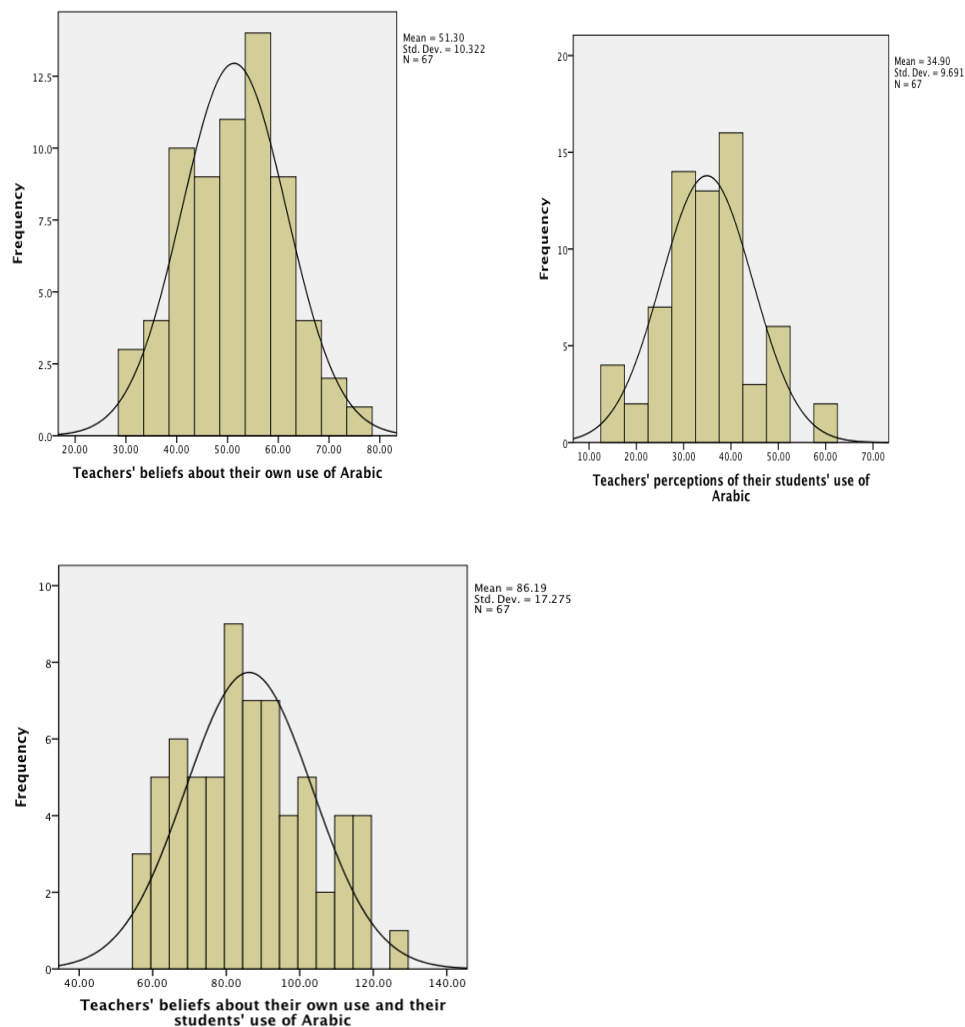
The  $z$ -score of skewness is  $0.297/0.293=1.014$  on the overall teachers’ beliefs about their use and their students’ use of Arabic. The score is not at all skewed. The kurtosis score is:  $-0.583/0.578=-1.009$ . This value is less than 1.69, indicating no significant kurtosis (at  $p < 0.05$ ).

The distribution of normality was also tested using the Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) test. The  $p$  value is 0.190 which is not significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) and therefore the distribution is normal.



From these results, we can see that the data in the present study is normally distributed. In addition, in a sample that includes 30 participants or more, “sampling distribution will tend to be normal regardless of the population distribution” (Field, 2009, p. 134). For these reasons, I used parametric tests.

Figure 1: Histograms illustrating normal distributions



### **Comparing more than two means using One-Way Anova**

A one-way ANOVA was employed to identify whether there is a difference in teachers' beliefs score and teachers' ages, degrees, countries of degrees, qualifications, and course type on their beliefs about the use of Arabic in classroom. It was employed because these independent variables include more than three groups. A total of 5 comparisons have been made and none of these revealed any statistically significant difference at  $p$  value greater than 0.05.

#### **a. Teachers' age**

Regarding teachers' age, they were divided into four age groups: 23-27, 28-32, 33-37, and over 37. I used five age bands. The youngest faculty member in the ELI was 23 and the oldest was over 40. The teachers' ages have no statistically significant effect on their beliefs at  $p > 0.05$  for the 4 groups,  $F(3,63) = 2.24$ ,  $p = 0.092$ .

#### **b. Teachers' degrees**

Referring to the teachers' type of degree, they were divided into three groups: Bachelors, Masters, PhD holders. The teachers' degrees have no statistically significant effect on their beliefs at  $p > 0.05$  for the 3 groups,  $F(3,63) = 0.29$ ,  $p = 0.827$ .

#### **c. Countries of degrees**

Regarding the countries where teachers earned their degrees, the teachers were divided into three groups: group one obtained their degrees from Arab speaking countries; group two obtained their degrees from non-Arab, non-English speaking countries; and group three obtained their degrees from English-speaking countries. The analysis of One-Way ANOVA indicated that there was no significant effect of the countries of degrees on teachers' beliefs at the  $p > 0.05$  level for the three groups,  $F(3,63) = 0.11$ ,  $p = 0.952$ .

#### **d. Teachers' qualifications**

Concerning teachers' qualifications, they were divided into nine groups: linguistics, language teaching, literature, linguistics and language teaching, literature and language teaching, linguistics and literature, linguistics literature and language

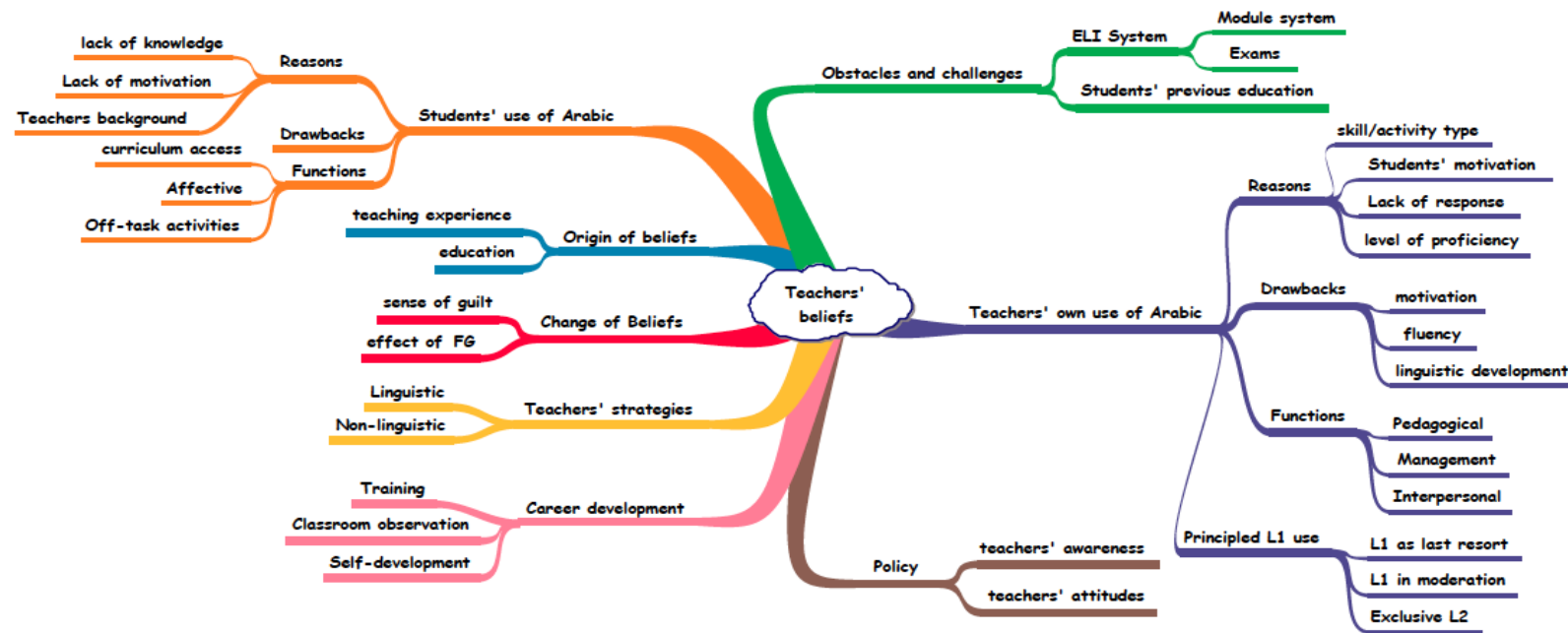
teaching (LLL), translation, special education. A One-Way ANOVA also revealed no significant effect of teachers' specialties on their beliefs at  $p > 0.05$  level for the 9 groups,  $F(8,58) = 1.63$ ,  $p = 0.137$ .

#### **e. Course type**

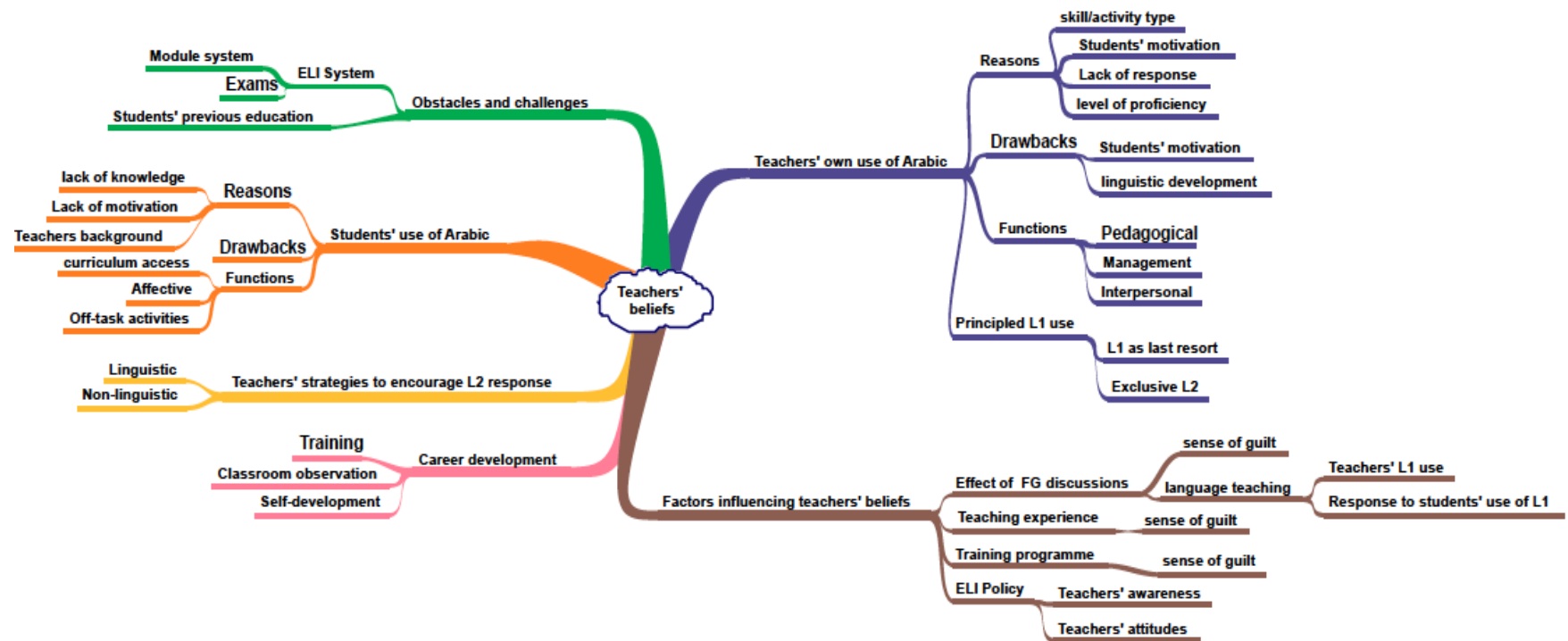
Regarding the course types the trained teachers' attended, they were divided into five groups: short course, certificate, diploma, degree, and other degrees. There was no significant effect of the course types that the teachers attended on their beliefs at  $p > 0.05$  level for the groups,  $F(5,61) = 0.138$ ,  $p = 0.983$

In summary, the results of One-Way ANOVAs indicate no significant effect of the teachers' ages, degrees, countries of degrees, qualifications, and course type on their beliefs about the use of Arabic in classroom. Teachers' beliefs are same across the whole group regardless of any social or professional differences.

## Appendix 14: Mind Map 1

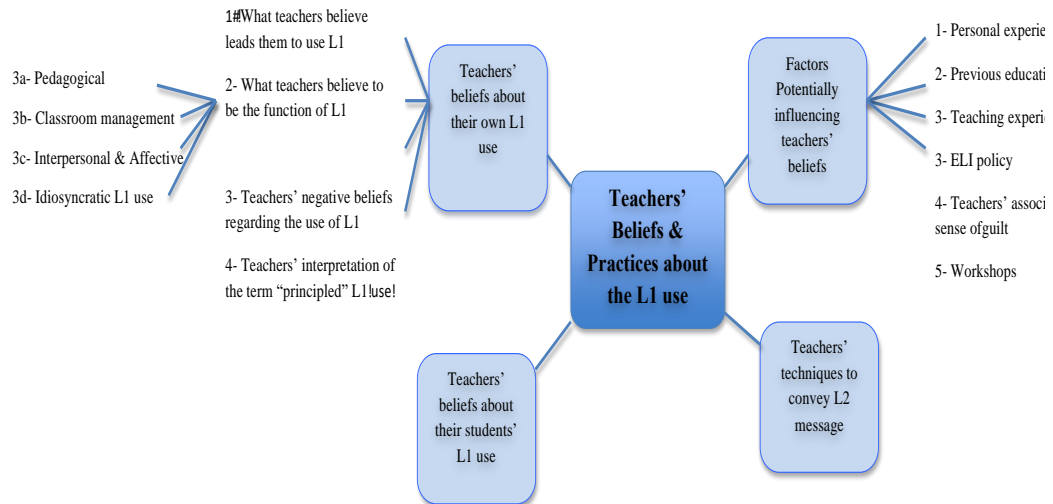


## Appendix 15: Mind Map 2




## Appendix 16: Mind Map 3

Five Themes from Interviews, Workshops, Observations, & Questionnaire



## Appendix 17: Informed Consent Form (Vice-Dean)

<p>KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA Ministry of Higher Education <b>KING ABDULAZIZ UNIVERSITY</b> Women's Campus</p>	 <p>معهد اللغة الإنجليزية <b>ENGLISH</b> LANGUAGE INSTITUTE</p>	<p>المملكة العربية السعودية وزارة التعليم العالي <b>جامعة الملك عبد العزيز</b> شطر الطالبات</p>
Ref. : .....	مكتب وكالة المعهد Institute Dean's Office	الرقم : .....
Date: .....		التاريخ : .....
Encl.: .....		المرفقات: .....

**INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

**Saudi Teachers' Attitudes Toward Code-Switching to Arabic in English  
Language Classrooms at The English Language Institute**

Dear Dr. Al-Johani,

I'm Sarah Baeshin; a TA at the ELI. Now I'm working on my PhD first year report in Moray House School of Education at the University of Edinburgh. The main goal of my study is to find out about the Saudi teachers' use and their learners' use of Arabic in English classrooms.

- My study will take place in the second semester of 2013.
- In order to answer my research questions, I need to administer a questionnaire in January to all the Saudi teachers working at the ELI.
- From January to March, I will carry out **2** one-to-one interviews, with 8 of the teachers, that are 20 minutes long.
- Teachers who agree to take part in the interviews will also be kindly asked to join **5** group discussions that are 30 minutes long each (within the period January to March).
- I will also need to observe **2** classrooms for each teacher who agrees to take part in the interviews and the group discussions.
- Participants will be assured that their responses will be handled with confidentiality and all participants will remain anonymous. They will be informed that their participation is completely voluntary and they are free to withdraw at any time during the interviews, observations, and focus group discussions. In addition, they will be free to decline answering any question they do not wish to answer. The participants will be assured that they will not be identifiable in any report subsequently produced by the researcher.

ص.ب. : ٤٢٨١٧ جـ : ٢١٥٥١ P.O.Box: 42817 Jeddah: 21551	فاكس : ٦٤٠٠٠٠٠ - ٢٧٢١٣ Fax.: 6400000 - 27213 E-Mail: elig@kau.edu.sa	٢٧٠٩١-٢٧٢٠٨ / ٦٤٠٠٠٠٠ : ☎ ☎ : 6400000 / 27208-27091
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مكتب وكالة المعهد  
Institute Dean's Office

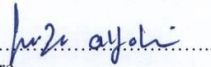
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التاريخ: .....

المرفقات: .....

- Summary of the results will be sent to participants once they are completed.
- It is hoped that the results of this study can help improve the quality of teaching at the ELI.
- If you have any questions about my study, Please feel free to contact me at [s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk](mailto:s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk). Tel: +966 560 886 224.

I have read and understand the above and consent and I will grant Sarah Baeshin access to the research site. I authorise her to contact all the teachers. I understand that I will be able to keep a copy of this informed consent form for my records.

Signature 

Date 6-10-2012

**Thank You For Your Cooperation**



## **Appendix 18: Informed Consent Form (Teachers)**

### **Teachers' Attitudes Towards the use of Arabic in English Language Classrooms at The English Language Institute**

**Dear Colleagues,**

I am Sarah Baeshin, I am undertaking a research project as part of my PhD degree in the Moray House School of Education, the University of Edinburgh. I am exploring teachers' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in teaching English at the English Language Institute. The result of my study may have some implications for developing teachers' practices at the ELI.

- In order to answer my research questions, I need carry out one-to-one interviews, focus group discussions, and observations.
- From January to March, I will carry out **2** one-to-one interviews, with 8 of the teachers, that are 20 minutes long.
- Teachers who agree to take part in the interviews will also be kindly asked to join **5** group discussions that are 30 minutes long each (within the period January to March).
- I will also need to observe **2** classrooms for each teacher who agrees to take part in the interviews and the group discussions.
- Participants' responses will be handled with confidentiality and all participants will remain anonymous. Participation is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time during the interviews, observations, and focus group discussions. In addition, you are not obliged to discuss issues or answer questions that you do not wish to address or discuss. Your name will not be linked with the research materials, and you will not be identifiable in any report subsequently produced by the researcher.
- I would like to take some field notes and audio record the interviews, focus-group discussions and classroom interactions. The recording materials will be erased as soon as I finish using them. If you wish to see a copy of my notes and transcriptions, please note it down on the consent form.
- If you have any questions about my study, Please feel free to contact me at [s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk](mailto:s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk). Tel: +966 560 886 224

- I have read and understood the above consent to participate in this study. I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project on the topic mentioned above to be conducted by **Mrs. Sarah Baeshin**

.....  
**Participant's signature**

.....  
**Date**

**Thank You for Your Cooperation**

## **Appendix 19: Informed Consent Form (Students)**

### **Teachers' Attitudes Towards the use of Arabic in English Language Classrooms at The English Language Institute**

Please read the following and sign it if you agree with what it says.

Dear Student,

I am Sarah Baeshin, I am undertaking a research project as part of my PhD degree in the Moray House School of Education, the University of Edinburgh. I am exploring teachers' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in teaching English at the English Language Institute. The result of my study may have some implications for developing teachers' practices at the ELI.

I would like to observe the classroom twice, take some field notes and audio record classroom interactions. The recording materials will be erased as soon as I finish using them. If you wish to see a copy of my notes and transcriptions, please note it down on the consent form.

- I have been informed that participants' responses will be handled with confidentiality and all participants will remain anonymous. I am aware that participation is completely voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time during classroom observations. In addition, I am not obliged to discuss issues or answer questions that I do not wish to address or discuss. I have been told that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and you I will not be identifiable in any report subsequently produced by the researcher.
- If you have any questions about my study, Please do not hesitate to contact me at [s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk](mailto:s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk)

I have read and understood the above consent to participate in this study. I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project on the topic mentioned above to be conducted by **Mrs. Sarah Baeshin**

.....  
**Participant's signature**

.....  
**Date**

**Thank You for Your Cooperation**

## نموذج الموافقة

(طالبات)

### موقف الأستاذات حول استخدام اللغة العربية في تعليم اللغة الانجليزية بمعهد اللغة الانجليزية

يرجى قراءة ما يلي والتوقيع عليه إذا كنتي تتفقين على ما ينص:

عزيزتي الطالبة،

أنا سارة باعشين، وأقوم بإجراء مشروع بحثي لمرحلة الدكتوراة بكلية التربية والتعليم بجامعة أدنبرة في المملكة المتحدة. يدور موضوعي حول موقف أستاذات اللغة الانجليزية من استخدام اللغة العربية في تدريس اللغة الانجليزية بمعهد اللغة الانجليزية. قد يكون لدراستي بعض النتائج الإيجابية في تطوير ممارسات الأستاذات. أود أن ألاحظ الفصول الدراسية مرتين، وتسجيل بعض الملاحظات الميدانية مع القيام بالتسجيل الصوتي للتفاعلات الصفية. سيتم مسح التسجيلات سرعان الانتهاء من استخدامها. إذا كنت تترغبين في رؤية نسخة من ملاحظاتي يرجى تدوين ذلك أسفل استمارة الموافقة.

- أوافق على المشاركة بحرية وطوعية في البحث حول الموضوع المذكور أعلاه وبلغني أنه سيتم التعامل مع ردود المشاركات في هذا البحث بسرية تامة و أن أسماء جميع المشاركات ستبقى مجهولة. وأنا أدرك أن المشاركة تطوعية تماما وأنا حرة في الانسحاب في أي وقت خلال الملاحظات الفصلية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، أنا حرة في رفض الإجابة على أي سؤال لا أود الإجابة عليه. **لقد تم اخباري أن** أسمى لن يكون مرتبط بأي تقرير من قبل الباحثة.
- إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة عن دراستي، لا تترددي في التواصل معي عبر بريدي الالكتروني [s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk](mailto:s0974026@sms.ed.ac.uk)
- لقد قرأت وفهمت ما تنص عليه هذه الدراسة وأوافق بالمشاركة في هذا المشروع البحثي حول الموضوع المذكور أعلاه والذي ستجريه سارة أحمد باعشين.

التاريخ

اسم الطالبة

نشكر لكم حسن تعاونكم

## Appendix 20: Sample transcript of Pre-interview

Comments	Full Transcription Ayisha (Egyptian)
Teacher negative attitude to L1 use related to motivation	<p>I: How are you Mrs. Ayisha?</p> <p>Ayisha: Fine Thank God. How are you Miss Sarah?</p> <p>I: I'm fine thank you</p> <p>Ayisha: Thank God</p> <p>I: Do you need some coffee or water?</p> <p>Ayisha: No thank you</p> <p>I: So can we start with the first question?</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes we can</p> <p>I: OK, so what is your belief about the use of Arabic in teaching English?</p> <p>Ayisha: Mm through my experience as a teacher, I think that <b>using Arabic demotivates students</b></p>
Students positive attitude to teacher L1 use	<p>I: In what way do think...</p> <p>Ayisha: Mm when ...when they know that the teacher can speak Arabic</p> <p>I: Aha↑</p> <p>Ayisha: They tend to give responses to... to give.. to <b>ask the teacher to use their native language</b></p>
Teacher negative attitude related to proficiency	<p>I: So you are against it</p> <p>Ayisha: I'm <b>against using Arabic</b> in the class</p> <p>I: At any level?</p> <p>Ayisha: <b>erm to very limited erm to a limited area mainly maybe in the beginner level</b></p> <p>I: In the [Beginner</p> <p>Ayisha: [But when I find that it is impossible for the students to understand</p>
Factors influencing teachers' beliefs	<p>I: Aha↑</p> <p>Ayisha: When I give the word in Arabic, even <b>in some manuals erm it is mentioned</b> that the teacher can use the native language of the learners in order to clarify this word, so I think this is.. But for.. In limited areas.. Limited usage</p> <p>I: So it's from your experience</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes</p>
Factors influencing teachers' beliefs	<p>I: It's not from training or because you've read something or attended a conference [that</p> <p>Ayisha: [I attended some seminars, I read some materials on the Internet aaa dealing with using [aaa</p>
Factors influencing teachers' beliefs	<p>I: [Arabic</p> <p>Ayisha: Arabic yes or the native language of learners in... in English classes, <b>but through my experience I think that using Arabic is not good</b></p> <p>I: Are you following a certain teaching method like the</p>

<p>Teacher negative attitude to L1 use related to proficiency &amp; Motivation</p>	<p>direct method or the grammar translation method or just  Ayisha: Maybe I use a lot of methods. It depends on my students  I: I see  Ayisha: So I use different methods aa and I always look for new methods maybe they could be more effective  I: In teaching↑  Ayisha: In teaching yes  I: So you think Arabic should not be used  Ayisha: Yes, especially in higher levels  I: aha↑  Ayisha: It can be very <b>strictly used</b>. Used with some restrictions in <b>beginner levels</b>  I: So do you think it affects the outcome of your students? When using Arabic  Ayisha: I think the students become <b>demotivated to listen to English</b>. They want the teacher to talk in Arabic, to speak in Arabic, and to discuss everything in Arabic, so they won't learn  I: English  Ayisha: English  I: so it affects their level?  Ayisha: Their English skills yeah</p>
<p>Native is speaker is best</p>	<p>I: Aha↑ so some teachers believe that when the students know that Arabic is not allowed then they are forced to use English  Ayisha: Yes, yes  I: What do you think?  Ayisha: I believe yes I agree yes because when when they have a teacher a <b>native speaker, they know that she doesn't speak Arabic, the students know that she doesn't speak Arabic, so they are forced to communicate with her in her language</b> even if they make some mistakes but still use her own ...her native language</p>
<p>Non native teacher is best</p>	<p>I: So you think the nationality can also affect the use of Arabic in the classroom?  Ayisha: Sometimes... I mean  I: The nationality of the teacher  Ayisha: But still teachers I mean ... <b>from other countries not native speakers can be sometimes...More effective than native speakers</b> because in our countries when we were taught English we... we had the bases and grammar, and we were taught a lot of grammar, a lot of structure...maybe I heard I'm not sure whether this's right or wrong because I...I mmm... I use to teach one British student in my class  I: aha↑  Ayisha: One day when I explained grammar, I gave some</p>

Career development	<p>exercises, he was the worst student in class to do grammar although he speaks a good English... very good English he's a <b>native speaker</b></p> <p>I: Yes</p> <p>Ayisha: But he couldn't erm change erm a verb into a past tense. If he finds any expression identifying the past like yesterday, he couldn't do that. When I talked to him, to his parents ... his mother was British. She told me that in England we... we don't teach our students grammar. They are not taught grammar in class ... maybe in higher levels... but in Egypt and other countries. In Arab countries a we focus on grammar on structure and on other skills so maybe a <b>non-native speaker can deal with grammar</b></p> <p>I: better?</p> <p>Ayisha: Better</p> <p>I: So it not necessary to be a native speaker to be a good teacher?</p> <p>Ayisha: No I think this not erm</p>
Students' response in L1	<p>I: True↑</p> <p>Ayisha: Not true because if you like teaching, you enjoy teaching. If you believe in teaching, you can be a good teacher</p>
Teacher response to students' L1	<p>I: Regardless the nationality</p> <p>Ayisha: Regardless of your nationality you can erm make ... <b>improve yourself by reading a lot, going to seminars, attending workshops</b>. So you can gain a lot of experience. Besides, our experience in class</p> <p>I: Yeah, that's true. What about your students? Do you allow your students to use Arabic?</p>
Teacher strategy	<p>Ayisha: Sometimes they... I I ask them ... I encourage them to use English in class most of the time</p> <p>I: Yes</p> <p>Ayisha: Even when I ask them to give a meaning of a word <b>they just translate the word</b>. I tell them you can give me simple words to clarify or to make it clear</p> <p>I: OK</p> <p>Ayisha: They try but maybe their level is modest, but I... I encourage them</p>
Students' use of Arabic related to proficiency	<p>I: So, they try to translate and respond in Arabic right?</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes, yes</p> <p>I: Is that a setback?</p> <p>Ayisha: <b>I don't stop them</b> but I still try to improve their performance. <b>I ask them who can give me another word for...</b> I don't remember the word for ... I can't remember the word. A word which is very easy. <b>I ask them who can give me another word for this word? They give me the synonym</b>, so it can be</p> <p>I: In English</p>

Teacher Negative attitude to students L1 use	<p>Ayisha: In English yes. They give me the synonym in English</p> <p>I: Do you think that their levels affect their use of Arabic? You think in the higher level, they are more able to use more [English?</p> <p>Ayisha: [Of course</p> <p>I: than beginners</p> <p>Ayisha: <b>Beginners don't have background. They don't have enough vocabulary</b> to use. But in <b>higher levels, they have more vocabulary</b>...they know more structures. They can make use of them</p> <p>I: But you don't punish them for speaking Arabic or using Arabic?</p> <p>Ayisha: No I don't. My way is not punishing. I don't like to embarrass students. They will be affected, and maybe they will hate my classes. But <b>I can talk in a nice way to show them that this is not for their own good, and if they give a meaning in English, it will be much better, and this will help them to practice the language.</b></p> <p>I: What about in group work or pair work. Do you notice that they use Arabic or they don't? Especially in reading circles</p>
Teacher strategy to discourage students' L1 use	<p>Ayisha: Sometimes But I try to tell them if <b>you use Arabic you won't get the meaning or you won't be able to give feedback when I ask you.</b> You won't find suitable words to tell me. So, try to use your English. If you need any help I can help you. I always offer my help</p>
Teacher L1 use related to proficiency	<p>I: That's good but you don't deduct marks because they Arabic in [<sup>12</sup>the</p>
Teacher strategy related to proficiency	<p>Ayisha:</p> <p>[If I find them insisting maybe. Yeah, maybe. But Thank God, up till now I haven't been faced with such students. <b>But if I found them insisting, I can warn them by deducting marks if you keep on talking in Arabic so in a way</b></p>
Obstacles facing language teachers	<p>I: Have you ever been faced with a situation that you had to explain the lesson in Arabic?</p> <p>Ayisha: In few times yes ... few times...erm ...In the summer course when I was teaching</p>
Student negative attitude to L2 use related to motivation	<p>I: Why summer course?</p> <p>Ayisha: Because in the summer course you meet very <b>weak students</b>...terribly weak students. I think last summer. I started teaching the normal way I teach. Speaking English all the time, trying</p>
Teacher negative attitude to students'	

<sup>12</sup> [ The left bracket means overlapping talk



L1 use related to fluency	to <b>make gestures, body language in order to convey the message</b> but still I I I they were only watching TV. There was no response. I tended to use Arabic
Teacher strategy	I: Very frustrating? Ayisha: Yes and I was very frustrated. I told them it's the first time for me to use Arabic. Then you cannot learn anything. But still I I was forced to use Arabic I: You were forced Ayisha: Yes I: You went against your beliefs? Ayisha: Yes, yes <b>sometimes you are faced with situations when you cannot apply the methodology</b> or what you've learnt so you have to mmm manage I: Yes
Teacher negative attitude to L1 use related to competence	Ayisha: To to be successful by any means I: Did your students pass? Ayisha: Most of them passed Thank God. Maybe 5... 3 or 5 students out of 25 didn't pass I: Do you think erm? Does it affect the fluency of your students when you use a lot of Arabic? Ayisha: Of course, <b>they become demotivated to use English,</b>
Teacher strategies to encourage L2 use	<b>so their fluency become worse.</b> Yes there Should be maybe ... I <b>I always ask my student to make conversations short conversations together about any topic.</b> One asks a question and the other answers. This helps them to talk. To <b>use the language in a communicative way</b> I: And even if they make mistakes? Is that OK? Ayisha: Yes, <b>whenever they make mistakes I correct with a smile in order not to discourage them.</b> I: Not discourage them to participate Ayisha: Yes
Teacher positive attitude to students' L2 use Related to communication	I: So, do you think that using Arabic is a sign of the teacher inability to teach the whole lesson in English? So [it Ayisha: [Sometimes I: So she's incompetent? She's not competent to teach in English. That's why sometimes she uses Arabic because she doesn't know the right word in English? Ayisha: Yes, because <b>I think that using Arabic shows that the teacher does not have the ability to convey the message except in that language</b> I: I see. So, is it a sign of incompetence? Ayisha: Yes, it is a <b>sign of incompetence</b> but in my... the
Obstacles facing	

language teachers	<p>case I told you before ... in the summer course</p> <p>I: Yes, that was an exception</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes exception</p> <p>I: you usually use it?</p> <p>Ayisha: No, I'll be changed to an Arabic teacher not an English teacher (laugh). I'll change m career</p> <p>I: So you think it's a sign of less or more creative teaching?</p> <p>The use of Arabic</p> <p>Ayisha: No, it doesn't go with creativity</p> <p>I: It doesn't go.. You have to use [other</p> <p>Ayisha: [Yeah you have to <b>be creative, innovative</b> in order to convey the message</p> <p>I: What if the don't understand</p> <p>Ayisha: You <b>can draw, you can give...show them a picture, you can show them a video.</b> You can do a lot of things</p> <p>I: It's doesn't waste your time [t</p> <p>Ayisha: [It depends on the pacing guide and the plan but still to depend on such methods maybe you'll gain from the students. You will see them improve even if you're not following the pacing guide because our aim <b>aim is to encourage students to use English for communication</b></p> <p>I: That's true</p> <p>Ayisha: It's not only about finishing units and pass exams</p> <p>I: So your target is not just to help them pas the exams. You want them also to be able to use it outside the classroom</p> <p>Ayisha: Outside the classroom. This is our aim. But still...we hope</p> <p>I: You think you're reaching your aim by just using English?</p> <p>Ayisha: I'm trying. I'm trying.. I'm doing my best to reach this aim but sometimes other circumstances force me <b>not to reach my aim like the schedule, the pacing guide, the exam time a lot of assessments</b></p> <p>I: Are you tight on time</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes</p> <p>I: So you have to cover the whole curriculum and use English at the same time. Do you manage to do that?</p> <p>Ayisha: <b>Sometimes I put my aim as a target and then I follow the pacing guide not as I: Strictly</b></p> <p>Ayisha: No, I have my own ways but</p> <p>I: You manage</p> <p>Aisha: Yes, and the students know the grammar of the units the vocabulary all the part. I try to create something new</p> <p>I: That's really good. But some teachers say: "we can't stick to English all the time we have a curriculum to cover and we</p>
Teacher L1 use related to proficiency	
Obstacles facing language teachers	
Teacher L1 use related to proficiency	
Teacher negative attitude to L1 use related to linguistic development	
Teacher strategy to	

encourage L2 use Teacher strategy to elicit L1 responses	are tight on time, so we have to use Arabic because using English only is time consuming.” Do agree with that? Ayisha: I partially agree with that because sometimes you find <b>terrible students ... very low-level students. How can you manage?</b>
Factors influencing teachers’ beliefs	
Teacher strategy to encourage students’ L1 responses	And you are forced by the <b>pacing guide. You have the time of the exam. You have things to finish so you are forced to use Arabic</b> but still you should not leave yourself Arabic most of the time. There should be some change
Mother tongue for affective functions	I: Some change Ayisha: I mean I: Use limited Arabic Ayisha: Use limited Arabic yes. But I think the only thing that makes <b>teacher use Arabic is the bad level of the students</b>
Students L1 use for affective functions	I: Bad level of the students Ayisha: But if they find the students responding communicating I don’t think... there’s no need there is any need of Arabic I: what if the students are responding and have good command of English, but you still see them using Arabic? Ayisha: This not good I: This is not good Ayisha: <b>It’s terrible</b> I: Terrible Ayisha: Yeah, because it <b>doesn’t make the students improve</b> . Even If find students who have good background of English to build to make them improve more but if use Arabic so their level will become worse I: I see. So you think it’s an easy way out. She’s being lazy just explaining in Arabic Ayisha: Yeah, trying to finish quickly I don’t like this way I: You don’t like it. You completely disagree? Ayisha: Yeah, I completely disagree especially when the students are of good levels I: So if your students fail to understand your questions, you draw you use videos, or use body language? Ayisah: Yes I: What other. Do you have other techniques? Ayisha: I try to ... if it’s a meaning. If they ask me about a meaning. I try to <b>use very simple English</b> and sometimes I hear one <b>my students translating it giving the Arabic translation. When I make sure that all the students heard her then ... they get the meaning not through me but through one of them</b> I: That’s interesting
Teacher L1 use for classroom management	
Teacher L2 use for classroom management	
Teacher positive attitude to L2 use	
Teacher strategy to elicit responses in L2	
Students negative attitude to teacher L2 use related to comprehension	

Teacher L2 use despite refusal from students	Ayisha: And <b>I read about this way or method in a manual</b>
Teacher strategy to encourage L2 use	I: I read about it as well. Ayisha: <b>You elicit the translation but you don't give it to them</b>
Positive outcome of experience	I: You don't give it directly. So you don't allow them to use Arabic. You prefer that they use English all the time. Do you think that when you use English all the time it affects your students' attitudes towards learning English? Makes them Demotivated: "because she's using English all the time, I feel I'm lost, I become demotivated"
Teacher strategy to encourage L2 use	Ayisha: I have to be careful with my students. If I find that anyone feeling lost, I should attract her attention by any means in order to motivate her and make her interested in the lesson. This is my job. I have to motivate everyone... <b>through some funny words or some jokes</b>
Career Development	I: You tell jokes in Arabic or in English? Ayisha: In English I: Really (laugh) Ayisha: Sometimes (she laughed) I: Do you joke with them in Arabic as well? Ayisha: Not with my students. Sometimes they <b>want to please me so the give me some Egyptian expressions ...</b> show me that we know I: But you don't use these Egyptian expressions to make the class more... Ayisha: Sometimes in very few times just give them a word, which can <b>make them laugh</b> I: Cheer them up Ayisha: It refreshes them I: Yes Ayisha: <b>And makes them ready to listen to more</b> I: Do you discipline your students in English like asking them to be quiet? Ayisha: When <b>I give instructions I use English</b> I: Just English Ayisha: Yeah, because I teach adults I don't give them instructions like orders. I ask them in a polite way will you please listen, please pay attention I: <b>But you don't use these expressions in Arabic</b> Ayisha: <b>No just English of course</b> I: All these expressions are in English? Ayisha: Yes in English yes of course I: What about if you want to discuss cultural issues Ayisha: I keep using simple English until they get it even if I heard a translation from one of the students and then I can help them by <b>writing some expressions on the board, to make one of the brilliant students start so she encourages the other ones to share ideas,</b> through pair work and group
Obstacles facing teachers related to students education	
Career Development	
Obstacles facing language teachers	
Native Arabic Teachers are best	

According to students	<p>work we can manage</p> <p>I: Were there any instance when your students asked you to use Arabic?</p> <p>Ayisha: I face such such instances yes... <b>Please speak Arabic teacher, we don't understand</b></p> <p>I: what was your response?</p> <p>Ayisha: I told her if I speak Arabic, I wouldn't be an English teacher then. You can ask your Arabic teacher. Can you ask your Arabic teacher to speak in English? I'm a teacher of English. <b>I should speak in English.</b> When you don't understand ask me.</p>
Teacher strategy to L2 use	
Institute policy	<p><b>I can clarify or make it clear by any means even if had to mime, dance and jump around...</b> sometimes my students laugh... It's very refreshing and my students don't feel bored during my lessons. I hate to see them feeling bored.</p> <p>I: It drains your energy when they are bored</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes, and this demotivates me as a teacher. I don't let them feel bored.</p> <p>I: <b>maybe because you have experience you know how attract their attention</b></p> <p>Ayisha: Yes, of course. At the beginning of my career as a teacher I didn't know all these methods</p> <p>I: and all these techniques</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes, and sometimes after the class I used to feel confused: what should I do now, there are still 10 minutes, but now if I have 10 minutes at the end of the class, I let them them <b>play games, show them videos and let them give their comments..</b> this comes from experience</p> <p>I: You think experience is an important factor</p> <p>Ayisha: Important, and inexperienced teachers should <b>attend workshops. They should be observed in their classes and they should be given some feedback</b></p> <p>I: They won't feel offended that you observe their classes and give them some feedback?</p> <p>Ayisha: Not, <b>if you give them positive feedback</b> and show her that you want her own good and that you want her to become better then she'll accept all your feedback. But if you in her class and give her some negative comments that she is not good</p> <p>I: She won't accept that</p> <p>Ayisha: She won't accept</p> <p>I: So What do you think the factors that influence students to use Arabic?</p> <p>Ayisha: The factors here can be <b>public schools... secondary schools here they learn English for only six year before joining he university.</b> I think that there is a</p>

	<p><b>defect in that stage. Most of the time the classes are not conducted in English</b></p> <p>I: Maybe because of the huge number of students, the teachers cannot manage to conduct the whole in English</p> <p>Ayisha: This is one of the reasons or maybe the teachers should <b>receive more training and should be observed frequently</b></p> <p>I: Observed</p> <p>Ayisha: <b>Not tell them that they are bad teachers</b> but to help them be better. If you tell her that one day you might be better than me ... then she'll definitely listen to your advice</p> <p>I: So you think they need training</p> <p>Ayisha: <b>They need training for sure</b></p> <p>I: So you think it's partially the teacher's responsibility to teach in English in order to help the students learn English</p> <p>Ayisha: Yes, but they join the university and the modular system aaa</p> <p>I: Is not helping?</p> <p>Ayisha: <b>you face a lot of difficulties to improve the students' English</b></p> <p>I: maybe because they graduated from schools where teachers used to speak Arabic, so when they join the university they use [A</p> <p>Ayisha: [Arabic, and when they find that <b>the teacher comes from an Arabic country ... the Arab world, they feel very happy because they can communicate with her in Arabic.</b> But still we have to do our job even if are faced with such difficulties we have to overcome them as much as possible</p> <p>I: even if have huge number of students in your class</p> <p>Ayisha: even</p> <p>I: It's not an excuse to use Arabic</p> <p>Ayisha: No, no. If you train your students not use Arabic ... not to utter any Arabic word in class, so they'll follow your way. If you <b>encourage them by giving them more marks or some presents maybe you can get good results</b></p> <p>I: Have you ever been faced with a situation where the students filed an official complain because they were not allowed to use Arabic in your classes</p> <p>Ayisha: Thank God I haven't been faced with such a situation, but sometimes they go to officials here to complain about some teachers "this teacher doesn't use Arabic and we don't understand". <b>But officials tell them English native speakers don't speak Arabic. You are studying English and you should be taught in English...</b> if you keep using Arabic you'll find yourself changing into an Arabic teacher</p> <p>I: so it's bad practice</p>
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	<p>Ayisha: Very bad</p> <p>I: Thanks Mrs. Ayisha. Do you have any comment to add?</p> <p>Ayisha: No, Thank you. Your questions were very nice you tackled a good issue</p> <p>I: Do you have any question to ask?</p> <p>Ayisha: No, thank you so much</p> <p>I: Thank you Mrs. Ayisha for your time</p> <p>Ayisha: Thank you so much. I wish you all the best of luck</p> <p>I: Thank you</p>
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## Appendix 21: Sample Transcript of Pre-Observation

Comments	Transcription
	<b>Rana (Saudi) Level: 4 No. of Students: 20</b> <b>Date:17-2-2013 Time: 11-11:55</b>
Teacher L1 use to Discipline students	<p>(The teacher is checking whether the students did the assignment or not)</p> <p>00:03:-00:14</p> <p>Rana: Anybody else? You had a whole week <b>kan Endakum Osbou'o kamil</b> (you had a whole week)</p> <p>Student: grammar or vocabulary?</p> <p>Rana: Whatever you want. Vocabulary or grammar. Did you do grammar? Fine because I think you need more work in grammar?</p> <p>02:51- 03:09</p> <p>Rana: They're noisy. You like noise?</p>
Student & teacher use of L1 for greeting –religious and cultural identity	<p>(A student showed up late for class)</p> <p>Student: <b>Assalamu Alaykum</b> (may peace be upon you)</p> <p>Rana: <b>Wa-alaykum assalam</b> (may peace be upon you too). You're late. OK so correct answer. So let's take a look at more vocabulary</p>
Teacher L1 use to draw students' attention	<p>04:09: 04:38</p> <p>Rana: The person who is not patient is impatient. Good.</p> <p>Student: disagree</p> <p>Rana: Where are we?</p> <p>Student: disagree</p>
Teacher L1 use to elicit response	<p>Rana: OK <b>shoufi</b> practical <b>awal</b> (Let's take a look at practical first). Practical What does practical mean? Something that is easy to use. Right?</p> <p>Practical <b>illi huwa bema'ana eish?</b> (What does practical mean?)</p> <p>Student 1: [unpractical]</p>
Student L1 use to give vocabulary meaning	<p>Student 2: [<b>amali</b> (practical)]</p> <p>Student 3: [impractical]</p>
Teacher L1 use to give feedback-confirmation	<p>Rana: <b>Amali</b> (practical) right? OK so the opposite is what? Un-, im-, or dis-?</p>
Student L1 use to seek clarification of vocabulary meaning	<p>06:54- 07:19</p> <p>Rana: Consciousness. Yes consciousness</p> <p>Student 1: <b>eish ya'ani</b> (what does it mean)</p> <p>Rana: Conscious is an adjective. Conscious is when you are aware you can feel you can see. She's conscious. Ok do you know the Arabic word? Equivalent word?</p> <p>Students 2: No</p>



Student L1 use to give vocabulary meaning	(Short pause) Rana: conscious. Similar word? Student 3: <b>wa'ee</b> (conscious)
Teacher L1 use to give feedback-confirmation	Rana: Yes exactly. Conscious <b>wa'aya wa'aya</b> (conscious). Ok you got it?
Teacher L1 use for translation	10:24- 10:44 Student 1: he is charm Rana: He? You are describing him Student 1: charm Rana: You are describing this person <b>ba-awsifu</b> (describing a person)
Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	Student 1: charmed Rana: so when I describe someone. I talk about someone or some place Student 2: (unclear answer) Rana: No Student: 2: -ing Rana: When I describe someone <b>lamman awsif ahad aw madina aw shakhs aw makan</b> (when I describe a person or a city or a place), I use the -ing form
Teacher L1 use for translation	Student 1: charming Rana: Yes charming  10:56- 11:34 Rana: OK let's check the answers Student 1: teacher Rana: Yeah Student 1: what does charming mean? Rana: charming. You know [sometimes Student 2: [amazing Student 3: good looking
Teacher L1 use for translation	Rana: not just that he doesn't have to be beautiful or handsome but there're something about them that makes you want to become their friend. They have such positive energy. You know the word charisma? So all of this related to someone who is charming <b>mu shurt innu yekoun jameel</b> (a person does not necessarily have to be beautiful) but someone who has positive features that makes you want to listen, see, and be their friend
Teacher L1 use for	12:39- 13:11 Rana: somebody who you share your secrets with, who you talk with a lot. It means you're close. It's not close from open and close. <b>La'a mush belma'ana hada</b> (not in this sense). No

translation	<p>it means that you are</p> <p>Student: near</p> <p>Rana: deep relationship yes very near</p> <p>Student: teacher</p> <p>Rana: yes</p> <p>Student: what's the meaning of latest</p> <p>Rana: Latest. OK for example when you go to the shopping mall and you take a look at the clothes there, do you find things that are old or new?</p> <p>Students: new</p> <p>Rana: new so this what the word means ladies. The newest, the recent</p>
Teacher arbitrary L1 use	<p>14:09: 14:30</p> <p>Rana: Did we do unit 7?</p> <p>Students: just the (unclear answer in English)</p> <p>Rana: OK. We'll come to it later. <b>A'atakid innu</b> (I think that) unit 7 is not included. OK so that's fine.</p>
Teacher L1 use to indicate topic switch	<p><b>OK keda khallasna min al-vocabulary</b> (We are done with the vocabulary). Is there anything in the grammar which you found difficult</p>
Teacher L1 use to indicate topic switch	<p>17:26- 17:52</p> <p>Rana: these birds?</p> <p>Students: come came came come came</p> <p>Rana: came</p> <p>Student: I come from (unclear)</p> <p>Rana: Yeah we could say come. If you think that it's came we'll see <b>khallina neshouf ba'adein</b> (we'll check it later). I (blank) for a drink later.</p> <p>Students: I'm going to meet</p>
Teacher Arbitrary L1 use Teacher L1 use to highlight important information	<p>22:00- 22:27</p> <p>Rana: Paula is singular right? So we choose has or have?</p> <p>Student 1: Have</p> <p>Rana: has</p> <p>Student 2: just arrived</p> <p>Rana: just and the verb arrived is regular or irregular?</p> <p>Students: regular</p> <p>Rana: if it's regular, I can add -ed <b>wu khalas sar</b> (so it becomes) past participle right? If it's irregular, I change the form <b>arja'a liljadwal illi ana hafzah</b> (I go back to the schedule I memorized) right? Ok my mum?</p>
Teacher L1 use for reiteration	<p>26:00- 26:46</p> <p>Rana: Yes that all you have to do. Paula has just arrived. The</p>

<p>Teacher L1 use to draw students' attention</p> <p>Teacher L1 use to highlight important information</p>	<p>most important thing is that the verb is correct. OK go back to your answers <b>nishouf ajwibatna tayeb?</b> (Let's check our answers Ok?) My mum has never ridden a bike. Yeah the right answer? The right answer? Also never ridden but the verb is the same. Right? That's the most important thing. Number aaa your answer again? <b>Ma'aleish arja'ee</b> (please go back). Number 9: I've never been to America.</p>
<p>Teacher L1 use to give instructions</p>	<p><b>Mush dayman innu</b> al-score <b>bekoun mazbout</b> (the score is not always correct) so you should always look at your answers and compare. Ok the last one (The teacher and the students were answering some tests using a CD that is included in the textbook in order to prepare them for the exam)</p> <p>27:21- 28:01 Rana: Any other part of grammar that you would like to do? Students: going to - will, going to - will Rana: OK going to and will which is the (the teacher is selecting the test on the computer) Student: future Rana: future Student: (unclear request in English) Rana: I prefer that you choose one at a time. <b>La tikhtatari majmooa'a kabira</b> (Don't choose a lot of tests ) because it will just confuse you. <b>Ba'adein as-soua'al mahou wadeh</b> (Besides, the question is not clear) what to choose. It's all there, OK? So choose one tense or one practice that you would like to do and start the exam OK?</p>
<p>Teacher L1 use to explain grammar</p>	<p>29:18- 29:44 Rana: it's will? Or you think it's going to? Students: it's going to snow Rana: will or going to? Students: going to Student 1: it will Students: [going to Students: [will Rana: This winter. It's not today or tomorrow. This whole winter so you have some time Students: Going to? Rana: <b>bema innu endik masaha</b> (since you have a scope) or</p>

Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	<p>space to predict that means you should use going to right? Ok Let's choose going to. Oh no! That man will? Or going to?</p> <p>30:09 - 30:30</p> <p>Rana: Here I will or going to?</p> <p>Students: [I'm going to</p> <p>Students: [I will</p> <p>Rana: OK, I'm offering help at the moment. So it's something that you do at the moment or you decide to do <b>fi-llahza hadi</b> (at the moment of speaking), you use will most of the time. OK? What colour?</p> <p>Students: [going to</p> <p>Students: [will</p>
Teacher L1 use to indicate topic switch	<p>(The teacher was checking their answers to the test)</p> <p>33:00- 33: 24</p> <p>Rana: That man is going to correct. Going to fall. Ok what other mistakes do we have? That's it? OK <b>khalas kallasna?</b> (are we done?) We're done. Thank you. In your workbook, you have some practice for using will and going to, so use the workbook CD to do some more practice on that</p>
Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	<p>35:01- 36:20</p> <p>Rana: I'm asking will you come with me? Should I buy this dress? I'm asking you something right? They're used to express offers. Look at this page here 4.4 OK. They're used to express offers. What are offers? Something that I want to give you. Something that I want to help you with. Right? They are both model verbs. The contractive form of will is used to express intention. <b>Eish ya'ani intention?</b> (What does intention mean?) Something that you intend to do <b>haja nawya te'emileeha</b> (something that you intend to do) right? Intention something that you intend to do. Decision what does decision mean? From decide</p> <p>(Short Pause)</p>
Student L1 use to give vocabulary meaning	<p>Rana: I'm not going to wear that dress but this one</p> <p>Student: <b>qarar</b> (decision)</p>
Teacher L1 use to give feedback-confirmation	<p>Rana: yes something that you're finalized with. <b>Qarar</b> (decision) decision. Or an offer made at the moment of</p>
Teacher L1 use to	

explain grammar	speaking. OK you didn't decide this before. At the moment you're talking to your friend and you realize that she needs something or she needs your help fi <b>allahza hadi</b> (at that moment), you decided that you want to help her, that you want to do something
Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	37:20 - 37:35 Rana: Come with me and I'll cook dinner for you. Offer to do something at the moment of speaking. <b>Almaqsood beh</b> (It means) the moment of speaking, while you're talking, while you're having a conversation <b>khilal alhadeeth</b> (during conversation) right? OK next sentence
Teacher L1 use for reiteration	
Teacher L1 use to elicit response	37:44 : - 38:10 Rana: it's Jane's graduation today isn't it? So she just found out. It's something that is new for her. She just realized or she just found out that it's someone's graduation so she wanted to bring a present. So it's a decision right? That was made at the moment of speaking. I'll buy her some flowers. At the moment she decided <b>qarrarat innaha tijeblaha eish?</b> (She decided to bring her what?) Student: flowers
Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	Rana: flowers or a gift
	40:55 - 41:12 Rana: Shall we go out for dinner? Shall we go? So this is a suggestion <b>ba-aktareh aleki</b> (I suggest) suggestion <b>ya'ani eqtirah</b> (suggestion) right? Ok or a request for advice: what shall we do? I need your help
Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	42:10 - 42:48 Student: teacher what did you say about what shall we do? Is it a suggestion Rana: what shall we do? You need someone to give you an idea, advice. When you need someone to tell you what to do, that means that you're requesting advice <b>bitetlubi naseeha</b> (you request some advice) right? Did we do the exercise on will and going to?
Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	
Teacher L1 use to elicit response	44:27 - 44:40 Rana: I haven't got any bread. So you decided, <b>qarrarti fi allahza hadi</b> (at the moment of speaking you decided) you wanna do something right? Students: I will Rana: Yes
Teacher L1 use to	45:07- 46:20 Rana: What time going to or will?

check comprehension Teacher L1 use for reiteration	Students: you going to Rana: what time? <b>Yinfa'a keda agool?</b> (Is it correct to say?) You going to? Student: You are going to Rana: What time are you going to? I cannot say say what time you going to? I need the verb are. Any question about this exercise? <b>Fi ay soa'al?</b> (Any question?) It's pretty simple right?
Teacher L1 use to elicit response	
Student L1 use to give meaning of a grammatical word	So when talk you about any plan <b>takhteet min endik</b> (your plan) right? Things you're doing tonight or in the summer vacation. If you decide for example you see this exclamation mark <b>illi hia alamat eish nesammiha?</b> (What do we call it?)
Teacher L1 use to explain grammar	Student: <b>ta'ajjob</b> (exclamation) Rana: Yes, that means it happened at the moment so when something happen at the moment and it's a surprise, it means you'll decide immediately <b>ha-tiqarriri fi lahzatha</b> (you'll decide at the moment of speaking). That means you use will
Teacher L1 use to give instructions Teacher L1 use for reiteration	
Teacher L1 use to highlight important information	48:05 - 48:51 Rana: Before you go, I'll see you at 1 o'clock. Take it before you go <b>khodiha ma'aki</b> (take it with you). We're going to do this after the break. Ok? It's a revision for the mid-module <b>muraja'a</b> (revision). So you take one of these and you bring it after the break. We're going to do this. This is a revision <b>muraja'a lilekhtibar annisfi yoam alkhamees</b> (it's a revision for the mid-module exam on Thursday). Make sure you come back after the break. Don't take it and go. We'll do this in class

## Appendix 22: Pacing Guide Sample

### ELI 103, Pre-Intermediate Level Instructor's Pacing Guide

#### Core textbook: New Headway Plus, Pre-Intermediate, *Special Edition* (Units 3-12)

This guide is a tool for curriculum guidance, focusing on achievement of Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs). It is designed on a weekly basis, specifying available materials and providing instructors with a degree of flexibility, allowing ample class time for language practice, and for the Incorporation of relevant supplementary materials to facilitate SLO achievement. It also emphasizes regular Learner Training as an essential component of the learning process.

<b>Course Goal</b>
The course aims at helping learners to achieve an overall English language proficiency leading to beginner Independent User of language defined as low B1 level on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), developing conversational skills, expressing ideas, and helping learners deal with problems and situations where they meet unpredictable language.
<b>Course Objectives</b>
<p>The course is intended to accomplish its goal in one full academic module of 7 weeks through developing students' language skills to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Read and understand the main ideas of a variety of texts.</li><li>2. Understand the main ideas in short oral communications and participate effectively in a short conversation using appropriate language.</li><li>3. Produce a range of text types using coherent and cohesive paragraphs and appropriate vocabulary* in an adequately developed response.</li><li>4. Demonstrate control of a limited range of vocabulary* and grammatical structures with minor</li></ol>

inconsistencies.

\* vocabulary from the word lists for units 3-12

**Descriptions:**

**Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs):** a description of what students will know or be able to do with the language as a result of instruction. A student learning outcome is written in terms of observable and measurable language skills.

**Evidence of learning:** being able to demonstrate that actual learning and actual performance, and hence SLOs achievement, has taken place. On a weekly basis this can be demonstrated by successful completion of teacher-generated short tests, quizzes, and by completion and accuracy of individual and group tasks and in-class and homework assignments covering all skills. Self and group evaluation of SLOs' achievement can be monitored by the use of the Can-Do statements that accompany each level of the curriculum. Over the course of a complete module further evidence of achievement can be gathered by the use of ELI standardized assessment instruments measuring SLOs' achievement from a range of assessment perspectives.

**Learner Training:** helping learners select and implement appropriate learning strategies and resources, monitor their own use of strategies and change them if necessary, and monitor the effectiveness of their own learning. Learner training is introduced in weeks 1, and on-going training is expected to be provided throughout the course components. The training should be included in all learning activities and its benefits actively utilized by students in all classes.

**Supplementary materials:** Faculty are encouraged and expected to utilize appropriate supplementary material to facilitate achievement of the learning outcomes. Great care is required to be taken to ensure all supplementary material is culturally appropriate. Certain pages in the **Workbook** are specified in the guide and teachers are encouraged to make use of this resource to



reinforce and consolidate work from the Student's Book and subsequent SLO achievement.

**Can Do Statements:** The Can-Do-Statements for ELI 103 serve as a language ladder to help students to personally track and assess their own language development and achievement of the Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs) of the course. Please note that the can do statements are included here under the SLOs they relate to for instructors' reference only. The **SLOs** are what should **dictate lesson content** – the can do statements are how this content can be presented to the learners.

**Important Notice:**

While achieving the SLOs is the main priority, and while supplementary materials as well as course book materials may be used to assist in specific SLO achievement, please also make sure that listening and reading passages from the course book units in the core curriculum are covered as some of these will come up in mid- and end-of-module exams.

Pages from the student's book and workbook pertaining to specific SLOs are given. Page numbers in parentheses refer to additional practice / extension in other units of the course book. The instructor can decide when / if to cover these pages. Some of these pages appear again later in the course under a separate SLO.

Faculty are reminded to use and/or make learners aware of the following supplementary resources:

1. (Level 101 only) Writing Support CD-ROM
2. Workbook DVD-ROM
3. Learning Management System online practice: [www.headwayplusonline.com](http://www.headwayplusonline.com)
4. Oxford University Press additional online practice: <http://elt.oup.com/student/headway/?cc=sa&sellLanguage=en>

Below is an outline of what you can find on this site:

**Level specific:**

**Grammar** – practice for each course book unit

**Test Builder:** Make your own online tests by selecting from structures covered in the course book

**Everyday English** – 6 dialogues – students can listen and read, listen and read half the dialogue, or just listen. They can also print out the conversation

**Vocabulary** – 2 practice exercises for each course book unit

**Games**

**General:**

Headway **word of the week**

**Phrase Builder** – read, listen and test yourself

**5. Teacher's Book – Progress Tests and Stop and Checks**

**6. Revision section at back of workbook (not Beginner level)**

**Faculty are encouraged to introduce Can Do Statements to their students and make use of them throughout the module.**

**Key tips on using can do statements:**

- The can do statements are a tool - and individual instructors should have some **freedom to decide** how they can be used, and how often.
- Can do statements should be issued to students, (or students should be asked to print them out from the website) as **close as possible to the start of the course**.
- Can do statements comprise standardized, level-specific, detailed language content and functions on which students are **to be tested**, in mid and end-of-module exams.
- Students **keep the student pacing guide with can do statements in their portfolios** and use them as reference points for **monitoring their daily/weekly progress**.
- There is a **self evaluation section** after each can do statement in the students' pacing guide where students can rank the degree of difficulty they find in performing the function stated in the can do statement. Students can complete this self evaluation individually in a quiet time in class, or at home and bring it back to class.
- In week 4 students should make an appointment with their instructor for **mid-course academic counselling (10-15 minutes)** during the office hour. Ask students to bring completed self evaluations of can do statements covered **to that point in the course** to the meeting. You can go over it with the student and agree with them on what they need to work on and how they can go about it, as well as highlighting to them areas in which they have made

progress. The idea is to motivate learners and make them more accountable. If a student hasn't been coming to class, you can point this out on the attendance sheet, suggest that this is why they have not made as much progress as hoped and agree with them on future action (i.e. a commitment on the part of the student to improve their attendance on the second half of the course).

- Instructors can use the can do statements to **frame the lesson objectives** for the students by, for example, projecting the can do statements to be covered in that lesson on to the **whiteboard**, asking the learners at the start of the class if they can do it and how well / confidently they think they can do it. Teachers could then do an initial task that measures the students' ability in that area. After some feedback and teacher input, they could then do another task similar to the one they did at the start of the lesson and receive further peer and teacher feedback. They could then be encouraged to answer the same question they answered at the start of the lesson – Can you do this well? – and the following types of questions:

Can you do it better now than you could at the start of the lesson?

What are you still having problems with?

Do you think you need more practice of this?

#### Week 1 (Unit 3)

SLO: Can scan a medium-length text\*\* to extract past simple forms of a range of regular and irregular verbs.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can correctly use the past simple and past continuous to describe a number of events.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 22-23

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO : Can read to find out and pass on factual detail from a medium-length text\*\*.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can find the main points in a text such as a newspaper or magazine article and summarise the main information I learnt.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 22-23, 25

WORKBOOK: p. 19

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

<p>SLO: Can make predictions about a story and listen to check if they are correct. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>I can guess what happens next in a story then listen to see if I was correct.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 26-27</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can understand and appropriately use the past simple and past continuous tenses. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>➤ I can correctly use the past simple and past continuous to describe a number of events.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 22-25 WORKBOOK: p. 16-21</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can link sentences in the past tense using <i>so, because, and, but</i> and <i>while</i> . (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>➤ I can write a series of sentences using the linking words <i>but, although, however, because, while, and for</i>.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 23 (Ex. 1) WORKBOOK: 20-21</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can demonstrate control of noun, verb and adjective prefixes and suffixes in familiar words* and correctly spell these words. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>➤ I can correctly use word endings (such as –ation, -ment, -ous, -ful ... etc.) to make nouns and adjectives.</p> <p>➤ I can correctly make adjectives and verbs negative by using prefixes (such as un-, im-, un-, dis-, etc.)</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 28 WORKBOOK: p. 36</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>

Last hour of longer teaching days (twice a week): Freer practice, free discussions, revision games, videos, online resources, group tasks/projects, activities negotiated and agreed upon with the students etc.

## Week 2 (Units 4-5)

SLO: Can demonstrate control of *a lot of/ much/ many/ a little/ a few* and *some/any/every/no* combined with *thing, one, where* in familiar situations.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can correctly use a lot of, *much/ many/ a few/ a little* to talk about quantity.
- I can correctly use words like *someone/ anything/ everywhere*.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 30-32  
WORKBOOK: p. 22-24

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can read to find out and pass on factual detail from a medium-length text\*\*.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can find the main points in a text such as a newspaper or magazine article and summarise the main information I learnt.
- I can talk about a place and explain why other people should visit it.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 34-35, 42-43

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can handle conversations in shops, asking for items, prices, sizes, services, etc.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can ask for information about products and prices and decide whether to buy items in a shop.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 36-37 WORKBOOK: p. 25 (Ex. 11, Clothes)

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

<p>SLO: Can ask about, express, and write about his/her and other people's hopes, personal plans and ambitions. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO) ➤ I can talk about my hopes and plans for the future using <i>I'd like to become, I'm going to be, I'm looking forward to, We hope to, We're thinking of.</i> Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 38-39 p. 27-28</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>	<p>WORKBOOK:</p>
<p>SLO: Can choose between <i>going to</i> and <i>will</i> when talking and writing about future intentions or making offers and decisions at the moment of speaking. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO) ➤ I can make offers and unplanned decisions, using <i>will</i>. Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 40-41 p. 29-30</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>	<p>WORKBOOK:</p>
<p>SLO: Can use the verbs <i>have, go and come</i> in correct collocations, and produce written sentences utilizing these forms. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO) ➤ I can use the verbs <i>have, go and come</i> in fixed phrases such as <i>have no time, go crazy, come true.</i>  Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 44</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>	
<p>SLO: Can read a medium-length general interest article, locate new vocabulary items, and deduce their meaning from the context. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO) ➤ I can find new words in a text and guess their meaning from their context.  Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 42-43</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>	

SLO : Can listen to, understand, and take part in conversations on general topics (e.g. health, weddings, work, etc.).

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can listen to, understand and take part in a conversation about someone's health and how they're feeling.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 44-45

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

Last hour of longer teaching days (twice a week): Freer practice, free discussions, revision games, videos, online resources, group tasks/projects, activities negotiated and agreed upon with the students etc.

### Assignments

Writing Folder:

Task 1: Write a story about a time when things went wrong.

Resources: Oxford University Press, Headway Plus Pre-intermediate Writing Guide, Unit 3

Pre-writing activities: Brainstorming, free-writing, genre example, outlining.

Due: First draft

Task targets:

- Writing two coherent and cohesive narrative paragraphs.
- Using facts and opinions.
- Using an appropriate flow of events.
- Using appropriate introduction, supporting details, and conclusion.
- Displaying accurate spelling and appropriate grammatical and lexical range and accuracy for this level.
- Ensuring that writing is legible, neat, and comprehensible.
- Proofreading.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this task)

- I can write a series of sentences to tell a story about a day when things went wrong.

Reading Circles:

Orientation to introduce the guidelines and procedures

1<sup>st</sup> discussion assignment set for Week 3

Preparation for mid-module speaking exam:

In preparation for the mid-module speaking exam, instructors are reminded to provide training and practice for the achievement of the following SLOs (which students will

be assessed on):

- Can give a short talk on a topic pertinent to his/ her everyday life, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans, and actions.  
(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)
- I can speak confidently for about 3 minutes about everyday topics and give reasons and examples.

### Week 3 (Units 6-7)

SLO: Can compare people, places, and things using appropriate comparative and superlative forms of adjectives.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can talk about the city where I live and compare it to other cities.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 46-49  
WORKBOOK: p. 33-35

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can scan longer texts in order to locate desired information and gather information from different parts of a text, or from different texts in order to fulfil a specific task.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can find the main points in a text such as a newspaper or magazine article and summarise the main information I learnt.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 50-51

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can use synonyms and antonyms of familiar words\* to avoid repetition.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can use synonyms and antonyms to avoid repetition in a conversation.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 52 WOEBKBOOK: Unit 5, p. 32, & Unit 6, p. 35, Ex. 5

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials



SLO: Can give simple directions to places using prepositions such as *up, down, over, past, through, out of, across, on the corner of, in front of*.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can give simple directions to a place using *up, down, over, past, through, out of, across, on the corner of, in front of*.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 53

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can ask and answer questions and make statements using the present perfect simple and past simple tenses, and produce written sentences utilizing these forms.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can talk about other people's experiences and achievements, using the present perfect simple tense.
- I can correctly use *for* and *since* when talking about time.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 54-56  
WORKBOOK: p. 38-40

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can listen to extended conversations and interviews and understand straightforward factual information about everyday topics, identifying both general messages and specific details.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can listen to conversations and interviews and understand the general topic and specific information.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 57

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can use adverbs such as *still, only, of course, just, at last, exactly, especially* in simple sentences.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can correctly use the adverbs *still, only, of course, just, at last, exactly*.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 60

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

<p>Last hour of longer teaching days (twice a week): Freer practice, free discussions, revision games, videos, online resources, group tasks/projects, activities negotiated and agreed upon with the students etc.</p>
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### Assignments

<p>Writing Folder:</p>
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<p>Task 1: (continued)</p>
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<p>Due: Feedback from peers, teacher, and self-editing—Final draft (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this task)</p>
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- |   |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>➤ I can write a series of sentences to tell a story about a day when things went wrong.</li><li>➤ I can use correct, cohesive devices when I describe a place, tell a story, or discuss pros and cons.</li><li>➤ I can check mine and my classmates' spelling, grammar, and vocabulary.</li></ul> |
|---|

<p>Reading Circles:</p>
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<p>1<sup>st</sup> discussion</p>
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<p>2<sup>nd</sup> discussion assignment set for Week 6</p>
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<p>Preparation for mid-module speaking exam:</p>
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<p>In preparation for the mid-module speaking exam, instructors are reminded to provide training and practice for the achievement of the following SLOs (which students will be assessed on):</p>
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- |  |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Can give a short talk on a topic pertinent to his/ her everyday life, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans, and actions.<br/>(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</li><li>➤ I can speak confidently for about 3 minutes about everyday topics and give reasons and examples.</li></ul> |
|--|

### Week 4 (Unit 8)

Important note: Mid-module exams (speaking, writing, MCQs) will take place during this week. Students will be assessed on material from units 3-7. Instructors should start Unit 8 in week 4 in order to have enough time to cover all the SLOs by the end of the course. However, instructors should note that Unit 8 will not be included in mid-module exams.

<p>SLO: Can use modals to express degrees of obligation and advice and produce written sentences utilizing these forms.</p>
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<p>(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p>
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- |   |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>➤ I can correctly use <i>have/have got + infinitive</i> to state what I <i>must</i> do; <i>should</i> &amp; <i>must</i> to give advice .</li><li>➤ I can ask people about their duties, rules, and obligations at work, using “<i>have to</i>” and “<i>must</i>”.</li></ul> |
|---|

<p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 62-64 WORKBOOK: p. 43-46</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can listen to short recorded passages and infer what is meant or referred to from contextual details. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO) ➤ I can listen to short recordings and work out what the speakers are talking about.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 62, 65</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can scan longer texts in order to locate desired information and gather information from different parts of a text, or from different texts in order to fulfil a specific task. (Repeated from Unit 6) (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO) ➤ I can find the main points in a text such as a newspaper or magazine article and summarise the main information I learnt.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 66-67</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can understand, say, and write words that go together such as <i>sunglasses</i>, <i>act your age</i>, <i>rush hour</i>, <i>get a job</i>, etc. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO) ➤ I can recognise and guess the meaning of basic words that go together such as <i>write poetry</i>, <i>sunglasses</i>, <i>act your age</i>, <i>rush hour</i>.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 68, See high frequency verbs collocations on p.76 WORKBOOK: p. 31</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p><u>Last hour of longer teaching days (twice a week):</u> Freer practice, free discussions, revision games, videos, online resources, group tasks/projects, activities negotiated and agreed upon with the students etc.</p>

## Assignments

Preparation for mid-module speaking exam:

In preparation for the mid-module speaking exam, instructors are reminded to provide training and practice for the achievement of the following SLO (which students will be assessed on):

- Can give a short talk on a topic pertinent to his/ her everyday life, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans, and actions.  
(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)
  - I can speak confidently for about 3 minutes about everyday topics and give reasons and examples.

## Week 5 (Units 9-10)

SLO: Can understand and use the first conditional and future time clauses and produce written sentences utilizing these forms.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can talk about my hopes for the future using “*if I..., I will...*”.
- I can talk about possible problems that might occur in the future, using “*if*” and offering solutions.

Course book resources STUDENT’S BOOK: p. 70-72  
WORKBOOK: p. 48-50

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can write a short series of sentences using linking words about the advantages and disadvantages of a particular issue such as living in a large city, forms of transport, etc.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can write a text with a topic sentence, supporting details and a concluding sentence to analyse the advantages and disadvantages of a type of transport.  
(WRITING FOLDER)

Course book resources WORKBOOK: p. 52

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can make predictions about the content of a story or an article and read to check if they are correct.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can guess some facts in an article then read to see if my guesses were correct.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 74-75 (Exercises 1 & 2)

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can use the verbs *take/ get/ do/ make* in phrases such as *make friends, get on with someone, take a photo, and do me a favour.*

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can use the verbs *take/get/do /make* in phrases such as *make friends, get on with someone, take a photo and do me a favour.*

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 76

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can understand and appropriately use the most frequent combinations of verbs, infinitives and/or gerunds such as *like swimming, like to swim, and want to go.*

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can correctly use the infinitive or -ing forms after verbs such as *enjoy, try, decide, manage, and start.*

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 78-79  
WORKBOOK: p. 53-54

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can describe habitual past events or experiences using *used to*, and produce written sentences utilizing this form.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can talk about my childhood using *used to*.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 80  
WORKBOOK: p. 55

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

Last hour of longer teaching days (twice a week): Freer practice, free discussions, revision games, videos, online resources, group tasks/projects, activities negotiated and agreed upon with the students etc.

### Assignments

Writing Folder:

Task 2: Write about advantages and disadvantages of.....”

Resources: Oxford University Press, Headway Plus Pre-intermediate Writing Guide, Unit 9

Pre-writing activities: Brainstorming, free-writing, genre example, outlining.

Due: First draft

Task targets:

- Producing a piece of discursive writing of two or three coherent and cohesive paragraphs.
- Using facts and opinions.
- Using appropriate introduction (topic sentence), supporting details, and conclusion.
- Displaying accurate spelling and appropriate grammatical and lexical range and accuracy for this level.
- Ensuring that writing is legible, neat, and comprehensible
- Proofreading.  
(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this task)
  - I can write a text with a topic sentence, supporting details and a concluding sentence to analyse the advantages and disadvantages of a type of transport.

Preparation for end-of-module speaking exam:

In preparation for the end-of-module speaking exam, instructors are reminded to provide training and practice for the achievement of the following SLO (which students will be assessed on):

- Can give a short talk on a topic pertinent to his/ her everyday life, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans, and actions.  
(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)
  - I can speak confidently for about 3 minutes about everyday topics and give reasons and examples.

Week 6 (Units 10- 11)

<p>SLO: Can use adjectives ending in <i>-ed</i> or <i>-ing</i> to describe feelings and experiences. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>➤ I can correctly distinguish between <i>-ed</i> and <i>-ing</i> adjectives and talk about experiences.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 81 WORKBOOK: p. 56</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can make predictions about the content of a story or an article and read to check if they are correct. (repeated from unit 9) (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>➤ I can read a story and guess what happens next.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 82-83 (Repeated from Unit 9)</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can understand and use a range of passive voice forms and produce written sentences utilizing these forms. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>➤ I can correctly use the passive form in the present simple, past simple, present perfect and future.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 86-88 WORKBOOK: p. 58-61</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can read, understand, and discuss medium-length** texts about discoveries and inventions. (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</p> <p>➤ I can scan an article to find specific vocabulary in context.</p> <p>➤ I can find the main points in a text such as a newspaper or magazine article and summarise the main information I learnt.</p> <p>➤ I can talk about the history of an invention or a discovery.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 90-91</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>

<p>SLO: Can write a series of sentences using linking words such as <i>but</i>, <i>although</i>, <i>however</i>, <i>so</i>, and <i>because</i>.          (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)          ➤ I can write a series of sentences using the linking words <i>but</i>, <i>although</i>, <i>however</i>, <i>because</i>, <i>for</i> and <i>while</i>. (these last two were covered earlier – unit 3 and unit 7)</p> <p>Course book resources WORKBOOK: p. 63</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p>SLO: Can listen to extended conversations and interviews and understand straightforward factual information about everyday topics, identifying both general messages and specific details. (repeated from unit 7)          (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)          ➤ I can listen to conversations and interviews and understand the general topic and specific information.</p> <p>Course book resources STUDENT’S BOOK: p. 92 (Repeated from Unit 7)</p> <p>Evidence of learning</p> <p>Supplementary materials</p>
<p><u>Last hour of longer teaching days (twice a week):</u> Freer practice, free discussions, revision games, videos, online resources, group tasks/projects, activities negotiated and agreed upon with the students etc.</p>

#### Assignments

<p>Writing Folder:          Task 2: (continued)          Due: Feedback from peers, teacher, and self-editing—Final draft          (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this task)          ➤ I can write a text with a topic sentence, supporting details and a concluding sentence to analyse the advantages and disadvantages of a type of transport.          ➤ I can use correct, cohesive devices when I describe a place, tell a story, or discuss pros and cons.          ➤ I can check mine and my classmates’ spelling, grammar, and vocabulary.</p>
<p>Reading Circles:          2nd discussion</p>
<p>Preparation for end-of-module speaking exam:          In preparation for the end-of-module speaking exam, instructors are reminded to provide training and practice for the achievement of the following SLO (which students will be assessed on):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can give a short talk on a topic pertinent to his/ her everyday life, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans, and actions.          (Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)</li> </ul>



- I can speak confidently for about 3 minutes about everyday topics and give reasons and examples.

Week 7 (Unit 12)

SLO: Can understand and use the second conditional and produce written sentences utilizing this form.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can correctly use the second conditional.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 94-95  
p. 64-66

WORKBOOK:

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can give advice on everyday problems using "*If I were you, I'd ...*", and produce written sentences utilizing this form.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can give advice using "*If I were you, I'd ...*".

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 96 (Ex. 4)

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can talk about future possibilities using *might*, and produce written sentences utilizing this form.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can use *will* and *might* to make predictions about the future.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 96-97  
WORKBOOK: p. 66-67

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can read a medium-length\*\* factual text and identify the order in which important events happen.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can read a factual text and put the important events in the correct order.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 98-99

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

SLO: Can demonstrate control of basic phrasal verbs such as *look after/up*, *get on with*, *take off*, and *break down*, and use them in written sentences.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can use several common phrasal verbs (e.g. *look after*, *look up*, *get on with*, *take off*, *break down* etc.) in conversations.

Course book resources STUDENT'S BOOK: p. 100  
67 (Ex. 10)

WORKBOOK: p.

Evidence of learning

Supplementary materials

Last hour of longer teaching days (twice a week): Freer practice, free discussions, revision games, videos, online resources, group tasks/projects, activities negotiated and agreed upon with the students etc.

Assignments

Preparation for end-of-module speaking exam:

In preparation for the end-of-module speaking exam, instructors are reminded to provide training and practice for the achievement of the following SLO (which students will be assessed on):

- Can give a short talk on a topic pertinent to his/ her everyday life, and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions, plans, and actions.

(Can-Do Statement(s) related to this SLO)

- I can speak confidently for about 3 minutes about everyday topics and give reasons and examples.

End-of-module Review

\*A range of words/phrases/expressions refers to words on the Wordlist associated with this level.

\*\* A medium-length text is a text of 250-500 words in frequently used grammatical structures at this level.

Weekly Learner Training

The learner training is essential for the achievement of the above learning outcomes. Instructors are required to help their students to achieve a good command of the following areas:

DICTIONARY USE: Using a dictionary to look up unfamiliar words for spelling, meaning and parts of speech.

Resources used:

**TAKING NOTES:** Recording important information (grammar rules, examples, contexts of usage, learning resources) in systematic ways that help learners remember the information.

Resources used:

**VOCABULARY NOTEBOOK:** Using a notebook specifically for vocabulary. Maintaining systematic vocabulary records with reference to the appropriate Unit Wordlist.

Resources used:

**QUESTIONING:** Using appropriate language to ask questions for clarification, expansion, common classroom interactions, and for a range of issues and concerns.

Resources used:

**LEARNERS COLLABORATION:** Practicing and interacting in English with peers in pair work and group work and working collaboratively. Participating in peer correction.

Resources used:

**SELF-STUDY AND REVISION:** Using a range of resources (Learning Management System LMS at [www.headwayplusonline.com](http://www.headwayplusonline.com) , New Headway Plus Elementary, *Special Edition*, Workbook and its accompanying DVD-ROM , trusted language learning websites, and other authentic materials) to reinforce learning.

Resources used:

**LEARNER AUTONOMY:** Completing homework and other assignments on time, working independently and self-correcting.

Resources used:

### Appendix 23: Sample Transcript of workshop 1

Comments	Transcription
	<p><b>Focus group 1 Group A: Lama- Ayisha- Sally- Rana- Karima</b></p> <p><b>Title: Functions of code switching</b></p> <p><b>Length: 38:30</b></p>
<p>Teachers' different attitudes toward L1 use</p> <p>Teacher negative attitude to L1 use related to students' linguistic development</p> <p>Change of belief related to education</p> <p>Teacher positive attitude to L1 use</p> <p>Teacher L1 use related to students' level of proficiency</p> <p>Teacher strategy to elicit L1 responses</p> <p>Teacher L1 use to check comprehension</p> <p>Teacher L1 use related to students' level of proficiency</p> <p>Teacher sense of guilt</p>	<p><b>Sarah:</b> Hi everyone. Thank you for participating in the focus group discussions. In this focus group I'm going to present the functions of code switching, but first what do you feel about using Arabic in teaching English? Mrs. <b>Ayisha</b> what do you feel about it?</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> I don't think it's good practice to use Arabic in teaching English as I told you before it makes students depend on Arabic mostly most of the time and they become reluctant to use the target language</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> Do you agree with Mrs. <b>Ayisha</b> that Arabic should not be used in the language classrooms? What do you think?</p> <p><b>Karima:</b> well, I used to agree with Mrs. <b>Ayisha</b> but after the Masters I now have a different view. I think using Arabic in moderation is helpful for students</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> What's your stance on using Arabic in teaching English? Are you with or against tis practice?</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> there should be some limits</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> it depends on the level</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> the level of the students</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> with beginners because they don't good background in English, you can use Arabic but in very limited situations or you can elicit translation from the students</p> <p><b>Rana:</b> as a concept check to check their understanding and whether they are following you but not for the whole lesson</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> you cannot conduct the whole lesson using Arabic</p> <p><b>Ayisha</b> no</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> what do you think <b>Sally</b>?</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> I do agree with Mrs. <b>Ayisha</b> that it depends on the level if you're teaching beginner level, you would find yourself using Arabic whether you like or not. So going on with the class and not being to get the message across would be useless so in that case using Arabic with beginner students cannot be avoided but with higher levels personally I would refrain from using Arabic but I wouldn't feel ashamed I wouldn't feel like that its' so wrong</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> you don't feel guilty</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> I don't</p>

Teacher L1 use for pedagogical functions -classroom rules	<b>Sarah:</b> so basically your use of Arabic depends on the level of students
Teacher L1 use for affective functions-communication	<b>Ayisha:</b> yes
Teacher L1 use related to students' level of proficiency	<b>Sarah:</b> What do you think <b>Lama</b> ? <b>Lama:</b> Yes definitely it depends on the level <b>Sarah:</b> Are you with or against the use of L1 in classroom? <b>Lama:</b> It depends sometimes like for example in my first class today. In this first class I had to explain the rules to students in Arabic to make sure everything is clear. I have to maintain communication with my students. As I told you before it depends on the class I use it sometimes with weaker students
Teacher sense of guilt	but I feel a bit guilty to use it  <b>Sarah:</b> you feel guilty? <b>Lama:</b> Yeah and after class I promise myself not to do it again
Teacher L1 use related to students' level of proficiency	<b>Ayisha:</b> I don't like to use Arabic in my classroom. Its not allowed <b>Sarah:</b> do you think that it's a wrong practice? <b>Ayisha:</b> yes
Teacher L1 use as a last resort	<b>Lama:</b> sometimes you need to try different strategies in class as long as it's satisfactory for me and my students I use it. So sometimes I use a lot of Arabic <b>Sarah:</b> do you feel bad when you use it? <b>Lama:</b> yeah but it depends on the level of my students
Teacher L1 use related to the skill	<b>Sarah:</b> do you feel that the level of your students force you to use Arabic? <b>Ayisha:</b> Yes it is sometimes the only way to help the students understand after you try all the other ways: gestures, body language you acted but even then they wouldn't understand and none of the students were able to give the translation so I just say the word in Arabic
Teacher L1 use as a last resort	<b>Karima:</b> I just want to add that it's not the level of the students but also it depends on what skill you're teaching. For instance, if you're teaching speaking then it using Arabic wouldn't be a good idea but then if you're teaching vocabulary, and you tried other ways but they're not working then you can use it
Teacher L1 use for pedagogical functions-vocabulary	<b>Lama:</b> also in instructions when you give instructions sometimes I explain them more than once
Teacher L1 use to save time	but sometimes I don't have enough time
Teacher L1 use for affective functions-motivate students	so I go into Arabic and there faces change from no expression to happy faces
Origin of teacher beliefs	
Teacher negative	

attitude to L1 use	<p><b>Ayisha:</b> in some course books, the teacher manuals in these course books sometimes they write in the lesson plan that the teacher can use the first language of the students in case they don't understand. So they give us the permission</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> give you permission to use some L1</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> but very limited it should be very limited</p>
Teacher positive attitude to students' L1 use related to the skill	
Teachers positive attitude to students' L1 use for curriculum access	<p>Sara: Yes <b>Sally</b></p> <p><b>Sally:</b> I disagree with <b>Karima</b> regarding teaching speaking.</p>
Drawback of English only	<p>Sometimes students are not able to express their ideas in the second language which is English in our case. So allowing them giving them some room to use the first language especially to initiate speech would be very encouraging to students</p>
Students L2 use for off-task discussions	<p><b>Sarah:</b> it encourages them to participate</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> to participate exactly and express their ideas about the topic</p>
Type of students who use L2	<p><b>Lama:</b> it works in most situations it did work and once I used just English but it didn't work.</p>
Student negative attitude to the teacher L1 use	<p>I find it surprising that some students come to me to discuss stuff other than the lesson using English.</p> <p>I feel they that they are committed and they want to learn. Just some students not all of them</p>
Teachers' attitudes toward maximizing L2 in classroom	<p><b>Rana:</b> students are different. At the end of one module, one students wrote in the questionnaire: I wish that the teacher used more English and she was a beginner student so I felt they need it maybe just this student</p>
Teacher strategy to elicit L2 responses	<p><b>Sarah:</b> out of how many students?</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> out of 28 students she was the only one who requested that so it depends on the students approach to the language</p>
Maximize L2 in classroom	<p><b>Sarah:</b> what do you feel about teaching English as often as possible?</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> And no Arabic?</p>
Teacher L1 use as a last resort	<p><b>Sarah:</b> teaching in English as much as possible</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> it's better even if you find the students unable to say a sentence in English you can help them put the words in the correct structure and show you show them how to say it in English and make them repeat it this way will help them learn</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> Do you all agree with what Mrs. <b>Ayisha</b> has just</p>

	<p>said?</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> yes The norm should be English. Resorting to Arabic from time to time when needed should be fine but the majority of the time, classes should be conducted in English</p> <p><b>Rana:</b> well Arabic could be used as a strategy sometimes</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> sometimes exactly</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> It could be used to attend to your students' need</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> Yes</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> Do you have any comment to add before we go to the next slide?</p> <p>Teachers: no</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> so first what is code switching? It's the alternation between two languages in a single discourse or a sentence or a constituent at any point of the discourse without violating the syntactic structure of any of the languages used so it is used by people who are fluent who have good command of the language so they don't violate the structure of the language used. When applying this definition to the language classroom it is defined as</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">✍ In the language classrooms, code switching can be defined as the: alternation between the first language and the target language as means of communication (Jingxia, 2010: 10)</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> To communicate with the students or among the students themselves if they have high command of the language. Then in this case it can be considered code switching. But outside the classroom it is used for different purposes but inside the classroom it is used to attend to the students' need basically used by the teachers to attend to their students' need so it's used for different reasons from the bilingual speakers outside the classroom. The first article discusses the functions of code switching: why that, in that language, right now? Code-switching and pedagogical focus. (PowerPoint slides 4-9)</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005: 322) concluded: "CS in L2 classrooms is an: "interactional resource among the many used by both teachers and learners to carry out the institutional business of teaching and learning an L2"</p> <p>Have you got any question? What do you think?</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> I I think they want to show us whether we agree or disagree that we can use English according to the level of the students</p>
Teacher L1 use related to students' level of proficiency	
Teacher L1 use for classroom management- classroom rules functions- classroom rules	
Awareness raising- Effect of FG	<p>by giving them instructions in the classroom so they can understand the classroom rules we even give them another copy in Arabic so they are well acquainted with everything what they should do and what they shouldn't do so I agree</p>

<p>Teachers L1 use for pedagogical functions-grammar</p>	<p>with what they said  <b>Sarah:</b> Do you have any other comment to add or shall we move to the second study?  <b>Rana:</b> I never thought of Arabic as a resource  <b>Sarah:</b> you don't think that L1 is a resource?  <b>Rana:</b> I haven't thought about that but now it does seem that it's an interactional resource  <b>Sarah:</b> Any more points to add? So let's move to the second study. The title of the second article is conflicts and tensions in codeswitching in a Taiwanese EFL classroom (PowerPoint slides 10-15)  <b>Sarah:</b> Similar functions were found in this study even though it was conducted in a different context. The first study was carried out in Turkey and the second in Taiwan  <b>Rana:</b> All language teachers think the same  <b>Lama:</b> Yeah that's interesting  <b>Ayisha:</b> they used the first language maybe more in Turkey. It depends on the L1  <b>Sarah:</b> Maybe because in the first study they focused on beginners while in the second study they were intermediate level students and maybe in the second study there was a strict policy about the use of L1. So what did they conclude?  They concluded that code switching is a widespread strategy in language classrooms even when the official policies attempt to eradicate it (Slide 16)</p>
<p>Teacher L1 use related to students' level of proficiency</p>	<p><b>Sarah:</b> what do you think? Do you think that you use Arabic for the same functions mentioned in the articles?  <b>Karima:</b> for those functions and also sometimes there're similarities for instance in grammar if you're explaining a grammatical rule and sometimes not always there are some rules similar to Arabic so I think if you use the Arabic word or remind them of the Arabic rule [that we have this in Arabic you can explain it to them then they can use it  <b>Lama:</b> [yeah exactly the best way especially with weak students we have to use some Arabic  <b>Sarah:</b> to help them relate it to their language. What do think  <b>Sally?</b></p>
<p>Teacher reason for not using L1 for pedagogical function</p>	<p><b>Sally:</b> I wouldn't recommend using Arabic in teaching grammar  <b>Sarah:</b> not in grammar  <b>Sally:</b> there could be some similarities but they're very few we're talking about very distinct languages very distinct structures I personally encourage students to think of English as a different system different rules  <b>Sarah:</b> both languages are not connected  <b>Sally:</b> there are some similarities at the level of concepts like the passive and active voice but they are expressed in</p>
<p>Teacher L1 use for pedagogical function</p>	



Teacher strategy- use L1 as a last resort	both languages is totally different you can talk about similarities at the level of concepts but not how it's like manifested in language
Teacher strategy to elicit L1 responses	<b>Sarah:</b> what do you think <b>Rana</b> ? <b>Rana:</b> I do use some Arabic in teaching grammar I agree there are not equivalent or equal but it does help it does help the students especially if you introduce the rule for the first time they have no idea of what this tense mean like past perfect or whatever they don't know what this is and if you just give them a similar example in Arabic or the closest example you can find, I does seem helpful. Even with vocabulary, some words are very unfamiliar to students and I do try to translate sometimes at the end after using body language gestures and all these.
Teacher negative attitude to the students' L1 use	
Negative transfer from L1	I just ask them guess the meaning in Arabic and sometimes they do and sometimes they give me a close word but not the exact word and I correct them. There are some Arabic counterparts especially in grammar and vocabulary
Teacher L2 use for classroom management- admonish late arrivals	<b>Sarah:</b> what do you think Mrs. <b>Ayisha</b> ? <b>Ayisha:</b> I think that the grammar translation method makes the students think in Arabic when they should speak and write in English
Student's preference for L2 for interpersonal relations functions	<b>Sarah:</b> you think that translating is not helpful for students <b>Ayisha:</b> it's not helpful. They should think in English. They should use the English sentence structures. Whenever I ask them about a wrong sentence one that is totally wrong they reply that it's written like this in Arabic. I want them to think in English even if there are some similarities, there are a lot of differences
Students L1 use for affective functions- confidence	<b>Lama:</b> I think it's mentioned that teachers switch to L1 when the students are late for class. I think that L2 should be used.
Students L1 use related to students' level of proficiency	I think that students like to use L2 more especially in communicating
Students L1 use for interpersonal functions	<b>Sarah:</b> you mean while discussing off-task activities? <b>Lama:</b> for off-task activities they are more encouraged to use English. I prefer to go with English not to use it in grammar but in socializing
Teacher L1 use for pedagogical functions-vocabulary	<b>Sarah:</b> so you agree that we should sometimes use the L1? <b>Lama:</b> No we should use the L2 English because I feel that they want to learn English because they want to use it in their daily communication
Teacher strategy	<b>Rana:</b> they want to use English but they feel comfortable talking in L1

Teacher L1 use for pedagogical functions- translation	<p><b>Ayisha:</b> depends on the level. If they are high-level students they like to use the L2 even when talking to the teacher</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> They have more confidence to use the L2?</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> Yes they are more willing to learn a foreign language they find it exciting but beginners feel that it's an obstacle so they try to use their L1 to communicate or to socialize with the teacher</p>
Teacher L1 use for pedagogical functions- instructions & grammar	<p><b>Sarah:</b> Are there other functions for using Arabic in the L2 classroom, beside the ones mentioned in the articles?</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> sometimes in teaching vocabulary if they don't know the exact meaning</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> after you jump and you</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> you use it as a last resort</p> <p><b>Rana:</b> maybe sometimes</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> sometimes and sometimes I translate it to them</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> you provide the translation?</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> Yeah</p>
Teacher L2 use for classroom management	<p><b>Sarah:</b> In Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005) study, one teacher code switched to Turkish to ensure that her students understood her instructions. Do you agree with the teacher's use of L1? Why/why not? One of the teachers used it to give instructions what do you think about that?</p>
Teacher L1 use for pedagogical functions- one-to-one explanation	<p><b>Lama:</b> yes sometimes instructions can be confusing you're talking about instructions?</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> yeah about giving instructions to students (Overlapping talk)</p>
Teacher strategy	<p><b>Ayisha:</b> especially grammar instructions maybe you can use the L1 to make sure they understand everything and they act accordingly</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> What do you think <b>Sally</b>?</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> with lower level students</p>
Teacher strategy	<p><b>Sarah:</b> but not with the higher-level students?</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> I personally I don't start with Arabic. For example I assign tasks in English.</p>
Students L1 use for curriculum access	<p>Once they start working on the task and I notice that one of the students is not following I will approach her speak to her in Arabic to ensure she understands</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> one-to-one interaction</p> <p><b>Sally:</b> one-to-one</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> you know what I do? When I assign a task if it's a group task I explain it to one group and let the group who understood the instructions to explain to the other groups</p>
Teacher's attitude towards the other teachers' use of L1	<p><b>Sarah:</b> you find it helpful?</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> sometimes</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> What do you think <b>Karima</b>?</p>

Teacher strategy	<p><b>Karima:</b> sometimes if they don't understand my instructions, I let the student who understands the instruction to explain it to them. This technique helps</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> peer learning is very effective in such cases</p> <p><b>Karima:</b> and sometimes they do it among themselves they would ask their classmate about what I had just said</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> yeah I usually hear a lot of noise from the back of class</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> so you allow them to explain to each other in Arabic?</p> <p><b>Karima:</b> Yes</p>
Teacher strategy- use of L1 as a last resort	<p><b>Ayisha:</b> yes sometimes</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> sometimes</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> they make such a noise</p>
Teachers' beliefs- Effect of FG	<p><b>Sarah:</b> but you accept it. Do you agree with Raschka, Sercombe, and Chi-Ling (2009) that CS was not consequence of insufficient English language competence on the part of the teachers?</p>
Teacher sense of guilt L1 is a common practice worldwide	<p>Teachers: Yes</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> do you agree with them that CS is not necessarily a sign of teachers' incompetence?</p> <p><b>Lama and Rana:</b> yes</p>
Teacher sense of guilt	<p><b>Sarah:</b> it's not a sign of the teacher's inability to conduct the whole lesson in English?</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> but the teacher has to use variety of techniques like acting dancing and jumping (Teachers laughed at <b>Ayisha's</b> comment)</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> and swimming</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> but if she exhausted all these options, she can then use the L1</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> actually there is perspectives continuum regarding the use of L1 that we are going to discuss in the following presentation.</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> good to know</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> Have your beliefs been influenced by the articles? Why or why not?</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> it's a relief to know that this practice is not wrong</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> yes when you feel that in other countries they have the same practice</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> yeah the same</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> I will present a study that was conducted in Saudi Arabia. So do you think the articles I presented influenced your beliefs about the use of Arabic?</p> <p><b>Karima:</b> just as Mrs. <b>Ayisha</b> said we feel more relaxed knowing that it's not just us</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> yes</p> <p><b>Rana:</b> and it's not just our students. Knowing that our</p>

	<p>students are not the problem</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> it's a worldwide practice in language classrooms such as Africa, Taiwan, China, Hong Kong, and in many other countries</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> what about Europe?</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> Yes and Europe. I'm going to present a study that was carried out in the south of England. Do you have any more comments to add?</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> Thank you very much for the presentation was very interesting</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> can we meet next Monday at 12:10? What do you think?</p> <p><b>Lama:</b> yes</p> <p><b>Karima:</b> Monday is good</p> <p><b>Ayisha:</b> same place</p> <p><b>Sarah:</b> Yeah. Thank you for your time</p>
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## Appendix 24: Sample Transcript of Post-interview

Comments	Full Transcription Lama (Saudi)
Effect of focus group related to teachers sense of guilt	I: How are you Mrs. Lama? L: I'm fine. How are you? I: I'm fine. Shall we start? L: OK.
Effect of focus group related to Teacher L1 use	I: Have you belief about the use of Arabic in teaching English been influenced by attending the focus group discussions? L: Yes
Effect of focus group related to teacher L1 use	I: In what way? What has changed? L: I've gone through a lot of processing (laugh). <b>It really opened my eyes.</b> You've presented some useful experiments about the use of L1 worldwide. So actually <b>I felt a bit relieved that using Arabic in English classes it doesn't really affect the students' performance.</b> However, I think that after attending the focus group sessions, <b>I minimized the use of Arabic in my classes</b>
Effect of focus group related to teacher L1 use	I: Why did you minimize the use of Arabic after attending the focus group discussions? L: Not really that much
Effect of Focus group	I: <b>After attending the focus groups, do you think that you should minimize the use of Arabic?</b> L: Yes
Effect of focus group	I: What influenced your decision to use less Arabic? Was there a particular article I presented that influenced you to take this decision? L: <b>Have you noticed that I reduced the amount of Arabic I use in class?</b>
Effect of Focus group	I: No, actually I haven't compared the amount of Arabic yet. So you think because of what we discussed during the focus groups, you should use less Arabic? L: Probably, yeah. For example, the session about vocabulary, that one was very insightful
Effect of focus group	I: Which session do you mean? Is it the session about glossing? L: Yeah, <b>the word should be explained with a picture and a text either in the first or second language</b>
Effect of focus group	I: Do you think the explanation should be provided in the first or second language? L: Of course, <b>the explanation should be in L2 with a picture to help the students</b>
Effect of focus group	I: During the focus group discussions, we discussed the functions of L1 in classroom. Some teachers use it to

Effect of focus group related to	<p>explain the lesson or the task, or sometimes to manage the classrooms, or to build rapport with the students. For what functions do you tend to use Arabic in your classes?</p> <p>L: using Arabic?</p> <p>I: Yes</p> <p>L: Actually my aim is to <b>minimise using Arabic regarding classroom management</b></p> <p>I: You prefer to start managing your class in the L2?</p> <p>L: Yes, using more <b>English is going to help the students to be more fluent in the language. It will help them use English in their daily life</b></p>
Teacher L1 use for pedagogical functions – effect of FG	<p>I: Do you think that you are going to explain grammar in English?</p> <p>L: <b>Before I used to explain grammar in Arabic, but now I explain it in English. So the students who don't understand, I go to them and explain it in person</b></p> <p>I: You mean one to one explanation and not to the whole class. You explain grammar to the weak students in Arabic, but for the rest of the class you prefer to use English</p> <p>L: Yes, unless the whole class don't really understand</p> <p>I: Then will you repeat the explanation in Arabic?</p> <p>L: <b>Yes, repeat it in Arabic</b></p> <p>I: In your opinion, what does the principled use of Arabic mean?</p> <p>L: The principled use?</p>
Teacher understanding of principled L1 use	<p>I: Yes, the principled or systematic use of Arabic, according to you, what does it mean?</p> <p>L: What do I think?</p> <p>I: Yes, what do you think?</p>
Teacher negative attitude to L1 use	<p>L: Do you want me to give you a percentage?</p> <p>I: No</p> <p>L: I think the <b>whole classroom should be conducted in English. But there are limits for students' comprehension. Then the teacher can be a bit flexible and use Arabic</b></p> <p>I: In your opinion, does the principled use of Arabic mean less use of Arabic?</p> <p>L: Yes, <b>less use of Arabic</b></p>
Teacher strategy – L1 as a last resort	<p>I: You think the class should be conducted in English. After attending the focus group discussions, in your classroom, which position are you going to follow: exclusive use of English, or use Arabic as a last resort, or use some Arabic in the classroom? Do you remember the continuum of perspectives that we discussed?</p>
Students preference for native English teacher	<p>L: Yes, I remember.</p> <p>I: Or do you prefer not follow any position?</p>

Native English teacher is best for higher level students	<p><b>L: I would use L1 as the last resort.</b> I won't use Arabic along with English to conduct the class. I won't use L1 to conduct the class. I would use it as a last resort</p> <p>I: Why do you think that Arabic should be used as a last resort?</p> <p>L: Actually because of my students. From experience. Once I asked the students about what their preference. I asked them whether they prefer a native English teacher to teach them English or not. <b>A lot of the students preferred to have native speakers</b></p> <p>I: You mean native speakers of English?</p> <p>L: Yes, <b>and when I asked them why, they said they wanted to learn English properly</b></p>
Non-native English teacher is best for lower level students	<p>I: What was the level of those students?</p> <p>L: Level 3 students</p> <p>I: Do you think that level 1 students would have the same preference?</p> <p>L: No, <b>level 1 students should be taught by non-native English teachers</b></p>
Native English teachers Vs. non- natives	<p>I: So you think that levels 1 and 2 should have native Arabic teacher while levels 3 and 4 should be taught by native English teachers</p> <p>L: Yes, but there should be a balance. <b>The characteristics of native-English teachers differ from the non-natives</b></p>
Career development	<p>I: What characteristics that differ between both groups?</p> <p>L: I mean in teaching, the techniques they use because actually the <b>native speakers know the structure of grammar</b> because it's their mother tongue. On the other hand, <b>the non-native English teachers learn the language. They know and they can predict what difficulties would face their students</b></p> <p>I: Because they went through the same process unlike the native English teachers who didn't</p> <p>L: Yes</p> <p>I: Do you think that it is better for the students to be taught by native- Arabic teachers?</p> <p>L: I think there should be a balance in the institution. <b>There should be a lot of conferences and workshops to show the teachers how to overcome the shortcomings of both groups. Native speakers for example should be trained how to teach grammar and non native speakers should be trained to be more fluent in English</b></p>
Effect of focus group related to career development	<p>I: You think both groups should be trained together to learn from each other</p> <p>L: Yes</p> <p>I: Do you think that conducting more focus groups would enlighten the teachers?</p> <p>L: Yes, definitely</p> <p>I: Do you think by conducting focus groups, teachers'</p>
Effect of focus group related to sense of guilt	

Teacher dispreference for some strategies	beliefs and practices can be changed? L: <b>Definitely, yes especially that the studies and experiments were carried out worldwide.</b> And there has been a lot of research done in the area. They take a lot of time and efforts to come up with results
Teacher L1 use related to lack of response & proficiency	I: On a personal level, do you think that attending the focus groups were helpful? L: <b>In teaching, yes it did. As I told you, they gave me a bit relief.</b> Was it the Thai study? I: Do you mean the study that was conducted in Taiwan? L: Maybe the Japanese study I: I presented studies that were conducted in Turkey, and China. Do you mean the last one that was carried in Iran? It was about the key method. Or do you mean the one about glossing L: Both I: The key method was carried out in Iran, while the glossing study was conducted in China L: Not the Iranian one definitely I: <b>You don't think that it's practical to teach vocabulary using the key method technique?</b> L: <b>No</b> I: What does influence your decision to use Arabic? L: <b>Frustration</b> I: Frustration. You mean lack of response from the students? L: <b>Yes. Also with weak students, they need lots of help</b> I: Do you tend to provide translation for the whole class or just the weak students in person? L: <b>I provide translation for the weak students, but the rest are allowed to listen</b> I: So you try to conduct the lesson in English then afterwards you explain to the weak ones in person L: Yes I: Do you plan in advance that you are going to use more, less, or the same amount of Arabic in your classes? L: <b>I plan not to use Arabic</b> I: You plan not to use Arabic even with beginners or repeaters L: I plan not to use it, <b>but I have students who don't show up for classes. I don't see them as much. I don't know their level of comprehension, so I speak with them in Arabic.</b> But with the rest of the students I don't do that I: You plan not to use Arabic in the class L: Yes, I try as much as I can not to use it I: Do you think that the module system is a constraint? L: Definitely yes. <b>I think that teachers shouldn't teach</b>
Teacher negative attitude to L1 use	
Teacher L1 use related to students absence	
Teacher should be teaching one or two skills	
Obstacles facing language teachers	
Reasons for assigning one skill to each teacher	



Effect of focus group related to less L1 use	<p><b>their students all the four skills. It's better to have a teacher for listening and speaking and another one for reading and writing</b></p> <p>I: You think that each instructor should only teach two skills</p> <p>L: Yes. <b>Actually each teacher should only teach one skill</b> especially the writing. <b>One teacher should be responsible for the writing. It takes so much time and effort to give back the correction to the students.</b> After I correct their papers, I discuss their mistake with them individually. I call each student and discuss the mistakes with her. I find very useful because it helps them improve <b>but we don't have time</b></p>
L2 use for socialising functions	<p>I: Because you have to teach the four skills, and you think that the teacher should be teaching one skill</p> <p>L: One or two skills</p> <p>I: Do think it can help the teacher to be more prepared or can give more feedback to students?</p>
Effect of focus group related to less L1 use	<p>L: I think the teacher should always be prepared whether she's teaching four or just one skill but of course <b>if she teaches one or two skills, she's going to be more prepared.</b> She'll be able to do more reading about the topics. When she tries to read about how to teach all the four skills it's going to take a lot of time</p> <p>I: Do you think that reading about teaching the four skill is exhaustive for the teacher?</p> <p>L: Mmm trying</p> <p>I: After attending the focus group discussions, are you u going to use more, less, or the same amount of Arabic with your students?</p> <p>L: <b>I think after the focus group, I'm going to use less Arabic</b></p>
Effect of focus group related to less L1 use	<p>I: Less Arabic</p> <p>L: Yes, I think the teacher should make more effort to conduct the class in English. <b>She can use some pictures</b> or any other techniques</p> <p>I: What about if she comes across an abstract word or notion. Do you think that pictures could be helpful in this case?</p> <p>L: Of course I have to explain it in English. <b>Give the students some examples to connect them with the real life</b></p> <p>I: To connect them with the culture of the target language?</p> <p>L: <b>Culture exactly</b></p> <p>I: After attending the focus group discussions, are you going to allow your students to use the same, more, or less amount of Arabic than before in your classroom?</p> <p>L: <b>I'll ask them to use more English</b></p>

	<p>I: Use more English and less Arabic</p> <p>L: Yes</p> <p>I: Is it because of the focus group you attended?</p> <p>L: The focus group made me think a lot about it, but I don't know which one exactly of them. I think it has influenced my beliefs about teaching English; <b>about using only English and less Arabic</b></p> <p>I: What about your students. Are you going to allow them to use Arabic?</p> <p>L: <b>I think the students will learn more effectively and efficiently if they use more English. I give them instruction not to use Arabic or to use less Arabic in class</b></p> <p>I: Do you have any comment to add?</p> <p>L: Thank you for holding focus groups</p> <p>I: Thank you for attending the focus groups. I hope that they were enlightening</p> <p>L: They were</p> <p>I: Thank you so much</p>
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## Appendix 25: Sample Transcript of Post-Observation

Comment	Transcription
	<p><b>Karima (Saudi) Level: 4 No. of Students: 16</b>  <b>Date: 6-5-2013 Time: 8:20 – 09:15</b></p>
Student L1 use to give vocabulary meaning	<p>45:20 – 45:53  Karima: In number 1 it says: read the following quotation. What does quotation mean?  Students: quotation mark  Karima: Yes where you use quotation mark?  Student: <b>Eqtibas</b> (quotation)  Karima: Very good. Excellent. So a quotation is a group of words taken out of a text or a book. All right? So it says here: read the following quotation</p>
Student L1 use to give vocabulary meaning	<p>46:20 – 47:16  Karima: “Only when the last tree has died; and the last river has been poisoned; and the last fish has been caught; will we realize we can’t eat money” So what does poison mean before we discuss the meaning of the quotation?  Poisoned. It says here: and the last river has been poisoned  (Short silence)  Karima: Does anyone know what does poison mean?  Students: try  Karima: No not try  (Short silence)  Karima: If someone has poison by mistake, he dies  Students: (unintelligible answer)  Karima: No I’ll give another example: some snakes are poisonous  Students: <b>sam</b> (poisonous)  Karima: Very good. Excellent. So it says here</p>
Teacher induced the use of L1 to get the learners to translate into L1	<p>48:08 - 48:45  Karima: Do you know what Native American means? Do you know where they come from Native Americans? Do you know who those people are?  Students: No  Karima: Native Americans are the people who used to live in America before the British and the Europeans moved to America so what do we call them in Arabic?  Students: <b>al-honood alhomr</b> (The Red Indians)  Karima: Yes very good Red Indians OK? So what do you think this quotation means?</p>

